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Abstract: This paper is based on case study research in the grounded theory tradition. In this paper we describe and theorise feedback interactions on EAP writing which were observed in classes in our institution. Working from detailed descriptions of feedback incidents and from interviews with teachers and students, we theorise a series of teacher and student actions. We argue that combinations of these actions are both reflective and constitutive of patterns of teacher-student relationships in the classes observed. Using interview data, we explore factors which may influence the nature of the actions and relationships which we have modelled. We also comment on the possible consequences for learners' ongoing understanding of academic writing.

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Exploring classroom feedback interactions around EAP writing: A data based model

1. Introduction

Feedback on EAP writing is an important area of study; practitioners and researchers agree that feedback has the potential to contribute positively to learners' writing development and that it is worth investing time and effort in trying to understand the factors which might make it more or less successful (Carless, 2006; Ferguson, 2011; Hounsell, 2003; Price et al., 2011; Rowe & Wood, 2008; Sprinkle, 2004).

While the majority of research in this area focuses on teacher written feedback, there are also studies which look at oral modes such as teacher taped commentary (Hedge, 2007), feedback conferences (Ewert, 2009; Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Strauss & Xiang, 2006; Trotman, 2011) or mixed modes of feedback (Bailey, 2009; Huxham, 2007). We are aware of relatively few studies on classroom interactions around student writing, and those which we have found (e.g., Waring, 2009) are not conducted in an EAP setting.

The broad purpose of our own study is to investigate feedback interactions around writing in EAP classroom settings within a particular institution. A more specific focus, which emerged from data as we will discuss below, is on the actions taken by teachers and students as they negotiate around feedback, and the implications of these for teacher-student relationship patterns. The underlying theory of our study is constructivist and grounded: we attempt to develop a model of feedback interactions, which emerges both from researchers' observations and interpretations of events and from participants' perceptions as explained through interviews.

2. Overview of research into feedback on writing

Feedback on student writing has been much researched, and studies can be grouped into several lines of enquiry. One line is the chosen feedback target; the aspects of writing that teachers tend to highlight for feedback, for example surface language errors (Bitchener &

Knoch, 2008; Chandler, 2009; Ferris, 1999; Truscott & Hsu, 2008). Cheung (2011) and Lee (2011) both develop this line of enquiry by researching the factors which may influence teachers as they select aspects of writing for feedback. In a similar vein, Lee (2008) and Li and Barnard (2011) both examined the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their feedback practices.

A second line of research examines the pragmatics of teacher feedback. Duncan (2007) and Hyland and Hyland (2001) both investigated the pragmatic strategies used by teachers (e.g., questioning, praising or giving advice). Poulous and Mahoney (2008), and Mahfoudh and Pandian (2011) conducted similar investigations, with an emphasis on students' response to each strategy. Both studies suggest that praise helps students to write more confidently, whereas Weaver (2006) suggests that learners benefit most from a balance between positive and negative feedback.

A third line of enquiry is the language of feedback comments. Nurmukhamedov and Kim (2010), and Sugita (2006) both used functional grammar categories to classify teacher feedback comments and to investigate any relationship between comments in particular grammatical forms and students' eventual revisions. Author (2013) also looks at the language of teacher feedback, seeking to elucidate the constructed tenor of the teacher-student relationship.

A fourth line of enquiry is concerned with student response to feedback and factors that influence this. Rae and Cochrane (2008), and Rowe and Wood (2008) both identify timeliness of feedback as a key factor; in a similar vein McGarell and Verbeem (2007) argue that students revise most effectively when they see the formative potential of feedback. Knight and Yorke (2003), and Sheen (2007) contend that learners with greater intellectual maturity are more likely to respond to feedback, and Young (2000) shows that learners with low self-esteem may be paralysed by feedback which they perceive as critical. Burke and

Pieterick (2010) similarly suggest that levels of self-esteem are a key factor influencing response. Burke (2009) highlights the strategies students have available for using feedback based on their previous educational experiences.

Despite the plethora of research on feedback, briefly summarised above, we have found little emphasis on teacher-student interactions around feedback. Some exceptions are Ewert (2009), a study of writing conferences which emphasises negotiation, and Hargreaves (2012), a study in a UK primary school context which illustrates the difficulties that students have in negotiating around feedback. Waring (2009) offers a case study of an ESL adult learner who managed to move out of teacher initiation - student response - teacher feedback sequence during a homework review activity, and to initiate negotiations in which classmates could participate. Our own research is, we believe, the first to concentrate specifically on interactive negotiation actions and their implications for teacher-student relationships in the context of classroom feedback in an EAP setting.

3. Context

Our research took place in 2012 within an Applied Linguistics/ Language Teaching department at a UK university, of which we are members as an Associate Professor and a Research Student. Since we are not ourselves EAP teachers, gaining access to the classes involved careful and respectful negotiation over time. After general discussions with EAP colleagues about our research, we approached teachers and asked for permission to observe their classes. We gained access to four courses. This was a purposive sample – we had sought courses which would be focused on EAP writing. In total, approximately 43 hours of sessions were observed.

Specifically, we collected data in four EAP writing courses. One was a pre-requisite EAP course, designed for students who did not yet have the required IELTS score to enrol on a degree course. The specific objective was to prepare students for the IELTS writing section.

This course was observed over five weeks. The second class was an insessional (generic) course, designed to provide language support to students already enrolled on degree courses. This class (In-sessional EAP class) accepted students from any discipline to support them with general academic writing requirements. Its observation took place over seven weeks. The remaining two classes were specialised EAP classes, intended to address the discipline specific language needs of learners from particular departments (i.e., Statistics and English Language Teaching). These classes were observed over 4 and 7 weeks respectively. The length of observation per week changed depending on student attendance, the content of the specific class and so forth. Yet, the classes, which met every week for two hours, were usually observed 1-2 hours per week over the course of observation. (see Appendix A for further detail about the classes observed).

4. Data collection

We collected two sorts of data: classroom observation field notes, and interviews with teachers and students.

Field notes were taken during all classroom observations, and teacher-student interactions were audio recorded where possible. The field notes were relatively unstructured narrative, guided only by the general aim to capture anything to do with feedback. We used a basic two column format, with the left hand column intended to record the chain of events, what Emerson et al. (1995) refer to as 'field note tales' from a third person viewpoint. Then, in the right hand column we added our own reflections, comments and queries. Notes were revised and fleshed out as soon as possible after each observation.

Following Emerson et al. (1995), we sought to use field notes not only to develop a record of our observations but also to help us reflect on the observed practices and understand them in their context: these observation sheets formed the basis for open coding, (see section 5 below).

Overlapping with the classroom observations, we conducted interviews with teachers and students from these classes. We invited all teachers and students to be interviewed once. In total, 3 teachers (of 4) and 15 students (of 39) accepted. One teacher and 8 students were from the prerequisite class, 1 teacher and 5 students were from insessional (generic) class, and 1 teacher and 2 students were from a specialised class (see, Appendix B for further detail about interview participants).

Interviews lasted approximately 30 minutes and were semi-structured. All interviews were individual, except for two learners who requested to be interviewed together. Questions focused on perceptions of feedback and interviewees' feelings about feedback practices. The questioning style was relatively indirect, in order to give interviewees as much freedom as possible in their responses. We were interested in anything they might say that might relate to feedback practices and/or their responses to these in both short and long term (see Appendix C for further detail about the interview guide we used).

Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for content, without using any detailed transcription system. The transcriptions were shared with interviewees, either face to face or by email. This step allowed interviewees to check that they were happy for all that they had said to be included; none chose to exclude anything. It also gave the researchers an opportunity for follow-up questions.

5. Methods of Data Analysis

Our research is situated in two traditions, that of Case study and that of Grounded theory (GT hereafter). As a case study, it aims to reach understanding about a contextually bounded phenomenon, using multiple perspectives (Cresswell, 2002; Dornyei, 2007; Johansson, 2003; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Yin, 2003). Our two methods of data collection allowed us to access these perspectives. Our findings are interpretive and are primarily valid for the research site

in question, though they may add to an understanding of reality in other contexts (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Dornyei, 2007; Nunan, 1992).

In the GT tradition (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) our research began with only the general idea of exploring feedback practices, and the specific focus which informs the current paper emerged through engagement with the data. As far as was possible given the inevitable existence of preconceptions, we worked bottom up from our data to generate analytical categories and, in time, to arrive at an explanatory framework to account for the phenomena we perceived in observations and discussed with informants.

As Charmaz (2006) indicates, all GT research shares certain key principles, such as concurrent data collection and analysis, derivation of analytic codes and categories from data, use of constant comparisons, use of reflective memos, and gradual development of theory through steps of data collection and analysis. In accordance with these principles, our own data analysis followed three main stages: open coding, semi-selective coding, and theoretical coding to find key themes that emerged around feedback practices and discussion of writing.

We began with classroom observation data. After a first step of simply reading (Strauss & Corbin, 2008), we moved on to open coding (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser, 1978; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Hoda, 2011; Richards, 2003) and refined the codes progressively so as to capture salient themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and arrive at a stable set of categories to account for the principal features of the feedback interactions observed. This process included continuous memoing and GT's constant comparison method (Charmaz, 2006), allowing content to be interpreted via a systematic process of building up categories of similarity and difference in the process of abstraction.

In the second stage, semi-selective coding, we engaged with our interview data, using findings from open coding stage to inform a more focused coding approach. In other words,

we used the themes which we had generated from classroom data to guide our interrogation of interview data.

In the final stage, theoretical coding, we inter-related the analytic categories, developed through the previous two stages. Again using GT's constant comparison method, we sought to relate our analytical categories in order to interpret possible influences on, and consequences of, classroom feedback interactions.

Throughout this process, both manual and computer assisted analysis were used. In the earlier stages of open coding, manual analysis was conducted. Dornyei (2007), following Seidman (1998), recommends undertaking initial coding on paper, and we followed this suggestion by working with printed versions of our data and ensuring that we regularly read all transcripts in hard copy. As the number of potential codes became difficult to manage, computer assisted analysis was initiated via Nvivo (QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 10, 2012). As Baugh et al. (2010) explain, a software programme such as Nvivo offers flexibility in coding and recoding, allowing researchers to assign tentative codes in initial stages and then to refine these as necessary. It allows more than one code to be simultaneously applied to a given stretch of data and easily shows coded data in its original context. It does not require analysts to set up categories prior to coding, and it allows them to keep track of all stages in their thinking.

6. An emerging model of classroom feedback on EAP writing

Having outlined our procedures, we now move on to illustrate the model which emerged from our data. We approach this inductively, re-tracing the steps of the procedure but this time showing the build up of the coding scheme, and describing levels of it in some detail. In this way we hope to not only present the model but also emphasise its generation through the process of analysis.

6.1. Open coding: Classroom observations

6.1.1. Initial incident-based coding

Our initial coding followed an incident to incident approach (Charmaz, 2006). Excerpts from classroom observation notes relating to feedback (interpreted in the broadest possible sense) were separated into incidents – minimal event units dependent on larger feedback-related interaction sequences. We placed these incident-excerpts in the left hand column of a table. In the right hand column, we labelled them intuitively, attempting to capture what teachers and learners were doing. We wrote memos on the incident labels as we went along, to keep track of the brainstorming taking place.

An example is as follows:

[Table 1]

6.1.2. Generation of concept labels

As the analysis continued and more incident labels were generated, the labels and the memos on them were compared and contrasted with each other to be able to create higher-level concept labels. Concept labels are generated through analysts' interpretation. They represent ideas in data at a more abstract level (Strauss & Corbin, 2008) and can capture similarities and differences between incidents. For example, in the case of the incident excerpts presented above, two of them were placed under the concept label *Stimulation*.

[Table 2 here]

This cyclic procedure, involving memoing and constant comparison, was followed throughout the classroom observation data. Eventually, we generated a list of concepts which seemed to represent all the actions taken by teachers and students during feedback events. In the sections below, the concept labels are presented and briefly explained. They are grouped according to whether they characterise actions taken by the teacher, or by students, in the feedback interactions observed.

6.1.2.1. Concept labels characterising teacher actions

Warning: This refers to indications by the teacher that an aspect of student's writing may be problematic. An example is shown below where the teacher (Heled) spoke to Cheryl (a masters' student from Education department) about the structure of her assignment draft in relation to the prompt.

> ***Heled:*** *If you go one by one, you are not really answering the ques on.*
> *(Generic Insessional EAP Class)*

Evaluation: This action refers to teacher comments on the overall quality of students' writing. For example, Michael (the teacher) asked Statistics students to write a short constructive criticism in the class using a prompt he provided. While checking what one learner wrote, he made the following comment:

> ***Michael (the teacher):*** *The beginning is excellent. (Specialised EAP class)*

Diagnosis: These are the teacher actions through which teachers intend to understand students' reasons for writing in a certain way. Through this action, teachers aim at listening to, understanding the problem and providing suitable feedback. For example, in the example below, while providing feedback on the departmental-assignment drafts of students, the teacher attempted to understand why a learner (Jihye) had included certain content. The questions of the teacher prompted the learner to explain her intentions, and gave the teacher more information on which to continue the interaction.

> ***Heled (the teacher):*** *And why are you telling me that? Is that your ra onale? (Generic Insessional EAP class)*

Suggestion: This label refers to teachers' putting forward options for students to consider. For example, while the teacher (Heled) was providing feedback on departmental-assignment drafts of students, a student (Jialu) asked a question about quotation and the use of quotation marks. The teacher responded by showing a range of techniques for inserting quotation into writing. One of our field notes states:

This me Jialu asked about the quo ng and quota on mark. The teacher recommended using various styles such as wri ng in italic. (Generic Insessional EAP Class)

Stimulation: This label refers to hints by teachers which prompt students to identify and resolve problems. For example, in the example below, the teacher (Heled) is reviewing a departmental-assignment draft of a student (Miriam). Through stimulation, instead of correcting the learner, the teacher encouraged her to think about the parts of speech and what meaning would be carried by the form she had chosen:

Heled: *What part of speech is that? Noun, verb, adjec ve? (Generic Insessional EAP)*

Deferral: This label refers to indications by teachers that they shape their feedback to fit the requirements of an external authority. For example, in the example below a teacher commented on a particular lexical choice. The teacher did not herself claim to be sure about whether the word was correct, but voiced a concern that it might not fit with the expectations of the subject tutor. The teacher is providing feedback on a departmental-assignment draft of a student (Changkyu).

Heled (the teacher): *Your tutor might say you're using a wrong word to explain that idea. (Generic Insessional EAP class)*

Arbitership: This label refers to teachers' adopting an assertive role, representing themselves as authoritative in the target culture. For example, a teacher advised that a lexical choice was in the wrong register while providing feedback on a departmental-assignment draft by the student Changkyu:

Heled: *I think tackle is informal. I wouldn't use tackle. (Generic Insessional EAP class)*

On a different occasion, the same teacher made a broad statement about acceptability in academic writing while reviewing a departmental-assignment draft of another student, Cheryl:

Heled (the teacher): *Making sugges ons is unusual in academic wri ng. The only me we talk about sugges ons is when we talk about implica ons. So it seems a bit strange here. (Generic Insessional EAP class)*

6.1.2.2. Concept labels characterising student actions

Initiation: This label refers to students' drawing attention to potential problems in their writing. In these cases, students not only initiate the interaction but also determine the immediate content of that interaction. In the following Pre-requisite EAP class field note example, the teacher (Irvette) went to students' desks to check whether they had any problems while they were writing the draft of an argumentative essay in the classroom. A student (Zeliha) initiated the feedback discussion, and led the teacher to focus on a specific issue.

Meanwhile, the teacher (Irve e) checked how students were doing with the wri ng. Zeliha (the student) asked her whether Moreover was always posi ve. Irve e said it was neutral and "you can bring a nega ve argument if you like". (Pre-requisite EAP class)

Clarification: This label refers to students' attempts to explain reasons for using particular language features. In the following example, the teacher had difficulty in understanding the student's meaning while providing feedback on her departmental-assignment draft, and she asked a question to the student, which led to the action of clarification:

Heled (the teacher): *Principal's agenda... What do you mean here?*
Miriam (the student): *I think the Principal wants her agenda. ... She's priori zing her own agenda. (Generic Insessional EAP class)*

Suggestion: This action refers to learners' offering possible ways to improve a piece of writing. For example, the teacher (Heled) indicated a sentence in Miriam's departmental assignment draft to show that it was not clear. Miriam suggested a change:

Heled: *An additional reason for studying collegiality is ... I don't .. (understand) that..*

Miriam: *Let's say to enhance my education. (Generic Insessional EAP class)*

Challenge: This label refers to students' responding to teacher feedback with some level of disagreement. For example, a teacher (Heled) indicated certain sections of a learner's departmental-assignment draft, and the student explained how she saw them as functioning:

> ***Heled (the teacher):*** *Ini ally if you go... For me personally, this is kind of what and how and this is why. For me, I would want to know what and how before why.*
> ***Cheryl (the student):*** *But the logic is rst why and then what and how. (Generic Insessional EAP class)*

Adducing: This label refers to learners' justifying their language choices with reference to an external authority, thus taking on a relatively powerful role within the feedback discussion. For example, in the example below, the teacher asked students to write responses using an effective language to questions taken from a Statistics course book. While reviewing what a student wrote, the teacher initiated discussion on a particular language item using a diagnosis action, which led to learner adducing:

> ***Michael (the teacher):*** *Is that a standard abbrevia on?*
> ***Chendar (the student):*** *Yes, we use mathema cal forms. (Specialised EAP class)*

In this particular feedback interaction, by associating himself with his discipline and claiming knowledge of its conventions, the student assumed authority.

Withdrawal: This label refers to students' ending their participation in a feedback interaction. They stop commenting, clarifying or making suggestions and do not continue the discussion. This action is often realised through silence. The following field note gives an example where the teacher asked students to write a brief constructive-criticism using the data they were given. While checking what one student wrote, the following dialogue emerged:

> *Michael (the teacher) asked Chendar (the student) questions like 'What do you mean by middle class? Is your meaning a social class or middle class of students? Does class have a specialist meaning in the sta s cs? To these*

ques ons, the student rst a empted to explain what exactly he meant. However, since he wasn't sure of how to explain it, he gave up.

Confirmation/Verification: This label refers to the occasions where students validate the significance of the teacher feedback. In the example below, a teacher and a student were talking about what the student wrote for an in-class task of a brief constructive criticism essay:

Michael (the teacher): *Now, you just need simple present.*
Chi (the student): *We have reduced the uncertainty. (Specialised EAP class)*

Surmise: Surmise refers to students' drawing out implications of teacher feedback. For example, the teacher and a student (Miriam) were talking about a departmental-assignment draft:

Heled (the teacher): *[o ering an alterna ve wording for the sentence Miriam had wri en] another reason for analyzing collegiality in Indonesia is that it gives me another opportunity,*
Miriam: *Oh, I need to re-structure. (Generic Insessional EAP class)*

In this example, the student went beyond the teacher's precise suggestion, and drew a wider conclusion.

Conforming: That students explicitly check whether their writing fits in the expected norms and standards refers to conforming. The following example taken from the same dialogue presented for the action of surmise is illustrative:

Miriam (the student): *with empirical research, past or present tense?*
Heled (the teacher): *That's past, finished.*
Miriam: *But I talk about the findings. That's present?*
Heled: *You might say "The results demonstrate".*
(Generic Insessional EAP class)

The student requested general guidance about tense usage, and received an answer, but then checked again that the 'rule' would still be appropriate when discussing her own research findings. In both cases, the student asked the teacher to formulate general writing conventions.

In total, then, we generated seven concept labels for teacher actions, which were Warning, Evaluation, Diagnosis, Suggestion, Stimulation, Deferral, and Arbitership; and nine concept labels for student actions, which were Initiation, Clarification, Suggestion, Challenge, Adducing, Withdrawal, Surmise, Conforming, and Confirmation. Although these labels are more abstract and explanatory than the intuitive incident labels which preceded them, they still refer only to individual learner or teacher actions, and say nothing about what happened when these actions were combined in the feedback interactions which we observed. To elaborate these interactions, we moved on to a further stage of coding, the generation of higher-order category labels.

6.1.3. Generation of category labels and overall theme

Strauss and Corbin (2008, p. 52) explain that categories are 'higher level, broader, have more explanatory power and moved towards greater abstraction than the lower level concepts they are constituted of'. Categories are generated by comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences of lower level concepts, and function as a basic guide for later theorising.

For us, the dominant idea that emerged as we examined and re-examined our data was that teachers and students were using combinations of actions to create different positioning vis a vis each other. We used this idea as a perspective on the concept labels, and this allowed us to group them into three classroom relationship types. We label these as *collaborative relationship*, *subordinated relationship* and *normative relationship*, as shown in the following diagram:

[Figure 1 here]

The left to right orientation of the diagram reflects our argument that certain combinations of actions lead to certain relationship patterns, but says nothing about alternative directions of influence. We would argue that both the actions and the relationship

patterns are realised in an ongoing manner through the discourse, and that interactions can change in character. We also note that an action which would seem to 'bid for' a given relationship pattern is sometimes contested by the interlocutor – so that, for example, a teacher and student participant may contest dominance in a particular exchange. We would also contend that classroom experience will make a difference to the footing on which teachers and students position themselves, so that even the momentary and contingent existence of a particular relationship type might influence the actions which teachers and students choose to take in subsequent interactions. In other words the actions of teachers and students both emerge from, and lead to, the existence of certain relationship patterns.

We will now explain the category labels shown in the above diagram, and their connection to the overall theme, in more detail.

A *Collaborative Relationship* occurs where participants in the feedback interaction attempt to work on the written text together. The key feature of this relationship is that neither side claims absolute control over the written work. Rather, they try to understand together what would be a successful piece of work for the target community.

The following example shows an exchange consisting of actions which, taken together, indicate a Collaborative Relationship in the moment. It is taken from the feedback interaction about a departmental-assignment draft of a student (Cheryl).

[Table 3 here]

In the interaction shown above, teacher and student were debating the organisation of the text and the appropriacy of headings. Neither partner attempted to exert ultimate control over the writing. The teacher, rather than providing 'solutions' as improvements, indicated possible areas of difficulty and made suggestions. The student attempted to explain her rationale and, in her last turn, offered an alternative, which was different from both her

original text and from the teacher's suggestion. Together, the teacher and the student developed the text.

The second type of relationship is *Subordinated Relationship*. Here, the teacher in the feedback interaction displays a cautious attitude, whereas the student gains relative control over the feedback event. In the emergence of this relationship, teachers demonstrate Deferral, referring to an external authority that might be the ultimate determiner. Students may use Adducing, referring to their own knowledge of the expectations of external authorities. This leads to an asymmetrical relationship in which the student is the dominant partner.

An example of this was observed in a specialised EAP class where the teacher (Michael) and the student (Chendar) were talking about what Chendar wrote in the class to answer a task given by Michael:

[Table 4 here]

In this exchange, the teacher began with Diagnosis, an action usually associated with a Collaborative Relationship. However, the student's action was to refer to the language conventions of her discipline, Mathematics - suggesting that the use of the word 'by' was opaque to the teacher as a non-mathematician. The teacher accepted the student's authority here, commenting that the two of them have expertise in different fields. Overall, then, this exchange placed the teacher and student in a Subordinated Relationship.

The third type of relationship is *Normative Relationship.* In this relationship, the more powerful partner is the writing teacher. They act as the representative of the target culture, and indicate that their judgements are authoritative. The teacher actions associated with this relationship are Evaluation, commenting on the overall quality of a student's writing, and Arbitership, making pronouncements on acceptability. The student actions associated with this relationship are Conforming and Withdrawal. The following extract gives an example of Normative Relationship. The feedback interactions took place in a Pre-requisite EAP class

where the teacher asked students to draft a compare-contrast essay using a prompt she gave them. The teacher was checking learners' writing:

[Table 5 here]

In this extract, the teacher corrected two aspects of the student's writing. She chose not to take actions such as Warning or Stimulation which might have functioned to share the load of text development between teacher and student, but rather did all the work herself. She identified the problems and corrected them, thus positioning herself as an authoritative arbiter on language appropriacy. The fact that the student accepted this positioning is indicated by the lack of student actions recorded in the exchange. The student did not offer any challenges or suggestions, but rather withdrew, apparently accepting the teacher's judgement.

6.2. Semi-selective coding: using interview data to understand the causes and consequences of the relationship patterns observed

The relationship patterns observed were far from uniformly distributed in our data. In all our observations, we were able to categorise 299 feedback interactions as collaborative, 94 as normative, and 33 as subordinated. It is therefore appropriate to investigate why the Collaborative Relationship emerged more frequently than the other types. To this end, student and teacher interviews were analysed via a process of semi-selective coding.

Jones and Alony (2011) explain that GT has selective coding procedures which start when core categories (i.e., themes in this study) have been generated. In this stage, the researcher conducts more 'filtered' analysis and examines new data, and codes the most relevant parts of the new data to the existing categories.

In our study, this was a semi-selective coding process. For us, semi- selective coding meant inserting interviews into the analysis procedure and searching for, and analysing, those parts of the interviews, which clarified the theme of Relationship Patterns. The addition of interview data was particularly valuable in that it offered the possibility of elucidating a) influencing factors on, and b) consequences of, relationship patterns – two perspectives,

which would not be accessible from observation alone. Since GT 'builds an analytical case by constantly seeking new categories of evidence' (Jones & Alony, 2011, p. 13), semi-selective coding was conducted to be able to provide a) further supporting evidence for the concepts and categories derived from observation data, and b) understanding of possible influencing factors on and consequences of relationship patterns.

To select interview excerpts for coding, we adapted Strauss and Corbin's (2008, p.163) method, and used 'natural breaks in the [interview] manuscript as cutting off points'. Natural breaks in this context meant changes in the topic of what is being talked about in the interviews. We selected extracts which seemed to elucidate our theme of relationship patterns, and then coded them using a similar approach as for the classroom data. We labelled each excerpt, then compared similarities and differences between excerpt labels to generate concepts, and compared similarities and differences between concept labels to generate categories. By the end of the process, we had generated categories that could *possibly* indicate factors influencing the relationship patterns observed in classroom feedback interaction.

After analysis of all the interview data, the generated categories were:

1. Teachers' Role Perception
2. Learners' Self Image
    2.1. Student Goals
    2.2. Experiences with Feedback
    2.3. Feedback Expectations
3. Critical Awareness of Academic Writing

The first two categories seem to capture the influencing factors on teacher and student behaviour around feedback, whereas the third category is different – it refers to potential *consequences* of feedback. We had not necessarily expected to find this category emerging from our interview data, but the fact that we included some bottom up coding procedures for this data enabled us to see it.

The first two categories all seem to refer to the 'institutional self' of teachers or students, and suggest that behaviour in feedback interactions is influenced by participants' beliefs about the system that they are part of.

Teachers' role perception describes how teachers perceive their roles within the specific educational context. An extract from a teacher interview provides an example:

> *"because I am kind of authority to a certain extent but ultimately I am not the ul mate authority, the ul mate authority is going to be their future tutor, teachers, peers, whatever..."* (Michael, the teacher, Specialised EAP teacher)

This statement of the teacher may imply that while providing feedback, teachers know that there will be an external authority, which may take a different approach to the same piece of writing. Thus, we may assume that the teacher's participation in feedback interactions is influenced by this perception.

Interview excerpts categorised under *Learners' Self Image* include several references by learners to their perceived deficiencies. The following quotes from 3 students are illustrative:

> *"...whenever I write something, I think it's rubbish, it's not interesting and I don't want to read again, and even I (don't) make some proofreading, because it's not interesting". (Adaim, non-matriculated, Pre-requisite EAP student)*

> *"I am not a native English people, so maybe I can't write so good and so academic". (Cheryl, master's student, Generic Insessional EAP student).*

> *"because I saw my last assignment, many gramma cal errors that I make, so I'm not really confident about my language". (Seila, undergraduate, Specialised EAP class student)*

We would argue that these self-perceptions may be linked to other categories in our model of feedback interaction, such as *Experiences with Feedback*. These experiences may lead to the development of certain self-perceptions with regard to language skills, as the following extract would seem to indicate:

"... my teacher did my very low marking and especially for my English teacher my na ve English teacher they say I maybe lack logic maybe not very organized and my organiza on of the structure or some ways of speaking is not very formal..." (Cheryl, masters' student, Generic Insessional EAP student)

In this case, the student's self-image seems to have been influenced by feedback that she has received. This, in turn, may affect how she participates in classroom feedback interactions.

The category *Feedback Expectations* refer to what type of feedback students want to receive. Some students expressed their preferences during interviews, as in the following two examples:

"She just addressed the mistakes but didn't correct them. What I want is to be corrected" (Zekiye, non-matriculated, Pre-requisite EAP student)

"For me, for example, because I usually make mistakes in ar cles and commas, so I prefer that the teacher says Okay, you shouldn't have the comma here, or cross maybe" (Huma, undergraduate, Specialised EAP student)

In both of the above cases, students express a preference for direct teacher correction – actions which we would characterise as Arbitership and which might be associated with a Normative Relationship. As we have seen above, this relationship is not frequently observed in our data, which raises a question about whether there is a mismatch between student expectations and their experience.

The category *student goals* capture student reports about what they want to achieve in the target culture. They may want to achieve grammatical accuracy, and thus choose certain ways of writing. They may want to focus on improving their understanding of the conventions within the target culture like 'avoiding plagiarism'. Their different goals may influence the extent to which they value classroom feedback, as the following interview extract indicates:

"To be honest I don't care about such big words because in marketing we don't use to speak in that way" (Kyoko, non-matriculated, EAP Prerequisite student)

Here, the student indicates that some feedback that she has received is not particularly important, because she feels that it is not relevant to her academic discipline. It seems sensible to assume that such perceptions would influence students' participations in classroom feedback interactions.

The final category which emerges from interview data, *Critical Awareness of Academic Writing,* stands apart as being a potential consequence of feedback interactions. Our interviews suggest the existence of a heightened cautiousness among learners towards academic writing. Partly because of their experiences with feedback, they report that they are aware of the variations within the academic context, and adjust themselves to specific situations. They also critique the ways feedback events are conducted, and they question the academic conventions in their home and target cultures. A suggestive example from an interview is below:

[Table 6 here]

In this extract, the student interviewee (Adaim, Prerequisite EAP student) makes a range of comments which show that he has developed a critical awareness of academic writing. His references to England/UK and his home country show that he is aware of the contingency of the conventions he is learning about.

6.3. Theoretical coding: displaying relationships between analytic categories

In the diagram below, we display the relationships which have emerged through the analysis of our data. Superfically, the argument is linear: that certain aspects of teacher and learner self-perception and experience influence their actions in feedback interactions; that combinations of these actions contribute to certain relationship patterns in the classroom; and that learners' critical awareness of academic writing develops as a result of all of this. Our research suggests that it is valid to posit this direction of influence, but we do not claim that it is the only one. Clearly, teachers' and learners' experiences of actions and relationships in

feedback interactions might make a difference to the self perceptions of those individuals. We have attempted to capture this by the use of double facing arrows. It is also important to note that we do not claim to have accounted for all influencing factors – there could be many more, which our interview data did not reveal. We cannot show on our model what these might be, but we have attempted to acknowledge that they might exist.

[Figure 2 here]

7. Limitations

This study has several limitations. One of them is that we conducted only one interview with some of the participants. Furthermore, existence of few audio recordings together with the absence of video recordings may also be listed among possible limitations, which prevented us from more in-depth examination of feedback interactions.

8. Conclusion

Our research has shown that classroom feedback interactions are extremely complex, both in terms of their own nature as we observed them and in terms of the factors which influence them as reported by teachers and students.

The Collaborative Relationship pattern was the most frequently observed pattern. This finding did not match our original expectations; based on our reading of the literature around feedback and our own general impressions prior to research, we would have expected more normative interactions with the teacher acting as the higher authority. In the same vein, the emergence of a Subordinated Relationship type was comparatively unexpected. Obviously, we were both aware that students sometimes engage teachers in debate about language appropriacy, especially in ESP settings where they may have more disciplinary knowledge. Yet, we had not anticipated that such challenges might be indicative of a specific relationship type which would be salient in our data.

In our setting, both teachers and students show an awareness of the contingent nature of appropriacy in academic writing, and acknowledge that knowledge about language appropriacy is social, constructed and changeable (Lillis, 2003). Feedback interactions seem to be dialogic in the sense advocated by Higgins, Hartley and Skelton (2001) or Lillis (2003). Predominance of collaborative exchanges, but with the possibility of normative or subordinated exchanges if one side pushes for this, seems to recognise that knowledge is manifested differently by different groups of people through writing and reading (Lea & Street, 2004).

Our research supports the arguments of others that feedback should not been seen as the simple and unidirectional act of taking control of learners' writing and imposing our ways of writing on them (Tardy, 2006) nor even a bidirectional process between learners and teachers in the course of writing (Tardy, 2006). Rather it is multidirectional with writers and teachers both orienting as well to other constraints and norms and to other perceived sources of authority.

Our research has shown that teachers and students through their actions jointly construct the relationship patterns observed, but this does not necessarily mean that all participants equally desire them. Our interview data does contain examples of students who report themselves as wanting more normative feedback than they actually get. It is arguable that the predominantly collaborative pattern is set by the teachers, who are more stable actors in the setting (remaining there for several years) and who have regular opportunities to reflect on their practices in discussion with colleagues and managers. There is a commonsense view among teachers that a collaborative style in which responsibility is shared is 'good for' learners, but that learners need some help to realise this. Our research would seem to give some support to this view, in that it shows a great deal of learner engagement in collaborative feedback interactions. Even if learners did not initially expect this style, our research suggests

that they cope with it very well and that their critical awareness of academic writing does indeed develop.

Further research would be needed to explore whether the actions and relationship patterns observed in our setting would be evident elsewhere and, if so, what the influencing factors might be for the styles of observed interaction.

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Tables

Table 1: Initial incident-based coding

Excerpt	Incident Label
After students were finished with writing, the teacher wanted them to share what they wrote with their peers.	Urging peer writing sharing
After peer discussion, the teacher wrote some of the sentences he picked from students' writings.	Providing whole class feedback
It shows that how much money students have owned: In this sentence, the teacher told learners that the sentence had a problem.	Urging Ls to find the problem
One of the students responded as 'We don't need 'that' in this sentence'. To this response, the teacher deleted 'that', and asked learners again whether they were happy with the sentence in this way.	Trying learners' suggestion on correction and urging Ls to think about it

Table 2: Generation of concept labels

Excerpt	Incident Label	Concept Label
It shows that how much money students have owned: In this sentence, the teacher told learners that the sentence had a problem.	Urging Ls to find the problem	Stimulation
One of the students responded as 'We don't need 'that' in this sentence'.	L indicating the problem	Surmise
To this response, the teacher deleted	Trying learners'	Stimulation

'that', and asked learners again whether they were happy with the sentence in this way	suggestion on correction and urging Ls to think about it	

Table 3 (Classroom Observation; Generic Insessional EAP Class)

Heled: The teacher

Cheryl: A master's student from the department of Education, Chinese first language

Excerpt	**Incident Label**	**Concept Label**	**Category Label**
Heled: Why we use it is not necessarily advantages, be careful. You need to be careful with your headings.	Problem	Warning	Collaborative Relationship
Cheryl: But there will be a part about disadvantages part.	Disagree/ attempt to justify/ Problematize	Challenge	
Heled: I think you need to be careful with your title.	Problem	Warning	
Heled: How....? [Indicating a portion of text]	Trying to clarify what student wants to do	Diagnosis	Collaborative Relationship
Cheryl: I mean with the strategy.	Student Trying to clarify intentions	Clarification	
Heled: Initially if you go..For me personally, this is kind of what and how and this is why. For me, I would want to know what and how before why.	Explaining own understanding as basis for suggestion	Suggestion	

Cheryl: But the logic is first why and then what and how.	Student Counter argument	Challenge	

Table 4 (Classroom Observation; Specialised EAP Class)

Michael: The teacher

Chendar: An undergraduate student in Statistics and Mathematics, Russian first language

Excerpt	**Incident Label**	**Concept Label**	**Category Label**
Michael: Also, I don't understand "by triangular inequality rule..." What do you mean 'by'?	T requesting clarification of use/meaning	Diagnosis	Subordinated Relationship
Chendar: Using this rule. We mostly omit the word 'rule'.	L referring to an external authority/disciplinary language use	Adducing	
Michael: It's very interesting what's acceptable in your field and what's not acceptable in my field.	T commenting on disciplinary language use	Deferral	

Table 5 (Classroom observation; Pre-requisite EAP class)

The teacher: Irvette

The student: Aysel, a non-matriculated student, preparing for Economics master's; Russian first language

Excerpt	**Incident Label**	**Concept Label**	**Category Label**
She said to Aysel that she could not use the verb "to demonstrate" in the writing when she wanted to show something. (Not like "I will demonstrate.....)	T correcting the use of a word	Arbitership	Normative Relationship
She also corrected a defining/non-defining clause.	T correcting syntax	Arbitership	

Table 6: (Interview; Adaim, non-matriculated, Prerequisite EAP student)

Data Excerpt	Initial Code	Concept label	Category
Yes, 'ah, I think main criteria is are 'um it's clarity and logical ... logical sequences,	Perceived criteria for AW in the target culture	Reporting awareness of target norms	Critical Academic Writing Awareness
and the actually I we have I face with different kinds of technique to I mean writing technique in England because in my country we have a little bit different	Facing different ways of writing in the target culture compared with home culture	Reporting awareness of conventional differences	
'Um we can, I I, 'um in UK's article you should always you should write something about wrong side and I mean I mean advantage and disadvantage as all, so it's necessary 'um you can write 'eh two two main thing I mean two advantage and one disadvantage	Perceived criteria for academic writing in the target culture	Reporting awareness of target norms	

Figures

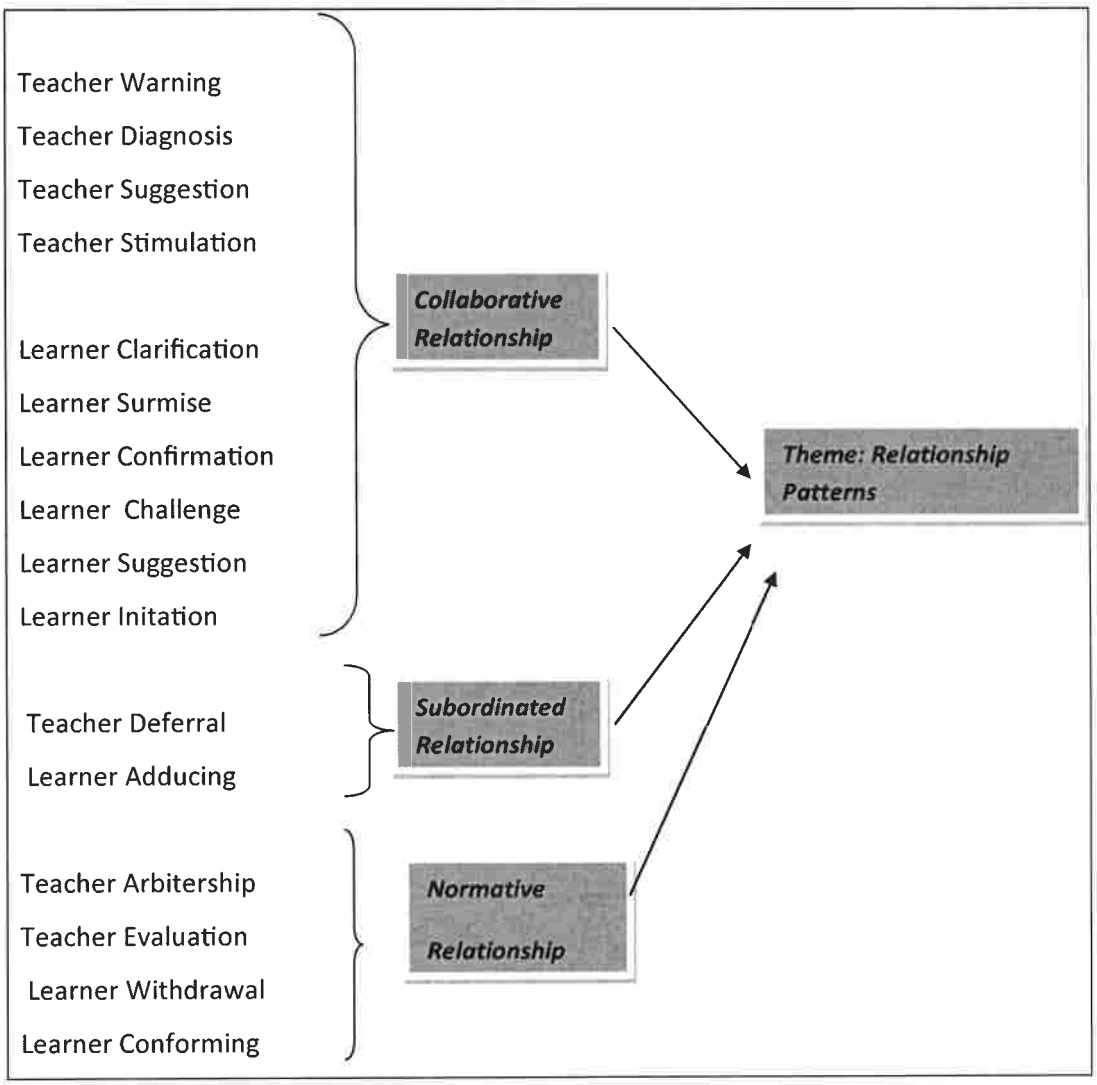

Figure 1