

# Peer Review Practice, Student Identity, and Success in a First-Year Writing Pilot Curriculum: An Equity-Minded Analysis

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Analytics

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## Structured Abstract

- **Background:** This article applies an equity-minded approach (McNair et al., 2020) to examine the feedback practices of first-year writing students enrolled in a pilot curriculum that used the Eli Review software application to facilitate peer review learning.
- **Literature Review:** Drawing upon extant research in writing analytics, peer review pedagogies in writing instruction, and equity and opportunity in higher education, this study responds to calls for writing program administrators to connect data with identity markers such as gender, ethnicity, or race, so as to improve upon the writing programs that they lead (Reese et al., 2018).
- **Research Questions:** This study pursues four main categories of research questions. The first three research question categories examine one pairwise relationship among the constructs of practice, success, and identity: (1) Is there a relationship between the amount of practice student writers exercise in peer review and their success in a first-year writing course? (2) Is there a relationship between the amount of practice student writers exercise in peer review and their various identity markers? (3) Is there a relationship between the success of student writers in a first-year writing course and their various identity markers? The fourth research question category investigates the

interaction among practice, success, and identity variables, asking: (4) Is there a linear regression model that can strongly account for the influence of practice and identity on success in the pilot curriculum?

- **Methodology:** To answer this study's four categories of research questions, peer feedback word count data and student record information were obtained and linked. Data for 753 students were connected, consolidated, filtered, and de-identified before being cleaned and coded for analysis. A range of statistical analyses were used on the data sets, including tests for correlation (bivariate nonparametric tests), tests for significant difference (independent samples *t* tests and one-way analysis of variance tests), tests for independence (chi-square tests), and tests for prediction (hierarchical multiple linear regressions).
- **Results:** Significant results were obtained in each of the four research question categories. A positive correlation was identified between student practice (indicated by a word count total for feedback given on Eli Review) and success (indicated by a numerical value for final course grade). As the total word count in feedback given on Eli Review increased, so too did students' grades. Significant difference between practice and identity was revealed as occurring between female and male students as well as between White and non-White students. Results indicate that the average word count total for feedback given on Eli Review for the first identity-based grouping in each of the aforementioned pairs was significantly greater than that of the second identity-based grouping. Significant variance was also suggested when the seven identity-based variables in the ethnicity or racial identity category were disaggregated. Two ethnic or racial groups could be understood as practicing at a significantly higher average amount than a third group. Significant association was further revealed between gender identity and final course grade distribution, meaning that different gender identities received certain final course grades in a frequency more likely than would otherwise be expected. Finally, various linear regression models were constructed in an attempt to explain final course grade in terms of students' total word count given in feedback on Eli Review and in terms of students' demographic information. In the model with the most explanatory power, the word count total possessed significance as a predictor variable, while various identity variables did not.
- **Discussion:** By examining the relationships among the three constructs, this study suggests three important findings. First, with respect to gender identity, all three constructs are tightly constellated when examined pairwise, and the correlation between practice and success seems to manifest itself in the final

course grade distribution: When compared to students who identify as male, students who identify as female write more words in peer feedback and were more likely to earn an A final course grade than would otherwise be expected. Second, with respect to ethnicity or racial identity, the pairwise correlation does not manifest in a statistically significant relationship between identity variable and course final grade—despite the fact that there were statistically significant differences and variance between and among ethnicity and racial identity grouping for average word count. Third, when the variables of identity and practice are examined together and alongside the confounding variable of student cumulative grade point average, the variable of identity—whether understood as gender identity, racial identity, nationality, or student population identity—does not possess a statistically significant ability to explain final course grade in the pilot curriculum. However, in this same multivariate model, the variable that describes the quantity of student practice does retain statistical significance and, therefore, retains some ability to explain variance in students’ final course grades in the pilot curriculum. These three findings suggest the importance of peer review feedback to student success and also the need for further research that examines the quantity of peer feedback in terms of the quality of that feedback.

- **Conclusions:** This study connects extant research on two types of gaps—the first gap emerging from identity-based differences in post-secondary student performance and the second gap emerging from practice-based differences in student writing performance. By linking these two lines of inquiry, this study suggests the presence of text-equity gaps that (1) occur in low-stakes, practice-based conditions and (2) are differentiated by student identity groupings. Because of their connections to student success, these text gaps require redress: Writing instructors, writing program administrators, and writing analytics researchers need to identify ways to intervene in and improve upon students’ writing practice to increase student learning and improve student writing.

*Keywords:* equity, first-year writing, identity, peer review, practice, success, writing analytics

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## 1.0 Background

In the context of post-secondary education, the term *success* can be slippery—one that elides easy, straightforward definition, but one that appears ubiquitously in discussions about student outcomes and opportunities, performance and persistence, access and retention. And, as Powell (2013) elucidates, the discourses of access and retention, performance and persistence, and outcomes and opportunities impact the first-year writing classroom—its students, its teachers, its

researchers, and its administrators. Acknowledging that these discourses can be exclusionary to the point of extinguishing opportunities for students who identify with non-dominant cultures, races, or language practices (Powell, 2009, 2013), Powell encourages writing teachers to seek “opportunities of the moment” (2013, p. 13) in their classrooms. The pedagogy that Powell endorses is a pedagogy of the “here-and-now” (Kahn, 2014; cf. Powell, 2013, p. 118), and it is one that positions the writing teacher, first, as responsible for all students’ learning in the first-year writing classroom and, second, as committed “to working toward a writing pedagogy informed by best practices in composition studies, including those practices that remove unnecessary barriers to success” (Powell, 2013, p. 18). As Powell’s remarks make clear, the work of the writing teacher involves a commitment to student success: Helping students succeed is part of the work of teaching writing. To remove the barriers to student success and help students succeed, writing teachers, writing researchers, and writing program administrators (WPAs) need to exercise an equity-minded perspective—that is, they must consider the ways in which privilege, power, and policy advantage certain students and disadvantage other students; they must also carry out their work in a way that prioritizes fair treatment and just action.

Equity should thus be prioritized in writing program administration, and, as a number of recent pieces of scholarship emphasize, equity should also be prioritized in writing analytics research. Cushman (2019) and Gere (2019) both observe that writing analytics research can help strive for fairness and justice by revealing patterns of inequities that may then be dismantled to bring about increased opportunity for student learning. Writing analytics research possesses a revelatory potential, and it does so because of its focus on making sense of large-scale data. Duin and Tham (2020) translate this potential for change into an *imperative* for change, writing that “WPAs and instructors must learn to use available data to better understand student engagement and not penalize those who are disadvantaged” (p. 19). This imperative echoes the conclusion by Reese et al. (2018) that “inclusion of diverse perspectives in information interpretation and use is critical to the planning work of WPAs as they engage digital platforms” (p. 130). The notion, here, is that, in order to bring about more fair and more just student learning opportunities, writing program administrators should undertake large-scale, data-driven research on their programs and on their programs’ use of digital platforms. This research should further approach programmatic data in a way that is equity mined, or sensitive to the operation of unearned advantage. Indeed, as McNair et al. (2020) show, “data can be an indispensable tool to uncover where equity gaps exist and inform the specific steps that can be taken to close them” (p. 54). The keys to using data to redress inequity and increase opportunity to learn are an openness to disaggregating data and a willingness to use an understanding of data to transform educational practice (McNair et al., 2020). Data derived from writing analytics research can thus be used to change writing program practice and increase opportunity for writing students.

Thus, this study can be understood alongside recent calls for writing program administrators to use equity-minded approaches to analyzing data. Crucially important to an understanding of the equity-minded approach adopted in this study is the context from which this study emerges.

As such, background specific to the co-authors' institution and the peer review software product that their first-year writing program uses is presented in the remainder of this section.

### 1.1 Institutional Background

Located in Kalamazoo, Michigan, United States, Western Michigan University is a public, doctoral-granting university that enrolls just under 22,000 students and is classified by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching as having high research activity and a commitment to community engagement.

Enrollment data from the 2019-2020 academic year describes an admissions policy that yields a first-time, first-year cohort of students who enter college with solid academic performances. The cohort displays parity with respect to gender, but is predominantly White. For the 2019-2020 academic year, Western Michigan University accepted 79.9 percent of students who applied for admission to the university and welcomed 2,919 first-time, first-year students. These students maintained an average GPA of 3.47 in high school and reported an average SAT composite score of 1106.5 ( $N = 2,379$ ) and an average ACT composite score of 22.5 ( $N = 833$ ). Of these students, 50.3 percent ( $N = 1,467$ ) identified as male and 48.9 percent ( $N = 1,426$ ) identified as female. A total of 72.1 percent ( $N = 2,106$ ) of first-time, first-year students identified as White non-Hispanic, 8.7 percent ( $N = 253$ ) of students identified as Black or African American, 7.1 percent ( $N = 207$ ) of students identified as Hispanic/Latino, 4.9 percent ( $N = 144$ ) of students identified as two or more races, non-Hispanic, 4.2 percent ( $N = 122$ ) of students identified as nonresident aliens, and 1.7 percent ( $N = 50$ ) of students identified as Asian. Less than one percent of first-time, first-year students identified as American Indian or Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, or indicated that their race and/or ethnicity was unknown. This enrollment information about Western Michigan University's 2019-2020 first-year student cohort offers context for understanding this study, which emerged from a pilot of a significantly revised first-year writing curriculum in the same academic year.

Western Michigan University has historically offered one first-year writing course that fulfilled a general education proficiency area requirement in college-level writing for its students. Approximately 70 percent of Western Michigan University's first-year students enroll in a section of this first-year writing course. Each course section enrolls 21 students, and about 100 sections of the course, divided between fall and spring semesters, are offered each year. These sections are predominantly staffed by graduate teaching assistants studying literature and language, creative writing, and English education and by part-time instructors, most of whom possess significant classroom teaching experience. Only a small portion of these courses ( $N = 6$ ) are typically offered in hybrid or online formats per year. In addition to the 100 sections of the semester-long first-year writing course, Western Michigan University's first-year writing program also offers a small number ( $N = 6$ ) of intensive course sections (cf. Perryman-Clark, 2016, 2018; Redding et al., 2016, 2019) and about a dozen sections of a basic writing course.

The 2018-2019 academic year brought intense, campus-wide planning for a major revision to Western Michigan University's general education curriculum and, in turn, a re-envisioning of the

first-year writing course. The course's structure, title, outcomes, and pedagogical approach were all substantially redesigned, and a version of the redesigned course was piloted in the 2019-2020 academic year. The pilot curriculum emerged from the recommendations of 15 program staff members who served on curriculum redesign task force teams. These task force teams developed recommendations for the adoption of new course materials as well as assessments of previously adopted course materials, including the Eli Review peer review and feedback software application. The present study seeks to analyze this digital peer review platform's use by students and its impact on their success in their first-year writing course.

## 1.2 Product Background

Eli Review is a subscription-based digital platform designed to facilitate peer learning by managing writing, reviewing, and revising tasks and by providing instructors with real time data about their students' peer review practices (Hart-Davidson et al., 2010). Developed by Hart-Davidson, Grabill, and McLeod, Eli Review subscriptions can be purchased at three-month, six-month, or twelve-month access increments by either students or institutions at tiered rates (Eli Review, 2020). The platform, as Ching and Wittstock (2019) describe it, "foregrounds formative assessment, the role of feedback in revision, and specific forms of teacher intervention in the process" (p. 179).

Eli Review allows for the creation and sequence of three types of tasks: (1) writing tasks, (2) review tasks, and (3) revision tasks. Each task must be assigned to students by an instructor, and each task type typically occurs in sequence (cf. Ching & Wittstock, 2019, pp. 167-170). Writing tasks can be thought of as prompts or assignments that prod students to produce text. Review tasks enable the writer's peers to respond to the text created during a writing task. Review tasks must occur after and be linked to specific writing tasks. Finally, revision tasks provide the original writer with the chance to take in the feedback received from peers during a review task and to plan revisions based upon this feedback. Revision tasks usually occur after and are linked to one or more review tasks for a single writing task.

The focus of this study is feedback from reviews. Each review task can be structured differently, depending upon instructional aims. Review tasks may be assigned to individuals, where pairs of students review each other's writing, or to groups, where multiple individuals review the writing of two or more peers each. Review groups can be matched deliberately or assigned randomly. Settings allow instructors to decide whether or not the review will occur anonymously and to determine what feedback features will be enabled. Eli Review allows peer reviewers to provide feedback to writers using contextual comments, which are inserted into the text at specific locations; final comments, which are offered in a summative fashion at the end of the piece; trait identifications, which are featured as a checklist; and scaled responses, which are presented as Likert-style rating items. Eli Review stores this feedback and offers data about this feedback to both instructors and students, so that engagement and activity can be analyzed (cf. Ching & Wittstock, 2019, p. 169). Importantly, the first two feedback features encourage

reviewers to deliver their feedback to their peers through written commentary, enabling instructors and students to study and learn from patterns of written feedback.

Western Michigan University's first-year writing course was, in 2014, an early adopter of Eli Review. However, the revision to the first-year writing course, precipitated by the revisions to the general education curriculum, resulted in the need for much more consistent use of Eli Review across first-year writing course sections. The co-authors along with other members of the first-year writing leadership team developed a sequence of 16 writing tasks that corresponded to the pilot curriculum. These tasks were accompanied by a uniform set of review task prompts. While the writing task prompts provided students with a target word count or length for their writing (e.g., 3 sentences, 400-600 words, or 4 pages), the review task prompts suggested a minimum number of comments (e.g., 4 comments total = 3 contextual comments + 1 final comment). In this way, the Eli Review prompts for review tasks did not recommend a target word count for the feedback student reviewers provided to student writers.

The 2019-2020 pilot of the new course curriculum and the uniform set of Eli Review writing and review tasks encouraged an evaluation of the peer review practice as facilitated by Eli Review and its relationship to student identity and student success. As such, this study investigates the following four questions:

1. Is there a relationship between the amount of practice student writers exercise in peer review and their success in a first-year writing course?
2. Is there a relationship between the amount of practice student writers exercise in peer review and their various identity markers?
3. Is there a relationship between the success of student writers in a first-year writing course and their various identity markers?
4. Is there a linear regression model that can strongly account for the influence of practice and identity on success in the pilot curriculum?

## 2.0 Literature Review

In many post-secondary writing classrooms, opportunities for students to review the work of their classmates and provide formative feedback on that writing abound. This exchange of peer feedback about in-process writing pieces is commonly referred to as peer review (cf. Armstrong & Paulson, 2008). And, although the pedagogy of peer review has ingrained itself into many college writing classrooms and often in a way that is facilitated by a digital software application (cf. Anderson, 2003; Breuch, 2004; Cho & Schunn, 2010; Moxley, 2012; Pritchard & Morrow, 2017; Wilson et al., 2015), the literature on peer review and peer feedback still grapples with questions related to the efficacy of this pedagogical strategy. The question that writing teachers and writing program administrators struggle with is, as Paton (2002) observes, a question of peer review and its "tangible benefits" (p. 291): Does peer review lead to benefits for students and in student writing? Increasingly, studies have begun to examine the efficacy of the peer review practice through an equity-based lens that considers differences in peer review efficacy alongside variation in student identity.

Discussions about peer review have long focused on the novelty of this pedagogical strategy in the way that it arranges students and creates opportunities for their learning (Golub, 2005; Herrington & Cadman, 1991; Huisman et al., 2019; Patchan et al., 2009; Paton, 2002). Peer review is so distinctive in its arrangement of students and also in its output of student feedback that scholars argue peer review should be understood and taught as its own genre (Parfitt, 2012; Reid, 2014) and that students should receive instruction on giving and receiving feedback (Carless & Boud, 2018; Reid, 2014). Parfitt (2012), for one, argues that peer review should be viewed “as a genre for academic knowledge transference” (p.2), and this sentiment is supported and extended by Reid (2014), who recommends that peer review be understood and taught as a “crucial genre” (pp. 218, 230). By teaching peer review—and, especially, the reviewer commentary called peer feedback—as a typified yet flexible kind of written response, Reid suggests that the metacognitive benefits of peer review will become more apparent to students. Reid’s goal of teaching peer review in order to facilitate student metacognition approximates Carless and Boud’s (2018) goal of cultivating feedback literacy among students. Such feedback literacy should encourage students to value feedback, deliberate on feedback, manage attitudes about feedback, and act upon the feedback (Carless & Boud, 2018). Both Reid and Carless and Boud contend that such metacognitive feedback literacy is promoted when students are asked to write feedback, study model feedback, and engage in cyclical or sequential task design.

Recent research has also demonstrated that the benefits of peer review and peer feedback extend to and, in fact, are greater for the student giving feedback than for the student receiving feedback. Hart-Davidson and Meeks (in press) name this phenomenon “giver’s gain,” and they are not alone in observing this phenomenon. Reese et al. (2018) join a growing number of researchers who endorse the presence of giver’s gain, when they note that the benefit of peer review “is not one sided” (p. 100). Likewise, Xiong et al. observe “that the process of providing feedback leads to improvements in the feedback-providers’ own writing” (2012, pp. 156-157). This observation finds support in the work of Wooley et al. (2008) and Cho and Schunn (2010). Further, Lundstrom and Baker provide some of the most recent, most resounding, and most widely referenced evidence of giver’s gain in their 2009 study of 91 students, divided into two groups: those who gave peer feedback and those who received peer feedback. Ultimately, Lundstrom and Baker found “that students taught to give peer feedback improve in their own writing abilities more than students taught to use peer feedback,” which implies that “the act of providing feedback may also improve student writing and may be the most beneficial aspect of peer review” (p. 38). What is more is that differences between feedback givers and feedback receivers occurred at a beginning proficiency level (Lundstrom & Baker, 2009). Ultimately, by linking the practice of peer review to improved writing performance, these studies offer a basis for further examining two of the main constructs in the current study—practice and success.

Additionally, research on peer review and its benefits for students has more deliberately considered the parity of peer review performances among different identity-based student groupings. Questions concerning the relationship between peer review practice and student

identity should, as Flynn (2011) makes clear, be foregrounded in contemporary studies of peer review in the writing classroom.

Indeed, differences in student peer review practices according to gender identity have been studied by Johnson and Yang (1989), Johnson (1992), Johnson and Roen (1992), Brammer and Rees (2007), and, most recently, Reese et al. (2018). For the most part, these studies detect significant difference in aspects of the peer feedback given by female students when compared to feedback given by male students. Female graduate students, for instance, tended to use more intensifiers and more personal references in the compliments they provided in their feedback, and they also tended to make more use of a bookended compliment strategy in their feedback than did males (Johnson & Roen, 1992). Moreover, when compared to their male counterparts, female undergraduate students reported that their peer feedback was more helpful and more polite (Reese et al., 2018).

The research on differences in student peer review according to language identity has been much more robust, although not necessarily more conclusive. Much of this research focuses on L2 learners, or non-native English speakers (Allen & Katayama, 2016; Ferris, 2003; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Leijen & Leontjeva, 2012; Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Mangelsdorf, 1992), and some of this research frames inquiry questions comparatively, testing constructs as manifested in the performance of L1 learners, or native English speakers, against those tested in L2 learners (Anderson et al., 2010). Notably, although the research that focuses on the construct of language identity often presents the research in a global context (cf. Anderson et al., 2010), these studies largely do not focus on the construct of nationality.

With the exception of the 2018 study by Reese et al., research studies that explore differences in peer review practices according to racial identity or ethnicity are scant. Reese et al. (2018) have suggested that significant differences do exist between students who identify with different racial groupings when they are asked to share their perceptions of the peer review feedback they give their peers in terms of its politeness, kindness, and encouragement. Nonetheless, neither racial identity nor ethnicity have been sustained focal areas within research on peer review practice.

Across all of these studies, the question seems to be: How varied is the giving and the gaining associated with peer review when examined according to different student identity groupings? Indeed, Hart-Davidson and Meeks (in press) foreground this question and the implications it has for fairness, justness, and equity in the writing classroom when they note that “[e]vidence puts a premium on equal opportunity to give rather than receive feedback as a key to writer improvement.” For Hart-Davidson and Meeks, peer review pedagogy, giver’s gain, fairness, and equity are interconnected: “To practice fair pedagogy,” Hart-Davidson and Meeks assert, “instructors should teach helpful feedback and assign enough reviews that the weakest reviewers can improve.” This study is, therefore, interested in examining the benefits of student peer review practice as it occurs on the subscription-based Eli Review peer review platform and the relationship of this practice to student identity and student success.

### 3.0 Research Questions

The review of the literature led to the formation of four groups of questions investigating relationships between student writers' practice, success, and identity.

### 3.1 Constructs

The three concepts investigated by this study—practice, success, and identity—are extraordinarily complex phenomena that can be defined and measured in many ways. For the purpose of this study, the co-authors define the three concepts under investigation in a manner that, while simplistic from some perspectives, is deliberate from the perspective that this study contributes to an emerging, rather than a well-established, body of research. To be sure, each construct is measured in a way that flattens out complexity in service of taking a first step toward understanding the relationships between practice, success, and identity.

#### 3.1.1 Practice

The construct of *practice* refers to the cumulative total of words produced in peer review feedback throughout one semester of first-year writing. Think, here, of an analogy that compares writing and athletics (cf. Borgman & McArdle, 2019; Hart-Davidson & Meeks, in press; Zoellner, 1969, p. 282). By this analogy, the practice quantity considered in this study would be the equivalent of other practice quantities in athletics—for instance, the total number of swings taken in golf or even baseball practice, the total number of free throws shot in basketball practice, or the total number of miles ran in track practice. The quantity of practice is, therefore, indicative of a cumulative total during a set time period. It describes the amount of club swinging, bat swinging, free-throw shooting, or running the athlete performed in a season. Omizo has referred to this indicator as a “blunt measure” that “can give instructors a rough baseline to approach reviews” in *Eli Review* (Eli Review, 2016). Extending Omizo’s point, Hart-Davidson and Meeks (in press) explain that the measure of word count attends to the quantity and intensity of practice; intensity is dependent, to a degree, upon frequency of practice, but it does not necessarily indicate the quality of that practice. While the co-authors follow the Eli Review research and development team in recognizing the importance of quality to the writing-related practice that students enact in peer review, an examination of feedback quality sits beyond the scope of the present study.

#### 3.1.2 Success

In the context of this study, the construct of *success* refers to the final grade given to the student writers at the end of the term. Western Michigan University uses an eight-point grading scale (A, BA, B, CB, C, DC, D, E; respectively 4.0, 3.5, 3.0, 2.5, 2.0, 1.5, 1.0, 0.0), where the grade of A/4.0 connotes outstanding performance in the course and the highest level of success in achieving the learning outcomes. Conversely, the grade of E/0.0 connotes the lowest level of performance in the course and a failure to achieve the student learning outcomes. To return to the analogy of an athletic performance, the course grade refers to the finishing place, shot percentage, or batting average of the athlete, where athletes who earn the same grade effectively

end their competition in a tie. The use of a final course grade as an indicator of success is a necessarily narrow, if not oversimplified, quantification; this study does not define student success in terms of graduation rates, workforce placements, engagement indicators, personal dispositions, or any number of other indicators used in other studies (c.f. National Postsecondary Education Cooperative). Rather, this study adopts a programmatic perspective, as it examines the final grades awarded in an initial pilot semester of a new curriculum as a measure of first-year student success in first-year writing.

### **3.1.3 Identity**

Finally, for this study, the construct of *identity* can be understood in terms of the personal descriptors that students report to Western Michigan University upon admission to the university. These descriptors—including gender identity, ethnicity or racial identity, nationality, and student population status—are recorded by Western Michigan University as student information. To continue with the athletic metaphor, these pieces of information describe the athletes. They identify who is swinging, batting, shooting, or running. Of course, the small amount of information maintained by the university does not encompass any one student's complete or composite identity. These identity descriptors do, however, enable the current study to look for patterns in data and assess equitable practices in the program's pilot curriculum.

## **3.2 Research Question Categories**

This study investigates four categories of research questions. Each of the first three categories of questions focuses on the relationships between a particular pairing of the study's three constructs: practice, success, and identity. The fourth category of questions focuses on the interaction or interrelationship between the practice and identity variables and their ability to account for student success in the pilot curriculum.

### **3.2.1 Practice and Success**

The first category of research questions that this study examines is one that considers two measures of student performance—total word count of feedback provided by individual students to their peers via Eli Review as practice and final course grade as success. As such, this category of questions interrogates the relationship between the level of practice exhibited by students on the Eli Review platform and their final course grades.

***RQ1: Is there a relationship between the amount of practice student writers exercise in peer review and their success in a first-year writing course?***

### **3.2.2 Practice and Identity**

The second category of research questions that this study examines is one that considers the level of student practice in terms of various student identity markers. This category of questions compares practice levels among student identity groupings—including gender identity, ethnicity

or racial identity, nationality, and student population identity. Thus, these questions are concerned with equity.

***RQ2: Is there a relationship between the amount of practice student writers exercise in peer review and their various identity markers?***

### ***3.2.3 Success and Identity***

The third category of research questions focuses on success and any connections to identity. This category of questions triangulates the study's constructs, leaving out a consideration of practice but focusing on equitable outcomes between different gender identities, ethnic or racial identities, national identities, and student population identities.

***RQ3: Is there a relationship between the success of student writers in a first-year writing course and their various identity markers?***

### ***3.2.4 Success as Explained by Identity and Practice***

The fourth category of research questions focuses on the ability of the identity and practice variables to explain the outcome variable of success in the first-year writing pilot curriculum. This category of questions comparatively analyzes different linear models and their features to evaluate the degree to which the identity variables of gender, race, ethnicity, nationality, and student population as well as the practice variable of total word count in Eli Review feedback given might be understood as predicting students' final course grades.

***RQ4: Is there a linear regression model that can strongly account for the influence of practice and identity on success in the pilot curriculum?***

## **4.0 Research Methodology**

As this study was interested in examining peer review practice, student identity, and success in the pilot year of a newly designed first-year writing curriculum, the study was designed to connect two readily available data sets—Eli Review usage data and student records—that could be obtained, connected, filtered, cleaned, analyzed, and used to inform planning for the full launch of the revised curriculum in Fall 2020. As such, this research methodology actualizes the type of study that Palmquist (2019) describes as drawing upon data from an instructional software program and analyzing that data alongside student demographic data.

### **4.1 Statement of Ethical Conduct of Research**

This study was submitted for administrative review by the Western Michigan University Institutional Review Board as project number 20-03-05. The board approved this study as exempt, since the study used data obtained in an educational setting and subsequently de-identified that data for analysis.

### **4.2 Data Sources**

This study unites data from two software applications. The first application is Eli Review, the platform for which first-year writing students purchase a subscription as part of their course materials fee, while the second application is Cognos Analytics, the platform that the university uses to manage institutional research and student record information.

#### ***4.2.1 Eli Review Usage Information***

Eli Review usage information came from two sources from within the Eli Review application: a downloadable “Comment Volume Report” and a course-specific task dashboard.

**4.2.1.1 Eli Review Comment Volume Report.** First, Eli Review offers instructors a number of analytic functions and data download options for each of their course sections. Instructors can, for instance, download all of the writing that was submitted by students in a particular course section to complete an Eli Review writing task. Moreover, instructors can download a “Comment Digest” that provides the feedback text that was exchanged by peer reviewers during a particular review task. This study makes use of a different and less granular data download—one that is called the “Comment Volume Report.” The “Comment Volume Report” provides task-separated word count totals for each student, as well as task-separated, class-wide word count totals. This report also offers a point-in-time report of the total number of words in feedback that each individual student provides to peers. Any student who established an Eli Review account and associated that account with a particular first-year writing course section would appear on this report, so long as they participated in at least one task. At the end of the term, then, this point-in-time cumulative total conveys the total number of words each student wrote during peer review for the term. This count of total comment volume for the course is akin to the total amount of practice an athlete invests in a complete season, and this data download served as the measure of practice for the current study. When aggregated across course sections, these “Comment Volume Reports” offer data about the quantity of feedback practice performed by 1,224 student accounts in the Fall 2019 term.

**4.2.1.2 Eli Review Task Dashboard.** Second, Eli Review uses a task dashboard as the home page or landing page for each unique course section that uses Eli Review. This landing page uses time-date stamps and titles to profile the sequencing of writing tasks, review tasks, and revision tasks. The task sequence can be established in one Eli Review course section and copied into other course sections. In its pilot year, Western Michigan University’s first-year writing courses all began the term using a copy of a master writing task, review task, and revision task sequence. The master task sequence consisted of a total of 16 write-and-review task cycles, some of which were optional and some of which included review tasks. By term’s end, the Eli Review task dashboard indicated which course sections had maintained the curricular sequence and also which course sections had deviated from the curricular sequence. As such, the task dashboard provides the current study with an important inclusionary criterion. To be included in the study, each course section needed to have demonstrated that students used Eli Review at a level of frequency and in a sequence that maintained fidelity to the pilot curriculum, as well as in a proportion that contributed no more than 10 percent toward students’ final course grade. Of the

60 sections of first-year writing offered in the 2019 fall term, 44 sections sustained a sequencing, a frequency, and a weighting of Eli Review tasks that met curricular expectations. These 44 course sections assigned at least 12 write-and-review cycles at appropriate times in the term, with the majority of these sections ( $N = 23$ ) assigning either 15 or 16 cycles. Moreover, these courses configured their write-and-review cycles as low-stakes writing assignments: Completing these cycles contributed 10 percent, at most, to students' final course grades. A listing of these 44 course sections was made for subsequent filtering of data points.

#### ***4.2.2 Student Record Information***

Student information about success and identity came from Western Michigan University's records and data reporting software system, which is currently IBM's enterprise platform Cognos Analytics.

Among the hundreds of reports that Western Michigan University's Office of Institutional Research has structured for accessing data about course enrollment and student performance is a report titled "Student List by Course." This report can be filtered by term and provides robust data on all students who enroll in a particular course number. Among the data points that are included on this report are the names of students, the names of their instructor of record, their enrollment status, their course registration status, their final course grade, their cumulative grade point average, their student population status, their gender, their ethnicity, and their nationality. Thus, when run to output Fall 2019 first-year writing course data, this one report provides the data with which this study examines student success and student identity.

The initial report yielded 1,302 student records for the 2019 fall sections of first-year writing. Among these 1,302 student records, however, it is important to note that some records duplicate student information and other records are incomplete. Duplication occurs in instances where a student switched first-year writing course sections once the term began. Incomplete records might be missing student record information or student final grade information. In the former case, student record information might not have been communicated by the student to the university—for example, when a student chooses not to provide the university with information about their ethnicity or racial identity. In the latter case, final grade information would be missing for the original records of students who, at midterm, applied to and were accepted into an intensive section of first-year writing. Once accepted into this new course section, some three dozen or so students receive a final grade in their new section of first-year writing but are not officially "Withdrawn" from their original section of first-year writing. Also of note, this report lists all sections of the first-year writing course, including one hybrid section, three online sections, three honors sections, and the three aforementioned intensive sections. Not all of these sections were involved in the pilot of the new curriculum. As such, not all of the student records included in this report are germane to the current study.

#### **4.3 Data Connection, Consolidation, Filtering, and De-Identification**

Having obtained data from Eli Review and from Cognos Analytics and having created a list of 44 course sections that maintained the recommended curricular sequencing, frequency, and weighting, data were connected, consolidated, filtered, and de-identified.

#### ***4.3.1 Connection***

The two reports of data—one containing the cumulative word count of peer feedback that 1,224 students wrote and one containing final grade, cumulative grade point, and demographic information for 1,302 students—were first connected. Working from the two existing reports, a spreadsheet was created that joined the two data sets and created one record for each individual student. The student's name, university email address, and the name of the student's instructor of record were used to verify the connection between the existing data points and provided the basis for the creation of the new combined record. The resulting data set contained complete records for 1,212 first-year students.

#### ***4.3.2 Consolidation***

The set of 1,212 records was then reviewed, and any duplicate records were consolidated. Duplicate records occurred very infrequently—most often when a student had switched sections of first-year writing in the early weeks of the term and had, therefore, established Eli Review data associated with each course section. In these instances, multiple records for the same student were reconciled and consolidated to create a single record for that student.

#### ***4.3.3 Filtering***

After the data were linked to create one combined record for each unique student who enrolled in the first-year writing course in fall of 2019 and who created an account with Eli review, the data were filtered to contain only the records associated with the 44 course sections that maintained fidelity to the pilot curriculum in terms of Eli Review task sequence and frequency. The focus of the study was, again, on the impact of practice and identity on student success in a pilot curriculum; thus, the data from course sections that did not meet the inclusionary criteria of sequencing, frequency, and weighting were separated from the course sections that did meet the inclusionary criteria. After applying this filter and focusing only on the 44 course sections that maintained fidelity to the pilot curriculum, the data set consisted of records for 753 unique students.

#### ***4.3.4 De-Identification***

Having been filtered for curricular fidelity, the resulting records for 753 unique students were de-identified to maintain student confidentiality. The de-identification process involved the deletion of student names and the removal of their email addresses and university identification numbers from the data set. Information about the students' course section numbers and their instructors of record were also removed from the data set at this stage of the research project.

## **4.4 Data Cleaning and Coding**

After the Eli Review report data were connected with the Cognos Analytics report data, consolidated to avoid duplication, filtered for curricular fidelity, and de-identified to maintain confidentiality, further cleaning and coding of the data was required. The cleaning process varied depending upon the research question type and subsequently yielded different sample sizes upon which analysis occurred. The coding strategies anticipated the specific statistical analyses that were to be run of the data. The data cleaning and coding processes for each of the three types of research questions are detailed below.

### ***4.4.1 Cleaning and Coding for RQ1***

This category of research questions examined the relationship between practice and success. Practice was quantified as the number of words each student produced in feedback that was provided to their peers. Success was quantified as the final course grade.

To prepare for data analysis, the practice data were cleaned to remove incomplete records. Any records missing Eli Review information were removed from the data set. Indeed, a few student records did not contain any information from Eli Review, suggesting that a few students neither created nor used an Eli Review account. However, if a student created an Eli Review account but supplied no words of feedback, the record remained in the data set.

The success data required that final course letter grades be converted to their numerical values on a 4.0 grading scale. Letter grades of A, BA, B, CB, C, DC, D, and E were converted to numerical values of, respectively, 4.0, 3.5, 3.0, 2.5, 2.0, 1.5, 1.0, and 0. During this process, students who withdrew from the class and received a W, students who did not complete their work for the class and received an I, students who never appeared for class and received an X, and students who audited the course and received an AU were excluded from the data set. A numerical calculation of these students' final grades is not possible and, therefore, these students' records needed to be removed from the data set before analysis. This removal was further justified by the fact that, in most cases where students received an I, W, or X for their final grade, these students would not have had an equal chance to practice giving feedback to peers. Additionally, those students who earned a final course grade of E were excluded from the data set, as the number of student E grades was not normally distributed.

**Table 1**  
*Grade Distribution*

Letter Grade	<i>N</i>
A	253
BA	156
B	114
CB	55
C	46
DC	12
D	10
E	47
<b>Total</b>	<b>693</b>

This outlying number of E grades suggested the presence of an alternative distribution that impacted students who received a final course grade of E, and that these students were qualitatively distinct from their counterparts who received a final course grade of D or higher. To address the outlying number of E grades and to guard against zero inflation, practice data from those students who received a final course grade of E were removed from the data set.

During this stage of the cleaning process, some three dozen records that did not contain a final course grade were identified and removed from the data set. These partial records reflected instances where students had initially been enrolled in a course section that maintained fidelity to the pilot curriculum, but where students applied for and were transferred into an intensive section of first-year writing at midterm. The records that were excluded from analysis were those for the students' initial course section.

This cleaning process yielded a sample of 642 student records that included two numerical values: the first ranged from 1.0 to 4.0 and represented a student's final course grade, and the second ranged from 0 to 21,351 and represented the total number of words that student gave to peers in review feedback across the semester.

#### ***4.4.2 Cleaning and Coding for RQ2***

This category of research questions examined the relationship between practice and identity. As with the first category of research questions, the second category quantified practice as the number of words each student produced in peer feedback. Identity was understood in terms of student demographic data—gender identity, ethnicity or racial identity, nationality, and student population identity—that was either represented as bivariate or multivariate categories.

Because practice data had already been refined to consolidate duplicate Eli Review records and remove records that contained no Eli Review information, the number representing each student's cumulative word count for feedback given did not require additional attention at this stage. Identity data, however, did require significant cleaning and coding on account of the

specific descriptors that Western Michigan University uses to report student demographic information.

**4.4.2.1 Gender Identity.** The gender identity of each student was represented in the Cognos Analytics report as a bivariate data point: Students identified as either “Male” or “Female.” A very small number of records did not contain a data point for gender identity. When cleaned to include only those records that contained both gender identity data—bivariate nominal data, either “Male” or “Female”—and Eli Review practice data—numerical data, ranging from 0 to 21,351—the sample for the question examining practice and gender identity numbered 743.

**Table 2**

*Sample for Research Question 2.1*

Identity Grouping	<i>N</i>
Male	336
Female	407
<b>Total</b>	<b>743</b>

**4.4.2.2 Ethnicity or Racial Identity.** The ethnicity or racial identity of each student was represented in the Cognos Analytics report as one of eight choices: “American Indian or Alaska Native,” “Asian,” “Black or African American,” “Hispanic,” “International,” “No Response,” “Two or More Races,” or “White.” Records for students who selected “No Response” or for whom there was no ethnicity data available were removed from the data set. The resulting data set consisted of seven descriptors of students’ ethnicity. To prepare this multivariate data set for analysis, any records that contained no practice data were removed from the data set. The final sample numbered 731.

To enable two approaches to the analysis of this data set, the final multivariate data set was recoded, first, using only two dummy codes that converted the multivariate data set into multiple bivariate data sets, and, second, using a series of seven dummy codes, each of which corresponded to a discrete ethnicity or racial identity category.

The first approach to recoding offered insight into the dynamic between the predominant category and the aggregate of the less dominant categories. Given that Western Michigan University is a predominantly White institution, this approach used a bivariate code of “White” or “Not White” to recode the data set of 731 student records. As a result, each student record contained a data point for Eli Review practice that was represented as an integer between 0 and 21,351 and a bivariate data point for ethnicity or racial identity that was one of the two code options.

**Table 3**

*Sample for Research Question 2.2.A*

Identity Grouping	N
White	507
Not White	224
<b>Total</b>	<b>731</b>

The second approach to coding provides an opportunity to investigate significant differences between and among the ethnic and racial report categories, which encourages a disaggregated analysis that adopts an equity lens (McNair et al., 2020). Thus, after cleaning and coding, this approach yielded a data set of 731 records that each contained a numerical value—between 0 and 21,351—that represented practice and a dummy code—an integer between 1 and 7—that represented a categorical descriptor of ethnicity or racial identity.

**Table 4**

*Sample for Research Question 2.2.B*

Identity Grouping	N
American Indian or Alaska Native	4
Asian	15
Black or African American	76
Hispanic	46
International	44
Two or More Races	39
White	507
<b>Total</b>	<b>731</b>

**4.4.2.3 Nationality.** The nationality of each student was communicated at three places in the Cognos Analytics report. First, “International” appeared as one “Ethnicity” category. Second, and as will be discussed below, “International” appeared as a modifier to the population status of particular students. Third, “Nation of Citizenship” appeared as its own category on the report. This third category provides the basis for this data set. The data set, having been filtered by course to ensure fidelity to the curriculum and having been cleaned to remove records with no data, yielded a sample within which a total of 44 first-year writing students listed their “Nation of Citizenship” as a country different than the United States. A total of 15 different countries were listed, including Albania, Bangladesh, Canada, China, Dominican Republic, India, Kinshasa, Malaysia, Nepal, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Spain, South Korea, Uzbekistan, and Vietnam. These data points were then converted into a bivariate data set: “United States Citizen” or “Not

United States Citizen.” When cleaned and coded, 742 records contained both nationality data and Eli Review practice data.

**Table 5**

*Sample for Research Question 2.3*

Identity Grouping	N
United States Citizen	698
Not United States Citizen	44
<b>Total</b>	<b>742</b>

**4.4.2.4 Student Population.** Included on the Cognos Analytics report was also data about the “Student Population” to which each student who enrolled in first-year writing during the fall 2019 belonged. Descriptors included in this category of the report identified students according to their status at Western Michigan University. A total of nine descriptors appeared in this category across a sample of 743 records that contained Eli Review data.

**Table 6**

*Data for Research Question 2.4*

Identity Grouping	N
SCOPE Undergraduate	1
High School Dual Enrollee	2
Beginner	581
International Beginner	27
Continuing	96
International Continuing	17
Transfer < 26 Credits	10
Transfer 26+ Credits	6
Returning	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>743</b>

To enable two different analytical approaches to this data, these descriptors were, first, cleaned and coded to produce a bivariate data set, and, second, cleaned and coded as a trivariate set of descriptors that better focused on the student population identity marker and that retained power of analysis.

The first approach to coding adopted a bivariate view of the data set and focused on the relationship between the population’s predominant category and the aggregate of the

population’s less dominant category markers. Given that the first-year writing course at Western Michigan University is predominantly populated by a first-time, first-year student population, this approach to coding sought to investigate the difference between the beginning student population and the remaining student population categories. When cleaned, the records that contained student population data—bivariate nominal data, either “Beginner” or “Not Beginner”—and Eli Review practice data—numerical data, ranging from 0 to 21,351—numbered 743.

**Table 7**

*Sample for Research Question 2.4.A*

Identity Grouping	<i>N</i>
Beginner	581
Not Beginner	162
<b>Total</b>	<b>743</b>

The second approach to coding omitted three categories—“SCOPE Undergraduate,” “High School Dual Enrollee,” and “Returning”—all of which did not retain analytical power. Then, the remaining categories were aggregated to focus only on students’ statuses as “Beginning,” “Continuing,” or “Transfer.” In other words, considerations of nationality and number of transfer credits were not needed in this analytic approach. The result was a sample of 737 student records.

**Table 8**

*Sample for Research Question 2.4.B*

Identity Grouping	<i>N</i>
Beginner	608
Continuing	113
Transfer	16
<b>Total</b>	<b>737</b>

#### **4.4.3 Cleaning and Coding for RQ3**

This category of research question investigated the relationship between success and identity, using student record information provided by the Cognos Analytics report. Although both of these categories had been cleaned and coded in conjunction with the previous two types of research questions, the nature of this type of research question required the success data to be recoded and the identity-based data samples to be recalculated to account for the presence or absence of final course letter grades.

As previously explained, the construct of success is, for the purpose of this study, understood as the students' final grade in the first-year writing course. The Cognos Analytics report conveys this information in the form of one of eight letter grades—either A, BA, B, CB, C, DC, D, or E. The report also includes the final grades of W for students who withdrew from the class, I for students who did not complete the course work, X for students who did not attend the class, and AU for students who audited the course. In order to answer the questions about the relationship between success and identity, seven final letter grades—A through D—were retained as codes. Students who earned one of these letter grades completed the first-year writing course, achieving the course's student learning outcomes to varying degrees of success. However, the final grades that do not indicate course completion—W, I, X, and AU—were omitted from the sample. Further omitted from the sample was the final grade of E, as its outlying distribution risked inflating the data. The sample size of student records that included one of the seven final letter grades was 642.

**4.4.3.1 Gender Identity.** Working from the success sample of 642 records, the data was reviewed to ensure the presence of a gender identity data point—either “Male” or “Female”—in each record. This review revealed that all 642 records included this bivariate data point; therefore, no additional cleaning was needed. The data revealed that slightly more students in the sample identified as “Female” than “Male.”

**Table 9**

*Sample for Research Question 3.1*

Identity Grouping	N
Male	286
Female	356
<b>Total</b>	<b>642</b>

**4.4.3.2 Ethnicity or Racial Identity.** When the success data set of 642 student records was reviewed to check for the presence of an ethnicity or racial identity data point, the review showed that 632 records included a multivariate data point that identified ethnicity or racial identity as one of seven categorical choices. The 10 records that did not contain a response for the ethnicity data point were removed from the data set. The two approaches to coding that were applied to respond to research question two were then reapplied to the data set and a third coding approach was added.

The first coding approach viewed the data in terms of a bivariate coding scheme: one dominant code and a second aggregated code encompassing the combined less dominant categories. This approach allowed for a comparison of the final course grades for students who identified as White and for students who did not identify as White.

**Table 10**

*Sample for Research Question 3.2.A*

Identity Grouping	<i>N</i>
White	447
Not White	185
<b>Total</b>	<b>632</b>

The second coding approach disaggregated the less dominant codes and maintained the original multivariate coding scheme. This approach was adopted in accordance with the equity-minded approach to data advanced by McNair et al. (2020). Since the small samples for the “American Indian or Alaska Native” category and the “Asian” category would diminish the power of analysis, those two categories were removed from this multivariate data set, resulting in a sample size of 617.

**Table 11**

*Sample for Research Question 3.2.B.1*

Identity Grouping	<i>N</i>
Black or African American	60
Hispanic	39
International	42
Two or More Races	29
White	447
<b>Total</b>	<b>617</b>

To further investigate the relationship between success and ethnic or racial identity, a third coding approach was used to recode the 632-record data set that contrasted the final grade distribution of students who identified as “Black or African American,” “Hispanic,” or “Two or More Races” with the grade distribution of the aggregate remaining population. Three additional data sets emerged from this third approach to coding.’

**Table 12**

*Sample for Research Question 3.2.B.2*

Identity Grouping	<i>N</i>
Black or African American	60
Not Black or African American	572
<b>Total</b>	<b>632</b>

**Table 13**

*Sample for Research Question 3.2.B.3*

Identity Grouping	<i>N</i>
Hispanic	39
Not Hispanic	593
<b>Total</b>	<b>632</b>

**Table 14**

*Sample for Research Question 3.2.B.4*

Identity Grouping	<i>N</i>
Two or More Races	29
Not Two or More Races	603
<b>Total</b>	<b>632</b>

**4.4.3.3 Nationality.** Using the success data set of 642 student records, the “Nation of Citizenship” data point across all of these records was recoded according to the bivariate code “United States Citizen” and “Not United States Citizen.” By recoding the 16 countries in which students maintained citizenship, the sample again focused on the relationship between a dominant category and an aggregated representation of less dominant categories.

**Table 15**

*Sample for Research Question 3.3*

Identity Grouping	<i>N</i>
United States Citizen	600
Not United States Citizen	42
<b>Total</b>	<b>642</b>

**4.4.3.4 Student Population.** To gauge the relationship between the students’ success as conveyed by their final course grade and students’ population category at the university, two approaches were used to code the success sample of 642 records.

First, a bivariate code of “Beginner” and “Not Beginner” was applied to the data set. This code amplified the relationship between the dominant student population in the first-year writing course—that is, beginner students—and the less dominant populations in the course—continuing students, transfer students, returning students, and high school dual enrollees.

**Table 16**

*Sample for Research Question 3.4.A*

<b>Identity Grouping</b>	<b><i>N</i></b>
Beginner	530
Not Beginner	112
<b>Total</b>	<b>642</b>

Second, a trivariate code of “Beginner,” “Continuing,” and “Transfer” was applied to the data set to allow for a more granular investigation of the student population identity grouping that retained analytical power. The small number of records that could not be coded into one of these three categories were removed from the data set.

**Table 17**

*Sample for Research Question 3.4.B*

<b>Identity Grouping</b>	<b><i>N</i></b>
Beginner	530
Continuing	94
Transfer	13
<b>Total</b>	<b>637</b>

#### ***4.4.4 Cleaning and Coding for RQ4***

This category of research question investigated the relationship among the three constructs of success, practice, and identity. Because this category of questions considered all three constructs simultaneously, its sample did not exceed 642—the number of students from the pilot course sections for whom information about their grades, Eli Review practice levels, and demographic identity groupings was available. For questions involving the variables of gender identity, nationality, and student population, the sample size was 642. For questions involving the variable of racial identity, the sample size was 632 as 10 students did not report information corresponding to their race or ethnicity. Within the resultant samples, dummy coded bivariate data points—either “Male” or “Female,” either “White” or “Not White,” either “Black or African American” or “Not Black or African American,” either “Hispanic” or “Not Hispanic,” either “Two or More Races” or “Not Two or More Races,” either “United States Citizen” or “Not United States Citizen,” and either “Beginner” or “Not Beginner”—were used to represent the identity variables in each regression.

#### **4.5 Statistical Analyses**

To answer this study's three categories of research questions, a range of statistical analyses were used on the data sets, including tests for correlation, tests for significant difference, and tests for independence. Discrete tests were applied to each category of research question using the IBM SPSS Statistics software platform, version 26.0.

#### ***4.5.1 Tests for RQ1***

This category of research questions sought to describe the relationship between two numerical variables. The first variable represented practice, and it reflected the total number of words that each student provided in peer feedback using the Eli Review platform. The second variable represented success, and it reflected the final grade earned by each student. These two variables were tested for correlation to determine whether the null hypothesis—namely, that there is no association between total word count value and final course grade—could be rejected. Further, since these data could be rank ordered and since there was no assumption that their relationship was neatly linear, Pearson's correlation was used to test the strength and direction of any correlation between the variables.

#### ***4.5.2 Tests for RQ2***

This category of research questions sought to investigate a numerical data point as it could be understood differently between and among different groupings. The dependent variable is the numerical data point. For this category of research questions, the dependent variable is the practice output of each student—that is, the total number of words that each student provided in peer feedback using the Eli Review platform. The independent variable refers to the non-numerical grouping categories. The independent variable reflects the different identity-based groupings associated with gender, ethnicity, nationality, and student population. Notably, the independent variables were discrete and unrelated within the data set—student record information did not allow for records to contain multiple groupings within one particular identity-based category. As such, the dependent variable was tested according to multiple independent variable groupings to see if a significant difference existed in the outputs of the different groups.

The kind of inferential statistical analysis performed on the various data sets was determined by the number of independent variable groupings. When only two independent variable groupings were examined, an independent-sample *t* test was run on the data. This test for significant difference determines whether the null hypothesis—namely, that the output from both groups is equal—can be rejected. The one variable *t* test examines the means or averages of the outputs between the two groups, and it assumes that both independent variable groupings have equal variance. Unequal variance would otherwise diminish the power of the *t* test and would require a correction. To test for equal variance, Levene's test of homogeneity was used. If the independent-sample *t* test results offer a basis for rejecting the null hypothesis, then the independent-sample *t* test suggests the alternative hypothesis—that the average output from the two groups is unequal or significantly different.

When more than two independent variable groupings were examined, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was run on the data. Like the independent-sample *t* test, the ANOVA test is an inferential test for significant difference. But whereas the independent-sample *t* test can only be applied to two independent variable groups, the ANOVA test accommodates three or more independent variable groups and determines whether the null hypothesis, as applied to all pairwise relationships, can be rejected. In other words, if one pairing within a data set of three or more groups registers a significant difference with the ANOVA test, then the test will offer a basis for the rejection of that null hypothesis. Thus, the ANOVA test offers the basis for accepting significant difference within a data set. Importantly, an ANOVA test does not identify the exact pairs between which significant, unequal difference of means can be assumed; so, a post-hoc test must be conducted to identify the grouped pairs between which significantly different average outputs exist. After testing for equal variance, this study employed Tukey's honestly significant difference post-hoc test to identify any pairwise groupings for which there were significantly unequal output averages.

#### ***4.5.3 Tests for RQ3***

This category of research questions sought to examine associations between two categorical variables, each possessing at least two subcategories. The first categorical variable that informed this category of research questions was success as represented by final grade. This variable consisted of seven subcategories or groups, each of which corresponded to a final letter grade. The second set of variables that informed this category of research questions were the specific identity-based categories of gender, ethnicity, nationality, and student population, as well as the subcategories or groupings within each. Accordingly, the success-related variable was tested against the multiple categories of identity-based variables using the chi-square test for independence. This test weighs the proportion of occurrences across an array of variable combinations to determine whether the null hypothesis—namely, that there is no relationship between the two sets of variables; that the variables are independent of one another—should be rejected. Thus, rejecting the null hypothesis suggests that the variables are associated with one another.

#### ***4.5.4 Tests for RQ4***

This category of research questions sought to compare and evaluate the responsiveness and strength of a series of linear models in their respective abilities to explain the influence of the constructs of practice and identity on the construct of success. The dependent variable for this category of research questions was the success construct, or the final course grade for students enrolled in the pilot sections of first-year writing. The independent variables were those connected to the constructs of identity and practice—respectively, gender identity, racial identity, ethnicity, nationality, and student population; as well as the total word count of feedback written by students in Eli Review. Cumulative grade point average was also added as a dependent variable for this category of research questions, as it could function as a confounding variable for

the dependent variable of final course grade. The models tested in response to this category of research questions were created stepwise, adding, first, an identity variable; second, the practice variable; and, third, the confounding variable of cumulative grade point average.

Across regression models, the significance of the change in  $F$  values was tested to determine whether the null hypothesis—that variable relationships were equal to chance relationships—could be rejected. Change in  $F$  values that were at or below 0.05 and, therefore, were significant, suggested that the alternative hypothesis, which holds that the independent variables can explain the variance in the dependent variable in a way greater than chance, would therefore be accepted. At the same time, comparisons in the  $R^2$  and Adjusted  $R^2$  values were made, allowing for the selection of the model that could explain the highest amount of variance in the dependent variable of success: The higher the  $R^2$  and Adjusted  $R^2$  values, the higher the explanatory value for the model.

Within regression models, the individual variables were next analyzed for the change in variance they brought to each step of the model. Individual variables were examined for their influence on the slope of the regression: The  $B$  value communicates the slope of the line between the independent variable and the dependent variable in the model. Within a particular regression model, those variables with significant  $B$  values—at or below 0.05—could be understood to contribute to the dependent variable in a way greater than that of chance. As such, the linear models tested for this category of research questions yield results from which it may be claimed that, within a strongly linear model, one or more independent variables explain or even predict the dependent variable to a degree.

## 5.0 Results

Having collected, cleaned, and coded the necessary data to answer this study's four categories of research questions and having identified the statistical tests that would need to be performed on this data to respond to these research questions, the tests for correlation, significant difference, independence, and predictability were conducted. Overviews of the results of these tests are presented below, within each category of research questions. The overview takes the form of a table that lists the specific research questions that were asked as well as the types of statistical tests that were run on the data to answer the questions. For tests where results were not significant, summary results are only presented in these overview tables. For tests where results were significant, full results are reported below each table.

### 5.1 Results of RQ1 Tests on Practice and Success

The tests performed on the first category of research questions address whether there was a relationship between students' writing practice providing peer feedback and students' final course grade. Practice was indicated by a number that represented students' cumulative word count for feedback given on Eli Review. Success was indicated by a number that corresponded to the students' final grades on a 4.0 scale. These data were tested for correlation and strength of correlation.

**Table 18**

*Overview of Results for Research Question 1*

Research Questions		Type of Test	Answer	Results
<b>RQ 1.1</b>	Is there a correlation between students' peer <b>feedback word count</b> on the Eli Review application and their <b>final grades</b> in a first-year writing course?	Bivariate Nonparametric Test	Yes	<i>Reported in Write-Up (Below)</i>
<b>RQ 1.2</b>	If so, how can the <b>effect size</b> of the correlation be described?	Bivariate Nonparametric Test	Moderate	<i>Reported in Write-Up (Below)</i>

**RQ1.1 Is there a correlation between students' peer feedback word count on the Eli Review application and their final grades in a first-year writing course?** Yes. The Pearson correlation reveals a statistically significant relationship between students' total word count in Eli Review and their final grades in the group of 642 students who were enrolled in the sections of first-year writing that maintained fidelity to the pilot during the fall of 2019 ( $r_s[642] = .373, p < .001$ ). Moreover, the relationship between final word count and final grade is a positive relationship, meaning that there is a positive association of data points, where an increase in one variable's value suggests an increase in the other variable's value.

**RQ1.2 If so, how can the effect size of the correlation be described?** The effect size of this relationship was moderate (Cohen, 1988). Squaring the correlation coefficients indicates that 13.91% of the variance in the final word count is explained by final grade. Similarly, 13.91% of the variance in the final grade is accounted for by the final word count.

**Table 19**

*Results for Research Question 1*

		Final Number Grade	Eli Review Peer Feedback Word Count
<b>Final Number Grade</b>	<i>Pearson Correlation Coefficient</i>	1.000	.373**
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>		.000
	<i>N</i>	642	642
<b>Eli Review Peer Feedback Word Count</b>	<i>Pearson Correlation Coefficient</i>	.373**	1.000
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	.000	
	<i>N</i>	642	642

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

## 5.2 Results of RQ2 Tests on Practice and Identity

The tests performed on the second set of research questions address whether the average level of practice was different between students who identify differently. As with the first category of research questions, practice was indicated by a number that represented students’ total word count for feedback given on Eli Review. Identity was indicated by student record information obtained from institutional research. These data were tested for significance difference between and among groups.

**Table 20**

*Overview of Results for Research Question 2*

Research Questions		Type of Test	Answer	Results
<b>RQ 2.1</b>	Do <b>levels of practice</b> differ significantly between student writers <b>who identify as male</b> and those <b>who identify as female</b> ?	Independent Samples <i>t</i> Test	Yes	<i>Reported in Write-Up (Below)</i>
<b>RQ 2.2.a</b>	Do <b>levels of practice</b> differ significantly between student writers <b>who identify as White</b> and those <b>who do not identify as White</b> ?	Independent Samples <i>t</i> Test	Yes	<i>Reported in Write-Up (Below)</i>
<b>RQ 2.2.b</b>	Do <b>levels of practice</b> differ significantly among students according to <b>ethnicity or racial identity groupings</b> ?	One-Way ANOVA Test	Yes	<i>Reported in Write-Up (Below)</i>
<b>RQ 2.3</b>	Do <b>levels of practice</b> differ significantly between student writers <b>who identify as United States citizens</b> and those <b>who do not identify as United States citizens</b> ?	Independent Samples <i>t</i> Test	No	$t = 1.48$ $df = 740$ $p = .139$
<b>RQ 2.4.a</b>	Do <b>levels of practice</b> differ significantly between student writers <b>who identify as beginning students</b> and those <b>who do not identify as beginning students</b> ?	Independent Samples <i>t</i> Test	No	$t = .932$ $df = 741$ $p = .352$
<b>RQ 2.4.b</b>	Do <b>levels of practice</b> differ significantly between students according to <b>student population identity groupings</b> ?	One-Way ANOVA Test	No	$F(2,734) = 1.30$ $p = .274$

**RQ2.1 Do levels of practice differ significantly between student writers who identify as male and those who identify as female?** Yes. An independent samples *t* test was conducted comparing students’ final word counts in Eli Review according to gender identity groupings. Levene’s test for equality of variances revealed that equal variances could be assumed ( $F = .53$ ,  $p = .466$ ).

The results showed a statistically significant difference between final word counts according to student gender ( $t = 2.68$ ,  $df = 741$ ,  $p = .008$ ). The final word count in Eli Review for students

who identified as female ranged from 0 to 21,351 words ( $M = 4571.7$ ,  $SD = 3080.8$ ). Meanwhile, the final word count in Eli Review for students who identified as male ranged from 0 to 17,187 words ( $M = 3983.7$ ,  $SD = 2855.4$ ). The mean difference between the two genders is 588.1 at the 95% confidence interval [156.7, 1019.4].

**Table 21**

*Results for Research Question 2.1*

<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
2.676	741	.008	588.055	219.732	156.683	1019.428

These findings suggest that students who identified as female and completed the first-year writing pilot curriculum wrote significantly more peer feedback in Eli Review—an average of 588 additional words—than did students who identified as male.

**RQ2.2.a Do levels of practice differ significantly between student writers who identify as White and those who do not identify as White?** Yes. An independent samples *t* test was conducted comparing the final word counts in Eli Review for students who identified as White with the final words counts in Eli Review for students who did not identify as White. Levene’s test for equality of variances revealed that equal variances could be assumed ( $F = .13$ ,  $p = .721$ ).

The results showed a statistically significant difference between the average cumulative word count in feedback given from students who identified as White and students who did not identify as White ( $t = 2.04$ ,  $df = 729$ ,  $p = .042$ ). The final word count in Eli Review for students who identified as White ranged from 0 to 21,351 words ( $M = 4462.1$ ,  $SD = 3078.4$ ). Meanwhile, the final word count in Eli Review for students who did not identify as White ranged from 0 to 13,878 words ( $M = 3973.0$ ,  $SD = 2794.1$ ). The mean difference between the two identity groupings is 489.0 at the 95% confidence interval [17.4, 960.7].

**Table 22**

*Results for Research Question 2.2.A*

<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
2.036	729	.042	489.022	240.231	17.394	960.650

These findings suggest that students who identified as White and completed the first-year writing pilot curriculum wrote significantly more peer feedback in Eli Review—an average of 489 additional words—than did students who did not identify as White.

**RQ2.2.b Do levels of practice differ significantly among students according to ethnicity or racial identity groupings?** Yes. A one-way ANOVA test was conducted that compared the

cumulative peer feedback word counts in Eli Review among seven ethnicity or racial identity groupings. The analysis of variance between the word count averages of students who identified as either “American Indian or Alaska Native,” “Asian,” “Black or African American,” “Hispanic,” “International,” “Two or More Races,” or “White” revealed a significant difference ( $F(6,724) = 2.95, p = .007$ ).

Levene’s test for homogeneity of variances suggested that equal variance could be assumed among the data based on mean ( $F(6,724) = .94, p = .467$ ); therefore, Tukey’s honestly significant difference post hoc test was applied to the results to locate the ethnicity or racial identity groupings that exhibited significant difference in average word count pairwise.

The Tukey post hoc test failed to indicate a significant difference in the word count averages between groups involved in the identity groupings of “American Indian or Alaska Native,” “Asian,” “Hispanic,” or “Two or More Races.” The Tukey post hoc test did, however, indicate that the average word count of feedback given on Eli Review by students who identified as “Black or African American” was significantly lower than the average word count given on Eli Review by students who identified as “International” or “White.” In other words, the post hoc test pointed to two identity group pairings where a significant difference existed: one between the averages for the “Black or African American” and “White” identity groupings ( $p = .022$ ) and one between the averages for the “Black or African American” and “International” identity groupings ( $p = .047$ ).

**Table 23**

*Results for Research Question 2.2.B*

Tukey HSD Post Hoc Comparison 1						
Ethnicity or Racial Identity Grouping	Subset Word Count Mean	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Lower	Upper
Black or African American	3280.353	.022	+/-1181.702	366.180	+/-99.033	+/-2264.371
White	4462.056					

**Table 24**

*Results for Research Question 2.2.B*

Tukey HSD Post Hoc Comparison 2						
Ethnicity or Racial Identity Grouping	Subset Word Count Mean	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Lower	Upper
Black or African American	3280.353	.047	+/-1678.407	563.936	+/-11.046	+/-3345.769
International	4958.761					

As Table 23 suggests, students who identified as “White” wrote significantly more peer feedback in Eli Review—an average of 1,181 additional words—than did students who identified as “Black or African American.” Likewise, as Table 24 suggests, students who identified as “International” wrote significantly more peer feedback in Eli Review—an average of 1,678 additional words—than did students who identified as “Black or African American.”

### 5.3 Results of RQ3 Tests on Success and Identity

The tests performed on the third category of research questions address whether there is an association between success variables and identity variables. For these tests, success was indicated by one of seven letter grades that corresponded to a final course grade earned by a student. Identity was indicated by student record information, as understood as a bivariate or multivariate data set. The distributions of students’ final grades across identity-based variable groupings were compared to detect associations between the variables or to confirm the independence of variables.

**Table 25**

*Overview of Results for Research Question 3*

Research Question		Type of Test	Answer	Results
<b>RQ 3.1</b>	Is there an association between students’ <b>gender identity</b> and their <b>final grades</b> in a first-year writing course?	Chi-Square Test of Independence	Yes	<i>Reported in Write-Up (Below)</i>
<b>RQ 3.2.a</b>	Is there an association between students’ <b>identification vis-à-vis dominant ethnic or racial groupings</b> and their <b>final grades</b> in a first-year writing course?	Chi-Square Test of Independence	No	$\chi^2 (6, N = 632) = 8.70$ $p = .191$
<b>RQ 3.2.b</b>	Is there an association between students’ <b>ethnic and racial identity</b> and their <b>final grades</b> in a first-year writing course?	Chi-Square Test of Independence	No	$\chi^2 (24, N = 617) = 29.79$ $p = .192$
<b>RQ 3.3</b>	Is there an association between students’ <b>national identity</b> and their <b>final grades</b> in a first-year writing course?	Chi-Square Test of Independence	No	$\chi^2 (6, N = 642) = 5.11$ $p = .530$
<b>RQ 3.4.a</b>	Is there an association between students’ <b>identification vis-à-vis dominant student population groupings</b> and their <b>final grades</b> in a first-year writing course?	Chi-Square Test of Independence	No	$\chi^2 (6, N = 642) = 1.27$ $p = .973$
<b>RQ 3.4.b</b>	Is there an association between students’ <b>student population identity</b> and their <b>final grades</b> in a first-year writing course?	Chi-Square Test of Independence	No	$\chi^2 (12, N = 637) = 9.74$ $p = .638$

**RQ3.1 Is there an association between students’ gender identity and their final grades in a first-year writing course?** Yes. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relationship between students’ gender identity and the distribution of their final grades in first-year writing. The relation between these variables was significant,  $\chi^2 (6, N = 642) = 15.89, p = .014$ . These findings suggest that variables of gender identity and final grades are significantly associated, as is displayed in Table 26.

**Table 26**

*Results for Research Question 3.1*

		Final Letter Grade							Total
		A	BA	B	CB	C	DC	D	
Female	<i>Count</i>	160	83	53	23	23	7	7	356
	<i>Standardized Residual</i>	1.8	-.4	-1.2	-1.4	-.5	.1	.6	
Male	<i>Count</i>	91	73	59	32	23	5	3	286
	<i>Standardized Residual</i>	-2.0	.4	1.3	1.5	.6	-.1	-.7	
<b>Total</b>	<i>Count</i>	251	156	112	55	46	12	10	642

The standardized residuals that appear in Table 26 reveal that students who identify as female were more likely to earn an A than would be expected and that students who identify as male were less likely to earn an A than would otherwise be expected. Further, students who identify as male were more likely to earn a B or a CB than would otherwise be expected, and students who identify as female were less likely to earn those same grades.

**5.4 Results of RQ4 Tests that Model Impact of Identity and Practice upon Success**

The tests performed on the fourth category of research questions consider the relative strength of multivariate hierarchical linear regression models that describe the ability of the identity and practice constructs to predict the success construct. Success, which was represented by a numerical value that corresponded to students’ final grades in the first-year writing pilot course, functioned as the dependent or outcome variable across all models. Identity variables were introduced to the models using a dummy-coded, bivariate pairing. Practice, again, was indicated by a numerical value that corresponded to the total number of words that students wrote in peer feedback. The confounding variable of cumulative grade point average was, similarly, represented by a numerical value between 1.0 and 4.0. After different regression models were created, the models were compared to identify the regression with the greatest explanatory strength and statistical power. Within that model, the independent variables were analyzed to determine the significance of their contribution to the model.

**Table 27**

*Overview of Results for Research Question 4*

Research Questions		Type of Test	Answer	Results
<b>RQ 4.1</b>	Can a linear model significantly account for the <b>influence of practice and identity</b> on success in the pilot curriculum?	Multivariate Hierarchical Linear Regression	Yes	<i>Reported in Write-Up (Below)</i>
<b>RQ 4.2</b>	Does the <b>practice variable</b> emerge as <b>more significant</b> than the <b>identity variable</b> in the stepwise regression model?	Multivariate Hierarchical Linear Regression	Yes	<i>Reported in Write-Up (Below)</i>

**RQ4.1 Can a linear model significantly account for the influence of practice and identity on success in the pilot curriculum?** Yes. A three-step multiple regression model with the three predictor variables of (1) gender identity, (2) total word count for feedback given in peer review, and (3) cumulative grade point average exhibits a stepwise increase in its ability to explain variance in the dependent variable of final course grade. By its third step, the model produces a multiple correlation coefficient of .749, which suggests that the model taking gender identity, total word count in feedback, and cumulative grade point average accounts for 56.1% of the variance in students’ final grades in the sample  $R^2 = .561$ ,  $F(3, 638) = 271.58$ ,  $p < .001$ . Walking through the model’s steps highlights the change in variance that the independent variables of total word count and cumulative grade point average contribute to the model. At step one, the independent variable of gender identity explained less than 1% of the variance in students’ final grades  $R^2 = .009$ ,  $F(1, 640) = 5.69$ ,  $p = .017$ . At step two, when the independent variable of the total word count in feedback that students provided via Eli Review was added to the model, the model’s explanatory power increased. Taken together, the independent variables of gender identity and practice explained 14.2% of the variance in the outcome variable  $R^2 = .142$ ,  $F(2, 639) = 53.072$ ,  $p < .001$ . Thus, adding the practice variable enables the model to account for an additional 13.4% of variance in success. At step three, the confounding variable of cumulative grade point average is introduced into the model, further increasing the model’s ability to explain variance in students’ final course grades by an additional 41.8%. By the third step, the model accounts for 56.1% variance in the outcome variable. Notably, this model’s combination of gender identity, total word count of feedback given, and cumulative grade point average exhibited more explanatory power than any other model using a different identity variable, such as racial identity, ethnicity, nationality, or student population.

**Table 28**

*Results for Research Question 4.1*

Model	Variables	<i>B</i>	Sig.	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	<i>F</i>	$\Delta F$	<i>df</i>	$\Delta \text{Sig.}_F$
<b>1</b>	(Final Course Grade)	3.538	.000	.094	.009	.009	5.688	5.688	1	0.17
	Gender Identity	-.138	.017							
<b>2</b>	(Final Course Grade)	3.029	.000	.377	.142	.134	53.072	99.580	1	.000
	Gender Identity	-.083	.125							
	Total Word Count	9.106E-5	.000							
<b>3</b>	(Final Course Grade)	.755	.000	.749	.561	.418	271.579	607.798	1	.000
	Gender Identity	-.020	.614							
	Total Word Count	1.738E-5	.016							
	Cumulative Grade Point Average	.779	.000							

**RQ4.2 Does the practice variable emerge as more significant than the identity variable in the stepwise regression model?** Yes. As the model progresses in its steps, the significance of the gender identity independent variable wanes, while the significance of the practice variable persists. As the model gains explanatory power and moves from step one to step three, the significance of gender identity disappears. Initially, in step one, gender identity and its influence on the outcome variable of final course grade is significant ( $\beta = -.094, p = .017$ ). In step two, however, as soon as the practice variable is introduced into the model, gender identity loses significance as a predictor of success ( $\beta = -.057, p = .125$ ). The loss of significance is more profound in step three of the model: While the model that connects all three variables can explain 56.1% of the variance in students’ final course grade, gender identity ( $\beta = -.013, p = .614$ ) is not a significant variable in that model equation.

As the model progresses, the diminishing relationship between the independent variable of gender identity and the dependent variable of final course grade is further documented by the unstandardized coefficients associated with the gender identity variable. These coefficients represent the slope of the line between students’ gender identity and their final course grades, where a one-unit increase in their final grade is associated with the dummy-coded gender identity, where 0 represents “Female” and 1 represents “Male.” Across the three steps of the model, the slope of the line remains negative, suggesting that a one-unit increase in final grade corresponds to an increasing proportion of the sample that identifies as female and a decreasing slope of the line connecting the variables. However, as the model progresses and the significance of gender identity disappears, the slope of the line relating students’ gender identity with their final course grade becomes less profound, and each unit increase in a final grade is accompanied by a less severe tilt toward the female segment of the sample. In step one, the gender identity variable retains a more negative—that is, more female—sloped line ( $B = -.138$ ) in its relation to

final course grade than it does in step two ( $B = -.83$ ) or than it does, later, in step three ( $B = -.020$ ). Put differently, the slope of the relationship between gender identity and final course grade levels as the model becomes more complex and as gender identity loses statistical significances as a predictor.

While the variable of gender identity becomes less and less significant as the regression model progresses stepwise, the variable of total word count in feedback given is significant when it is introduced into the model during step two, and it retains significance in step three when the confounding variable of cumulative grade point average is introduced. In step two—when total word count in the feedback students give to each other using Eli Review is introduced into the regression model—the dependent variable of total word count emerges as a significant positive predictor of students' final course grade ( $\beta = .367, p < .001$ ). Moreover, when the model's explanatory power is increased from explaining 14.2% of the variance in the dependent variable in step two to explaining 56.1% of the variance in the dependent variable in step three, the independent variable of total word count in Eli Review feedback given remains a significant positive predictor of students' final course grades ( $\beta = .070, p = .016$ ). In both of these regressions, an increase in one unit of the final course grade is accompanied by an increase in the total word count.

Although the independent variable of total word count given in feedback remains a significant and positive predictor of students' final course grades, the slope of the line relating these two variables decreases as the model moves from step two ( $B = .00009106$ ) to step three ( $B = .00001738$ ). In other words, the relationship between practice and success is significantly positive across both models, but more so in step two of the model than in step three of the model.

In the end, the fact that the identity variable loses its statistical significance and the practice variable retains its significance as the model progresses suggests that the regression model might be simplified to focus *only* on the practice variable and the confounding variable of cumulative grade point average. Indeed, when gender identity is removed from the model, the resultant model possesses similar explanatory power as the step three model that included gender identity  $R^2 = .561, F(2, 639) = 407.718, p < .001$ . Differences between the two models can be found in the degrees of freedom and the  $F$  value associated with the model as well as with the significance and slopes of the variables. When gender identity is removed from the regression model, the practice variable accrues more significance ( $\beta = .071, p = .014$ ) and a steeper positive slope ( $B = .00001761$ ) in relation to the outcome variable. Nonetheless, in this simplified regression model, the total count of words given in feedback by students explains 13.9% of the variance in their final course grade.

**Table 29**

*Simplified Model for Research Question 4.1*

Variables	<i>B</i>	Sig.	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. <i>F</i> Change
(Final Course Grade)	.723	.000	.749	.561	407.718	1	.000
Total Word Count	1.761E-5	.014					
Cumulative Grade Point Average	.780	.000					

## 6.0 Discussion

The results of this study point toward three concentrated areas of notable findings: (1) the correlations between total peer feedback word count and final course grade; (2) the significant differences—though not as a predictor variable—between peer feedback word count total, final course grade, and student gender identity; and (3) the significant difference in the total word count of peer feedback given among various ethnicity or racial identity groupings. At the same time, these results reveal that the current study is limited by its narrow definition of constructs, by its focus on one semester’s worth of student feedback, and by potential variance in Eli Review review task prompt instructions.

### 6.1 Interpretation of Results

A review of this study’s results points to three concentrated areas of notable findings, each of which suggests statistically significant relationships between the study’s constructs.

#### 6.1.1 Intensity of Peer Review Practice Correlated with Course Success

The results of this study reveal a substantial correlation between the total number of words that students give in peer feedback and their final grade in first-year writing, whereby nearly 14% of the variance in each variable is explained by the other variable. Here, the suggestion is that the more intensely students practice providing feedback, the higher their grade will be in their first-year writing course. In other words, this finding supports the assertion that writing is improved through more sustained practice and regular engagement with peer review feedback cycles.

From a programmatic standpoint, these results are remarkable—first, for their reach and second, for their impact. First, the reach of this finding deserves remark: Out of every ten students who completed the first-year writing pilot curriculum, the final grade of at least one of these students can theoretically be explained by the number of words in feedback they contributed to their peers using Eli Review. That one repeated pedagogical practice can impact the success of nearly 14 percent of students in a first-year writing course should capture the attention of any writing educator, especially those serving as writing program administrators and leading the design of pedagogies that reach large numbers of students across multiple sections.

Concentrating pedagogy on and devoting time and space to peer review constitutes a major way that writing educators can help a sizable proportion of students improve upon their course grade.

Second, what is perhaps more remarkable is that the impact of this positive correlation exceeds the maximum impact that would be expected, given the pilot curriculum's grade weighting. Across sections of first-year writing, Eli Review task cycles were only weighted a combined total of 10 percent of a student's final grade. Further, the recommendation was for instructors to award points for review task completion, meaning that if a student completed the task, that student would receive full points for the task. Thus, during the same review task, a student giving 350 words of feedback to one peer could quite feasibly earn the same percentage-toward-a-final-grade as a student giving 1,000 words of feedback to two peers. By and large, grades were not, in other words, based upon the amount of feedback, nor were they based upon the quality of that feedback. Since Eli Review tasks were weighted in such a way to impact the students' grades only minimally, it was possible for a student to complete very few—or even none—of the Eli Review tasks and still receive a grade of BA for the course. Whereas an effect size of 10 percent would have potentially been explained by the course grade weighting, an effect size of almost 14 percent defies this expectation. In the end, the practice variable carries almost 1.5 times more influence on the final course grade than the syllabus allots it.

### ***6.1.2 Levels of Practice Differentiated by and Levels of Success Associated with Gender Identity***

The results of this study also draw a significant contrast between the students who identify as female and the students who identify as male, yet they do not position gender identity as a significant predictor of success in the pilot curriculum.

When tested pairwise, the three constructs of practice, success, and identity constellate in a way that suggests that, with respect to the pilot curriculum, the average performance of students who identify as female is more educationally positive than that of those who identify as male. In regards to practice, students who identified as female provided peers with almost 590 more words in cumulative feedback than did students who identified as male. In regards to success, students who identified as female were significantly more likely than expected to receive an A in the course.

Noting the positive correlation between the total number of words in feedback given via Eli Review and the final course grade, while also recognizing the bivariate nature of the gender identity grouping, it is perhaps not surprising that one gender identity grouping has more positive performances across both constructs. This finding aligns with the finding that more intense practice can explain a higher course grade. The suggestion that, on average, females practiced with more intensity and achieved at higher levels than did males does not, of course, mean that gender identity caused more or less intense practice levels or higher or lower achievement levels. In fact, the hierarchical multivariate linear regression model with the most explanatory power points to the opposite conclusion: Gender identity is not a significant predictor of final course grade when it is viewed alongside the total number of words given in peer feedback and the

confounding variable of cumulative grade point average. Nonetheless, this finding raises questions about gender equity in the pilot curriculum; it calls for change in practice and compels further research.

### ***6.1.3 Levels of Practice Differentiated by Ethnicity or Racial Identity***

Finally, the results of this study point to significant differences in the peer review intensity levels practiced by students who identified with various ethnicity or racial identity groupings and who participated in the pilot curriculum, but again, they do not position ethnicity or racial identity as a significant predictor of success in the pilot curriculum.

Significant differences were revealed when the data were viewed through a bivariate coding scheme, comparing the dominant grouping with the aggregate of the less dominant groupings—that is, comparing the practice levels of students who identified as White to the levels of students who did not identify as White.

Further, significant variance was revealed between two identity group pairings involving three of the seven ethnicity or racial identity groupings: “Black or African American,” “International,” and “White.” Together, the significant difference and significant variance show that all ethnicity or racial identity groupings did not practice peer review at equal levels of intensity in the curriculum’s first pilot term.

At first glance, the disparities in average levels of practice between and among ethnicity or racial identity groupings should be concerning—especially so, in light of the correlation between practice and success discussed previously. This correlation suggests that, as word counts increase or decrease, grades do the same. Given the correlation between the total number of words that students give in peer feedback and their final grade in first-year writing, the expectation might be that students who identify with ethnic or racial groups that, on average, wrote significantly more words of peer feedback might also be more likely than expected to receive higher final course grades.

However, the correlation between practice and success does not hold when ethnicity or racial identity groupings are examined. The significant difference in the average word count totals of those students who identify as White and those students who do not identify as White does *not* manifest as a significant association in terms of final grade distribution. Students who identify as White are not significantly more likely to receive higher final grades than students who do not identify as White. Similarly, there are no significant associations between the variable groupings of “Black or African American,” “International,” or “White” and the final course grade distribution. Put differently, the test results do not require a rejection of the null hypothesis. The indication is that the variables of final grade and ethnicity or racial identity are independent of one another. Here, too, is where an examination of the quality—in addition to the quantity—of the peer review practice might be particularly helpful in explaining why the difference in practice levels does not manifest as an association in grade distribution.

Even though the correlation between practice and success does not significantly manifest across ethnicity or racial identity groupings, there is still a need to interrogate the findings of the

significantly different practice levels from an equity perspective, contemplating root causes, assessing educational impacts, and brainstorming potential interventions. In the end, this group of findings requires additional research and also adjustments to practice to see how opportunities to practice peer review more equitably might be created.

## **6.2 Limitations of Results**

Although this study builds upon the research conducted by Reese et al. (2018), this study's limits are many, as it still serves as a preliminary step toward understanding the relationship between practice, success, and identity. The results of this study are limited by no fewer than three factors, each of which receives elaboration below.

### ***6.2.1 Limits from Narrow Constructs***

First, the results of this study are limited by the narrowness of the constructs of practice, success, and identity. As acknowledged earlier, these three constructs were defined in ways that would be regarded by many researchers as oversimplified. The construct of practice was defined in accordance with what Omizo calls a “blunt measure” (Eli Review, 2016). The construct of success was relegated to a student's final letter grade and its numerical equivalent in a first-year writing course. This final letter grade is confounded by individual student academic habits and dispositions, including levels of motivation, engagement, self-regulation, and acclimation. And, perhaps most problematically, the study defined identity in terms of the information contained on university-maintained student records. These records contained a limited number of identity markers and, within each marker, choices were often mutually exclusive and not reflective of current thinking about identity. Gender identity was, for instance, reduced to a binary choice between male and female. Ethnicity, as it was labelled on the student record information, contained ethnic (e.g., “American Indian or Alaska Native”), racial (e.g., “White”), and national (e.g., “International”) identity markers. In the case of the identity grouping “Black or African American,” the category combined racial and ethnic markers. Missing from these reports were additional identity markers—such as students' standardized test scores or socio-economic status—that could have contributed further depth to the study. In brief, the definitions of this study's constructs pose significant limits to its results.

### ***6.2.2 Limits from Sampling***

Second, the results of this study are limited by the fact that the data sample came from a single semester in an isolated year. This limitation arises from the specific institutional context of this study and the intended use of its results. The study was designed to evaluate the relationship between practice, success, and identity within the context of a pilot curriculum. The intent was that the results of the tests of the pilot curriculum from the fall semester 2019 would inform revisions to the curriculum that would be planned and executed in the spring semester 2020 for implementation in the subsequent academic year, beginning with the fall 2020 term. Thus, the

one-semester, one-year, one-sample approach was crucial to programmatic decision-making, but perhaps not ideal for research design.

### **6.2.3 Limits from Review Prompt Instructions**

Third, the results of this study might well be limited by some variance in the way Eli Review feedback task prompts were written and assigned to students. As previously explained, all first-year writing instructors were provided with a copy of a prepared Eli Review task sequence that aligned with the pilot curriculum. This sequence included ready-made writing task assignments and review task prompts, both of which provided students with instructions for completing the task. Characteristically, review task prompts set a minimum comment goal (e.g., “4 contextual comments + 1 final comment”), and it was assumed that most reviews would involve a piece of writing receiving feedback from two different peer reviewers. However, there was some variance in these instructions from task to task and from section to section, as the prepared instructions were, in some cases, edited and review structures were altered. For some tasks, some instructors adjusted the minimum number of comments or the number of peer reviews. This variance might well have impacted the cumulative word count that this study used as an indicator of practice intensity, and it might, therefore, limit the results.

## **7.0 Conclusions**

Limitations considered, the results of this study speak not only to the specific research questions under investigation, but also to the broader goals of equipping programmatic decision-makers with data that can be used to make informed and equity-minded choices about their writing pedagogies. Returning to the goal of using writing analytics in service of increasing equity, two conclusions seem to emerge from this study.

### **7.1 Presence of a Text-Equity Gap Differentiated by Identity Groupings**

This study’s findings—again, when viewed within the context of a pilot curriculum across multiple sections of one institution’s first-year writing course—also suggest the presence of what might be called a text-equity gap among students differentiated by identity groupings. The notion of a gap existing among different student demographics in educational settings is not new. Discussions of *achievement gaps* are, as McNair et al. (2020) note, “common” in higher educational settings and refer to “disparities in outcomes” among students that correlate with demographic groupings such as gender, race, and socioeconomic status (p. 72). Relatedly, Hart-Davidson and Meeks (in press) identify patterned gaps in the word count and reciprocity factors connected to student peer review and feedback practices on Eli Review. The gaps discussed by Hart-Davidson and Meeks (in press) as well as by McNair et al. (2020) are centrally concerned with equity: In fact, the latter set of co-authors recommend replacing the term *achievement gap* with the term *equity gap*. Heretofore, these two kinds of gaps—one pertaining to demographic differences in educational performance and one pertaining to writerly differences in Eli Review practice—have not been brought together. However, this study links the two types of gaps and

identifies the presence of text-equity gaps that are differentiated by various identity markers. These text-equity gaps refer to significant differences in the average quantity of feedback given by particular identity-based groupings of students via Eli Review. As a measure of difference in *practice*, these text-equity gaps speak to differences in levels of production—not necessarily learning outcomes—that occur frequently in a low stakes context.

While there is surely a need to examine the factors that contribute to these text-equity gaps—factors deep-rooted in educational inequities that map onto socio-economic, racial, and gender inequities—there is a more pressing need to more precisely describe the nature of these gaps and to more effectively redress these gaps. Writing analytics researchers are well poised to conduct the studies that help better describe these text-equity gaps, and writing program administrators are well poised to adopt the in-the-moment, kairotic pedagogical approach endorsed by Powell (2013) and to find ways to close these practice-based text-equity gaps now.

## 7.2 Need for Practical Change

On a programmatic level, this study's results lead to the conclusion that practical changes need to be carried out on the first-year writing pilot curriculum in the areas of better setting the conditions for students' peer learning, better providing directions for Eli Review feedback tasks, and better offering opportunities for instructors to discuss the practice-based text-equity gaps and to brainstorm ways to close those gaps. This need reinforces the equity-minded insight offered by Keating (2019) that instructors must improve on the way the value of peer review is demonstrated to students and on the way that students are trained to participate in peer review.

In particular, the findings of this study stress the importance of peer review practice to student success in the first-year writing course, and students need to know about this importance up front in the course. The pilot curriculum included a short section in the opening chapter of the course's custom textbook (Gogan et al., 2020) that presented "Peer Review Benefits" to students. Outside of this textbook section, the pilot curriculum relied upon instructors to provide additional emphasis in class. For the Fall 2020 term, this section of the textbook has been expanded to prime students to better engage with the conditions of learning afforded by Eli Review and, with any luck, better reap the benefits associated with increased Eli Review practice (Gogan et al., 2021).

This study was further limited by some variance in the directions that were given for Eli Review feedback tasks. For some course sections and in some assignments, this variance led to inequitable opportunities for particular students to practice writing. To make the opportunity for practice more equitable, the review task prompts were revised to further clarify the minimum level of practice expected from students for each task. Likewise, the guidance document provided to instructors was revised in a similar fashion, further clarifying the expectations for the management of the Eli Review tasks.

Finally, given that this study revealed the presence of text-equity gaps among identity-based groupings, the study leads to a conclusion that follows the recommendation of McNair et al. (2020) to engage program staff "in the examination of data and critical self-reflection" (p. 76).

Using this study's findings as a point of departure, the first-year writing program has already begun convening focused discussion with course instructors to review and reflect upon the data. These review-and-reflect sessions took the form of all-staff meetings in the Fall 2020 term, and the idea is for these sessions to generate new pedagogical techniques through which instructors might work to redress practice-based text-equity gaps in the first-year writing program.

## 8.0 Directions for Further Research

The study suggests two major directions for further research: first, mixed methods examinations of peer feedback quality and second, experimental approaches to new pedagogical interventions. Both of these areas encourage research into the changing behaviors of student writers as they engage with practice and feedback.

### 8.1 Considerations of Feedback Quality

Additional research by writing analytics researchers needs to consider the quantity of peer feedback in relation to the quality of that peer feedback. Such research would necessitate the use of rigorous random sampling and data coding procedures, a quality coding scheme, and a measure of reliability. The relationship between feedback quantity and feedback quality could further be examined in terms of change over time. Such a view would better enable researchers to describe the nature of peer review feedback in terms of the amount and frequency of student peer review practice. Further, this change over time could be analyzed at increasingly smaller levels (i.e., the comment level), providing the field with a more granular unit of analysis that measures quality moves in proportion to text quantity as both change over time.

### 8.2 Applications to Pedagogy

Supporting the notion that writing analytics research can and should be used to promote equity and opportunity, new research is needed that examines the way pedagogical interventions might be used to increase student writing practice and improve student writing behavior. This research might well take the form of an experimental study, wherein one group of students receives a particular pedagogical treatment and another group of students does not. Such large-scale testing of pedagogical innovation would help educators identify relatively more or less effective teaching and learning practices across course sections. Such studies would also work to create an analytics feedback loop within the writing classroom, the writing program, and the field of rhetoric and writing studies, emphasizing the importance of feedback not only for student learning, but also for classroom practice, curricular development, program assessment, and the advancement of knowledge within the field.

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