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Exploring teacher-student classroom feedback interactions on EAP writing: A grounded theory approach

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAAW	Critical Awareness of Academic Writing
DIU	Designedly incomplete utterances
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EGAP	English for General Academic Purposes
ESAP	English for Specific Academic Purposes
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
GT	Grounded Theory
PAF	Podcasting assignment feedback
PEPS	Programme in English for Postgraduate Studies
TESOL	Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages

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Declaration

This declaration states that this thesis is my own work. This thesis has not been submitted for a degree at another university.

Abstract

This thesis reports an investigation/exploration of one-to-one teacher-student feedback interactions inside EAP classrooms about learners' academic writing at a higher education institution in England. It is constructivist, and a single case study with embedded units. It also draws on the inquiry traditions of grounded theory. Interviews with EAP teachers and students as well as classroom observations/field notes and supplementary audio recordings as methods of data collection were utilized.

Informed by the hypothesis-generation procedure of grounded theory, the study first followed the stages of open, selective and theoretical coding to present a holistic account of one-to-one classroom feedback interactions between teachers and students in the complete data. After developing the theory, the components of the theory were compared and contrasted (within when possible, and) across case units.

The analysis of classroom observations revealed three patterns of teacher-student relationship in the feedback interactions. These relationship patterns were collaborative relationship, normative relationship and subordinated relationship.

It was also revealed that teachers and students constructed these relationship patterns by utilizing certain actions. In collaborative relationship, teachers utilized actions of *diagnosis, suggestion, stimulation, and warning*. Learner actions in this relationship were *initiation, clarification, suggestion, verification/confirmation, surmise, and challenge*. In normative relationship, teachers utilized actions of *arbitership* and *evaluation* while learners used *conforming* and *withdrawal*. In subordinated relationship, teachers utilized *deferral*, and learners used *adducing*.

The interview data revealed learners' and teachers' institutional-self as the possible influencing factor on how relationship patterns were constructed. Likewise, learners' critical awareness of academic writing was found as one of the potential consequences of those relationship patterns. No possible consequence was revealed for teachers.

The study contributes by presenting an analytical framework to analyse classroom feedback interactions inside EAP classes while foregrounding EAP classroom setting as an underexplored area to understand diverse controversial issues in the field of EAP.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Focus of the Study

The purpose of this research, through classroom observation and interviews with both EAP teachers and students, is to develop an analytical framework to examine one-to-one oral classroom feedback sessions between teachers and students on EAP writing. Therefore, this study sets out to explore the patterns of one-to-one feedback interactions between teachers and students about writing in EAP classroom settings within a particular institution. More specifically, through the inquiry traditions of the Grounded Theory method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978; Charmaz, 2006) and case study (Yin, 2009), this study identifies and groups the actions employed by teachers and students as they negotiate through feedback sessions, as well as revealing possible influencing factors and consequences of these relationship patterns. While doing so, I also aim to draw on major lines of research done regarding feedback on writing as well as major issues and findings from research in EAP and classroom spoken discourse.

The reasons leading me to study this issue may be categorised as previous research-related reasons, disciplinary reasons, personal reasons, and exploratory data collection-related reasons.

One reason for studying the issue of oral feedback interactions is that previous studies have very extensively examined and addressed certain aspects of teacher feedback, such as written modes of feedback. Whereas research on oral modes of feedback within EAP settings has remained relatively thin. Indeed, even those studies which examined verbal feedback on writing tended to target certain contexts like writing

centres or English Language Programmes for pre-matriculated students in the US. Moreover, most of these studies on verbal feedback focused on comparing modes of oral feedback; e.g., online feedback versus face-to-face feedback. The studies focusing on interpersonal dimensions of verbal feedback tend to focus on either teachers or students but fail to place much emphasis on the interaction between them. As a last point, those studies focusing on verbal feedback on writing import existing theories into the research (e.g., Weissberg, 2006). Yet, as Koshik (2010, p. 305) stresses, there is a need to avoid “importing categories of analysis developed from other pedagogical settings or from ordinary conversation” to be better able to depict “what individual practices of pedagogical talks are being used in particular settings”.

Secondly, discipline-related reasons are concerned with the heterogeneous nature of EAP classrooms. As I will show in the Literature Review Chapter, EAP is a special area with its unique dynamics (e.g., growth in higher education, the increasing numbers of international students, trends of teaching academic English and so forth) as well as continuously drawing from theories and research in second language education (Hyland, 2006). At a broader level, these dynamics, leading to new forms of participation from and interaction between individuals, turn EAP classroom settings into a rich environment to learn, teach and examine, but also unequivocal setting for all participants. This nature of EAP results in the necessity to constantly study, re-examine and understand EAP classroom and spoken teacher-student feedback practices, in this case, on EAP writing.

In addition to the above-mentioned reasons for studying patterns of feedback interactions, there are also personal reasons that urged me to focus on this topic. When I started studying for my master’s degree in the United States, I had been studying the English language very intensively for more than seven years. Yet, in the two years I

spent there as an international graduate student, I was engaged with an extensive amount of teacher-provided feedback in different modes on written assignments. This experience led me to develop an interest in it. Moreover, the special emphasis on feedback as an issue to be examined within the courses I was enrolled in also led me to select it as my area of interest for future studies.

It is also important to note that the analysis of my initially collected data sharpened my already existing personal research interest in feedback. This period of my study revealed a significant amount of classroom feedback interactions between teachers and students, and patterns of interactions. Through the initially collected data, I discovered that spoken classroom feedback was the most immediate feedback students from different disciplines could obtain in EAP classes. Furthermore, due to various limitations, such as time limits and irregular learner attendance, spoken feedback in the classroom was most commonly given by EAP tutors. This feedback was offered to learners on in-class academic writing as well as disciplinary writing assignments which students brought to the class to receive feedback on before submitting them to the departmental tutor. Thus, I continued my research with a specific focus on these interactions in the focused-data collection phase (See Chapter 5 for focused data collection).

1.2. Background and Context

Being an exploratory, explanatory and descriptive single case study with embedded units, this study displayed a constructivist position toward the research focus. It utilized the methods of interviews, follow-up enquiries and classroom observations, which were supplemented with audio recording when possible.

The study was conducted at the Applied Linguistics department of a university in England. I conducted classroom observations and teacher-student interviews in pre-

sessional, pre-requisite, generic in-sessional and specialised (in-sessional) EAP classes (Please see Appendix A and B for a detailed account of the profile of these classes). As both the university and its Applied Linguistics department had a key role in the implementation of the research, briefly providing background information about them is necessary. Following this, I will also discuss the place of classroom feedback practices in EAP classrooms I observed to further elaborate on the significance of classroom oral feedback. In the final sub-section, I will widen the perspective by detailing the changing dynamics within EAP teaching and learning context.

1.2.1. The University

At the time I began to collect data, the university reported in it had approximately 23,000 students, 29 academic departments and more than 50 research centres and institutes. This demonstrates the university's disciplinary heterogeneity.

Besides the disciplinary diversity, the university reported a high number of international students; the university webpage indicated that there were 8,237 undergraduate and postgraduate international students. Over 125 countries were represented in this student population.

1.2.2. Applied Linguistics Department and EAP Classes

The English Language Teaching Team of the Applied Linguistics department at the university provided the academic English support. The department offered five main EAP provision: Pre-requisite, Pre-Sessional, In-sessional, Supplementary Courses and On-Line English Support. Pre-requisite, Pre-sessional and In-sessional Classes will be detailed here as I collected the data in those classes. I will also detail the learner profile for those classes (Please see Appendix 1a/b and 2a/b for details).

Pre-requisite EAP classes, now called Programme in English for Postgraduate Studies (PEPS), were designed for the students preparing for a degree at a higher education

institution. In these classes, I observed Academic Writing classes focusing on the grammar and syntax learners needed for academic writing tasks. In these courses, certain genres of academic writing (e.g., comparison and contrast) and the skills to generate these genres were taught.

Pre-Sessional classes were offered to students whose first language was not English, and who had matriculated either an undergraduate or post-graduate degree at the university where I collected the data. Further details are given in the table below:

Phases	Duration	Conditions to Attend	Focus
Phase 1	5 weeks	-	Note-taking, writing summaries, text syntheses, reports and short essays
Phase 2	5 weeks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Test scores satisfy departmental requirement • One component 0.5 points below the criteria 	An extended written project on learners' initial readings from their future courses or subject-specific readings
Both Phases	10 weeks	<p>a. A difference of 0.5 points between the students' overall test scores and the departmental required test scores</p> <p>b. Up to two test components are 0.5 points below the required departmental score</p>	-

Table 1.1. Phases of Pre-sessional EAP

At the end of the course, learners were given a detailed report about their levels of four skills of English (listening, speaking, reading and writing for academic purposes). The report detailed learners' performance and achievement during the course. If the report included 'Fail or Pass' grade, students were recommended to join In-Sessional courses during term time.

In-sessional classes were for the international students simultaneously attending their degree classes. There were in-sessional classes for seminar skills, pronunciation, cross-cultural understanding and writing. These classes were offered as 'Generic In-sessional EAP or Specialised In-sessional EAP'. EAP In-sessional class helped international students with their written assignments, dissertations, or with overall academic writing conventions. These classes were offered throughout the academic year by the Applied Linguistics department.

The attendance requirement changed for each class. In Pre-requisite (PEPS) classes, which was a full-time course, and Pre-sessional EAP classes, regular attendance was

mandatory due to university management's requirement and UK Border Agency's visa clearance requirements. In In-sessional classes, where attendance was irregular, regular attendance was recommended.

Each class where I collected data had a diverse student profile. Students were from Kazakhstan, Turkey, Japan, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, China, Singapore, Mexico, France, the USA, the UK, Bangladesh, Czech Republic, Burundi (Please see Appendix 1a/b and 2a/b for the distribution of these in each class).

1.2.3. Classroom Spoken Feedback Practices on Writing in EAP Classes

On the EAP course's webpage¹, within the course descriptions, classroom feedback provision is not mentioned to a great extent among the course conduct. More specifically in the course handbooks for each EAP class, there was an indication that some amount of speaking on writing would take place during the class. This was specified a few times, although whether or not these would consist of feedback on writing was not. In Pre-requisite Handbook, for example, it was emphasized that learners would engage in "small group discussions, debates and exchange ideas" with other students. Only on the handbook's page for the In-sessional EAP class were Writing Surgery classes listed for Term 2. In these 'surgery' classes, learners were "invited to bring along extracts of their work to discuss with a writing tutor". Other than this, what students could expect as feedback in other EAP classrooms was not explicit.

Teacher-student classroom feedback interactions on academic writing in this study shared similarities with writing surgeries in that students brought their drafts to the class to discuss them with the EAP tutor. However, classroom feedback interactions

¹ I do not provide these webpage links or course handbooks here due to research ethics requirement of protecting participants.

also included learners' EAP in-class writing tasks. Moreover, although the extent of classroom feedback interactions varied between each EAP class, the classroom observation data indicated that these interactions between the teachers and students took place frequently in both terms and across EAP classes for various reasons. One reason was the intermittent learner attendance particularly in Specialised and Generic In-Sessional EAP classes. Learners came to the classes on an emergency basis to receive feedback, which made in-class, spoken feedback the most immediate feedback. Secondly, again in Specialised and Generic In-Sessional EAP classes, tutors conducted in-class writing tasks on which they provided learners with instant feedback in spoken format. Also, across all EAP classes, one-to-one teacher-student spoken feedback was utilized to initiate whole-class discussions. Finally, tutors utilized the time in class to offer one-to-one spoken feedback while the rest of the class worked on other tasks.

1.2.4. Challenges of Learning and Teaching within EAP Context

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) refers to the teaching of the English language to students to facilitate their studies or research in that language (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Jordan, 1997). Despite seeming very straightforward, this definition is not explicit in terms of who to teach and what to teach, particularly in EAP classroom settings. Likewise, it does not clarify the teaching and learning challenges within EAP settings.

Describing learner profiles is one level of difficulty. This is because limiting EAP to a certain group of learners does not accurately depict the nature of learners' multi-faceted and heterogeneous features of identities (Spack, 1997). As the demand for English language learning has grown around the world, internationalization of higher education has increased in particular countries like the USA, the UK, and Australia

(Hyland, 2006). This internationalization of higher education has brought a “diverse student profile in terms of ethnic and linguistic backgrounds and educational experiences” (Hyland, 2006, p.2). Increased immigration and number of refugees around the world have added another layer of complexity to EAP teaching and learning (*ibid.*). Likewise, native-speaker students within those countries have also been directed to EAP settings. Already entering higher education and EAP contexts with diverse learning needs, students have brought further challenges through their “disciplinary-specific studies with particular modes of teaching and learning, and changing communicative practices within those disciplines” (Hyland, 2006, p. 3). This diverse learner profile, thus, has resulted in significant challenges for EAP teachers in terms of what to teach.

The profile of what the EAP learning and teaching context entails, I believe, is even more challenging in terms of classroom teaching and learning setting due to classroom settings’ dynamic nature. This dynamic nature forces all of the aforementioned issues to the surface simultaneously. Within this picture, teacher-student spoken feedback practices on writing merit a closer look.

1.3. Purposes of the Study

The purpose of this research is to explore and examine the patterns of feedback interactions between teachers and students around writing in EAP classrooms within a particular institution. In relation to this objective, the study also aims to detail the actions of students and teachers in feedback talk. A subsequent goal is to unravel possible influencing factors on those feedback interactions as well as possible consequences of the discovered feedback interactions. Thus, the research seeks to contribute to the existing research on verbal teacher feedback on EAP writing. It also aims to contribute by theorizing interactional feedback actions of teachers and

students, and those actions' implications for teacher-student relationship patterns in the context of classroom feedback in EAP settings. While doing so, the study draws on major lines of research on feedback on writing as well as major issues and findings from research in EAP and classroom spoken discourse.

1.4. Outline of the Report

The study consists of eight chapters. This introductory chapter is followed by a review of the literature in EAP and written feedback. The third chapter details the methodology of the study. The fourth chapter explicates the initial open data analysis procedures and presents examples. In the fifth chapter, I detail findings from the selective coding stage, which is followed by theoretical coding in Chapter 6. After working with the data at a holistic level to develop the theory that explains commonalities around classroom feedback practices across EAP classes, I turn to a (within and) across analysis of the case units in order to describe how the theory emerged in each case unit in Chapter 7. Chapter 8 includes the discussion and conclusion, and briefly summarizes the research findings, and discusses these findings in light of the previous research while simultaneously indicating possible research limitations and further research paths.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

The main role of this chapter is to use findings from various lines of research to understand the findings that emerged through the stages of data analysis. This is because there is not much literature directly relevant to one-to-one classroom spoken feedback talk on writing within EAP classes. This chapter also foregrounds the necessity to examine the EAP classroom more closely by focusing on actual classroom practices, and learners' and teachers' perspectives on these practices. Therefore, this chapter consists of five main sections. Underlying the lack of attention to the EAP classroom, its practices and needs, the first section reviews the literature on English for Academic Purposes (EAP hereafter): it summarises the major trends through which EAP has developed as well as major lines of research issues in EAP. The second section provides an overview of the research on classroom spoken discourse, which not only reveals the dynamics of classroom spoken discourse but also draws attention to the need for more research on the EAP classroom. With the same purposes as well as further revealing the dynamics of the particular classroom practice examined in this study, the third section details the research on feedback on writing. The fourth section presents the research questions while the final section summarises the chapter.

2.1. English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

I will begin by presenting how several scholars have defined EAP. Following this, I will present a brief background of the trends through which EAP has developed. The third sub-section will focus on the widely examined research lines in relation to EAP. It is also worth noting that I will mostly draw on Harwood and Petrić (2011), Hyland

(2006), Benesch (2001) and Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) in terms of organization of sub-sections.

2.1.1. Definition of EAP

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) refers to the teaching of the English language to students to facilitate their studies or research in that language (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Jordan, 1997). This definition also applies to the EAP settings in this study, which is also what necessitates examining EAP with its constituents. According to Hyland (2006, p.1), EAP has been influenced by “a variety of theories and research based on language education”, particularly education of English as a second/other language. Additionally, the growth of higher education and the numbers of international students have also added to the growth of EAP (*ibid.*). Therefore, it is necessary to detail the influential trends, issues and research in EAP. All these aspects are meaningful for a better understanding of the dynamics surrounding classroom spoken feedback practices in EAP writing. Therefore, in the next sub-section, I will turn to these issues by first focusing on the trends which took place in the development of EAP, and then, detailing the previous research conducted in relation to EAP. While doing so, I will also bring forward relevant trends and issues from second language teaching/learning as EAP has drawn significantly on second language education.

2.1.2. Trends in the Development of EAP Teaching

While detailing the history of EAP, Harwood and Petrić (2011) use a stage-based division created by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998; as cited by Harwood & Petrić, 2011). Thus, in their accounts, Harwood and Petrić (*ibid.*) list four stages: a) register analysis; b) rhetorical and discourse analysis; c) study skills; d) needs analysis. However, Benesch (2001, p.5) calls these stages “historical trends”, and adds genre analysis to the aforementioned list.

I will follow the term Benesch (2001) uses, but will draw on both sides. It is important to note that seeing these trends as discrete and as in-the-past/current would be overly simplistic (Harwood & Petrić, 2011). These trends “overlap and elements from each trend (or stages) continue to influence thinking in the field and practice today” (Harwood & Petrić, 2011, p.244). I detail these trends here as they have shaped the major debate on generic versus specialised academic English teaching in EAP.

Trends	Teaching and Feedback Focus	Criticism
Register Analysis	“lexical items and grammatical features in scientific texts” (Stevens, 1977; as cited by Benesch, 2001, p.5).	Lack of authenticity (Benesch, 2001) Lack of semantic and pragmatic connection (DeMarco, 1986) Not successful student learning of target register (Harwood & Petrić, 2011)
Rhetorical & Discourse Analysis	“relationship between the grammatical choices and rhetorical purposes” (Benesch, 2001, p.6) “patterns above the sentence or utterance level” (Harwood & Petrić, 2011, p.244) Communicative purposes of paragraphs in writing (Benesch, 2001)	
Study Skills & Needs Analysis	Study skills and strategies rather than linguistic and rhetorical forms (Benesch, 2001) “abilities, techniques and strategies which are used when reading, writing or listening for study purposes” (Jordan, 1989, p.6) Variations of Needs Analysis: Target situation analysis, present situation analysis, deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, means analysis, language audit and constraints (see West, 1994)	
Genre-Based Approaches	“systematised and overt teaching of socially recognised ways of writing for particular purposes” (Hyland, 2003b, p.18)	Reproduction of dominant discourses (Hyland, 2003b) Representation of certain groups and their conventions, supporting status quo (Rosen, 1988)

	<p>Text-types, their meanings and construction within specific communities (Hyland, 2003b)</p> <p>Appropriate linguistic choices and construction of text types</p> <p>“Provision of necessary ground for critical engagement with cultural and textual practices” (Williams & Colomb, 1993, p.262; Fahnestock, 1993, p.268; Hyland, 2003b, p.25).</p>	<p>Not addressing clearly the creation of change and learners (Rosen, 1988)</p> <p>Overlearning, misapplication due to explicit teaching of genre (Freedman, 1993)</p> <p>Helpful in limited situations (e.g., seminars for writing) (Freedman, 1993)</p>
Process Approaches	<p>Guiding learners through the stages of planning-writing-reviewing (Hyland, 2003a)</p> <p>Increasing metacognitive awareness of writing stages (Hyland, 2003a)</p>	<p>Overemphasis on learners</p> <p>No clear explanations about social and linguistic dimensions of writing (Hyland, 2003a)</p>
Content-Oriented Approaches	<p>Writing as an instrument to understand the content (Shih, 1986)</p> <p>Writing conventions of specific groups</p> <p>Encouraging students to display good collection, synthesis, and interpretation of the content (Shih, 1986)</p>	<p>Not adequately addressing to the power issues (Canagarajah, 2003)</p> <p>Marginalisation of non-mainstream learners and different conventions (<i>ibid.</i>)</p>
Academic Literacies	<p>Meaning-making rather than skills or deficits (Carstens, 2011)</p> <p>Reading-writing as bounded to culture, society and genre while also changing from context to context (Lea, 2004)</p> <p>Study skills: “surface language features such as spelling, grammar, and the most visible academic conventions such as simplified representations of text structure and citation practices” (Wingate, 2006, p.462).</p> <p>Academic Socialisation: Acculturation into the disciplinary fields and communities (Lea & Street, 2006; Creaton, 2008)</p> <p>Academic Literacies: How knowledge is manifested by different groups through reading and writing, differences in individual meaning making, identity representations and power dimensions of institutional structures (Lea & Street, 2006)</p>	<p>Vagueness in clear guidance for second language writing practices (Lillis, 2003)</p> <p>Staying in the critique level of previous approaches (Wingate & Tribble, 2012).</p> <p>Neutral stance towards the literacy practices, “unitary and monolithic” (Henderson & Hirst, 2006, p.1)</p> <p>Treating literacy as generic skills, marginalizing non-mainstream learners (Henderson & Hirst, 2006)</p>

Table 2.1. Trends in the development of EAP

Above, I summarized the trends in EAP teaching. As each approach expands the existing issues by raising new questions in an effort to facilitate EAP teaching, I now turn to the most persistent debates and lines of research that these approaches have sparked in EAP.

2.1.3. Most Recent EAP and Previous Research

Harwood and Petrić (2011) underline that the trends summarized briefly here spark debates over the decisions on EAP curriculum design and methodologies for the teaching of different skills, thus creating a vast array of research lines within EAP. These lines of research can be detailed under the title *Design of EAP teaching and influencing factors*.

2.1.3.1. Design of EAP teaching and influencing factors

The findings within this strand may answer questions about specificity (ESAP) versus generality (EGAP) in EAP. The debates over generic versus specific EAP cover issues from the methodology of teaching in EAP, the teaching of four skills, the role of learners and teachers, constitution of academic disciplines, and needs analysis. Although each of these issues are areas of research with their own sub-branches, here they will be discussed only briefly due to space and relevance concerns. Thus, I will present the findings of those studies under *Research on EGAP pedagogy* and *Research on ESAP pedagogy*.

Research on EGAP pedagogy

The proponents of EGAP have focused on the issues of variation within language and its skills, genre, the status of EAP, the construction of disciplines, EAP tutor attributes, and learners' attributes.

Various scholars have examined four skills of language learning to propose a generalised academic language teaching format. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), for

example, indicated that the variation of grammatical and structural forms across different writing types was low. This would, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp.165-166) indicate that “language needs vary little with subject”. Thus, Hutchinson and Waters (*ibid.*) strongly rejected ESAP, and underline that subject-specific teaching should be left to the disciplinary tutors. Still, they underline that “two affective factors generated by learners themselves would make it difficult to persuade learners that there is little space for ESAP” (*ibid.*). These factors are face-validity (i.e., that materials designed specifically for the specific subject are accepted as more relevant), and familiarity (i.e., once learners get used to working with particular texts, they adjust more easily to working with similar texts in their target domains) (*ibid.*). Supporting this claim from an academic vocabulary teaching perspective, Coxhead (2000) indicated that 94% of vocabulary items occurred across at least 20 subject areas in her corpus analysis. Coxhead and Nation (2001, p.258), therefore, emphasized that “context-independent academic vocabulary was an important tool of the writer in doing learned and scientific things”. From the perspective of academic spoken English, Dang and Webb (2014) also supported the idea that a common academic word list was valuable for learning. The context-independent teaching attitude of language skills these studies favour fails to acknowledge learners’ and teachers’ experiences inside EAP classes. Although Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define possible learner resistance to EGAP as “affective factors”, this definition itself indicates the need to examine the dynamics of various challenging factors for an EGAP approach.

Genre studies also provide a ground for EGAP approaches. Durrant and Aydinli-Matthews (2011), for example, found that the uses of certain moves in Master’s students’ writings were similar to each other although they were significantly different from those found in journal articles in the social disciplines. Durrant and Aydinli-

Matthews (2011) suggested that the homogeneity in learners' writings might support the tendency towards teaching of generic EAP. However, he also underlined that the discrepancy between student and journal writings might reveal the need for questioning the existing teaching practices.

A third reason for EGAP orientation is that a discipline specific EAP course would position EAP "as a service to content courses" (Benesch, 2001, p.37). For example, Raimes (1991, p.243), supporting an EGAP approach, rejected the idea of "valuing the subject matter of other disciplines at the expense of the content inherent in our field and at the expense of writer, reader, and language form". This would mean that language courses would be serving a larger academic community while being perceived as "having no intrinsic subject matter" (*ibid.*). Zamel (1993, p.192) also supported Raimes (1991) by picturing EAP tutors as ESL teachers and indicated that asking ESL composition teachers to teach academic discourses would create a "hierarchical model, which implies a unidirectional movement where academic writing courses serve some greater end without ever questioning that end". Although these scholars present a valid argument, a comparison of teacher experiences in between EGAP and ESAP classes is not presented. Thus, there is a strong need to understand how EAP tutors in both general and specific academic English classes position themselves vis-à-vis learners' departments. Likewise, even though the emergence of a hierarchical model may pose a risk in an ESAP approach, if not examined this assumption would remain a prejudice without empirical data from both EGAP and ESAP settings.

A third line of argument concentrates on the constitution of academic disciplines. Earlier work on the definition of academic discipline, and the role assumptions of the academics, focused on an "essentialist approach" with the notion of tribes and

territories where “academics belonged to disciplines and were embedded in researching and teaching in this area” (see Becher, 1989) (Bath & Smith, 2004, p.10). However, recent approaches underline that the essentialist attempts need to change. In terms of an EGAP perspective, this argument was earlier acknowledged by Zamel (1993), who acknowledged the diversity in academic disciplines and the unpredictability of its outcome as well as the learners’ idiosyncratic understanding of those disciplines. Therefore, Zamel (1993, p.194) suggested focusing on “shared features of good academic writing” across disciplines rather than unique differences. In an attempt to reveal the shared features across disciplines, several scholars have examined the rhetoric of disciplinary identities (Pinch, 1990; Brew, 2008; Krause, 2014). Pinch (1990, p.302) underlined that “the shared habitus of” scientists is the rhetorical skills they utilize to create a persuasive impact. Likewise, the study by Brew (2008) provides supporting empirical data by showing that the boundaries within academia are not clear cut, which would emphasize the importance of generic skills. This study revealed two ways academics described themselves. In the “nested conception of disciplines”, academics described their disciplinary affiliation in terms of broad and narrow levels (e.g., law at a broad level, taxation at narrow level). In the second way, academics described “confluent conceptions of disciplinary and interdisciplinary identity”, which implied a continuous change or “being between several distinct areas” (Brew, 2008, p.431). Using these findings, Brew (2008, p.436) criticized the moves towards discipline-specific academic development units and the “destruction of central units to provide disciplinary support”. She underlined that discipline-specific orientations overlook the “fluid and constantly changing character of disciplinary discourses” (*ibid.*). The study by Krause (2014) also supported Zamel (1993) and Brew (2008) by showing that in terms of belonging to a particular academic

discipline no significant patterns emerged from the interviews of academic teaching staff in history and mathematics across three Australian universities. However, the sense of departmental community was stronger among these staff. The studies on how academic disciplines are constituted and how academic teaching and research staff perceive themselves are important in showing that the EAP teaching needs to reflect the ‘confluent/changing/fluid’ nature of disciplines as well as departmental cultures. However, the extent to which an EGAP approach could synchronise with the dynamically changing nature of disciplines as well as addressing the department-specific requirements remains to be examined.

Other supporters of EGAP indicated that EAP tutors might not have the control over the specialized content that an ESAP approach would require (Spack, 1988). This lack of control over the content, according to Spack (1988), might lead to a disservice of language teachers to the specific departments they work for. Therefore, underlining that the specific language teaching needed to be left to the teachers of those disciplines, Spack (1988, pp.40-41) suggested “creating programmes in which students could learn general inquiry strategies, rhetorical principles, and tasks that could be transferred to other course work”. Acknowledging the challenges EAP tutors may encounter is necessary. However, restricting EAP to ‘the teaching of transferable skills’ by making a distinction between content and language might lead to EAP being turned into a service unit, which is a big argument of EGAP proponents. Likewise, this would mean denying EAP its own dynamic disciplinary feature that might develop as a result of its collaboration with various disciplines.

Much also can be learned from the studies that have addressed learners’ attributes (e.g., experiences, perceptions and so forth) although this is also an under-researched area in EAP design studies. The study by Huang (2013), for example, examined native

and non-native graduate and undergraduate students' perceptions about the importance of academic language skills across the humanities, social sciences, sciences and physical and life-sciences disciplines. Both groups of students shared the perceptions of academic language learning needs. Therefore, Huang (2013, p.26), although acknowledging differences, recommended designing EAP courses merging both groups to cover "genre awareness or metacognitive understanding of genre elements" while simultaneously urging learners to transfer this awareness to the specific tasks in the disciplines. Although Huang (2013) provides valuable findings on learners' shared perceptions of academic language, she does not focus on how these "shared perceptions" construct and display themselves across generic and specialised EAP classes. A question to ask, therefore, would be how learners' academic writing needs display themselves in the actual classroom practices and interactions as well as how teachers' perceptions and approaches to these in-action representations of learners' academic writing needs are constructed.

Research on ESAP Pedagogy

The ESAP research provided empirical findings regarding to what extent, and how, an ESAP approach would be more relevant. The proponents of the ESAP approach indicated the issues of generic skills and ambiguity, disciplinary variation from various perspectives (e.g., lexical, genre-based, learners, EAP tutors, and disciplinary tutors), disciplinary tutors' attitudes towards and practices of literacy as well as contextual variation.

To begin with the issue of ambiguity in defining generic skills, Johns (1988, p.706), for example, emphasized that EGAP supporters (e.g., Spack, 1988) vaguely described "general inquiry strategies, rhetorical principles and tasks" that an EGAP class could teach. In that regard, Johns (1988, p.706) argued that "EGAP would not be enough to

equip learners with the necessary skills and strategies to meet the ‘the linguistic and cultural demands of authentic university classes’”.

Supporting Johns (1988), several studies examined the impact of disciplinary variation on language skills, genres, learners and disciplinary tutors. In terms of language skills, research by Arden-Close (1993), Berman and Cheng (2010), Evans and Morrison (2011), and Wu and Hammond (2011) on vocabulary, for example, indicated the disciplinary vocabulary as one of the most challenging issues for EAP learners. Another group of researchers challenged the “existence of a common academic words list”, a view initiated by Coxhead (2000, 2002). Hyland and Tse (2007, p.247), for example, revealed in their corpus study that Coxhead’s (2000, 2002) generic academic vocabulary list was not “evenly distributed across disciplines of sciences, engineering, and social sciences”. Similar corpus-studies focusing on the academic word list within the fields of agriculture (Martinez, Beck & Panza, 2009), chemistry (Valipouri & Nassaji, 2013), and education (Mozaffari & Moini, 2014) revealed that only a very low percentage of Coxhead’s academic word list emerged in these disciplines. Li and Pemberton (1994) also found that middle-frequency vocabulary rather than high (i.e., general) and low (i.e., technical) frequency ones was challenging for learners in the computer science discipline. These studies indicate that teaching certain words across all EAP classes would not be helpful for learners from the disciplines with a low distribution of Coxhead’s academic words. A third group of studies examined the semantic functions of words in various forms of academic work, and revealed that although common words occurred across disciplines, their usage differed (Hyland & Tse, 2007; Durrant, 2014). Durrant (2014) also revealed a relationship between the vocabulary use across disciplines and the level of the study. He found that although

there were exceptions, learners at different levels (undergraduate, Master's) "tended to be homogenous in their vocabulary use" (Durrant, 2014, p.25).

Another line of research emphasized that the variation within and across disciplines also impacted genres. Gimenez (2008), for instance, revealed that students in midwifery and nursing disciplines identified only three genres as common among ten genres presented. However, even among those shared genres, the demands of argumentation and description changed depending on the level of learners' study. Furthermore, although there were general difficulties in both disciplines, the difficulties learners experienced with those genres were mostly discipline-specific. Samraj (2008) also found that Master's theses displayed disciplinary features across the disciplines of biology, linguistics and philosophy in terms of first person pronoun usage and its functions. Nesi and Gardner (2012) also reveals the diversity in genres students at UK universities are asked to engage with by different departments and disciplines. Disciplinary attitudes towards genres have also been examined. Uhrig (2012), examining case genres in MBA and Law departments, found that the MBA programmes were more prescriptive while the Law school was more flexible. The findings also indicated that case genre networks in MBA programmes were more oral and aural while the law department was almost completely oriented towards writing (Uhrig, 2012). These findings underlined a specific EAP approach which highlights "more inclusive representations of academic culture that comprises the disciplines" (Uhrig, 2012, p.135).

The studies I have detailed so far focused on disciplinary variation and its impact on writing. However, despite being parallel to my study, these studies do not address the impact of disciplinary variation on the process of producing academic writing. Within

this process, feedback with its various forms occupies a significant space inside EAP classes.

The findings on the relationship between disciplinary variation and its impact on learners are also meaningful for ESAP. Johns (1988, p.706), for example, explained that the variety among “EAP learners’ proficiency, learning environments, and majors” was overlooked by EGAP supporters. Johns repeated that undergraduate and graduate learners have differing needs, which only an ESAP approach could address. Peacock (2001) supported this idea by presenting findings from a study where EAP learners’ strategies were investigated across a university in Hong Kong. Learner questionnaires indicated that learners’ majors had an influence on the preferred learning strategies in EAP (Peacock, 2001). Peacock (2001, p.270) suggested that “learners’ majors have a considerable importance on tailoring EAP courses for particular groups of students”. Still, several scholars indicated that learners’ attributes is a challenging issue for ESAP. The study by Brinton and Holten (2001, p.248), who examined teacher and student comments in a content-based ESL course for matriculated students to unravel “where the focus on form fits into a content-based curriculum”, found that learners’ proficiency and expectations were “the factors that most confounded decisions about grammar instruction in content-based ESL programme”. In their study, proficiency varied greatly among “students placed in the same course” (*ibid.*). Furthermore, “even the same student exhibited varying proficiencies across four skills” (*ibid.*). Although supporting an ESAP approach, Hyland (2002, p.387) also indicated that ESAP skills could be too difficult for the lower-level learners, which necessitates learning general skills first.

ESAP researchers have examined EAP tutors’ attributes in relation to the intra-disciplinary variation as well. These studies further the complication by revealing the

relationships between learners' attributes, disciplinary variations and the necessary skills an EAP tutor would need. EGAP supporters, as raised by Spack (1988), earlier underlined the EAP tutors' possible lack of content knowledge. Likewise, Evans and Morrison (2011, p.396) suggested that the biggest challenge of the variation for EAP tutors was to "sensitise learners to linguistic and rhetorical features of learners' disciplines". To these arguments, Dudley-Evans (1993), responded by underlining a relationship between the level of learners and the required content knowledge for EAP tutor. More specifically, Dudley-Evans (1993, p.4) indicated that, at higher levels, EAP tutors "might need less knowledge of content and much more understanding of both the general nature of communication in the academic world, and the particular variations in specific disciplines" while, at lower levels, content knowledge might be needed. Furthermore, Dudley-Evans (*ibid.*) underlined that "ESP tutors need to know whether a particular discipline favours a positivist methodology or a more personal humanistic approach". Therefore, Dudley-Evans called for research on "patterns of communication in the general academic community as well as in specific discourse communities" while also underlining that the applicability of research findings into classroom teaching "should be seen as the challenge and the stimulation of ESP teaching". Others support this view by indicating the need to "make the specialised disciplinary research both accessible and useful to students seeking general, transferable skills" (McKinnon, 2013, p.54).

The studies on the impact of disciplinary variation on learners' and EAP tutors' attributes successfully indicate the relationship between the personal component and the wider context of the process of academic writing. This component highlights the need to examine how individual and external components would shape the design of EAP. However, there is a lack of research on how these components influence the

process of academic writing within ESAP classroom practices. More specifically, there is still a need to examine how an understanding of these variations would inform the teacher-student feedback interactions across ESAP classrooms and designs.

Academic tutors' perceptions and beliefs have also been examined in relation to the variation within and across disciplines. Quinlan (1999, p.461), for instance, found that the academics' accounts on specific courses and assignments in the history department indicated "different basic conceptions of their field". Quinlan (*ibid.*) underlined that discipline-specific studies revealing the core beliefs, goals, methods and teaching might facilitate "understanding subtleties and tensions within the field", which might also strengthen the ESAP stance. Similarly, Krause (2014, p.8), for example, examined how the teaching staff in history and mathematics perceived the generic skills such as "critical thinking, problem solving, analytical skills". The findings indicated that although there were "some disciplinary patterns on generic skills in disciplinary contexts, the differences or 'fractures' within disciplines were as noteworthy as those between them, which would indicate inter and intra disciplinary variations across academia". Krause (2014, p.15), thus, underlined that "the territory represented by generic skills is a potentially troublesome one". Galley and Savage (2014, p.15), also examining the key concepts (i.e., criticality, evaluation, reflect) across academic disciplines (e.g., photography, civil engineering, and so forth) of a vocational college, supported that academics held "discipline (or curriculum) specific understandings" of these key concepts. The findings on academic tutors' perceptions and beliefs are significant in terms of indicating the need to explore the impact of these perceptions inside EAP classrooms.

Others examined disciplinary tutors' attitudes towards and practices of writing. The findings in a group of studies (Hyland, 2002; Lea & Street, 1998; Hyland, 2013a) and

some argumentative work (Braine, 1988) hint that disciplinary tutors displayed a reluctant attitude towards writing, and separated the language from the content. For example, Braine (1988), in the article responding to Spack (1988), stressed that subject tutors would be more focused on grading without much concentrating on the language. Thus, Braine (1988, p.702) suggested that the “EAP teacher should remain as the language expert while the learners were the sources of information from various disciplines”. Hyland (2002, p.388) supported this view by underlining that subject specialist teachers “lacked the expertise and desire to teach literacy”. Lea and Street (1999) also contended that subject specialist tutors believed that academic conventions were universal. Zhu (2004, p.43) found that academic tutors regarded themselves as “providers of opportunities to write” while the extent of their involvement with teaching writing remained unclear. Hyland (2013a) also found that although subject tutors, whose expectations, beliefs and practices were shaped by disciplinary-specific goals, wanted learners to write in disciplinary-approved ways, they rarely addressed these issues through feedback. As a possible reason for academic tutors’ reluctance to focus on learners’ writing, Tuck (2012, p.18) drew attention to the needs of academic tutors by revealing how the competing institutional demands (e.g., fair assessor, academic worker and academic teacher) alienated academic tutors from feedback-giving on learners’ writing.

In addition to the studies that evaluated the disciplinary variation from various perspectives, and disciplinary tutors’ frequently-encountered attributes in relation to literacy practices, there has been research emphasizing the impact of contextual factors as well. These studies also focused on various perspectives such as the use of meta-discourse (Li & Wharton, 2012) and genre (Samraj, 2002), and underlined that even though disciplinary culture influenced learners’ writing, institutional culture might

have a stronger influence on how learners utilize meta-discourse (Li & Wharton, 2012) and genre (Samraj, 2002).

The studies on the impact of institutional discourse on academic tutors' attitudes and practices reveal that an institutional distinction exists between the roles of EAP tutors and academic tutors. Likewise, those studies on institutional culture and its impact on learners' writing also indicate how each EAP class can generate unique interactions. Yet, in the literature there is a lack of attention to how these dynamics project themselves inside EAP classroom interaction. An understanding of these would also show what the features of a collaboration between ESAP and learners' departments could be, which is, as is shown below, what ESAP proponents strongly recommended. ESAP supporters' stance has been to encourage a liaison between EAP tutors and discipline tutors. Dudley-Evans (2001, p.226) categorised possible types of liaison as co-operation, collaboration and team-teaching. Those studies examining these possible types of liaison have emphasised the methodological, epistemological and ontological issues between disciplines and EAP as possible determining factors for a successful/unsuccessful liaison (Barron, 2003). Other studies, indicating potential difficulties with ESAP courses (e.g. level of learners to master ESP texts), recommended gradually preparing learners for more advanced and specialised language (Ahmadi & Bajelani, 2012).

2.1.4. Evaluating the research on EAP Design: Classroom Spoken Feedback Practices

The studies summarized so far indicate the most important paths in understanding EAP. The approaches towards EAP emphasised different aspects of language while still influencing the thinking in EAP. EGAP- and ESAP-oriented research have highlighted the issues of disciplinary variation and its consequences, language variation, EAP tutor attributes, learners' attributes and disciplinary tutors' attributes.

Therefore, the relevance and significance of these issues are not contested. However, the general tendency towards examining the language as text as displayed by various approaches and studies, or the emphasis on institutions and disciplines together with their impact on disciplinary tutors' and learners' attitudes, beliefs and practices as context, do not pay enough attention to the EAP classroom, EAP tutors' classroom related experiences and beliefs as well as EAP learners' classroom related experiences and beliefs. That is, a concrete understanding of whether and how these issues manifest themselves within EAP classroom activities, one of them being classroom spoken feedback practices, is missing. Examining these issues in relation to spoken classroom feedback in EAP might contribute to: a) a better understanding of the 'needed' nature of EAP instruction by providing a bottom-up view on those issues; and b) facilitating classroom practices, particularly spoken classroom feedback within EAP.

Classroom spoken feedback in EAP classes lacks research attention despite its obvious role in and relevance to EAP classes, as I shall show in my data. Related to this, Watson-Todd (2003, p.150) indicated that "there is an imbalance in the literature with more attention paid to the 'what' of EAP". Cadman (2005, p.355) interpreted this criticism as an indication of a "reluctance in EAP to go into the living-and-breathing classroom, as writers prefer to focus on materials and teaching approaches rather than relationships". The data in my research indicated that a large part of learners' and teachers' classroom experiences in EAP are constituted from classroom feedback interactions on writing. Thus, it might be claimed that classroom feedback interactions bear opportunities to develop/examine EAP practices.

In that regard, EGAP and ESAP studies indicate the two main dimensions of EAP classroom and teacher-student classroom feedback interactions: individual and

external dimensions. However, the interactional dimension and how all these dimensions function together in classroom settings remain underexplored.

So far, I have detailed approaches towards EAP teaching and widely debated issues with accompanying research while simultaneously highlighting several dimensions of EAP teaching and learning. Now, as I have set the ground in EAP and indicated “spoken classroom feedback as an area that requires attention in EAP”, I zoom out to a larger area: classroom spoken discourse in language classrooms. This is because issues surrounding spoken classroom discourse might facilitate our understanding of this under-explored area of research in EAP and its dimensions by also revealing why there is a need to explore EAP classrooms.

2.2. Classroom Spoken Discourse: An Overview

Through this background on classroom spoken discourse, I will attempt to achieve two objectives. Firstly, I will show how “research on classroom discourse has moved to a more holistic understanding of classroom processes from simplistic and reductionist account” (Tsui, 2011, p.277). This shift underlines that neither learners nor teachers are in a passive provider-recipient relationship (Tsui, 2011). Rather, learners, teachers and the broader context(s) with which they are in relationship actively construct the classroom spoken discourse (*ibid.*). Secondly, as there is not enough literature on the mechanisms of classroom spoken feedback in EAP, I will show how issues constituting spoken classroom discourse inform spoken classroom feedback practices in EAP classrooms.

2.2.1. Features of Teachers’ Discourses and Influencing Factors

Walsh (2006) stated that the features of the teachers’ classroom discourse are control of patterns of communication, elicitation, repair and speech modifications. In the

following sub-sections, I will detail studies on these features and their influencing factors.

2.2.1.1. Teachers' control of patterns of communication and its influencing factors

Walsh (2006) explained that teachers control and create the interaction in the classroom through sequences of discourse moves, which constitutes the underlying structure of the classroom communication. These sequences of discourse moves are represented through IR(E/F), where I is teacher initiation, R is learner response and E/F is an optional evaluation or feedback by the teacher. F in this model has been turned to *follow-up* recently (*ibid.*). Previous research has largely examined the appropriateness of the represented structure of classroom interactions and possible reasons leading to the emergence of these patterns for teachers. Some of the possible reasons are the curriculum, teachers' objectives and goals, teachers' individual attributes, teachers' perceptions of their students, the relationship between the types of the activity and types of teacher talk, and teacher perception of student proficiency-elicitation type relationship.

Research into curriculum has revealed that the amount and type of teacher talk might be shaped by the curriculum. For example, the study by Harklau (1994), which compared teacher talk in mainstream and ESL classes at a high school in the US, found that mainstream classes had more teacher-led discussions. Harklau (1994) contended that a possible reason for this difference was the fact that the curriculum in the mainstream classes was not oriented towards improving learners' language skills. On a similar line, Silver and Kogut (2009) suggested that the curriculum also shapes the type of teacher talk as well as its amount. The results indicated that even if there was more teacher talk in Singapore of primary level English classes compared to student talk, the amount and type of teacher talk changed depending on the type of activity

(p.15). More specifically, the teachers made more curriculum talk (i.e., “talk about actual content or skills to be taught”) while giving instructions to students (pp.6-9). These findings could be related to the arguments of EGAP studies on the EAP tutors’ lack of control over the content (Spack, 1988). Although EGAP proponents interpreted this lack of control as a reason to suggest leaving the teaching of disciplinary language to content tutors, the findings by Harklau (1994) and Silver and Kogut (2009) indicate that the curriculum of EAP classes might differently shape teacher-student interactions in EAP and in departmental classes due to the curriculum differences. However, the nature of these interactions and how these interactions would inform EGAP-ESAP debates remain to be examined.

The demands of classroom management also influence how teachers control and manage the turn taking and sequence allocations in classroom interactions. The study by Xie (2011), for example, indicated that the teachers at two Chinese universities concentrated on encouraging willing and active students; thus they allocated the turns to the willing students. With similar findings, the study by Waring (2013a) examined data from an ESL class for adult learners at a community English programme, which belonged to a TESOL programme of a graduate school at a university in the US. The results indicated that the momentary classroom demands (e.g., equal participation, order) urged teachers to make either selective or sequential decisions while choosing the respondents to their questions. In selective attending, the teachers selected the respondents depending on their “stronger manifestations of clarity, demands for responding or promises for the progressivity of the classes” (p.325). However, in sequential attending, since teachers were faced with the demands of learning and effective classroom management simultaneously when several students volunteered at the same time, they selected students to respond in the order they volunteered (p.333).

Waring (2013b) also provided further evidence by presenting how the teacher attempted to maintain the progressivity of the class and even participation by neglecting the participation of one uninvited speaker. In this study, the analysis of two hours of videotaped data from an adult ESL class showed that the teacher either made sequential deletion or minimal acknowledgement+redirection (p.843). Sequential deletion emerged when a student talked without being nominated and the teacher moved forward with his/her talking or focused on allowing the current speaker to finish talking (p.845). Minimal acknowledgement+redirection took place when a student talked without being nominated for the turn and the teacher briefly acknowledged but then attempted to “redistribute the floor or perhaps refocus the talk” (p.848).

Teachers’ perceptions of their students also influence their classroom management decisions. The aforementioned study by Xie (2011, p.245) found that one of the English language teachers tended to accept choral responses since she believed that her students were “too shy to speak in English in front of others”. Likewise, the study by Kayi-Aydar (2013, p.21), which examined the classroom participation patterns of two ESL students in an oral skills class at an intensive academic English programme at a university in the US, found that the teacher tended to divert her attention to the learners with less proficient speaking skills and vocabulary from a more advanced learner during speaking activities.

Xie (2011) also revealed a relationship between teachers’ perceptions of student proficiency and teachers’ elicitation strategies in terms of teachers’ turn allocations. In this study, one teacher selected the students to respond depending on her perceptions of student level and the questions posed. While higher proficiency students were selected for more difficult questions, lower proficiency students were

nominated for the easier questions (*ibid.*). These findings on the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their students and their classroom management decisions certainly inform the understanding of feedback interactions inside EAP classrooms. However, how teachers' perceptions shape their decisions in EAP classes, how learners engage with teachers' perceptions, and the influence of learner engagement with teacher perceptions on the overall feedback interactions in EAP would require further research. This would also inform the debates on ESAP-EGAP by providing learners' and teachers' experiences.

Teachers' stable and unstable attributes have received attention from a variety of studies as well. Among teachers' stable attributes can be listed ethnic and social backgrounds and gender. For example, Ajayi (2011) found that teachers' personal histories (i.e., being an ESL learner previously, sharing the same ethnicity with learners, and so forth) influenced how they approached their interactions with learners in the classes. The teachers from multi-cultural/bilingual/bicultural backgrounds could "offer a different discourse and multiple perspectives" (Ajayi, 2011, p.263). These findings might challenge EGAP proponents (Spack, 1988) again by indicating that EAP tutors' personal histories with EAP teaching would help EAP tutors offer different discourses to learners that could benefit teaching and learning practices of disciplinary language and writing. In that sense, examining teacher-student feedback interactions in EAP classes on academic writing would facilitate the debate on EGAP vs. ESAP.

Gender also emerges among the issues influencing teachers' control of interactional patterns. The study by Rashidi and Naderi (2012), for example, revealed that Iranian female and male teachers differed in terms of the amount of their interactions and their use of compliments and directives. The study concludes that even though there might

be an influence of cultural values on each gender's use of discourse acts, gender emerged as a significant factor influencing teachers' classroom discourse and control patterns.

2.2.1.2. Elicitation

Walsh (2006) stated that classroom discourse is mostly constituted of teacher question-student answer routines. The majority of studies, according to Menegale (2008, p.110), describe the types of teacher questions under three groups:

- a. **Procedural questions:** questions which do not directly focus on the content of learning and which support classroom management, routines
- b. **Display questions:** questions testing learners' knowledge and understanding, the answers of which are known by the teacher
- c. **Referential questions:** questions asking learners to generate authentic language, the answers of which are not known by the teacher.

These question types later were also categorized into four quadrants, which is shown below (Wilén, 1991; as cited in Menegale, 2008, p.111).

High Order Questions			
Convergent Questions			Divergent Questions
Low Order Questions			

Table 2.2. Question types

In this scheme, low order questions are the questions with a very limited range of answers while high order questions have a wider span of answers. As for convergent questions, these questions do not require original/critical thinking. Divergent questions, on the other hand, are open-ended questions requiring students to interpret, critique and synthesize (Menegale, 2008).

The research on elicitation in language classrooms also has intensified on the possible influencing factors that shape teachers' utilization of elicitation strategies. Some of the

possible influencing factors are curriculum, teacher attributes, student attributes and classroom physical features.

Curriculum, according to some studies, may shape the type of teacher questions. The study by Shoomoossi (2004) for example, examined 40 EFL reading comprehension classes in Tehran universities. The findings indicated that teachers utilized display questions more during reading comprehension activities and grammar exercises. Shoomoossi (*ibid.*) commented that this was probably due to the fact that teachers had to first check whether students understood what they were working on before asking questions that would require authentic answers. Qashoa (2013) also supported the theory that display questions are utilized more for reading comprehension tasks in his study, where EFL classes at public primary schools in the United Arab Emirates were observed in order to understand teachers' elicitation patterns.

Teachers' stable (e.g., gender) and unstable attributes (e.g., training) have also been examined. In terms of gender, the study by Rashidi and Naderi (2012), for example, revealed that although there were similarities between male and female teachers' elicitation patterns, female teachers tended to ask more referential questions. On the other hand, male teachers utilized more display questions (*ibid.*).

As for teachers' training as an unstable teacher attribute, Brock (1986), for instance, examined four ESL teachers and 24 non-native adult speakers of the English language in the US. Two of the teachers were given 20-minute training sessions on referential and display questions while the other two teachers did not have any training. The analysis of the classes of two teachers revealed that the teachers who had training on questions asked more referential questions. Yet, it is still underlined that a study with different group sizes and proficiency level of students is needed to better understand the impact of teacher training on the utilization of questions (p.56). The study by

Harklau (1994), although not specifically focused on elicitation, might also offer clues about the relationship between teacher training and questioning. In that study, it was revealed that the mainstream teachers who did not have any ESL teaching training were less likely to generate output from non-native speakers of English in the class (Harklau, 1994). That is, the way these teachers asked questions (e.g., asking to the whole class) in the class made it easier for native speaker students to respond to while non-native students were silent (*ibid.*). Similar to the study by Ajayi (2011), Brock (1986) and Harklau (1994) also offer findings that could highlight the training differences between EAP tutors and departmental tutors, which might lead to different interactional patterns of feedback on academic writing.

Teachers' proficiency and experience with the language are among the unstable teacher attributes that might have an influence on teachers' elicitation patterns. For example, Farahian and Rezaee (2012) examined the types of teacher questions in Iran in pre-intermediate EFL settings for students aged between 17 and 21. They found that the teacher utilized mostly yes-no questions and closed and display questions respectively. The utilization of these questions was found to be related with teachers' mastery of second language and experience with teaching.

Another influential factor is the teachers' goals and objectives. In the study by Qashoa (2013), out of 105 questions across these classes, 62% selected display while the remaining 38% was referential questions. Qashoa (2013, p.59) comments that the reason for teachers to utilize display questions more frequently might be that they wanted to "involve more students in the interaction". In another study by Rezaee and Farahian (2012), it was revealed that an average of 66.8 % of the class time was allocated to teacher talk. However, Rezaee and Farahian (2012) found that the EFL teacher mostly utilized divergent questions which were followed by convergent and

procedural questions respectively even though the amount of the teacher talk was high. Using these results, Rezaee and Farahian (2012, p.1241) concluded that the amount of teacher talk was not an aimless tool, which suggests that it should not be solely evaluated with the quantity. Rather, they underline that teacher talk needs to be regarded as a tool “to explain, describe, simplify” the teaching (*ibid.*). They concluded that the amount of teacher talk at upper-intermediate and even advanced levels should not be reduced due to its described functions (*ibid.*). Similar findings were also presented by Sanchez and Borg (2014, p.50), who found that teachers utilized elicitation to “guide the learners in the process of discovery learning and to help them construct the meaning of new grammar items”.

In terms of student attributes, several studies reported students’ proficiency as a determining factor on teachers’ elicitation patterns. The study by Menegale (2008), for example, found out that teachers tended to ask twice as many divergent questions in the classes where there were highly competent students from the disciplines of humanities, which raised questions about whether subject difficulty functioned as another influencing factor along with student proficiency. However, it was found that subject difficulty did not have a great impact on the elicitation techniques of teachers (Menegale, 2008). This was because the teachers of both science and history classes with higher proficiency learners mostly utilized higher order divergent questions (i.e., questions requiring creative responses with a wide range of answer possibilities) (p.118).

Finally, class size also emerged as another influencing factor on teachers’ elicitation techniques. According to Harfitt (2012), the teachers in smaller size classes at four secondary schools in four Hong Kong EFL classes utilized more open questions while interacting with students.

2.2.1.3. Teachers' repair patterns and possible influencing factors

Interest in corrective behaviour was started by Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977) with a focus on informal and native speaker interaction. In this study, Schegloff et al., (1977, p.363) stated that they preferred to refer to the act of correction as "repair" since repair "could capture the more general domain of occurrences" and repair could be "initiated with no apparent error", which indicated "that nothing was in principle, excludable from the class repair". Therefore, it might be assumed that correction, on which I will mostly focus here, is a subcategory of repair (Mäkinen, 2008). Schegloff et al., (1977; as cited by Kasper, 1985, p.200) displayed the patterns of repair between native speakers as emerging in four different ways:

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Self-initiated, self-completed repair: the act of correction is initiated and completed by the participant who is responsible with the troubleb. Other-initiated, self-completed repair: the act of correction is initiated by the interlocutor while the correction is completed by the participant who is responsible with the troublec. Self-initiated, other-completed repair: the act of correction is initiated by the participant who is responsible with the trouble, yet the interlocutor completes the repaird. Other-initiated, other-completed repair: the act of correction is initiated and completed by the interlocutor. |
|--|

Table 2.3. Patterns of repair between native speakers

Following this initial study, several studies concentrated on the repair in the educational contexts with the belief that "an even greater need for repair can be expected in contexts where linguistic knowledge is typically asymmetrically distributed" (Kasper, 1985, p.201). Seedhouse (2004, p.142) stated that these studies which focused on repair in language classrooms attempted to understand "typical participants of repair, typical repair trajectories, typical types of repair and typical focus of repair". In this review, I will first detail the studies describing teachers' repair (i.e., teacher repair trajectories, types, focus, and so forth) in classroom discourse and

its influencing factors. Those studies which evaluated the repair in relation to the learners will be detailed in Section 2.3.2.2.

One factor influencing the repair in classroom settings is the curriculum/pedagogical goals. The study by Kasper (1985), for example, examined two language-oriented and content-oriented English lessons at a Danish gymnasium. The analysis indicated that the teaching goals of both phases of the language class determined the emerging patterns of repair. That is, in the language-oriented unit of the class, the repairs were more teacher-initiated, learner-completed. However, in the content oriented sections, self-initiated and self-completed repair patterns were more preferable for both teacher and students. The study by Nabei and Swain (2002, p.57) contended that the possible reason that some teachers utilized feedback extremely infrequently was the teacher's awareness of the fact that learners "were concurrently taking classes which had a more linguistic orientation such as Grammar". Therefore, the teacher was more oriented towards facilitating the discussions. Rolin-Ianziti (2010) supported these findings. In this study, teachers' delayed repairs were investigated and data was collected from a French Introductory course taught in an Australian tertiary institution. The analysis showed that teachers' repair patterns were delayed and either teacher-initiated/teacher-completed or teacher-initiated/student-completed (Rolin-Ianziti, 2010). Rolin-Ianziti (2010, p.202) commented that one possible reason for delayed repairs could be "to open the opportunity to implement formal instruction not only interactively (i.e., dialogue setting) but also reactively (i.e., in response to the linguistic needs of the students)". It has been shown in section 2.1.3.1. that a frequent claim of ESAP studies was the lack of engagement of disciplinary tutors with the teaching of academic writing. The findings on the curriculum/pedagogical goals of classes not only reveal the possible underlying reasons but also point to the need to examine EAP tutors'

engagement with disciplinary language in learners' writing during feedback interactions.

Learners' attributes have also been examined in relation to teachers' repair patterns. One line of research focused on learners' previous knowledge and revealed that the preferred repair pattern was teacher-initiated, student-completed when learners were familiar with their linguistic target (Rolin-Ianziti, 2010). A second line of research indicated that learners' proficiency might determine types of teachers' corrective feedback (i.e., more self-correction with higher levels) (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011), and features of repair (i.e., short, unstressed recast with declarative mode and targeting one change with lower proficiency learners) (Asari, 2012).

The types of learners' errors have also been examined. The study by Suzuki (2005) found that three ESL teachers at a university in the US provided feedback mostly for phonological errors, which was then followed by grammatical and lexical errors.

Teachers' attributes were investigated by Inan (2012), who revealed that non-native speaking teachers of English tended to provide more corrections for learners' errors while native speaking teachers of English were more tolerant.

Classroom demands are among possible influencing factors. Rolin-Ianziti (2010, p.202) found that when "teacher initiated-teacher completed" patterns emerged, a possible reason was the time it takes to urge students to correct their errors, and teachers were "pressed for time".

2.2.1.4. Teachers' speech modifications and its influencing factors

Under this title, research has revealed findings that indicate the impact of the curriculum and learners' proficiency on teachers' speech modifications. Regarding the curriculum, Harklau (1994) revealed that content teachers did not utilize tools (e.g., speech speed and complexity reduction, increased repetition, pauses and

comprehension checks) for non-native speakers of English to provide useful input for their language learning. However, the ESL teacher in the study made more effort to make speech adjustments to provide learners with more comprehensible input. As for learners' proficiency, the study by Owen (1996) indicated that teachers increased their speech rates with more advanced students.

2.2.1.4. Evaluating studies on teachers' discourse

Within the context of my study, the literature I reported on teachers' control patterns, elicitation, repair and speech modification indicates the following issues with EGAP studies:

- EGAP proponents have largely focused on EAP tutors' lack of content knowledge. However, the studies I reported on teachers' control of patterns, elicitation, repair, and speech modification indicate the lack of attention at other components of teacher discourse in EAP.
- Focusing on the influencing factors of teachers' discourse could also shape the teaching and learning opportunities inside EAP classes.
- A close examination of the relationship between teachers' classroom discourse and disciplinary variation would further inform the decisions on EAP design as well as revealing dynamics of classroom feedback interactions.

2.2.2. Features of Learners' Discourses and Influencing Factors

Under this heading, I will focus on learners' participation in the classroom and repair together with possible determining issues.

2.2.2.1. Learners' participation in the classroom interactions and its influencing factors

Teachers' question types, teachers' turn-regulation procedures, learners' attributes, teachers' attributes, curriculum and physical features of the classroom have been found to have an influence on learners' classroom participation.

One possible influencing factor is teachers' question types. The study by Brock (1986, p.55), for example, found out that student responses to referential questions were "on average more than twice as long and more than twice as syntactically complex as their responses to display questions". Likewise, Menegale (2008) found that in content-based language classes in Italy, students' answers to convergent questions were usually shorter (Two or three word answers to convergent questions while 30 words at the most to divergent questions).

Despite the findings above, several studies display a cautious attitude to the assumption that referential questions lead to a higher amount of student output. One study supporting this claim was conducted by Shoomoossi (2004). Quantitative analysis of EFL classroom observations revealed that referential questions indeed led to higher student participation. However, there were also a number of referential questions that did not lead to high amounts of student participation. On the contrary, these referential questions received silence, short answers or topic change. Thus, Shoomoossi (2004) underlined that most, but not all, referential questions can create more interactions than display questions.

Lee (2006) also presented evidence underlining a need to review the views on display questions. This study in three different ESL classes at a Midwestern university in the US revealed that contrary to the perception of display questions as less effective in terms of providing students with genuine communication opportunities, the process of utilizing display questions involved communicative language use. More specifically, teachers' use of display questions involved "negotiating the sense of display questions through repairs, using a narrative to link commonsense knowledge to lesson-relevant terms and steering the discourse into a particular direction using multiple IRE sequences" (p.708). Suggesting a similar stance, Behnam and Pouriran (2009), who

investigated six intermediate English classes at a language institute in Iran, found a difference between the student responses to display and referential questions (i.e., referential questions eliciting longer answers while display questions elicited shorter responses). However, it was also underlined that there were instances when display questions led to longer interactions while referential questions did not elicit enough interactions with learners.

The changing impact of teachers' question types on learners' participation might indicate that learners' participation and teachers' question types might be in relation with other factors as well. For example, Harfitt (2012) suggested that teachers might be changing pedagogical approaches, thus, elicitation techniques, in classrooms with different features (e.g., number of students). In Harfitt's study, the teachers used more open questions in reduced-number classes, which gave students the opportunities to generate more complex answers.

Other studies revealed a relationship between teachers' turn-regulating procedures and learners' participation into the turn-taking patterns in the class. For example, according to Xie (2011, p.244), the students whose teachers made individual nominations for the response turns felt pressurized and "did not want to face the embarrassment of not being able to answer the questions". Therefore, students of those teachers tended to mentally prepare for the following questions while another student was responding.

On the other hand, the same study indicates that the relationship between turn-taking regulating procedures and the elicitation techniques of teachers might influence learners' participation. The students whose teachers asked referential questions and preferred choral responses instead of individual student responses indicated that they could not have "extensively participated into the conversations to talk about their

opinions” (Xie, 2011, p.245). This was because these students felt that it would be too disruptive in choral participation modes to be singled out.

A number of studies also reveal findings on the impact of learners’ attributes. According to Behnam and Pouriran (2008), learners’ personalities can shape the way they participate in classroom discourse, answer teacher questions or the amount of their answers to teacher questions. They revealed that talkative students provided longer responses to both referential and display questions (*ibid.*).

Students’ educational experiences, which have been mostly examined together with learners’ ethnic and cultural backgrounds, have been extensively investigated as well. Harklau (1994), for example, found that the cultural values of home countries led non-native speaker English language students to disengage from interaction with their content teachers. That is, since silence in some cultural backgrounds was more appreciated, students from those cultural backgrounds tended to be more silent. In another study by Morita (2004) evidence was provided regarding how students’ previous experiences shaped their participation in classroom talk. In this study, which examined native and non-native speaker graduate students’ engagement in oral academic presentations over eight months of ethnographic study at two Canadian universities, non-native students were observed to be withdrawn and hesitant in their classroom participations. Morita (2004, p.229) explained that this situation might result from the learners’ “lack of tacit knowledge and subtle skills of classroom interaction” in Canadian classroom settings. Likewise, the study by Hu and Fell-Eisenkraft (2003), which examined immigrant Chinese students’ silence in the language arts classroom in the US, found that learners frequently listed being shy, not having the right answers and the noise level in the class when they were asked about their reasons for being silent in their US classrooms. However, Hu and Fell-Eisenkraft

(2003) underlined that silence is closely related with culturally learned styles of communication. That is, due to high emphasis on obedience, hierarchy and indirect communication, having the correct answer, and the epistemic values of talking in Asian cultures as a result of Confucian ethics, students from these cultural backgrounds learn to “listen to their teachers and be transmitted the meaning by the teachers” (p.57).

The findings of the study by Yates and Nguyen (2012) present supporting evidence. In this study, five Vietnamese males and five females studying at an Australian university in Applied Linguistics, Educational Management and Leadership, and Science and Technology Management fields were interviewed. The findings indicated that although students had positive views on oral participation in their classes, Vietnamese cultures and learning traditions determined learners’ participation into the classroom discourses (Yates & Nguyen, 2012). That is, various cultural features such as the “Vietnamese culture of respect for social status and seniors, obedience, indirectness and attention to face” along with learning traditions such as “passive and teacher centred teaching and learning style” led learners to stay reticent to speak in the tertiary classes (Yates & Nguyen, 2012, pp. 27-28). Yates and Nguyen (2012, p.30) argued that these findings indicate that “there are multiple complex motivations that go beyond the simple discourse of (language) deficit” for the silence of these students. Bista (2012) also studied Oriental students’ participation in the US mainstream classes from the point of silence. Reflecting on self-experiences as a Nepalese international student in the USA, Bista (2012, p.80) explicated that cultural features (e.g., Confucian ethics, values, silence as a sign of wisdom) and cultural learning styles (e.g., teacher centeredness, using silence to foster learning via effective listening) together with the limited language proficiency were the deeply rooted causes of learner silence.

However, there are also studies with contrasting findings about the relationship between students' silence in the classroom and their cultural values and learning traditions. For example, Kato (2010) studied 30 Japanese ESL students enrolled in a graduate school in New York City through questionnaires. It was found out that students did not relate their being silent with the Japanese cultural values about silence. Rather, silence was either related with learners' length of time they had been in the US or personality (*ibid.*). Thus, Kato (2010, p.14) underlined that learners' participation and silence need to be examined with a "contextual focus" to show the "complexity and diversity of students' experiences in the classrooms", thus assuring that context is not obscured by the "overemphasis on the culture" while examining learners' participation in the classroom discourse.

Various studies support Kato (2010) in that contextual experiences of learners need to be examined to better understand their participation in the oral classroom discourse. For example, Morita (2004) found that feelings of insecurity among both native and non-native graduate students in TESL courses at two Canadian universities led them to be withdrawn in their engagement in classroom interactions (Morita, 2004). Morita (*ibid.*), however, emphasised that various reasons could have led both groups to feel insecure. Following the same line, Samar and Yazdanmehr (2013) also shed light on a variety of contextual experiences that might shape learner participation. Their data revealed that various issues inside the class, such as learners' level of education compared to their peers, add to their self-esteem, and thus their participation (*ibid.*). Similarly, the same study found that there was a relationship between learners' age vis-a-vis their classmates and their participation. In this study, the students who were outliers in terms of their ages in the class tended to stay more silent (Samar & Yazdanmehr, 2013). Hamouda (2013) supported these findings as well. Student

questionnaires among Saudi Arabian EFL students revealed that issues such as peer evaluation or fear of negative evaluation by teachers added to learners' shyness and anxiety.

There is also a relationship between teachers' turn-regulating procedures and students' previous experiences with turn-allocating procedures. The study by Xie (2011) found out that students who were previously socialised into individual nomination procedures stayed silent or did not participate when the teacher utilized invitation bids or invitations to reply. Similarly, Hamouda (2013) revealed that students whose teachers utilized individual nomination procedures stayed silent in the classroom.

In terms of learner attributes, others studied learners' oral competence. The study by Hamouda (2013) that focused on EFL learners at a university in Saudi Arabia showed that students (75.47 %) were reticent to participate in the classroom due to their low language proficiency as a result of difficulties with grammar (72.96%) and vocabulary (74.21 %). Similarly, Cho (2013) also examined three Korean MATESOL students at three USA universities. The interview analysis revealed that while one of the learners, although they had more experience and knowledge of language skills and language teaching, found it a struggle to express himself in English; the other student, with less experience and knowledge of language teaching, did not mention any difficulty in classroom participation (*ibid.*).

Regarding learners' oral competence, De Costa (2011) revealed that learners' perceptions of epistemic authority may also shape how they participate in the classroom discourse. This study found that although a Korean ESL learner had positive attributes (e.g. self-motivation to learn/practice English) to achieve/participate more in the ESL classes, she stayed relatively silent with her peers

whom she perceived as more proficient. Similarly, the student became more silent when these more proficient students were corrected by the teacher.

Students' communicative purposes in classroom also shape their participation. Samar and Yazdanmehr (2013) examined student silence in 10 EFL classes at a private language institute in Iran. It was found that students' silences were indicative of a variety of communicative functions. During the lesson, students' silences had the functions of emotive (i.e., expression of attention and respect), referential (i.e., responding to comprehension checks), conative (i.e., giving the floor to the interlocutor), phatic (i.e., using silence to allow the speaker to continue speaking or stop the conversation), meta-lingual (i.e., not understanding what is spoken about) and poetic silence (e.g., imitating the silence in the textbook dialogues).

Teachers' attributes have also been found as influential on learners' classroom participations. Some studies, which were conducted in EFL classrooms, revealed that teachers' insufficient wait-time resulted in shorter student turns and responses to teacher questions (Yaqubi & Rokni, 2012; Farahian & Rezaee, 2012). Teachers' pedagogical approaches have also been found as significant. Yoon (2008, pp.515-516) found that whether mainstream content teachers acknowledged the different needs of English language learners at a middle school class in the US as "complex, cultural, social beings, more than simply language learners" determined the participation patterns of these learners. Salazar (2010, p.121) also found that the way three "ESL teachers held themselves accountable to rigid language policies (i.e., a no English policy vs. acknowledging learners' language and heritage)" led Mexican learners to utilize English or Spanish as tools for resistance/ conformity to participate in the class or to be "eager and willing students to engage with the culturally relevant curriculum and social justice issues". Ollerhead (2012) revealed that the pedagogical approaches

of the teacher in Australia's Language, Literacy and Numeracy Program transformed and increased the participation patterns of the beginner level adult ESL literacy learner.

The curriculum can also shape learners' participation. Harklau (1994) found that non-native high school students taking ESL and mainstream content classes displayed different participation patterns. Their engagement with their teachers in mainstream classes was less than their engagement in ESL classes.

Physical features of the classroom also add to learners' participation. One factor is the classroom size. In the study by Harfitt (2012, p.331), which consisted of multiple case studies from four secondary schools in Hong Kong, students reported a "reduced sense of anxiety in smaller English language classes". In classroom observations, these accounts by students were supported since the students participated more confidently in classroom interactions with their teachers and peers. Harfitt (2012) suggested that the smaller class sizes reduced learners' anxiety as it, within Asian contexts, supported more the Confucian value of cooperation and 'we-identity'. Hamouda (2013, p.25) also found that class size along with classroom arrangement (e.g., sitting at the front of the class) led learners to feel nervous and shy about participation.

Studies on learners' participation in the classroom discourse are powerful indicators of the need to pay attention to the link between contexts of learning and its components. However, there is also a need for further examination regarding the following issues:

- Instead of paying attention to the amount of learners' participation, the content of learners' participation could also inform the learning and teaching practices
- The influence of the classroom features and its determinants on learners' participation require a closer look.

2.2.2.2. Learners' repair and its influencing factors

Studies on learners' repair raised the issues of noticing and uptake in relation to types of corrective feedback. Yoshida (2009, p.45) described noticing as "every case when the learners noticed the existence of teacher feedback and responded to the feedback". As for uptake, it is defined as "learners' utterances that include correct reformulation of their errors" (*ibid.*). The literature on repair in relation to the learners' repair has developed into two main lines: as experimental studies evaluating the effectiveness of repair, noticing and uptake; and descriptive/observational studies attempting to understand learners' repair. A few examples of experimental studies are Carroll and Swain (1993), Doughty and Varela (1998), Long, Inagaki and Ortega (1998), Mackey and Philp (1998), and Leeman (2000). Here, I will focus more on descriptive studies that examine learners' repair in relation to a variety of influencing factors. These studies have well-documented the relationship between learners' repair and learners' attributes, and teachers' feedback features.

In terms of learners' unstable attributes, Egbert (1998) revealed that college level German learners utilized six categories of repair depending on their purposes: unspecified repair, interrogative repairs, partial repeat plus a question word repair, partial repeat repair, understanding check repair, request for repetition and request for definition. Regarding another unstable learner attribute, Cho and Larke (2010, p.15) identified three repair strategies - understanding check, partial repeat and unspecified repair - as the most frequently utilized strategies among elementary school ESL learners. However, they also revealed that strategies requiring "a combination of cognitive and linguistic skills (e.g., request for repetition)" were less frequent. Cho and Larke (*ibid.*) indicated learners' beginner level language proficiency as a possible reason. Heift's earlier findings (2004), however, indicated that learners' proficiency

was not a determining factor for the uptake and noticing of beginner, advanced or intermediate level learners enrolled in German language courses at university level. The contradictory findings on learners' proficiency might indeed indicate that learners' level within the study (elementary school versus university level) is a possible direction of inquiry, which could reveal cognitive differences between the two age groups as a reason for different findings.

Learners' stable attributes, one of them being gender, were also examined by Heift (2004) found that gender was not a significant determiner of learner uptake as the most uptakes emerged for both female and male students with 'metalinguistic+highlighting' type of feedback.

The features of corrective feedback have also been found to relate with learners' noticing and uptake. Sheen (2006, p.380), examining length of feedback, revealed that the uptake and noticing of ESL (US) and EFL (South Korea) learners were higher when the feedback was "word- or short-phrase length". Bao, Egi and Han (2011, pp.215-226) also revealed that learners' notice of recast was higher when the recast was accompanied by a rising intonation. Among possible reasons was that rising intonation allowed learners to "notice the mismatch between their original utterances and recasts" (*ibid.*). Another possible reason, according to Bao et al. (*ibid.*), was that learners perceived the rising intonation in the recasts as a question "asking for a response". Studies also revealed that there is a relationship between the type of feedback and learners' uptake. The study by Suzuki (2005) found that the feedback type that led to most learner repair (uptake) was explicit correction (100%) with recasts (66%) being the second. However, it was also revealed that recast was the only feedback type that did not lead to any learner uptake (6%) while all other types of feedback led to learner uptake at varying levels.

In the context of EGAP-ESAP debates and EAP in general, the relationship between learners' repair and its influencing factors has not been examined systematically. The studies which have been summarised here, however, successfully indicate that learners' goals, their proficiency levels and the features of feedback would require attention in addition to the well-documented issue of disciplinary variation and its impact on learners within EGAP-ESAP literature. As there might be a wide diversity in learners' proficiencies, their goals and the features of feedback inside individual teacher-student feedback interactions, a focus on learners' accounts as well as on their participation in the feedback interactions would contribute to the decisions on EAP design. This would also benefit understanding of how learners receive and respond to the feedback interactions with their EAP tutors.

2.2.3. Evaluating Research on Classroom Spoken Discourse

The literature on classroom spoken discourse indicates that teacher-student discourse in EAP classes and its relationship with curriculum, classroom management requirements, EAP tutors' personal histories and experiences with EAP teaching, and learners' attributes (e.g., proficiency) need to be considered as well as disciplinary variation while making decisions on EAP design. Although the content knowledge is a significant determiner of EAP teaching and learning, these studies imply that construction of relationships within EAP classrooms is an equally significant determiner of teaching and learning practices. Therefore, these studies show that decisions on the design of EAP would need to move away from content- and material-driven perspectives while simultaneously focusing more on the dynamics of the context of the classroom, for which research is needed.

2.3. Previous Research on Oral Feedback

To be able to show how this study adds to the existing research on teacher feedback, it is also necessary to detail the previous research on the issue.

Previous research on teacher feedback centres around teacher-written practices while there are also studies that bring oral feedback practices (e.g., teacher taped commentary, conferencing, and so forth) and mixed modes of teacher feedback as an issue to be focused on. Regarding this issue, Hyland (2006, p.89) states that “although oral interaction is accepted as a significant contributor of writing in the planning and revision stages in L1 writing, in terms of scope and extent specifically with L2 learners, its contribution stays unclear”.

To better illustrate the above mentioned problem regarding oral feedback interactions on writing, in the following sub-sections, I summarise the previous research on different aspects of oral teacher feedback on learners’ writing under the categories of:

2.3.1. Interactional patterns and possible influencing factors on them

2.3.2. Content of feedback and possible influencing factors on it

2.3.3. Student perceptions and possible influencing factors on them

2.3.4. Teacher perceptions and possible influencing factors on them

2.3.5. Revision behaviours and possible influencing factors on them

2.3.1. Interactional Patterns and Possible Influencing Factors on Them

Interactional patterns are one of the aspects of the feedback process that receive close attention in several studies. Looking at the findings, we can assume that what is meant by interactional patterns is how participants assume interactional control through talk, turn takings, and so forth. The findings of these studies detail how interactional control is influenced by the mode of feedback, course of time, time and mode interaction,

learners' attributes, institutional context, participants' moment-by-moment interactional positioning choices, and the content of feedback talk.

A very early study of mode of feedback and its influence on the interactional patterns was conducted by Goldstein and Conrad (1990), who evaluated writing conferences between three students from different cultural backgrounds and their ESL writing teacher to understand whether oral conferences would lead to a higher student control in the interactions. The analysis of the writing conferences, however, indicated that oral conferences did not necessarily result in higher student participation in terms of agenda setting, negotiating and contributing to the conference. Teachers were still either more active than the students or sharing the work with them. In addition, the occasions where the students contributed more than their teachers did were relatively few. Based on these findings, Goldstein and Conrad (1990) commented that this picture might be due to the learners' unique personalities, the teacher's classroom-generated perceptions of learner need, the teacher's adjustment to the learners' discourse style, the learners' culture-related discourse styles and finally their classroom-generated perceptions of teacher-student roles.

Supporting Goldstein and Conrad (1990), a very recent study by Erlam, Ellis and Batstone (2013) also investigated the impact of types of modes of oral feedback on enabling students' self-correction in the conferences with two target structures (past tense and articles). In this study, two pieces of writing by L2 English language learners in New Zealand at a language school received oral feedback through conferencing. In these oral conferences, one group of students received graduated feedback, which was defined by socio-cultural theorists as "feedback adjusted to the level of learners to enable them to self-correct" (Erlam et al., 2013, p.2). Another group of students were given explicit oral feedback. They reported that although there was no difference in

self-correction with the past tense, graduated feedback led to more self-correction with articles. Therefore, the findings indicated that the determining factor of learner participation might be what learners studied rather than the mode of feedback.

Contrasting findings also exist in the literature. Jones, Garralda, Li and Lock (2006), for instance, examined the impact of mode of feedback on interactional control. They “compared the interactional dynamics of face-to-face and on-line peer tutoring” in writing by university students in Hong Kong (Jones et al., 2006, p.1). Their analysis indicated that even if there were variations in both modes individually, while face-to-face interactions were still dominated by teacher talk, online interactions were dominated by student talk. In online tutoring, students displayed initiation moves more frequently than they did in face-to-face interactions, and were more active in the determination of the content of feedback interaction in online tutoring. In face-to-face interactions, tutors tended to ask more close-ended questions and use more directive moves. This orientation of teachers in face-to-face interactions indicates a teacher-dominated interactional pattern: “tutors assume more interactional control, making it more difficult for learners to affect the overall agenda of the session and the choices about what kinds of errors are to be focused on and what they would like to learn about these errors” (Jones et al., 2006, p.11). Regarding the teacher dominance this study underlines the need to take into account that certain issues such as tutors’ workload might be the factors leading them to assume more interactional control in face-to-face interactions to be able to manage different responsibilities more swiftly.

The contrasting findings of these studies are significant. This is because they underline the necessity to consider the fact that the modes of feedback (i.e., online, face-to-face, graduated and explicit) focused on were different, which could have an influence on the different findings. Moreover, it is also important to take the context and particular

features of these contexts into account while evaluating the results. A further examination of the relationship between different aspects of the context and the mode of feedback might have resulted in differences in findings.

Interactional pattern can also develop over time. In a study by Blair and McGinty (2013) which examined verbal feedback perceptions of first- and third-year undergraduate students, it was found that students usually had the chance to be involved with feedback discussions with their lecturers. However, first-year students in particular positioned themselves as novices and lecturers as experts in feedback discussions due to their unfamiliarity with the “discourse in which they were being encultured” (Blair & McGinty, 2013, p.471). Since this behaviour was more common among first year students, it can be assumed that learners acquire discourse dynamics over time. Young and Miller (2004) presented more concrete evidence and supported the assumption that the interactional control between student and teacher may display a change over time as learners acquire discourse traditions. This study examined the “revision talks in weekly English as Second Language (ESL) writing conferences between an adult Vietnamese student and his ESL writing instructor” (Young & Miller, 2004, p.519). The analysis of teacher-student talks revealed that the student developed “from peripheral to fuller participation in the use of two discursive resources” over time (Young & Miller, 2004, p.521).

Young and Miller (2004) claimed that the findings about the change of participation patterns show the acquisition of an unfamiliar discursive practice by the learner. Additionally, this is also regarded as the way teachers and students co-construct each other’s roles in revision talk by displaying a change in their participation patterns (Young & Miller, 2004).

There are also studies that examined the effect of the relationship between time and teacher feedback types on interactional patterns. The study by Erlam et al. (2013), for instance, is one of the studies examining this relationship. The analysis of the conferences indicated that there was no systematic reduction of teacher assistance given to students to self-correct under both conditions (i.e., graduated and explicit feedback) over time (Erlam et al., 2013).

One frequently explored issue has also been learners' attributes and their impact on interactional patterns in oral feedback. Learners' attributes emerge as learners' stable (e.g., native/non-native and gender) and unstable attributes (e.g., experiences, expectations) in literature.

Liu (2009) has provided insight into learners' unstable attributes and their possible impact on interactional patterns. Through a questionnaire to 110 students (45 ESL and 65 American) and interviews with 18 students (11 ESL and 7 American), Liu revealed that since a few of the ESL learners in the study were not familiar with the writing conference, they displayed a nervous attitude towards the interactions that would take place (Liu, 2009). Thus, ESL students with insufficient awareness "expected correction-related suggestions only without engaging in much discussion" (Liu, 2009, p.113). Yet, American students, although they expected suggestions as well, were more oriented to negotiation of the meaning and elicitation of suggestions (Liu, 2009). Liu related this feature of American students' experiences to being brought up within a context where sense of ownership of writing is accentuated.

In another study, Blair and McGinty (2013, p.471) gave examples of how learners' expectations may have an influence on the interactional dynamics within oral feedback. In this study, it was revealed that undergraduate students in history, politics and international relations used feedback dialogues with their tutors as a way to request

“explanation and justification of the grades” they were given (*ibid.*). This situation, according to Blair and McGinty (*ibid.*), may challenge “the traditional power dynamics of tutor as expert” in oral feedback since it required tutors to seek justification of their grades.

Even if both Liu (2009) and Blair and McGinty (2013) presented convincing learner accounts that experiences and expectations may indeed have a role in interactions, still both of them presented only implications, and neither of them offered further explanation regarding how these experiences and expectations would be in play during actual interactions.

Learners’ stable attributes have also been examined to reveal the relationship between those attributes and interactional control in feedback talk. One aspect of learners’ stable attributes is their cultural and language backgrounds. In this sense, the study by Cumming and So (1996) investigated whether there were any differences between the students who were from a specific culture and language background. To this end, they conducted a study where the student participants were speakers of Cantonese, Mandarin and Japanese. The results indicated that across all the established conditions, students’ displays of negotiation, identification and resolution in the tutorial sessions were constant, identical and lower than that of teachers (Cumming & So, 1996).

Cumming and So (1996) also investigated whether use of L2 or learners’ L1 leads to any difference in the emerging interactional control. Their study concluded that even if distribution of negotiation, identification and resolution by teachers and students in both cases were constant and identical, it was found that students “assumed a slightly higher proportion of responsibility for identification and negotiation phases of interactions while communicating with their tutors in their mother tongues” (Cumming & So, 1996, p.210).

Regarding the language background of learners is also the issue of being a native or non-native speaker of the language in which the text under discussion is written. Blau, Hall and Sparks (2002) in their two-year-long study, examined 18 sessions of tutoring with non-native students to reveal how tutorials with non-native tutees differ to common guidelines treating native and non-native tutees as the same. One finding was that teachers used more close-ended questions in writing conferences with non-native students than they did with native speakers. This was, according to Blau et al. (2002), was an indicator of tutor dominance in writing conferences with non-native tutees. Still, within the context of my study, research is needed to understand teachers' interactional patterns with high proficiency learners seeking a degree at tertiary education institutions. More specifically, research on teachers' and learners' participation patterns in EAP classrooms where various power dynamics function together stays thin.

Another stable learner attribute is gender. Bayraktar (2011) revealed that female and male students displayed different interactional patterns with their teachers. Regarding the study by Bayraktar (2011), it is important to consider participants' age groups. This study was exemplified here to show the gender dimension of learner attributes. Yet, the underlying reason for gender to have an influence could be the learners' age group and its interaction with learners' gender.

There is also a broader area of research looking at how institutional discourse shapes "the way organizations work, people interact and knowledge and power get constructed and circulate within the routines, systems, and common-sense practices of work-related settings" (Roberts, 2011, p.81). Research in this area has concentrated on power and asymmetry, goal-oriented encounters and gate-keeping and labelling (*ibid.*). Similar issues were examined within language teaching settings in relation to

spoken feedback practices to see how institutional discourse influenced the interactional patterns. One study by Ulichny and Watson-Gegeo (1989) examined writing conferences between teachers and native speaker students in two sixth-grade classrooms to analyse teacher authority, control of knowledge and communication. The results indicate that even though there have been attempts to innovate the teaching of writing by introducing process-writing pedagogy, patterns of knowledge and power originating from the larger society and institutional context still led teachers to dominate the conferences by controlling the participation structures and negotiation of learners' intended meanings (Ulichny & Watson-Gegeo, 1989). Ulichny and Watson-Gegeo (1989, p.324), following the account by McNeill (1986), underlined that these interactional patterns are caused by "the reward structure built into schools as bureaucratic institutions". In this control-oriented system, teachers need to maintain control to be rewarded by the system while students have to follow what is presented to them to be rewarded as well (Ulichny & Watson-Gegeo, 1989, p.325).

Widening the findings by Ulichny and Watson-Gegeo (1989) into non-native student teaching as well, Thonus (1999, 2004) also focused on the institutional context and presented contrasting findings to Bayraktar (2011) and Blau et al. (2002) in terms of the influence of gender and being native/non-native on interactional control. In a study conducted on tutorial discussions, Thonus (1999, p.244) initially "correlated student gender and language proficiency (native versus non-native) with the pragmatic features of tutorial conversation". The results indicated that the role of institutional status was more powerful than the tutor or tutee attributes (e.g., gender, content expertise, being native or non-native) (Thonus, 1999). More specifically, as Thonus (1999, p.244) explains, "tutor dominance expressed through the selection, mitigation, and frequency of suggestions was found to be nearly uniform across all situations".

This, according to Thonus (1999, p.244), was a very significant indicator of the influence of institutional context, which characterised the speech situations as “conferring status and authority on institutional representatives”.

The speech situations “conferring the status and authority on institutional representatives” (*ibid.*) are clarified in another study by Thonus (2004). In this study, 25 tutorials with native speakers and 19 with non-native tutees at a university writing centre in the US were analysed. The results indicated that the tutor’s communicative dominance was accentuated in the conferences with non-native tutees through longer turn lengths, utilization of less mitigation, utilization of more directives, and the determination of the “course of the sessions and major issues” (Thonus, 2004, p.230). However, this dominance was still existent in both native and non-native writing conferences (Thonus, 2004, p.229).

The contribution of the studies on the role of institutional discourse on interactional patterns are undeniable. However, these studies evaluate teachers’ participation in relatively uniform settings. Therefore, research is needed in EAP classrooms with high variation where EAP tutors are not the ultimate authorities to evaluate the writing. An understanding of this could also inform ESAP-EGAP debates by revealing how institutional discourse influences the positioning of EAP tutors and learners.

Regarding the influence of learners’ gender on the interactional control within the scope of the studies by Thonus (1999, 2004) and Bayraktar (2011), it is vital to bear in mind that participant profiles in these studies were different, which, I believe, might have a role on the contrasting findings. For example, in the study by Bayraktar (2011), the participants were K-12 students while the participants in the studies by Thonus (1999, 2004) were university level students.

There are also studies indicating that participants' moment-by-moment interactional positioning choices may have an influence on the overall interactional patterns. In the study by Weissberg (2006), for example, four one-on-one writing conferences between a writing instructor and two international non-native graduate students were analysed. Utilizing a socio-cultural framework and following the guidelines of inductive analysis, Weissberg (2006, p.252) found that the scaffolding moves the writing tutor selected during the writing conferences helped the tutor create a more "negotiated" framework for the writing conference and avoid imposing self-agenda and solutions, thus supporting the learners' sense of agency. These scaffolding moves were "linkage (to learners) through questions and summary/paraphrase statements, linkage through repetition, linkage through completing and extension and linkage through personal affiliation" (Weissberg, 2006, pp.253-257). Weissberg (2006, p.259) comments that these moves "built connective links to the learners' discourse at the lexical, ideational, and affective levels so that those links could be used as springboards to instructional points".

Vehviläinen (2009a) also investigated the moment-by-moment interactional positioning choices of participants during writing conferences. In this study, Vehviläinen (2009a) examined two cases with a focus on the critical feedback given on students' master thesis. The two cases included the interactions between two lecturers and their students from the disciplines of humanities and behavioural sciences at a university in Finland. The data analysis revealed that teachers used either "cautious formulations and implicit criticism and advice" or "straightforward criticism and confrontational advice" (Vehviläinen, 2009a, p.198). However, it was observed that students did not display any acknowledgement of that critical feedback. Moreover, they displayed a "persistent but subdued resistance" to teachers' feedback

through utilization of various moves. In the first case, the student “used proposals and complaints” while simultaneously focusing on the thesis outline as a visual resource to control the interaction (Vehviläinen, 2009a, p.195). In this way, the student was able to “point, show, draw circles and underline” to maintain his agenda instead of focusing on the teacher’s criticism. As for the second case, the student distanced himself from the text to resist the teacher’s overt criticism. The student underlined that the text he brought did not reflect his complete understanding of the topic (Vehviläinen, 2009a, p.199). Regarding the resistance displayed by both students, Vehviläinen (2009a) explains that the strategies utilized by students prevented them from showing whether they understood the feedback. Rather, these strategies kept learners focused on the defence of the choices they made and the reasons for those choices in their texts (*ibid.*).

Another study by Vehviläinen (2009b) also examined the way participants use language to assert their status in the interaction during writing conferences. In this study, the initiation of advice requests by students in Finnish Master’s thesis supervision meetings were analysed. The results indicated that students used two formats of advice request moves, namely *invoking incompetence* (e.g., open ended questions with what, how and so forth) and *proposing potential problems and solutions* (e.g., statements: ‘I will do x...’ or interrogative with passive form: ‘is x done?’). Although both formats were utilized, it was observed that students applied the second format more frequently. Vehviläinen (2009b) commented that the reason for the learners’ frequent use of the second format might be related to the context. That is, it is underlined that, in a Master’s thesis writing setting, using Format 1 (invoking incompetence) for core learning tasks would be perceived as problematic. Thus, learners “balance self-directedness and autonomous work with dependency and

support seeking” by utilizing the second format more frequently (Vehviläinen, 2009b, p.187).

Another study examining participants’ on-going interactional positioning choices by Koshik (2010) detailed how teachers utilize the strategy of *designedly incomplete utterances* (DIU) to be able to elicit corrections from students during writing conferences. DIUs in this study were described as the “utterances made up of students’ own words to begin turns that teachers are prompting students to complete” (Koshik, 2010, p.277). These elicitation strategies by teachers were interpreted as “the co-construction of a candidate revision” (Young & Miller, 2004, p.532), suggesting that teachers in this study did not assume interactional control.

Park (2012) also drew attention to students’ use of questions in oral feedback and argued that asking questions is a complicated action that is “the contingent outcome, the situated accomplishment, of people interacting with each other” (Sidnell, 2010; as cited by Park, 2012, p.2018). In this study, a total of approximately 10 hours of writing conferences between three teachers and 30 undergraduate students at a university in the US were video-recorded and analysed (Park, 2012). The analysis indicated that students utilized epistemic downgrades in the form of ‘I don’t know+if/wh complement’, both as a question and as an indicator of their awareness of problems in their writings (Park, 2012, p.2004). Park (2010, p.2018) explained that these epistemic downgrades confirm the asymmetries between the participants by acknowledging the epistemic primacy of the teachers as a normative concern. Yet, these questions also limit teachers’ subsequent action by “calling for a relevant answer” (Park, 2012, p.2018).

Studies on participants’ moment-by-moment interactional positioning choices are significant for EAP settings as well. This is because how both learners and teachers

treat normativity, authority and collaboration would be influenced by intra- and inter-disciplinary variation as well as learners' language proficiencies.

The impact of content of teacher advice has also been examined in relation to the interactional patterns. One earlier study was conducted by Cumming and So (1996). One purpose of the study was to understand whether any differences regarding problem-solving skills occurred between the tutoring where the feedback content was focused on error correction and where the focus was procedural facilitation. Procedural facilitation in this context was defined as "prompting students, while composing or revising their texts, to adopt specific self-regulatory functions that go in expert performance, cuing them to gradually adopt and incorporate them into their ongoing task performance" (Cumming & So, 1996, p.200). The results indicated that the "distribution of negotiation, identification and resolution" were constant and identical in both situations with a teacher-dominated interaction in both cases (Cumming & So, 1996, p.210).

Conversely, Waring (2005) and Ewert (2009) each suggested that the content of tutor advice may influence the maintenance of interactional control in the oral feedback process. The study by Waring (2005) analysed writing conferences between one American tutor and one Indian graduate student. In this study, the researcher audio-taped the participants' conversations. The transcription and conversational analysis of five sessions revealed that the student resisted tutor advice about three particular issues, which were general academic writing issues, specific content related matters and the mechanics of writing (Waring, 2005, p.147). Waring (2005, p.162) suggested that the identity claim of the student and the complex asymmetries between the participants may explicate the emerging patterns of resistance. Regarding the identity claim, it was highlighted that the student was a graduate Arts student, which made the

student interpret the advice on the mechanics of writing as undermining her competence as a graduate student (Waring, 2005, p.163). Waring (*ibid.*) also commented that “the competing areas of expertise between the student and the tutor” must have created a resistance on the student’s part to the advice given. That is, while the student had the content knowledge, the tutor had the knowledge of academic writing. It is claimed that this imbalance between the expertises of participants eventually led the student to selectively resist the advice of the tutor (Waring, 2005). Ewert (2009) related the content of writing conferences with teacher goals and focus, and provided supporting evidence that it may influence the interactional control in oral feedback sessions. The study by Ewert (2009, p.265) at an English language programme at a university in the US revealed that “the focus of the conference either on language or content/rhetoric influenced the amount of identified problems, the extent of demonstration for revision and the amount of learner participation”. That is, when the conference focus was language, it was observed that learner turns were shorter while learner turns were longer when the focus was on the content and structure. I have already detailed an intensive line of research on the effect of content on academic writing and EAP design. However, it might be worth re-evaluating how the content of writing would shape learners’ and EAP teachers’ perceptions of authority and their moment-by-moment participation into feedback interactions in EAP classrooms. This could also inform decisions on EAP design.

2.3.2. Content of Feedback and Possible Influencing Factors on It

Another dimension of writing and feedback process is the content of the feedback and its influencing factors. In the literature, it is revealed that this dimension has a close relationship with the mode of feedback and learners’ attributes.

Jones et al. (2006) investigated the topic of conversation as well as interactional control. They stated that different topics tend to be discussed in different modes of feedback. This was because in face-to-face interactions, participants mostly discussed text-based issues (e.g., word choice, the discussion of grammar, and so forth). However, in online tutoring sessions, the issues were “high-order”, which were “issues of content and writing process” (*ibid.*).

Learners’ unstable and stable attributes may have an influence on the content of oral feedback interactions. According to Liu (2009), since American students were more experienced in writing conferences, they were clearer about what a writing conference was. Thus, these students brought questions not only about micro issues (e.g., grammar correction) but also macro aspects (e.g., organization, idea development, and so forth) of their writing. On the contrary, not all ESL students had experiences with writing conferences, thus solely expecting teacher to make grammar corrections (Liu, 2009).

Learners’ stable attributes have an influence on the content of feedback as well. The study by Blau et al. (2002) revealed that tutors informed non-native students about political systems, national customs and audience expectations during writing conferences, thus assuming the role of cultural informant. Furthermore, the same study also indicates that tutors advised students who were not used to approaching their professors to ask for additional help to contact their professors to receive help by “occupying a safe middle ground to express their concerns without condemnation or evaluation”, which was this time the role of cultural counsellor (Blau et al., 2002, p.32).

A different aspect of the content described by the same study was the aspect that writing the feedback was about. Blau et al. (2002) explained that tutors dealt with

macro and micro issues simultaneously by making the sentence-level clarifications first during writing conferences with non-native tutees. This finding was contradictory to the general recommendations telling tutors to instruct non-native and native speakers in the same way by “prioritizing global concerns (macro issues) over local concerns (micro issues)” (Blau et al., 2002, p.34). Blau et al. (2002, p.40) used this finding to suggest that non-native students have different needs than native speakers. Moreover, making sentence-level clarifications would often “lead to conversations about global level concerns”, which indicates that global and local level concerns are interconnected. Finally, this approach by tutors might help non-native students who are concerned about correctness feel comfortable (*ibid.*).

The findings by Nakamaru (2010) revealed that whether learners are international ESL learners or US-educated L2 (Generation 1.5) students may have an influence on the content of the oral feedback talks as well. In this study the observations of writing conferences between four students and two tutors, a questionnaire about educational experience and language use, tutor-tutee interviews and samples of student writings were used as data sources. The analysis of the data showed that lexical issues were more frequently addressed in the tutorials with international students (Nakamaru, 2010). However, the tutorials with US-educated students, who are defined as generation 1.5, addressed grammatical issues more often, occasionally at the request of the students (Nakamaru, 2010).

2.3.3. Student Perceptions and Possible Influencing Factors on Them

One line of previous research centres on how students’ perceptions are influenced by the mode of feedback. The findings under this section revolve around the issues of students’ perceptions about feedback personalization, perceptions about support with learning styles, perceptions about quality and quantity of information delivered,

perceptions about support with other language skills and learning intentions, perceptions of relationship with teachers and perceptions of practical aspects of oral feedback.

2.3.3.1. Perceptions about feedback personalization

Patrie (1989) and Olesova, Weasenforth and Meloni (2011), both conducting studies comparing taped commentary with written feedback, showed that students found oral feedback easier and more personalized to relate to. Bailey (2009), who examined learners' feedback preferences, also supported that learners found oral modes of feedback (face-to-face in that case) more personalised. Rotherham (2008) also provided supporting evidence that students found MP3 taped commentary more personal. According to Patrie (1989) this was because learners did not perceive oral feedback as evaluative as the written feedback, which led them to display a more eager attitude to oral input on their writing. Likewise, in the study by Oomen-Early, Bold, Wiginton, Gallien and Anderson (2008, p.272) that focused on asynchronous audio feedback, students expressed having a more "tailor-made" and individualized feedback through audio feedback since they found the feedback more "softened" and "less critical" compared to written feedback.

According to various studies, students' perception that audio feedback was more personal was linked with their awareness that the teacher had made a particular effort to generate audio feedback. For example, Ice, Curtis, Phillips and Wells (2007) found that one of the features students receiving asynchronous audio feedback appreciated most was the time teacher took to prepare audio feedback. These students found asynchronous audio feedback more caring. Similarly, Roberts (2008) and Olesova et al. (2011) explained that students found audio feedback more personal since they believed that the teacher spent time to record his/her voice. Likewise, Silva (2012)

also revealed that the students in their study found video commentary more personable as they believed that teachers spent more time to give feedback in this mode. The effort that becomes visible through oral feedback, as Thompson and Lee (2012, p.10) and Ice et al. (2007, p.17) explained, made students feel “a genuine interest” in their ideas via audio-video feedback modes, thus making oral feedback more personalized to them.

France and Wheeler (2007, p.10) also revealed that students who received podcasting assignment feedback (PAF) described the feedback as more personal since it included a “generic feedback component offering an insight into the performance of the particular student”. Jones et al. (2012, p.601) who examined feedback through screen capture digital feedback also found that the person-specific nature of audio-visual feedback increased “learners’ sense of feedback ownership”.

The emergence of personalised feedback for learners indicates that learners are actively engaged with the feedback they receive. However, these studies mostly compare and contrast written and audio modes of feedback. Thus, there is a need to explore the features of personalised feedback in spoken feedback interactions between teachers and learners. Evaluating these in EAP settings would shed light on how the relationships between learners and teachers are constructed and maintained.

Other studies indicate that oral modes of feedback have a phatic potential which can add to the creation of individualized feedback. For instance, Boswood and Dwyer (1995) underscored that even though taped-teacher commentary was one-sided, it allowed the teacher to express empathy and so was more individualized and humanitarian for learners. Likewise, Ice et al. (2007) found that students preferred asynchronous audio feedback to text-based feedback since teachers’ use of humour, openness to learner ideas and encouragement were easier to detect. Bauer (2011) also

supported these findings in that learners in their study agreed that taped feedback was personable because it delivered teacher's thought as accompanied by emotions. Different from these studies with its focus on feedback dialogues between teachers and students, Blair and McGinty (2013) examined the first and third year undergraduate students' perceptions about feedback dialogues on their writing at a UK university. The results showed that tutors' engaging in dialogues with learners through feedback talks made these talks more personal by creating a more approachable tutor image. However, it was also found that some students did not have the same perceptions due to their time and space concerns.

Although the studies here facilitate the understanding of how learners' feedback perceptions are constructed, there are not sufficient findings to understand how the issue of personalised feedback would shape learners' agenda-setting and maintenance of one-to-one classroom feedback interactions with their teachers. Likewise, in EAP settings with diverse learner profiles in terms of knowledge and proficiency, learners' criteria for personalised feedback need to be examined to inform EAP classroom practices.

2.3.3.2. Perceptions about support with learning styles

Various studies suggest that learners perceive a relationship between modes of feedback and learning styles. The students in the study by Ice et al. (2007) stated that audio feedback better addressed their learning styles. Furthermore, none of the students in this study including the visual ones reported any negative opinion about audio feedback and their learning styles. The findings by González (2010, pp.66-67), which focused on the impact of teacher-student conferencing and written feedback on the revision of EFL writing at a high school in Mexico, also implied that student participants perceived conferencing as "easier to understand" and a facilitator for their

learning. Furthermore, Rodway-Dyer, Dunne and Newcombe (2009) and Thompson and Lee (2012) found in their studies that learners were reported to benefit more from the oral mode of feedback (i.e., screen casted feedback with audio comments) as they preferred to hear rather than read the comments. A group of students in Rodway-Dyer et al. (2009) study reported that hearing feedback made it easier to remember.

Contrasting findings also exist. Oomen-Early et al. (2008), for example, found that whereas some students benefited from oral feedback, others benefited more from the written mode. Similarly, focusing on the difference between ESL and EFL learners and their perceptions of oral and written feedback, Olesova et al. (2011) showed that EFL students considered written feedback more effective because of the visual support it provided. Supporting this finding, the study by Francis (2011) found that 13 out of 26 children in Grade 5 classes found written feedback easier to remember. It is worth noting that the participants in the Francis (2011) study were children which can require this study to be evaluated separately.

However, there also studies indicating that a combination of oral and visual features within the mode of feedback can better serve learners with their learning styles by “engaging visual, aural and kinaesthetic ways of learning” (Hynson, 2012, p.54). For example, in their study examining the screen capture digital video feedback, Jones, Georgiades and Gunson (2012, p. 604) found that those learners describing themselves as visual also benefited from feedback as they felt that “it enhanced their learning”.

2.3.3.3. Perceptions about quality and quantity of content of feedback

Student perceptions about the quality and quantity of information delivered to them via different modes of feedback is another issue that received attention in various studies. Three issues became apparent under this category, which are the focus of

feedback, clarity of feedback and amount of information. To begin with the focus of feedback, Patrie (1989, p.88) explains that in his classes written feedback facilitated the writing process when the focus was on sentence-level issues which generally centred on local and surface-level errors. On the other hand, he claims that oral feedback was more effective when the focus was on the “whole unit of discourse” (*ibid.*). Supporting this claim, Silva (2012, p.9) also found that learners explained the benefit in terms of the technical aspects of writing with Microsoft Word comments while benefiting more in terms of “global issues and rhetorical aspects of writing” with audio-visual feedback.

Student perceptions of the clarity of different modes of feedback seem to be closely related to their particular goals. Silva (2012, p.10) reported that students who were more oriented to discuss the rhetorical aspects of writing found oral feedback more clear and evident compared to written comments. However, those students who found Microsoft Word comments more beneficial were the ones who wanted to conduct ‘quick’ amendments since Microsoft Word comments were more indexical and easy to locate (*ibid.*).

Students also commented on other issues determining clarity in oral feedback. Roberts (2008) explained that the PhD students who received audio feedback in their study perceived audio feedback as clear since they thought that there was more space for giving examples of recommended revisions in audio feedback. Likewise, the EFL students in Olesova et al.’s (2011) study explained that hearing the instructor’s voice made feedback more clear since they could hear teacher’s intonation and tone. In the study by France and Wheeler (2007), in the interviews with students regarding their perceptions of podcasting assignment feedback, students explained that unlike written feedback, in oral feedback the tone of the feedback made the detection of the issues

that required critical attention easier. Similar findings were also presented by Morra and Asís (2009) who found that students reported to have a better comprehension since they were better able to follow the thought process and teacher intentions in oral feedback. Thompson and Lee (2012) also contend that the fact that oral feedback allowed learners to understand the thought process of the reader better urged learners to define oral feedback as clearer in their study. Students in the study by Cryer and Kaikumba (1987, p.150) commented that “written feedback is too cryptic to be followed, understood and built on as fully as one might like”, which may imply that taped feedback in this case was easier to follow and understand fully.

The studies here are important in revealing learners’ perceptions of feedback. However, further research is required to understand how learners actively manage these issues in the features of feedback during feedback interactions, particularly inside classroom settings where multiple factors are simultaneously influential. Likewise, the features of clear and explicit feedback as well as how the features of feedback construct the relationship in these feedback interactions remain to be examined.

Turning now to the issue of amount of information delivered to learners, Boswood and Dwyer (1995), Hill (2008), Rotherham (2008), Rodway-Dyer et al. (2009), Cryer and Kaikumba (1987), Olesova et al. (2011), Thompson and Lee (2012), and Buckley (2012), for example, explained that learners reported being communicated more feedback in terms of amount and depth through oral input on their writing.

The findings of Hill (2008) also indicate a possible impact on the relationship between the mode of feedback and the stage of writing on learners’ perception of the amount of information. That is, it was explained that in the earlier stages of writing students need a large amount of information; therefore, the mode of feedback, podcasting in

this case, was more suitable to provide required amount of information. However, in the later stages, since learners asked for more discussion and critical analysis of their writing, the mode of feedback needed to be suitable for this purpose, which was face-to-face feedback in this case (Hill, 2008).

The document analysis of 204 examples of text feedback and 170 of audio feedback by Ice et al. (2007) also supported student statements regarding the amount of feedback in the above-detailed studies. This analysis revealed that the mean feedback volume for text feedback was 129.75 words and 331.39 words for audio feedback.

2.3.3.4. Perceptions about support with other language skills and learning intentions

Studies also showed that students mentioned that oral feedback was also supporting them with other language skills, namely listening skills in this case (Boswood & Dwyer, 1995). Boswood and Dwyer (1995, p.22) explained that “unlike text-based listening activities”, oral feedback provided learners with a “transparent task which is subordinated to authentic need to gather information and excellent opportunity for skills development”. Similarly, Hynson (2012, p.54), who evaluated the efficiency of feedback through screencasts, found that students were more motivated due to the “added value of listening comprehension” in feedback with screencasts.

Other studies suggest that learners perceive oral feedback as supporting with learning intentions in terms of clarity, improving the work and staying engaged. For example, Thompson and Lee (2012) explained that students experienced various challenges while using written feedback, while they stated that they understood the meaning of oral feedback for their learning goals. In a similar line, Oomen-Early et al., (2008) revealed that oral feedback facilitated learners’ understanding of course content and kept them engaged with their courses. Blair and McGinty (2013) also found that undergraduate students acknowledged the fact that verbal feedback provided them

with the clarification of written feedback, thus facilitating the process of improving their work.

2.3.3.5. Perceived relationship with tutors

There are findings regarding students' perceptions of their relationship with instructors in the use of different mediums of feedback. The perceived relationship with the teacher can be shown under the categories of social distance and physical distance.

Regarding social distance and the emerging affective relationship, Ice et al. (2007, pp.13-18), for example, explained that students in their study frequently expressed how asynchronous audio feedback compared to written feedback allowed them to feel closer to their instructors, thus creating "a more comfortable and less formal learning environment". Liu (2009) also found that since writing conferences allowed private talking between teacher and students, ESL learners felt as though they had an enhanced relationship with their tutors. Likewise, two post-graduate students in the study by Cryer and Kaikumba (1987) explained that the tone of the voice in taped feedback created the appropriate context to conduct less formal follow-up meetings with their tutors. A group of students in Thompson and Lee's (2012) research commented that they felt as if they were talking to a peer in a conversational tone through oral feedback. The questionnaire results of the study by Rodway-Dyer et al. (2009, p.63), however, revealed that students described their experiences with audio feedback as negative and did not find the "tone of teacher feedback" a "friendly tone of voice".

Closely related to the removal of social distance is the understanding of nuances/teacher inflection in modes of oral feedback. According to Olesova et al. (2011, p.39), oral feedback led learners to be better able to observe the "instructor's inflection, humour and nuance" in their comments. Learners in the same study also

indicated that they felt they had a softer communication with the instructor, which created an affective impact on learners' cognition and engagement and built a bridge between the student and the instructor (*ibid.*).

Regarding physical distance, it was also revealed that various modes of oral feedback can support the learners' sense of teacher presence. The study by Oomen-Early et al. (2008) suggested that learners receiving asynchronous audio feedback in online classes regarded their instructors as more human as it created a sense of teacher presence for those learners studying in online modules. The study by Morra and Asís (2009, p.77) which focused on taped commentary versus written and no-feedback conditions supported these findings since students stated that taped-teacher commentary "shortened the distance with the teacher" and gave the feeling of "real time talking" to students. Olesova et al. (2011, p.39) also confirmed that asynchronous audio feedback increased students' feeling of "teacher presence", thus creating a sense of relationship for students.

The medium of feedback and its impact on learners' perceptions of the phatic aspect within feedback is emphasised by these studies. Within the context of my research, there is still a need to explore the relationship between phatic issues residing in feedback interactions and its influence on the construction of relationship with the EAP tutors.

2.3.3.6. Perceptions of practical aspects of oral feedback

In addition to the student perceptions of oral feedback mentioned above, students also commented on the practical aspects of oral feedback. Roberts (2008, p.3) explained that students in their study appreciated oral feedback as it "speeded up the feedback process". Oomen-Early et al. (2008) underlined that asynchronous audio feedback was easier and simpler to use and saved time for learners compared to written feedback.

Likewise, Rodway-Dyer et al. (2009, p.63) also found that a group of students found audio feedback “easy to listen, easy to pause, or easy to access on their computers”. Students in the study by Jones et al. (2012, p.601) also reported that “accessing the audio-visual feedback, downloading it and its general audio-visual quality” was an advantage of audio-visual feedback. In Thompson and Lee (2012), learners told that they were able to reach audio-oral forms of feedback whenever they needed, which is a finding also supported by Patrie (1989). These features of oral feedback compared to so-called traditional forms of feedback (e.g., written feedback) created a sense of availability for learners.

Although oral modes of feedback had the above-mentioned advantages, it is important to underline that these studies also reported several problems students experienced with oral modes of feedback. For example, some students in Ice et al. (2007) and Rodway-Dyer et al. (2009) mentioned difficulties related to technical problems while playing audio files. Likewise, Oomen-Early (2008) presented student reports indicating difficulties while downloading the audio files.

In addition to the technical difficulties, the introduction of a new mode of feedback may also cause difficulties for students. Rodway-Dyer et al. (2009), for instance, revealed that several students stated having difficulty with audio feedback since they were not prepared to encounter new modes of feedback. Similarly, Silva (2012) also underlined that several students experienced literacy-related problems while accessing new modes of feedback in her study, which compares Microsoft Word comments with video commentary. Being introduced to a new way of feedback in this situation made it hard for learners to utilize oral modes of feedback. Thompson and Lee (2012, p.12) also warned that their findings indicated a possible student resistance to new feedback ways requiring new learning strategies.

Blair and McGinty (2013, p.474) also stated that the undergraduate learners in their study indicated the difficulty in “the process of organising a tutorial”. That is, since learners found it time consuming to arrange a feedback meeting after lengthy attempts, this led them to “disengage from feedback process as their belief in the ability to get timely feedback declined” (*ibid.*).

2.3.4. Teacher Perceptions in Relation to Feedback and Possible Influencing Factors on Them

There are also studies that examined teachers’ perceptions with regard to feedback. The influencing factors on teachers’ perceptions of feedback are modes of feedback, teacher training programmes, institutional factors and teachers’ goals.

Modes of feedback, according to previous studies, can shape teachers’ feedback perceptions in various ways. The studies indicate a relationship between the mode of feedback and teachers’ perceived support with teaching profession, and perceptions about the support teachers can offer to learners in different modes of feedback.

In terms of modes of feedback and perceived support within the teaching profession, findings revealed teacher accounts on practical issues with different modes of feedback, and the support of the mode of feedback in managing the stress sourced by the profession.

To begin with practical issues, one frequently explained issue is the impact of feedback mode on time concerns. Various studies found that teachers who utilized audio feedback acknowledged the time-saving feature of audio feedback (Ice et al., 2007; Rotherham, 2008). Cryer and Kaikumba (1987) also found that teachers providing taped feedback found it more time saving since speaking was faster than writing. Likewise, Lunt and Curran (2010, p.761), who compared the advantages of electronic audio feedback and written feedback, revealed tutor satisfaction with the time saving

features of electronic audio feedback. In their study, tutors indicated that electronic audio feedback “helped to overcome the ‘workload’ issues” as it reduced the average time spent on student assignments to give feedback (*ibid.*). In another study, a dissertation tutor in the study by Hill (2008) found podcast feedback time-consuming, but also stated that podcasting reduced the time for face-to-face interactions. One teacher in the study by Cryer and Kaikumba (1987) also indicated that taped feedback reduced the time for the follow-up meetings. The teachers in the study by Jones et al. (2012) also reported that audio-visual feedback saved time from their future duties. However, Gould and Day (2013, p.562) presented findings where teachers found audio feedback more time consuming since it required them to multi-task. That is, giving audio feedback meant “making script earlier to not to forget what to say” for those teachers (*ibid.*). Likewise, in another study by Harper, Green and Fernandez-Toro (2012), who evaluated the integration of Jing in feedback on written assignments, the tutors explained that framing feedback particularly for weaker students was a time-consuming issue with Jing.

In addition to time concerns, modes of feedback also have an influence on spatial concerns. Bauer (2011), for instance, explained that she was able to incorporate many elements of oral conferencing into taped commentary while simultaneously avoiding the difficulty of conducting conferencing in the class environment.

Previous studies also indicated that practical features of oral modes of feedback may help teachers against work-related stress. Cryer and Kaikumba (1987, p.150) found that teachers commented that “taped feedback removed the stress of writing a well-structured argument”. Likewise, taped feedback freed them from the problem of having to remember all their feedback in order for a possible follow-up meeting. Jones et al. (2012, p.603) also supported this finding. In their study, a dyslexic tutor

explained that feedback in audio-visual forms helped with reducing “the anxiety related to worry of misspelling words in written feedback under pressure” (*ibid.*).

Although teachers explained how various modes of feedback may support their teaching in terms of managing with stress, there are also studies with contradicting findings. Cryer and Kaikumba (1987, pp.150), for example, reported teacher accounts stating that “having no written record for later reference for administrative purposes or to check whether learners utilized it” was a drawback of taped feedback. Moreover, the study by Gould and Day (2013, p.562) showed that teachers who utilized audio feedback found it more stressful since they did not feel comfortable with hearing their own voice. Moreover, those teachers reported further issues such as “potential misuse by students such as sharing audio feedback on Facebook, or the lack of a written record in cases of student appeal to the grade or feedback” (*ibid.*).

Teachers also commented on the support they could offer to their learners through different modes of feedback. One teacher in the study of Gonzáles (2010), for example, perceived that written feedback was more understandable for learners in terms of their deficiencies in their writing. However, the same teacher also reported that she found teacher-student conferencing more suitable to negotiate meaning to generate student-specific feedback. Similarly, Bauer (2011, p.65) explained that audio feedback helped her “elaborate her praise”, which allowed learners to understand why their piece of writing received a particular comment rather than simply receiving the praise. The teachers in the study by Cryer and Kaiukumba (2010, p.150) also commented that taped feedback was “more informed and helpful” in terms of its vocal features compared to written feedback. Lunt and Curran (2010) underline that tutors found electronic audio feedback as having a higher potential to deliver more detailed feedback with more emphasis. The tutors in the study by Harper et al. (2012)

commented that presenting feedback both in aural and visual form through Jing increased the depth and clarity of feedback for learners.

The support with which teachers provide learners may be influenced by the mode of feedback and stage of writing as well. Bauer (2011) stated that since she found it more useful, she decided to give audio feedback in the earlier stages when students needed a large amount of feedback to revise their work.

Teachers also acknowledge the phatic potential of aural modes of feedback. In the study by Cryer and Kaikumba (1987, p.150), teachers commented that taped feedback provision was a satisfying experience in their jobs since it allowed them to give feedback “like chatting socially”. The tutors in the study by Harper et al. (2012, p.4) also verified this perceived presence. They described their feedback as warmer because of an “imagined dialogue with learners” (*ibid.*).

Teacher training programmes, according to Cheung (2011), also shape teachers’ pedagogical beliefs, thus also shaping teachers’ feedback perceptions. Therefore, Cheung (*ibid.*) underlined that teacher training programmes need to be designed by taking teachers’ feedback needs into account. Studies by Lee (2011) and Ferris (2011) supported this claim. Lee (2011), working with 48 teacher participants at a teacher training workshop in Hong Kong, revealed that a significant number of teachers did not utilize the feedback strategies, to which they were exposed at the training, in their teaching while simultaneously following so-called conventional feedback strategies (e.g., writing correction on learners’ writing). Likewise, Ferris (2011), in her survey of 129 teachers in both mainstream and specialised L2 writing classes and interviews with 23 of those teachers, revealed that some teachers were not aware of ESL learners and their needs with regard to writing in their classes. Those teachers also had confusions and frustrations over how to respond to students’ writing (*ibid.*). Both Ice

(2011) and Ferris (2011), thus, underlined that teacher preparation programmes, and also ongoing training programmes, need to address teachers' feedback needs and expose them to a variety of feedback strategies.

Institutional factors might also influence teachers' feedback perceptions (Goldstein, 2006). In terms of institutional factors, various scholars have indicated the following issues as influencing teachers' feedback perceptions: existence of stakeholders (e.g., school administrators, parents), assignment objectives (the skills at which an assignment is aimed), marking criteria for a given assignment (criteria that will be used during evaluation), genre (text type that learners are asked to write), word and length requirements, draft requirements, number of paper requirements, the existence of exams, and socio-political force (e.g., the attitudes towards minorities, large classrooms, teacher workload) (Ice, 2011; Falchikov, 1995; as cited by Weaver, 2006; Goldstein, 2004; McGarell & Verbeem, 2007).

Finally, teachers' goals were found among the issues influencing teachers' feedback perceptions. The study by Li and Barnard (2011), for example, revealed that academic writing tutors at a university in New Zealand were more concerned with validating the grades they gave on learners' writing rather than guide learners in their writing processes. Using these findings, Li and Barnard (2011) recommended that teachers need to be urged to examine their beliefs/goals about feedback and understand theoretical framework of the feedback practices. Likewise, Li and Barnard (*ibid.*) indicated that more emphasis should be made on increasing teachers' awareness of their goals/beliefs and understanding of what makes 'good' feedback.

2.3.5. Revision Behaviours and Possible Influencing Factors on Them

Several studies also provided findings about learners' revision behaviours following feedback and their influencing factors. The components of the revision behaviours of

learners, which are influenced by these factors, are: learner attitudes towards feedback modes in the process of revision, learner attitudes towards revision, content of revision and sustainability in the improvement of revised elements. In my study, my main focus is not to investigate revision behaviours. However, as the classroom feedback interactions are a new line of research, reviewing these studies might also be useful to present possible lines of future research on this type of feedback.

Learners' attitudes towards the mode of feedback in the process of revision can be determined by learners' unstable attributes. Matsumura and Hann (2004), for example, indicated that learners with higher computer anxiety displayed a greater tendency to avoid feedback provided through computer if they were given options in the stage of revision.

Another issue under the revision behaviours is learner attitudes towards revision, on which the mode of feedback, the time of feedback, the tone of feedback and teachers' strategies in feedback can have an influence. In terms of the mode of feedback, for example, according to Morra and Asís (2009), taped commentary increased students' sense of commitment by urging them to revise and hand in the assignments on time. Likewise, the study by Cryer and Kaikumba (1987, p.151) presents the learner comments underlining that "the extent and detail" of feedback provided through taped-feedback reinforced learners' decisions to start revisions immediately.

In relation with learners' attitudes towards revision, several studies also showed that the time of feedback had a significant role on learners' revision behaviours (Rowe & Wood, 2008; Poulus & Mahony, 2008; Rae & Cochrane, 2011). The findings of these studies revealed that when students did not receive immediate feedback, the feedback had the risk of being irrelevant to learners' ongoing studies (*ibid.*).

In addition to the mode and time of feedback, the tone of feedback was also found to be an important factor on learners' attitude towards revision (McGarrell & Verbeem, 2007; Poulus & Mahony, 2008). McGarrell and Verbeem (2007) categorised teacher feedback as either evaluative or formative, and emphasised that formative feedback, which is non-judgemental, encouraging, individualised, and content- and organisation-oriented, would motivate learners to make more effective revisions. Likewise, with a focus on a different aspect of the tone of teacher feedback, Poulus and Mahony (2008) found that when learners perceived particular biases from the teachers with regard to ideological viewpoints, this resulted in the loss of credibility in lecturers' feedback, thus influencing their attitudes towards revision.

Teachers' strategies in feedback can also be influential on learners' attitudes towards revision. Even though the studies in this line were conducted on teachers' written feedback strategies, it is still worth briefly mentioning them as they provide insight on feedback in general. These studies, which examined feedback strategies such as praise, criticism, suggestion, statement, question or imperative, do not have a consensus regarding the impact of feedback strategy on learners' attitudes towards revision. For example, some scholars contended that praise strategy urges learners to write more confidently because these are easier to remember (Poulus & Mahony, 2008; Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011). However, Weaver (2006) indicated that learners want a balance between positive and negative feedback. Hyland and Hyland (2001), who examined praise-criticism, criticism-suggestion, and praise-criticism- suggestions with simultaneous use of hedging, question forms and personal attributions to avoid being judgemental, found that mitigated feedback strategies were indirect, confusing and leading to misunderstanding for learners. Sugita (2006), and Nurmukhamedov and Kim (2010) also examined the question and statement strategy in feedback and

explained that this strategy might lead to mixed results. Sugita (2006) stated that since question and statement strategies do not offer clear guidelines about how to make revisions, students may experience difficulty in understanding what that feedback strategy intends to tell them.

As for the content of the revision, the quantity (i.e., amount) and the quality of revision (i.e., successful knowledge revision and accuracy) through feedback emerge as two sub-themes. In terms of the amount of revisions students make via different modes of feedback, Gonzáles (2010) indicated that students who received written feedback and oral feedback (writing conferencing) made more revisions using written feedback. Francis (2011) also found most revision was made with written feedback practices compared to verbal and peer feedback by Grade 5 children.

However, Gleaves and Walker (2013) examined the quality and quantity of revisions together by focusing on the “knowledge elaboration of learners” in the following drafts. Using the aural and textual feedback and student interviews as data sources, the study revealed that there was no significant difference between the *quantity* of the knowledge elaboration between the two groups (Gleaves & Walker, 2013, p.254). However, specific elements of knowledge elaboration changed depending on the medium of feedback utilized. That is, while aural feedback functioned better for integration of prior information, textual feedback was better for novel information. Student interviews indicated that discursive (e.g., repetitive) and conversational features (e.g., more relational) of aural feedback made it more suitable to assist with “scaffolding personal experiences and do this through the multiple descriptions of and diversions into, quite detailed aspects of the students’ writing” (Gleaves & Walker, 2013, p.254). On the other hand, interviews suggested that since textual feedback was more indexical and precise, it better served the integration of novel information (*ibid.*).

This feature when combined with learners' tendency to accept other's knowledge as less problematic than self-knowledge urged learners to insert more novel knowledge into their writing.

In addition to the mode of feedback, the content of the oral feedback may also have an influence on the quality of the revision. According to a study by Goldstein and Conrad (1999), when negotiation took place in writing conferences, a higher percentage of successful revision was observed while when learners were not engaged in any negotiation with tutors, their revisions were either unsuccessful or did not take place at all (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990).

There are also studies indicating that teacher strategy in feedback might influence the quantity and quality of the revision. For example, Sugita (2006) revealed that although teachers avoided using imperative commentary on learners' writing, imperative feedback was still the most successful strategy to lead learners to make most revisions. That imperative feedback created an authoritative tone and gave clear directions on how to make amendments are listed as the potential reasons for the situation (*ibid.*). Nurmukhamedov and Kim (2010) also found that imperative comments led to more effective revisions compared to question and statement comments.

Others have revealed that learner attributes might determine their engagement with the feedback, which also has implications for the revision process. Doan (2013, pp.7-8), for instance, revealed that learners were more engaged with tutor feedback they found "balanced between critical and constructive". Doan (2013) also revealed that whether learners had training on how to use tutor feedback impacted their engagement with it. Other studies indicated the learners' cognitive level and intellectual maturity as influencing factors on their engagement with feedback (Weaver, 2006; Sheen, 2007; Poulus & Mahony, 2008).

A third line of research on the relationship between learner attributes and revision has offered insight into learners' efficacy and motivation. Schunk (2003, p.1) defined self-efficacy as "the beliefs about one's capabilities to learn or perform behaviours at the designated levels" while providing a summary of the previous research on the relationship between self-efficacy and learning. One important point made by Schunk (2003) is that learners, most of whom suffer from low self-efficacy, tend to solely rely on teacher feedback in the development of their literacy skills. Therefore, it is recommended that interventions like teacher feedback should also aim at helping learners increase their self-efficacy. Related to that issue, Young (2000, p.413) found that students with a low self-esteem tended to interpret "all feedback as judgements while the ones with a higher self-esteem did not". Nurmukhamedov and Kim (2010) indicated motivation had a significant role in learners' responses to feedback. Their findings revealed that some learners might lack motivation and understanding, "with a distinct lack of intention to learn, for them a pass mark might seem enough, or that they are not prepared enough to connect with feedback, or they lack intrinsic motivation to learn" (*ibid.*).

Several studies also focused on learners' past school and feedback experiences and their impact on learners' use of teacher feedback (Weaver, 2006; McGarell & Verbeem, 2007; Burke, 2009; Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2010). These studies unambiguously reported that lack of previous guidance may result in a lack of necessary understanding for the correct interpretation of the academic discourse while using feedback.

In relation to learners' experiences, another issue that attracted attention is learners' familiarity with the target discourse and existence of competing discourses. Bailey (2009) has stated that the dissonance between what teachers write and intend and what

students know and understand due to their discourse background leads to differences in learners' responses to feedback. Likewise, Weaver (2006) suggested that students who do not have a similar understanding of academic discourse as their teachers may have difficulty in utilising feedback. One significant academic difference indicated by Weaver (2006, p.380) is that teachers and students have different assumptions about "what constitutes subject knowledge", which may cause learner misunderstandings. Closely related to that, Higgins, Hartley and Skelton (2001) contended that students in higher education struggle with competing discourse problems. That is, either because learners are completely new to a specific discourse, or they have to move between different discourses in higher education, learners may experience difficulty in accessing the particular discourses underpinning tutor comments (*ibid.*).

Learners' perceptions of power relations and bias at the school are also among the issues that have been acknowledged in learner feedback as leading to learners losing trust in feedback and discrediting lecturers (Carless, 2006; Poulus & Mahony, 2008; Nurmukhamedov & Kim 2010; Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011). For instance, in Carless' study (2006), Carless (2006, p.229) stated that the asymmetrical power relations naturally existing in the assessment process "risk invoking negative emotions, which may form a barrier to learning from feedback".

Another dimension of revision is the sustainability of the improvement in the revised elements over time. Some studies investigated the relationship between mode of feedback and sustainability of revised items. Pan (2010), for example, claimed that no positive relationship exists between students' linguistic accuracy improvement over time and teacher feedback.

Regarding accuracy improvement through different modes of feedback, an earlier study by Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005), which examined the improvement in

linguistic accuracy through different modes of feedback in new pieces of writing, provided a more complicated picture of the relationship between the mode of teacher feedback and improvement. In this study, accuracy performance with prepositions, past simple tense and the definite article of “53 post-intermediate ESOL (migrant) students who had just entered a post-intermediate ESOL programme” was compared under the three different conditions: mixed feedback (i.e., written corrective feedback and oral conferencing), direct written corrective feedback only and no corrective feedback (Bitchener et al., 2005, p.195). The results of statistical analysis showed that students’ overall accuracy in all groups did not show “a linear and upward development” during the process (Bitchener et al., 2005, p.201). That is, learners’ overall accuracy varied. However, the interaction between time and type of feedback had an impact on the level of accuracy within the mixed feedback group, whose performance with the use of prepositions was different from the other two groups over time. Yet, the same group did not show any difference with their use of past tense and definite articles under the influence of the time and type of feedback.

Gleaves and Walker (2013) also investigated the improvement from the perspective of content improvement through aural and textual modes of feedback. They found that the proportion of students’ “deeper knowledge elaborations remained relatively stable throughout the writing process” via both modes. According to Gleaves and Walker (2013, p.259), this implies that “feedback type encapsulates a particular form of richness, that of confirmation and reassurance rather than continual development”.

2.3.7. Implications and Research Contributions

Research on feedback is a broad line of enquiry. However, when analysed individually and in relation with my study in terms of the feedback mediums, contexts and issues

being examined, it is recognized that oral feedback still needs further research from different dimensions.

From the aspect of feedback mediums, one issue with previous research is the intensive attention to certain forms of feedback in a comparative manner under the oral feedback category: writing conferences, audio feedback, video feedback with oral comments, and so forth. These studies certainly add to our understanding of feedback. However, a quick review of these studies reveals that research on classroom feedback specifically within EAP settings is missing.

From a topical aspect, previous research concentrates around student perceptions and interactional patterns. In terms of interactional patterns, these studies provide a rich background to understand possible situations where teacher domination, collaboration and learner resistance emerge in oral feedback interactions. Yet, I believe that these studies tend to examine participation patterns as a holistic unit and ignore the individual actions participants utilize during interactions. In my study, close attention is paid to the individual actions of participants as they are utilized by teachers and students. Furthermore, this study also examines the implications of these participant actions for the construction and maintenance of possible relationship patterns, which is a research interest rarely found in earlier research.

Moreover, studies that examine negotiation within feedback interactions are very few. Those which do exist focus on writing conferences. Studies on EAP in-class feedback interactions within UK higher education settings are, I believe, scarce. Likewise, as I have shown in section 2.1.3., research on EAP design does not address the classroom setting, either. Exploring classroom feedback interactions on EAP writing, however, would contribute to a more concrete understanding of the issues below within EAP settings and their implications for EAP design:

- Relationship between learners’ perceptions and their participation in interactions on their writing
- Teachers’ and learners’ interactional patterns in EAP, which has unique power dynamics
- How learners and teachers treat normativity, authority and collaboration in EAP settings

Various researchers state that there is a need to avoid “importing categories of analysis developed from other pedagogical settings or from ordinary conversation” to be better able to depict “what individual practices of pedagogical talks are being used to accomplish in particular settings” (Koshik, 2010, p.305). This study, following this recommendation, derives teacher-student relationship patterns within in-class spoken teacher feedback interactions from the data instead of importing categories from other pedagogical settings to be able to contribute to the debate on ESAP vs. EGAP.

2.4. Research Questions

There are two main types of research questions in this study. The first set of questions focusing on understanding the data collected in research settings has emerged through the contradiction between the significance of EAP classroom spoken feedback for the decisions on EAP teaching/learning and the relative lack of research in this area. The relevance of these questions was also supported by the analysis of the initially-collected (exploratory)-data. The main research question regarding exploratory data and the four sub-questions are introduced below:

1. How can the relationship patterns of teacher-student interactions on EAP writing in a given EAP setting be theorised?
 - a) What actions do students and teachers display during one-on-one feedback interactions on EAP writing?

- b) Of what patterns of teacher-student relationships are these actions indicative?
- c) Why do relationship patterns emerge in the way they did during observed feedback interactions?
- d) What are the possible consequences of the emerging relationship patterns?

The second type of question is related to conducting and analysis of the data. Being methodology-related, this fifth research question has also emerged, but from the complete analysis of the data. Please see Chapter 7 to better see how this question emerged.

- e) How can the units of the case be compared and contrasted to see the boundaries of the single case study units?

2.5. Conclusion

This chapter provided background information about approaches toward EAP and their possible implications for feedback practices. Following this, previous research into classroom spoken discourse was detailed in order to better represent how my research attempts to fill the existing gaps. In the third section, I focused on research on feedback on writing. In the fourth section, I presented the research questions. In the following chapter, the research methodology in the initial and focused data collection phases will be explicated.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, I detail the data collection process through 8 major sections. These sections are research paradigm, methods of inquiry (i.e., qualitative case study and grounded theory), design of the study, data collection, sampling, evaluating qualitative research and ethical issues. In the end, a summary of the chapter is given.

3.1. Research Paradigm

“Sets of ideas” offering “judgements about the nature of reality” and methods to reach the reality are called paradigms (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.15). These philosophical assumptions underpin the basic beliefs of a study in terms of “how the researcher knows what s/he knows (epistemology), the nature of reality (ontology), and the methods used in the process (methodology)” (Lincoln & Guba, 2000, p.168; Creswell, 2007, p.16). This study follows the constructivist paradigm. Therefore, I will first briefly discuss the basic principles of constructivism. Then, I will detail the stance of the study in terms of the constructivist paradigm (Lincoln & Guba, 2000).

Constructivism emphasises a subjective knowledge creation (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). In that sense, constructivism is *antifoundational*, rejecting the notion that knowledge has “permanent and unvarying standards through which truth can be universally known” (Lincoln & Guba, 2000, p.177). This epistemological position of constructivism emphasizes *the relationship* between participants in the course of knowledge creation (*ibid.*). Therefore, it posits that there are “infinite number of constructions and multiple realities” with bounded natures in terms of people, time and space (i.e., relativism) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.84; Lincoln & Guba, 2000, p.168; Richards, 2003).

The relativist attitude of constructivism regarding the nature of reality is closely related with the roles ascribed to values in research. Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that unlike positivist paradigms, naturalistic paradigms, one of them being constructivism, acknowledge that values are included in research in five ways, namely inquirer values, paradigmatic values, theoretical framework values, contextual values, and the internal value resonance.

Within these epistemological and ontological positions described above, constructivist approaches utilize hermeneutic/dialectic methods (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). In this regard, constructivists encourage participants to take an active role in proposing questions to be followed or new ways of inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Furthermore, constructivism emphasises the design of the methods in a way to generate internally valid findings while simultaneously demonstrating the existence of multiple realities and acknowledging the fact that the knowledge creation is subjective (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Following the constructivist line briefly described above, this study emphasises the notion of multiple realities through methods to be implemented. These methods (e.g., interviews, observations) will aim at “enabling participants to describe their views of reality”, thus leading to a better understanding of their actions (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p.545).

The study acknowledges that findings are subjectively created as a result of the particular interaction between the researcher and particular participants at a particular time and space. It is acknowledged that another investigator could interpret the case differently depending on his/her interaction with the context. Yet, by following the recommendations of Lincoln and Guba (1985) (e.g., prolonged engagement, triangulation) to increase trustworthiness, the study focuses on demonstrating an

internally coherent and valid interpretation of the context under study (see section 3.6. Evaluating Qualitative Research).

3.2. Methods of Inquiry: Case Study and Grounded Theory

This section discusses the qualitative inquiry traditions, namely Case Study and Grounded Theory (GT hereafter), this study followed. In the first part, I detail the case study and its principles, main features, types and its use in this study. In the second part, I first provide information about principles of GT. Then, I explicate basic schools of GT, main debates around GT tradition, and why this study implements GT. In the last section, I focus on how Case Study and GT fit into each other.

3.2.1. Case Study

Case study is described in various ways in the literature. Merriam (2002, p.178) states that scholars base their definitions on “unit of analysis”, procedure or aim of the study. For example, Stake (2000) focuses on ‘unit of analysis’ and describes case study as the decision of what to study rather than a mere methodological decision. However, Johansson (2003) underscores unit of analysis, procedure, and aim of study: Drawing the attention to the distinction between *case study* and a *case*, Johansson (2003) defines case study as the superset of (a) case and as a methodology to focus on the issue’s complex structure and ways of functioning. Likewise, Creswell (2007, p.73) prefers defining “case study as a methodology, a type of design in qualitative research, or an object of study, as well as a product of inquiry”. Despite these variations, definitions of case study underscore the bounded nature in terms of temporal, spatial and constituent aspects (Merriam, 2002). Therefore, a case study is “the investigation of a bounded system or multiple bounded systems over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations,

interviews, and reports) and reports of a case description and case based themes” (Creswell, 2007, p.73).

3.2.1.1. Main features of a case study

As is explained in the previous section, the main features of case study are unit of analysis, boundedness, research procedure and aim of the study. I will discuss these in turn.

Regarding the unit of analysis, case study focuses on “a particular unit or sets of units-institutions, programmes” (Richards, 2003, p.20; Creswell, 2007, p.78; Merriam, 2002, p.179). That is, a case needs to be specific (Stake, 2000; Yin, 2009; Nunan, 1992). Stake (2000) argues that, for example, while an individual doctor may constitute a case, his/her doctoring may not be specific enough to be a case. Yin (2009) suggests that achieving this specificity in case study plays a key role in satisfying the feasibility requirements of case study.

Related with the specificity of unit of analysis, case study displays a bounded nature in terms of time, space and constituents. These defining features give an identity to the case with its own behavioural patterns within a larger system (Stake, 2000). These features also make case study embedded (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). This means that case study research does not solely explore a case as an isolated unit, but aims to see the interaction between the unit of analysis and the context of the research (*ibid.*). Thus, bounded-ness necessitates that the case being examined emerges naturally within a wider system. That is, it should not be possible to manipulate the issue or the surrounding conditions (Yin, 2009; Baxter & Jack, 2008). In terms of research procedure and aim of the study, Yin (2009) states that case study has the ability to utilize various sources of evidence as the research method. Any methods including interviews, document archives, observations, and/or recordings

would fit into case study to be able to provide multiple perspectives on the unit of analysis (Yin, 2009; Creswell, 2007; Richards, 2003; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007). In this way, case study aims to generate a detailed and thick description of a phenomenon while simultaneously constructing an intensive amount of interaction with the case (*ibid.*).

Yin (2009, p.8) notes that although boundaries exist among various inquiry traditions, the distinction is not always sharp as there are “large overlaps” among them as well. Therefore, the features outlined above may also belong to other inquiry traditions. Yet, when these features are observed simultaneously within the same research, they suggest a case study.

3.2.1.2. Different types of case study

In the literature, case studies are grouped according to their purposes and sizes (Creswell, 2007). Single and multiple (or collective) case studies are described in terms of case size while descriptive, explanatory, exploratory, intrinsic and instrumental case studies are described according to case study purpose (Stake, 2000; Yin, 2009).

Stake (2000) defines three types of case studies, each of them being mutually inclusive. These are intrinsic, instrumental and collective case studies. An intrinsic case study is conducted when the purpose of the study is to understand the unique phenomenon itself (Stake, 2000).

An instrumental case study is conducted when the case displays a secondary significance while being a means to understand a phenomenon (Stake, 2000). In this type of case study, the researcher follows the same inquiry traditions as in any other case study. Yet, the case study facilitates research into a wider phenomenon (Stake, 2000).

A multiple (collective) case study is conducted through “a number of cases in order to investigate a phenomenon, population, or general condition” (Stake, 2000, p.437). Stake (*ibid.*) defines multiple (collective) case study as “instrumental case study extended to several cases”.

Yin (2009) also lists single, multiple, descriptive, explanatory and exploratory case studies as the types of case studies. A single case study is maintained on one case. Regarding multiple case studies, Yin (2009) makes a distinction through context, case and units of analysis. In this way, he describes two sub-sets of multiple case studies: multiple case study with single unit of analysis and multiple case study with multiple units of analysis (*ibid.*). The same distinction is made for single case studies as well (*ibid.*).

Exploratory case study is the term used in situations where the researcher is involved in the site without having a pre-set idea about the possible directions. The main purpose is to discover the research site to be able to develop “hypotheses and propositions for further inquiry” (Yin, 2009, p.9). As for explanatory case study, it aims to *explain* the casual relationships in a case where the questions of ‘why’ and ‘how’ need to be studied over time (Yin, 2009; Thies & Volland, 2010). Descriptive case studies describe a phenomenon such as “an instance of an exceedingly successful venture, one-of-a kind situation, extreme condition, normally an inaccessible issue to social scientists, or even an ordinary condition” (Yin, 2012, p.49).

Despite offering the above classifications, Yin (2009, p.7) underlines that since every case research may display various features, it would be appropriate to have an “inclusive and pluralistic attitude” rather than trying to make rigid differentiations among types of case research.

3.2.1.3. Describing the case study

In relation to the above explanations of features and types of case study, it is also important to describe the case study I conducted. To this end, I will first detail the reasons for choosing case study as the inquiry tradition. Then, I will explicate the type of this case study and its design.

Yin (2009, p.8) advises that three issues be taken into account while deciding which inquiry tradition to use. These are “the type of research question posed, the extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioural events, and the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events”. However, since these reasons may generate overlapping implications with other types of inquiry traditions as well, in this study, I had two other reasons to choose case study as the inquiry tradition: Paradigm and discipline related reasons.

First, the research paradigm of the study, which is constructivism, is based on the “subjective construction of meaning” while highlighting pluralism/relativism with a “focus on the circular dynamic tension between subject and object in the interpretation process of the meaning making of others” (Miller & Crabtree, 2001, p.10; as cited by Baxter & Jack, 2008, p.545). Furthermore, it encourages hermeneutic/dialectic methodologies (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Constructivism also requires that researcher apply various strategies to be able to achieve trustworthiness while simultaneously maintaining an intensive amount of interaction with participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.108).

In the same line with the above outlined constructivist beliefs, Stake (2000) contends that case study has a strong ground for generating interpretive meanings held by people involved in it. Lauckner, Paterson and Krupa (2012) also indicate that constructivist case studies allow the researcher to provide a thick description of how knowledge is

created differently by different people. Finally, case studies' flexibility to be used with multiple sources of data (Dörnyei, 2007) (e.g., interviews, observations) paves the way to address trustworthiness issues by allowing the researcher to maintain an intensive amount of interaction with participants through the application of activities such as prolonged engagement, persistent observation and triangulation as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

In addition to the paradigmatic convenience, case study also has the advantage of particularly fitting into TESOL field, which is very heterogeneous in terms of cultures, societies and locations (Richards, 2003). In a field where generalisations would not represent the truth, one case study would provide the opportunity to make comparisons and contrasts across geographies; societies and cultures to be able gain fresh insight about the focus issue being studied (*ibid.*). In this sense, conducting a case study may contribute to the "understanding of, and solving problems related to other teacher's own workplace" in TESOL field (Nunan, 1992, p.89).

Regarding the type of case study in terms of its purpose, this study may fall into different categories depending on its different features. The study is an *exploratory* as I initially became involved in the research site to be able discover the emerging issues around the overarching topic. Moreover, these initial phases of study have led to a focus on an under-researched issue for the later phases. Thus, as Yin (2009) explains, case studies investigating phenomena with insufficient existing literature may be grouped as exploratory.

In addition to being exploratory, the study is also a *descriptive* case study. This is because what the exploratory phase of the study has revealed was an understudied aspect of spoken teacher feedback on EAP writing, which are the relationship patterns between teachers and students during feedback interactions. Therefore, it is necessary

to provide a detailed account of this phenomenon to be able to generate interpretations about the feedback interactions between different participants and the broader context. Finally, the study is an explanatory case study. This is because I also aim to provide an in-depth, ‘causal explanation’ for the interrelationships among different aspects of the relationship patterns in feedback interactions. As it will be shown, the analysis of the data has revealed various influencing factors on the emergence of relationship patterns within interactional feedback in EAP settings. This adds an explanatory nature to this study.

Regarding the size of the study, this study is a single case study with embedded units. The study is a single case study due to its being a “revelatory case” (Yin, 2009, p.48). That is, the research focuses on an issue, on which few scholars focused previously. This case study has also embedded units. Yin (2009, p.50) describes single case study with embedded units as “a single case with a subunit or subunits”. Likewise, this case study focuses on one single programme (EAP programme at a higher education institution in England) in the broad sense. Yet, this single programme is constituted of smaller units, which are Pre-sessional EAP, Pre-requisite EAP, Generic In-sessional EAP, and Specialised EAP. More specifically, I defined these case units using the activities/goals they focused on and how these classes were defined. However, since they functioned within the same institution, I believed that they were influenced by similar institutional regulations and dynamics. Thus, I decided to treat this study as a single case with embedded units.

3.2.1.4. Reflections on conducting a case study

Lauckner, Paterson and Krupa (2012, p.2) state that “false starts, dilemmas, and uncertainties are rarely afforded exploration in research papers although these are

often realities in the work of novice researchers”. Therefore, it is necessary to reflect on the different layers of the whole process by beginning with case study here.

One challenge for me was to determine the unit of analysis while deciding the size of the case study. This was an important decision as it would affect further stages of research. Yin (2009) underlines that multiple case studies have unique strengths and weaknesses in comparison with single case studies. One advantage of multiple case studies is that they present more persuasive and strong evidence (*ibid.*). Yet, Yin (2009) also contends that multiple case studies cannot usually meet the requirements of single case studies, one of them being the focus on revelatory issues (*ibid.*).

Although having the above-mentioned strength in terms of focus on revelatory issues, Yin (2009, p.50) explicates that single case studies, specifically those which are single case studies with single units of analysis, may lead to investigations at an “unduly abstract level, lacking sufficiently clear measures or data”. Contrasting with this argument, Creswell (2007) states that single case studies with multiple units may deteriorate the depth of study.

I attempted to mitigate the above concerns by describing case study in terms of its spatial and constituent boundaries. As mentioned previously, this case study focuses on one single programme (EAP programme at a higher education institution in England) in the broad sense. Yet, this single programme is constituted of smaller units, which are Pre-sessional EAP, Pre-requisite EAP, Generic In-sessional EAP, and Specialised EAP. Moreover, all these units share similar goals although they also have unit-specific goals. Therefore, I decided to describe the study as single case study with embedded units. Likewise, as I will show in Chapter 7 - Using the theory to compare and contrast the case units, plenty of commonalities regarding the relationship patterns and possible influences/consequences were observed across case units although slight

differences emerged. This result, thus, confirms the decision to treat the study as a single case study although the commonalities have triggered questions regarding how to analyse case units, which will be discussed in Chapter 8 - Summary of Findings and Discussion.

A second concern with case study has been establishing the congruence between case study and grounded theory, both of them the inquiry traditions of the study. This will be detailed in the sub-section 3.2.2.4. in this chapter.

3.2.2. Grounded Theory

Grounded theory (GT) is a method for generating theory by following a systematic, iterative, and rigorous data collection and analysis process (Glaser, 1978). GT has several determining features as defined by its pioneers Glaser and Strauss (Charmaz, 2006). The most important feature of it is “the absence of a clear research problem or hypothesis up-front, rather the researcher tries to uncover the research problem as the main concern of the participants in the process” (Hoda, Noble & Marshall, 2011, p.613). This requires the researcher to derive analytic codes and categories (and themes in my study) (see next chapter for the definitions of concept, categories and themes) from data rather than imposing preconceived hypotheses on the data. Thus, GT encourages the researcher to avoid extensive literature reading prior to analysis (Glaser, 1978).

Another feature, concurrent conduct of data collection and data analysis, requires that the researcher progress with the theory development through simultaneously taken steps of data collection and analysis (Glaser, 1978).

A third principle, utilization of constant comparison method, necessitates the comparison and contrast of the emerging codes within the same data item and across the same data set (e.g., comparing the incident codes in field notes to develop

concepts-see Chapter 4 for more detail) (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Through this process, the researcher aims to generate properties of each category within the theory (*ibid.*).

Closely related with the constant comparison method is the memo writing principle, which asks the researcher to “stop coding... and take as much time as necessary to reflect and carry his thinking to its most logical (grounded in the theory, not speculative) conclusions” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.107). More specifically, memos are notes that function as the reflective notes on what was meant with certain codings and concepts (Bryman, 2012). The purpose of memo writing is to draft initial theoretical notions and develop a more concrete and harmonized line of theory development (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This also facilitates keeping track of idea development in the generation of theory (Bryman, 2012).

A final principle of GT is to focus sampling on advancing the theory development instead of population representativeness (Charmaz, 2006). This component of GT underscores that the decision of what to collect at any given moment is determined by the developing theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978).

The aforementioned components of GT are suggestive in that although GT has developed into different schools over time due to its two pioneers’ different perspectives on theory generation, any study claiming to conduct GT needs to include those components. The next section will look in more detail at the two basic schools of GT which were developed by its co-founders Glaser and Strauss. Following this, a third approach by Charmaz will be briefly described.

3.2.2.1. Schools of GT: Glaser, Strauss-Corbin and Charmaz models

Glaserian and Straussian Schools of GT

Mills, Bonner and Francis (2006) state that variations of GT as represented by Glaser versus Strauss and Corbin are defined as Glaserian being *traditional* while Straussian version being

the *evolved* version of GT. Warburton (2005) also explains that the basic difference between Glaser and Strauss models of GT is the *purist/objectivist* versus *pragmatist/relativist* attitudes they hold. In this regard, according to Åge (2011, p.1604), the Glaserian school of GT is closer to objectivist approaches with its “insistence that grounded theory categories should fit the empirical data and the emphasis on a core category grasping the basic social process that (presumably) exists in the empirical field”. On the other hand, as Mills et al. (2006, p.28) explain, the Straussian version underlines that “truth is enacted while it is also embedded in history”, which turns Straussian approach into a pragmatic and relativist version of GT. Yet, they also add that Straussian approach also displays the characteristics of constructivism (*ibid.*).

Although they have the above explained paradigmatic differences, Walker and Myrick (2006) argue that the Glaser and Strauss versions of GT are difficult to distinguish at a broader level, but differences become apparent in the way they conduct their procedures. Mills et al. (2006, p.28) list these differences under the headings of “theoretical sensitivity, treatment of the literature, coding and identifying the core categories”.

To begin with theoretical sensitivity, Strauss and Corbin (2008, p.32) define it as “a contrasting stance to objectivity, which requires having insight, being turned in to, being able to pick up on relevant issues, events and happenings in data”. Furthermore, it develops over time through continual engagement with people and data (*ibid.*). Mills et al. (2006, p.28) explain that the Straussian approach depends on “the level of the researcher’s insight” while describing theoretical sensitivity. On the other hand, Glaser (1978, p.3) emphasises that theoretical sensitivity is achieved through “remaining

open to what is actually happening”. Thus, a basic condition of theoretical sensitivity is to ‘enter the research setting with as few predetermined ideas as possible’ (*ibid.*).

A second difference between Glaser and Strauss versions is the treatment of the literature. Glaser (1978) recommends that the researcher avoid conducting a literature review so that the issue under examination is not controlled by these ideas. Yet, the Straussian version urges the researcher to conduct a literature review from the beginning to benefit in a variety of ways such as making comparisons or enhancing sensitivity (Strauss & Corbin, 2008).

In terms of coding procedures, both schools utilize the word *coding* even if their utilization of it differs. In Straussian school of GT, the coding procedures underline that “data is organised to generate the theory” (Jones & Alony, 2011, p.99). Three types of coding are listed: Open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Bryman, 2012; Strauss & Corbin, 2008). In open coding, data is broken down, compared, contrasted and categorised (Bryman, 2012). In axial coding, a new connection is made among the categories in relation with contexts, consequences, interactions, and causes (*ibid.*). This phase is one of the most controversial issues regarding GT, as some scholars would claim that it ends the open-ended nature of GT prematurely (Bryman, 2012). In the selective coding phase, one core category is selected as the core category, and it is systematically related with other categories (*ibid.*).

On the other hand, the coding procedures Glaser recommends emphasise emergence of theory from data without needing to organise the data (Jones & Alony, 2011). Glaser (1978) offers two basic coding procedures, substantive and theoretical coding. Substantive coding is divided in two sub-stages, where open coding and selective coding is conducted. In theoretical coding, researcher is asked to work at a more

conceptual level and develop the relationship among the substantive codes into hypothesis and theory (Walker & Myrick, 2006).

Charmaz Model of GT

Charmaz (2000, 2006) introduced her model of GT, which is referred to as constructivist GT. She distinguishes it from older approaches on the basis that it is constructivist rather than objectivist. In this model, the researcher does not attempt to reveal an independent reality (*ibid.*). However, the researcher aims at understanding the world which is created by different participants “through a dialectical process of conferring meaning on their realities” (Charmaz, 2000, p.521). In this constructivist attitude, codes, concepts and categories, and eventually the theory, is generated through the interaction between researcher, field and data (Charmaz, 2000).

Regarding this constructivist model of GT, Bryman (2012, p.575) comments that even though the Glaserian and Straussian GT are not explicit about the role of the researcher during theory generation, it is also unclear from their accounts whether Glaser and Strauss-Corbin impose a notion of reality as “existing independent of social actors”. Therefore, Bryman stresses that the introduction of a constructivist GT added further confusions produced by the competing accounts of GT (*ibid.*).

3.2.2.2. Debates around GT

Bulmer (1979; as cited by Bryman, 2012), Alberti-Alhtaybat & Al-Htaybat (2010) contend that the requirement that researchers should start the research with little or no previous knowledge is not feasible. This is because various factors influence what researchers see in their data, one of them being their already existing knowledge (Bryman, 2012; Alberti-Alhtaybat & Al-Htaybat, 2010). In practice, researchers, and doctoral students are expected to demonstrate the possible contribution of their study and have well-established research questions at the beginning (Bryman, 2012; Jones

& Alony, 2011). This requirement, in turn, necessitates that researchers have previous knowledge about the phenomenon to be studied.

GT also has practical difficulties, one of them being the tension between simultaneous data collection and data analysis (*ibid.*). That researchers have various responsibilities (e.g., interviewing, transcribing, writing-up field notes and other deadlines) may make it difficult to conduct GT as it is recommended (*ibid.*).

Finally, since various researchers use terms in different ways, there is a confusion on what the words concept and category mean in GT (Bryman, 2012). This variety in the use of terms makes it harder to understand the process (*ibid.*).

3.2.2.3. The application of GT in this study

Despite the above listed criticisms around GT, several reasons led me to use GT along with case study as a basic inquiry tradition in this study. One reason is that GT allows exploration of understudied research areas (Hoda et al., 2011). Spoken feedback on EAP writing is one of these research areas, which necessitates an exploratory approach. This exploratory approach is emphasised by GT. Moreover, GT as a research method focusing on the research of human experiences, social interactions (Parry, 1998; Hoda et al., 2011) and understudied research fields is not frequently implemented in the EAP environment, even though this environment consists of a great amount of interactions related to academic writing.

A final reason to use GT is that it provides systematized and clear steps to analyse data. This is specifically significant in terms of the fact that case study does not provide well-established data analysis procedures (Yin, 2009). Therefore, GT facilitates the analysis procedure.

3.2.2.4. Developing theory from case study

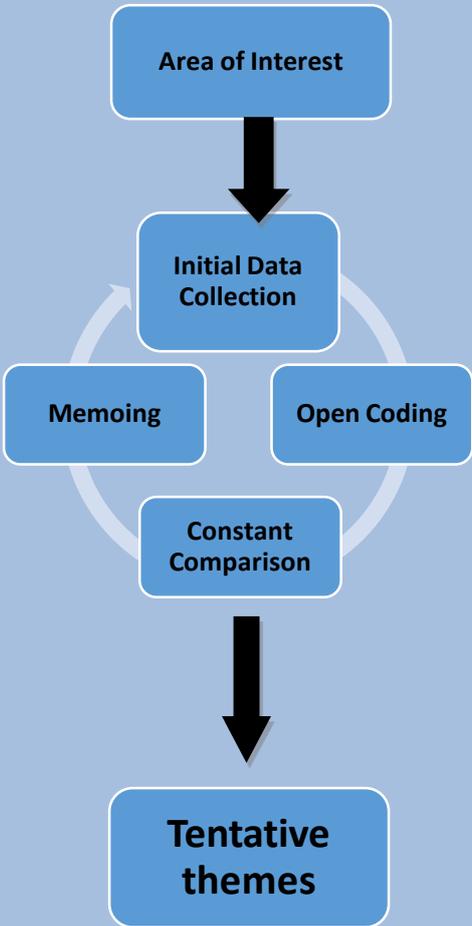
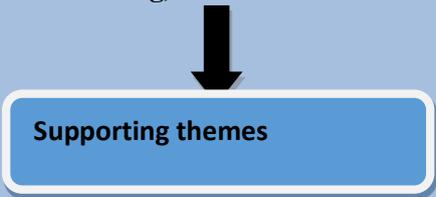
Combining case study and GT has facilitated this study in various ways. One way it facilitated the procedure has been case study's provision of thick descriptions.

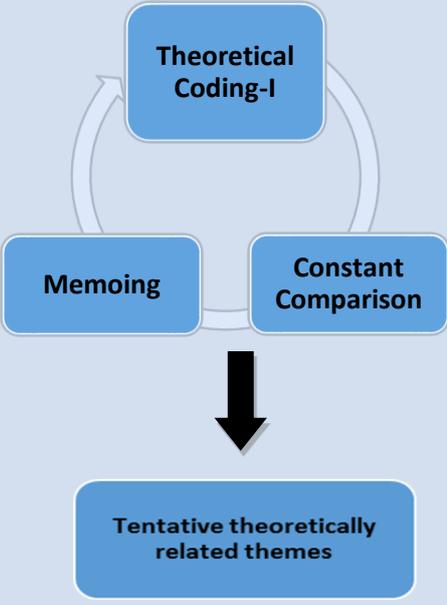
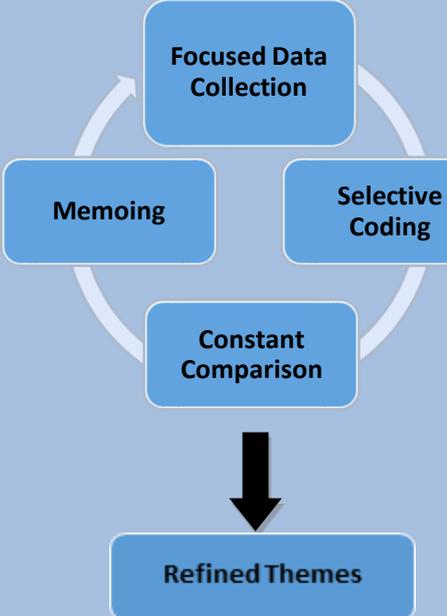
Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007, p.25) state that theory generation from case studies entails the study of one or more cases to be able to reach “theoretical constructs, propositions and/or midrange theory from case-based, empirical evidence”. In this theory derivation process, case studies, with their dense descriptions, act as the starting point for theory generation since there are ‘patterns of relationships among constructs within and across cases with logical arguments’ (*ibid.*).

Another advantage of combining case study with GT is that GT has brought a systematic analytical procedure to the case data. Yin (2009) indicates that case study has been often criticised due to its lack of rigor and a systematic procedure. However, a well-established analysis procedure and the emphasis on rigor during the theory generation is one of the strengths of GT (Charmaz, 2000). Thus, in this study, case study facilitated the data collection procedure while GT strengthened the analysis procedure (Please see ‘Chapter 7-Using the theory to compare and contrast case units’ for further information on how GT was utilized to compare and contrast case units).

3.3. Design of the Study

The principles of GT have shaped the research design as shown in the ‘Grounded Theory Cycle’ figure in the Table 3.1. The figure has been adapted from the figures drawn by both Charmaz (2006, p.11) and Hoda (2011, p.40). Following the diagram, some terms will be explained and exemplified.

Stages	Data Collection Methods	Activities	Periods
<p>Stage 1 : Initial Data Collection</p>  <pre> graph TD A[Area of Interest] --> B[Initial Data Collection] B --> C[Memoing] B --> D[Open Coding] C --> E[Constant Comparison] D --> E E --> F[Tentative themes] </pre>	<p>Classroom Observations and Field notes</p> <p>Interviews</p>	<p>Observing EAP classes,</p> <p>Keeping field notes (using audio-recordings only when possible)</p> <p>Interviewing student and teacher participants,</p> <p>Transcribing interviews,</p> <p>Member checking,</p> <p>Initial open readings of data for analysis</p> <p>Initial analysis</p>	<p>January 2012- April 2012</p> <p>August 2012- December 2012</p>
<p>Stage 2 : Inserting Secondary Data Sources for More Supporting Evidence and Categories (Semi-Selective Coding)</p>  <pre> graph TD A[Supporting themes] </pre>	<p>–</p>	<p>Revising Analysis: Inserting Interviews</p>	<p>August 2012- December 2012</p>

<p>Stage 3: Initial tentative theoretical coding</p>  <pre> graph TD TC1[Theoretical Coding-I] --> M[Memoing] M --> CC[Constant Comparison] CC --> TC1 M --> TTR[Tentative theoretically related themes] CC --> TTR </pre>		<p>Initial attempt to relate categories to each other</p> <p>Minor Literature Review</p>	<p>December 2012</p>
<p>Stage 4: Focused Data Collection Phase</p>  <pre> graph TD FDC[Focused Data Collection] --> M[Memoing] M --> SC[Selective Coding] SC --> CC[Constant Comparison] CC --> FDC M --> RT[Refined Themes] SC --> RT CC --> RT </pre>	<p>New Classroom Observations and Field notes, Interviews</p>	<p>Minor Literature Review</p> <p>Observing EAP classes (audio-recording only when possible)</p> <p>Keeping field notes,</p> <p>Interviewing student and teacher participants,</p> <p>Transcribing interviews,</p> <p>Member checking,</p> <p>Simultaneous analysis of initial stage data</p>	<p>October 2012- February 2013</p>

		Simultaneous readings of newly collected data for analysis	
		Beginning selective analysis, new field notes and interviews	March 2013-October 2013
Stage 5: Theoretical Coding		Sorting	November 2013
		Major Literature Review	December 2013
Stage 6: Write Up		Comparing and Contrasting case units using the theory; Discussion of Findings, Conclusion	July-August 2014

Table 3.1. Design of the study

3.3.1. Key Terms in the Research Design

Some of the terms used in the above table necessitate being clarified. A table showing these descriptions and some examples from my own research is shown below. It is necessary to emphasise that the terms are listed in alphabetical order and that the table

does not indicate the order in which procedures actually happened. As I hope to have indicated on the diagram just shown above, procedures were in fact cyclical.

Term	Descriptions
Constant Comparison Method	This is the process of continuous comparison of codes from a data item with other codes from the same data item, or other data items from the same data set (Hoda, 2011, p. 38). For example, once a code is generated within a single interview, it is compared and contrasted with other codes emerging from the same interview. Later, it is also examined in relation to the other codes developing from other interviews.
Initial Data Collection	In GT, data collection starts with an exploratory feature. The researcher has a general area of inquiry, yet does not know what might be discovered in the end. My study started with a broad interest in teacher feedback on academic writing in EAP classes. Initially, I did not know that the later stages would focus on teacher-student relationship patterns within spoken feedback interactions.
Major Literature Review	At the end of the analysis, the researcher can make a comprehensive literature review.
Memoing	This is the process where the researcher reflects on the analysis (and other aspects of research) by writing theoretical nodes in GT (<i>ibid.</i>). I tried to use this strategy along the whole research while making decisions on what to collect next and while analysing to prevent the loss of track of ideas. I wrote down anything that I thought about the analysis of data. I also wrote reflective memos.
Minor Literature review	The research process in GT starts with a small amount of literature research (<i>ibid.</i>). This is to prevent the impact of preconceived ideas on the theory generation.
Open Coding	This is the first step of analysis, the researcher begins analysis by generating codes, which describe the key issue in the excerpt. While collecting initial data, I read data to be able to ‘make sense’ of it. After this reading, I started analysing feedback related data from the smallest meaningful pieces.
Refined Themes	These are saturated themes. They do not need any further data.
Tentative (Core) themes	The themes that are most easily connected with other themes in a meaningful way are the core themes (<i>ibid.</i>). At the end of the open coding stage, since they could have been changed in the later stages of analysis, I called them tentative.
Theoretical Coding	Glaser’s coding families to explicate the relationship between themes guide this process (<i>ibid.</i>).
Theoretical Sampling	Once the initial analysis is completed, further data collection is determined by the emerging properties of the theory, which is called theoretical sampling. For example, once the tentative core themes were developed, I shaped my interviews and classroom observations in the way to reach further details or more evidence about those themes.

Table 3.2.Key terms in the research design

3.4. Data Collection

Interviews (student and teacher) and observation field notes (supported with audio recordings when possible) were used as the means of data collection.

3.4.1. Classroom Observation and Field Notes

Observations may be conducted either in natural settings of the issue we are interested in or in a setting where there is a control on the issue (Angrosino & de Perez, 2000).

Those observations in natural settings are conveyed through “open-ended narrative, checklist or field guides” (Rossman & Rallis, 1998; p.137; as cited by Angrosino & de Perez, 2000, p.674). In those naturalistic observations, there is no interference in the people or their activities by the observer (Angrosino & de Perez, 2000).

Dörnyei (2007) explains that classroom observations have various drawbacks. One drawback is that not all variables and processes are eligible for direct observations because some have a mental nature. It is also underlined that observing a phenomenon does not necessarily lead to understanding (*ibid.*).

Although the above criticisms of classroom observation seem sound, the advantages that classroom observations have may compensate for those drawbacks. Classroom observations, for instance, function as the direct means of understanding the context instead of depending on the accounts of other people (Dörnyei, 2007). Moreover, observations provide the researcher with the “probes” for a deeper analysis of the field being researched (Tjora, 2006, p.430). That is, they guide the other sources of data with points of directions. In this way, they help the researcher set the triangulation for evaluating the data collected via other means (Adler & Adler, 1994; as cited by Tjora, 2006).

As a more specific advantage to this study, observations, which are easy to adjust to different research methodologies, are also a significant data collection tool for GT in

terms of GT goals. A basic GT motive is to reveal the “underlying social processes” of a particular phenomenon, for which observations provide the ground (Glaser, 1978). Charmaz also (2006, p.22) states that GT privileges observations in that it requires attention to “what is happening in the setting and make a conceptual rendering of these actions” instead of solely “taking a more structural and descriptive approach” in the observations.

Given the advantages associated with observations, I implemented them as the basic means of data collection throughout the study. These observations were conducted as un-structured and non-participant type. The details of those observations (e.g., how many classes, how many hours of observations) will be given in section 3.4.1.1.

The observations are technically non-participant because I was not involved in the activities in the research site. I write ‘technically’ because, as Dörnyei (2007) cites from Morse and Richards (2002), it is not possible for an observer to be in an absolute participating or non-participating role in a research setting. During data collection, although I most of the time simply observed and took notes, there were times when I joined a discussion about an issue being covered in class. Thus, I believe that making strict distinctions may not reflect what actually happened.

This study also used an unstructured observation in that I completed narrative field notes. This is because the observation in this study aimed at understanding what was *actually* taking place in the research site rather than looking at pre-determined issues (see section 3.2.2. Grounded Theory).

3.4.1.1. Classroom observations in the data collection

During initial and focused data collection phases a total of thirteen different classes were observed and field notes were completed during those observations. I present the detailed information about these classes in the below tables.

a) **Initial Data Collection:** In this phase, I observed classes by 4 EAP tutors. One Pre-requisite, one Generic In-session and two Specialised EAP classes were observed. Each class was two hours per week. However, the length of observations depended on if there was any academic writing and feedback-related activities and student attendance. In some sessions, since students wanted to focus on other aspects of English language, the teacher complied with their requests and suggested that I need not stay. Moreover, in some sessions, since there was only one (sometimes no students), I had to cancel the observation. In total, approximately 42 hours of classroom observation took place. The class profiles were as follows. Please see Appendix 1a for more details about each class.

Classes (Observed Number of a Class)	Number of Students & Nationality	Total Observed Hours
Pre-Requisite EAP class (1)	10 students (Kazakhstan, Turkey, Mexico, Saudi Arabia)	10
Generic In-Sessional EAP Class (1)	11 Students (Taiwan, China, Indonesia, Burundi, Kazakhstan, Czech Republic, Singapore)	15
Specialised EAP Class (2)	18 students (China, Kazakhstan, Malaysia)	~17

Table 3.3. Class profiles in initial data collection phase

b) **Focused Data Collection:** Analysis of initial classroom observations led to a focus on spoken feedback interactions on EAP writing between teachers and students, and the existing relationship patterns in those interactions. Therefore, I decided to observe as many EAP classes as I could to find further examples of spoken feedback interactions on academic writing. The reason for seeking for more examples was to increase the depth of the initially generated themes around feedback interactions. To this end, I selected four different types of EAP classes: I observed 1 Pre-sessional, 2 Pre-requisite, 3 Generic In-sessional, and 4

Specialised EAP. In the end, a total 82 hours of observation was completed. It is worth noting that these classes were different classes with new students from the classes I observed in the initial data collection. 3 of the teachers were the same teachers while there were also 3 new teachers in focused data collection. A summary of those classes is presented below. Please see Appendix 1b for more details about each class.

Classes	Number of Students & Nationality	Total Observed Hours
Preessional EAP (1 class)	~ 10 students (China, Syria-Germany, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan)	6
Pre-Requisite EAP class (2 classes)	~10 students (Kazakhstan, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Japan)	12
Generic In-Sessional EAP Class (3 classes)	~15 Students (Taiwan, China, Indonesia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Singapore, Mexico, Chile)	24
Specialised EAP Class (4 classes)	~18 students (England, USA, France, Bangladesh, Hungary, Hong Kong)	40
*Attendance changed continuously, thus it was hard to know the exact number of students		
*Even if some of the class types are the same with classes from initial phase, these are new classes with new students. There are 3 new teachers in this period.		

Table 3.4. Class profiles in focused data collection phase

3.4.1.2. Field notes and audio recordings in classroom observations

Field notes are “written records of observational data produced by field workers” (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2002; Jackson, 1990; as cited by Montgomery & Bailey, 2007; p.67). This data collection tool depicts social interactions and their context (Roper & Shapira, 2000; as cited by Montgomery & Bailey, 2007). By doing so, field notes document the observed interaction into written communication (Jackson, 1990; as cited by Montgomery & Bailey, 2007).

Writing down different aspects of a setting allows the researcher to turn the participation into a meaningful “immersion” (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995, p.2). Through this meaningful immersion, the researcher can gain an understanding of “multiple truths” existing in others’ lives (Emerson et al., 1995, p.3). Moreover,

writing down helps the researcher comprehend ‘more subtle, implicit assumptions that are often not readily accessible through observation or interview methods alone’ (*ibid.*).

Emerson et al. (1995) state that fieldworkers need to know when, and where to take field notes since these issues may have significant effects on the relations in the field. In my case, due to ethical considerations, I asked students and teachers for permission to write about events in the classrooms while observing. Moreover, I always kept the option to further question or not to write the issues about which the teachers and students did not feel comfortable. This, in turn, made it easier to write down notes openly since everybody in the classes knew what my purposes were. Sitting in a corner of the class in a way not to interfere with or distract the natural flow of the classes, I took notes on what was happening in the class in the initial data collection. The analysis of these field notes and emerging concepts and categories gave them a focused nature over time as I concentrated on taking notes about teacher-student feedback interactions on EAP writing.

Another important issue that field workers need to consider is how to write field notes. That a fieldworker develops his/her own way to keep the notes (e.g., private systems of symbol and abbreviations or a formal transcribing system) both helps the process of putting the words into a paper and increases confidentiality of the notes (Emerson et al., 1995). In my case, I used abbreviations to take notes when necessary. Yet, since I occasionally could not remember what happened, I preferred to write in full. This helped me remember the scenes better later in the process of writing more organized and full field notes. It also facilitated the times I spent on uploading the notes on my computer since I did not have to try to remember each event.

In addition to the above issues about how to keep field notes, Emerson et al. (1995, p.68) list three strategies to “depict the observed moments through vivid details” while writing field notes: description, dialogue and characterisation. Description and dialogue occurred most frequently in my initial data collection notes. Description strategy requires the writer to depict the “basic scenes, settings, objects, people, and actions through concrete sensory details” (*ibid.*). In my observations, description was limited to explaining the basic scene with regard to number of participants and how they worked (e.g., in pairs and with whom or individual).

As for the dialogue strategy, it indicates showing the conversations in the observed site through “direct quotation, reported speech or paraphrasing” (Emerson et al., 1995, p.74). Dialogue strategy became more important as the study progressed. Since direct quotations were better able to picture the back-and-forth flow of the conversations, I inserted them in my notes frequently either from the recorded data or as a summary of the dialogues. However, there were times when I could not be sure of what I heard or understood. Also, it was not always possible to go closer to each student in the class and to listen to what they were talking to the teacher. Therefore, I paraphrased those conversations as much as I could understand.

These difficulties with hearing or understanding in the first few observations led me to supplement some field notes through audio recordings with the permission of teachers and students. These recordings are noteworthy as they usually provided more tangible, clear and thorough data (Montgomery & Bailey, 2007). Due to my audio recordings, I have some very detailed dialogues between teachers and students in some of the field notes. However, it is worth noting that audio recordings were not a basic source of data in this research. Rather, they were used as a means to support field notes due to several reasons. First, it was not always a welcomed way of data collection in

the classes. In addition to participants' attitudes towards audio-recordings, there were also practicality concerns (e.g., unintelligible data due to background noises, highly-selective nature of recordings, lack of non-verbal behaviour and detailed descriptions of interactions) (Hammersley & Atkinson 2007, p.147). Among these problems, the "highly selective nature of audio-recording in terms of 'determining what talk is and is not recorded'" was significant in deciding to what extent I used audio-recordings. Since I aimed at reaching the account of EAP classroom feedback interactions at a global level, the selective nature of audio-recordings would not provide me with the holistic data I needed. Thus, audio recordings have a limited role in this research.

Organisation of the field notes is also an important decision. Before the observations, I prepared a table with two columns. In the first column, I wrote what happened in each class. The organisation unit I worked with while explaining what happened in each class resembles what Emerson et al. (1995, p.85) call field note tales where the writer pictures the chains of "events as interconnected since they describe the same characters or similar activities". The second column was designed to talk about my own opinions, reflections, commentaries and enquiries. Having this part where I could write about my feelings and reflections led to development of a reflexive account of my fieldwork (Bryman, 2012). At the top of the tables were the sections showing the duration of the observation, which class I observed, and the date of the observation. An example of a field note can be seen below.

<i>Class/Name:Heled</i>		<i>Date: January 23, 2012</i>
<i>Journal#1</i>		
<i>Class Duration:2 hours</i>		
<i>Lesson (steps with some details & What happened)</i>	<i>Commentary</i>	
<i>Class Profile: This is an in-session class for graduate students. There are students from the educational leadership, engineering, applied linguistics and so on... In the first</i>	<i>1] The attendance is not very regular. The most striking point to me about this class was a bit same with the class I observed on 27th January. The students were coming from different disciplines,</i>	

<p><i>class I attended, there were 10 students in the class.</i></p> <p><i>Class Steps:</i></p> <p><i>1] The class started with a brief discussion of what was done the previous week about the peer assessment. Afterwards, the teacher asked students what kinds of features they look at when they are checking their peers' writings. Some of the answers were as follows: general content, academic style, etc</i></p>	<p><i>bringing their own assignments and trying to improve those writings. It is definitely important to learn about learners' satisfaction with that type of support EAP classes. Moreover, it is important to see how they integrate various feedbacks from people who are not in the same department with them into their writing. Also, the writing support class here resembles 'a writing coach' class, which requires an inquiry with..</i></p>
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Table 3.5. Sample field note

One last issue that field workers need to consider is what to write in the field notes.

What I covered in the field notes became more focused over time. In the initial data collection, I wrote about the key events with regard to teaching academic writing, student writings and teacher feedback. This was because I did not know which direction the study would lead. Yet, once the initial data was analysed, I moved to the second stage of GT, where more focused data collection is conducted. Therefore, I covered solely spoken feedback interactions between teachers and students on EAP writing in the focused data collection.

Once a classroom observation was completed and notes on it were taken, the write-up period began. Full field notes were written on my computer since it enabled me to “insert events that I remembered later, correct, and later code and sort field notes” (Emerson et al., 1995, p.41).

To avoid forgetting or simplifying the observations, fieldworkers are recommended to write full field notes immediately after finishing each stage of the fieldwork (Emerson, et al., 1995). In my case, I mostly wrote full field notes as soon as I completed each fieldwork. Yet, there were times when immediate write-up was not possible. Still, I wrote full field notes within one week at the most.

In addition to deciding when to write full field notes, the fieldworker also selects the point of view through which s/he is going to depict her observations (Emerson et al.,

1995). In this regard, Emerson et al. (*ibid.*) lists three points of view: first person, third person and omniscient points of view. In the first-person point of view, the first-person “I” explains what was observed. In the third-person point of view, the fieldworker describes what others do. In the omniscient point of view, “the writer assumes privileged access to the characters’ thoughts and feelings and motives, as well as to their overt speech and action” (Abrams, 1988, p.145; as cited by Emerson et al., 1995, p.58). The extent to which the fieldworker is involved in the fieldwork site determines which perspective to be used in field notes. Therefore, the field notes have the flexibility of shifting between points of views (Emerson et al., 1995). Likewise, I used different points of views in my field notes depending on what I observed, how much I was involved or what I understood. Still I mostly used third-person point of view since it was easier to report in a descriptive way. This was also because an omniscient point of view would not be appropriate for a GT-oriented inquiry as omniscient point of view requires preconceived theories and ideas.

3.4.1.3. Reflections on classroom observations in the data collection

When writing a proposal for a research degree, a clear explanation of the research focus, the research methodology, and research site is expected. When compared with the research focus or methodology, the selection of the research setting may seem the easiest part to decide about to an inexperienced researcher. Yet, this part is actually the vital point that forces the researcher to revise most of the pre-held perceptions, decisions and ideas about the research process. Moreover, that part may affect the whole process of research on its own. I experienced this problem while starting to conduct classroom observations. Therefore, it is necessary to reflect on my experiences during classroom observations.

Making contact: Richards (2003, p.121) indicates two important issues to be taken into account while making contacts. The first one is that making contact is often a neglected issue for researchers. That is, researchers frequently tend to delay thinking about that until they start to collect data. When my supervisor asked me about where I planned to collect data during my application for the programme, I thought that it would be easy to find a place to collect data. Yet, that was never the case. I believe that if I had foreseen the difficulty of making contacts for the research while writing my proposal, I would not feel discouraged when I faced answers that kindly rejected my request to observe various sites. These rejections indicate the second issue that Richards (*ibid.*) raises: “Having personal contacts is what opens the doors”, to which I add ‘...but that is not sufficient always, either’: Institutional and departmental attitude within a site towards research and researchers also determine how a researcher gains access into a site. In my case, I was a new-comer to the UK. Thus, my only contact with the potential research sites was my supervisor. I could reach writing teachers at the target site via her help and guidance. Moreover, although I sometimes had difficulty in reaching people, I also encountered supportive people (directors of EAP programme) who established my contact with EAP teachers. This was how I recognised that the overall institutional attitude toward research studies is a crucial determiner of creating contacts. After creating contacts, the next issue was ‘arranging consent’, which is the second stage of fieldwork.

Arranging consent: This part is where negotiations begin, and the naive researcher begins to understand the importance of choosing the appropriate language. Through an appropriate language, the researcher will be better able to explain to people her/his intentions without being threatening. In my case, once I established contacts, I sent e-mails to EAP teachers. In these e-mails, I introduced myself, and my

research. Then, I asked for an appointment. I tried to be careful with the language I used; however, that was not enough. Even if the language was carefully constructed, I sometimes had to wait for weeks to get a response. That made me question my language in my writing. When I talked about that to my supervisor, she offered to review my e-mails before I sent them to teachers.

When I finally could get a response, it was not always what I wanted. For example, some responses raised the issue of determining the gatekeeper for my entry into the classrooms: The programme directors, the teachers, or the students (Richards, 2003, p.121)? Some teachers pointed at programme directors, programme directors showed the teachers. In the end, even if teachers agreed with my participation, they indicated the students as the real gatekeepers. However, in those cases where it became obvious that the teacher of the class would not be comfortable with my attendance in his/her classroom, I decided that it would not be appropriate to approach to those teachers' students to talk about my research. Still, even though I could not get consent from everyone, the consents I had in the end were enough.

Representing the research: All through the negotiation process, the researcher will be expected to explain his/her research purpose (Richards, 2003). That created problems for me especially in the initial data collection phase, during which I did not know what would be the specific issue I would work on. Therefore, when I was asked, I did not know how to introduce my research. As a solution, I decided to tell only the broad issue I was interested in. During the focused data collection phase, I also experienced this problem. This time I was more specific with what I was searching. Yet, the problem was in deciding “how much to explain and how much not to explain” (Richards, 2003, p.123). Eventually, I decided to tell that I was interested in anything participants have to say about their feedback interactions on EAP writing in the class.

Different standards and needs: Dörnyei (2007) cites from Pica (2005) that the different needs, goals and responsibilities researchers and participants have may result in great challenges for the researcher during classroom research. During classroom observations, what I needed was to collect as much data as I could, so my goal was to participate in as many classes as possible. Yet, teachers sometimes asked me if I could give one-week breaks to my observations as they wanted to be alone with students in some of their classes. Although that would be problematic for me in that I would miss the united picture of the classes, I still respected those requests.

Unexpected events and interruptions: As some of the classes took place in different rooms each week, it was sometimes hard to follow the sessions. In initial data collection phase, there was also one case where I did not know that the class did not take place due to a weekday holiday.

Particularly during focused data collection, unexpected events led me to conduct almost 82 hours of classroom observation over a long period. I started focused data collection in the first term of the academic year. In this term, classes consisted of mostly writing instructions rather than feedback on EAP writing for a long time. Moreover, students did not have any written assignments from their departments to show the EAP teacher until the end of the semester. Furthermore, even though there was a small amount of feedback, the time allotted to it was not fixed and taking place at varying times in a whole session. Therefore, I decided to maintain observations for a few more weeks in Term 2 as well. Yet, various issues (e.g., no attendance, student exams, students' request for other language skills, class cancellations due to weather conditions or teacher's other duties) meant that in the end I observed until Week 6 of Term 2. In total, I observed 82 hours of class.

This problem was closely related with conduct of interviews as well. Since I wished to conduct interviews on the topic of feedback interactions, the questions I had planned would not be meaningful to students if they had not done much work which included interactions around writing. I therefore delayed interviews and continued observing before I began interviews.

3.4.2. Interviews

Interviews are important since they have the flexibility to be used in different ways in any types of research with different research paradigms (Hammersley, 2003; Smith, 1995; as cited by Abell, Locke, Condor, Gibson, & Stevenson, 2006; Bryman, 2012). In this study, I used the interviews as a tool to understand teachers' and learners' ideas about feedback on EAP writing. Before outlining the phases of the interviewing with learners and teachers, it is necessary to provide brief background information about interviews as a research method. Duffy, Ferguson and Watson (2004) list interview types as described in the literature in the following way:

Types of Interview described in the literature	
•	Structured/ Semi-structured/Unstructured
•	Open
•	Focused
•	Formal
•	Informal
•	In-depth
•	Partially structured
•	Informal conversational
•	Open-ended
•	Closed
•	Fixed
•	Standardized

Table 3.6. Types of Interview described in the literature

The interviews I utilized in my study is detailed on the below table:

Research Stage	Interview Type	Features & Advantages	In my study
Initial & Focused Data Collection	Semi-Selective Interviews	<p>Some pre-some pre-prepared questions (interview guide)</p> <p>Open to new directions in the discussion (Dörnyei, 2007; Bryman, 2012)</p> <p>Possible variation in the way questions are asked and answered (Bryman, 2012).</p> <p>Usually same questions to all of the participants with similar wordings but varying sequencing depending on the particular interview context (Dörnyei, 2007; Bryman, 2012)</p> <p>Maintaining focus on topic</p> <p>No restriction on the 'depth and breadth' of the interviews (Dörnyei, 2007).</p>	<p>More focused from initial stages towards the later stage due to GT nature</p> <p>Initial stages:Less focused semi-structured interviews (e.g., broad questions on teacher feedback, academic writing and other classroom related issues to be able to explore issues around feedback practices)</p> <p>Focused phase: concentration on spoken feedback interactions between students and teachers, and participants' experiences with those interactions.</p>

Table 3.7. The interview background information in my research

3.4.2.1. Stages of the interviews

- Preparing for interview:** This stage took place in two steps. First, I prepared guiding questions both for teacher and student interviews. Interviewing with both groups provided a whole account of perceptions about teacher feedback on writing. In initial data collection phase, I conducted one mock interview with one colleague and then asked for feedback on any aspects of interview including issues of asking question, commenting and the way questions were built. The feedback centred on the issues such as how to keep the balance of talk between interviewer and interviewee, and how to clarify the questions in the case of misunderstandings.

- **Setting up the interview:** A voice recorder and a supplementary recording item were utilized to record. In the initial phase, the participants (both teachers and students) from the four classes were invited to participate in an interview. Eventually, 3 teachers out of 4, and 15 students approximately out of 40 accepted to participate. The total number for students in the classes is approximate due to irregular student attendance. Moreover, 2 students were interviewed together upon their request for this. In the focused data collection phase, six teachers of seven classes were invited for an interview. All students in all classes were also asked for an interview. In the end, four teachers participated. As for students, 22 students (5 of them as a group on request) were interviewed. Interview profiles from initial and focused data collection stages are as shown in the following tables.

Initial data collection: (Please see Appendix 2a for more details about student interviews in the initial data collection. For more information about teacher interviews in the initial data collection, Appendix 2b offers further detail as well.)

Classes	Teacher Participants ¹	Student Participants ²	Student Nationalities
Generic Pre-requisite EAP	1 (out of 1)	8	Kazakhstan, Mexico, Saudi Arabia, Turkey.
Generic In-Sessional EAP	1(1 out of 1)	5	Czech Republic, Kazakhstan, Burundi, Indonesia, China
Specialised EAP	1(out of 2)	2	Malaysia

¹In initial and focused data collection phases, a total of 5 teachers were interviewed. 2 of those teachers were interviewed in both phases. 1 teacher was interviewed only once in the initial data collection phase, 2 other teachers were included only in focused data collection, and interviewed only once.

²Students in initial interviews and focused interviews are different.

Table 3.8. Interviewee profile in the initial data collection interviews

Focused data collection: (Please see Appendix 2c for more details about student interviews in the focused data collection. For more information about teacher interviews in the focused data collection, Appendix 2d offers further detail as well.)

Classes	Teacher Participants (7 teachers in total)	Student Participants	Student Nationalities
Generic Pre-requisite EAP	1 (out of 2)	2	Kazakhstan
Generic In-Sessional EAP	1 (out of 2)	2	China, Chile
Specialised EAP	1 (out of 2)	13	France, Poland, Luxemburg, England, Bangladesh, Hungary
Pre-sessional EAP	1(out of 1)	5 (as a group)	Syria-Germany, China, Japan,

Table 3.9. Interviewee profile in the focused data collection interviews

Regarding the table for focused phase interviews, as it is shown on the table, there are 7 teachers in total. However, due to some changes in the programme and one Specialised EAP course's end, one teacher stopped teaching in the Specialised group and began teaching in Generic In-sessional class. Although I could not interview this teacher during his teaching time in the Specialised group, I had the chance to interview him when he started to teach Generic In-sessional EAP. Therefore, my interview with him focused on his feedback in the Generic In-sessional EAP.

To set up interviews, in some groups students were given an interview schedule list where the purpose of the research was explained and students were asked to select the best time for an interview. However, in some other groups, oral permission was asked from students for an interview. The teachers were asked face-to-face for an interview. All the interviews were conducted on campus. The questioning part of the each interview lasted 30-45 minutes. As stated earlier, participants were planned to be interviewed on a one-to one basis. Yet, there were two occasions where the students wanted to be interviewed together during initial and focused data collection phases,

and I accommodated this. The interviews were recorded with the oral permission of the interviewees. As note-taking was distracting for both the interviewee and me, I did not keep notes all the time.

- **Follow-up of enquiries:** The interview transcriptions revealed that a few of the interviewee answers needed further questioning. Therefore, I contacted those students and teachers again. Due to various reasons (e.g., learners' busy schedule), I had to only e-mail learners for follow-up enquiries. In those e-mails, I sent the transcriptions to all learners and asked further questions on some aspects of the interviews to learn more about negotiation of feedback between students and teachers. This also helped learners to communicate their concerns regarding interview data. However, not all student participants replied to my e-mails. As for teachers, I contacted with them to make a new appointment when necessary. Again, due to various issues (e.g., time constraints, fixed term contract), it was not possible to conduct follow up interviews with all teachers.

3.4.2.2. Question types in interviews

Five groups of questions can be used in an interview (Richards, 2003). These are listed as opening questions, checking/reflecting, follow-up, probing and structuring questions. Although it is difficult to set certain types of questions for each interview, I provide a brief sample of my guiding questions for interviews in initial data and focused data collections. For the sample of guiding questions for teacher interviews in the initial data collection, please go to Appendix 3a. For the sample of guiding questions for student interviews in the focused data collection, please go to Appendix 3b.

I utilized four types of questions in the interviews. These are opening, checking (reflecting), follow-up, and probe questions. Opening questions develop a natural

transition to other questions in the interview (Richards, 2003). In my interview, those questions were mostly the ones asking learners to give brief information about themselves and their experiences with academic English.

Checking (reflecting) questions naturally develop during interviews when further clarification is needed (*ibid.*). The questions such as “So you mean.../; isn’t that a bit controlling?” can be listed among the checking/reflecting questions in my interviews. Follow-up questions arise when there is a need for more discussion about an answer the participant gives (*ibid.*). In my case, these questions mostly invited the participant to give more detail in her/his response (e.g., that sounds interesting, can you a bit open it up?). As for probing, these types of questions try to retrieve a fuller account of answers from different perspectives (*ibid.*). In the interviews I conducted, asking learners about their reasons for the answers (e.g., Why do you think your teacher does not correct everything?) may be given as examples of probing.

3.4.2.3. Reflections on interviews

Various issues shaped the effective conduct of interviews during initial and focused data collection phases. Those issues were related with “challenges of interview process in terms of preparing interview, establishing rapport with participants, actively managing interview along the process and transcribing” (Roulston, deMarris & Lewis, 2003, p.648). Regarding these challenges, Roulston et al. (2003) state that being a novice researcher and these challenges are closely related. Therefore, they list the problems of “unanticipated participant behaviours, setting-related problems, interviewer biases and expectations, sustaining focus with questions, questioning sensitive issues and transcription” as the most frequent challenges for a novice researcher (Roulston et al., 2003, p.648). Although the issues I experienced may be

related with being a novice researcher, I believe that these are realities for conducting interviews for most researchers.

To prepare for interviews, Creswell (2007) recommends developing an interview protocol with boundaries around beginning, ending and questions to be asked with space for comments in between. Likewise, Bryman (2012, p.476) states that after the interview, the interviewer should reflect on “how the interview went, where the interview took place, feelings about interview”. Combining these two recommendations, I also developed interview guideline before beginning. Before initiating real interviews, I conducted a mock (pilot) interview with one colleague in the initial data collection stage. The feedback from the colleague helped me better understand how I keep the balance of talk, and how I clarify the questions in the case of misunderstandings. Moreover, after interviews, I tried to reflect on the process and see how I could improve interviews altogether. In this, particularly the two-staged structure of data collection helped me revise and improve how I asked questions, approached participants and made necessary arrangements.

The second issue, establishing rapport with participants, was also a significant issue as it influences the adequacy and quality of data gathered through interviews (Creswell, 2007). In the literature, interviewee-related issues and interviewer-related issues are listed as two interwoven aspects of rapport (Creswell, 2007; Roulston et al., 2003; Miller & Glassner, 2004).

Regarding the interviewee aspect of establishing rapport, Creswell (2003) underlines that less hesitant and shy interviewees are necessary for an adequate amount of data. Focusing on the hesitancy of participants, Miller and Glassner (2004, p.131) indicate that interviewees may be hesitant to share information since they need to know whether “what they have to say matters”. They further add that confidentiality issues

and power-related social distances may also lead to lack of rapport with interviewees (Miller & Glassner, 2004). To establish rapport with participants and help them feel comfortable and competent enough, “showing genuine interest in what they say, assuring confidentiality, avoiding judgements, showing an active interest in assuring participant’s privacy (e.g., stopping interview when other people are around)” are recommended strategies (Miller & Glassner, 2004, p.134).

In my study, the establishment of rapport and trust was also a significant issue from the interviewee aspect. For example, some student participants attended the interviews with the fear of their English being evaluated, and this affected their responses in turn. For instance, some interviewees from specialised EAP class wanted to attend the interview session together since they were not comfortable with their English. Thus, I had to continuously assure that my focus was not their English but their responses. Another participant (who was also doing research) repeatedly asked how I would use the data, and how I would secure the confidentiality. By providing both written and oral information about the research and assuring that they may withdraw any time without having any problems, I attempted to relieve participants’ concerns. There were also participants who apologized for not being able to give in-depth answers. Although sometimes it was true, I tried to assure learners that each word mattered for me. I also tried to show this through praising their answers and asking for further details. Finally, I offered small gifts like chocolates, tea or coffee to create rapport. However, several students did not accept these gifts due to various reasons (e.g., not being able to give in-depth answers, not being a child who needs to be ‘bribed’ to help, participating interview as a friendly gesture, regarding what they did as not significant enough to deserve gifts).

As for interviewer related aspects of establishing rapport, being a novice researcher with a hesitant character to approach people for an interview turned rapport establishment into a challenging task for me. Moreover, that my hesitancy to approach people was combined with participant 'shyness' or, as explained by Roulston et al. (2003, p.648), "unexpected participant behaviours" (e.g., being too late for interview or not attending without prior notice) sometimes led me to feel discouraged about interviews.

Of equal significance to the efficiency and adequacy of interview data was active management of interviews along the whole process. This issue was closely related with how the roles of being an interviewer and interviewee were perceived in interview, how the dialogue with participants was managed, and how the decision about numbers of participants was made.

How the roles of being an interviewee and interviewer are perceived is associated with the research paradigm of the study. Holstein and Gubrium (2004, p.141) explain that traditional attitudes have treated interviews "as a pipeline for transporting knowledge". In these approaches, participants are viewed as passive, and the interviewer merely needs to follow standardized methodologies to reach knowledge (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). However, constructivist paradigms treat interviews as a ground where reality is continuously built (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). In these approaches, both interviewer and interviewee actively generate meaning by working through the demands and constraints of the occasion (*ibid.*). More specifically, the interviewer may assume the role of provoking and "conversing with respondents in such a way that alternate possibilities and considerations come into play" (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004, p.151). S/he does not merely attempt to reach preferred answers to

designed questions. Simultaneously, the interviewee both offers answers to the issue at hand, and devises her/his identity in relation to the interviewer (*ibid.*).

Closely related with the above detailed considerations, I paid attention to assure that interviewees were as active as I was during the interviews. In this regard, I tried to ensure that I followed what was important to interviewees at any given time. An example of this emerged about the answers of participants. As Richards (2003) explains, what is important for the researcher might not necessarily be important for the interviewee. For example, during initial interviews, although I looked for issues related to teacher feedback, some learners wanted to talk about the distinction between IELTS writing and general academic writing. Still, since this was the issue the learner wanted to talk about, I was willing to engage with this topic, and to later examine the interview to see possible links with issues of feedback.

The continuous reflections on interviews also helped me notice that managing interviews in terms of asking questions was a vital element of collecting interview data with quality. For example, in some interviews, I realized that some questions were too complex, technical, leading or difficult for participants. Complex and technical questions created a negative reaction towards the question. In one interview, one of the participants repeatedly asked me to clarify the question ‘*How long have you been studying academic English?*’ because she could not understand what I referred to by ‘academic English’. Moreover, questions with a Yes/No answer, which was what I was moving towards when I had difficulty in establishing rapport, was leading particularly student participants to surmise what I wanted to hear. Therefore, I changed my way of asking into a more subtle and implicit way over time (e.g., Instead of asking ‘Does [talking to your teacher about your writing] work efficiently for you?’, ‘Tell me about your talks with your teacher on your writing? Anything that comes to your

mind’). In this way, I could attend to participants’ stories more carefully and see where they wanted to go.

During the interview process, the number of whole interviews with each student was another difficult issue. To be able to see the overall writing process and attitudes of students at different phases of the semester, making a three-phase interview would be an ideal approach: One interview at the beginning of the semester, one interview in the middle and one in the end. However, it was inconvenient in terms of student availability and time issues. Thus, I made one interview and one follow-up enquiry via e-mail. Still, at the end of initial data collection phase, e-mail enquiries did not provide enough insight, and I planned to conduct two face-to-face interviews in the focused data collection. Yet, again due to participants’ time issues, I had to conduct one interview and one follow-up enquiry.

Additionally, the number of students became a concern in setting the interview schedule with learners. Since there was a large number of students, setting the dates for each student was difficult. Also, in the initial data collection phase, conducting the interviews with short intervals affected the way I evaluated each interview. Therefore, I planned to start the interviews as early as possible in the focused data collection to prevent those problems. However, this was also not possible. This was because the actual writing and feedback interactions started to emerge towards the end of semester. Therefore, as previously mentioned, I had to wait until appropriate circumstances emerged instead of starting interviews immediately.

Bryman (2012) states that transcribing is a significant part of qualitative research since the way participants respond to questions is as important as what they say. It was also paramount importance to me while transcribing interviews. Therefore, I took the precautions to facilitate the transcribing process by using a voice recorder specially

designed for this purpose. Since I started using the voice recorder towards the end of the initial data collection, I had the chance to see how a voice recorder added to a potentially time consuming process of research.

3.5. Sampling

Qualitative research focuses on gathering data that could provide an insightful understanding of the issue at hand (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, sampling decisions centre around *purposive sampling*, which is the collection of data sources with a relation to the issue being studied (Creswell, 2007; Bryman, 2012). In this type of sampling, researcher strategically seeks to reach cases and participants to be able to answer questions around the issue (Creswell, 2007; Bryman, 2012).

Bryman (2012) lists two aspects of sampling, which are forms and layers. In terms of forms of purposive sampling, theoretical, typical case, deviant case, maximum variation, convenience, homogeneous and snowball sampling strategies are some of the exemplified forms (Creswell, 2007; Bryman, 2012). As for layers of purposive sampling, sampling of contexts/cases and sampling of participants are listed (Bryman, 2012). In this study, convenience and theoretical sampling forms were used in both case and participant layers. However, the period of the study emerged as another determinant of the sampling strategy to be used due to the inquiry tradition GT. Therefore, I will detail the sampling strategies of this study from three aspects beginning from period and forms, and then moving to layers.

As I explained previously, the study is constituted of initial and focused data collection phases. Thus, in the initial data collection phase a convenience sampling form was utilized. In *convenience sampling*, case and participant selection decisions depend on the accessibility (Dörnyei, 2007; Morse, 2011). Regarding this sampling form, some scholars contend that whereas convenience sampling might provide the researcher

with “willing participants to offer rich data”, this self-selection may still deteriorate the credibility (Dörnyei, 2007, p.129, Creswell, 2007, p.127). Yet, convenience sampling was rather necessary for my research for two reasons: Firstly, In GT, researcher is recommended to allow the emergence of “relevant data and analytic directions” without forcing (Charmaz, 2000, p.520). In this regard, convenience sampling provided the flexibility to see possible analytic directions of the study. Secondly, it was not always possible to reach all students, teachers for an interview or to access classes due to various constraints (e.g., timing). Therefore, I had to depend on merely the accessible data providers specifically during the initial stage.

Due to the above explained reasons, convenience sampling strategy was used in both layers of the initial data collection: Selection of classes to be observed and participants to be interviewed. For the classes, I contacted teachers of Specialised, Generic In-session, and Pre-requisite EAP writing classes. Since Pre-session EAP classes were not offered during term time, I did not include these classes in the sampling at this stage. After initial contacts, I began observing the classes whose teachers permitted me to attend their classes for research purposes.

The interviews of initial data collection stage were also conducted on a convenience sampling basis. I invited all students and teachers in all four classes I observed during this phase. However, various reasons (e.g., time constraints, refusing to participate) led me to interview only those who were available for interview. As stated earlier, 3 teachers out of 4 accepted interview invitation. As for students, 15 students agreed to be interviewed.

In the second stage of the study, which was focused data collection, the sampling decisions were taken on a *theoretical sampling* basis. Glaser (1978, p.36) defines theoretical sampling as “the data collection which is controlled by the emerging

theory”. Theoretical sampling revolves around selection of participants with particular experiences and of classes with particular features depending on the emerging theory (Morse, 2011; Bryman, 2012). The sampling aims at sharpening the emerging categories of theory through constant comparison (Charmaz, 2000). This form of sampling continues until theoretical saturation, which means that gathering new data does not add new insights relating to the theory (Charmaz, 2006).

Since relationship patterns in spoken feedback interactions on EAP writing and possible influences and consequences of these patterns were what emerged through the analysis of initially collected data, I began selecting classes that included teacher-student spoken feedback interactions on academic writing. I contacted all teachers of Specialised, Pre-sessional, Pre-requisite and Generic In-sessional EAP classes. Following this, I observed the classes whose teachers allowed me to observe. My basic goal was to understand different dimensions of the emerging categories within the relationship patterns in spoken feedback interactions on EAP writing.

As for interview layer of focused data collection, I chose students who had experiences of spoken feedback with their teachers through either their assignments or in-class writing exercises. Moreover, I chose to interview teachers who talked to students about students’ assignments or in-class writing exercises. The interview discussions focused on the emerging theory’s categories, yet were still open to see if there were any gaps in it.

Regarding the two forms of sampling mentioned above, it is worth noting that a tension between convenience sampling and theoretical sampling has always existed. This is because even if the data providers were selected according to some criteria during the focused data collection phase, accessibility issues still existed. For example, some teachers asked me to observe their classes only in the certain weeks. Moreover, some

teachers and students could not participate in interviews due to various concerns even though they had experiences with feedback interactions.

3.6. Evaluating Qualitative Research

In this study, since I utilized grounded theory inquiry traditions, I decided to utilize specific evaluative criteria developed by grounded theory scholars Charmaz (2006) and Glaser (1978) in addition to the broader criteria offered by Lincoln and Guba (1985) to evaluate qualitative research. In this way, I was better able to display an integrated approach to evaluate the data collection, analysis and findings while also addressing to the requirements of the specific inquiry tradition (GT) and qualitative research at a broader level.

The criteria offered by Charmaz are credibility, resonance, originality and usefulness while Glaser (1978) offers fit, work, relevance and modifiability. As for Lincoln and Guba (1985), they offered the criteria of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. My main criteria guidelines were by Charmaz (2006). However, the criteria by Charmaz (2006), Glaser (1978), and Lincoln and Guba (1985) are mutually inclusive at many levels while also having a few differences. Thus, after I detail the guidelines by Charmaz, I drew upon Glaser (1978) and Lincoln and Guba (1985) to see how their criteria complemented the guidelines of Charmaz. I detail these criteria below. For the discussion of how I addressed these criteria in my research, please see Chapter 8, Section 8.2.

3.6.1. Credibility

Credibility is “the extent to which the findings are plausible and worthy of confidence” (Henderson, 2009, p.128). Bryman (2012) defines *credibility* as the feasibility of the findings of a qualitative study. In this sense, credibility is about the entire research

process: “data collected, analysis, evidence to support claims and the breadth of the data” (Henderson, 2009, p.128).

Below questions to meet credibility requirements were utilized (questions taken directly from Charmaz, 2006, p.182):

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Has the research achieved intimate familiarity with the setting or topic?• Are the data gathered sufficient to merit the claims: the range, number, and depth of observations, (and interviews) contained in the data?• Are there strong logical links between the gathered data and the argument, and analysis?• Has the research provided enough evidence for the claims to allow the reader to form an independent assessment-and agree with your claims? |
|---|

Table 3. 10. Guiding questions to achieve credibility

Lincoln and Guba (1985) also list the strategies of prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, peer debriefing, referential checks, negative case analysis and member checks to meet credibility requirements. Among these criteria, I utilized prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, and member checks. Prolonged engagement is described as “spending sufficient time in field to learn the culture, test for misinformation provided by the distortions either of the self or the respondents, and building trust” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.301). Persistent observation, as Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.304) state, gives the chance to understand the “characteristics and elements in the situation that are most relevant to the problem or issue being pursued”. Moreover, it provides depth (*ibid.*). Triangulation is defined as the collaboration between various sources of data, investigations, theories, or research methods to be able to reach multiple perspectives on the issue being studied (Dörnyei, 2007; Bryman, 2012; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Finally, member checking is defined as “quality control process by which a researcher seeks to improve the accuracy, credibility and validity of what has been recorded during a research interview” (Harper & Cole, 2012, p.511). Member checking is also known as

respondent validation or participant verification (Barbour, 2001; Morse, Barret, Mayan, Olson & Spiers, 2002; Carlson, 2010).

It is worth noting that Lincoln and Guba (1985) underline that achieving credibility would lead to dependability as well. Dependability is defined as “seeking means for taking into account both factors of instability and factors of phenomenal or design induced change” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.299). Even though, Lincoln and Guba (1985) see credibility leading to dependability, to be more concrete with their strategies to achieve dependability, they recommend separate strategies: Using auditing approach, overlap methods, and stepwise replication. In my study, I still followed Lincoln and Guba’s arguments (1985) on credibility and dependability as establishing each other. Thus, I assume that the activities conducted for credibility also supported dependability.

How I addressed these questions and utilized strategies in my study have been discussed in detail in Chapter 8 (Section 8.2.1).

3.6.2. Originality

Charmaz (2006, p.182) lists four criteria to assess originality, which are freshness of the new insights in emerging categories and themes, existence of new conceptual renderings, social and theoretical significance of the work, and the perspectives from which the study “challenges, extends, or refines current ideas, concepts and practices”.

The authenticity concept of Guba and Lincoln (1994) is also worth considering as it has overlapping references for the genuineness and the independent construction of the data analysis and its evaluation in relation to literature. Guba and Lincoln (1994) describe it as “showing a range of different realities (i.e., fairness), with depictions of their associated concerns, issues and underlying values” (Seale, 2002, pp.105-106; Tobin & Begley, 2004, p.392). Furthermore, Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.114) group

authenticity as “ontological authenticity (i.e., enlarging personal constructions, helping participants develop more sophisticated understandings about the issue being studied), educative authenticity (i.e., leading to improved understanding of constructions of others, helping members to appreciate various viewpoints of others), catalytic authenticity (i.e., stimulating to action), and tactical authenticity (i.e., empowering members to act)” (Seale, 2002, pp.105-106).

In my study, drawing on both the originality concept of Charmaz (2006) and authenticity concept of Guba and Lincoln (1994), I followed the below questions, which were offered by Charmaz (2006, p.182):

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are your categories (themes) fresh? Do they offer new insights? • Does your analysis provide a new conceptual rendering of the data? • What is the social and theoretical significance of this work? • How does your grounded theory challenge, extend or refine current ideas, concepts and practices? |
|--|

Table 3.11. Guiding questions to achieve originality

How I addressed these questions in my study has been discussed in detail in Chapter 8- (Section 8.2.2).

3.6.3. Resonance

Resonance indicates the “influences, impacts the findings create on particular readers or a variety of audiences” (Tracy, 2010, p.840). Charmaz (2006, p.182) lists below questions to achieve resonance:

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do the categories portray the fullness of the studied experience? • Have you revealed ‘...taken for granted meanings’? • Have you drawn links between larger collectivities or institutions and individual lives, when the data so indicate? • Does your analysis offer them deeper insights about their lives and worlds? |
|---|

Table 3.12. Guiding questions to achieve resonance

Concepts of relevance and work which were indicated by Glaser (1978) are largely very similar to the criteria of resonance by Charmaz.

How my study fulfils these criteria has been discussed in detail in Chapter 8- (Section 8.2.3).

3.6.4. Usefulness

On a chronological line, Glaser (1978, p.5) introduces the term modifiability and emphasises that “doctrinism is avoided” while “tractability of grounded theory over social life is maintained”. Similarly but for qualitative research in general, Lincoln and Guba (1985) underscore the ‘transferability’ to describe the extent to which the findings in a study can be applicable to other contexts. Finally, Charmaz (2006, p.183) uses the term usefulness, and defines that a useful study has a “contribution and relevance to existing knowledge in the substantive area of knowledge” (Henderson, 2009, p.131). She also includes usefulness for people’s everyday lives in her definition (*ibid.*).

Following the criteria described by the above-mentioned three scholars, I aimed at answering the below questions to satisfy usefulness, modifiability and transferability requirements. These questions are offered by Charmaz (2006):

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Does the analysis offer interpretations that people can use in their everyday worlds?• Do the analytical themes and categories offer ‘any generic processes’? Have these ‘generic processes’ been examined for tacit implications?• What is the contribution of the study to the existing knowledge?• How does the analysis reveal future directions for research? |
|---|

Table 3.13. Guiding questions to achieve usefulness

How I addressed these issues in my study is discussed in Chapter 8, Section 8.3.4.

Having now completed a summary of the issue of evaluating qualitative research, I will turn to ethical issues in my research.

3.7. Ethical Issues

While conducting research, protecting the participants from any possible harm and showing respect to their rights are important issues that the researcher needs to take into account (Dörnyei, 2007). This research was conscious of those issues.

Reading the ethical clearances guide of my institution and checking some previously submitted sample ethical clearance forms, I submitted an ethical clearance proposal to ethics committee. In the ethical clearance document (Appendix-4), following issues are mentioned:

Privacy, confidentiality, anonymity, and data storage: Dörnyei (2007) warns that it is always better to promise an achievable level of confidentiality to the research participants. He also states that the researcher has to respect the rights of the participants in terms of their wish to participate or withdraw from the research at any time (*ibid.*). These issues were guaranteed through ethical forms. In the ethical form, I stated that the names of the students are to be kept anonymous. Also, it was explained that this would be achieved by giving pseudonyms to learners. While giving pseudonyms to participants, the genders, nationalities were observed as these might have affected how the data was interpreted. Another strategy to assure privacy, confidentiality and anonymity was to prevent disclosure of the information provided by participants to third parties. If any information regarding the data and personal information were to be revealed to other people, this would be possible only with the participant's written consent. These issues were also guaranteed through the information sheet that is provided to participants (see next point of issue for more information). Another issue that Dörnyei (*ibid.*) draws attention to is that the data storage may be a threat to the confidentiality. As I mentioned in my ethical clearance document, the data would be kept securely on the personal computer pass-worded and

on H: drive on the common computers in the research rooms. If needed, the data would also be kept in securely locked cabinets. Allotted time for data storage is 6 years, after which the data will immediately be destroyed.

Informed consent and the issue of deception: Dörnyei (2007) explains that the informed consent is one of the most controversial issues among research ethics. One reason for that is that there is not a grounded base for the extent of information to be provided to participants through informed consent (*ibid.*). It is indeed a situation where the risks of invalidating the research by providing too much information or causing participant bias by providing too little information or deceiving have to be watched (Dörnyei, 2007). With regard to deceiving, this research did not withhold any information from participants in any stages. To provide participants with sufficient amount of data, necessary precautions were also taken following the suggestions by Dörnyei (2007) about the preparation of informed consent sheet.

One of the suggestions is that the task participants are expected to perform, the aim of the research, and how the data is to be used need to be explained very clearly to the participants (*ibid.*). Another suggestion is to inform the participants on the extent the confidentiality of the data. One last suggestion is that the right to withdraw from the research is guaranteed to the participants (*ibid.*).

In the information sheet (Appendix-5) I used in this study, it is stated that the purpose of the study is to investigate the teacher feedback on student writing in EAP classes. Participants are also told that the findings of the study will contribute to the understanding and development of EAP writing provision. As for informing about the task, participants are requested to join an interview about their teacher feedback experiences in EAP classes.

In the information sheet, participants are also told that all data obtained from them would be confidential to the researcher and be used solely for research purposes. Furthermore, it is assured that in any research report, publication or feedback to academic departments and the University, information would be provided in such a way that no participant could be identified by name or university ID.

As for informing participants about their rights, it is stated that their decision on whether or not to participate would not deteriorate their future relations with the university. If they decide to withdraw, they are free to withdraw their consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice. Participants are also encouraged to contact with the investigator through her e-mail address.

Relationship: While conducting research, it is important to develop rapport with the participants to be able to retrieve rich data from the participants. Yet, establishing rapport also leads to questions about how to complete the research without causing any uncomfortable feelings on the participants like (Dörnyei, 2007). In the study, I followed some strategies to establish rapport with the learners. Going to the classes earlier than the teachers so that I could have the chance to talk to learners informally was one of those strategies. The small number of the classes also helped me create that rapport. As for teachers, I had the chance to talk to them once the classes were over, which helped both me and them to learn about each other. During students' and teachers' participation in the research, I also attempted to make sure that they benefited from taking part in the research by offering them small gifts like chocolate. Once both data collection phases were completed, I added the participants on my Facebook account to keep in contact with them even after the research.

3.8. Summary

This chapter gave a detailed account of the research design of this study. I first explicated the research paradigm. Secondly, methods of inquiry, qualitative case study and grounded theory, which shaped this study, were detailed. In the third section, I outlined the research design. Following this section, I explained which research tools were used and how they were designed. In the same section, I provided a reflective account of various aspects of research tools I utilized. In the fifth section, sampling strategies and their uses in various phases of the study were clarified. Sixth part comprised the issue of trustworthiness and the specific strategies I used to achieve it. Finally, I elucidated how the research attempted to satisfy the ethical clearance requirements. The next chapter depicts the principles of analytical approach, computer assisted qualitative data analysis software use, and findings from the data analysis of initial data collection.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS of the INITIAL DATA: PROCEDURES & FINDINGS

This section comprises five main sections. First, I describe the analytic tradition I followed during data analysis, which is Grounded Theory (GT). I reveal why I selected this particular tradition while simultaneously detailing its nature and the procedures. The second section gives information about the data analysis tools, (i.e., manual and software). In the third part, I detail the analysis procedure of the initial data collection and its stages. The fourth section explains the findings that emerged from the initial analysis. Finally, I give a summary of the chapter.

4.1. Methodology of Analysis: Grounded Theory

The methodology of analysis in this stage follows GT. The basic reason for using GT is that it develops theories from data in a systematic way instead of importing previously existing and testable hypotheses. Moreover, the data that was initially collected required open-minded and multi-dimensional analysis. Although these features may be found in other methodologies as well, I believe that the features of GT were more meaningful and clearly defined to me in terms of the needs of the data analysis. An additional reason to utilize GT is that the data collection took place over a long period. In that sense, GT helped me systematize the way I approached the analysis and collection of the data in different stages. A final reason is that GT urged me to be in constant negotiation with the data during analysis due to its feature of constant comparison.

In this research, I do not approach the different schools of GT as distinct GT traditions among which I could select one method. Rather, I tried to select which GT school

would offer the most convenient and useful tools in terms of addressing my analysis and data collection needs. In Chapter #3, a detailed background was provided about the principles of GT, schools of GT, and some critiques on it. The actual analysis stages in GT are presented in this chapter in Section 4.3.

4.2. Analysis Tools

Qualitative research studies may generate a huge amount of data to be analysed (Baugh, Hallcom & Harris, 2010; Barry, 1998). The researchers, therefore, face three basic options when they are ready to analyse the data they have (Baugh et al., 2010). These options are manual analysis, computer-aided qualitative data analysis, and a mixed approach which uses both manual analysis and computer-aided qualitative data analysis software (Baugh et al., 2010). In this research, although computer-aided qualitative data analysis software was the basic and more frequent means of analysis, manual data analysis was also utilized.

Computer-Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) refers to the use of computer software in a qualitative analysis process. There are a variety of CAQDAS packages, some of which are NVIVO, Atlas.ti, MAXqda, Qualrus, QDA Miner, and HyperRESEARCH (Dörnyei, 2007). Choosing an appropriate analysis software tool among those options is an important decision once a researcher decides to use CAQDAS. The software package that I used in this research is NVIVO (QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 10, 2012). I chose this software package because of the accessibility and support available on-campus for it.

Dörnyei (2007) and Baugh et al. (2010) explain that CAQDAS offers the opportunity to revise the whole data repeatedly in less time compared to manual analysis. Likewise, I utilized NVIVO (QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 10, 2012) when the amount of codes increased to the extent that making manual comparisons among them

became more challenging and increased the potential for error. CAQDAS allowed handling a large amount of data in an organised way (Bringer, Johnston & Brackenridge, 2004). Likewise, CAQDAS provided quicker access to different aspects of data when needed.

Additionally, certain processes were smoother in CAQDAS, such as the process of relating codes to each other in order to generate concepts, and the process of relating concepts to each other to generate categories. This was because the relationships between concepts and categories were more visible.

Bringer, Johnston and Brackenridge (2006) explain that GT encourages researchers to move back and forth between open coding, selective coding, theoretical coding, writing memos, and modelling. Throughout my analysis, CAQDAS gave me the opportunity to simultaneously represent many layers and perspectives within the GT-guided analysis. More specifically, CAQDAS was useful for moving quickly through different stages of data analysis, thus facilitating the iterative procedure of GT.

Even though CAQDAS provides numerous advantages, it still carries some drawbacks. One drawback is that CAQDAS might result in de-contextualized coding (Dörnyei, 2007). Too much focus on coding may lead to losing its connection with the meaning of these elements within their original contexts (*ibid.*). I believe that utilizing manual coding early on, together with the required elements of GT (i.e., constant comparison method and memoing), diminished the influence of this drawback as much as possible.

As for manual coding, it was utilized more in the earlier stages of analysis when I simply read the textual data to familiarize myself with it. Towards the end of this process, I mostly took notes on the data to return to later. Another usage of manual coding was for creating Microsoft Word tables, inserting incidents within each data

set into those and then printing them to conduct the analysis at the earliest stages of open coding.

One advantage in working in this way was that manual coding allowed a better grasp of the content in the earlier stages and led to a more comprehensive familiarization with the data. As Seidman (1998; as cited by Dörnyei, 2007) states, there are important differences between what can be seen on paper and on the screen. Therefore, users are instructed to conduct the analysis on paper before starting on-screen analysis (Seidman, 1998; as cited by Dörnyei, 2007).

Using both CAQDAS and manual coding simultaneously also led to some problems despite the various advantages I explained. One problem was the necessity to analyse the data on the paper first and transfer the work onto computer later, which was not very effective in terms of time.

4.3. Analysing the Data: Stages of Analysis

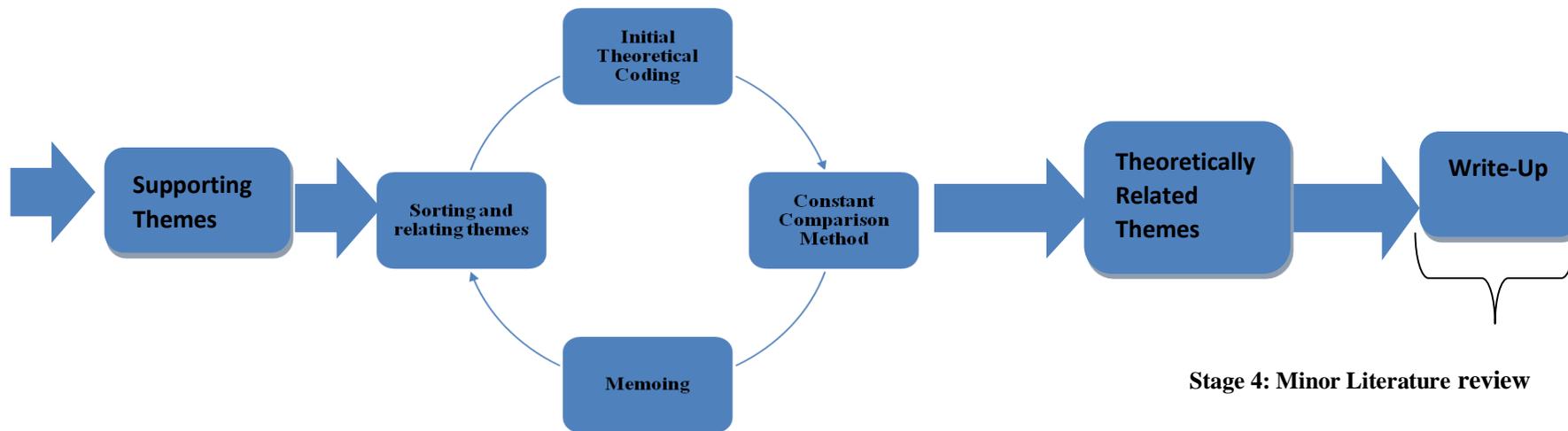
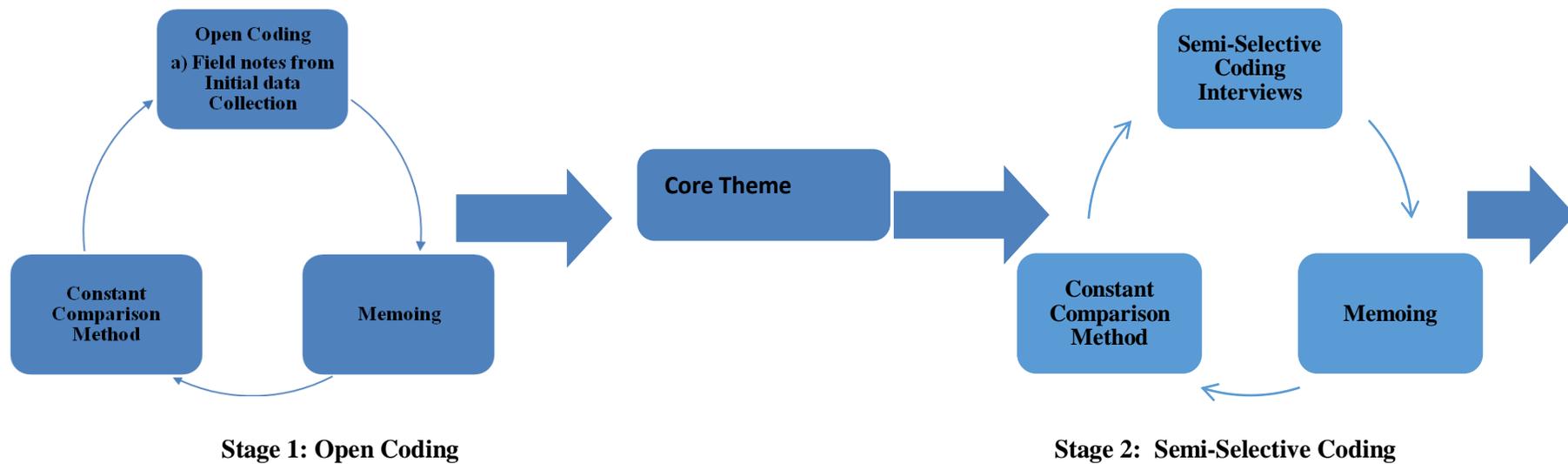
During the analysis process, I followed basic principles of GT. The basic stages of data analysis in GT are open coding, selective coding and theoretical coding (Glaser, 1978). It is important to note that even though these are stages of GT, they are still not strictly separated from each other (Glaser, 1978). That is, while open coding takes place, selective coding and theoretical coding may occur simultaneously. Glaser (1978) explains that one way to distinguish between the stages is the intensive focus on one stage compared to the others. The researcher conducts more open coding in the open coding stage than selective coding even if some selective coding may be taking place.

In each data analysis stage, I used different data sets, including interviews and field notes. Thus, it is important to show which data set was used in each stage before detailing the analysis procedure. After showing the data sets utilized in each analysis

stage, the stages of the open coding, as they were followed in this phase of the research, are shown.

Stage of Coding of Initial Data	Type of Data
Open Coding	Central Data Set: Classroom Observations (field notes) from Initial Data Collection
Semi-Selective Coding	Supporting Data Set: Interviews from Initial Data Collection
Initial Theoretical Coding	Existing analysed interviews and field notes

Table 4.1. Types of data to be used in each stage of coding



Stage 3: Initial Theoretical Coding

Figure 4.1. The stages of open coding

In the subsections which follow, I will take the reader through my stages of analysis and provide examples of how labels were generated at each stage. I will not, however, give a full explanation of all labels during this discussion. This will be elaborated on in Section 4.4.

4.3.1. Open coding: Analysis of Field Notes

Once the researcher begins collecting data, open coding process also starts in GT (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). Glaser (1978, p.46) states that open coding aims at exploring the data “in all directions which seem relevant”. In this process, the researcher continuously compares (i.e., constant comparison) the data with new data and takes notes (i.e., memoing) to be able to find the ‘core variables’ (Charmaz, 2006, p.47; Glaser, 1978, p.46). Thus, this process requires the researcher to brainstorm in order to reveal all possible meanings and potentials hidden in the data (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). This process of revealing the possible meanings and potentials in the data will eventually allow the researcher to develop conceptual labels (concepts), categories, and finally themes (*ibid.*). I will describe concepts, categories, and themes below.

Concepts are interpretive words that group the ideas within data (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). Categories are “higher in level and more abstract than the concept they represent” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p.7). Categories are generated by comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences of lower level concepts (*ibid.*). They function as a basic guide through which theoretical themes are generated. The aim of open coding of the analysis is to generate the concepts first, and then the categories. After these categories are generated, overarching themes for the categories with similar ideas are generated.

It is important to emphasise that there are no specific research questions in this stage, but a general area of interest (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). Therefore, this stage is ‘open’ as the researcher does not know in which direction the data will evolve (*ibid.*).

The open coding stage in my study was implemented in two stages: familiarization with the data and actual analysis of the field notes. In the familiarization step, Strauss and Corbin (2008) recommend that researchers solely read the initial data before beginning the analysis. This read-only process does not contain any note taking, writing in the margins or underlining (*ibid.*). Conduct of read-only provides researchers with the chance of understanding the ‘life in the data’ (*ibid.*). Following this recommendation, I read the classroom observation data that was to be used in the open coding stage. However, towards the ends of this process, I started taking notes on the data to begin to facilitate the later stages. This stage further enabled the process of developing concepts, as it helped me see the relationship between various issues more closely.

After the familiarization step, I started the actual analysis phase. I will show this phase in detail hereafter. Field notes were utilized as the central data source in this research. At the start of open coding, I focused on the notes from one EAP class. While analysing the field notes, I used an incident-to-incident coding approach. Charmaz (2006, p.53) lists three types of coding, which are: line-by-line, word-by-word and incident-to-incident coding, and explains that the type of coding to be used is determined by “the type of the data, its abstraction level, stage of research process, and research purposes”. The field notes I had were written by me during classroom observations and included chains of events. Thus, I used incident-to-incident coding while analysing these field notes. I defined an incident as ‘something dependent on or subordinate to something else of greater or principal importance’. More specifically,

incidents are the indicators or definers of what happens in a single unit of analysis taken from a larger data item. The procedure of abstraction in my open coding within field notes can be summarized below; I used Hoda (2011, p.51) as a reference for this process:

Raw Data ➔ Incidents (codes) ➔ Concepts ➔ Categories ➔ Themes

Strauss and Corbin (2008) explain that computers may be used in the coding process. In this research, the analysis of the field notes in the open coding stage was first done manually. I created Microsoft Word tables, inserted incidents within each data set into those, and then printed them for initial coding. At the end of initial coding, I transferred those tables to the computer to be able to conduct a more thorough comparison among concepts and categories.

4.3.1.1. From Incidents to Concepts

To explain the development of concepts in my open coding stage, I will now present one example. The example is taken from Generic In-sessional EAP field notes.

Data	Incident	Concept
The class started with a brief discussion of what was done the previous week about the peer assessment.	Reminding learners of content of peer assessment	Reviewing peer assessment
Afterwards, the teacher asked students what kinds of features they look at when they are checking their peers' writings.	Urging learners to imagine themselves within actual peer assessment	Active imagination
Some of the answers were as follows: general content, academic style, etc...	Getting answers from students about what to look at in peer assessment as whole class discussion	Brainstorming
using the answers from students, the teacher made a brainstorming chart on the board	Facilitating the remembering content of peer assessment	Visualisation
The chart included parts as content [answering the question and keeping the topic in the introduction, body and conclusion parts, having a topic sentence), font, style, heading, sub-heading, consistency, key features of academic style such as voice,	Dividing the content of peer assessment into groups to facilitate remembering	Categorization

avoidance from contractions, avoidance from pronouns, phrasal verbs, slang, 'baby linking' words		
More discussion included the talk about references: Consistency, actual referencing and in-text citation; using the correct referencing for the correct source.*Organization of referencing, alphabetical order of referencing, indenting to distinguishing the name and surname of the authors.	Getting more answers from learners	Brainstorming
After finishing the discussion, the teacher distributed the checklist she prepared for checking the writing.	Providing guidelines for peer assessment	Checklist Provision
The checklist included titles as general conventions, referencing, answering the questions, structure and organization, paragraph structure, style and accuracy.	Content of the guidelines for peer assessment	Checklist Provision
Students checking the list together with their peers discussed what other aspects needed to be included in the list [if any].	Urging learners improve the guidelines	Brainstorming
Checking how the students were doing during the discussion, the teacher brought any question students had to the class discussion.	Receiving additional questions from learners to discuss as whole class	Question-Answer session
After the discussion, the teacher asked learners to work in pairs with their checklist on a piece of writing (an assignment, or any other writing they want to check), and improve the points that needs some work.:	Initiating hands-on peer assessment work	Conducting Hands-on Activity
Meanwhile, the teacher gave feedback to pairs. The feedback session was as follows	Starting in-class feedback	
Miriam mentioned her concern with writing a topic sentence for her paper.	L Initiated Feedback/ Mentioning Concern	L Initiation
The teacher answered that this might be caused by the weakness of the supporting sentences;	T Problem Indication	T Warning
thus, she suggested her to reorganize the ideas.	T Focus Reasons/ Suggestions	T Suggestion
Miriam also mentioned her concern with paraphrasing in her writing.	L Mentioning Concern	L Initiation
The teacher explained that when copying directly from a source,	T Informing about Convention	T Induction

everything had to be kept even the punctuations..		
Which tense to be used in the current writing task was another issue Miriam was concerned about.	L Mentioning Concern	L Initiation
Student 2: This time another student asked about the quoting and quotation mark.	L Mentioning Concern	L Initiation
The teacher recommended using various styles such as writing in italic.	T Suggestion	Suggestion
She also explained that quotation mark meant that the word did not belong to the writer.	T Informing about the meaning of a usage in target discourse	Induction
The student was not sure to whom exactly the words belonged to; thus, she was unsure about how to show it.	L opening up the Concern	L Clarification
The teacher also explained that the student needed to use a variety of sources.	T Informing about expectations	Induction
because it looked like she depended on only one source	T indicating a problem in the learner's writing	T Warning
Therefore, the student needed to pick out the ideas and reorganize and integrate them. The student was recommended to take the main idea and organize the writing again.	T Telling What to do	T Suggestion
Another thing to be careful of was not to start with a quotation in a paragraph.	T Informing about Convention	Induction
In the end, the student was asked about what exactly the assignment was expecting her to do in the writing.	T attempting to better understand the task brief	T Auscultation
Student 3: The student explained concerns with quotation marks, use of italicized form.	L Mentioning Concern	L Initiation
The teacher explained that students needed to use single quota, or indented, italic without quotation mark.	T Informing about Writing Convention	Induction
In this part, student explained that she actually took that form from a book in her field.	L Referring to an External Authority	L Pretension
This time, the teacher recommended checking it with the tutor in their department or simply going with the way she wrote.	T Referring to an External Authority	T Deferral

Table 4.2. Generation of concepts in open coding stage

To be clearer with the concept generation, I will choose the concept ‘Induction’ and explain how it was generated. In the generation of the concept Induction, I first coded the incidents. The incidents that emerged before generating Induction were ‘informing about expectations and conventions within the target discourse’. While comparing these incidents, I wrote a memo on the code called ‘informing about expectations/conventions’. In the end of the first field note analysis, I compared those codes and memos against each other to understand how they could be grouped together. This is what Glaser (1978, p.49) describes as an ‘incident-to-incident comparison’, where the researcher “compares the incident to incident with the purpose of establishing the underlining uniformity and its varying conditions” (*ibid.*).

This incident-to-incident comparison strategy helped me reach a higher level of abstraction: concepts. In this case, the concept was Induction. As a final stage, I also wrote a memo on the concept Induction to be compared with the future codes on incidents, which indicates a second type of comparison, concept-to-incident, as defined by Glaser (1978). In concept-to-incident coding, the researcher focuses on “generating new theoretical properties of the concept and more hypotheses” (Glaser, 1978, p.50). Later, as I analysed other field notes, I also compared the concepts against each other in order to clarify the boundaries of each concept. This type of comparison is defined as ‘concept-to-concept comparison’ by Glaser (1978). In this process, I asked the following questions about the concepts (the questions were taken from Böhm 2004, p.271):

- What?
- What is at issue here? What phenomenon is being addressed?
- Who?
- What persons or actors are involved? What roles do they play? How do they interact?
- How?
- What aspects of the phenomenon are addressed (or not addressed)?
- When?
- How long? Where? How much? How strongly?

Table 4.3. Questions to compare concepts-to-concepts

Before presenting the list of the concepts that were generated at the end of the open coding stage, it is crucial to note that there were definitely other issues (e.g., establishing peer-assessment behaviour among learners) that were taking place in the classes. However, as the open coding progressed, it became steadily more obvious that teacher-student feedback interactions were the developing area of interest. Therefore, incidents relating to other aspects of feedback (e.g., establishing peer feedback behaviour) were not included in the analysis. This meant that the open coding stage gained a more selective focus over time, which was also due to practical considerations.

The concepts I reached through analysis of incidents are listed below. I will describe them in full detail in Section 4.4.

<p>1. Teacher Actions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Warning b. Evaluation c. Auscultation d. Suggestion e. Stimulation f. Deferral g. Arbitership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rectification • Induction <p>2. Student Actions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Clarification b. Suggestion c. Challenge d. Pretension e. Withdrawal f. Confirmation/Verification g. Surmise h. Conforming

Table 4.4. The concepts in the end of open coding

4.3.1.2. From concepts to categories

After generating concepts, using GT's Constant Comparison Method, I revised the concepts and compared them against each other by asking the questions I listed in Table 4.4. Memos were also kept during this process. In the end, three categories emerged, which showed the links between concepts: Collaborative Relationship, Concessional Relationship, and Normative Relationship. These categories, and their links with the concepts which they are comprised of are shown below:

<p>A. Collaborative Relationship</p> <p>1. Teacher Actions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Warning • Auscultation • Suggestion • Stimulation <p>2. Learner Actions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarification • Challenge • Suggestion • Initiation • Surmise • Confirmation <p>B. Concessional Relationship</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher Deferral • Learner Pretension <p>C. Normative Relationship</p> <p>1. Teacher Actions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arbitership (Rectification and Induction) <p>2. Learner Actions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Withdrawal • Conforming
--

Table 4.5. The categories in the end of open coding

An example for the development of categories will be presented through the Concessional Relationship category. While developing this category, I revised the memos that I wrote on the concepts of Teacher Deferral and Learner Pretension. The memos I wrote on these concepts were as follows:

MEMO

Concept: Teacher Deferral

Deferral in the dictionary is described as 'the deliberate act of delaying action'. Likewise, I name a group of teacher actions as deferral because I feel that there is some kind of restriction on the way they give feedback to the learners when they display certain actions. For example, when an EAP teacher says 'Ask your tutor about the scope', it is obvious that even if the EAP teacher has some ideas on the specific issue, s/he can't speak certain because the tutor might be expecting something different from the learner with regard to the issue at hand. So the teacher defers: delays action on purpose and leads the student to the tutor in the department.

MEMO

Concept: Learner Pretension

Pretension means 'a claim or an effort to establish a claim'. So, when I look at some of learners' actions, I feel that they attempt to take a step and, let's say, 'challenge' the teacher with regard to the language or conventions. In the codings under this concept, I see that learners most of the time perform the following actions:

- a) Refer to an external source to establish their claims such as 'Actually I took that form from a book'
- b) Base their claims on their tutors from their actual departments such as: 'Actually, I asked this to my professor, and he said...'
- c) They display themselves as the member of a group by saying 'Yes, we use mathematical forms'.
- d) Don't base their claims on any source, but (maybe because of their proficiency level or their understanding of an issue) they don't hesitate to 'defend' what they used in their writing such as: '(After the teacher says that affect is a strong verb to use, the student: Yes, it *did* affect actually').

The comparison of these two concepts and the codes under them led me to think that these actions displayed by teachers and students in feedback interactions might be the indicator of a certain relationship between teachers and learners. Thus, I grouped these two concepts under one category named: *Concessional Relationship*:



As I stated earlier, even if there are stages such as open coding, selective coding and theoretical coding, as Glaser (1978) states, these stages may take place simultaneously. Likewise, while analysing the field notes in the open coding stage, once the above categories were generated, I made an initial attempt to see how the categories might be able to be related with each other and develop into a theme or themes. Thus, I repeatedly read through the content of the categories. The interactions the categories indicated were the answer to the question of: *How did students and teachers*

participate in the feedback dialogue; What did teachers ask/tell; what did students say? Thus, I decided that categories were indicators of actions between teachers and students within various *relationship patterns*. This notion of relationship patterns, combined three categories together and became the encompassing theme of the field note analysis.

4.3.2. Semi-Selective Coding: Analysis of Interview Data

The second stage of the analysis process is the semi-selective coding stage. Before detailing this stage, it is worth detailing why I defined this stage as **semi**-selective coding, which also draws on the features of selective coding in GT. Glaser (1978, p.61) defines selective coding as “limiting coding only to those variables that relate to the core variable in sufficiently significant ways to be used in a parsimonious theory”. This stage starts when the core themes have been generated (Jones & Alony, 2011, p.107). A core theme is the product of a ‘densification’ process, through which major and frequently recurring issues within the data can be explained (*ibid.*). This theme should have the features which make it “meaningfully and easily” connected with other themes (*ibid.*). Thus, once this theme is determined, selective coding begins, and it helps the researcher conduct a more ‘filtered’ analysis (*ibid.*).

After analysing field notes, I started to use teacher-student interviews as the supporting data source to reach further conclusions about the core theme from different dimensions. One reason was that my field notes mostly consisted of interactional aspects of the classroom feedback. It was not possible to describe underlying dynamics of the feedback dialogues solely using field notes. Moreover, since “GT builds an analytical case by constantly seeking new evidence” (Jones & Alony, 2011, p.107), interviews were the best means to provide new evidence for this study. However, interviews in the initial data collection stage needed to be coded semi-selectively. This

meant inserting them into the analysis procedure and analysing only the relevant parts with feedback to further clarify the core theme. In that sense, interviews were selectively analysed. Yet, still the way they were treated followed an inductive way of analysis. That is, having selected the parts of the data that seemed to be relevant to the core theme, I took a bottom-up approach to describing them and developing excerpt labels, concepts, categories, and themes. In the process of interview analysis, I adapted Strauss and Corbin's (2008, p.163) method: I used "natural breaks in the manuscript as cutting off points, and usually these breaks denoted a change in the topic, but not always".

Below, I show an example of how concepts were developed in the analysis of the interview data. The sample is taken from an interview with a student from Pre-requisite EAP class.

Data Excerpt	Excerpt Label	Concept
A: Yes, 'ah, I think main criteria is are 'um it's clarity and logical str logical sequences,	Perceived criteria for AW in the target culture	Understanding of target discourse
and the actually I we have I face with different kinds of technique to I mean writing technique in England	Facing different ways of AW in England	Understanding of target discourse
because in my country we have a little bit different	Stating the difference of home culture writing	Awareness of previous context
A: '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	Ways of writing in the target culture/comparison with home culture	Understanding of target discourse

, so I'm in our country we can just write only about advantage of something, 'uh	Ways of writing in home culture/comparison with target culture	Awareness of previous context
it depends on where you want to publish this article,	Authority as the determiner of how to write in home country	Awareness of previous context
and or you can just write only about disadvantage, so 'um I think the main difference could be this	Writing one-sided as an option in home country	Awareness of previous context
Z: Okay, can you make it here, I mean when I mean what happens when you try to do it like in Kazakhstan?		
A: And she said that we should write like, first of all we should advantages or or some agreement or disagreement and after that disadvantage. you shouldn't write like this 'um also	TF on conventions	Inductual Feedback
I I'm when I 'er I can say about my personal statement when I I wrote my personal statement in the first introduction I put it about my country and what and about what I should do for my country first of all and then I I 'um I describe my work experience and academic life so and my preference,	The way of writing in home culture	Awareness of previous context
and so our teacher said me that it's a little bit unusual for them to read some article with with a beginning about your country, so we are a little bit individualistic so 'um we never use the (-) use 'er A: Something we never write about about how you love your country.	Teacher feedback on conventions	Inductual Feedback
A: 'Ah actually I haven't I haven't think about that I just I couldn't think about that but I couldn't change anything so this is Uk 's Uk's 'um game rule, so we I should just adjust adjust myself and write like they say,	Acceptance/ Adjusting the self to the target culture ways of writing	Acquiescence

Table 4.6. Generation of concepts from interviews in selective coding stage

To be clear about how concepts were generated, I will choose the concept 'Acquiescence' and explain how it was generated. As in the open coding stage, I followed GT's Constant Comparison Method and Glaser's (1978) three types of comparison (i.e., incident-to-incident coding, -excerpt label-to-excerpt label comparison in this case- concept-to-excerpt label comparison, and concept-to-concept comparison). I compared the excerpt labels against each other to better understand

underlying similarities and differences. For example, in the generation of the concept ‘Acquiescence’, I first coded the excerpt labels. The excerpts that emerged before generating ‘Acquiescence’ were ‘Acceptance/Adjusting the self to the target culture ways of writing’. While comparing these excerpt labels, I wrote a memo on the excerpt called ‘Acceptance/ Adjusting the self to the target culture ways of writing’. At the end of the first interview analysis, I compared those excerpt labels and memos against each other to understand how codes could be grouped together.

Following the excerpt label to excerpt label comparison helped reaching concepts, which are a higher level of abstraction. In this case, the concept was Acquiescence. As a final stage, I also wrote a memo on the concept Acquiescence, to be compared with the future codes on interview excerpts, which is the concept-to-excerpt label comparison. Later, as I analysed other interviews, I also compared the concepts against each other to be able to refine the boundaries of each concept by asking questions.

In the table below, I present the list of the concepts that were generated at the end of the semi-selective coding stage of interviews. Readers may observe that not all of the concepts listed in the previous table, appear in this one. The bottom-up treatment of interview excerpts generated a range of concepts, but – in keeping with the principles of the selective coding stage – I kept only those concepts which were meaningful for core theme of the field notes, that being, relationship patterns.

<p>Concepts for learner interviews:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Feedback expectations b. Existence of an external authority c. Being a second language learner d. Understanding of target culture e. Awareness of previous culture f. Developing strategies <p>Concepts for teacher interviews:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. External authority b. Tension in teacher role perceptions c. What learners need
--

Table 4.7. Concepts from the semi-selective coding of interviews

After generating the above concepts, using GT's Constant Comparison Method, I revised the concepts and compared them against each other through various questions. I also continued to create memos. In the end, categories showing the relationship between concepts were developed; these categories are shown below:

<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Learner Motives<ol style="list-style-type: none">1.1. Feedback expectations1.2. Existence of an external authority2. Learners' efficacy<ol style="list-style-type: none">2.1. Being a second language learner3. Contemplation<ol style="list-style-type: none">3.1. Understanding of target culture3.2. Awareness of previous culture4. Pro-activity<ol style="list-style-type: none">4.1. Developing strategies5. Decision making<ol style="list-style-type: none">5.1. Existence of an external authority5.2. What learners need5.3. Tension in teacher role perceptions

Table 4.8. Categories from the semi-selective coding of interviews

An example of the development of categories will be presented through the 'Learner Motives' category. While developing this category, the revision of the concepts, specifically the ones on 'feedback expectations and existence of an external authority', led to the development of the 'Learner Motives' category. Two of the memos I wrote on these concepts are as follows:

MEMO

Concept: Feedback Expectations

It seems to me that feedback expectations is important for the relationship patterns because learners may contribute to the interactions depending on what they want to see as feedback on their writing. For example, whether a student wants simply correction (e.g., polishing), explicit feedback or so forth may have a role in shaping learners' focus in the interaction and way of asking questions. It seems to me that this may even have an effect on whether the student continues to interaction or not. For example, one student was saying that he simply wanted to focus on minor details such as grammar, spelling, and punctuation in his writing when he takes his assignment to EAP class for feedback. So obviously, this student expects feedback that helps him with these issues. At this point, I can't really say whether this expectation of the learner leads him to display a normative pattern or collaborative, but I believe it shapes his interaction.

MEMO

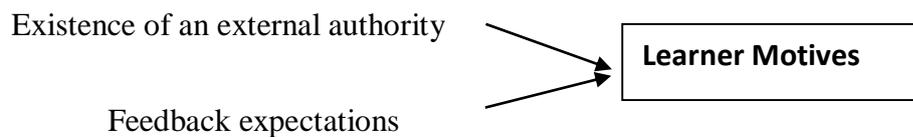
Concept: Existence of an external authority

The existence of an exam (IELTS preparation) seems like influencing what learners want from teacher feedback. Most of the time, it seems that since learners want to get a high score from IELTS, they want mostly correction and talking about the norms in a clear way in the interactions. Also, students might go to EAP classes to understand their actual tutor's feedback in a better way by showing these feedback to their EAP tutors. Moreover, I think students in insessional EAP classes are aware of what each tutor (EAP and departmental tutor) focuses on in their feedback, thus learners enter each class with an expectation parallel to departmental tutor's focus in EAP. I think that those same students in insessional classes usually attend the class with the encouragement of their departmental tutor. There are also instances where conflicts emerge between departmental tutor and EAP tutor and EAP tutor recommends learners to follow the departmental tutor's advice.

Another aspect where the existence of an external authority emerges is learner's orientation towards the results of their assignments. Since they have the concern of being graded, they expect EAP tutors to provide feedback on that line. This may also mean that learners' focus in feedback interaction would be on reaching information that would ease the assessment process for them.

A final issue is that learners distinguish between what is written in EAP and what they will write in the future. That is, learners' comparison between what they are asked to write in prerequisite EAP and in their future departments might also determine how they approach towards feedback. It seems that learners measure to what extent the EAP writing and feedback on it would be meaningful to their future studies.

The comparison of these two concepts and the codes under them led me to think that they indicated learners' purposes to engage with feedback interactions. Thus, I grouped these two concepts under one category: Learner Motives.



Once the categories were developed, I examined how these categories might relate to each other and be developed into a theme or themes. To this end, I reviewed the content of the categories. These categories were indicators of the way teachers and students interacted within the context they were involved. Therefore, I named one theme 'Institutionalised Self', which was displayed differently by learners and teachers. A

second theme from student interviews was: ‘Critical Awareness of Academic Writing’.

<ul style="list-style-type: none">1. Theme: Institutionalised Self<ul style="list-style-type: none">A. Learners: Conforming to the norms<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Learners’ Efficacy- Being a second language learner• Learners’ Motives- Feedback expectations- Existence of an external authorityB. Teachers: Balancing the competing agendas<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Decision Making in feedback provision- External authority- Tension between teacher role perceptions- What learners need 2. Theme: Critical Awareness of Academic Writing<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Contemplation- Increased awareness of previous context- Understanding of target discourse• Proactivity-Developing strategies
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Table 4.9. Categories and themes from semi-selective coding

4.3.3. Initial Attempt at Theoretical Coding

In the end of the open and semi-selective coding, I connected all of the themes I listed above in the following way:

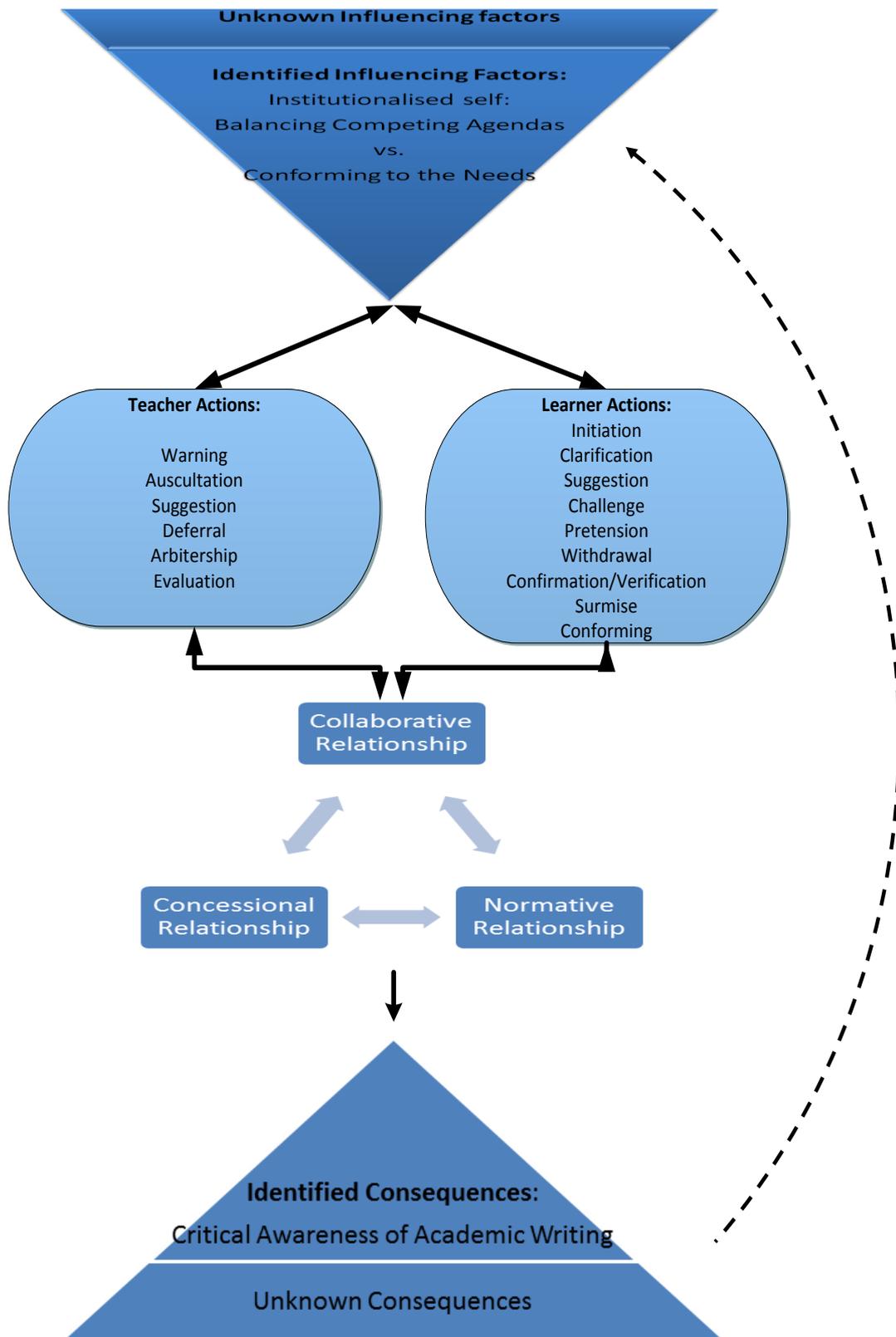


Figure 4.2.Initial attempt at theoretical coding

As explained earlier, I have focused on the process of analysis and have not so far devoted a great deal of space to the discussion of the various concepts, categories and themes which emerged. I shall do this in the next section, beginning with the most abstract level – the themes – and then working downwards to examine the more detailed categories and concepts which have been grouped together under them.

4.4. Defining and Explaining the Themes, Categories and Concepts

4.4.1. Field Notes: Emerging Themes, Categories and Concepts

The theme, Relationship Patterns in Classroom Feedback, refers to the positioning of the individuals against each other during feedback talks. The classroom observations indicated that there were three major ways where positioning of each individual became apparent during classroom feedback talks. Those relationship patterns are captured by three categories: Collaborative Relationship, Concessional Relationship and Normative Relationship.

Collaborative Relationship occurred when participants in the feedback session attempted to work on the written text together. Neither side claimed absolute control over the written work. Rather, they tried to understand what would be a successful piece of work for the target community, together.

The second type of relationship was a Concessional Relationship. It refers to situations in which the teacher acted cautiously in the feedback discussion due to various issues. For example, the teacher urged students to seek departmental guidance on issues learners had in their writing. However, students often gained relatively equal control over the feedback event due to their membership and knowledge of a particular discipline.

The third type of relationship is called Normative Relationship. When this type of relationship was displayed, the more powerful side was the teacher. They acted as a

representative of the target culture. Moreover, their decisions indicated that their judgements were authoritative.

Deployed Actions in Relationship Patterns

While participating in the various types of relationships, teachers and students used various actions, which are captured by concept labels in the analysis. The actions which seemed to be associated with each relationship type are explained next.

Collaborative Relationship Actions

Teachers utilized the actions of *warning*, *auscultation*, *suggestion*, and *stimulation* in the Collaborative Relationship.

With regard to *warning*, teachers generally indicated that what student did in the writing might have been problematic. The memos on the *warning* action of teachers indicated that this action emerged either as ‘other-initiated’ or ‘teacher-initiated’. In ‘other-initiated’ *warning*, learners drew the teacher’s attention to a specific aspect of writing. Thus, the teacher gave an opinion on that aspect. When the action was ‘teacher-initiated’, the teacher spotted an issue in learner’s writing while giving feedback, and explained the possible problems. In the extracts below, the teachers were providing feedback on students’ writing in the classroom. In each extract, teachers addressed one problematic aspect of the writing; Extract #4.1 is ‘other-initiated’ and Extract #4.2 is ‘teacher-initiated’.

Extract#4.1:

(After student explains her concern with writing a topic sentence)

The teacher answered that this might be caused by the weakness of the supporting sentences.

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessional EAP, field note; January 23, 2012 Monday)

In the Extract#4.1 presented above, we see an example of an ‘other-initiated’ *warning* action. In this example, which took place in a Generic In-sessional EAP class, the student set the agenda for the teacher feedback by explaining that she was worried about topic sentences in her assignment. Then, the teacher explained that the weakness of the supporting sentences might be the underlying reason for the problem. Therefore, the student directed the focus of this part of the feedback session.

Extract#4.2:

(While the teacher is reading a student’s work, she lists some issues she notices in the work. One point she picks is below):

If you go one by one you are not really answering the question.

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessional EAP, audio recording; February 6, 2012 Monday)

In Extract #4.2, an example of a ‘teacher-initiated’ warning action, while reading a student’s essay draft, the teacher warned that the way the learner answered the assignment question was not successful².

The second teacher action for collaboration is *auscultation*. *Auscultation* originally means ‘the act of listening to sounds arising within organs (as the lungs) as an aid to diagnosis and treatment’ (Merriam-Webster, 2012). In this research, *auscultation* refers to the teacher actions that attempted to understand the rationales for ways of writing, using certain structures to express ideas, or the intended meanings. I interpreted those actions as the means to see how to help students to improve their writing; therefore, I named these actions *auscultation*. Through *auscultation*, the teacher might aim at learning more about the task/assignment requirements, learning

² It is worth reminding the reader of that audio recordings were used as a supporting source of data for the field notes’ content. Their use depended on the permission of the teacher and students. Very often, students were not comfortable with its use. Therefore, audio recordings were not utilized very frequently and are not a major source of data. When audio recordings were not possible to use, I took notes on the feedback interactions as detailed as possible.

about sources the student used, learning about why the student did something in a certain way, learning about what the learner meant with a specific usage and checking if their suggestions and feedback satisfied the student's demands. By trying to understand these issues, the teachers tried to find what exactly the student might be in need of, thus getting closer to establishing a more concrete and specific basis for their feedback.

In the field notes, *auscultation* emerged either in statement or question forms. One focus of the teacher, through *auscultation*, was macro aspects of the writing. That is, the teacher attempted to identify the purpose of the task, the writing process, the learner's way of generating ideas, paragraph development (e.g., coherence, organisation), and the evidence the learner presented. This type of action is shown in detail below; the extracts are described in turn.

Extract #4.3:

(The teacher is talking to a student about an assignment draft. Student asks questions about different problems she has while the teacher is answering her questions. The teacher offers various suggestions while also indicating possible problems in the learner's writing. At the end of the discussion, the teacher asks the student below question):

In the end the student was asked about what exactly the assignment was expecting her to do in the writing.

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessional, field note; January 23, 2012 Monday)

In Extract #4.3 above, the teacher asked the learner about the task/assignment. In this way, the teacher aimed at checking the learner's understanding of the task, which would allow the teacher to see the extent to which the student worked with the task brief. Simultaneously, the teacher was also interested in learning more about the assignment itself. In both ways, it seems that the teacher wanted to gain a more concrete base on which to build feedback.

Extract#4.4:

(A student and the teacher is talking about an assignment draft. Until this section, they work on a question-answer basis. Mainly, the student asks questions she has in her mind while the teacher is answering her questions. Meanwhile, the teacher has the following problem while reading the draft. Thus, she asks):

T: How does this section relate to that section?

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessionnal EAP field note; March 5, 2012 Monday)

Extract#4.5:

(The teacher is talking to students about their assignment drafts in the class. With this student, she first looks at the draft very quickly. Then, she asks the following question about one part of the draft):

T: Which references or sources do you have here?

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessionnal EAP, audio recording; February 6, 2012 Monday)

In Extract #4.4., the teacher focused on the learner's paragraph organization, and asked for the student's justification of the relevance between paragraphs.

In Extract #4.5, the teacher required more information about the evidence the learner presented in the paper. This might be because the teacher wanted to have more information about sources which the student utilized before giving further feedback on that section.

In terms of *auscultation*, the teacher might also focus on micro aspects of the writing by questioning any sentence-level issues (e.g., clarity of the sentence, grammaticality) in the writing. In the below examples taken from a Specialised EAP class and Generic In-sessionnal class, the teachers focused on the micro aspects of the writing.

Extract#4.6:

So far, the teacher and the student have been talking on student's writing. The student first asks the teacher what other words he could use instead of 'true' in the sentence 'Therefore, it is true' since he (the student) says he uses it too much. Getting suggestions of the teacher, the student once again attempts to verify whether he could write 'Therefore, we have proven this'. At this point, the teacher asks the below question):

The teacher said 'My problem with that 'this' is.. 'What is 'this'? Do you mean the beginning, middle?

(Michael: the teacher; Specialised EAP, field note; February 17, 2012 Friday)

In the sample above, Extract #4.6, the teacher questioned the use of 'this' in the learner's sentence and what the learner was referring to, thus questioning the clarity of the sentence. This also shows that the teacher wanted to understand the sentence before offering further suggestions about the issue.

In this Extract #4.7 below, the teacher questioned the precision by requiring a clarification about whether the use of 'a' indicated a number or functioned as an article. It can be interpreted that the teacher wanted to have a better understanding of the sentence before deciding if it needed any feedback.

Extract#4.7:

(The teacher initially wanted students to peer check each other's writing in the class. Then, he also starts to check one student's writing. While reading, the teacher indicates a sentence and asks the below question):

At one point, the teacher was asking 'Is this a number or article?'

(Michael: the teacher; Specialised EAP, field note; February 27, 2012 Friday)

Extract#4.8:

(The teacher and a student are reviewing an assignment draft. The teacher is asking questions to the learner about the draft. As she reads, she asks the below question about one sentence to the learner):

T: I am not sure what your collocation is doing.

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessional EAP, field note; February 20, 2012 Monday)

Above, in Extract #4.8, the teacher used the *auscultation* in the form of statement. Yet, it is possible that this statement implies a question. That is, the teacher asked the student to clarify why the indicated collocation was used.³

The third collaborative teacher action is *suggestion*. This action refers to the times when the teacher told learners other available options that could be used in the writing.

Examples are listed below:

Extract#4.9:

(While other students are working on their final assignments, the teacher is visiting their desks and asking if they need any help. When one student shows her writing, after skimming through the text, the teacher makes the following comment about a section):

You could use ‘claims that; suggests that’.

(Jade: the teacher; Specialised EAP, field note; February 27, 2012 Monday)

Extract#4.10:

(The teacher is talking to students about their assignment drafts. With this student, she first says ‘This is quite descriptive. How does that relate to the information? Is it useful explanation?’ Seeing that there are issues about the way the student presents the information, the teacher makes the following suggestion):

Why not one by one explanation?

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessionnal EAP audio recording; February 6, 2012 Monday)

Extract#4.11:

(The teacher is checking what learners wrote for an in-class writing task. With this student, after focusing on other aspects, he also makes the following comment):

More information would have been better.

(Michael: the teacher, Specialised EAP field notes; February 10, 2012 Friday)

³ It is worth noting that there are also interactions taken from the field notes without an audio recording. This is because audio recordings were not permitted at all times. At the time of such observations, I wrote these interactions as close to the original as possible. I acknowledge that it is not possible to follow interactions with all details simply by writing down. However, I attempted to compensate for this risk by asking questions to teachers or students about the points I could not note down during their interactions. Moreover, when I believed that a very important part of the interaction was missing, I did not use them in my analysis.

In the above extracts, *suggestion* is exemplified. In the first extract, the teacher offered various alternatives for the student to use in his/her writing. In Extract #4.10, the teacher again offered a way of improving the writing by asking the learner ‘*Why not one by one explanation?*’. In the final sample, the teacher urged the learner to put more information in the essay.

The final Collaborative Relationship action is *stimulation*. While using this action, the teachers did not directly spot the problems. They hinted that there was a problem, and the student was the one to find and improve the problematic aspect. While generating this action, I first categorised it as a Normative Relationship. This is because I initially thought that the teacher put a constraint on the student’s next action by requesting a relevant response. However, after further analysis, I later recognized that the teacher actually showed that she/he was open to any of the learner's ideas about the problematic aspect. She/he did not impose a direct correction or change, but invited the learner to talk about the issue. Therefore, I changed it to a Collaborative Relationship action. Similarly, this action might also be confused with *auscultation*. My understanding of the difference between *auscultation* and *stimulation* is ‘listening/requesting further information’ versus ‘encouraging into action’. Below are some examples of *stimulation*:

Extract#4.12:

(The teacher is talking to students about their assignment drafts. While reading one learner’s writing, she makes the following comment):

Don’t put initials on. What should we do? Try thinking.

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessional EAP, audio recording; February 6, 2012 Monday)

Extract#4.13:

(This is from the same class with the above extract, but the student is different. The teacher is checking learners' writing assignment drafts. While reading this student's draft, the teacher indicates a part and asks the following question):

What's the issue here?

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessional EAP, audio recording; February 6, 2012 Monday)

Extract#4.14:

(The teacher is checking learners' writing for an in-class writing task. After reading through one's learner writing, he makes the following comment):

The teacher told Santoz that an expression he wrote was a bit strange, and he wanted to know whether he was happy with what he wrote.

(Michael [the teacher]; Specialised EAP, field note; February 10, 2012 Monday)

In the first example, the teacher first warned the student by saying '*Don't put initials on.*'. Following this, she asked the student what they could do to solve the problem '*What should we do?*'. In Extract #4.13, while checking learner's writing, the teacher asked the student '*What's the issue here?*'. In the last example, the teacher again warned the student about an expression. Then, he asked the learner whether it was still fine for him. In these examples, there was an open invitation to the learner to generate the solution first. Questions might arise about the collaborative nature of the *simulation* since some of the teacher's questions are known-answer. Yet, I believe that these questions also indicated that the teachers wanted to be open to the learner's opinions rather than expecting a specific answer.

There are also various learner actions in Collaborative Relationship; they are: *clarification, challenge, suggestion, surmise, confirmation, and initiation.*

Learners clarified their meaning and rationales for their writing through *clarification.*

They also used this action when they wanted to clarify their questions about what they had written. I present an example below:

Extract#4.15:

(The teacher and the student are talking about an assignment draft the student brought to the class. The teacher is reading and asking questions or making various comments on the writing. In the below section, the teacher has difficulty in understanding the meaning of a sentence):

T: Principals' agenda.. What do you mean here?

Miriam: I think the principal wants her agenda. She's prioritizing her own agenda

(T:the teacher, Miriam: the student, Generic In-sessional EAP, field note, February 20, 2012, Monday)

In the above example, while providing feedback on the learner's assignment draft, the teacher had difficulty understanding the meaning of the sentence. Thus, she asked '*What do you mean here?*'. Seeing that request from the teacher, the student attempted to clarify what she meant in that particular section of her writing: '*I think the principal wants her agenda*'. Then, she further clarified what she had wanted to explain in that part by saying '*She is prioritizing her own agenda*'.

Another learner action is *challenge*. In challenge, there was a level of disagreement between the student and teacher. The field note analysis indicated that students challenged the teacher in two different ways. In the first way, learners revealed the underlying reasons for the problems they had in their writing. An example is shown in Extract #4.16:

Extract#4.16:

(While the teacher is reading an assignment draft of the learner, she indicates a section and makes the following comment):

T: I'd put value in between.

Miriam: ...Because I'm a bit scared to put in my perspective.

(T: the teacher, Miriam: the student; Generic In-sessional EAP, field note; February 20, 2012 Monday)

Above, the teacher suggested that the learner put more ‘value’ in her writing. Yet, the student took a defensive attitude and said ‘*because I’m a bit scared to put in my perspective*’. I classified this attitude as a *challenge* towards the teacher because the learner implied that she was aware of the requirement of putting values. Yet, another problem, which she summarized as ‘*because I’m a bit scared to put in my perspective*’, prevented her from putting value in her essay. By challenging the teacher’s original feedback, the learner also made a veiled request to receive a suitable suggestion for her underlying problem.

The second way *challenge* occurred in the data was by bringing a counter-argument to teacher’s comment. Below is a sample from a Generic In-sessional class:

Extract#4.17:

(The teacher is talking to a student about her assignment draft. At one part, the teacher tells the learner that the headings seem misleading in terms of their content and organization. Thus, she warns the student. Seeing how the student plans to organize her writing with the titles and the contents she has, the teacher makes the below comment):

T: 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.

Cheryl: But the logic is first why and then what and how.

(T: the teacher; Cheryl: the student; Generic In-sessional EAP field note; March 5, 2012 Monday)

In this example, we see that the teacher initially explained how she thought the organisation of the essay needed to be done: ‘*For me personally, this is kind of what and how and this is why.*’. Following this, implying that the readers would think as she did and would expect the same organisation (‘*I would want to know...*’), the teacher repeated that the student should have mentioned the ‘*what and how*’ of the issue before explaining the reasons. Following this, the student brought a counter-

argument by saying that her logic asked to first explain the reason (*'But the logic is first why and then what and how'*).

Suggestion is also used by students during Collaborative Relationship. This action meant that learners offered ways of improving the text in the feedback talk. Below are examples:

Extract#4.18:

(The teacher and the student are talking about how to organize the essay. The teacher wants to warn the student about the titles and their content, yet encounters a challenge. Thus, the teacher accepts student's reasoning. Yet, the student brings a suggestion to solve the confusion):

T: Okay, if that's the logic for you. My job is to make you comfortable with your writing

Cherly: Maybe I can change the question.

(T: the teacher, Cherly: the student; Generic In-sessional EAP field note; March 5, 2012 Monday)

Extract#4.19:

T: An additional reason for studying collegiality is ...Em...I don't.. (unintelligible) that..

Miriam: Let's say to enhance my education

(T: the teacher, Miriam: the student; Generic In-sessional EAP, field note; February 20, 2012 Monday)

In the examples above, *suggestion* is presented. In the extract 4.18, realizing that the student did not want to take one of her earlier suggestion, the teacher accepted that the student wanted to continue on the same trajectory. Then, the student stated '*Maybe I can change the question.*'. In this way, the student offered a solution to allow both sides to meet on common ground. In the second example, again, the teacher displayed a cautious attitude towards the learner's usage (*'I don't... (unintelligible) that...'*). As a response, the learner suggested completing the sentence with '*...to enhance my*

education' (in, *Let's say to enhance my education*). By offering this expression, the student both made a suggestion and clarified her intention in the relevant section.

Another learner action is *initiation*. In this action, the student started the interaction with the teacher. Moreover, the learner set the agenda. The example below clarifies this:

Extract#4.20:

Meanwhile, she (the teacher-Irvette) checked how students were doing with the writing. Zeliha asked her whether *Moreover* was always positive. Teacher said it was neutral and "you can bring a negative argument if you like".

(Irvette: the teacher, Zeliha: the student; Pre-requisite EAP, field note, February 27, 2012 Monday)

In the example from Pre-requisite EAP class field notes, the teacher went to students' desks to check if they had any problems while writing. Meanwhile, a student initiated the talk by asking a question on the use of 'moreover'. The student wondered whether 'moreover' was always positive, or if negative arguments could also be used with it. To the learner's question, the teacher replied that 'moreover' could allow a negative argument as well. In this extract, by initiating the discussion, the student determined the content of feedback discussion, and led the teacher to focus on a specific issue. That is, the student had already spotted a problem, and wanted solutions. Thus, the learner's action, I believe, was a collaborative one.

Surmise is another learner action in Collaborative Relationship. This act refers to drawing implications from the teacher's feedback as illustrated below:

Extract#4.21:

T: another reason for analysing collegiality in Indonesia is that it gives me another opportunity..

Miriam: Oh, I need to re-structure..

(T: the teacher, Miriam: the student; Generic In-sessional EAP, field note; February 20, 2012 Monday)

In this example, while reading the writing draft, the teacher suggested that the student change the wording of a sentence, *'another reason for analysing collegiality in Indonesia is that it gives me another opportunity...'*. As a response, the learner commented *'Oh, I need to re-structure...'*. This learner statement shows that the learner was able to take the narrow, specific comment and make a wider conclusion in addition to understanding the suggestion.

The final learner action is *confirmation*, through which students verified the value and contribution of the feedback as in the next extract.

Extract#4.22:

(The teacher is reading learners' writing for an in-class writing task. While reading what the learner has written, the teacher reads the sentence 'More information would have been better since the more information we have, the more it is likely that'. On this sentence, the teacher tells the learner that she needs to use simple present tense in the second part 'the more it is likely that' as in the below dialogue):

T: Now, you just need simple present.

Chi: We have reduced the uncertainty.

(T: the teacher; Chi: the student, Specialised In-sessional EAP, field note; February 10, 2012 Friday)

Above, the teacher explained that the student needed to use simple present tense. To this recommendation, the student stated how using simple present would contribute to the sentence (*We have reduced the uncertainty*).

Concessional Relationship Actions

Teachers used *deferral* in Concessional Relationship. *Deferral* indicated the existence of a controlling element over the feedback by the teacher. Through this action, teachers mostly shaped their feedback by referring to an external authority as the ultimate determiner. The following extracts clarify this:

Extract#4.23:

(In this class, the students are comparing and contrasting two figures showing the popularity of names in the UK given to newborns in different years. The teacher is checking how students are doing. After reading what Kyoko has written, the teacher makes the following comment):

The teacher (Irvette) also told Kyoko that she should be more careful about her paragraph organizations. Kyoko's paragraphs seemed like long sentences, so she could have problem in IELTS.

(Irvette: the teacher; Kyoko: the student; EAP Pre-requisite, field notes; March 5, 2012 Monday)

Extract#4.24:

The teacher again is talking to students on their assignment drafts. With this student, while the teacher is reading, she focuses on the word 'nationalism' and comments 'Nationalism is more like patriotism, isn't it? You need to be careful here. The word might be quite controversial'. Then, she makes the following comment):

T: Your tutor might say you're using a wrong word to explain that idea. [...]

(T: The teacher; Generic In-session EAP audio recording; February 6, 2012 Monday)

In the above examples, the teachers provided feedback by referring to some external authority as determiners. In the first extract, the teacher first warned the student by indicating that the paragraph organisation was a bit problematic. The teacher based her feedback on IELTS requirements by indicating that paragraphs with long sentences would cause problems in IELTS.

In Extract #4.24, the teacher again warned the student of the word she/he selected to explain an idea. Similar to the first teacher, this teacher also referred to an external authority, in this case, a departmental tutor. The teacher indicated that the departmental tutor might criticise the learner's word selection to explain an idea.

As for learner actions, *pretension* is what frequently emerged in Concessional Relationship. It meant that learners tried to base their ways of writing on external sources, thus displaying a more powerful image within the feedback discussion. In the coding under this concept, learners achieved this more authoritative status in two ways. First, they based their claims on their departmental tutors. An example is shown below:

Extract#4.25:

(The teacher is reading a draft by the learner. At some point, the teacher starts questioning the text in terms of the internal coherence. Regarding this problem, the following dialogue emerges):

H: ... So, will you, I 'm just wondering how you're gonna relate that to these?

Kai: Actually I asked the professor today by e-mail that; if I can describe my personal experience, and then I can describe how did I forced to wear, or how do I have to behave, something like that...

(H: the teacher; Kai: the student; Generic In-Sessional EAP, audio recording; February 27, 2012 Monday)

In this extract, while the teacher was reading the student's essay draft, she encountered a problem with the way the student connected various ideas. Thus, she required a clarification from the student through an *auscultation*, and asked how the student planned to relate these sections together, by saying, '*I'm just wondering how you're gonna relate that to these?*'. The student realised that the teacher found the organisation problematic. Therefore, she referred to her departmental tutor to show

that the departmental tutor approved of the organisation, as evident in this line of the extract, ‘*Actually I asked the professor today by e-mail that*’.

A second way to use *pretension* was to display the self as the member of a group. For example:

Extract#4.26:

(The teacher, checking learners’ writing for an in-class writing task, focuses on an abbreviation a learner has used in his essay, and the following dialogue emerges):

Michael: Is that a standard abbreviation?

Chendar: Yes, we use mathematical forms.

(Michael:the teacher; Chendar: the student; Specialised EAP, field notes; February 17, 2012 Friday)

In the above example, the teacher initiated the discussion with *auscultation*. That is, the teacher requested more information about the abbreviation the student used: ‘*Is this a standard abbreviation?*’. Following this question, the student first said ‘*Yes.*’, then, he made his answer stronger by referring to his actual discipline, and said, ‘*We use mathematical forms*’. In this way, the student emphasised his membership and relied on it for guidance.

Normative Relationship Actions

In this relationship pattern, the teachers used two actions: *arbitership* and *evaluation*. Through *arbitership*, teachers acted as the representative authority of the target culture. They displayed this role via two sub-actions: *rectification* and *induction*.

In *rectification*, the teachers corrected mistakes directly without initiating any discussions.

Extract#4.27:

(The teacher is talking to students on their assignment drafts. With one student, the teacher begins the dialogue with the following comment after she reads the draft quickly):

T: I think tackle is informal. I wouldn't use tackle.

(T: The teacher; Generic In-session EAP, audio recording; February 6, 2012 Monday)

Extract#4.28:

The teacher is checking how learners are doing with an in-class writing task on comparing and contrasting figures about the use of names in different years in the UK. When she reads Aysel's writing, she makes the following comments):

She [Irvette] said to Aysel that she could not use the verb "to demonstrate" on the writing when she wanted to show something. (Not like "I will demonstrate.....") She also corrected a defining/non-defining clause.

(Irvette: The teacher; Aysel: the student; EAP Pre-requisite, field note; March 5, 2012 Monday)

In the Extract #4.27, the teacher immediately indicated the problematic word (*'I think tackle is informal.'*). Then, she commented that she would not use that word. This teacher comment depicted the teacher as the more knowledgeable party about the target language. The fact that the teacher immediately labelled the word as 'informal' might prove that the teacher was the representative authority of the target culture.

In the second example, the teacher corrected the error immediately. She also explained that the verb 'demonstrate' could not be used 'to show something'. Following this, the teacher continued with another correction on the use of defining and non-defining clauses.

The second sub-action under *arbitership* is *induction*. This action described the teacher's acts as introducing conventions of writing and language in the target context.

These are shown below:

Extract#4.29:

(The teacher is talking to a student on her assignment draft. While reading the draft, the teacher makes the following comment on the draft):

Heled: Making suggestions is unusual in academic writing. The only time we talk about suggestions is when we talk about implications. So it seems a bit strange here.

(Heled: the teacher, Generic In-sessional EAP, field note, March 5, 2012 Monday)

In the above example, the teacher was providing feedback on student writing. Seeing that the student made suggestions, she began talking about the academic writing conventions. In that way, the teacher (re)-introduced the traditions within the specific context.

Evaluation is also a teacher action in Normative Relationship. These actions introduce an assessment feature. Through this action, the teachers did not focus on any particular problems or questions as in the following examples:

Extract#4.30:

(The teacher is reading a learner's writing for an in-class writing task. He makes quick comments on different parts of the writing, one of which is below):

Michael: The beginning is excellent.

(Michael: The teacher; Specialised EAP, field note; February 10, 2012 Friday)

Extract#4.31:

(The teacher is reading the assignment draft by a learner. While she is commenting on different parts of the draft, she makes the below comment about one part of the essay):

Heled: you have written down the basic structure here, introduction main body and conclusion. And what you have done is you've written the proportion and the percentage of the word, which is a really good idea. That is a really good idea, okay.

(Heled: The teacher; Generic In-sessional EAP, audio recording; February 27, 2012 Monday)

In both examples, the teachers did not focus on any particular problems. Yet, they emphasised the strong aspects of the student writing. In the extract#30, the teacher commented that the beginning part was ‘excellent’. In the following extract, the teacher noticed that the student had assigned a proportion and percentage of the word to be written in each part. Thus, she concluded ‘*This is a really good idea...*’.

In Normative Relationship, learners used *withdrawal* and *conforming*. To begin with the *withdrawal*, it was a ‘rare’ action, through which the student stopped commenting, clarifying or making suggestions and did not contribute to the discussion. This action frequently emerged as silence or simply ending the conversation. One example can be seen below.

Extract#4.32:

[The students are writing for an in-class writing task. While the teacher is checking how they are doing, he focuses the use of ‘middle class’ by the student in his writing and the following dialogue emerges]:

The teacher asked the student the 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 statistics? To these questions, the student first attempted to explain what exactly he meant. However, since he wasn’t sure of how to explain it, he gave up.

(Specialised EAP, field notes; January 27, 2012 Friday)

In the sample#4.32, the teacher initially wanted to receive clarification from the student and asked about the intended meaning (*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 statistics?*). The student first tried to explain his intended meaning. However, he later stopped trying to clarify since he was not sure how to do this.

Another Normative Relationship student action is *conforming*. Through this action, a student may explicitly attempt to verify whether their usage complied with the norms and standards of the target community. For example:

Extract#4.32:

Miriam: with empirical research, past or present tense?

Teacher: That's past, finished.

Miriam: But I talk about the findings. That's present?

Teacher: You might say "The results demonstrate".

(Miriam: the student; Generic In-session EAP, field notes; February 20, 2012 Monday)

In the example above, the student and the teacher were talking about a draft the student had brought to the class. At some point, the student brought the issue of using tenses correctly and asked the teacher whether she needed to use past or present tense while writing about empirical research. The teacher replied that since it was finished, past tense would need to be used. Yet, the student required further clarification and asked whether past tense would still be used while discussing her findings (*'But I talk about the findings.'*). To this question, the teacher offered a suggestion.

In this section, I have discussed my classroom observation data in detail, discussing and illustrating the meaning of category labels, concept labels, and the overall theme. I will now look at the themes which emerged in interview data, using a similar structure for the discussion.

4.4.2. Interviews: Emerging Themes, Categories and Concepts

As was explained before, the analysis of interview data involved an inductive process analogous to that used for the observation data, but it should also be considered 'selective' rather than 'open' in the sense that it was not independent, but rather, informed and influenced by the analysis of the observation data. Thus, the analysis of the interviews was called 'semi-selective coding'. Observation data led to theorisation

of three relationship patterns, which changed continuously along the feedback process. Thus, understanding the possible influencing factors leading to the variation and change of relationship patterns within the classroom feedback is necessary. This cannot be directly observed, but can be investigated through an analysis of teacher and student interviews.

Theme 1: Institutionalised self

One theme which emerged from the analysis of the interviews was the *Institutionalised Self*. It indicated the existence of an *institutionalised self*, which learners and teachers displayed differently. Under this theme, both students and teachers displayed various features.

Institutionalised Self: Balancing competing agendas vs. conforming to the norms

I define the theme of Institutionalised Self as the identity individuals develop through their interaction with various features of the specific institution's context. In the teacher interviews, teachers' Institutionalised Self displayed the feature of *balancing competing agendas* while learners' Institutionalised Self was one that aimed at conforming to the norms, thus meeting the demands of their courses.

The decision-making category contributed to the formation of the teachers' Institutionalised Self. The decision-making process of teachers was characterised by *external authority, what learners need* and *tension between teacher role perceptions*. *External authority* indicates the existence of a third authority that influences the teacher feedback. In the interviews, teachers stated that they shaped their feedback based on learners' writing in relation to the criteria used by the actual departments, which led to exceptions, variations, and different expectations. Teachers also underlined that the existence of an exam like IELTS led to confusion. In relation with the existence of an external authority, teachers appeared to accept the existence of the

external authority and aimed at working closely with students to establish similarities and differences between different departments through negotiation, emphasising the core competencies in academic writing and helping learners fit in the requirements of their departments. Likewise, this situation caused teachers to be dependent on task briefs (task questions provided by learners' tutors). The following extracts may exemplify teachers' opinions about an external authority better:

Extract#4.33:

1. **Z:** Okay, and moving towards academic writing, what do you think a well
2. written, what is the criteria for a well-written academic paper for you as an
3. EAP teacher?
4. **M:** Okay, I would have to evaluate it in relation to the criteria used by the
5. specialist in the given academic field, rather than looking my own set of
6. values,

(Michael: Specialised EAP teacher; interview; March 13, 2012 Tuesday) (Z: Researcher; M: Teacher)

Extract#4.34:

1. This is the problem with doing IELTS, I actually I wish we didn't have
2. anything to do with the IELTS exam because it's it's like sometimes it just
3. goes against everything there is in academic writing

(Irvette: EAP Pre-requisite teacher; interview; March 19, 2012 Tuesday)

Extract#4.35:

1. When you have a group of students where students are coming from much
2. broader disciplines, then you have to be more aware of the fact that you are
3. making generalizations and there will be exceptions and for me one of the
4. most important things is having a lot of, as much exposure to these
5. disciplines as possible, showing an interest and trying to elicit from students
6. what what these differences are, working with the students to establish what
7. the similarities and what the differences

(Heled: Generic In-Sessional EAP teacher; interview; March 20, 2012 Tuesday)

Extract#4.36:

1. So I'm always concerned with... are they fitting their target in terms of
2. writing a good mathematical problem in this case,

(Michael: Specialised EAP teacher; interview; March 13, 2012 Tuesday)

The concept of *what learners need* built the theme of the Institutionalised Self as well.

One Generic In-sessional EAP teacher stated, '*What learners expected and what they needed was different from each other*'; this may summarize the nature of this concept.

Within this group, teachers focused on macro- and micro-level issues.

Under the focus on macro issues, teachers frequently focused on the conventions of the target culture. Critical thinking and lack of formal style drew teachers' attention most of the time:

Extract#4.37:

1. ...and unsurprisingly critical thinking is an element that students find very
2. difficult. And often writing tends to be more descriptive than discuss,

(Heled: Generic In-Sessional EAP Teacher; interview; March 20, 2012 Tuesday)

In the above interview extract, in the Lines 1 and 2, the teacher explained that critical thinking aspect was an issue that learners found very difficult. The teacher evaluated this problem as the reason that led learners to produce descriptive essays (Line 2).

Teachers also focused on the communicative functions in writing. This problem was composed of issues such as: conveying messages clearly to readers, problems with topic sentences, establishing depth and breadth of the arguments, developing a suitable structure to answer the task questions and help the reader follow the text, and misinterpretation of the task question. The following extract illustrates this focus:

Extract#4.38:

1. I can I can follow narrative, I can follow kind of structure and direction of
2. the thinking of the person, if that seems to break down and I have to
3. (challenge) the person, the writer and say what do you mean so, why is
4. this clear, and or maybe I understand this from your reading, is this
5. correct, is my understanding correct,

(Michael: Specialised EAP teacher, interview; March 13, 2012 Tuesday)

In the Line 1 and Line 2 above, the Specialised EAP tutor indicated that he could understand the thinking of the writer. Then, the teacher added that he started asking questions to the writer if a problem with these listed elements occurred (Lines 2-4). The teacher indicated his attempt to urge the learners to clarify their intended meaning if any problems occurred (Line 3: *'what do you mean?'*), to validate the way of writing or structuring (Line 3-4: *'why is this clear'*), and to negotiate what was understood and what was intended (Lines 4-5: *'maybe I understand this from your reading, is this correct, is my understanding correct'*).

The inductively-developed concept of *what learners need* also indicates that teachers also focused on the micro aspects of writing. Interview analysis indicates that knowing the source of issues helped teachers fix the problems in a more effective way. One source of the issues is L1 as teachers stated that certain mistakes were dictated by the learners' L1. Moreover, teachers were aware of the fact that the existence of different L1s in the class would lead to an emergence of various types of mistakes. Teachers also mentioned that whether they knew learner's L1 or not would shape the extent to which they could help learners through feedback. Examples are shown below:

In the sample 4.39 below, the teacher indicated that since she knew the first language of some students, she was better able to diagnose the source of the problem (Lines 1-2). In Extract #4.40, the teacher stated that a relationship existed between certain types of mistakes and the learners' first language (Lines 1-2). Following this, the teacher explained that the existence of different L1s in the class led to a number of different kinds of mistakes (Lines 2-3).

Extract#4.39:

1. so sometimes for example with Spanish speakers because I speak Spanish
2. I can see where their mistakes are coming from because obviously I know
3. the first language and therefore it's obviously easy for me to explain the
4. problem.

(Irvette: Pre-requisite EAP teacher, interview; March 19, 2012 Monday)

Extract#4.40:

1. so it could be that certain mistakes of, or patterns of mistakes or types of
2. writing dictated by L1, so you may just find dealing with two, three four
3. ten twelve different kinds of mistakes at once.

(Michael: Specialised EAP teacher, interview; March 13, 2012 Tuesday)

A final concept that shaped teacher's decision-making processes was the *tension in teacher role perceptions*. Teachers indicated that students expected their tutors to know everything. Yet, teachers thought that they were not in a position to comment on everything. Some teachers explained that they made guesses or sometimes '*threw questions back to students*'. Teachers also reported that when learners understood that tutors could not know everything, they felt 'horrified', or thought that tutors were lazy. Finally, teachers reported learners' different perceptions of power distances with teachers. One sample is below:

Extract#4.41:

1. actually we don't know the answer sometimes, you know this question how
2. long should a research proposal, there isn't a fixed answer, and you throw
3. this question back at the students, some of them are horrified to see that you
4. don't know the answer and you are actually going to ask the students what
5. the answer is, and I think it's just different education system and what they
6. use, different perceptions of the tutor and perhaps and different perceptions
7. of probably power distances

(Heled: Generic In-sessional EAP teacher, Interview, March 20, 2012 Tuesday)

In the above extract, the teacher first explained that there were times when she/he could not know the answer to the students' question (Line 1). Then, the teacher expounded that questions such as asking about the length of a research proposal would not receive a certain answer (Line 2). Thus, the teacher asked the question to the students, which made them '*horrified to see that the teacher did not know the answer*' (Lines 3-5). In the end, the teacher stated that this situation might be due to learners' perceptions of tutors, perceptions of power distances, or their educational background (Lines 5-7), all of which, I believe, constituted of perceptions of the tutors by learners. The theme of the Institutionalised Self is also developed from learner interviews, where it seemed to be related to categories and concepts around the ideas of conforming to the norms and meeting demands. The categories of *learner motives* and *learners' efficacy* contributed to the development of learners' Institutionalised Self. To start with *learner motives*, it indicated learners' *feedback expectations* and the *existence of an external authority*. To begin with the feedback expectations, interview accounts indicated that one expectation of the learners in EAP classes was to receive non-mitigated feedback. The mitigation or lack of clarity in teachers' feedback, therefore, seemed to be causing students to feel misled by teacher feedback; this may

have also led to students having difficulties in understanding how to use this feedback. Thus, learners defined feedback they expected as *'clear, more critical, objective, honest, supported with examples and built from explicit and specific guidance'*. It is important to note that these accounts were reported usually about written feedback practices of teachers. I included this category here because whether there were similar issues in oral feedback practices commanded further investigation. Examples are below:

Extract#4.42:

1. not only it's good or not if it's bad, instead of it, they must clarify why it's
2. good or bad

(Ece: Pre-requisite EAP student interview; March 16, 2012 Friday)

Extract#4.43:

1. H: For me, for example, if I because I usually make mistakes in articles and
2. commas, so I prefer that the teacher says Okay, you shouldn't have the
3. comma here, this one maybe she, or cross maybe

(Huma: Specialised EAP student interview; March 15, 2012 Thursday)

In the sample by Ece from the Pre-requisite EAP class, she explained that she wanted the teacher to provide clarification instead of simply telling learners that their writing was good or bad (Lines 1-2). In the second extract by Huma from the Specialised EAP class, she was aware of her usual mistakes in her writing, which involved articles and commas (Lines 1-2). Huma later explained that since she usually made these mistakes in her writing, she expected the EAP tutor to tell her explicitly not to put a comma on a problematic point (Line 2). She also expected her tutor to cross the error (Line 3).

The *existence of an external authority* also shaped learners' motives in the feedback process. Learners referred to the existence of an external authority in several different ways. One referral was the reason to attend to EAP classes. It is understood that learners participated Generic In-sessional EAP classes as a result of encouragement from their departmental tutors.

Extract#4.44:

1. **Z:** And here what is the main reason for you to join the EAP support classes?
2. **M:** Because for me, it's not clear enough academic writing in UK //
3. **Z:** // Why?
4. **M:** Er..
5. **Z:** Why do you think so?
6. **M:** Because the tutor has been, for me, a bit threatening us.. yeah, talking
7. about plagiarism, and then talking about academic writing should be this and
8. that..

(Miriam: Generic In-sessional EAP student, interview, March 6, 2012 Tuesday)

In the above extract by a student attending a Generic In-sessional EAP class, I first asked about the reason for attending the EAP classes (Line 1). The learner stated the original reason was *'finding academic writing unclear in the UK'* (Line 2). When I tried to open up the learner's reason, the student revealed the influential factor in her decision: the departmental tutor's emphasis on plagiarism and conventions of academic writing was combined with the learner's difficulty in understanding academic writing (Lines 6-8). Here, it can be claimed that the learner's basic goal to meet the academic writing demands of the departmental tutor shaped how this learner would act in feedback practices in EAP classes.

In addition to the departmental tutor's encouragement to attend to EAP classes, there was also an EAP-sourced encouragement to regard the departmental tutor as the main authority.

Extract#4.45:

1. Some of the suggestions from EAP class and my tutor conflicts with each
 2. other. Therefore, Heled [EAP tutor] told me to follow my own tutor.
- (Cheryl: Generic In-sessional EAP student-Follow up Inquiry; April 12, 2012 Thursday)

The follow-up inquiry with Cheryl above shows how EAP tutors shaped learners' perception of authority. In Line 1, Cheryl explained that the suggestions of an EAP tutor and departmental tutor occasionally did not match. In Line 2, she revealed that her EAP tutor recommended following the departmental tutor in the case of conflicts. The existence of a departmental tutor as a significant factor in In-sessional EAP learners' attendance to EAP classes might also give them the chance to have different kinds of feedback. That is, some learners stated that their departmental tutors gave them more detailed feedback and relatively more on the content, which might shape their understanding of what kind of feedback the EAP tutor needed to offer.

Extract#4.46:

1. My tutors' comments are more detailed...I got many comments from Heled
 2. [EAP tutor] which is all about academic writing but the feedback from my
 3. tutor is more about the contents.
- (Cheryl: In-sessional EAP student, Follow-up Inquiry; April 12, 2012 Thursday)

In the above extract taken from a follow-up inquiry, the student indicated that she had received more detailed feedback from departmental tutor (Line 1). After this, she explained that the EAP tutor's comments had been more on academic writing while the departmental tutor's feedback had been more about the content (Lines 1-3). As I

stated earlier, I believe that this different focus in each tutor's feedback might determine learners' behaviours in feedback interactions.

Regarding external authority, it was also observed that learners distinguished between what they were expecting in their departments and in EAP classes. One student from Pre-requisite EAP class indicated this issue:

Extract#4.47:

1. most of my problem is most of the essays that I used to read in my field
 2. marketing 'um they even the official and most well-known authorities in
 3. marketing 'er they don't use such an high academic level
- (Kyoko: Pre-requisite EAP student, interview; February 20, 2012 Monday)

In this extract, Kyoko stressed that even the essays by most well-known authorities in her field, marketing, were not written in a highly-academic manner (Lines 1-3). Her awareness of this issue seemed to emerge as her major problem in the Pre-requisite classes. This learner account indicates that Kyoko measured to what extent the content of EAP support would benefit her in future writing. Thus, I believe that this distinguishing attitude of the student had an impact on what she expected and how she acted in the feedback dialogues.

Learners' efficacy is the second category contributing to the learners' Institutionalised Self. This category meant that how learners perceived themselves in relation to the English language had implications for the way they received feedback and made choices in the feedback dialogues. The interview analysis indicated that being second language learner constructed this category.

Being second language learner indicated that learners' speaking English as a second language influenced how they evaluated themselves in terms of their skills and needs. It was frequently seen in learners' accounts that learners related being unable to write well with being second language learners. For learners, being a second language

learner meant being less equipped to meet demands, which ultimately required more effort from them. They reported thinking in their native languages most of the time. Likewise, learners emphasised that their native languages interfered with their English language use in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation. This situation eventually brought feeling ‘obstacled’ in using English and academic writing specifically. Moreover, it created a situation where learners automatically downgraded themselves in the target context. That is, that they were second language learners influenced their position in reference to the teacher: they stated that their tutor knew the language better either because teachers were native speaker or they held a professional qualification.

Extract#4.48:

2. you know I am not a native English people, so maybe I can't write so good,
3. and so academic

(Cheryl: Generic In-sessional EAP student, Interview; March 6, 2012 Tuesday)

Extract#4.49:

1. and then here because I know that I'm just second language learner, so I know
2. that they know better than me so I don't really argue with them

(Seila: Specialised In-sessional EAP student, Interview; March 15 Thursday)

In the extract 4.48, Cheryl explained that she was not a native speaker English (Line 1). Following this, she indicated being a non-native English speaker as the underlying reason for being unable to write well and academic enough (Line 1). In the second extract by Seila, a similar situation arose, where she emphasised that in her current context she was a second language learner (Line1). Later it was observed that her being a second language learner led to an acceptance of teachers in the target context as

'knowing better than the student' (Line 2). Finally, Seila stated that since she knew that tutors knew better, she did not attempt to have any arguments with them (Line 2).

Theme 2: Critical Awareness of Academic Writing

When learners' statements on the academic writing are reviewed, the existence of a reinforced cautiousness among learners towards academic writing was noticed. They were aware of the variations within the academic context, they adjusted themselves to the specific situations, and yet they still critiqued the way feedback practices on writing were conducted. Their criticism questioned the academic conventions in their home and target contexts. Before providing examples, it is noteworthy to state that it was unclear if this possible consequence either emerged through these relationship patterns in feedback interactions or improved through the process of participating EAP classes. Therefore, it is possible that students already had this feature with them when they engaged in feedback interactions.

Two categories shaped the theme of critical awareness of academic writing, which were *contemplation* and *pro-activity*.

Contemplation meant a student's increased consideration and attention to an issue. The interview analysis of learners showed that learners exhibited the contemplation through displaying an increased awareness of their previous context and understanding of target context.

An increased awareness of previous culture indicated that learners, probably partly through their experiences with feedback, developed an understanding of writing traditions in their previous contexts. One way learners described their previous writing context was through the definition of requirements as more flexible. Learners reported that their previous contexts did not encourage them to give self-opinions in their writing. Moreover, they also found the required level of thinking for previous writing

contexts to be less demanding. That is, they explained that they were expected to generate more creative writing, which was not highly evidence-based and was less formal. An additional issue was that of the standards, students reported that rules for academic writing were easier to grasp in their home contexts.

Another issue learners described was the level of autonomy they were able to display in their previous contexts. In that sense, they defined home country writing as more teacher-dependent and controlled.

Finally, it was seen that learners also correlated the way they learnt and used English with their current struggles. This was because they explained that their focus was always on grammar. In addition, they defined their previous purpose for using language as '*more communication-oriented*' as in oral communication, rather than formal and academic as in writing.

Extract#4.50:

1. ... this requirement is not that strictly forward in my country (X) for
 2. example, mostly you just need to refer to some people who has seriously
 3. considered the topic but you don't have to use quotations like this, the idea
 4. that when you are undergraduate, you should have at least one quotation
 5. in each paragraph, when you postgraduate, you should have at least three,
- (Havel: Generic In-sessional EAP student, Interview; March 16, 2012 Friday)

In the above extract, Havel stated that some requirements in his home country are not as strict as they are in England (Line 1). To give an example, he explained that the citation requirement was usually oriented towards the mostly renowned people in his home country (Lines 2-3). Finally, he stated that there were some differences between the expected amount of the undergraduate and postgraduate learners' quotations in writing in their home country (Lines 3-5), yet he still underlined that he found the usage of quotations in the UK different (Line 3).

Understanding of target culture indicated how learners approached the academic writing in the sense of the target discourse. Under this concept, learners reported their understanding of how academic writing was conducted, while simultaneously critiquing the target context's writing traditions.

Regarding the understanding of how academic writing was conducted, it was revealed that learners developed a comprehensive approach where macro aspects of writing, as well as micro aspects, gained significance. While describing the criteria for academic writing, they listed not only grammar but also issues such as clarity, appropriateness, organisation of arguments, and use of vocabulary. Below are examples:

Extract#4.51:

1. Academic for me is a way of putting things or explaining things more clearly
(Lewis: Generic In-sessional EAP student, Interview, February 21, 2012, Tuesday)

Extract#4.52:

1. C: 'Uh firstly, 'er I look language,(...) Language, 'er register formal or
2. informal, it's important and academic writing must be in, formal not
3. informal

(Zekiye: Pre-requisite EAP student, Interview; March 7, 2012, Wednesday)

Extract#4.53:

1. I mean someone, in my opinion, someone shouldn't write for for themselves,
2. should write for other people, so it must be clear to everyone
(Himmet: Pre-requisite EAP Student, Interview; March 8, 2012, Thursday)

Additionally, learners also displayed a critical attitude towards target context writing traditions. They frequently stated that they found academic writing '*oppressive, ritualised, and difficult to change*'.

Extract#4.54:

1. Yeah here it's the rules very strict, like yeah yeah of course every point if you
2. put brackets or you didn't, if you make it italic or you don't oh so many
3. confusing points

(Kseniya: Generic In-sessional EAP student, Interview, March 6, 2012, Tuesday)

Extract#4.55:

1. Well I say, writing an essay in English environment is very ritualized in a way
2. and there are many things that when you when you fulfil the requirements,
3. they are not stated anywhere, they are like un-informed requirements

(Havel: Generic In-sessional EAP student, Interview, March 16, 2012, Friday)

The category of *pro-activity* meant the initiation of various actions by learners following their increased awareness of previous and target context writing. Within this section, it is clear that learners developed various strategies to meet the requirements of the target culture writing. These strategies may be listed as *using monolingual dictionary, using synonyms, developing lists of academic synonymous word list, discussing teacher feedback with teachers or peers to understand better, and avoiding 'thinking in first language and translation'*. Moreover, they also used academic articles in their field as a guide for the structure of writing. Finally, learners also used various online resources to revise their writing and learn writing strategies.

Extract#4.56:

1. White, W-h-i-t-e-b- and o and, yes, that's right, I think it's very useful also
2. even though I have to pay for it, but 'um if you enter once your assignment
3. in, there are, kind of like, a check, grammar, grammatically, vocabulary
4. formal vocabulary and informal, which one you choose could it be better and
5. it also offers a lot of (strategies) you can use

(Cheryl: Generic In-session EAP student, Interview, March 6, 2012, Tuesday)

In the sample above, Cheryl stated that she used software named Whiteboard, which she found very useful (Line 1). She also explained that the tool had functions to check grammaticality and formality of writing and provide options (Lines 2-3). Finally, she added that the tool offered a variety of strategies to use in writing (Line 4).

4.5. Summary

In this chapter, I first detailed the analytic tradition I followed while analysing the data. Following this, I provided brief information about GT to inform the reader of its basic features. In the third section, data analysis tools I utilized in the analysis procedure were introduced and underlying reasons to use these tools were explained. Then, I detailed the open coding stage of GT to show examples from the analysis procedure. In my study, this stage included open coding, semi-selective coding, and an initial attempt at theoretical coding. Finally, I presented a detailed explanation of the initial themes, categories and concepts that have emerged.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS of the FOCUSED DATA: SELECTIVE CODING PROCEDURES & FINDINGS

This section can be outlined under five main headings. In the first section, I describe the selective coding tradition in Grounded Theory (GT). The second section details the tools I used in selective coding with underlying reasons. The third part presents the selective coding stages of the focused data collection. Finally, after I explain and discuss the findings that emerged through selective coding, I give a summary of the chapter.

5.1. Selective Coding in Grounded Theory

Glaser (1978) explains that selective coding starts when the researcher reaches a core variable. This stage is maintained in a more ‘directive’ way than the bottom-up analysis conducted in the open coding stage (Charmaz, 2006). The new data is coded in a limited way for revealing variables adding to the core themes to reach the theory (Glaser, 1978).

The starting point of the selective coding may arise as a confusing issue. Glaser (1978) adds that when to start selective coding is a difficult question. However, since it is difficult to handle the entirety of the data through open coding along the whole process, “delimiting the theory to one core variable is often wise” (Glaser, 1978, p.61). That way would also enable the researcher to “demote possible other core variables to a role subservient to the variable under focus” (*ibid.*).

Selective coding was conducted in a smoother way than the open coding. The reasons I have for this situation are also listed by Hoda (2011): One reason is that I was more

familiar with the Constant Comparison Method in the selective coding stage. Secondly, I was more comfortable with the procedure of GT. Finally, coding for only categories and concepts, which were generated earlier and for those variables that can relate to the theme, was an easier task.

My use of selective coding meant that only relevant aspects of the data from the focused data-collection phase were selected. This was to ensure that “the core themes which were already developed in the open coding stage were mature enough and the categories under it were wide enough to encompass all relevant aspects of phenomena” (Jones & Alony, 2011, p.107). I coded the new data in “the emerging process to look for concepts that would fill the gaps” (*ibid.*).

5.2. Analysis Tools

As in the initial data analysis stage, I followed a similar route where I benefited from manual and computer-aided qualitative data analysis. Please see Section 4.2 in Chapter 4 for further details about the background information on the analysis tools.

5.3. Analysing the Data Selectively: Stages of Analysis

In the selective coding stage, the researcher analyses new data selectively for only those variables relating to the core theme. As in the open coding stage, I used two different data sources in this stage. These data were field notes and teacher-student interviews. In the table below, I explain how both data sets were used. After showing the way the data sets were utilized in the selective coding stage, the selective coding stages are to be detailed in the following subsections. A full explanation of all labels will not, however, be given. This will be attended to in Section 5.4.

Stage of Coding	Type of Data
Selective Coding	Central Data Set: Classroom Observations (field notes) from Focused Data Collection for the categories/themes which emerged from the open coding of the field notes from initial data collection
Selective Coding	Supporting Data Set: Interviews from Focused Data Collection for the categories/themes which emerged from the earlier semi-selective coding of the interviews from the initial data collection. The difference between the semi-selective coding of interviews in the open coding stage (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.2) and the current selective coding of interviews is that this selective coding is more refined and oriented to finding certain sets of variables.

Table 5.1. Types of data to be analysed in each stage of selective coding

5.3.1. Selective Coding of Field Notes

Since the core theme and categories were already developed at the end of the open coding stage, I coded only for those categories and themes in the selective coding stage of field notes. The selective coding of field notes continued until finding new concepts to construct categories under each theme stopped. Moreover, no new categories within the themes were also developed, which showed that the data reached the point of ‘saturation’.

Selective coding of field notes supported the below codes and categories, which I already had at the end of the open coding stage. I will explain those concepts and categories in Subsection 5.4.1. Please note that I introduced the new labels of *diagnosis* and *adducing* and the *subordinated relationship* in the below table (which are underlined). *Diagnosis* is the action I originally showed as *auscultation*, and *adducing* is the *learner pretension* that I showed in the open coding stage. As for *subordinated relationship*, it is the new label for *concessional relationship*. I changed the labels of *auscultation*, *learner pretension* and *concessional relationship* as I believed that the new labels demonstrated the intended meaning more clearly. Likewise, several comments I received at the end of open coding urged me to revise and seek new labels to better explain the content.

Theme: Relationship Patterns

- D. Collaborative Relationship
 - 3. Teacher Actions
 - Warning
 - Diagnosis
 - Suggestion
 - Stimulation
 - 4. Learner Actions
 - Clarification
 - Challenge
 - Suggestion
 - Initiation
 - Surmise
 - Confirmation
- E. Subordinated Relationship
 - Teacher Deferral
 - Learner Adducing
- F. Normative Relationship
 - 1. Teacher Actions
 - Arbitership (Rectification and Induction)
 - 2. Learner Actions
 - Withdrawal
 - Conforming

Table 5.2. Findings from selective coding of field notes in the focused data

5.3.2. Selective Coding of Interviews

It is necessary to emphasise the fact that the use of interviews in this stage meant inserting new interviews from focused data collection into the analysis procedure. Then, I analysed for only the categories that I had already reached at the end of the semi selective coding of interviews in the open coding stage. Thus, different from the way interviews were treated in open coding stage, I did not follow an inductive, bottom-up way of analysis with the interviews.

As in the open coding stage, I coded for the excerpt labels that would build the existing concepts, categories, and themes. However, I also tried to be open to possible new ideas that could be related to the core themes. A review was also made for the excerpt coding labels from new interviews that could possibly lead to the new concepts, which could be related to the existing categories and themes. As in the open coding stage, I followed Strauss and Corbin's method (2008, p.163): I used "natural breaks in the

manuscript as cutting off points, and usually these breaks denoted a change in the topic, but not always”.

The table below presents the list of the concepts that were generated at the end of the selective coding stage of interviews. Readers may observe that new concepts (underlined) also appear on this table. This is because I was also open to finding data that could add to the existing categories and themes.

<p>Concepts for learner interviews:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">g. Being a second language learnerh. <u>Self-reinforcement</u>i. <u>Teachers’ attitude</u>j. Critical and realistic feedbackk. <u>Expected teacher attitude in feedback interactions</u>l. Learners’ awareness of an external authoritym. Understanding of target culturen. Understanding of previous cultureo. <u>Understanding of self-writing</u>p. Developing strategies <p>Concepts for teacher interviews:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">d. External authoritye. Tension in teacher role perceptionsf. What learners need
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5.3. Concepts from selective coding analysis of teacher and student interviews

After reaching a decision about the above concepts, using GT’s Constant Comparison Method, I revised the concepts and compared them against each other through various questions to see whether they would be related to each other in the same way as I earlier did. I also continued to keep memos. In the end, I categorized those concepts with the new concepts, as shown in Table 5.4, and grouped under the theme *Institutional Self* as it appeared differently for teachers and students. It is worth noting that the Institutionalised Self in open coding was changed into *Institutional Self*. Also, please note that learners’ *self-efficacy* was broadened by including *self-reinforcement* and *teachers’ attitude* in selective coding. Likewise, I changed the label of *learners’*

motive into *learners' motivators*, as it better displayed the content from the data. Finally, this category was also expanded by the new concept *expected teacher attitude in feedback interactions* while also being more specific with learners' feedback expectations as *critical and realistic feedback*.

<p>A. Theme1: Learners' Institutional Self: Conforming to the norms</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Learners' self-efficacy <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1. Being a second language learner 1.2. <u>Self-reinforcement</u> 1.3. <u>Teachers' Attitude</u> 2. <u>Learners' Motivators</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1. <u>Critical and realistic feedback</u> 2.2. <u>Expected teacher attitude in feedback interactions</u> 2.3. Learners' Awareness of an External Authority <p>B. Theme 2: Teachers' Institutional Self: Balancing the competing agendas</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Decision making in feedback provision <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3.1. Existence of an external authority 3.2. What learners need 3.3. Tension in teachers' role perceptions <p>C. Theme 3: Critical Awareness of Academic Writing</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Contemplation <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4.1. Understanding of target culture 4.2. Understanding of previous culture 4.3. Understanding of self-writing 5. Pro-activity <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5.1. Developing strategies

Table 5.4. Themes and categories from selective coding of teacher and student interviews

5.4. Defining and Explaining the Themes, Categories and Concepts from Selective Coding

5.4.1. Field Notes: Emerging Themes, Categories and Concepts

In the selective coding stage, more supporting evidence for the *relationship patterns in classroom feedback* was sought. The analysis supported the earlier finding that there were three major ways of positioning between teachers and students in classroom feedback talks on students' EAP writing. These relationship categories are, as open coding generated, collaborative, subordinated (which was labelled as 'concessional' in the open coding stage) and normative relationship. Chapter 4, Subsection 4.4.1. displays the descriptions of those relationship patterns.

Deployed Actions in Relationship Patterns

Teacher and students' actions associated with each relationship type, as selective coding labels were refined, are detailed below.

Collaborative Relationship Actions

Selective coding supported that teachers utilized the actions of '*warning, diagnosis, suggestion, and stimulation*' in the collaborative relationship.

With regard to *warning*, the teachers generally indicated that what students did in the writing was problematic. *Warning* was one of the most-frequently utilized teacher actions within Collaborative relationship. Teachers warned students about a variety of writing-related issues including grammar-related problems, word selections, meaning problems, meeting the task requirements, paragraphing and organization, clarity of sentences and repetition problems. As in the open coding stage, *warning* emerged either as 'other initiated' or 'teacher initiated'. In *other-initiated warning*, learners drew the attention to a specific aspect of writing. Thus, the teacher gave an opinion on that aspect. When the action was a teacher-initiated *warning*, the teachers spotted an issue in learners' writing while giving feedback, and explained the possible problems. In selective coding, teacher-initiated *warning* occurred more frequently than the other-initiated *warning*, which was a situation I encountered in open coding as well. The following examples may better show this teacher action.

Extract#5.1:

(The student is showing her assignment draft from her department to the teacher. During the talk, she indicates a particular part in her writing):

1. **Student:** [...] Could you look at this part maybe?
2. **Steen:** Okay, uh-huh, I mean the only thing I could see in that really that
3. you've got quite a lot of repetition of the subject really. RBV, RBV, RBV,
4. RBV, so you are a bit repetitive in that.

(Steen, Generic In-sessional EAP teacher, field notes, February 8, 2012 Friday)

Extract#5.2:

One student said there wasn't any publishing information on an article she wanted to use in her assignment. Heled said to the student that she had to find out where the source was coming from. Otherwise, she couldn't know the quality of it or if it was credible.

(Heled: Generic In-sessional EAP teacher, field notes, November 5, 2012 Monday)

In Extract #5.1, we see an example of other-initiated warning action. In this extract, the student first set the boundaries of the conversation by showing a particular part in her assignment draft: In Line 1, she asked the teacher '*Could you look at this part maybe?*'. The teacher, Steen, in turn warned the student that the problem she had in this particular part was the repetitive use of subject 'RBV' (Lines 2-4). Note that since the *warning* action was initiated by the learner, it might be assumed that this action might be coupled with the collaborative learner action *initiation*, which I shall explain while detailing learners' actions in collaborative relationship.

In the second extract above, which is an example of student-initiated *warning* action, the student initiated the feedback talk by explaining that she was not able to find publishing information about an article she wanted to use in her assignment. Following this, the teacher warned the student that she had to show the publishing information, which otherwise might have led to questions about the quality and credibility of this source.

Extract#5.3:

(In this class, the teacher has initially brought an article belonging to students' disciplines, and asked them to take notes on this article. After note-taking, the teacher asked students to write a summary of the article using these notes. While students were writing, the teacher was checking whether they needed any help and commenting on what learners wrote. In the below extract, the teacher is commenting on what one masters student wrote):

Michael: [...] I'm just worried over this. (reads the sentence) When I was reading this, when you are reading it quickly there is an ambiguity there.

(Michael: Specialised EAP-Law teacher, field note, January 23, 2013 Wednesday)

In the above sample, the teacher was checking students' summaries of an article they read in the class. The article they read was a disciplinary article the teacher reached through learners' department. In this specific moment, the teacher was reading one Master's student's summary. He commented that one sentence was ambiguous. Note that this time, the *warning* was initiated immediately by the teacher.

The second teacher action in collaboration is *diagnosis*. Please note that this action was labelled as *auscultation* in the open coding stage, but I changed the label into *diagnosis* to better define the action. Together with *warning*, *diagnosis* was also one of the primary teacher actions, these were the most frequently used actions within collaborative relationship pattern. As I described earlier in the open coding stage in Chapter 4, Subsection 4.4.1., this action refers to the teachers' attempts to understand the intended meanings and rationales for ways of writing or using certain structures or words to express ideas. More specifically, as in the open coding stage, this action enabled teachers to learn more about the task/assignment requirements, sources, ways of writing, and meaning. Also, the teachers checked if their suggestions and/or feedback satisfied the students' needs. An understanding of these issues helped the teachers better understand the learners' needs and shape the feedback within these terms.

Diagnosis emerged both in statement and question form, yet mostly in question form in the selective coding. Moreover, these teachers attempted to understand the macro aspects of writing such as the task requirements, idea, and paragraph development (e.g. clarity and relevance of ideas, coherence, and organisation). These are shown in the examples below.

Extract#5.4:

One student showed his essay draft to Heled. Heled wanted to see the task question. She said she can't give feedback without understanding the task questions. Heled said 'Can you highlight it (the task questions) for me?'

(Heled: Generic In-sessional teacher, field note, November 19, 2012 Monday)

Extract#5.5:

(The student is showing his essay draft from his department to the teacher. While checking what the learner has written, the teacher wants to learn more about a paragraph):

Michael: What are you doing in this paragraph?

(Michael: the teacher; Specialised EAP-Law field note; October 29, 2012 Monday)

In the first sample above, at the beginning of the class, one student showed his assignment draft to the EAP tutor. However, the EAP tutor first asked the student to produce the task brief and highlight task questions in this brief. While doing so, the tutor explicated that she could not provide feedback without first understanding task questions. This action of the teacher, I believe, allowed her to better understand how to approach the learner's writing, better evaluate the learner's understanding of the task as represented in the draft, and see the needs in terms of responding to the task brief. All these would help the teacher establish a more concrete ground to base her feedback on.

In the extract 5.5, the teacher focused on one paragraph in the essay draft and required further information about the student's purposes. It is worth noting that subsequent actions of the teacher after receiving the student's response revealed that the teacher was trying to understand the relevance to an earlier paragraph by asking this question. In *diagnosis*, the teachers also focused on micro aspects of the writing by questioning sentence-level issues (e.g., clarity of the sentence, grammaticality, word choice) in the writing. In the examples below taken from Generic In-session and Pre-requisite classes, the teachers focused on the micro aspects of the writing.

Extract#5.6:

(So far, the teacher and a student are looking at an essay draft the student has brought from her department. While reading a sentence, the teacher asks the following question about a term):

Steen: Institutional theory, what do you mean by that?

(Steen: Generic In-session EAP teacher, field note, February 8, 2013 Friday)

In the sample above, the teacher questioned the use of the term 'institutional theory' while giving feedback on the learner's departmental assignment draft. This action of the teacher also indicates that the teacher was trying to understand whether the learner needed to clarify, define or use a better expression instead of 'institutional theory'. Thus, the teacher wanted to understand the specific sentence and the term before deciding how to respond or advice.

Extract#5.7:

(In this class, students are asked to talk in pairs about an essay they wrote and received feedback earlier. Meanwhile, the teacher is visiting students' desk and answering students' questions or having further conversation about the essay. In this sample, the teacher indicates a sentence and asks the student the following question):

Amy: Do you mean the age or number of people?

(Amy: Pre-requisite EAP teacher, field note, February 13, 2013 Wednesday)

In Extract #5.7, the teacher seemed confused about what the learner wrote in a sentence in his essay. Thus, she questioned the intended meaning, in order to have a better understanding about the sentence before deciding how to provide feedback on it.

Extract#5.8:

(While other students are working on another task, the teacher is checking the essay draft by one student. At one point, the teacher focuses on the use of 'Nevertheless' and makes the below comment):

Michael told the student that 'Ahh, you say nevertheless. I don't know why you say Nevertheless here'.

(Michael: the teacher; Specialised EAP, field note; October 29, 2012 Monday)

In Extract #5.8, the teacher used *diagnosis* in the form of statement. Yet, I believe that this statement bears an indirect question. That is, the teacher requested a clarification about the reasons for using 'nevertheless' at a particular point in the writing.

Selective coding provided more evidence for *suggestion* as well. The teachers utilized this action to inform learners about other available options. Compared to *diagnosis*

and *warning, suggestion* was a secondary teacher action during selective coding.

Examples are listed below:

Extract#5.9:

(The teacher is talking to a student about his essay draft at the beginning of the class. After the student mentions his problem with writing a title for his essay, the teacher makes the below suggestion):

Heled: Look at journal articles and PhD thesis. Look at wording.

(Heled: Generic In-sessional EAP teacher, field note; October 29, 2012 Monday)

Extract#5.10:

(The teacher is reading the thesis proposal by one master's student. Being told by the student about the difficulty of writing very concise research questions, the teacher makes the below suggestion):

Steen: One strategy is to have a main Question. Then, a sub-question.

(Steen: Generic In-sessional EAP teacher, audio recording; February 15, 2012 Friday)

Extract#5.11:

(The teacher is checking the essay draft, which was written by one learner for a disciplinary assignment. While reading the draft, the teacher gets confused by a sentence and asks the learner about what she wanted to mean by that sentence. After understanding what was meant, the teacher makes the following suggestion):

Michael: You can talk about anonymity,

(Michael: the teacher, Specialised EAP-Law field notes; November 13, 2012 Tuesday)

In the above extracts, *suggestion* is exemplified. In Extract# 5.9, the teacher made a suggestion to the learner who was experiencing difficulty with writing a title for his essay. In the following extract, the teacher again recommended dividing research questions into main questions and sub-question to be able to increase the specificity. In the last sample, the teacher, understanding what the learner wanted to explain with an earlier sentence, suggested that the learner talk about anonymity to make the intended meaning clearer.

The final collaborative action for teachers is *stimulation*. Through this action, the teachers invited students to talk about what they wrote, these probes represent areas which the teachers possibly perceived as problematic. The teachers, through questions, directed the attention of the students on a particular issue about writing while simultaneously inviting the learners to take action and talk more about the selected issue. Before giving details, it is worth noting that this action was also a secondary action, which was not as frequent as *diagnosis* and *warning* were. Below are some examples:

Extract#5.12:

(The teacher is talking to one student about her essay draft. Right after skimming through the essay, the teacher asks the below question to the student):

Heled: Do you think you've been consistent?

(Heled: Generic In-sessional EAP teacher, field notes, November 5, 2012
Monday)

Extract#5.13:

(The teacher is checking learners' writing for an in-class writing task where they were asked to write about the constitution of their countries using defining and non-defining relative clauses. After reading through one's learner writing, the teacher makes the following comment):

Michael: If you must choose from those 3, where would you put the comma? I'm thinking myself. It's quite difficult.

(Michael: Specialised EAP-Law teacher, field notes, November 12, 2012
Monday)

In the first example, the teacher asked the student about his opinion of the consistency in his essay draft. As for the second sample, the teacher focused on the use of relative clauses in a student's writing, and asked her opinions of where to place commas in a sentence. Following this, the teacher revealed that it was confusing for him as well. In the first sample, the teacher used *stimulation* about macro aspects of writing while

focusing on a local issue in the second sample. Through *stimulation*, I believe that the teachers presented an invitation to the learners to share their ideas about the indicated aspects. The teachers, in my view, did not have a certain answer to the questions they posed. Rather, they initiated a discussion where the students were asked to contribute and find solutions as well.

As the open coding did, selective coding also supported that there were various actions utilized by learners in Collaborative relationship. The actions learners used in collaborative relationship were *clarification*, *challenge*, *suggestion*, *surmise*, *confirmation*, and *initiation*. Of these actions, students mostly utilized *initiation* and *clarification*.

Selective coding supported that learners used *clarification* to explain what they meant in their writing with their usages or to explain their rationales for using certain structures. They also utilized this action to give information about the task brief, to give information about the content of what they had written, and to share their plans about the writing. I present an example below:

Extract#5.14:

(In this example, the teacher is reading the essay draft of a student. At one point, the teacher wants to learn more about one part in the draft:)

Heled: So this means?

Student: This is technology and it develops communication. Telephone and mobile phone..

Heled: Since when they've had impact?

Student: Since 1970s and then after that people realized a lot of benefits of it.

(Heled: the teacher, Generic In-Sessional EAP field notes, November 20, 2012, Monday)

In the example above, the teacher was reading the essay draft of a student. At one particular part, the teacher had difficulty in understanding the sentence and asked what it meant by saying, '*So this means?*'. The student, in turn, attempted to give further

information about this part, thus clarifying, *'This is technology and it develops communication. Telephone and mobile phone.'* The teacher again asked about how long the technology the student mentioned had been influential. Following this, the student clarified by saying, *'Since 1970 and then after that people realized a lot of benefits of it'*.

Extract#5.15:

(The students are answering the essay questions the teacher gave them in the class. The teacher is checking their writing. While reading what Marie has written, the teacher asks the below question, to which the student responds with a clarification action):

Michael: Do you mean confidence in system or understanding?

Marie: The system is very difficult to understand. People think they can't trust the system.

(Michael: the teacher, Marie: the student; Specialised EAP-Law, field notes, November 20, 2012, Monday)

In the above extract, Extract #5.15, the teacher was checking Marie's response to the questions he had given the students at the beginning of the class. Meanwhile, the teacher could not understand a sentence, thus he asked whether Marie meant *'confidence in system or understanding?'* Following this, Marie clarified and explained that *'the system is very difficult to understand'* and *'people think they can't trust the system'*. This reveals that she meant both confidence and understanding through what she had written.

Selective coding provided more samples for *challenge* as well. Through this type of action, students displayed a level of disagreement with the teacher. As in open coding, students challenged teachers by both revealing the underlying reasons for the problems

they had in their writing, and by bringing a counter-argument to what the teacher told them. Examples are shown below:

Extract#5.16:

(While the teacher is reading an assignment draft of the learner, he indicates a problem with the research questions and makes a comment about it. The following conversation emerges):

Steen: You phrase the research questions as an indirect question. [...] The language research questions are formulated (as) direct questions. So often when I look at research questions, I often change the words.

Student: It's still very hard. Because our professor is pushing us to be very specific.

(Steen: Generic In-sessional EAP the teacher, audio recording; February 5, 2013 Friday)

In this sample, the teacher first warned the student about the indirect formulae she used while writing research questions by saying, '*You phrase the research questions as an indirect question...*'. Following this, the teacher informed the learner that research questions are structured as direct questions, which was an issue often leading him to change the wording in learners' essay. Yet, the student challenged the teacher by first implying that a change of wording was still not very helpful. Later, she revealed the broader problem which made the student overly anxious about writing research questions: '*Because our professor is pushing us to be very specific.*'.

Extract#5.17:

(The student is showing his essay draft to the teacher. The student is a bit concerned about the word limit of his essay, thus asks the teacher how he could shorten the essay. The following conversation emerges):

Teacher told the student ‘you might want to cut some of the descriptions’. The student (seeming a bit unpersuaded) in response told the teacher ‘Yeah... because I don’t have that many’.

(Michael: Specialised EAP-Law teacher, field note; October 29, 2012 Monday)

In this example, the teacher initially indicated that cutting some of the descriptions would help to solve the word-limit concerns: ‘*You might want to cut some of the descriptions.*’. Yet, the student brought a counterargument to this feedback by saying that he did not have many descriptions. It is worth noting that the student did not explicitly tell the teacher that the feedback did not solve the problem. Instead, the student said ‘*Yeah*’, which may be functioning to show that the student saw the teacher’s suggestion as potentially a good suggestion. However, the student immediately said, ‘*because I don’t have that many*’, which may show that there was a hidden challenge to the teacher’s suggestion. Also, the learners’ facial expressions cued the learner’s hesitance to accept the teacher’s suggestion.

Suggestion actions were supported by selective coding as one of the collaborative learner actions. This action meant that learners offered ways of improving the text in the feedback talk. The following extracts illustrate this point:

Extract#5.18:

(The teacher is checking what students has written about the constitutions of their home countries by using relative clauses. While reading Kerim’s paragraph, the following dialogue emerges with the displayed student suggestion):

Michael: That’s excellent. I don’t like *the way*. It’s vague.

Kerim: means?

(Michael: the teacher, Kerim: the student; Specialised EAP-Law, field note; November 12, 2012 Monday)

Extract#5.19:

(The teacher is checking a departmental assignment draft of a student while other students are working on another task the teacher assigned. While reading students' work, the teacher indicates a problematic word and tries to find a better English word. The following dialogue takes place):

Michael: That seems like a French word. I can't give you a.. (French word) is a French word.

Chloe: social particularities?

(Michael: the teacher, Chloe: the student; Specialised EAP-Law, field note; December 4, 2012/Tuesday)

In Extract #5.18, the teacher first told the student that what he wrote was excellent. Following this, the teacher indicated the problem with the use of 'the way' since he found this expression vague, and explained, '*I don't like the way. It's vague.*'. The student, then, offered the word 'means' instead of 'the way'. In Extract#5.19, the teacher spotted a problematic word usage in Chloe's writing and explained that what she had written was a French expression. While the teacher was trying to find a better word to use, Chloe suggested 'social particularities'.

Another collaborative learner action is *initiation*. In this action, as I explained in the open coding stage, the students started the interaction with the teacher. Moreover, the agenda of the interaction was set by the learners. The examples below clarify this:

Extract#5.20:

At the beginning of the class, the teacher is giving feedback on a learner's writing. At one point, the student tells that he is confused about what title to use.

(Heled, Generic In-sessional EAP; field note; 29 October, 2012 Monday)

Extract#5.21:

(While the teacher is giving feedback on the essay draft for a departmental assignment, the teacher shows a part and asks the teacher below question):

Sally: Do you understand what I mean here?

(Sally: the student; Specialised EAP-Law, audio recording; January 15, 2013 Monday)

In Extract 5.20, while the teacher was providing feedback on a learner's essay, the student revealed his confusion with writing a title for his essay, thus determining the flow of the feedback talk. In the Extract#5.21, Sally, the student, referenced a particular paragraph of her essay and asked the teacher whether it was clear.

Selective coding provided more samples for the action *surmise* as well. Through this action, learners draw wider implications from the teacher's feedback:

Extract#5.22:

(While the teacher is providing feedback on the essay draft of Sally, he asks the student what she means in a particular part of the essay draft. Then, the student makes the following surmise):

Steen: Yeah sometimes it's here because here is getting a bit technical. What do you mean here?

Sally: I need to clarify it maybe.

(Steen: the teacher, Sally: the student; Generic In-sessional EAP, field note; February 8, 2013 Friday)

In this example, while reading the draft of the student, the teacher focused on one sentence and first told the student that the sentence was technical. Following this, the teacher asked what was meant in this sentence. As a response, the learner commented '*I need to clarify maybe.*'. The learner's comment shows that she was able to understand the underlying issue with the sentence, thus making a wider comment.

Selective coding provided further evidence on the final action of the learners, *confirmation*, through which students verified the value and contribution of the teacher's feedback as in:

Extract#5.23:

(The teacher is reading the writing by one learner. At one point, the teacher selects a sentence and suggests a change on the construction of the sentence):

Irvette: And instead of saying 'they often say', why don't we make a passive here?

Halid: More academic.

(Irvette: the teacher; Halid: the student, Pre-requisite EAP, field note; November 19, 2012 Monday)

In this sample, the teacher first asked the student whether it would be better to construct the sentence as a passive. Upon this teacher suggestion, Halid commented that it would make the sentence more academic.

Subordinated Relationship Actions

This relationship type, which I had defined as *concessional relationship* in the open coding stage, emerged during selective coding as well. I changed the label into *subordinated* to be better able to show the relationship from both the EAP teachers' and students' perspectives. This change was also due to the fact that the term *concessional* referred only to the teachers' act of conceding. I found the label *subordinated relationship* more successful in showing the submission to an authority better. This relationship type consists of teacher and learner actions.

As in the open coding stage, selective coding also provided further samples for the teacher *deferral* action. *Deferral* indicated the existence of a controlling element over teacher feedback. When the teachers deployed this action, they mostly shaped their

feedback by referring to an external authority that might be the ultimate determiner.

The following extracts clarify this:

Extract#5.24:

The teacher repeated the student's question 'Is there any language I might use? if I write any language?'. Then, the teacher told 'That is fixed language for your subject'.

(Heled: the teacher; Generic In-sessional EAP; field note; 29 October, 2012 Monday)

Extract#5.25:

Freca asked about referencing in her paper. Michael said 'I'm not sure about referencing. I think it's on the website. This (meaning guiding students about referencing) belongs to your department'.

(Michael: the teacher; Freca: the student; Specialised EAP-Law, field note; 23 January 2013/Wednesday)

In the first example above, the teacher was trying to help with the language the student could use in his essay. While repeating the student's question, the teacher came to the conclusion that the language the student needed to use was fixed for his department and discipline. Here, the teacher directed the student to his department to find the answer to this question. In the second sample, one student asked about referencing in her paper. In response to this question, the teacher revealed his uncertainty about referencing in the domain of law. Then, the teacher indicated that the student could find the answer on a website. Finally, the teacher explained that providing guidance to students about referencing conventions in academic writing was each department's responsibility.

Learners utilized *adducing* according to selective coding as well. This action, which was originally labelled *pretension* in the open coding stage, means that learners tried to base their ways of writing on external sources, thus displaying a more powerful role within the feedback discussion. Learners utilized *adducing* by referring to their tutors/departmental requirements or by displaying themselves as a member of a group.

Examples are shown below:

Extract#5.26:

(The teacher and the student are talking about an assignment draft the student brought to the class. The teacher is reading and asking questions or making various comments on the writing. In the below section, the teacher has difficulty in understanding the meaning of an abbreviation the student used. Thus, the below dialogue emerges):

Steen: [...] So what's RBV?

Student: We mention before research, resource view

Steen: Is it like a framework or is it like?

Student: It's like a theory and framework.

(Steen: the teacher, Generic In-sessional EAP, field note, February 8, 2013, Friday)

Extract#5.27:

Michael: So policy in a way is statement of a certain court, right?

Student: Yes. Most of the books, it was a matter of policy. That's what exactly he said.

(Michael: the teacher, Specialised EAP, field note, October 29, 2012, Monday)

In the above example, the teacher was reading an essay draft by a student. At one point, the teacher noticed that the student used 'RBV' frequently, and asked what RBV meant. Following this question by the teacher, the student explained that it was a concept they used to represent the resource view before talking about the research. The teacher further asked whether RBV was a theory or a framework. To this final question, the student again informed the teacher that it was both a theory and a framework. My later search for RBV also indicated that it was an abbreviation used

for ‘the available amount of a business’ strategic assets and available resources’. In the second example, the teacher was reading the essay draft of one student. At one point, the teacher got confused with what was written, thus asked: ‘*So policy in a way is statement of a certain court, right?*’. The student referred to his tutor and the departmental books to answer this question and said, ‘*Yes. Most of the books, it was a matter of policy. That’s what exactly he said.*’.

Normative Relationship Actions

Selective coding supported the existence of normative relationship patterns between students and teachers as well. The teachers used two actions: *arbitership* and *evaluation*.

As in the open coding stage, *arbitership* indicated that teachers acted as the representative authority of the target culture. This action had two sub-actions: *rectification* and *induction*.

In *rectification*, the teachers corrected mistakes directly without initiating any discussion or student input. According to selective coding, teachers used *rectification* to correct word choice, the utilization of collocations, grammar and punctuation. Additionally, teachers corrected the problems of redundancy by using this action.

Examples are shown below:

Extract#5.28:

The teacher continued with the second paragraph of the learner’s essay. Then, the teacher corrected a usage of preposition and said ‘Convicted of. Not with’.
(Irvette: Pre-requisite EAP teacher, field notes; October 15, 2012, Monday)

Extract#5.29:

While checking how learners are doing the in-class writing assignment of writing a short paragraph about the questions provided by the teacher, the teacher reads one part and makes the following comment:

Michael: 'Fairly difficult' but it's a bit informal. I would write.. it's relatively difficult or rather difficult.

(Michael: Specialised EAP-Law teacher; field notes; November 22, 2012 Thursday)

In Extract# 5.28, the teacher immediately corrected the preposition the student used, by explaining that the verb 'convict' requires the preposition 'of'. Similarly in the following extract, the teacher immediately spotted the problem by saying '*Fairly difficult' but it's a bit informal.*'. Following this, the teacher offered a replacement suggestion.

The second sub-action under *arbitership* was *induction*, which was the teacher action.

This action introduces conventions of writing and language in the target culture. A sample from the focused data collection phase displays that teacher action:

Extract#5.30:

(The teacher is talking to a student on his in-class writing task. While reading the draft, the student asks the teacher whether his sentences would be too long if he uses a structure with 'of which'. Upon this question, the teacher makes the following comment):

Michael: You've got too many advises. Of course long sentences are used a bit in academic essay. It doesn't have to be like that but it's a norm to use two/three clauses. If you write too short sentences, it feels like childish, journalist writing. But short sentences can be effective and powerful.

(Michael: Specialised EAP teacher; field notes, January 15, 2013 Tuesday)

In the above example, the teacher was checking learners' writing, which they wrote in the class. At one point, one student asked the teacher whether using '*of which Jack is a member*' would make the sentence too long and confusing. Following this question, the teacher attempted to introduce the traditions within the specific culture regarding writing long and short sentences.

Selective coding supported the teacher *evaluation* under the normative relationship. This action, aiming at assessing the learner's writing, did not focus on any particular problems or questions as in the following examples:

Extract#5.31:

(The teacher is reading a learner's writing for an in-class writing task. He makes quick comments on different parts of the writing, one of which is below):

Michael: That's very interesting. Access to justice as in France, that's a perfect example.

(Michael: The teacher; Specialised EAP, field note; November 22, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.32:

(The teacher is reading the assignment draft by a learner. While she is commenting on different parts of the draft, she makes the below comment about one part of the essay):

Heled: You're very good at presentation I have to say.

(Heled: Generic In-session EAP teacher, audio recording; February 27, 2012 Monday)

In the above examples, the teachers did not focus on any particular problems. Instead, they told the students that what they had written was good quality. In the first extract, the teacher told the student that she had given a perfect example. In Extract #5.32, while revising the student's draft, the teacher told the student that his way of presenting arguments was very good.

In the normative relationship, learners used *withdrawal* and *conforming* actions. Selective coding yielded few examples of the *withdrawal*. Silence and ending the conversation were two ways students utilized *withdrawal* in the selectively coded data. One example can be seen below:

Extract#5.33:

(While the teacher is reading the essay draft by one learner, he indicates that he is confused about a usage. Thus, the teacher asks what the student means through this usage.

Michael: I don't know what you meant (explosive policy), like a bomb, explosive?

Student tried to explain, but couldn't.

(Michael: Specialised EAP teacher, field notes; October 29, 2012 Monday)

In this sample, the teacher first asked the student what she meant by 'explosive policy' and required clarification. In response, the student attempted to explain the intended meaning. Yet, she stopped clarifying after feeling that she could not.

A final normative relationship student action that selective coding revealed is *conforming*. As I explained in the chapter on open coding, students attempted to verify whether how they wrote met the requirements of the target community. Additionally, they required information about the conventions of academic writing, which also implied that they wanted to fit into the target community's conventions. Examples are shown below:

Extract#5.34:

Student: Can I start a sentence with preposition?

(Pre-requisite EAP class; field notes; October 15, 2012 Monday)

Extract#5.35:

Student: I've got a question for the citation. Can I do it in the footnotes?

(Specialised EAP class-Law; field notes; December 4, 2012 Tuesday)

In the examples above, the students asked about the conventions of the target context. In the first example, the student asked whether he could begin sentences with a preposition. In the second example, while the student was showing her essay draft to the tutor, she asked whether it would be possible to put citations in the footnotes.

In this section, I have presented my classroom observation data as selectively analysed and illustrated the meaning of category labels and concept labels. I will now look at the themes which emerged in interview data using a similar structure.

5.4.2. Interviews: Emerging Themes, Categories and Concepts

As in the open coding stage, the themes emerged from the interviews' selective coding contributed to my understanding of the influencing factors leading to the variation and change of relationship patterns within the classroom feedback on academic writing.

Theme 1: Institutional Self

The theme institutional self emerged differently for teachers and students as was the case in the open coding stage.

Institutional Self: Balancing competing agendas versus conforming to the norms

I define Institutional Self as the identity individuals develop through their interaction with various features of the specific context of the institution. In selective coding, teachers' Institutional Self also displayed the feature of 'balancing competing agendas' while learners' Institutional Self was one that aimed at conforming to the norms, thus meeting the demands.

The decision-making category contributed to teachers' development of their Institutional Self. The decision-making process of teachers was characterised by *external authority, what learners need and tension in teacher role perceptions*.

External authority indicated the existence of a third authority influencing the shape of teacher feedback. Selective coding also showed that the existence of an external authority influenced EAP tutors' feedback practices in various ways. In the interviews, the tutors stressed that they encouraged learners to consult with their departments about their writing, pay more attention to the local advice offered by their departmental tutors/departments about writing, and network with their departmental tutors.

Teachers explained that they adjusted their feedback depending on the criteria of the target of the students. The following extracts can exemplify these actions:

Extract#5.36:

1. what I would always say in feedback is you know always kind of pay heed
2. to the local advice you are getting in your departments because that's really
3. important

(Steen; Generic In-sessional EAP teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

Extract#5.37:

1. I'm constantly having to say things like well if you're really writing, you
2. do this, but if you're writing for IELTS you do this.

(Irvette, EAP Pre-requisite teacher; interview; December 14, 2012 Friday)

In Extract #5.36, Steen underlined that he advised students to pay attention and accommodate to what their actual departments asked them to do. He further explained that this was an important issue. In the Extract #5.37, similarly, Irvette, explained that she aimed at increasing awareness of the audience requirements while writing (Lines 1-2). She stated that she reminded students of the fact that they had to follow the requirements of the target for which they were writing for (Lines 1-2). It can be interpreted that the existence of different external authorities shaped Irvette's feedback on learners' writing.

The tutors also stated that they faced a variety of disciplines in the class, which created a situation where the tutor met different genres and requirements. Particularly when combined with the lack of communication between the EAP classes and the learners' disciplines/departments, tutors explained that they avoided offering explicit and straightforward feedback. Teachers reported that, although well aware of the risks, they concentrated on providing generic feedback and establishing common ground.

Extract#5.38:

1. this is the one of the problems we have as teachers, 'cause we don't know
2. what the final target reader, the chemistry lecturer, or business lecturer,
3. what they want

(Tim; Pre-sessional EAP teacher; interview; September 13, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.39:

1. we can give generalized stuff, but I always give the kind of warning that
2. you know it might not work in all cases

(Steen; Generic In-sessional EAP teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

Extract#5.40:

1. but of course it ends up sometimes helping nobody you could just establish
2. general principles, and that's what I all can do.

(Michael; Specialised EAP –Law teacher; interview; November 30, 2012 Friday)

In Extract #5.38, the Pre-sessional EAP tutor Tim stated that the existence of an external authority created a problem for teachers (Line 1). He further underlined that EAP teachers in Pre-sessional classes did not know the requirements of the final reader for the students attending the EAP classes (Lines 1-2). Pre-sessional EAP classes, as shown earlier in Introduction Chapter, Subsection 1.2.2., are for those students who have been accepted for an undergraduate or post-graduate degree. In this situation, it is significant that students in Pre-sessional classes are not in immediate contact with their actual tutors as these classes are conducted prior to the start of the terms. It can be assumed that this situation would increase the complexity of providing feedback on the part of the teachers.

In Extract #5.39, the Generic EAP teacher, Steen, explained that they provided generalized feedback in their classes (Line 1). He furthermore explained that he also had to warn students that the conventions used in Pre-sessional classes may not apply to all of the future situations (Lines 1- 2).

In Extract# 5.40, Michael indicated the risk of not being able to provide help to learners (Line 1). He further underlined that even though there was a possibility that he might not be able to help learners, he still attempted to establish general principles for learners (Line 2), which was most probably a situation created by the variety of external authorities.

The teacher interview data also indicated that teachers were dependent on external authorities in terms of the EAP classroom management. The departments provided the teachers with materials. Furthermore, the external authorities determined who would attend these classes. One teacher explained this situation as problematic since the departments they were working with sent mixed groups of undergraduate and postgraduate students whose needs and requirements were different and varying internally as well. The external department also determined the time of the EAP courses. It was stated by one Specialised EAP class tutor that due to departmental requirements, the EAP classes were initiated before students started doing any writing assignments in their own departments. This situation, according to the tutor, caused a disconnection for learners with the disciplinary writing even if they received feedback from the EAP tutor.

Extract#5.41:

1. they sent me whole files of their courses, whole student essays, samples of
2. student work, they've been extremely supportive and helpful and they've
3. given the material to build a really good course, so all the potential is in
4. the place

(Michael; Specialised EAP-Law teacher; interview; November 30, 2012 Friday)

Extract#5.42:

1. so I was told that most of them do tort, which is true, but then I found that
2. somebody doesn't do tort. So there are little problems like that, again, it
3. affects them too, as you've seen undergraduate do need a lot of case law,
4. case study British English cases, post graduates don't do any of these, or
5. do very little of it in some of their courses

(Michael; Specialised EAP-Law teacher; interview; November 30, 2012 Friday)

In Extract#5.41, the tutor explained that they worked together with the departments to develop the specialised writing courses. To exemplify this, Michael stated that the departments provided them with course files, sample student essays, and the material to build an efficient course (Lines 1-3). In the following extract, however, Michael revealed in Lines 1 and 2 that the departments sent students who were enrolled in different programmes (i.e., tort and not tort). To better clarify the problem, he explained that these students differed in terms of what they needed (i.e. while undergraduate students needed case law, post-graduates did not do case law) (Lines 3-5). It can be assumed that these difficulties resulting from the existence of an external authority might be influencing the feedback practices as well.

In addition to the above-mentioned issues, the tutors also explained that the existence of an external authority influenced the way students attended to tutors' feedback. Tutors explained that students knew that the EAP tutor was not assessing their work, which made the EAP class a low-stakes class where they could ask any questions without feeling threatened. The tutors also explained that the students evaluated the EAP tutor's feedback with the grades on their assignments. In addition to the variation of the learners' profiles, the tutors reported that the existence of an external authority made students more easily refer to their departments/departmental tutors. The tutors

also indicated an awareness of the fact that some students attended an EAP class because of the guidance from their departmental tutors.

Extract#5.43:

1. I think for this kind of scenario, I think the setting is low, is not high stake
2. really because you are not really grading students on their writing, you are
3. just giving the advice

(Steen; Generic In-sessional EAP teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

Extract#5.44:

1. occasionally, I mean you get students sort of says, well sort of I say well
2. have you thought about doing this, what about doing this, and they sort of
3. say well actually in maths in statistics, we don't really do that, or the tutors
4. really ask them, they are asked to use particular referencing system rather
5. than that referencing system

(Steen; Generic In-sessional EAP; teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

Extract#5.45:

1. so yeah occasionally they will say, they will come back to you and say
2. well actually you know this is what my tutor has said and in a way, or they
3. will say I don't really want to go against my tutor,

(Steen, Generic In-sessional EAP teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

In Extract #5.43, Steen indicated that the EAP tutor was not in a position to assess the students' writing (Line 2: '*because you are not really grading students on their writing.*'), which turned EAP classes into a low-stakes setting (Line 1: '*I think the setting is low, is not high stake really.*'). He emphasised that an EAP tutor was '*just giving advice*' (Lines 2-3). The same teacher in the following extract revealed that students responded to EAP tutors' advice by referring to the disciplinary requirements and tutors. In those cases, students explained the conventions within their fields (Line 3: '*In maths in statistics, we don't really do that*'), or what their disciplinary tutors required (Lines 3-5: '*or the tutors really ask them, they are asked to use particular referencing system rather than that referencing system.*').

Extract #5.45 reveals that the disciplinary writing requirements also emphasised by the departmental tutors were high-stakes goals for students. The teacher explained that students clearly stated that they would prefer to write according to those disciplinary requirements (Lines 1- 3).

Selective coding also revealed the concept named *what learners need*, which also constitutes the teacher's Institutional Self. The teachers in the focused phase of the study indicated that learners' problems with writing and needs did not always result from being non-native speakers of English language, specifically among high-level students. Still, tutors acknowledged the fact that non-nativeness necessitated a lot of explanation and reformulations for learners in the feedback interactions. Furthermore, non-native students sometimes lacked meta-language to express themselves appropriately. However, tutors stressed that these issues did not prevent learners from engaging in interactions all the time.

Extract#5.46:

1. they [non-native students] perhaps can't express why they did what they
2. did because they might not have the meta-language, so the lack of meta
3. language around grammar and vocabulary they don't have so obviously
4. you know that must be quite frustrating for them

(Irvette, EAP Pre-requisite teacher; interview; December 14, 2012 Friday)

Extract#5.47:

1. and they [students who are non-native speakers of English] might get the
2. other thing wrong grammatically, but that doesn't stop them conversing
3. and discussing, talking about the issues of writing as well, so yeah in the
4. main I don't think that's a problem

(Steen, Generic In-sessional EAP; teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

Extract#5.48:

1. and that [having difficulties with writing] doesn't necessarily arise purely
2. from being whether you're a native speaker or non-native speaker, I mean
3. at higher levels as well of course I think about science writing task type I
4. used to do on Wednesday afternoon, that sort of higher level.

(Steen, Generic Insessional EAP; teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

In Extract #5.46, Irvette explained that students who were non-native speakers of English might have experienced difficulty in explaining their underlying reasons for writing in certain ways (Line 1). As a reason, Irvette indicated the possible lack of meta-language around grammar and vocabulary among these learners, which was acknowledged by the teacher as a reason for students to feel frustrated (Lines 2-4). In the second extract, Steen highlights that being a non-native speaker of a language could lead to certain problems for students like having difficulties with grammatical aspects (Lines 1-2). However, Steen emphasised that these problems did not necessarily lead to students' withdrawal from feedback interactions (Lines 2-3). Therefore, he did not regard learners' being non-native speakers of English as a main problem (Lines 3-4). Likewise, the same teacher in Extract #5.48 also clarified that learners' difficulties with writing at high levels did not completely result from being non-native speakers of English (Lines 1-2). To simplify what he meant with 'high level', the teacher gave the example of a Specialised EAP class he previously conducted for doctoral science students (Lines 3-4).

In the interviews, it was observed that although tutors acknowledged some possible problems stemming from learners' being non-native speakers of English, the difficulty was the variation among levels in terms of language proficiency and content knowledge. Tutors explained that each learner came along with their specific issues, which influenced how the feedback talks were managed.

Extract#5.49:

1. if the problem is purely just grammar then that can be corrected really quite
 2. quickly quite easily, that doesn't need to be a major issue or a hassle [...]
 3. some students have more priorities than others in terms of language, others
 4. it's more organization, structure, so everybody has something different
 5. going on really, so yeah okay it will change definitely what you focus on
- (Steen, Generic In-sessional EAP teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

Extract#5.50:

1. I get surprised that students don't understand the basic legal principle. We
2. have something like misrepresentation, which is standard for
3. undergraduates, they know what it means, but a much older more mature
4. post graduate student I had to explain the concept.

(Michael; Specialised EAP-Law teacher; interview; November 30, 2012 Friday)

In Extract #5.49 by Steen, it is explained that if the learners' problems were solely language-related, these would be solved more easily (Lines 1-2). However, the teacher drew attention to the variety of learners' problems in their writing in the following lines. He explained that while some students' needs intensified around language problems (Line 3), other students' needs were more about global aspects of writing such as organization and structure (Lines 3-5). In the final section, the teacher revealed that this variation among learners also influenced what the teachers were focusing on while providing feedback (Lines 4-5). In the second extract by Michael, the tutor focused on the problem of encountering students who did not have the necessary pre-requisite level of knowledge as the group of students from the same level (Line 1). Using the example of the legal term 'misrepresentation,' the teacher explained that while some undergraduate level students knew this term, more mature post graduate level students did not know the meaning of it (Lines 2-4). I believe that this situation is also an indicator of the learner variation issue in EAP classes. This example implies that the EAP teachers also worked with students whose content knowledge varied,

which also necessitated that the tutors handle each student individually in feedback interactions.

The tutors, due to the above-mentioned variation among learners, emphasised that while providing feedback, they worked with a prioritization mechanism through which the focus was given to the problems that prevented the reader from getting adequate comprehension of the text alongside the issues which were most striking for the reader. Teachers explained that prioritization was determined by learners' writing since it revealed their feedback needs. While doing this, for example, tutors focused more on sentence-level issues such as grammar. This was because teachers regarded sentence-level issues as easier to fix. However, global-level issues required dealing with the way of thinking, which was a harder task for the tutors.

Extract#5.51:

1. I mean what that comes down to I think is sometimes when you have a
2. look at the students' writing, as you become more experienced I think you
3. do get a sense of priority that students are facing [...] It's the things that
4. strike you most but you look at a piece of writing, things that you feel are
5. not really quite working, maybe the way they should work, and I can
6. sometimes be very specific grammatical issues, or it can be more general
7. macro structure issues,

(Steen, Generic In-sessional EAP teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

In the above extract, Steen indicated the 'prioritization' mechanism he worked with while giving feedback. He underlined that as the EAP tutor got more experienced, s/he started to distinguish between what was urgent and what was not for the student (Lines 2-3). In the following lines, he described the prioritized issues in a student's writing as urgent issues, which seemed to the tutor as not functioning in the way they were expected to (Lines 3-5). The tutor further clarified that those issues could sometimes become more specific grammar-related issues while sometimes being related with macro-level aspects of writing (Lines 6-7).

While prioritizing, tutors also aimed to answer the demands of those students who were in need of guiding feedback for alternatives to try to reach a good command of the English language. Thus, tutors explained that they preferred giving options, while exploring with students and urge them to try those alternatives in their writing.

Extract#5.52:

1. I think that I should because I would have thought that developing a good
2. command of English is about having options, having plenty of options, so
3. the more choices you have, the better. So giving people more choices and
4. exploring options and trying is the ideal

(Michael; Specialised EAP-Law teacher; interview; November 30, 2012 Friday)

In Extract #5.52, Michael underlined that having options and choices were what learners needed to be able to improve their command of the language (Lines 1-3). Therefore, he reported focusing on giving alternatives and urging learners to try those alternatives in their writing (Lines 3-4).

Finally, although tutors talked about the mechanism of prioritization, some of them explained that EAP tutors' priorities might not have been learners' priorities as well, in which case negotiating priorities became a necessity.

Extract#5.53:

1. but your priority maybe different than the students' priorities, so that's
2. obviously, that needs to be negotiated

(Steen, Generic Insessional EAP; teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

Steen, in the above extract, raised the issue of priority difference between students and tutors in the feedback interactions (Line 1). He, therefore, explained that negotiation needed to take place in cases of priority differences between tutors and students (Line 2).

Teacher interviews also provided insight about the *tensions in teacher role perceptions*. Similar to the interview analysis in the open coding stage, EAP tutors stated that students sometimes gave a higher status to their EAP teachers and did not display a critical attitude to tutors due to various reasons. These reasons were listed as learners' cultural backgrounds and their status as non-native speakers of English language.

Extract#5.54:

1. **T:** it requires quite a lot of courage to disagree with the teacher,
2. **Z:** Why?
3. **T:** Particulary their cultures,

(T: Tim; Pre-sessional EAP teacher; Z: Interviewer; interview; September 13, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.55:

1. because they are non-native speakers, well, they can't criticise back
2. immediately

(Irvette, Pre-requisite teacher; interview; December 14, 2012 Friday)

In the first extract, Tim explained that challenging and disagreeing with the tutor would be difficult for students (Line 1). When asked for the reasons, the tutor stated that specifically learners' cultural backgrounds would require students to avoid disagreeing with the teachers (Line 3).

The second extract above also reveals the situations in which learners' being non-native speakers of the language might cause problems for them. Irvette explained that since students were non-native speakers of English, they sometimes hesitated to criticize the EAP tutor immediately. Here, I acknowledge that whether the tutor referred to the learners' lack of adequate language tools to argue against the tutor or to learners' native language-related cultures needed further questioning.

Teachers also explained that students can have 'unrealistic expectations' from their tutors particularly within the time limits of the EAP classes. Finally, it was seen that

although learners expected tutors to correct everything in their assignments, tutors rejected this role as part of their job. In the extract below, from the interview with the Generic In-sessional EAP tutor, Steen explained the situations where students asked him to correct all the mistakes in their writing (Lines 1-2). However, the tutor further explained that he did not see correction as part of his role in the EAP class (Line 2).

Extract#5.56:

1. Yeah, mostly they say, well, sometimes they kindly say I'd like you to
 2. correct all the mistakes, but I don't really think that that's my role to do
- (Steen, Generic In-sessional EAP; teacher; interview; February 25, 2013 Monday)

Finally, selective coding also revealed that, contrary to students' perceptions of tutors as the one who corrected and who had a higher status, tutors saw themselves as displaying multiple roles. Although they reported being more dictatorial at times, tutors also stated that they regarded themselves as EAP tutors who were oriented towards developing a more independent learner profile. To achieve this, they defined their roles in feedback as dialogic, where students were also expected to bring along a pre-existing sense of independence, self-initiative, and self-drive to become critical learners, co-construct the text, and actively participate in feedback talks. Aiming at improving learners' self-correction and independence by avoiding straight answers to students' requests, the tutors preferred to offer indirect feedback that guided learners to find the best solutions. Furthermore, they acted as someone who helped and challenged learners while simultaneously giving learners the chance to explain their reasons for writing in certain ways. Tutors emphasised that they urged students to try to reach the answers for themselves and experience the sense of achievement. However, this dialogic assumption of the tutors was also limited by one tutor who added to his definition of feedback that feedback was also a dynamic assessment to help the students. By this, it can be assumed that the tutors experienced another

dilemma where they were in a higher position as the assessor of the learners' writing, but also attempted to act as the one who offered guidance to learners (assessor as the higher status person versus the one who expected independence and solely offered guidance as an equal partner).

Extract#5.57:

1. that's my job is to improve their ability to the fact what they are doing, and
2. just develop a skill, a habit of being a little bit more independent of me.

(Michael; Specialised EAP-Law; teacher; interview; November 30, 2012 Friday)

Extract#5.58:

1. the fact that those guys are post graduates must mean they have a certain
2. amount of independence, and initiative and self-drive already, which will
3. make them more kind of more critical learners

(T: Tim; Pre-sessional EAP teacher; interview; September 13, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.59:

1. Well, I can be sort of quite dictatorial, some of them might like, and I can
2. be, you know, very sort of, I can faded into the background, I can let them
3. do it, I can be very you know uncorrecting and just allow loads and loads
4. of mistakes slip through the net in order for them to get fluency and to just
5. because sometimes I think it would be really good if they can free and not
6. worry about grammar and just get down their ideas, so I think that's
7. important sometimes, so I just try to use lots of different techniques,

(Irvette, Pre-requisite EAP teacher; interview; December 14, 2012 Friday)

In Extract#5.57, Michael described his role as improving learners' ability to work independently (Lines 1-2). Likewise, the Pre-sessional EAP tutor, Tim, in Extract #5.58 also offered a similar account of his role perceptions in relation to the learners. He explained that since his students were post graduate students (Line 1), he expected them to display a more critical attitude to learning, which required them to be 'independent, initiating and self-monitoring' (Lines 2-3). This account by Tim implies that the teacher would display similar expectations within feedback interactions as well.

In the third extract, Irvette described her perception of having multiple roles. She explained that while she could at times be very controlling and dictating in terms of writing (Line 1), there were also times she became less controlling and correcting (Lines 2-3). She further added that she could become less controlling and correcting to be able to improve learners' fluency and allow them to work with writing without worrying about grammar (Lines 3-6).

The theme of Institutional Self was also developed from learner interviews in selective coding as it did in the open coding stage. Here, it seemed to be related to categories and concepts around the ideas of conforming to the norms and meeting demands as well. The categories under this theme are *learners' self-efficacy* and *learner motivators*.

The category *learners' self-efficacy* referred to the learners' self-perceptions about their capability of academic writing. Learners' self-efficacy was, according to the focused data, influenced by their status as second language learners, teachers' attitude in one-on-one feedback interactions, and self-reinforcement.

One concept that built the category of learners' efficacy was *being a second language learner*. The selective coding phase provided more samples for the issues that were found in the end of the open coding stage. The selective coding supported that learners' being second language speakers of English influenced the way they evaluated their language skills and needs. Learners associated their status as non-native speakers of English language with not having the skills to write well enough to meet their courses' expectations. For many students in the focused data collection phase, being a non-

native speaker of English and the resulting language needs urged them to join EAP classes. Some examples are presented below:

Extract#5.60:

1. And I took Michael's legal writing classes as because English is not my
2. first language

(Tiantian, Specialised EAP-Law class student; interview; February 27, 2013 Wednesday)

Extract#5.61:

1. because English is not our, it's not our native language, we make many
2. mistakes.

(Cengiz, Specialised EAP-Law class student; interview; February 19, 2013 Tuesday)

Extract#5.62:

1. and then for international students, I think most of them lack of writing
2. skills or some academic skills,

(Cheng, Generic In-sessional EAP class student; interview; November 29, 2012 Thursday)

In the above extracts, taken from student interviews, students correlated their non-native speaker status and the problems they had. They also listed their status as the reason to join EAP classes. In the first extract, a Specialised EAP-Law Class student, Tiantian, explained that she decided to take EAP courses since English was not her first language (Lines 1-2). In Extract#5.61, Cengiz, another Specialised EAP-Law Class student explained that since he (and his peers) were not native speakers, they made many mistakes (Lines 1-2). In the third extract, Cheng from Generic In-sessional EAP explained that since they were international students (Line 1), they lacked the necessary academic and writing skills to succeed in their programmes (Lines 1-2).

Similar to the open coding, students also explained that their first languages interfered with the way they wrote within their target communities. Related with this issue, selective coding also added the dimension that students had difficulty noticing their mistakes in their writing since they were non-native speakers of English language.

Extract#5.63:

1. we have different nationality, and we have own language, our first draft
2. was writed by mother tongue, I mean, the, Tim corrected it in the English
3. way,

(Tohigo, Pre-sessional EAP class student; interview; September 13, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.64:

1. since I'm non-native sometimes I just don't have the idea that sort of things
2. I've written in the wrong way that he could probably spot it you know spot
3. it spot it I don't know precisely

(Tiantian, Specialised EAP-Law class student; interview; February 27, 2013 Wednesday)

The extracts above are examples of students' describing their native languages as interfering with the way they wrote and the way they perceived their writing. In the first extract, Tohigo from the Pre-sessional EAP Class explained that the EAP class he attended consisted of students with different nationalities and first languages (Lines 1-2). He, thus, stated that those students wrote their first drafts the way they would write in their native languages (Lines 1-2). He further underlined that EAP tutor's feedback (Tim) converted students' writing into the English way (Lines 2-3). In Extract #5.64 sample, we see that Tiantian related her non-native speaker status as to not being able to spot her writing mistakes. Being a non-native speaker of English, she experienced difficulty in finding whether, what or how she wrote was problematic (Lines 1-3). She also explained that her tutor could find those problems (Line 2).

Another aspect of the concept *being a second language learner* which supported the findings of open coding is that students tended to automatically downgrade themselves in the target context. It was observed that students gave a higher status to their tutors in feedback interactions due to their being native speakers of English or professionals. They regarded the tutors as the representatives of their target communities. They also frequently stated that they would accept what the EAP tutors told them and not challenge EAP tutors in feedback interactions since tutors were native speakers of English language. In the below sample, for example, Hannah, a Specialised EAP-Law class student, stated that as her English was not so good, she had to accept what the tutor said to her (Lines 1-2).

Extract#5.65:

1. Yeah, I think my English is not so good and so I can't I can't be I have to
2. be I have to agree with him

(Hannah, Speacialised EAP class student; interview; November 6, 2012
Tuesday)

New issues also emerged from the selective coding in terms of learners' being second language speakers. For example, students listed the difficulty of miscommunication and not being able to convey their message properly due to their language barrier in feedback interactions. An example is presented below where Kerim indicated that he and his EAP tutor could not understand each other (Lines 6) since Kerim did not have enough vocabulary knowledge (Line 1). Kerim's account also implied that since his

EAP tutor is a native speaker of English, this might have led to miscommunications during feedback interactions (Lines 4-5).

Extract#5.66:

1. I have a lack of vocabulary and then he doesn't know what I want to say
2. so it can be like confusing, because I can be like okay, why, he is asking
3. me telling me it's wrong because I wanted to say this and maybe it's only
4. in general because I can't really well explain myself, so maybe sometimes
5. the fact that I don't speak well English and he is a real English speaker
6. makes bad, sometimes we don't understand each other,

(Kerim, Specialised EAP-Law class student; interview; November 9, 2012 Friday)

The focused data also indicated that students' non-nativeness of English language influenced their preferences for feedback interaction, and attendance to the affective aspects of feedback. In below sample, for example, Angie explained that although she preferred face-to-face feedback talk because of her English, she would not make this distinction with her mother language (Lines 3-4).

Extract#5.67:

1. if I want to need something like about the (bank), I didn't like
2. to call or send them an email, I prefer to speak with those persons, but this
3. is because my English, if I was doing the things in Spanish, it doesn't
4. matter for me perhaps to do in another way too,

(Angie; Generic In-sessional EAP class student; interview; February 28, 2013 Thursday)

Despite their concerns about being a second language learner in EAP classes, students also utilized mechanisms to compensate for this disadvantage. The concept of *self-reinforcement* was one mechanism that selective coding revealed. The data showed that students encouraged themselves to get involved in the oral feedback interactions to benefit from it to a greater extent and meet the requirements better. Since students thought that they were the ones who needed improvement, they needed to be active, and take responsibility in feedback interactions. Students explained that if they wanted

to improve their English and meet the requirements, there was no place for being shy about asking questions, initiating discussions, or for requesting clarifications. Students also thought that they had to be open to learning new ways of writing since it was not possible to generate something without having a basis on which they could build new ideas.

Extract#5.68:

1. Of course I need the improvement, so I should first maybe active to ask to
2. explain to solve,

(Azamat; Pre-requisite EAP class student; interview; February 18, 2013 Monday)

Extract#5.69:

1. he maybe not know about my work about what, it's my responsibility to
2. write and, to let him know that this is the things I was told, want to write,
3. then maybe he will give suggestions, but I have to let him know about it

(Surinder, Specialised EAP-PhD Science class student; interview; November 29, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.70:

1. My role, teacher's role, and I think as a student I should be active in the class
2. because if I sit and don't ask anything if I'm passive, I'll never learn English
3. properly so as a student I should be more creative, I shouldn't be shy to ask
4. questions, if I don't understand teachers, if I need some clarifications I have
5. to ask it again, I have to just ask them to clarify, for example, as I said Amy
6. crossed out my version, but if I don't have agree with her, I just ask her to
7. explain it

(Yerbol, Pre-requisite EAP student; interview; February 21, 2013 Thursday)

Extract#5.71:

1. while you learn riding a bike for example, you can adopt, you can create your
2. own riding style, but if you refuse to use the pedal that your mother tells you
3. to use, so you can do that, but so but then what's the meaning of doing it, so
4. you will never learn how to ride a bike.so if you want to do the same to some
5. extent, you have to apply the same instruments,

(Thomas; Specialised EAP-Law class student; interview; November 1, 2012 Thursday)

The extract above by Azamat, a Pre-requisite EAP Class student, indicated that the student was ready to take responsibility for his own learning. He emphasised that since he had to improve, he was the one who needed to initiate discussions, and ask questions to solve the problems (Lines 1-2). In the next extract, Surinder indicated that the teacher might not know everything about the writing of students (Line 1). Thus, he stressed that it was his responsibility to inform the teacher about what requirements he had, and what s/he wanted to write (Lines 1-2). Surinder, further, explicated that if he wanted suggestions from the tutor, he first needed to tell the teacher about those issues (Lines 2-3). Similarly, in Extract# 5.70, Yerbol first explained that he needed to be an active participant of the feedback interactions (Line 1). He emphasised that being inactive would not help him achieve his goal of learning English properly (Lines 1-2). Therefore, in cases of confusion, not understanding or disagreements, Yerbol described that he had to ask questions to and request clarifications from the teacher in feedback interactions (Lines 3-7).

In Extract# 5.71, Thomas also underlined that it was the learners' responsibility to be open to learning new ways of writing. Thomas explained that when they were learning something new, they first had to understand the basics to be able to imitate it to some extent (Lines 4-5). He indicated that they could develop their own ways after learning and applying those basic instruments (Lines 1-2).

There were also learners who explained that their non-nativeness made them more inclined to be open to the conversations with native speakers, who could find their mistakes better and more quickly than the non-native counterparts could. In that sense, these learners stated that they were happier to be involved in the conversations with native speakers and their teachers who were also native speakers. In this way, they

believed, learners could better meet the expected requirements. One example is shown below:

Extract#5.72:

1. I prefer native speaker's correction because yeah for example (from an
2. essay, student's essay who wrote his essay for seven score I took some
3. examples and Irvette crossed out this examples because this is informal, it
4. was informal because she is native speaker, she knows better than this is
5. student, that student

(Yerbol, Pre-requisite EAP student; interview; February 21, 2013 Thursday)

In the above extract, Yerbol explained that he preferred receiving corrections made by native speakers (Line 1). He further clarified that this preference was because of an experience he had. Yerbol indicated that he had taken some expressions from the essay of another student who had received a score of seven from IELTS (Line 2). However, he revealed that his native speaker teacher crossed out those expressions since they were informal (Line 3). Yerbol emphasised that since the teacher was a native speaker, she knew better than the student did (Lines 4-5). This extract accentuates the self-reinforcement of students to participate in feedback interactions with native speakers since they found the feedback from native speakers more helpful/correct to achieve their goals of improving their English to the expected standards.

The teachers' attitude during the one-on-one interactions also shaped learners' self-efficacy. Learners' accounts indicated that teacher's attitude in feedback talks determined whether and how learners participated in the feedback interactions. Students in the interviews explained that a constructive attitude from EAP tutors shaped their participations. The following list details how learners exemplified this type of attitude:

- Tutors' openness to hearing what learners had to say

- Tutors' approachability, flexibility, encouraging nature, and readiness to listen to the points raised by students about writing
- Valuing learners' agenda in feedback discussion
- EAP tutors' ability to interact at the level of the students (meaning, less formally), making learners feel that s/he was ready to listen to learners
- Not being harsh when students made mistakes
- Not justifying the self but being open to learners' issues
- Showing effort to help the student to get the issues were the features that students listed as significant teacher attitudes improving learners' confidence in feedback talks

Below are examples:

Extract#5.73:

1. I think because his feedback is always positive, that's quite nice sort of
2. encouraging you to write what you want to write rather than sometimes
3. when you had particularly as an undergraduate you've written something
4. and then the person marking doesn't like the way you've written they can
5. write you know this isn't scientific enough, or whatever they think whereas
6. he just says no this is really nice way to put it , and it's really interesting
7. thought process, so he's encouraging you to express it in the way that you
8. want to,

(Elizabeth; Specialised EAP class student; interview; November 29, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.74:

1. I think he has a way of saying it, that doesn't make it ever sound like he's
2. right, you're wrong, it's more like that there are other alternatives.

(Kelly; Specialised EAP-Law class student; interview; November 30, 2012 Friday)

Extract#5.75:

1. in this case, Steen, I believe he, because I believe every of student has the
2. same problems like as he has a, he has a, I don't know if patient, or
3. something like that and he you don't feel like you are making a big mistake
4. and you are doing everything bad, and I believe that he encourage you to
5. improve,

(Angie; Generic In-sessional EAP class student; interview; February 28, 2013 Thursday)

In Extract #5.73, Elizabeth underlined the encouraging attitude of the teacher. Elizabeth explained that the teacher's feedback urged students to write in the way they wanted (Lines 1-2). Later in Lines 3-6, Elizabeth compared the attitude of the EAP teacher's attitude with the undergraduate tutors' attitude, who were also marking her work. She indicated that undergraduate tutors could reject the way students wrote. However, she added that the EAP tutor displayed a positive attitude and encouraged students to express their ideas in the way they wanted to. Similarly, in the extract by Kelly, she emphasised that the way EAP tutor explained issues did not put students into an epistemic asymmetry with the tutor (Line 1). She further added that the tutor offered his explanations as alternative ways that students could also consider (Line 2). The account by Angie also supported the idea that the attitude of the tutor was meaningful for students in the feedback interactions. Angie underlined that even though the EAP tutor encountered similar issues repeatedly with every student, he was still patient (Lines 1-2). Moreover, the tutor's approach to students did not make them feel uncomfortable about their mistakes, but urged them to focus more on improving (Lines 3-5).

Additionally, students also reported teachers' efforts to be as comprehensible as possible, which helped learners overcome the uncomfortable feeling of speaking in another language and made them feel secure. Regarding this issue, Cengiz from the Specialised EAP Class, provided a supporting account. Here, he began by indicating

that his EAP tutor did not display an attitude that would make students uncomfortable with their language (Lines 1-2). He furthermore added that students felt that the tutor made an effort to understand them, which helped students feel comfortable (Lines 2-3). As a result of this attitude of the tutor, students were also able to ask their questions without hesitating (Lines 4-5).

Extract#5.76:

1. I think Michael doesn't err made you feel uncomfortable with your
 2. language. [...]He just try to understand and he understand generally, and
 3. that's why you don't feel a problem, you don't feel, there is no reason to
 4. be ashamed because of Michael's attitude I think, I directly ask him, I'm
 5. trying to ask him and he understands he tries to understand and he replies
- (Cengiz, Specialised EAP-Law class student; interview; February 19, 2013 Tuesday)

Learners' motivators is another category that built learners' Institutional Self. Under this category, there are the concepts of *learners' awareness of an external authority*, *critical and realistic feedback*, and *teachers' attitude*.

Learners' awareness of an external authority, as in the open coding, refers to the situations which gave learners a higher or equal position in the feedback interactions. Awareness of an external authority influenced the students' perceptions of EAP tutors' roles, which emerged in three ways: EAP tutor feedback being a bridge with the actual department, judgements about EAP tutor's proficiency with discipline-specific requirements and content knowledge, and distinguishing between EAP tutor's feedback and departmental tutor's feedback.

To begin with the EAP tutor's feedback role as a bridge, students attended the EAP classes to be able to meet academic writing requirements posed by an external authority. Moreover, various students explained that they were directed to EAP classes by their departmental tutors. There were also students who explained that receiving a

low score from IELTS led them to join EAP classes in order to be able to learn more about academic writing and receive feedback on their course writing. Furthermore, students reported that they cross-checked with their departments to see to what extent EAP tutors' feedback applied to their writing requirements. Finally, students evaluated EAP tutor's feedback on the basis of their course grades from their departments.

Extract#5.77:

1. There was a situation when he said something and I, I've been told
 2. completely different from the lectures at the university, so I
 3. said what I had, what I've been told and I waited for him to reply to it,
- (Danuta, Specialised EAP class student; interview; 5 December, 2012 Wednesday)

Extract#5.78:

1. when I took part in my IELTS examination in last year 2011, I just got 5.5
2. mark in my writing. And because at that I don't want to take IELTS again,
3. so I applied for pre-sessional course in Warwick

(Cheng, Generic In-sessional EAP class student; interview; November 29, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.79:

1. my supervisor told me to improve it [writing] as early as I can so and I got
2. an email that there is an option to attend a class in the writing, scientific
3. writing, so I thought that it could be a great opportunity for me to attend
4. that class and I registered for this one

(Surinder, Specialised EAP class student; interview; November 29, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.80:

1. and also in the first term I took some courses from Michael, er yeah it
2. helped me because I know from my grades are satisfactory,

(Cengiz, Specialised EAP class student; interview; February 19, 2013 Tuesday)

In the first extract, Danuta compared the feedback she received in EAP class and in her department. She explained that when she received feedback that was different from

what she was told in her department (Lines 1-2), she indicated that to her EAP tutor (Lines 2-3).

Cheng, in the next sample, showed an example where students' participation in EAP classes could be determined by IELTS scores. Cheng stated that since his IELTS score was lower than the expected score, he decided to join the EAP Pre-session classes before beginning the courses (Lines 1-3). This way, it can be interpreted that, Cheng aimed to improve his writing to be better able to meet the academic writing demands in his department, which also turned EAP into a bridge class with the actual departments. Surinder also revealed that his departmental tutor wanted him to improve his writing immediately. He later explained that he had decided to participate in EAP classes upon receiving this suggestion from the departmental tutor and receiving an e-mail about EAP classes (Lines 1-4).

The account by Cengiz is important for showing that students also evaluated the feedback of their EAP tutors with the grades they received in their departments. Cengiz indicated that his course grades were good as a result of his participation in an EAP class in the previous semester (Lines 1-2).

Secondly, the existence of an external authority seemed to lead to an increased learner awareness of the fact that EAP tutors faced a variety of disciplines while giving feedback on academic writing. This situation, which was defined by students as hard to cope with for tutors, made tutors more flexible while giving feedback and designing the course on writing. Moreover, students explained that tutors did not completely know the discipline-specific language and content required for the students to simplify or clarify their writing for EAP tutors in feedback interactions. Students also mentioned that whether the EAP tutor knew the audience requirements made a difference on their feedback interactions:

Extract#5.81:

1. because he's working to a group of people who all do different subjects so
2. everything is quite vague, I mean (there is) no point said this is how you
3. must do referencing, this how you must do this, it's all, writing different
4. ways

(Elizabeth; Specialised EAP-PhD Science class student; interview; November 29, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.82:

1. Well I suppose it [feedback interactions] depends on the piece of writing
2. as well that the context in which it is written and the audience it's written
3. for, maybe (obviously) different between different pieces of writing

(Kelly; Specialised EAP-PhD Science class student; interview; November 30, 2012 Friday)

Extract#5.83:

1. because of technical, of course some diseases or of course, they are kind
2. of words I cannot change but if they are talking about some technics,
3. maybe I can change the word to make it easier for him [the EAP tutor] to
4. understand and make it easier, yeah

(Huihui; Pre-sessional EAP class student; interview; September 13, 2012 Thursday)

The first extract by Elizabeth reveals a learner awareness of the fact that the existence of students from different departments in the EAP classes created vagueness in the way the EAP tutor approached students' writing. Elizabeth explained that it would not be useful to show students certain rules for writing (Lines 2-3) as they were all expected to write in different ways by their departments (Lines 3-4). Likewise, in the second extract, Kelly underlined that how feedback interactions took place depended on the specific writing, its context, and the audience it was written for (Lines 1-2). She also explained that these criteria were different from student to student. As for the third extract, it was significant in showing the fact that learners simplified their way of writing for their EAP tutors with the thought that the EAP tutors might not have been

familiar with certain words. Hui-hui from the Pre-sessional EAP Class, indicated that he consciously changed certain words in his writing to make it more understandable for his EAP tutor (Lines 1-4).

Finally, that students knew that EAP tutors could not know everything about the discipline-specific language, and that content of the discipline also created a situation where students made a distinction between the feedback they received from their EAP tutors and departmental tutors. Students explained that both tutors served different purposes through their feedback, thus limiting the EAP tutor's feedback to only language-related issues. That is, students displayed an awareness that the EAP tutor could not focus on content very much while they could comment on grammar, organization, and structural aspects of writing. Moreover, they defined EAP tutor's suggestions as generic.

Extract#5.84:

1. I'm feeling very free because he is not a lawyer so what I say in my law
2. essay I'm very free, you know, I think he help us most for the form and the
3. English language but not for all,

(Hannah; Specialised EAP class student; interview; November 6, 2012 Tuesday)

Extract#5.85:

1. actually I don't expect from Tim to know everything about every single
2. word, about every single part of science, just too normal

(Salman; Pre-sessional EAP class student; interview; September 13, 2012 Thursday)

Extract#5.86:

1. his feedback serves a different purpose to say someone like your supervisor
2. who may pick something like that much more quickly, so his feedback is
3. more about the style of writing and the grammar and the sort of the way you
4. order what you've written, so everything about the writing apart from you
5. know the fine the details you know the contents better.

(Kelly; Specialised EAP class student; interview; November 30, 2012 Friday)

In the first extract, Hannah explained that she had a certain level of freedom in her writing vis-à-vis her EAP tutor as her EAP tutor was not from the same background as she was (Lines 1-2). She later stated that her EAP tutor focused more on the form of her writing and language, but not all the details she wrote (Lines 2-3). Similarly, Salman stated that the EAP tutor could not know everything about his discipline.

As for Extract#5.86, Kelly made a clear distinction between the feedback and its purpose from EAP tutor and the departmental tutor. She underlined that EAP tutors' feedback concentrated around students' style of writing, grammar, and organization (Lines 2-4). However, she explained, the details and the content of the writing might have received more feedback from the departmental tutor (Lines 4-5).

Critical and realistic feedback also contributed to the category of learners' motivators. The accounts of learners in the focused data collection indicated that students measured the quality of feedback in terms of how critical and realistic it was. Students frequently reported that they expected feedback that did not give too much hope and that explained their real conditions with academic writing. Students explained that the overly complimentary feedback was not very helpful for improving. Their accounts show that students expected more critical, straight, and specific feedback.

Extract#5.87:

1. And I mean some teachers when I see how they of course they some students
2. need compliment sometimes but when compliment is not I can notice, how
3. can I say, not true or like a seems how can I say, so I mean critique should
4. be fair also compliment should be fair, because unreasonable critique or
5. compliment it destroy anyone's attention for study

(Azamat; Pre-requisite EAP class student; interview; February 18, 2013
Monday

Extract#5.88:

1. I think, teacher should be very straight and she should be exact,
(Yerbol, Pre-requisite EAP student; interview; February 21, 2013 Thursday)

In Extract#5.87, Azamat, who was a Pre-requisite EAP Class student, indicated that learners could understand whether feedback represented their real conditions or not. Thus, he emphasised that the feedback needed to be believable for the students as well (Lines 2-4). He further added that teachers have to be fair while providing a compliment or critique in their feedback, as unrealistic comments might do harm to students' concentration on their studies (Lines 3-5). Yerbol also supported Azamat by emphasising that the tutor needed to be straight and exact while giving feedback.

Students' accounts indicated an expectation that tutors should not only tell learners about their mistakes but also offer them suggestions and give examples for how to improve those aspects in their writing. In the below extract, by Yerbol and Azamat, both students underlined their requirement of examples, further explanations, and suggestions within the feedback. Yerbol, in Extract#5.89, indicated that proper feedback for him would offer examples as well (Line 1). He reasoned that mere indication of problems would not be as useful as giving examples since they already knew that they had to act on a problematic aspect when they received feedback (Lines 1-2). Similarly, Azamat emphasised his request for explanations and suggestions in the feedback. He reported that giving explanations and suggestions would prevent him from forgetting the feedback (Lines 1-4).

Extract#5.89:

1. proper answer would be if they give examples, because we know that this
 2. word is good for using in this case, but if they give us examples, it's more
 3. useful I think
- (Yerbol, Pre-requisite EAP student; interview; February 21, 2013 Thursday)

Extract#5.90:

1. I don't know because I'm not so focused on writing maybe after showing
2. one time I give up this writing, and I forget about it. Maybe next time I need
3. comment, you do, you did this again maybe your systematic mistakes this,
4. and you should do this,

(Azamat; Pre-requisite EAP class student; interview; February 18, 2013 Monday)

Finally, it was seen that students also paid attention to the *EAP tutors' attitude* in providing feedback. Various students reported that the personal attitude of the tutor was a determinant of the relationship during feedback interactions. Thus, students underlined that they expected EAP tutors to avoid using feedback interactions as a way to justify themselves. Rather, they expected EAP tutors to be encouraging while providing feedback as their approach could lead learners to withdraw from feedback interactions or from the class as a whole. Below is an example:

Extract#5.91:

1. sometimes we ask Amy, 'Amy, you incorrected, you crossed out this word
2. and you wrote this word', sometimes she becomes confusing and she tries
3. to justify herself

(Yerbol, Pre-requisite EAP student; interview; February 21, 2013 Thursday)

Yerbol reported that he had experiences with his EAP tutor where the tutor displayed a self-justifying and confusing attitude when he asked questions about her feedback (Lines 1-3).

Theme 2: Critical awareness of academic writing

The selective coding stage also revealed the theme of *critical awareness of academic writing* for learners.

The selective coding supported the open coding stage finding that learners were aware of the variations within the academic context, and that they adjusted themselves to the

specific situations. However, they still critiqued the ways feedback practices regarding writing were conducted, and they questioned the academic conventions in their home and target cultures. Still, it is possible that students already had this feature with them when they engaged in feedback interactions.

As in the open coding, there were two contributing categories that shaped the theme of critical awareness of academic writing. These were *contemplation* and *pro-activity*.

As in the open coding, the use of *contemplation* in selective coding also meant an increased consideration with close attention to an issue. Learners displayed the contemplation through displaying an *increased awareness of previous culture and understanding of target culture*. Selective coding expanded this category in terms of its dimensions and by adding further understanding to the role of feedback interactions in the development of contemplation. This category was expanded with the concept of *understanding of self-writing*, which is a new constitutive concept of the category *contemplation*. The category *contemplation* was also expanded through a deeper understanding of the role of feedback interactions since selective coding provided insight into the role of and experiences with *interactional* dimensions of feedback. This was because when asked about the role of the feedback discussions in the development of awareness, learners underlined that feedback interactions doubled what was learnt in the courses and what was simply underlined/corrected on their writing by bringing those issues to a consciousness level, as it gave them the chance to actively participate and lead the discussions. Therefore, it is worth providing a sample before going into further detail.

Extract#5.92:

1. **Z:** So is the corrections that help you or the discussions, how do you
2. differentiate the two?
3. **Y:** discussion, correction. Err how can I say, if they correct us and explain
4. why did they correct it, I think it's double, how can I say, double help or
5. something like this, because sometimes we can see that they crossed out
6. some word or write some word instead of we can confuse it why she crossed
7. out this word because our word is maybe more how can I say sounds for us
8. good, or how can I say, but if they explain it, this is more helpful [...]Then,
9. only correct it if they only correct it without explaining, it's not good, but if
10. they explain and discuss it, this is more useful

(Z: Zuleyha [interviewer]; Y: Yerbol [student], Pre-requisite EAP student; interview; February 21, 2013 Thursday)

In the extract above, Yerbol, a Pre-requisite EAP student, indicated that participating in feedback interactions with the tutors was more beneficial for students (Lines 3-4).

This was because interactions gave them the chance to discuss and therefore better understand and learn about the issues in their writing (Lines 6-9).

Selective coding supported the existence of *an increased awareness of previous culture* from student interviews. *An increased awareness of previous culture* indicated that learners, again through their experiences with feedback discussions, developed an understanding of writing traditions in their previous contexts. They explained that writing did not have a significant role in their previous contexts as much as grammar or reading aspects of the language did. They reported that structural and stylistic differences had existed in the writing traditions of their home cultures. The example below by Charlo indicated that the learner was aware of the different writing conventions existing in her home country. She explained that they were not required to write a conclusion section in writing in her home country as it was assumed that everything had been written in the body of the text (Lines 1-2). She further stated that

a well-written, long introduction with six clear points, clear topics, and arguments was the most important aspect of writing in her home country (Lines 3-5).

Extract#5.93:

1. For example the plan of the essays [...], we don't need any conclusion
2. because everything normally has been said in the body of the essay, so we
3. need a good introduction, really good introduction with six points, to
4. introduce the subject, to smallest topic, argumentation, so introduction is
5. really important, it has to be really longer,

(Charlo; Specialised EAP class student; interview; November 7, 2012 Wednesday)

As for *Understanding of target culture*, it indicates how learners approached the academic writing in their target discourse. Selective coding also supported that learners reported their understanding of how academic writing was conducted in the target domain, while simultaneously critiquing target culture traditions of writing.

As in the open coding, regarding the understanding of how academic writing was conducted, it was revealed that learners developed a comprehensive approach where macro aspects of writing gained significance as well micro aspects. While describing the criteria for academic writing, they listed not only grammar but also issues such as clarity, appropriateness, organisation of arguments, and use of vocabulary.

Extract#5.94:

1. it's important about with scientific styles and another thing is the vocabulary
2. that we have some specific vocabulary in our scientific writing and so
3. writing paper, and the second thing its structures of this writing that how
4. could I get a very nice writing stuff so that it can persuade the readers to
5. go through the papers because we can write but there may be so many things
6. that he knows that I don't know, how to make readers happy with the writing

(Surinder, Specialised EAP class student; interview; November 29, 2012 Thursday)

Above, Surinder above explained that the vocabulary, structure, clarity, and audience requirements of the writing were the issues to take into account in science-based writing (Lines 1-6).

Moreover, as in the open coding, it was observed that students indicated issues such as academic writing being ‘rigid, rule-governed, and difficult’. Yet, they also underlined that this feature of academic writing helped learners achieve their goal of conforming to the norms by giving an equal chance with other people who were also expected to do academic writing. Indeed, students stressed that they first needed to learn the basics of an issue to be able to make innovations through it. Below is an example:

Extract#5.95:

1. I think for the academic writing there should be some criterias for students
2. you see lots of people from different nations, they all study English, but it’s
3. not enough, you can’t make sure that a French or Italy their English you can
4. understand. So all these academic stuff have to follow this criteria.

(Shu-Hao; Pre-sessional EAP class student; interview; September 13, 2012 Thursday)

Above, Shu-Hao from the Pre-sessional EAP Class emphasised that the existence of criteria for academic writing was necessary (Line 1). This was because the writing of students from different nationalities might not be understandable enough for everybody (Lines 2-4).

Students also displayed an awareness of the variety existing within the academic writing at different levels as below:

Extract#5.96:

1. Michael has shared with us those different types of writing general like
2. argumentative, discussive that kind of thing then the way we send our ideas
3. that maybe different in different types of writing

(Tiantian, Specialised EAP class student; interview; February 27, 2013 Wednesday)

Extract#5.97:

1. I think it depends on the file what you're learning, what you kind of degree
2. doing on, because they have different kind of learn, English, English
3. you have to learn write, in my business school they will expect completely
4. different style to what I have in Law, I assume people who study English
5. they have completely different style of English, so I think it depends on on
6. what you are doing

(Danuta, Specialised EAP class student; interview; 5 December, 2012 Wednesday)

In the first extract, Tiantian displayed her awareness that the way writing was conducted in the target context varied (Lines 1-2). She, therefore, explained that how they were asked to explain their ideas also changed depending on the type of the writing (Lines 2-3). Danuta expanded on Tiantian's account; she explained that writing was also dependent on disciplines (Line 1). She exemplified that her business school and law school asked her to write differently (Lines 3-4). Thus, she presumed that the English department would also differ in writing requirements (Lines 3-5).

Understanding of self-writing is a new concept that was generated during selective coding. Students frequently indicated their awareness of the weak aspects in their writing. In the extract below, Danuta showed that the feedback interactions increased self-awareness of her writing (Lines 1-2). She pointed out that having someone to show them problems in their writing and give them suggestions not only built a self-awareness but also urged her to be more careful while writing (Lines 3-5).

Extract#5.98:

1. he shows that there is an issue so that's how he build my awareness of the
2. issues of they are there, so I must be sure that this is good way of writing, if
3. I do this way yeah, if someone shows you that there is a mistake and you
4. should put I before this word or he or this one there, that's how he just
5. build my awareness of be more careful the way I like write,

(Danuta, Specialised EAP class student; interview; 5 December, 2012 Wednesday)

As in the open coding stage, the category of *Pro-activity* indicated various actions by learners following their increased awareness of writing in previous and target contexts as well as self-writing. Particularly through the feedback interactions, learners were given techniques and structures to use while writing. Additionally, they developed various self-strategies to meet the academic writing requirements within their new context. These strategies, as found in selective coding, are listed below. Examples are given after the table.

- Referring to the EAP materials,
- Taking notes during feedback interactions to use later,
- Reading articles to better understand word structure,
- Focusing on the differences of English language from the mother tongue,
- Focusing on the corrections by the EAP tutor
- Focusing on revision procedures in the feedback talk,
- Using synonyms to improve word use
- Writing all the paper again after feedback.

Table 5.5. Learner strategies to meet academic writing requirements

Extract#5.99:

1. I will rewrite all of it [...] That's help me remember I think, I think it's so
2. much I need to cover the first six months that I would read and I would
3. forget. By doing something would keeps you memorize a bit longer

(Danuta, Specialised EAP class student; interview; 5 December, 2012
Wednesday)

Extract#5.100:

1. I try to find the synonyms or if the style is wrong, I try to use another
2. structure for the whole sentence,

(Thomas, Specialised EAP class student; interview; November 1, 2012
Thursday)

Above, Danuta reported a strategy that she developed through her feedback interactions. She rewrote her essay since this helped her remember what she was told for a longer period of time (Line 1). In the following sample, Thomas explained that he tried to find synonyms while writing (Line 1). He also explained that focusing on

the style and trying alternative structures in cases of problems were other strategies (Lines 1-2).

5.5. Conclusion

In this chapter, I first described the selective coding tradition in GT. Following this, I provided information about the analysis tool at this stage. Thirdly, I detailed the selective coding stages. Before the summary section, I explained and discussed the findings that emerged through selective data analysis. Next, in Chapter 6, I will detail theoretical coding procedures and findings.

CHAPTER 6

THEORETICAL CODING: PROCEDURES & FINDINGS

This section consists of five main sections. The first section describes the theoretical coding procedure in Grounded Theory (GT hereafter). The second section explains the theoretical coding tool. In the third part, I detail the conduct of the theoretical coding using the memos, and the themes and their properties, which I had produced through open and selective coding. Finally, after I explain and discuss the conceptualization through the theoretical coding, I give a summary of the chapter.

6.1. Theoretical Coding in Grounded Theory

The theoretical coding procedure aims at “connecting and exploring the relationship between themes and their properties to develop the hypotheses leading to a theory” (Shannak & Aldhmour, 2009, p.47). Glaser (1978), as Kelle (2007) explains, differentiates between substantive and theoretical coding stages. With substantive coding, Glaser (*ibid.*) refers to open and selective coding stages where substantive codes are generated (*ibid.*). With theoretical coding, Glaser (*ibid.*) refers to theoretical codes, which aim at developing hypothetical connections among the substantive codes to generate an integrated theory (Glaser, 1978, p.72). While conceptualizing the substantive codes, those theoretical codes “put the fractured story back together again” to create new, relevant and original connections between the themes and properties that are generated through open and selective coding (*ibid.*).

Substantive codes may be related to each other without theoretical codes, but Glaser (1978, p.72) states that the relationship between substantive codes without theoretical codes would not be clear enough. Likewise, theoretical codes would be “empty

abstractions without substantive codes” (*ibid.*). In this study, I went through the stages of open and selective coding. In these coding stages, I developed the themes of *relationship patterns, learners’ and teachers’ institutional self, and critical awareness of academic writing*. Under these themes were also various categories and concepts. In both open and selective coding chapters, I detailed what these concepts and categories meant while also providing data samples to clarify them. However, these explanations lacked comparison of case units while staying at the level of description. Through theoretical coding, the task was to show what these themes and their properties meant altogether and what relationship existed among them.

It is worth repeating that the procedures of open, selective and theoretical coding are not isolated, but rather connected processes (Hernandez, 2009). These stages concur to a certain extent, but at a given stage of the research, the researcher concentrates on one stage (Glaser, 1978). In the previous stages of my study (i.e., open and selective coding) I was already developing ideas about theoretical coding (i.e., initial attempt to theoretical coding). However, I immersed myself fully in the theoretical coding task only after open and selective coding stages.

Several issues gain significance in the stage of theoretical coding. These issues are types of theory within GT, theoretical coding families, theoretical sorting and analytical rules to develop a theory through GT. I will address these issues in the following sub-sections.

6.1.1. Types of Theory in GT

Two types of theory can be developed through GT, which are substantive theory and formal theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In this section, I first explain what each type of grounded theory means. Following this, I go through three features which connect

both types of GT. Finally, I explain the type of theory this study developed with the underlying reasons.

Before detailing substantive and formal theories, it is worth noting that the distinction between the two is not clear-cut. Glaser (2007, p.110) underlines that “formal and substantive grounded theories are tied together and much of what is written on formal theory reflects back on substantive theory and helps understanding it while the reverse situation is also true”. Still, I will provide some information about both types using the descriptions by various scholars.

Substantive GT consists of concepts and hypotheses which “are based on data focusing on one area of study” (Gilgun, Daly & Handel, 1992, p.102). Glor (2008) defines substantive theory as a theory that attempts to reach understanding through the work on one particular empirical area. Charmaz (2006, p.8), likewise, indicates the “delimited feature” of substantive theory and defines most grounded theory studies as substantive theory as “they address delimited problems in specific substantive areas such as study of how newly disabled young people construct their identities”.

As for formal theories, they are the generation of abstract concepts in multiple substantive areas (Charmaz, 2006). The formal theory is what “broadens the base of generalizing” (Glaser, 2007, p. 100). Glaser (2007, p.99) states that the possibility of the existence of core categories/themes of a substantive theory across different contexts “engenders a need to study it generally” and paves the way for the construction of formal theories. Therefore, formal grounded theory is generalized and abstracted through the discovery of “similar concepts and hypotheses across areas of study, time and setting and informants” (Gilgun et al., 1992, p.102). Still, although being more general and abstract than the substantive theory, formal theory is required to stay close to the data it attempts to explain as well.

As for the features that have a significant role in both formal and substantive grounded theories, these are conceptual generality, applicability and the potential to grab.

Conceptual generality establishes the base for the abstraction (Glaser, 2007). The examination of the substantive GT's core categories and themes in new data and studies "in other substantive areas" constructs the general implications a formal grounded theory puts forward (Glaser, 2007, p.99). In that sense, conceptual generality connects substantive theory to formal theory.

The second feature is applicability. Glaser (2007) states that whether people are able to transfer the general implications of a GT to other contexts/settings determines the applicability. The applicability of the theory is closely related with the conceptual generalizability (*ibid.*). That is, the more successful the conceptual generalizability of a substantive theory is, the easier a substantive theory is modified for a wide range of settings, contexts, and conditions to become a springboard for the development of a formal grounded theory (Glaser, 2007). However, the higher the descriptive generalizability, "which is rooted in one empirical area, and never really fits and is soon outdated" (Glaser, 2007, p.106), the less possible it is to develop a successful formal grounded theory that could be "a plausible account for a large number and range of empirical observations" (Glaser, 2007, p.107).

The third feature of grounded theory is its grab. That is, the theory, either substantive or formal, needs to be relevant and meaningful for participants' experiences (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). This is because, according to Glaser (2007, p.107), the grab of a substantive theory is what leads to the development of formal theory which is a "high impact dependent variable of great importance and which happens automatically with ease" across different settings.

The theory this study aims to develop is closer to being a substantive GT. This is because my study focuses on the work of one particular empirical area. That is, it addresses the relationship patterns in feedback interactions on EAP writing. This means that this study is ‘delimited in a specific substantive area’. Regarding this issue, the reader may question how the theory in this study, which is a single case study with embedded units, can have the features of conceptual generalizability, applicability, and grab.

In terms of generalizing conceptually through substantive theory, Glaser (2007, p.100) underlines that even though a single case study may be too particularistic, “general implications abound at all levels”. However, in terms of generalizability in case studies, Richards (2011, p.216) recommends that “rather than seeking to work within an inappropriate trajectory from ‘representative sample’ to ‘generalizable findings’, it is more productive to think in terms of using ‘strategic selection of a case’ to generate ‘illustrative outcomes’ that draw strength from the rich particularity of individual cases”. In this study, the core theme of relationship patterns in feedback interactions on academic writing and its influencing factor of institutional self and possible consequence of the critical awareness of academic writing existed across case units, which were Generic In-sessional EAP classes, Pre-Sessional EAP, Specialized EAP classes and Pre-requisite EAP classes. Therefore, the theory developed through the findings within these settings might function as illustrative outcomes.

As for applicability and grab, in my study, I approached these issues from the perspectives of ‘usefulness’ and ‘resonance’. As I have already shown in Chapter 3-Methodology (Section 3.6. Evaluating Qualitative Research) and as I will discuss in Chapter 8-Discussion (Section 8.2), usefulness is defined as the “contribution and relevance (of a grounded theory) to existing knowledge in the substantive area of

knowledge” (Henderson, 2009, p.131). Within this concept, whether the theory is able to offer interpretations that people can use in their everyday worlds, whether it is able to reveal any generic processes, and what future research directions the theory leads to are evaluated. As for resonance, it indicates the relevance and meaningfulness of the theory for participants. To this end, the theory is required to fully portray the studied experience and offer deeper insights about participants’ lives and worlds. Please refer to Chapter-8 (Sections 8.2.3 and 8.2.4) for further details on how the theory in this study addressed to usefulness and resonance requirements.

6.1.2. Theoretical Coding Families

The theoretical coding stage necessitates detailing the theoretical coding families even though such a discussion is something of a side-step in this chapter. Therefore, in this section, I first explain what a theoretical coding family indeed is. Following this, I explicate what theoretical coding families have been offered by Glaser (1978; 1998) and what these families refer to. Finally, I briefly describe the theoretical coding family I utilized in this study with the underlying reasons.

Theoretical coding families, according to Kelle (2007, p.199), are “highly abstract concepts from epistemology and sociological grand theory, which make basic claims about ordering of the social world”. These coding families are sets of semantic notions that were developed to guide researchers in giving meaning to their analysis (Kelle, 2007). These terms enable researchers to link codes through different ways of naming the already coded substantive events to develop an integrated theory. Kelle (2007, p.203) states that theoretical coding families have been developed to help researchers “investigate without any preconceptions”. However, Kelle (*ibid.*) also underlines that the “emergence of theoretical coding families which can adequately describe phenomena in the empirical field is always dependent on the researchers’ theoretical

sensitivity, their ability to grasp the empirical phenomena in theoretical terms” (*ibid.*). Therefore, using these theoretical coding families effectively might require “extended training and broad background in sociological theory” (*ibid.*). Furthermore, while novice researchers may encounter difficulties with “these compilation of theoretical terms from various sociological and epistemological backgrounds”, experienced researchers may not need to apply these theoretical coding families in their theoretical coding stage (*ibid.*). Still, although theoretical coding families may bring these concerns, Charmaz (2006, p.63) states that they may add to the “precision and clarity of the analysis” by helping with the “coherence and comprehension”.

In my study, theoretical coding families functioned as different perspectives to interpret the findings. Trying several theoretical coding families helped me better understand whether the finally-selected theoretical coding family would clearly and coherently explain the theory. Thus, I believe that even though theoretical coding families were criticized by Kelle (2007) as above, they benefited this study to a great extent.

Glaser (1978; 1998) introduces 23 theoretical coding families. Glaser (1978) also explains that the researchers can develop their own coding families as well. Furthermore, he states that theoretical coding families are emergent (Glaser, 1978). Therefore, “the fullest range of theoretical coding possibilities are never known”, and the researcher needs to be theoretically sensitive and open to be able to “render the subtleties of the relationships in his data” (Glaser, 1978, p.72). Glaser’s coding families are shown below on a table with examples. Glaser (1978, p.73) describes them as “flexible, not mutually exclusive, but overlapping” (*ibid.*). The overlap can better be understood in the below table:

Families	Examples [GLASER, 1978, pp.73 - 82]
The Six C's	Causes (sources, reasons, explanations, accountings or anticipated consequences), Context or Ambiance, Contingencies, Consequences (outcomes, efforts, functions, predictions, anticipated/ unanticipated), Covariances, Conditions or Qualifiers.
Process	Stage, Staging, Phases, Phasing, Progressions, Passages, Gradation, Transitions, Steps, Ranks, Careers, Ordering, Trajectories, Chains, Sequencing, Temporalizing, Shaping, Cycling.
Degree	Limit, Range, Intensity, Extent, Amount, Polarity, Extreme, Boundary, Rank, Grades, Continuum, Probability, Possibility, Level, Cutting Points, Critical Juncture, Statistical Average (mean, medium, mode), Deviation, Exemplar, Modicum, Full, Partial, Almost, Half.
Dimension	Dimensions, Elements, Divisions, Piece of, Properties of, Facet, Slice, Sector, Portion, Segment, Part, Aspect, Section.
Type	Type, Form, Kinds, Styles, Classes, Genre.
Strategy	Strategies, Tactics, Mechanisms, Managed, Way, Manipulation, Maneuvering, Dealing with, Handling, Techniques, Ploys, Means, Goal, Arrangements, Dominating, Positioning.
Interactive	Mutual Effects, Reciprocity, Mutual Trajectory, Mutual Dependency, Interdependence, Interaction of effects, Covariance, Face to Face Interactions, Self-indications, Delayed-interaction
Identity-Self	Self-image, Self-concept, Self-worth, Self-evaluation, Identity, Social worth, Self-realization, Transformation of self, Conversions of identity.
Cutting Point	Boundary, Critical juncture, Cutting point, Turning point, Benchmark, Division, Cleavage, Scales, In-out, Intra-extra, Tolerance levels, Dichotomy, Point of no return.,
Means-goal	End, Purpose, Goal, Anticipated consequences, Products.
Cultural	Social norms, Social values, Social belief, Social Sentiments.
Consensus	Clusters, Agreements, Contracts, Definitions of Situation, Uniformities, Opinions, Conflict, Discensus, Differential perception, Cooperation, Homogeneity-heterogeneity, Conformity, Non conformity, Mutual expectation.
Mainline	Social control, Recruitment, Socialization, Stratification, Status passage, Social organization, Social order, Social interaction, Social mobility.
Theoretical	Parsimony, Scope, Integration, Density, Conceptual level, Relationship to data, Relationship to other theory, Clarity, Fit, Relevance, Modifiability, Utility, Condensibility, Inductive-Deductive balance and interfeeding, degree of.
Ordering or Elaboration	Structural Ordering (unit size of: organization, division...), Temporal Ordering, Conceptual Ordering
Unit	Collective, Group, Nation, Organization, Aggregate, Situation, Context, Arena, Social world, Behavior pattern, Territorial Units,
Reading	Concepts, Problems, Hypotheses.
Models	Linear model, Property Space.

Table 6.1. Glaser's (1978) theoretical coding families taken from <http://ftp.gunadarma.ac.id/linux/docs/v02/org/vlsm/gtm/gnm-gtm2.en.html>

Families	Examples [GLASER,1998, pp.170 - 175]
Basics	Basic Social Structural Process, Basic Social Structural Condition (shifts, semesters, quarters, fiscal), Basic Social Psychological Process (teaching, child rearing, learning curves, becoming, education, grieving, maturing), Basic Psychological Process (identity development, character formation, loving, unconscious agendas)
Paired Opposite	Ingroup-Outgroup (in-out), Manifest-Latent, Explicit-Tant, Figure-Ground, Normative-Comparative, Reduction-Substruction, Induction-Deduction, Generative-Verificational, Unit-Concept.
Representation	Descriptive, Proscriptive, Prescriptive, Evaluative, Sentimental. Properlining, Interpreting, Vauging, Base-lining, Conceptualizing.
Scale	Likert Scales, Guttman Scales, Cummulative Scales, Random Walk Scale, Funneling Down, Scaling Down.
Structural Functional	Authority Structure, Reference Groups, Role Sets, Status Sets.
Boundary	Confidence Limit, Tolerance Zone, Front Line.
Unit Identity	Professions.
Average	Mean, Median, Mode, Confidence Limit, Tolerance Zones.

Table 6.2. Glaser's (1998) theoretical coding families taken from <http://ftp.gunadarma.ac.id/linux/docs/v02/org/vlsm/gtm/gnm-gtm2.en.html>

In my study, after trying various possibilities, I finally found the Interactive Family most suitable. Glaser (1978, p.76) explains that the Interactive Family may cover issues of “mutual effects, reciprocity, mutual trajectory, mutual dependency, interdependence, interaction of effects, covariance”. These elements under the Interactive Family indicate an ‘interaction between patterns’ in the data. According to Glaser (*ibid.*), the analyst cannot distinguish which of these patterns are more important. Instead of a degree-based relationship, the patterns are connected, and “feed each other” (Glaser, 1978, p.76). In my study, I used the interaction of effects on the emergence of relationship patterns. However, I also made adjustments due to the specific needs of my research. Since open and selective coding generated a possible consequence as well, one adjustment was to include *interaction of consequences* with the other themes in the study. Therefore, I utilized the Interactive Family to show the ‘interaction of effects and consequences on the emergence of relationship patterns’. I

will provide further detail on how I worked with this theoretical coding family in *Section 6.3. Analysing the Data Theoretically: Stages of Theoretical Coding*.

6.1.3. Theoretical Sorting

Theoretical coding brings forward the issue of theoretical sorting, which necessitates skills, creativity and sensitivity (Glaser, 1978). Once the researcher develops the themes, categories and memos, the next step is to start sorting the themes and memos. Theoretical sorting is a *conceptual sorting* since it does not include sorting of actual data (Glaser, 1978, p.116). Glaser (*ibid.*) underlines that if sorting is omitted, the resulting theory may be a “linear, thin, less than fully integrated, not rich with multi-relations”. Therefore, the theoretical sorting aims at the conceptual sorting of already existing themes to clarify a meaningful and coherent connection among those themes. Without theoretical sorting, the study has the risk of remaining at the level of mere description of themes developed.

Charmaz (2006, p.115) states that theoretical sorting provides the researcher with “a means of creating and refining theoretical links”. She recommends that researchers develop their own way of conducting theoretical sorting (Charmaz, 2006, p.116). However, the researcher is reminded of the fact that the closer the sorting “reflects the depiction of the flow of the empirical experience, the smoother it will seem to the researcher and the readers” (*ibid.*). Still, it is also acknowledged that when the researcher focuses on several themes, sorting and integrating memos may be more challenging to construct a smooth depiction (*ibid.*). That is, when the researchers develop several themes, it may be difficult to understand the possible conceptual connections among these themes through theoretical sorting. In my case, as I also worked with several themes, the theoretical sorting stage was challenging in terms of reaching the required precision and clarity with the end-theory. However, sorting in

different ways and using the strategy of explaining/writing what these various ways of sorting would mean helped me to better diagnose the possible problems and improve the theoretical sorting.

6.1.4. Analytic Rules

Glaser (1978) describes several issues to be taken into account during theoretical coding. These are listed as below:

- a) **Promotion-demotion of core variables:** Coverage of all theoretical possibilities or explanation of all variation is not the goal of theoretical coding (Glaser, 1978, p.122). Therefore, the analyst is recommended to “promote one core variable to the center and demote the others to a sub-core variable, which like other variables, is related to the core in distinct ways” (*ibid.*). In my case, even though I had several themes (e.g., institutional self, relationship patterns, and critical awareness of academic writing), I did not have the problem of determining the most significant theme. Relationship patterns grew into being a strong central theme throughout the study in open and selective coding stages.
- b) **Integrative fit:** The final theory has to successfully explain the properties that have been developed through open and selective coding. In this study, I developed several draft theories and pictorial models, only to change them due to their inability to meet this criterion. The final pictorial model and the theory it purports, I believe, have the integrative fit as it can depict the properties I developed through open and selective coding.
- c) **Theoretical completeness:** Theoretical completeness requires the researcher to “explain with the fewest possible categories, and with the greatest possible scope, as much variation as possible in the behavior and problem under study” (Glaser, 1978, p.125). That is, the theory which is developed at the end of the

theoretical coding needs to “take into account all the variations in the data and conditions associated with these variations” (Hood, 2007, p.154). The concluding work needs to be “explained sufficiently with properties that fit, work, have relevance and are saturated” (*ibid.*). In the final pictorial model of this study, I used as few categories as possible while simultaneously attempting to show the variation in the study. For example, only the categories of *learners’ self-efficacy* and *learners’ motivators* were shown on the pictorial model even though they had constituting concepts. Also, by showing these categories in a dimensional way (e.g., intrapersonal, interpersonal and so forth), I displayed all the variations in the data and conditions associated with these variations as recommended by Hood (2007) (See Section 6.4 for further detail on intrapersonal, interpersonal and extra-personal dimensions).

- d) **Logico-deductive completeness:** The researcher needs to be aware of existence of more logical possibilities to explain and elaborate their theory. However, what is important is whether these logical explanations and elaborations would be grounded in the data. Therefore, since particular theoretical coding families would very easily explain the logical relationships between concepts, categories, and themes, the analyst must be careful and avoid making logical assumptions that the particular data s/he has would not support (Glaser, 1978). In my study, the issue of logico-deductive completeness was one of the challenges. As the scope of the data I worked with grew, it became harder and harder to see and follow whether I fell into the trap of logical deductions. When developing the final theory with its pictorial model, I experienced similar problems in showing the connections among the themes as well. One strategy I utilized, as frequently recommended by Glaser

(1978), was to go back to original data and memos to find supporting samples for the claim I made through the theory. Only where the memos and the data supported and provided examples, I proceeded with my decisions in theory building. For example, showing the relationship between *the critical awareness of academic writing* and *the institutional self* was one point where I experienced this problem.

6.2. Analysis Tool

Theoretical coding puts the fractured data back together in relevant and meaningful ways (Glaser, 1978). To do this, the researcher reviews and theoretically sorts the memos s/he has written as well as reviewing the categories and themes while conducting open and selective coding. To be able to facilitate this procedure, hand sorting of the memos is recommended although the emphasis on hand sorting varies (Glaser, 1978; Charmaz, 2006; Holton, 2010).

During theoretical coding, making a clear-cut distinction between manual and computer-software sorting was difficult since there was a continuous back-and-forth movement between these two strategies. However, manual coding was utilized mostly at the beginning of the sorting process during reading and reviewing memos and themes. As the theoretical coding proceeded, I started to work more on the computer. For computer-software coding, I used Microsoft Power Point and Microsoft Word document, on which I created possible visualizations of the conceptual mapping and sorting of memo and category titles and NVIVO software where I wrote my memos during analysis stages. For hand coding, I used hard-copies of the memos to sort them manually as well when necessary. Additionally, when I had difficulty in working with conceptual maps on computer, I worked on them manually as well by drawing them

on a piece of paper and trying to improve the relations in conceptual maps more clearly.

6.3. Stages of Theoretical Coding

Before detailing the stages of theoretical coding, it is worth reiterating that theoretical coding is a *conceptual coding* stage, which requires attention to the memos and the developed themes and categories rather than data coding. Therefore, showing what exactly was utilized in the theoretical coding stage is necessary:

Stage of Coding	Types of Theoretical Coding Material
Theoretical Coding	<u>Memos</u> , which were developed through the whole analysis stages of open and selective coding
	<u>Categories and themes</u> , which were developed and saturated at the end of whole coding procedure

Table 6.3. Types of theoretical coding material

It is worth restating that although I have presented the coding stages separately, these coding stages concurred. For example, in Chapter 4, as explained in Section 4.3.3, I attempted an initial theoretical coding at the end of the open coding stage. At that stage, I combined the theoretical families of Six-Cs family and Models. The Six Cs family seeks the sources, reasons, explanations, contexts, contingencies, consequences, covariances and consequences (Glaser, 1978). As for *models*, they depict the theory visually “by either a linear or a property space” (Glaser, 1978, p.81).

This initial attempt helped me develop an initial model as below:

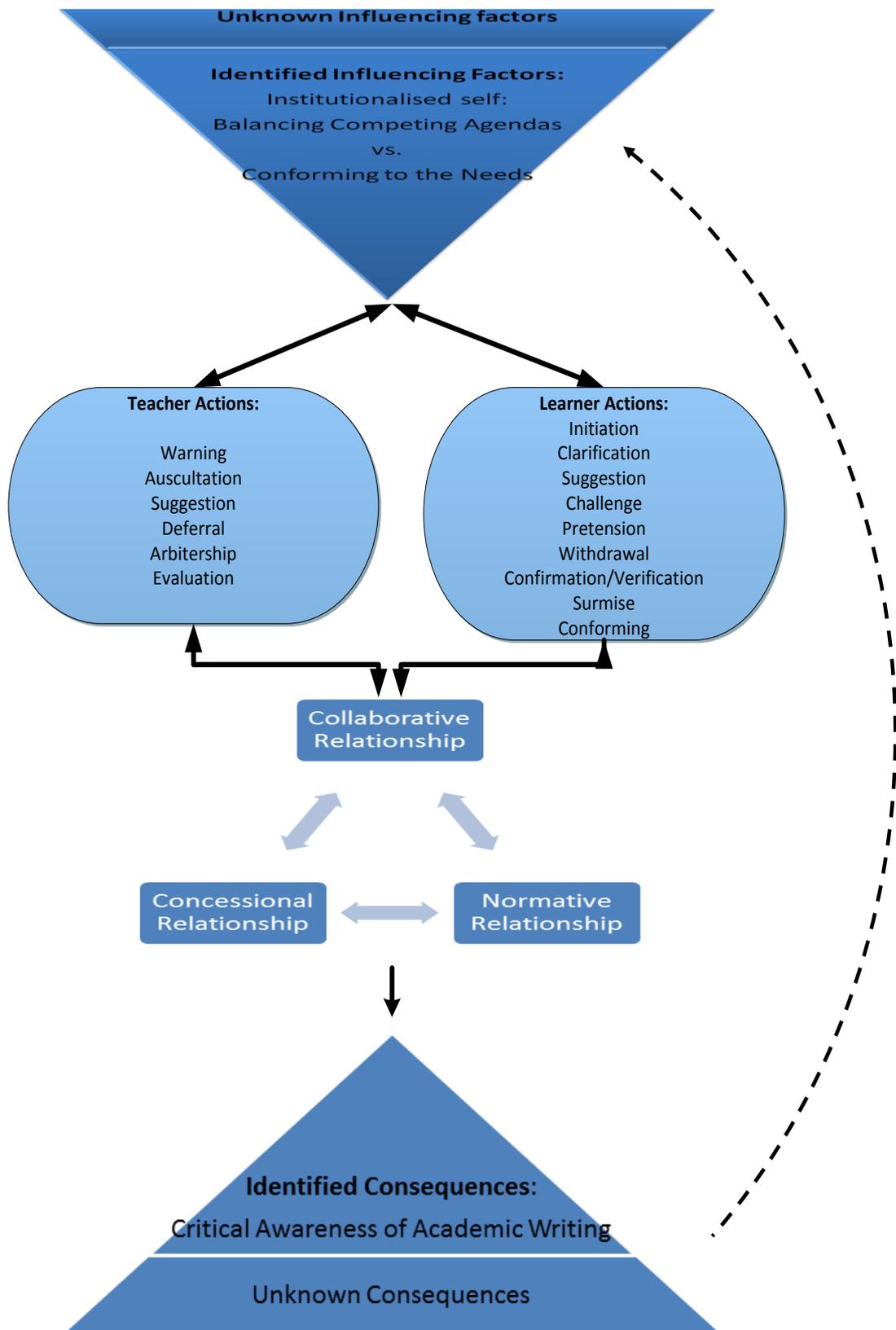


Figure 6.1. Model 1 as developed at the end of the initial theoretical coding

In the theoretical coding, as the scope and the data of the study increased, I moved towards developing a new pictorial model. The stages I followed are detailed below; although these stages are not mutually exclusive, I treat them separately here for clarity purposes.

Stage 1: Reading and Grouping Memos: At the beginning of the theoretical coding stage, I first read all the memos I wrote during the open and selective coding. Following this, I worked on NVIVO where I grouped memos under titles based on their relevance to the themes and categories I developed. Meanwhile, I reviewed the categories and themes during this initial sorting procedure. This helped me to have a clear starting point to see how memos were related to each other, and what relations they indicated among themes and categories.

Stage 2: Conceptual Mapping: I started by re-reading all the memos. Meanwhile, I opened a blank Microsoft Word page and wrote the themes I developed. While re-reading memos, I used this page as my map to move the themes around according to the relationships indicated by the memos. A screenshot of two of these can be seen below:

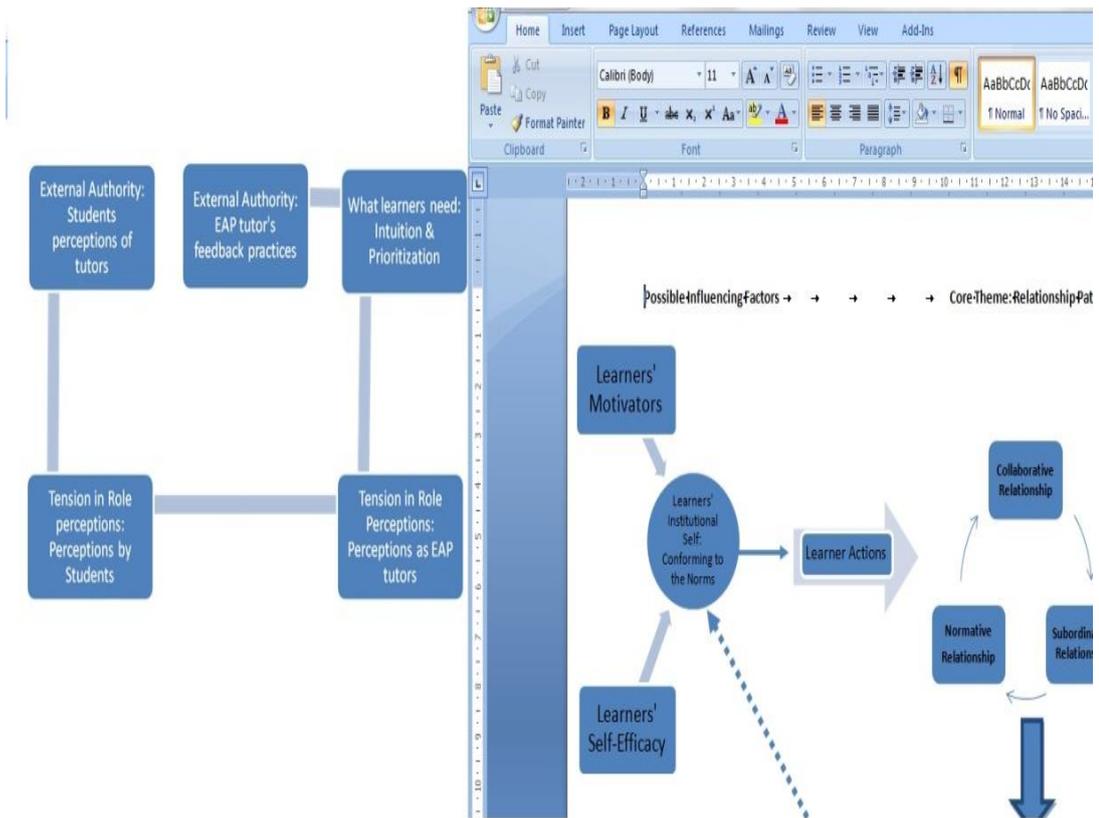


Figure 6.2. A screenshot of my initial attempts to relate themes theoretically

Glaser (1978) explains that re-reading, sorting and visualizing memos can lead to the creation of new memos since this process includes a continuous comparison of ideas to ideas. Therefore, the researcher is urged to ‘stop to write’ to be able to reach “intense densification of the theory and saturation of lines of thought within the theory, as well as codes” (Glaser, 1978, p.118). In this stage of theoretical coding, I also generated new memos through comparison of memos to memos.

Stage 3: Trying the map on the theoretical coding families for a model: I tried to explain the conceptual maps I developed through memo sorting by using the

theoretical coding families offered by Glaser (1978). I went through all the coding families, and tried to see whether they would explain the relationship as indicated by the conceptual map.

Initially, I combined the theoretical coding families of *Types* and *Six C-s*. However, several colleagues found its visualisation confusing. This model is presented below:

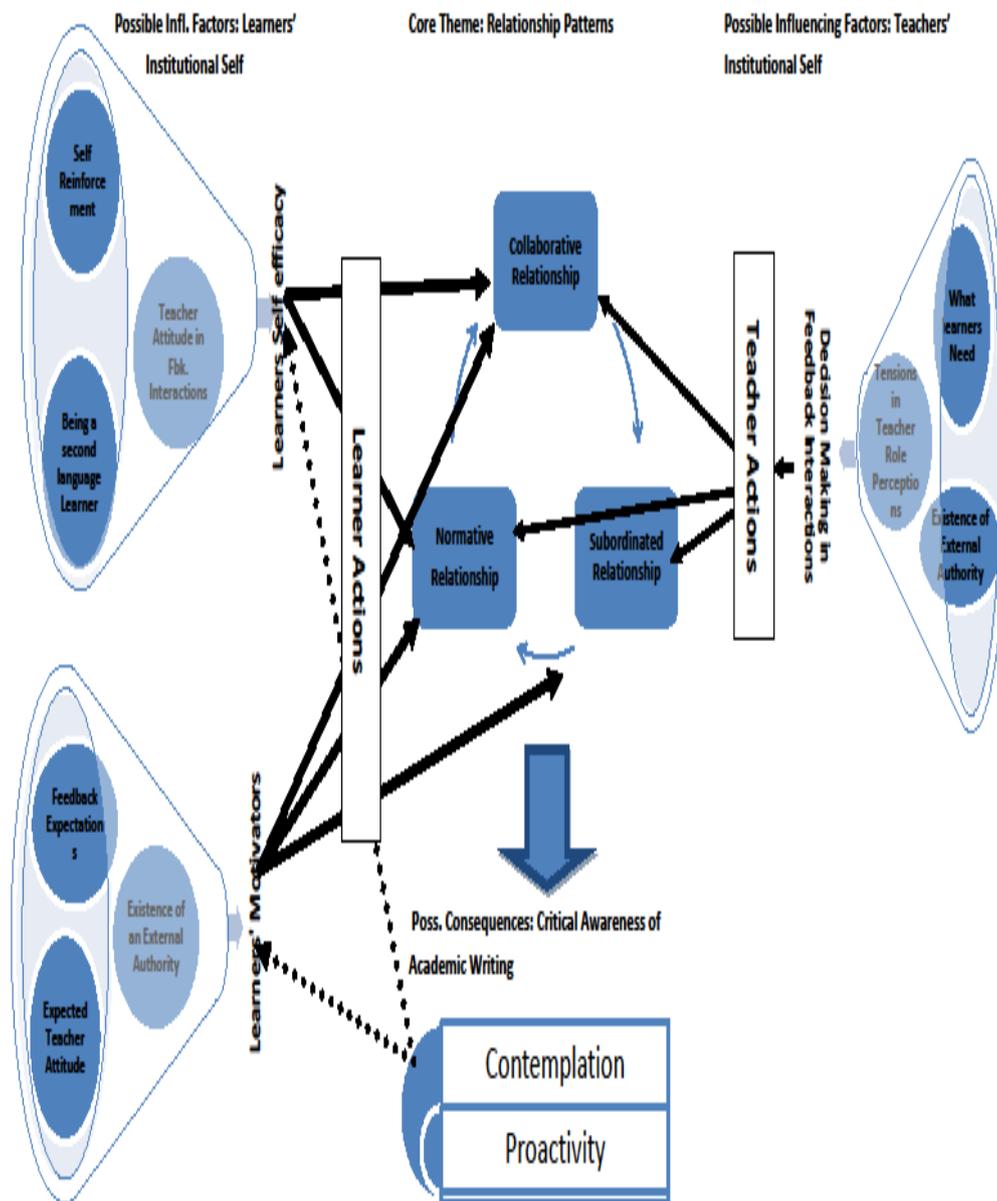


Figure 6.3. An earlier model developed with Types and Six-C-s theoretical coding families

Since Figure 6.3. was found confusing, I continued working on developing another pictorial model. After reconsidering the data, I decided to work on the Interactive Family. Glaser (1978, p.76) explains that issues of “mutual effects, reciprocity, mutual trajectory, mutual dependency, interdependence, interaction of effects, covariance” constitute the Interactive Family. The elements of the Interactive Family indicate an ‘interaction between patterns’ in the data. Since the analyst cannot distinguish which of these patterns are more important, the patterns are connected and “feed each other” without a degree-based relationship (Glaser, 1978, p.76). In my study, I used the interaction of effects on the emergence of relationship patterns. However, I also made adjustments due to the specific needs of my research. Since the open and selective coding generated a possible consequence as well, one adjustment was to include interaction of consequences with the other themes. Therefore, I brought forward the issue of ‘interaction of effects and consequences on the emergence of relationship patterns’ and developed a pictorial model. After explaining the visualisation process in the next stage, I will present the complete pictorial model and explain why I find this better.

Stage 4: Constructing a pictorial model: The pictorial model I developed through the process described above is presented in Figure 6.7 (p.316). I find this model more successful in terms of its ability to relate and grab the data than the initial models I developed. Before presenting the full model, I will go step-by-step to explain what each part of the model means and why I chose placing them in the places they are. I start explaining the model from the outer parts in order to achieve maximum clarity. When trying to draw a pictorial model of the theory, the theme of institutional self as developed by both teachers and students indicated a causal relationship to the core theme, that being relationship patterns. Furthermore, the review of memos suggested

that the institutional self of both learners and teachers were interacting with each other. At the same time, however, the memos indicated that the institutional selves of teachers and learners not only interacted with each other but also with a larger context, their own agendas, perceptions, and so forth. The pictorial model, thus, had to show all these interactions. I started by drawing a hexagonal star (or star polygon) for both teachers' and students' institutional selves. I showed the dimensions of institutional self, which are extra-personal, intrapersonal and interpersonal, on the star (I will explain and define those dimensions in Section 6.4). See the screenshot below:

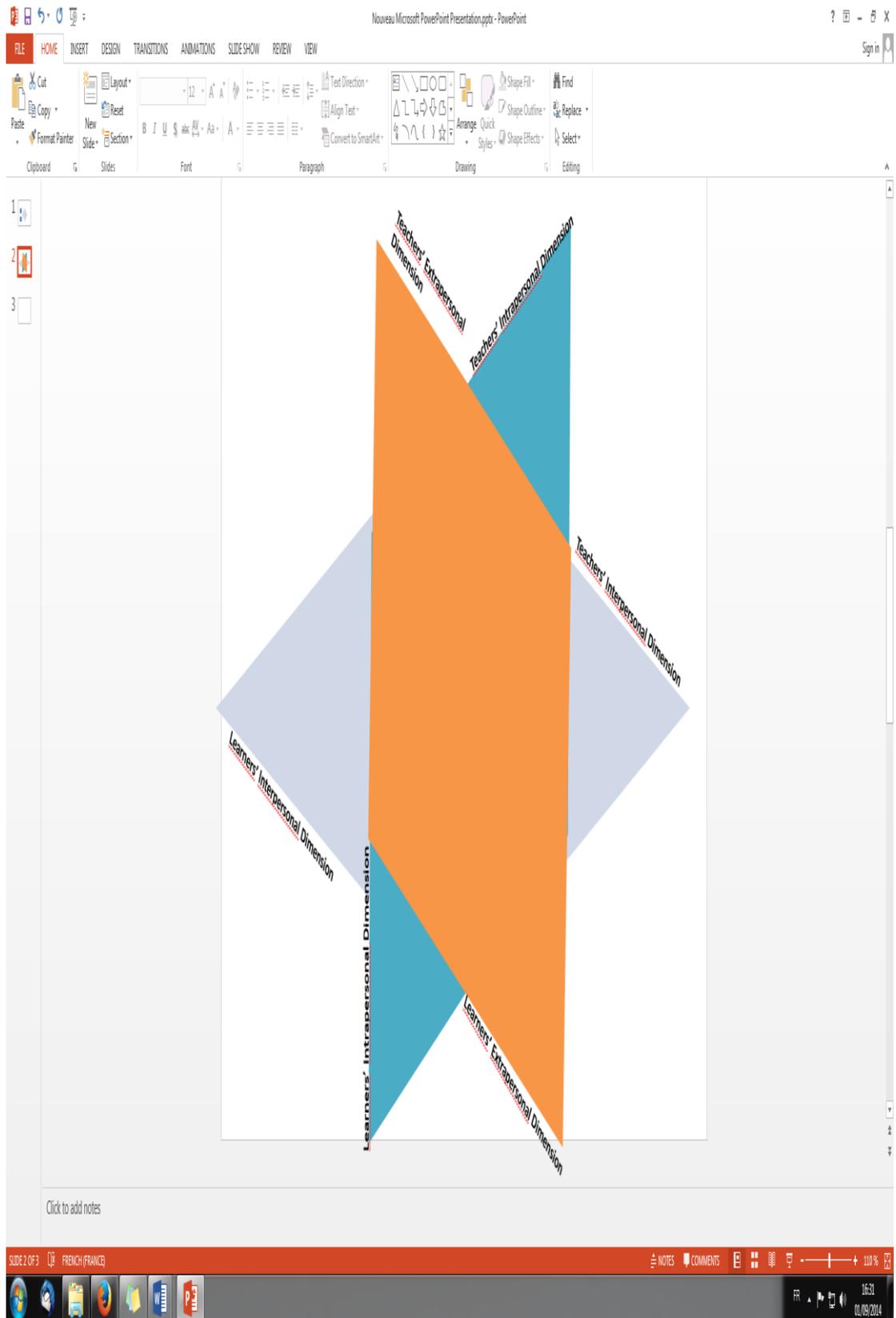


Figure 6.4. Dimensions of the institutional self on a hexagonal star for teachers and learners

After placing the learners' and teachers' institutional self as in the above screenshot with their dimensions, I inserted the components of institutional self for both teachers and students. These components were *decision making* for teachers, and *learners' motivators* and *learners-self efficacy* for learners. A review of memos indicated that all these components had intrapersonal, interpersonal and extra-personal dimensions. I show this below:

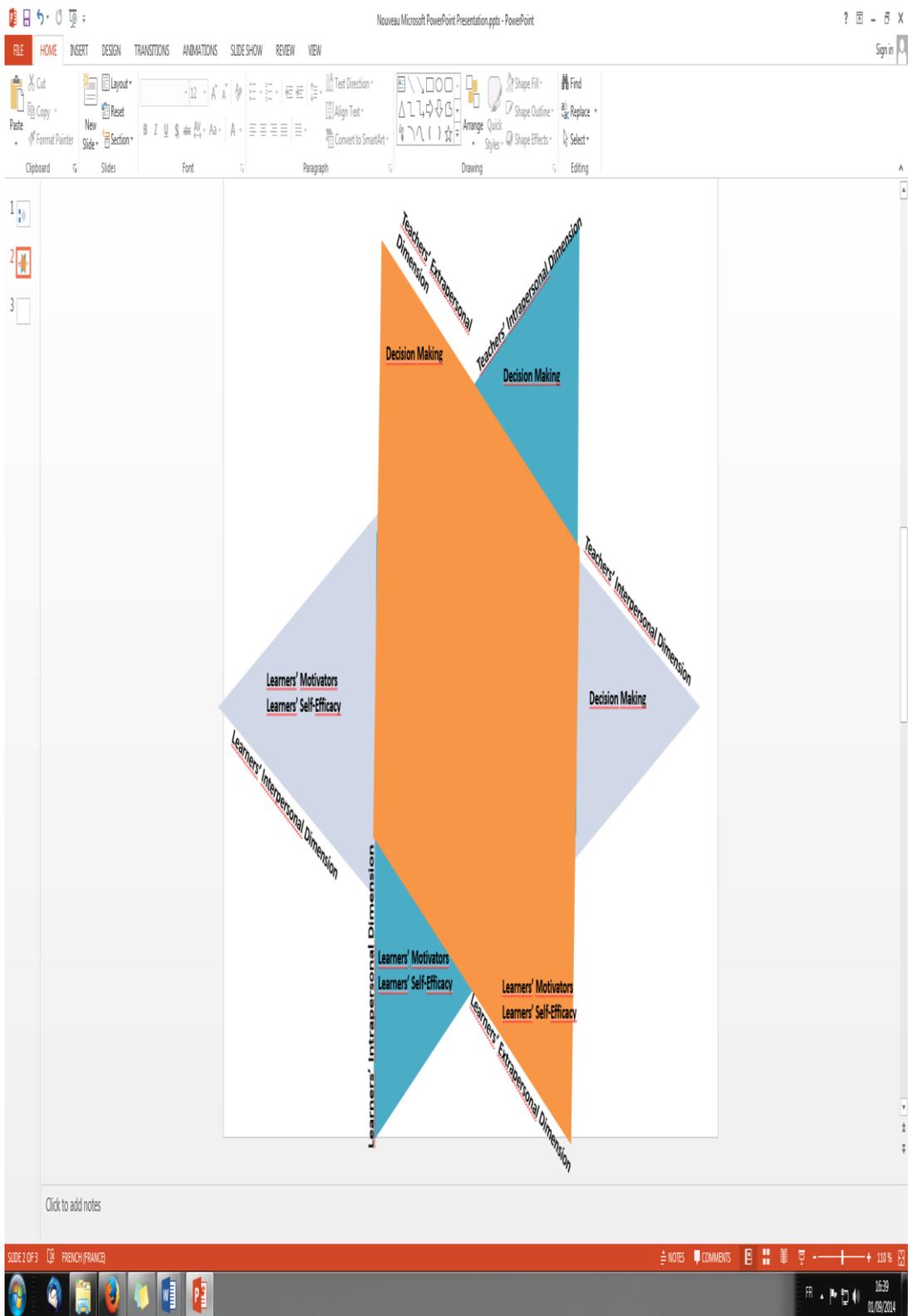


Figure 6.5. Components of institutional self for both teachers and students

Next, I sought to show how the learners' and teachers' actions interacted with the institutional self. These actions, according to the memos, were influenced by the institutional self. However, some of the data and memos also indicated that there might be a backward influence of actions on the institutional self, which is why the behavioural dimension is visualised as an embedded component in the star. Furthermore, the actions which were utilized by learners and teachers were not only constituting relationship patterns but also indicating the behavioural dimension of the relationship pattern. Thus, I inserted the actions in the middle of the star and showed them as the behavioural dimension. This way, I attempted to show that the institutional self influenced the behavioural dimension. By using turning arrows around actions, I indicated that these actions were shaping each other as well. After inserting the behavioural dimension, I inserted the relationship patterns. Below is a screenshot:

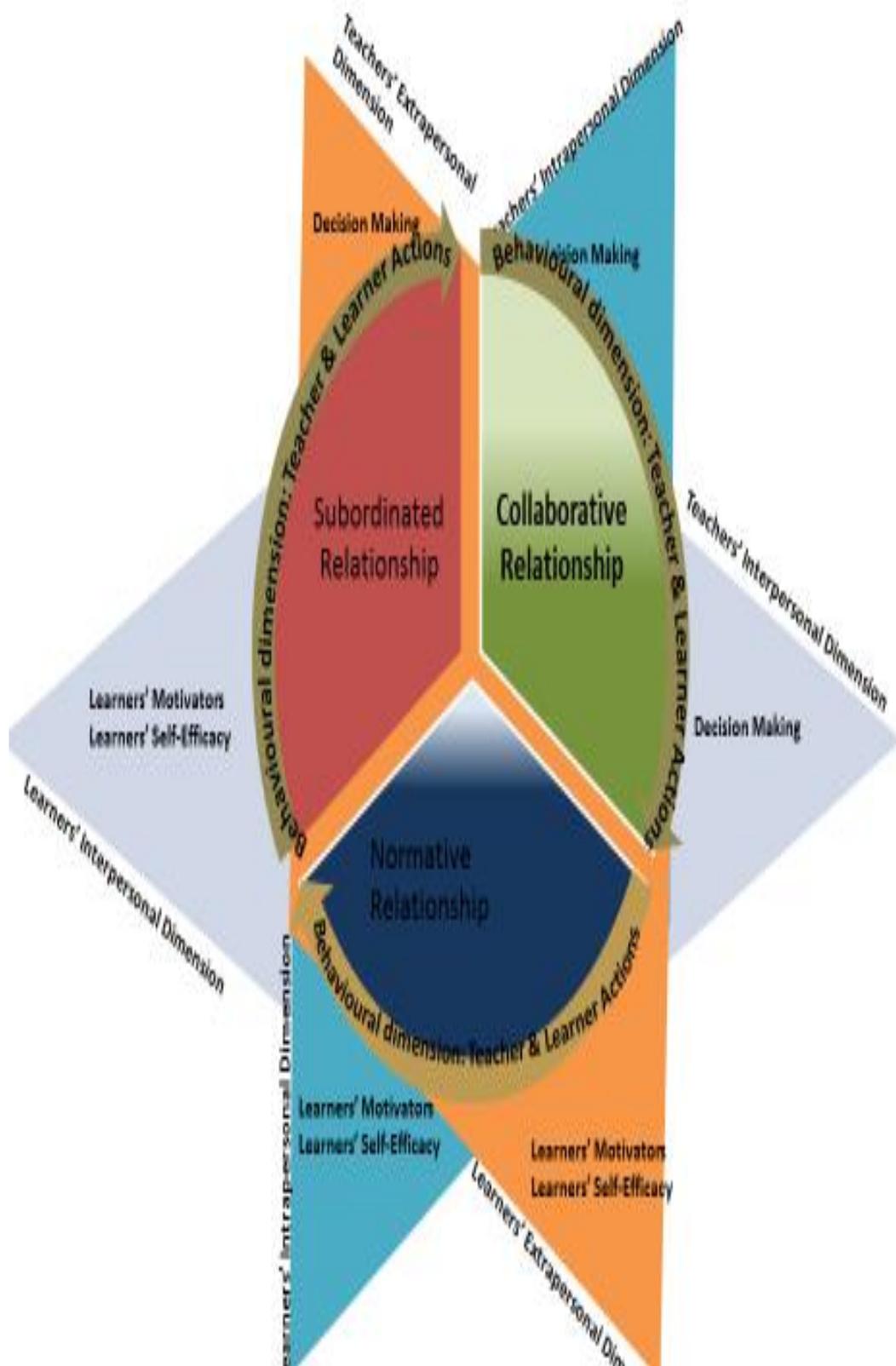


Figure 6.6. Adding behavioural dimension and relationship patterns

In the final step, I included the possible consequences of the relationship patterns, which was critical awareness of academic writing (CAAW). Since the memos indicated that CAAW could influence the institutional self of learners, I placed CAAW on the dimensions of learners' institutional self as well. Moreover, as there was no data indicating or implying that CAAW might be influencing the teachers' institutional selves, I did not show any relationship between teachers' institutional self and the CAAW on the model. Further study might better show the relationship between the institutional self and the CAAW for both teachers and students. The final pictorial model is shown below:

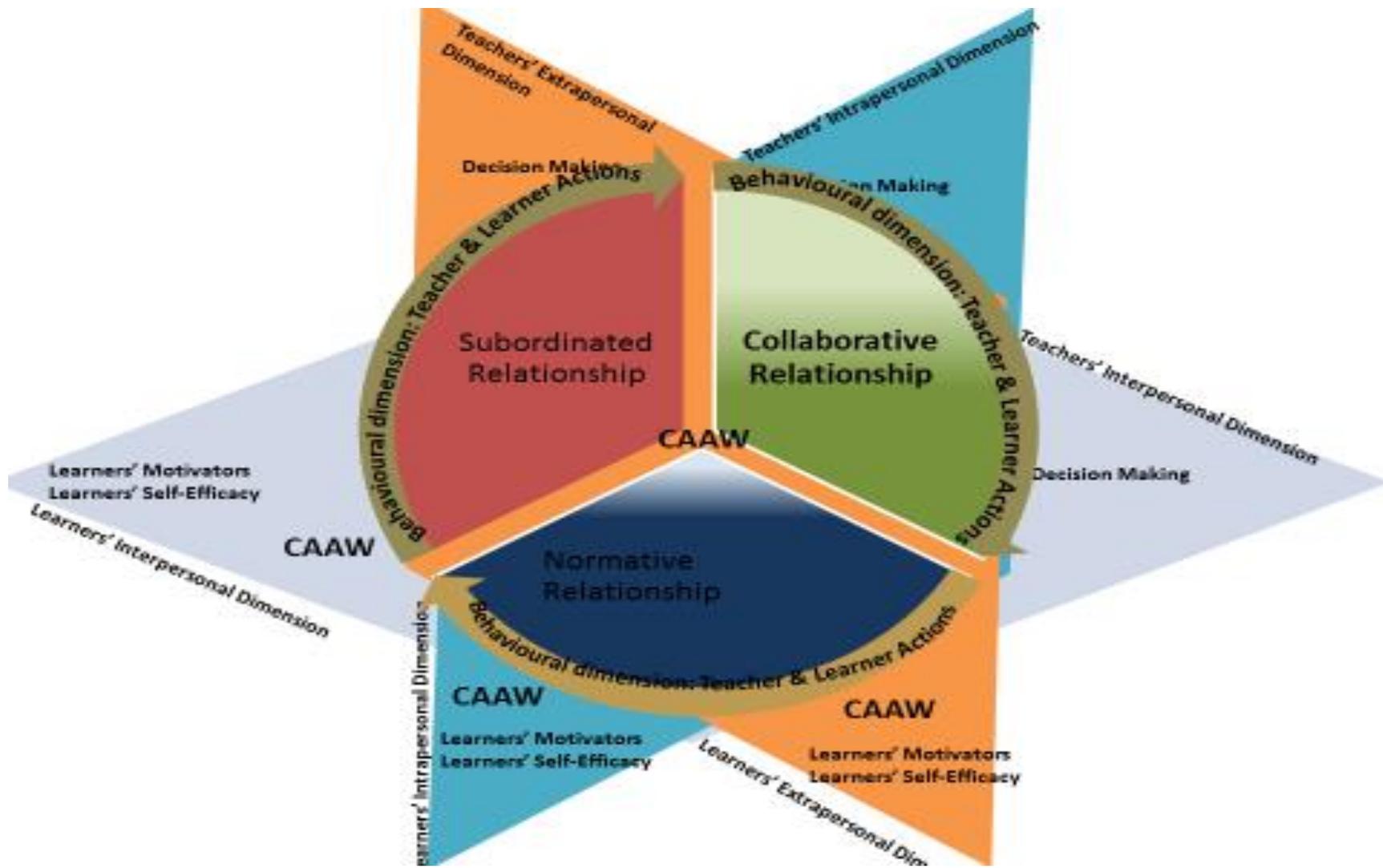


Figure 6.7. Final pictorial model for the theory

I find the above presented model more successful for various reasons. One reason is that it reflects the mutual construction of relationship patterns through the interaction of the institutional self of learners and teachers. It also attempts to show how individual and the broader factors are also included in the construction of relationship patterns. It does not represent layers, but rather dimensions, in a cyclic shape, which indicates that the influencing factors are equally important in the construction of relationship patterns. Finally, it shows the backward interaction of CAAW with learners' and teachers' institutional selves.

6.4. Defining and Explaining the Theory

In this section, I go through the pictorial model and explain the core hypotheses of this study. I start from the core theme, which is relationship patterns and move towards the outer parts of the model. The core hypotheses that developed at the end of theoretical coding process are below:

Hypothesis 1: Normative, collaborative, and subordinated relationships were the three relationship patterns in classroom feedback interactions on EAP writing between students and teachers. The emergence of these relationship patterns was not linear. Rather, they displayed an irregular pattern.

In the normative relationship patterns, the teacher was the more powerful partner. Teachers participated in the feedback interactions as the representatives of the target discourse. Therefore, they presented a more controlling and authoritative role during feedback. On the other hand, students attempted to learn about what was required of them by the target culture, and what was acceptable. This feature of learners made it easier for them to accept what their teachers told them.

An example is shown below:

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 6.4. An example for normative relationship pattern

In the collaborative relationship, neither side claimed control over the written work. Rather, they tried to understand the written text and its requirements together. An example is shown below:

Excerpt	Incident Label	Concept Label	Category Label
T: Why we use it is not necessarily advantages, be careful. You need to be careful with your headings.	Problem	Warning	Collaborative Relationship
S: But there will be a part about disadvantages part.	Disagree/ attempt to justify/ Problematize	Challenge	
T: I think you need to be careful with your title.	Problem	Warning	
T: How....? [Indicating a portion of text]	Trying to clarify what student wants to do	Diagnosis	Collaborative Relationship
S: I mean with the strategy.	Student Trying to clarify intentions	Clarification	
T: 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	
S: But the logic is first why and then what and how.	Student Counter argument	Challenge	

Table 6.5. An example for collaborative relationship

In the subordinated relationship, while the students began to gain a higher control over the written text, the teachers displayed a relatively cautious attitude. The fact that the students might have better knowledge of the requirements and expectations in their disciplines was the underlying reason for the emerging asymmetrical relationship. An example is shown below:

Excerpt	Incident Label	Concept Label	Category Label
T: Also, I don't understand 'by triangular inequality rule...' What do you mean 'by'?	T requesting clarification of use/meaning	Diagnosis	Subordinated Relationship
S: Using this rule. We mostly omit the word 'rule'.	L referring to an external authority/disciplinary language use	Adducing	
T: 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 6.6. An example for subordinated relationship pattern

Hypothesis 2: These relationship patterns emerged through and changed depending on the combination of certain teacher and learner actions. These actions constituted the behavioural dimension of the relationship patterns.

In the normative relationship, the teacher actions were *arbitership* and *evaluation*. The student actions were *conforming* and *withdrawal*.

In the collaborative relationship, the teacher actions were *warning*, *stimulation*, *diagnosis*, and *suggestion*. The learner actions were *initiation*, *clarification*, *suggestion*, *challenge*, *confirmation*, and *surmise*. In the subordinated relationship, teacher action was *deferral* while learners utilized *adducing*. Please refer to Chapters 4 and Chapter 5 for further detail on these actions.

Hypothesis 3: The behavioural dimension of relationship patterns was influenced by the learners' and teachers' institutional self. The institutional self is how individuals positioned themselves in the system they were part of through the interactions they had with this system. The institutional self was constituted of internal dimensions, which were intrapersonal, interpersonal and extra-personal. The sub-hypotheses are as follows:

- a. *Teachers' institutional self was one that attempted to balance competing agendas in their decision making process in the feedback interactions. Their*

decision making process, in this study, was shaped by: *the existence of an external authority, what learners need, and tensions in role perceptions*. The *existence of an external authority* indicated the existence of a third authority that influenced the teachers' feedback. In this study, learners' departmental requirements, departmental tutors and sometimes an exam (i.e., IELTS) were those external authorities that influenced EAP teachers' decisions during feedback interactions. *What learners need* indicated that EAP teachers were faced with the challenge of handling a variety of individual learner needs on academic writing in feedback interactions by making use of prioritization strategies, while simultaneously having to negotiate those priorities with learners. *Tensions in role perceptions* indicated that EAP teachers' role perceptions might not match with learners' perceptions of EAP tutors.

- b. *The decision making of teachers had intrapersonal, interpersonal and extra-personal dimensions*. These dimensions of *decision making* were equally important. The intrapersonal dimension of *decision making* referred to individual perceptions, goals, attitudes, and so forth. For example, EAP tutors rejected correcting everything in feedback interactions. However, on the interpersonal dimension, which referred to the construction of decision making through one-to-one interactions, they encountered learners who expected mere correction and accepted everything EAP tutors told them. Yet, both intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions of role perceptions were further shaped by the extra-personal dimensions. The extra-personal dimension of decision making constructed decision making through an interaction with a larger setting with its own stakeholders. For example, EAP

tutors very often urged the learners to seek local advice in their departments while providing feedback.

c. *Learners' institutional self was one that attempted to conform to the norms.*

Their decision making process was shaped by learners' *self-efficacy* and *learners' motivators*. *Learners' self-efficacy* referred to their beliefs about their capability of academic writing. *Learners' self-efficacy* was influenced by their *being a second language learner, teachers' attitude in one-on-one feedback interactions* and *self-reinforcement*. As for *learners' motivators*, it referred to reinforcers or blockers of the learners' participation in the feedback interactions. This was constituted by learners' *awareness of an external authority* and *feedback expectations*.

d. *Learners' institutional self was also comprised by intrapersonal,*

interpersonal and extra-personal dimensions. The intrapersonal dimension of learners' institutional self referred to how learners' perceptions, goals, and attitudes determined their institutional self. For example, learners' being second language speakers of English language influenced the way they evaluated themselves in terms of their language skills and needs, thus self-efficacy, and more broadly their institutional self. However, in an interpersonal dimension, which referred to how learners' interaction with the EAP teacher influenced the constitution of their institutional self, the attitude of EAP teachers in one-on-one interactions also influenced learners' self-efficacy in feedback interactions and more broadly their institutional. In the extra-personal dimension, which was how learners' interaction with the larger setting shaped their institutional self, an example would be learners' self-reinforcement. Learners who thought that EAP tutors did not have the

knowledge of their disciplines displayed a more participatory role in feedback interactions to help teacher better understand what the student could be in need of.

Hypothesis 5: Although various other factors might have contributed to it as well, one possible consequence of the relationship patterns was the emergence of critical awareness of academic writing (CAAW); this can be described as the learners' awareness of the variations within the academic context and adjusting themselves to the specific situations. CAAW also indicated that learners critiqued the ways feedback practices on writing were conducted, and they questioned the academic conventions in their home and target cultures. Learners' contemplation (e.g., understanding of home culture, target culture and self-writing) and pro-activity (e.g., developing strategies) constituted of CAAW.

The sub-hypothesis is:

- a. The possible consequence(s) of relationship patterns created a backward influence on the possible influencing factors, thus also indirectly influencing the relationship patterns. In this study, various data indicated that CAAW influenced learners' institutional self in turn as well, thus creating a new line of connection to the relationship patterns.

6.4.1. Overall Fit of the Theory

The final theory and the model I reached at the end of the theoretical coding stage has one core variable (i.e., relationship patterns), and the sub-core variables which were related to the core variable in different ways (i.e., possible influencing factors, possible consequences). This final theory, I believe, is successful in explaining the properties that have been developed through open and selective coding by utilizing the fewest

possible properties while simultaneously displaying the theory with the greatest scope (Glaser, 1978).

6.5. Summary

In this chapter, I detailed the theoretical coding stage under four sections. By providing the background information about the theoretical coding in GT, I presented the information about the utilized tools. Following this, how the theoretical coding was conducted for my research was detailed within the stages. Possible ways to construct a theoretical relationship with the categories and themes were shown. Finally, I listed the conceptualization I generated. In the next chapter, I present a comparison and contrast of the case units by using the dimensions and the pictorial model of the theory I have developed.

CHAPTER 7

Using the Theory to Compare & Contrast Case Units

This chapter compares and contrasts the embedded units of the case by using the pictorial model of the theory I have developed. So far, I have followed a ‘holistic’ approach to the analysis. In this chapter, I will go through the dimensions of the theory, and detail how each dimension was observed across the case units by revealing similarities and differences. Thus, this chapter has five sections. As a reminder, I will first provide background information on the case units where I collected data: Pre-requisite EAP, Generic In-sessional EAP, Specialised EAP and Pre-sessional EAP. Then, I will detail the procedure of comparison and contrast across case units. In the third part, dimensions of relationship patterns will be detailed for teachers and students respectively (*within* when necessary and) across case units. The fourth section will offer a theoretical profile based on the comparison and contrast process for each unit. Finally, a summary of the chapter will be given.

Please note that I will not repeat the bottom-up process of theory generation. I will solely detail how the theory relates to the case units. Chapter 4, Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 have already detailed the theory generation. It is also worth noting that the function of Chapter 7, in addition to providing a comparison and contrast of case units using the theory, will be presenting findings in a neater way at each dimension without repeating the data analysis procedures. This will, I believe, facilitate the procedure of relating findings with the literature in Chapter 8-Discussion and Conclusion.

7.1. Background Information on Case Units

In this part, I will re-present the background of the case units. These case units are Pre-requisite EAP, Generic In-sessional EAP, Specialised EAP and Pre-sessional EAP. More specific details are shown in the Appendix 1a/b and in Introduction chapter. As earlier mentioned in methods chapter, I defined these case units depending on their activity and definitions. Please see the below table for a reminder about these case units. I show Specialised EAP classes separately as there were 4 different types.

Case Units	Purpose	Teacher/s	Student Profile	Notes on the Class
Pre-Requisite EAP (PEPS) (3 classes)	IELTS preparation	Irvette & Amy	Kazakhstan, Turkey, Mexico, Saudi Arabia, Japan, Iraq	Regular attendance More structural course design compared to other units Observation depended on teacher plans for specific sessions
Generic In-Sessional EAP (4 classes)	General academic English for mixed disciplines	Heled & Steen	Chile, China, Taiwan, Indonesia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Singapore, Mexico, Burundi, Czech Republic	Various Disciplines (e.g., educational leadership, applied linguistics, engineering and so forth) No regular attendance, Having assignments & departmental guidance, self-motivation as reasons to attend for learners, Observation depended on learner attendance
Pre-Sessional EAP (1 class)	Developing study skills in EAP before learners start their programmes	Tim	China, Japan, Germany-Syria	Various Disciplines Regular attendance

Table 7.1. Brief reminder about case units

Specialised EAP Classes	Student Profile	Notes on the Class
<p>Law (4 classes)</p> <p>Taught by Michael</p>	<p>France, Poland, Hungary, Hong Kong, Turkey, China</p>	<p>Changing learner participation</p> <p>Classes first had only undergraduates, later continued with graduates and undergraduates</p> <p>Departmental guidance, having an assignment, self-motivation as reasons to join the class</p> <p>More regular attendance when learners had lower language proficiency</p> <p>Teacher bringing specific writing activities as well as encouraging learners to bring assignments</p> <p>More classroom spoken feedback due to low student number</p> <p>Feedback talks during writing activities on classroom writing exercises and learners' assignments</p>
<p>Statistics (1 class)</p> <p>Taught by Michael</p>	<p>Kazakhstan, China, Singapore</p>	<p>Undergraduate Students</p> <p>Changing learner participation</p>
<p>PhD Science</p> <p>Taught by Steen</p>	<p>UK, USA, Bangladesh, China</p>	<p>Higher student number</p> <p>The attendance depending on students' motivation, departmental/disciplinary tutor guidance, exams and assignments</p> <p>Various disciplines (biology, chemistry, medicine and so forth)</p> <p>English being first language for most students who are from UK and USA</p> <p>Teacher following a structured teaching plan by focusing on different aspects of academic writing each week, urging learners to focus on these aspects in writing</p> <p>Urging reflective writing about problems in writing & self-strategies</p> <p>Whole class discussions about writing problems and strategies</p> <p>One-to-one discussions not focusing on learner writing, but learners' broader writing problems</p> <p>Teacher encouraging learners to bring writing to the classes,</p> <p>Feedback talks taking place usually after the class-not included in analysis</p>

BA TESOL Education (1 class)	in	Malaysia	Undergraduate Students Very limited classroom feedback talks due to the Limited amount of observation and learners' exam preparation during observations
Taught Jade	by		

Table 7.2. Brief reminder about Specialised EAP Classes

7.2. Comparing and Contrasting Case Units

In the open coding, I aimed at developing core variables (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser, 1978) across the whole data sets. At the end, I developed concepts, categories and themes. In the selective coding, which was a more focused stage, I limited the analysis to one core theme across the whole data sets. In the theoretical coding, I focused on “putting the fractured data back together again” (Glaser, 1978, p.72). This was to “connect and explore the relationship between themes and their properties in order to develop the hypotheses leading to a theory” (Shannak & Aldhmour, 2009, p.47). Thus, the overarching purpose so far was to “explore and build explanation” as part of hypothesis-generation process (Yin, 2003, p.120; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Therefore, the strategy I followed in analyzing so far was at holistic level. However, I was worried that conducting a holistic analysis would result in missing perspectives to incorporate within and across EAP case units, which could also influence “producing contextually grounded” (Ayres, Kavanaugh, Knafl, 2003, p.871) and “illustrative findings” (Richards, 2011, p.216). In this chapter, therefore, I turn to a ‘(within⁴ and) across unit analysis’ strategy and describe the theory as it emerged in each case unit. While doing so, I will follow the steps described by Knafl, Breitmayer, Gallo and Zoeller (1996). The steps as I adjusted from their accounts to balance the general and specific explanations are as below:

⁴ It is worth noting that within case unit descriptions are not the main focus of this part of my study. I will explain within-case unit findings only if they are significant in terms of the theory explanation. The main focus here is ‘across case units’ comparison and contrasts.

- Identification of general defining and managing theoretical themes that shaped classroom feedback interactions in *all* EAP classes (which has been completed through open, selective and theoretical coding).
- Detailing the variation of overarching theme (within and) across the case units (in this chapter). ‘Within evaluation of case units’ is not a priority for this chapter. I recognise that variation within a case unit might occur, and where it seems particularly important, I will explicate it. However, I am most interested in comparing and contrasting across case units.
- Creating a theoretical profile for each unit (in this chapter).

7.3. Overarching Theme (within and) across Case Units

While conducting the comparisons and contrasts within and across the case units, the following sub-stages were taken:

- a) comparing dimensions of relationship patterns (i.e., behavioural, extra-personal, interpersonal and intrapersonal) within and across case units for teachers,
- b) comparing and contrasting dimensions of relationship patterns within and across case units for learners,
- c) presenting a theoretical profile for each case unit by using the pictorial model earlier developed in Chapter 6.

7.3.1. Dimensions of Relationship Patterns for Teachers across Case Units

Behavioural Dimension and Teachers: Behavioural dimension indicated the actions participants utilized during feedback talks.

Pre-requisite EAP classes: In the collaborative relationship, Irvette mostly utilized *diagnosis*, *suggestion* and *warning*. However, *stimulation* was not observed in the same class (although Irvette’s interview accounts implied that she utilized

stimulation for various reasons which I shall explain in the intrapersonal dimension). As for Amy, she utilized *diagnosis*, *suggestion*, and very rarely *warning*. Different from Irvette, classroom observation had samples for *stimulation* in Amy's class.

As for subordinated relationship, Irvette utilized *deferral*, but to a very limited extent. When she utilized this action, she referred to IELTS demands. As for Amy, examples of *deferral* were not observed in her interactions.

In terms of normative relationship, both Irvette and Amy frequently utilized actions of *induction*, *rectification* and *evaluation*.

Overall, collaborative and normative relationship patterns were observed more frequently in the classes taught by Irvette and Amy. Certain actions in both classes across all relationship patterns were utilized more frequently than other actions while some actions were not observed at all. I acknowledge that differing amount of actions might be meaningful. However, since this study did not have a quantitative design, I do not focus on 'amount' very much.

Generic In-sessional EAP classes: Heled and Steen taught these classes. In collaborative relationship pattern, similar to Pre-requisite EAP classes, both tutors utilized *diagnosis*, *stimulation*, *suggestion* and *warning* although Steen, different from Heled, displayed very few examples of *stimulation*. However, it is worth noting that the use of *stimulation* was changing among Pre-requisite EAP tutors as well. The purposes of the actions were also similar to other tutors' uses. Still, for *diagnosis*, one further purpose for Steen was to check whether the feedback was useful for the learners.

As for the subordinated relationship, both teachers utilized *deferral* although Heled utilized it more frequently. Compared to Pre-requisite EAP tutors, the use of subordinated relationship actions were more often in Generic In-sessional EAP

classes. This feature of Generic In-Sessional EAP classes was also similar to Specialised EAP classes.

In terms of normative relationship patterns, both teachers utilized *induction*, *rectification* and *evaluation*. However, Steen utilized *induction* less than Heled did. Still, overall use of normative relationship was as visible as it was in Pre-requisite and Specialised EAP classes.

Specialised EAP classes: All three relationship patterns were very visible in Specialised EAP classes as in the Generic In-sessional EAP classes. In collaborative relationship, the teachers utilized *diagnosis*, *stimulation*, *suggestion* and *warning*. In subordinated relationship, the teachers frequently utilized *deferral*. Finally, in normative relationship, teachers utilized the actions of *induction*, *rectification* and *evaluation* very often. The normative relationship actions, compared to other case units, were more frequent in Specialised EAP classes.

Pre-sessional EAP classes: I did not have any teacher actions in classroom feedback observations from my data collection in these classes. This was mostly because I observed approximately 6 hours of classroom teaching, most of which was based on whole-class teaching of various other skills (e.g., vocabulary). However, I observed one-to-one writing conferences between the tutor and the students for those classes. In these conferences, it was observed that learners and teachers utilized similar actions to the ones in classroom spoken feedback talks.

Extra-Personal Dimension and Teachers: Extra-personal dimension across all case units emerged as the existence of an external authority either in the form of departmental requirements /demands, departmental tutors or the existence of an exam (e.g., IELTS). EAP tutors accepted those third parties as the ultimate criteria in their

feedback. How tutors interacted with the extra-personal dimension in each case unit was as below:

Pre-requisite EAP classes: Since I was only able to interview Irvette from Pre-requisite EAP classes, only her perspectives are available for this dimension in Pre-requisite EAP. Irvette very often indicated that if she taught in Specialised or Generic EAP classes, she would follow the discipline-specific criteria while giving feedback. In the IELTS-focused classes, she stated that the formulaic nature of IELTS stood as a challenge for her. When providing feedback, she reported having to make a distinction between IELTS and academic community requirements. More specifically, her accounts indicated that ‘IELTS demands would go against everything there was in academic writing’; therefore, she switched constantly between IELTS and academic community requirements in her feedback on learners’ writing. She was also aware of the fact that learners expected her to help with getting a good score at IELTS. Also, Irvette indicated that certain frequent errors (e.g., articles, prepositions) even in higher-level learners’ writing would stand out in future academic writing (thus causing a negative cumulative effect on disciplinary tutors), which could explain why she selected to focus on certain errors in learners’ writing instead of correcting all errors. Finally, Irvette explained that when she taught in undergraduate content classes, she was not allowed to look at language aspect, but was expected to read solely for the content. Taken together with her earlier statement on cumulative effect of the repeated errors, this statement reveals why she focused on correcting certain errors, and why language and content were treated separately (also in other case units).

Generic In-session EAP classes: I interviewed with both Steen and Heled. Both teachers in those classes indicated that they, in their feedback interactions, urged learners to pay attention to the local advice from their departments. Similarly, both

tutors indicated that they provided ‘generalized feedback’ while simultaneously urging learners to be aware of exceptions and varieties. However, some specific accounts were also received from the tutors.

Heled reported that EAP tutors’ deferring to a departmental tutor was not always very helpful for learners as the feedback from departmental tutors could be confusing and varying as well. She gave the example where one learner received opposite feedback from two tutors: While one tutor focused on ideas, the second tutor focused on the organization and style, thus evaluating the writing differently. Likewise, Heled explained that the support learners received from their departmental tutors/departments varied, which was another confusing issue for learners (e.g., not being provided guidance in essay task briefs), which in turn made Heled’s feedback provision very challenging. The external authority also urged Heled to develop strategies to cope with the variety in her classes in feedback interactions: having as much exposure as possible to different disciplines and eliciting differences from learners were two strategies. Finally, she underlined the significance of working closely with academic departments. She indicated that having access to departmental handbooks, assignment briefs and creating a database for these resources, and urging departmental tutors to contribute were important for feedback purposes. Likewise, Steen also reported developing strategies: Trying to balance text-specific feedback with more generalized feedback.

Specialised EAP classes: I was only able to interview Michael from Specialised EAP classes. Similar to Heled, Michael indicated that having a good relationship with learners’ departments made differences in his experiences since the Law department provided him with samples of writing and Law-related materials. However, although he had the potential to build a successful EAP specialised course, Michael encountered

difficulties since he had not taught Law students previously. Therefore, he had to spend time to familiarize with disciplinary materials, which was too time consuming in the classrooms where he already ‘had to rush constantly’ due to the lack of time. An external authority also led to time-tabling concerns for Michael. He reported having had to arrange the classes late in the evening. This was because learners –who took different modules in their departments-, had differing timetables. However, late timetable for EAP classes meant tiredness for both Michael and learners, which could have an impact on classroom spoken feedback practices.

Likewise, Michael indicated that Law department, as the paying party, was able to make changes in the student profile during the course to maximize the benefit from the course. That is, although they initially directed undergraduate students, they started sending postgraduate students as well, which added another level of variety. Similarly, even though learners were provided with feedback on writing in in-class EAP writing tasks, they did not see the relevance of feedback until their departments assigned essays, which was at a later time.

A final difficulty Michael experienced was due to the intra-disciplinary variation. That is, although learners were from Law or Statistics department, the courses they took differed from each other, thus also having varying requirements.

Pre-sessional EAP classes: For the Pre-sessional tutor, although the existence of an external authority was accepted, there was not an immediate external authority he could defer to as the learners had not started their degree courses yet. Therefore, similar to other tutors, he also indicated the significance of establishing ‘communication’ with the external authorities while stating the existence of a lack of communication between the institution and his EAP unit. Similar to other tutors, he underlined that he would have to accept learners’ discipline specific conventions as

the ultimate authority. Furthermore, he reported providing generalized feedback as well although he did not refer to generalised feedback as a potential ‘risk’ as the Specialised EAP tutor did.

Inter-Personal Dimension and Teachers: Inter-personal dimension, as I defined in Chapter 6-Theoretical coding, refers to how learners’ and teachers’ interaction with each other during feedback talks shaped the institutional self, and thus relationship patterns.

Pre-requisite EAP classes: Existence of an external authority was one factor that shaped interpersonal dimension for Irvette. Irvette underlined that in her feedback interactions and during other classroom talks, she had to warn learners constantly to be aware of whom they were writing for, and the requirements of that authority.

In terms of what learners needed, Irvette explained that since learners were non-native speakers, they sometimes could not challenge her feedback during feedback talks. Moreover, since learners lacked meta-language around grammar and vocabulary, she had to do a lot of reformulations and explanations during feedback talks. Likewise, she indicated that she aimed at fitting in learners’ communication styles and expectations, which changed from student to student. That, according to Irvette, necessitated different interaction types. In terms of tension in role perceptions, Irvette did not differ from other EAP tutors. She indicated that she did not want to correct everything in learners’ writing, but wanted them to explore solutions by themselves. However, although learners were happy to find solutions by themselves as it gave them a sense of achievement, Irvette underlined that their expectations were based on IELTS. Thus, she underlined that even though she was not happy with IELTS focus, she had to follow whether she was meeting learners’ IELTS-related demands as well.

Generic EAP classes: In terms of external authority at the inter-personal dimension, Generic In-sessional EAP tutors reported constantly reminding learners of the local requirements. In feedback interactions, all they were able to offer was generalized feedback, with the warning that it might not work for all the cases. Similarly, as they could not know all the rules for each discipline, Generic In-sessional tutors used the strategy of eliciting the rules from the learners by asking questions. The fact that they did not always know the answers for learners' questions created tensions in terms of learners' role expectations of EAP tutors. Likewise, due to learners' disciplinary variation, Generic In-sessional tutors underlined the need for prioritization in feedback. However, as the priority of tutor and learners' did not always match, they had to negotiate the priorities.

Regarding the existence of an external authority, Steen indicated that the existence of an external authority made the EAP class and the feedback interactions low stakes for learners. This in turn eased learners' participation in feedback interactions by creating a safe environment where learners could ask any questions they would not be able to ask their departmental tutors. However, Steen, like the Specialised EAP tutor, underlined that rapport between the EAP tutor and the students was also a determining issue for learners' participation in feedback talks.

Tensions in terms of role expectations were also influential on inter-personal dimension. The Generic In-sessional EAP tutors indicated that some students came to the class with certain power perceptions, which influenced the feedback interactions. For example, tutors reported that they had to mediate among various roles in their interactions although learners expected authority and advice/knowledge. Similar to the Pre-requisite EAP tutor, Generic EAP tutors also exemplified that learners expected

the tutors to correct all the mistakes, which these tutors refused to do. This was because tutors aimed at urging learners to take self-responsibility.

In terms of what learners needed, both EAP tutors indicated that learners' being non-native did not influence the feedback interactions negatively. Different from Pre-requisite EAP tutor, both tutors expressed that non-nativeness did not stop learners from engaging in discussion and talking about their writing. They also indicated the existence of good communication skills among learners, mostly due to their being high level learners.

Specialised EAP classes: In terms of external authority's influence on the interpersonal dimension, the Specialised EAP class was very similar to particularly the Generic In-sessional EAP class; thus, I will not go into much detail about how external authority shaped the interpersonal dimension.

On the tensions on role perceptions, Specialised EAP tutor, similar to Generic In-sessional and Pre-requisite EAP tutors believed that mere correction was not his role as he aimed at developing learners' independence. Another reason for not seeing correction as part of his role was to avoid demotivating lower level learners. However, different from In-sessional and Pre-requisite EAP tutors, Specialised EAP tutor felt that mere correction, instead of focusing on other goals (e.g., urging learners to take responsibility for their own writing, including learners into discussion on their writing and so forth) during feedback interactions, was what he was doing eventually during feedback talks.

As for what learners need, similar to Generic In-sessional tutor, Specialised EAP tutor reported that he tried to offer as much variety as possible. Likewise, he indicated that his assumptions on what learners needed were not always correct. This was because he found out in feedback interactions that some students did not have the expected

level of knowledge, which necessitated the tutor to explain more. Additionally, he indicated a potential relationship between learners' errors, levels and the eventual negotiation type he had with them. For example, he reported being more prescriptive with grammar vocabulary and certain writing issues, which emerged more among lower level learners. Finally, like Generic EAP tutors, Michael also developed strategies to manage the diversity in his classes. His strategy was to expose learners to options, spend time to understand departmental writing before the class and challenge, and negotiate the meaning with learners.

Pre-sessional EAP classes: In terms of external authority, Pre-sessional EAP tutor was similar to other EAP tutors. He indicated that external authority urged him to understand why learners had different perspectives, or why the EAP tutor could be wrong in feedback talks. He also avoided giving certain answers, and being general and indirect in feedback talks, which could be interpreted as a strategy.

As for tensions in role perceptions, as learners arrived with certain, particularly culture-sourced, tutor-role expectations, and learning experiences, learners tended to avoid criticizing back and expected EAP tutor to be the authority in feedback talks. However, Pre-sessional EAP tutor indicated that he wanted learners to be more active during feedback talks. This was a similar case for other EAP units as well.

In terms of what learners needed, as each learner's need was different, the way the EAP tutor interacted was changing, which was similar to all other EAP tutors.

Intra-Personal Dimension and Teachers: Intrapersonal dimension, as already described in Chapter 6, refers to individual perceptions, goals, attitudes and so forth.

Pre-requisite EAP classes: The concepts of *what learners need* and *tensions in role perceptions* revealed issues at intra-personal dimension. These were Pre-requisite EAP tutor's perception of learners, tutor's perceptions of their roles, and tutors' goals.

To begin with tutor's perception of learners, Irvette indicated that she approached differently to different students depending on her perceptions of their levels. The roles Irvette assumed in feedback talks specifically and during her teaching broadly were closely connected with Irvette's goals. Irvette reported that she displayed multiple roles depending on her goals (e.g., not focusing on correction very much when she wanted learners to gain fluency in their writing). She also mentioned her belief that learners would need different interaction types. Similarly, Irvette explained that she did not see correcting every mistake in learners' writing as part of her role. What she could do would be to focus on certain problems, which was again closely related with her goals. That Irvette believed that certain language problems (e.g., articles, prepositions) were fossilised even among higher-level learners could indicate the underlying goals for Irvette's orientation to correct certain issues. Regarding these repeated problems, Irvette mentioned her frustration –as she believed these repeated problems would stand out in learners' future disciplinary writing.

Generic EAP classes: Similar to Irvette from Pre-requisite EAP class, the tutors in the Generic EAP classes had issues of perceptions about their roles, learners, and goals. In terms of role perceptions, both tutors, like Irvette, reported displaying multiple roles in the class. Both EAP tutors indicated that learners in their classes had certain expectations (e.g., correction, knowing all the rules). However, neither of the tutors, like Irvette, saw correcting all mistakes as their roles. They preferred to focus on certain problems.

Specialised EAP classes: Similar to Pre-requisite and Generic In-session EAP tutors, Michael's perceptions of his role, learners and goals were noteworthy. Different from Pre-requisite and Generic EAP tutors, he did not mention having multiple roles.

In terms of his role as an EAP tutor, he defined himself as '*an educated reader who specialised in many different fields, and who developed an instinct to understand whether what learners from different departments write works or not*'. Similar to Generic and Pre-requisite EAP tutors, Michael explained that he did not see correction as a big part of his role; however, different from Generic and Pre-requisite EAP tutors, he indicated 'ending up with correction all the time'.

Pre-sessional EAP class: Tim's perception of his learners was that since the learners were postgraduates, he expected them to have a certain level of independence and autonomy. Furthermore, he expected a more professional and critical attitude from learners compared to learners in ESL/EFL settings. In terms of his role, Tim emphasised his awareness of the fact that he could not know everything due to variety of learners' backgrounds and disciplines.

7.3.2. Dimensions of Relationship Patterns for Learners across Case Units

Behavioural Dimension and Learners

Pre-requisite EAP case unit: In terms of collaborative relationship patterns, in the unit taught by Irvette, *confirmation, initiation, challenge, clarification, surmise* (very few) and *suggestion* were observed. In the unit taught by Amy, *initiation, clarification* and *suggestion* were the only collaborative learner actions.

In terms of subordinated relationship, *adducing* did not emerge. I believe that the basic reason was the preparation for IELTS. Thus, although they came from different disciplines, learners did not need to check tutors' recommendations against departmental criteria. Still, several learner accounts from both Pre-requisite EAP classes indicated that learners were referring to their actual fields' or IELTS' criteria to evaluate EAP tutor's feedback (Kyoko's account from open coding stage, Extract#4 under *Existence of an external authority*).

In the normative relationship, learners utilized *conforming*. *Withdrawal* was not observed in both classes although learner accounts indicated that this might occur from time to time.

As a final point, one basic reason to observe very limited learner actions in all relationship patterns within this unit was limited hours of observation for both classes. Moreover, in these classes since the number of students was high compared to other case units, it was not always possible to go closer to listen to the feedback talks between the teacher and the students. Also, since the goal of learners was to prepare for IELTS, even though they were motivated to engage actively in feedback talks, the ultimate goal for them was usually to learn tips that would help them pass the exam. Finally, the design of Pre-requisite classes compared to other case units (except Pre-sessional) were more structured (i.e., including various reading, whole-class writing, grammar activities in a sequence) and whole-class oriented (usually due to time constraints) rather than one-on-one classroom feedback provision. The teachers usually did written feedback and e-mailed to learners to be discussed in the class. Still, the samples for whole class feedback interactions on individual students' writing displayed similar patterns of relationships for both teachers and students. This indicates that the relationship patterns could also emerge in one-on-one interactions.

Generic In-sessional EAP: In collaborative relationship, learners in both tutors' classes utilized *initiation*, *challenge*, *clarification*, and *surmise*. *Confirmation* and *suggestion* were observed less frequently compared to other actions. In both classes, learners usually utilized *challenge* when they wanted to tell that tutors' suggestions were not solving the problems in the writing. In Heled's classes, learners utilized *clarification* to give background information about their writing, to state the purpose of usages and to explain why a particular problem was being experienced. They also

utilized *clarification* to inform the EAP tutor about the task brief/requirements. In Steen's class, this action was also observed. Learners utilized *clarification* to inform the EAP tutor about the genre they were working on (e.g., telling about narrative writing in sociology department), parts of assignment (e.g., business students' explaining what an RBV section is), assignment questions, detailing what answers they had for assignments' questions, informing about audience and purposes of the tasks. *Suggestion* in both tutors' classes was used to offer changes, ideas, alternative words, and different ways of putting ideas into writing (e.g., adding a paragraph). Similarly, in both classes, through *surmise*, learners made broader implications from teachers' feedback in terms of paragraph organizations, word selections and writing processes. Finally, *confirmation* and *initiation* displayed similar purposes in both classes.

In subordinated relationship, learners in both classes utilized *adducing* although this was more frequent in Heled's class.

In the normative relationship, learners in both classes utilized *conforming*. In both classes, as in the Pre-requisite EAP classes, *withdrawal* was not observed. However, again as in the Pre-requisite EAP classes, learner accounts indicated that there were cases where learners preferred not to continue feedback interaction for various reasons (e.g., tutor attitude, not being able to express the self). Likewise, I believe that another possible reason for not having examples for this action from these case units could be because I did not join one-to-one feedback interactions all the time.

I believe that the reason for some actions in relationship patterns to be observed more frequently in Heled's class was the amount of observation I conducted in her classes. Similarly, Heled's classes were built on classroom feedback activities while Steen's classes involved other activities as well.

Specialised EAP classes: Before detailing these case units, it is worth noting that I did not have any classroom feedback talk samples from Steen's Specialised EAP class for PhD Science students in classroom observation data. Thus, I will not include this class in the contrast and comparison process.

All collaborative relationship actions were observed among learners in Specialised EAP-Law/Statistics/Education classes. *Clarification* and *challenge* showed unit-specific features while also showing similar features with the ones in other units. In *clarification*, in addition to clarifying meanings and rationales as in the other case units, learners revealed why they initiated a particular discussion on an aspect of their writing, and why they experienced a problem. As for *challenge*, learners in Law-EAP classes utilized it to indicate that the tutor's suggestion contradicted with an earlier suggestion. Other uses of *challenge* were similar to the ones in other case units.

In the subordinated relationship, *adducing* was observed across Specialised EAP-Law/Statistics/Education classes.

In terms of normative relationship, only in B.Ed. in Education group, I did not have any records of learner actions for normative relationship. In Law and Statistics, learners utilized *conforming* very often and *withdrawal* occasionally in normative relationship. It is important to underline that *withdrawal*, which was a very rare action in other units, was observed in both Law and Statistics EAP classes.

Pre-Sessional EAP classes: I did not have any student actions in classroom feedback observations from my data collection in these classes. This was mostly because I observed approximately 6 hours of classroom teaching, most of which was based on whole-class teaching of various other skills (e.g., vocabulary). However, I observed one-to-one writing conferences between the tutor and the students. In these conferences, it was observed that learners and teachers utilized similar actions.

Extra-Personal Dimension and Learners:

Pre-requisite EAP classes: The extra-personal dimension shaped learners' motivators (orientations), which were observed through the existence of an external authority and feedback expectations. Like students from other units, students in Pre-requisite classes revealed an awareness of the existence of an external authority, IELTS being the most immediate. However, students also revealed their awareness of the differences between IELTS and their disciplinary writing demands as well as interdisciplinary variations. Since they preferred to pass IELTS first, learners' orientation and focus in feedback interactions were towards IELTS. Several students evaluated their writing skills depending on previous IELTS scores, which in turn influenced their self-efficacy as well –this was observed also among several Generic In-sessional EAP students-. However, since there were also students who had received a sufficient IELTS score, these students' orientations were towards mastering the 'common aspects of academic writing'. Those students reported displaying a selective attitude towards tutor's feedback depending on their disciplinary writing.

There were possible consequences of relationship patterns and feedback interactions, which might also influence how learners interacted with extra-personal dimension. Learners' awareness of the conventions and variations within the target and previous contexts developed through feedback experiences in general, spoken feedback particularly.

Generic In-sessional EAP classes: Learners from Heled and Steen's classes were interviewed. The extra-personal dimension was mostly relevant to learners' motivators broadly, external authority more specifically. Similar to other learners from Specialised EAP classes, the students in both Steen and Heled's classes indicated that they wanted to 'obey the rules of academic writing and succeed in assessments', for

which EAP tutor's feedback was a bridge with the external authorities. Most of the time, departments/academic advisers urged learners to join EAP. These students also reported struggling with the ambiguity in academic conventions although being persistently reminded of the rules by the tutors/departments. Several students in Specialised EAP classes also indicated this problem. Like other students in Specialised and Pre-sessional units, students in Generic EAP also underlined that EAP tutor was not a specialist in their field, which influenced their feedback interactions. They explained that EAP tutors had to be flexible with their feedback. Finally, similar to students in Specialised units, students in Generic In-sessional EAP indicated a difference between academic, and EAP tutor feedback in terms of focus (i.e., language versus content) and sometimes of quantity (i.e., academic tutor more detailed).

There were possible consequences of relationship patterns and feedback interactions also for Generic In-Sessional EAP learners, which potentially influenced the extra-personal dimension. As a possible consequence, similar to Pre-requisite EAP, learners' awareness of the requirements and variations within target and home contexts developed. Learners' feedback experiences urged learners to compare and contrast their target and home cultures in terms of writing traditions.

Specialised EAP classes: Education, Law and PhD Science students were interviewed. Similar to Generic In-Sessional EAP learners, Specialised EAP learners also wanted to conform to the norms of an external authority, which eventually shaped their feedback interactions in EAP classes. Students' accounts in Education group indicated that one reason to accept the EAP tutor's comments was the result of their assignments in the actual departments (e.g., receiving low marks, making a lot of grammatical mistakes). Similar to Generic In-sessional EAP learners, Specialised EAP learners distinguished between EAP tutors' and disciplinary tutors' focus of

feedback. Law and PhD-Science groups distinguished what the EAP tutor could focus on in terms of disciplinary language and broader language issues (as well as content-related issues), which elevated learners' position in feedback talks. Related with that, these learners indicated that EAP tutors accepted learners' knowledge of the disciplinary language and told learners that they did not know specific language-related issues. Law, Education and PhD-Science students, like Generic EAP learners, saw the EAP tutor's feedback as a bridge to succeed in their departmental requirements. Law EAP students indicated that the departmental expectations were not clear for the EAP tutor and for themselves, which led them to explore conventions together. Supporting this claim, PhD-Science students indicated that they did not receive enough support for writing requirements from academic supervisors. As in the Generic In-Sessional EAP, learners in Specialised EAP classes developed an awareness of target and home cultures, and the variations.

Pre-sessional EAP classes: Although the existence of external authority on the learners' motivators manifested itself on the extra-personal dimension, for Pre-sessional learners the extra-personal dimension was a vague dimension. Still, students in Pre-sessional classes were aware that their tutor could not know everything about their disciplinary writing (e.g., too technical language for the EAP tutor). Therefore, they reported simplifying the language for the tutor in their writing and during feedback talks. Similar to other students in other units, Pre-sessional students were also aware of the variation in target conventions. Likewise, they also displayed increased awareness of writing conventions within previous contexts and target contexts.

Inter-Personal Dimension and Learners:

Pre-requisite EAP classes: At the interpersonal dimension, learners' self-efficacy and motivators were observed. In terms of learners' self-efficacy in interpersonal dimension, being a second language learner shaped learners' participation in feedback interaction. Learners explained that being second language learners created difficulties in understanding EAP tutors' feedback during feedback talks. However, these learners underlined that the fact that EAP tutors were native speakers of English was encouraging since these tutors could better find problems and help with their writing. Therefore, following tutors' advice in feedback talks was beneficial. Pre-requisite learners also explained that their language barrier was an issue during feedback interactions. Similarly, learners indicated that tutor's moment-by-moment attitudes in feedback interactions had an impact on their participations. Learners reported tutors' trying to justify their judgements through feedback as a negative issue. Similarly, some learners indicated that they would feel uncomfortable if the tutors did not answer their questions during feedback talks.

Generic In-sessional EAP Classes: The findings from Generic In-sessional EAP classes on the interactional dimension were very similar to the Pre-requisite classes. Therefore, I will not go into much detail here.

Specialised EAP classes: The findings from Specialised EAP classes were similar to the other units. Therefore, I will not go into much detail here. Only in the PhD Science group, native speaker students indicated that talking to a native speaker tutor in EAP classes was not intimidating for them although they believed that this might be intimidating for non-native learners' participation. Some students also indicated that the EAP tutor did not treat learners' problems as 'wrong', but 'different viewpoints', and attempted to understand why learners' views were different. That

attitude of EAP tutors increased learners' participation by facilitating their self-efficacy.

Pre-sessional EAP classes: The findings were very similar to other units. Thus, I will not go into much detail.

Intra-Personal Dimension and Learners:

Pre-requisite EAP classes: In the Pre-requisite classes, learners held certain beliefs about their skills due to being second language learners. They believed that because they were second language learners, their English was not good. Therefore, Pre-requisite learners believed that they wrote through the thinking style of their first languages. Similarly, they thought that being second language learners prevented them from understanding the links and usages in English. Learners also underlined that because they were second language learners, they were not able to notice/see the problems in their writing. However, there were findings indicating that learners had coping mechanisms with their being second language learners. They believed that since they were second language learners, actively participating in feedback interactions were still their responsibility.

Learners' motivators were also in play at the intrapersonal dimension via feedback and tutor attitude expectations. Learners expected realistic and clear feedback as well as flexible and 'eager to help' tutor attitude during feedback interactions.

In terms of possible consequences, learners' pro-activity (i.e., developing strategies) and awareness of self-writing were also observed to develop through feedback interactions.

Generic In-sessional EAP: As influencing factors on feedback interactions, similar to Pre-requisite EAP, students' accounts highlighted their beliefs about the need for more guidance because of being second language learners. Similarly, they

underlined that, as they were non-native speakers, they were not able to spot issues that a native speaker could spot more quickly. As a different finding from other case units, one learner indicated her preference for spoken feedback due to being better able to express herself through speaking in English. Also, the same learner underlined her being perfectionist and carrying high standards for writing, which led her to downgrade herself in feedback interactions.

In terms of learners' motivators, the findings were similar to Pre-requisite case unit; therefore, I will not go into much detail.

As for possible consequences of feedback interactions on the intra-personal dimension, I had reports on increased awareness of self-writing, and pro-activity.

Specialised EAP classes: As influencing factors on feedback interactions, in terms of beliefs and self-perceptions due to being second language learners, learners in Specialised EAP classes were very similar to other units. Thus, I will not go into detail. The only difference in relation to being second language learners was that a few native speaker students reported being confident with the language. As for learners' self-reinforcement and tutor and feedback expectations, this was also mostly similar to Pre-requisite and Generic In-sessional classes. In terms of possible consequences, learner accounts indicated that learners' awareness of self-writing (e.g., usual problems, what is needed and so forth) is increased through feedback interactions. Similarly, learners reported developing strategies through feedback talks (e.g., using similar procedures with EAP tutor to check own writing).

Pre-sessional EAP classes: As influencing factors on feedback interactions, in Pre-sessional classes, learners' perceptions of being second language learners and self-reinforcement were similar to all other case units. I did not receive detailed accounts on feedback expectations in Pre-sessional classes.

As for possible consequences, learners in Pre-sessional classes reported having increased awareness of self-writing through feedback interactions (i.e., usual problems). I did not reach any learner accounts in terms of pro-activity in Pre-Sessional classes.

7.3.3. Reflections and Creating a Theoretical Profile for Each Case Unit

So far, I have compared and contrasted the case units using the across and possible within case analytic strategies. This process of comparing and contrasting helped to understand the fine details of each unit. However, although each unit had differing definitions and activities, as I retrieved from the university website, at the onset of the study, the existence of similar issues within/across case units made it difficult to distinguish between these units. This was possibly because the dimensions which the theory identified suggested plenty of commonalities across the case units due to belonging to one departmental culture. More specifically, although differences emerged on the behavioural dimensions, the differences on the extra-personal, intra-personal and interpersonal dimensions were less visible. It was also observed that Specialised EAP classes were the contexts where the issues of both Pre-requisite and Generic EAP classes were simultaneously and more strongly observed. The strong commonalities across the case units, therefore, signalled the fifth research question of this study, which will be discussed in the Chapter 8-Discussion.

- How can we make a compare and contrast between the *units of the case* to see the boundaries of the case units?

Finally, depending on the compare and contrast process of case units, theoretical profiles for case unit would be as below. Before moving on these profiles, it is worth explaining what some features on the model mean:

Symbols	Meaning
Dots and dashes on Pre-requisite EAP	Indicate that relationship was observed very rarely
Grey dots and dashes on Pre-sessional EAP	Indicate that I did not have samples for those relationship patterns in my data.
Blue Quarter-Circles	Normative Relationship Patterns
Green Quarter-Circles	Collaborative Relationship Patterns
Red Quarter-Circles	Subordinated Relationship Patterns
The 'lighter' coloured parts on blue, green and red quarter-circles	Indicate that the actions on these areas were less frequently observed.

Table 7.3. The meanings of the features on the unit profiles



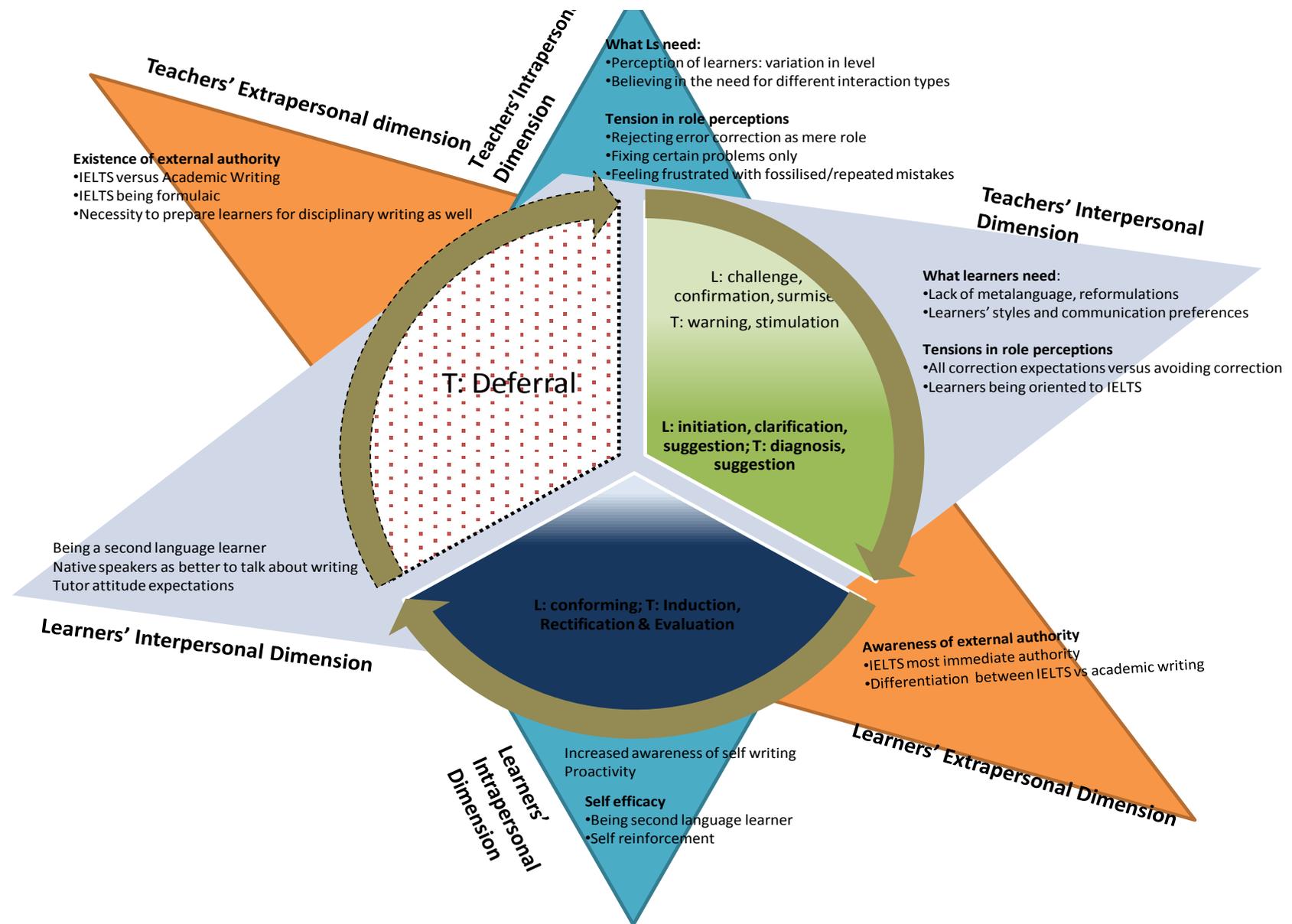


Figure 7.2. Pre-requisite EAP classes profile

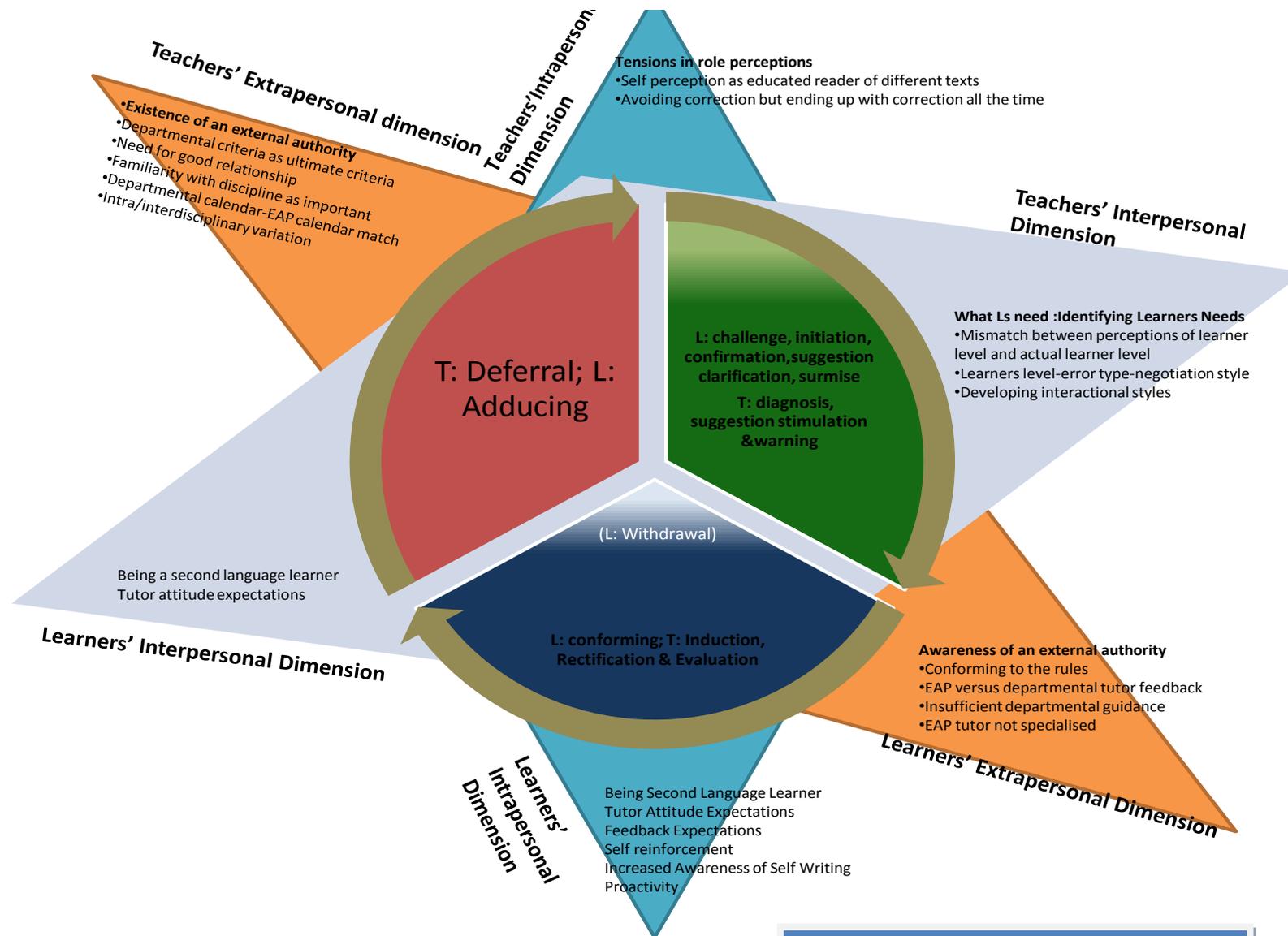


Figure 7.3. Specialised EAP classes profile

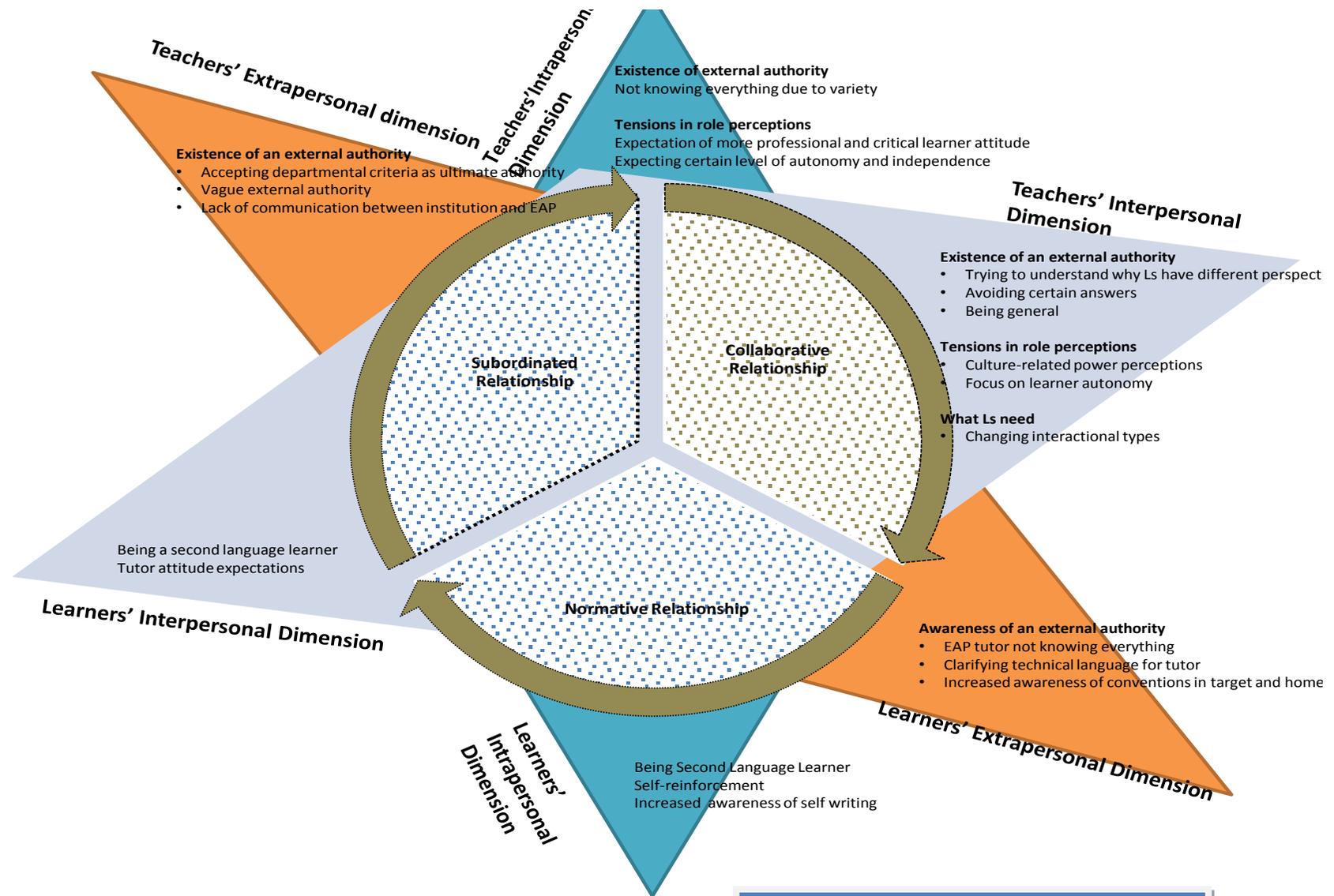


Figure 7.4. Pre-sessional EAP class profile

7.4. Conclusion

In this chapter, I have examined the case units in terms of similarities and differences by using the theory I developed through a holistic analysis across these case units. Providing background information on the case units, I described the contrasting and comparing procedures I followed. Following this, I set out the compare-and-contrast process (within when possible and) across case units. I detailed each dimension of the theory for both teachers and students in each case unit. Finally, based on the similarities and differences I revealed, I developed individual theoretical profile models. Next chapter will turn to literature to discuss these findings.

CHAPTER 8

Discussion & Conclusion

This chapter is constituted of six sections. Part I of this chapter, **Analytical Findings and Discussion**, will first provide a brief summary of the findings as answers to the research questions which emerged through the data analysis procedure. Then, using the pictorial model developed in the theoretical coding chapter, I will discuss the findings in light of the literature. In this part, I will detail the nature of the distribution of power dynamics within teacher-student classroom feedback interactions on EAP writing in the light of the literature. In Part II, I will discuss methodological issues in relation to existing literature on qualitative research. In this part, I will discuss trustworthiness issues and inquiry traditions. In Part III, I will discuss the limitations of the study while also suggesting possible paths for further investigation. Finally, the summary of the chapter will be presented.

Part I. Analytical Findings and Discussion

This section summarizes and discusses the study findings in relation to the existing literature regarding the feedback interactions on academic writing.

8.1. Summary of Findings

This study started from an exploratory point. The field of interest was the feedback practices on academic writing within EAP classes. I followed cyclic data collection and data analysis stages of GT while also following case study inquiry traditions. 7 teachers and 35 students were interviewed in total, and approximately 124 hours of classroom observation was conducted in Pre-Sessional, Generic In-sessional, Specialised, and Pre-requisite EAP classes (See Chapter 4, Section 3.4.1.1 for details).

Stages of open coding, selective coding and theoretical coding were followed. The findings of these stages were detailed in Chapter 4 (Initial Data Analysis), Chapter 5 (Selective Coding) and Chapter 6 (Theoretical Coding). In Chapter 7, the generated theory was once again evaluated in each unit of the case. In this way, I attempted to better present a comparison and contrast of the relationship patterns and influencing factors across the case units. This comparison and contrasting process across case units (also within case units when necessary) revealed that extra-personal, inter-personal and intra-personal dimensions remained relatively similar although units differed slightly in terms of behavioural dimensions.

At the end of the open coding stage of GT, three research questions, which this study aimed at investigating further and theorizing through selective and theoretical coding stages, emerged. These questions and answers are worth remembering briefly:

- a. *What actions do students and teachers utilize/take during one-on-one classroom feedback interactions on EAP writing?*

The study revealed that students utilized the actions of *suggestion, initiation, surmise, challenge, clarification, verification, adducing, conforming and withdrawal* in classroom feedback interactions with their teachers. As for teachers, the actions of *suggestion, diagnosis, stimulation, deferral, arbitership* (with the sub-actions of *induction and rectification*), *evaluation*, and *warning* were found. (Please see Chapters 4, 5 and 6 for detailed descriptions of these actions).

- b. *Of what patterns of teacher-student relationships are these actions indicative?*

Related to the first question, the second research question aims to answer the ways in which power dynamics are distributed between the teacher-student participants of the classroom feedback interactions. The study found three patterns of teacher-student

relationship, which were normative, collaborative and subordinated. (Please see Chapters 4, 5 and 6 for detailed descriptions of these relationship patterns).

c. Why do relationship patterns emerge in the way they were observed in feedback interactions?

Both students and teachers' construction of an institutional self might influence the way they participated in the classroom feedback interactions. The teacher's institutional self was one which attempted to balance competing agendas in their decision-making during feedback interactions. This was displayed through the tensions in role perceptions, what learners need and the existence of an external authority. As for learners, their institutional self was one which attempted to conform to the norms. Learners' institutional self as conforming to the norms was displayed through the learners' motivators (e.g., existence of an external authority, teachers' attitude in moment by moment interactions, feedback expectations) in feedback interactions and learners' self-efficacy (e.g., being a second language learner, teachers' attitude and self-reinforcement).

d. What are the possible consequences of the emerging relationship patterns?

It was found that critical awareness of academic writing could be developed among learners as a possible consequence of the relationship patterns. Learners' critical awareness of academic writing was constructed as contemplation and pro-activity. Although the same issue was looked for among teachers in terms of their professions as well, I could not reach any meaningful finding.

e. How can we make a comparison and contrast between the case units to see the boundaries among case units?

In the process of comparing and contrasting case units, dimensions of the theory indicated plenty of commonalities across case units. This, I believe, has implications

for the existence of a departmental culture in the research site as well as indicating that case unit boundaries are heuristic.

8.1.2. Dimensions of Classroom Teacher-Student Feedback Interactions on EAP Writing

In the pictorial model I developed in the theoretical coding stage, I showed the relationship patterns as constituted of dimensions, which were the behavioural dimension, extra-personal dimension, intra-personal, and interpersonal dimensions. I will discuss the significance of the findings on each dimension in relation to the research on ESAP versus EGAP, classroom spoken discourse and spoken feedback practices on academic writing.

8.1.2.1. Behavioural Dimension and Relationship Patterns

In this section, I will first separate learners' and teachers' behavioural dimensions to be better able to show how each side participates actively in the construction of relationship patterns, which has implications for various issues I have detailed in Chapter 2. I will first evaluate the learners' behavioural dimension in relation to the existing literature. Following this, I will focus on the teachers' behavioural dimension while simultaneously relating the findings to the literature. In this way, I will attempt to show that differing needs, expectations, and orientations together with the converging ones are influential on the construction of teacher-student positioning in feedback interactions. I will then reveal how findings relate to existing literature on ESAP versus EGAP approaches, classroom spoken discourse and feedback interactions.

Learners' behavioural dimension and relationship patterns

The findings on learners' behavioural dimension are significant for the literature on ESAP versus EGAP, classroom spoken discourse and spoken feedback practices respectively.

Through open and selective coding, it was revealed that learners displayed different positions through various actions during classroom spoken feedback interactions. In a collaborative relationship, learners emerged as equal partners exploring together with the EAP tutor. In a normative relationship, they acted as the conformers seeking rules while, in a subordinated relationship, learners displayed themselves as informants/members of a certain group. Although much has been debated from learners' perspectives (e.g., needs, perceptions, expectations) in relation to ESAP versus EGAP, learners' actions as displayed through various behavioural patterns inside the EAP classroom setting and their implications for ESAP versus EGAP debates have not been examined. The existence of normative relationship pattern and its actions, which, for example, sometimes dominated Specialised EAP classrooms, might support the views of EGAP proponents in that, to some extent, there is indeed homogeneity in learners' needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) and learners' perceptions of academic writing requirements (Huang, 2013). This conclusion challenges Zamel (1993) who claimed that learners did not have an objective understanding of academic writing. Normative relationship actions are aimed at learning and, following the conventions in the target domain, the action of *conforming* in particular supports the idea that learners might indeed have shared perceptions of academic language (Huang, 2013). However, that the normative relationship was accompanied dynamically and multi-directionally by the patterns of collaborative and subordinated relationships challenges the idea of continuous homogeneity of learner

needs. This is because learners clarified meaning, revealed rationales (i.e., *clarification*), referred to an external authority/displayed themselves as members of a community (i.e., *adducing*), and challenged EAP tutors' feedback (i.e., *challenge*). Therefore, this co-emergence supports and expands the research on ESAP-oriented research examining learner attributes by revealing learners' diverse ways of perceiving and approaching academic writing and their own needs.

As there is not enough research on how learners actively display their diverse perceptions of academic writing and their needs in relation to EAP classroom settings, research on feedback and classroom spoken discourse might provide insight into the nature of learners' diverse ways of perceiving academic writing and needs.

Previous research into feedback on writing has revealed how learners have engaged with teacher feedback on writing at a moment-by-moment level. The examination of unique learner actions during feedback interactions by various studies indicated that learners treated academic writing with changing levels of epistemic asymmetries, which might have implications for their perceptions and needs of academic writing in EAP classroom feedback interactions. Waring (2005, pp.150-159), for example, found that one learner resisted her writing tutors' comments by invoking authority, asserting [their] own agenda and minimizing the importance of advice. Learner actions of *adducing* and *challenge* in my study support and extend Waring's (2005) findings in that learners might also resist tutor advice on their writing in classroom feedback interactions. In *adducing*, learners invoked authority by referring to their departmental tutors/requirements or displayed themselves as a member of a particular community. Through *challenge*, learners revealed their rationale for having problems, and made a veiled request for a relevant suggestion from the tutors. They also brought a counter argument to the tutor through this action.

Regarding *challenge*, Vehviläinen (2009a) claimed that the resistance strategies of learners (e.g., using proposals and complaints and distancing the self from the text) prevented them from showing understanding of teacher feedback. However, *challenge* in my study indicated the existence of an active learner engagement with and an acknowledgement of teachers' feedback. In my study, for example, the fact that learners utilized *challenge* to clarify their own rationales for writing in certain ways and to bring counter arguments to teacher feedback supports this argument, as exemplified in the analysis chapters.

The actions of *conforming* and *initiation* can also show learners' changing perceptions of normativity. These actions support the findings by Park (2012, p.2018) who contended that through epistemic downgrades, learners not only confirm asymmetries with their teachers but also limit teachers' subsequent actions by "calling for a relevant answer". However, besides supporting Park in terms of the action of *conforming*, both actions in my study also indicate that learners treat what can be regarded as "sets of rules" with differing levels of normativity. They either directly attempt to fit into the norms through *conforming*, or on the other hand, through *initiation*, they indicate a problematic aspect in their writing, but do not necessarily ask for knowledge of the rules but rather for advice.

Closely related to the above issues, the findings on changing learner actions within different relationship patterns widen the existing literature in ESAP by offering implications for the nature of academic disciplines. The fact that the dynamism and multi-directionality of these actions have been observed, even among learners from the same disciplines, supports and widens the studies showing that academic disciplines have a "confluent/changing/fluent" nature (Brew, 2008; Krause, 2014), which becomes visible through feedback interactions on academic writing inside EAP

classrooms. These actions indicate the need for negotiation and the possibility of a fractionalised and varying use of writing across disciplines, even maybe within the same discipline (Hyland & Tse, 2007; Durrant, 2014). Therefore, even though, as mentioned above, normative actions seek sets of rules, the existence of collaborative actions (e.g., *clarification*) or subordinated actions (i.e., *adducing*) support and broaden research which, through a focus on vocabulary, has underlined that a focus on ‘common core issues’ would not equally serve all disciplines (Martinez, Beck & Panza, 2009; Valipouri & Nassaji, 2013; Mozaffari & Moini, 2014). These findings also indicate that future research is needed to better understand whether, how and why disciplines shape learners’ actions in relationship patterns residing in feedback interactions on academic writing.

In addition to the above issues, as already shown in Chapter 4, even if the issues learners raised through normative patterns were more rule-oriented, the similar issues were still discussed through collaborative patterns as well (e.g., asking for the rule for using ‘Moreover’ through *conforming*, and negotiating the use of ‘the way’ through the action of *suggestion*). This situation supports Johns (1988) who claimed that generic skills were ambiguous. Thus, the findings on learners’ actions support the claim that an EGAP approach trying to address the ‘common core issues’ would also be insufficient. This might also mean that an EGAP solely focusing on ‘universal issues’ by neglecting the aspects of issues arising through collaborative and subordinated actions would be what runs the risk of turning EAP into a ‘service to content courses’, as claimed by Raimes (1991).

Teachers’ behavioural dimension and relationship patterns

As in the learners’ behavioural dimension, the findings on the teachers’ behavioural dimension indicated that teachers displayed changing patterns of positioning self

through dynamic and nonlinear actions. I will also discuss them in relation to the debates on EGAP versus ESAP, feedback interactions and classroom spoken discourse.

I have already shown in the learners' behavioural dimension that learners' needs and perceptions of academic writing were to some extent homogeneous, as already shown by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Huang (2013), while also presenting that learners had diverse needs and perceptions of academic writing. The findings on teachers' actions broaden the existing literature on presenting implications for EAP tutors' perceptions of learners' needs and academic writing. The existence of normative, collaborative and subordinated actions by EAP tutors both in Generic EAP or Specialised EAP classes shows a perception of academic writing as varying across and within disciplines, and among learners with various needs in relation to academic writing.

The teacher actions also add to the understanding presented through studies on genre (Gimenez, 2008; Samraj, 2008; Uhrig, 2012) and vocabulary (Martinez, Beck & Panza, 2009; Valipouri & Nassaji, 2013; Mozaffari & Moini, 2014; Hyland & Tse, 2007; Durrant, 2014) in support of ESAP. Even though teachers utilized normative actions, they also attempted to understand the writing together with learners through collaborative relationship or directly deferred to learners' departments or academic tutors. These actions by the EAP tutors indicate that even if common genres or lexical items might exist across disciplines, the way they are utilized by different disciplines (or departments) changes, which explains why EAP tutors display a cautious attitude or display collaborative actions. Similarly, the use of collaborative and subordinated actions by teachers might also indicate EAP tutors' awareness of the fact that learners would be concurrently taking classes with a more disciplinary language focus. This

finding, then, supports Kasper (1989), Nabei and Swain (2002) and Rolin-Ianziti (2010) who revealed the influence of curriculum/pedagogical goals on teachers' repair patterns. Likewise, by providing empirical data on EAP tutors' pedagogical decisions and curriculum goals in relation to their attitudes towards practices of teaching academic writing, this study expands the studies on disciplinary tutors' attitudes (Braine, 1988; Lea & Street, 1998; Hyland, 2002; Hyland, 2013a; Zhu, 2004; Tuck, 2012). By revealing that EAP tutors might also leave the teaching of disciplinary language to disciplinary tutors, this study highlights the urgency of establishing stronger collaboration with learners' departments.

Closely related with the above issues, the findings on the EAP teachers' behavioural dimension also support research by Young and Miller (2004, p.532) concerning the teacher elicitation strategies to "co-construct a candidate revision" with learners. My study follows a similar line with them by accentuating that the teachers did not assume interactional control during feedback interactions; for example, the collaborative relationship and sub-ordinated relationship pattern were two examples where the teachers did not make explicit attempts to hold the control of the feedback interactions. This study also extended findings by Young and Miller (2004) in that teachers not only utilized elicitation strategies but also actions of *suggestion*, and *warning* to co-construct the text together with learners. These findings, however, contrast with Jones et al. (2006, p.11), who claimed that in face-to-face interactions teachers tended to "assume more interactional control, making it more difficult for learners to affect the overall agenda of the sessions and the choices about what kinds of errors are to be focused on and what they would like to learn about these errors".

Teachers' behavioural dimension of relationship patterns is also meaningful in relation to the literature on institutional discourse and its impact on teachers' interactional

control within writing conferences (Thonus, 1999; Thonus, 2004). My research findings expand previous studies by bringing in the EAP classroom setting as a new context for feedback on writing in relation to institutional discourse. However, the findings on teachers' behavioural dimension of relationship patterns contradicted Thonus (1999, p.244), who argued that in writing conferences "tutor dominance expressed through the selection, mitigation, and frequency of suggestions was nearly uniform across all situations". This, according to Thonus (1999, p.244), was a very significant indicator of the influence of institutional context, which characterised the speech situations by "conferring status and authority on institutional representatives". My findings contradict Thonus (1999; 2004) in that institutional discourse does not necessarily lead to unidirectional teacher-dominated feedback interactions. Rather, institutional discourse might lead to a multi-directional, dynamic and fractured pattern of interaction within classroom feedback talks.

Finally, my findings also contradict the studies (e.g., Blau et al., 2002) on teachers' interaction patterns with non-native students. Contrary to the findings that teachers utilize more close-ended questions with non-native learners, the findings of this study revealed that teachers used *diagnosis* frequently. In *diagnosis*, the purpose was often to understand learners' intended meanings, rationales for writing in certain ways to be better able to understand what would be a better way to help learners.

8.1.2.2. Institutional Self

In this section, I will discuss the institutional self of learners and teachers. While doing so, I will reveal how the institutional self creates the extra-personal, inter-personal and intrapersonal dimensions of relationship patterns for both learners and teachers. Thus, I will first discuss extra-personal dimensions for both learners and teachers, which will be followed by inter-personal and intra-personal dimensions respectively.

Extra-personal dimension of institutional self

The findings on learners' and teachers' extra-personal dimension of relationship patterns are meaningful for ESAP versus EGAP, classroom spoken discourse research and feedback interactions.

The interviews, as shown in Chapter 4, 5, 6 and 7, revealed that both teachers and learners accepted learners' departments or disciplinary tutors as the ultimate criteria. While EAP tutors underlined that they followed departments' criteria, learners also indicated that EAP tutors were not in a position to know everything, which supports the idea that knowledge is manifested by different groups of people differently through writing and reading (Lea & Street, 2006). These findings might also indicate the issue raised by EGAP supporters (Raimes, 1991; Zamel, 1993) regarding a potential academic hierarchy construction through ESAP teaching due to perception of EAP as "having no intrinsic value" by focusing on the subject matter of other disciplines. Likewise, it might also support the EGAP proponents in that EAP tutors might not have the control over content (Spack, 1988). However, when evaluated altogether the findings indicate that EAP has its own area of professionalism, which means that it is not hierarchically at a lower position compared to learners' disciplinary areas. The main reason for this situation is that both Generic EAP tutors/learners and Specialised EAP tutors/learners, alongside Pre-requisite and Pre-sessional EAP tutors/learners, indicated that they would accept disciplinary tutors as the ultimate authority. Secondly, learner accounts indicated an awareness of target and home culture writing as well as variations within the target domain. This indicates that, as Evans and Morrison (2011) showed as one of the biggest challenges for EAP tutors, sensitizing learners towards variation is one of the major tasks of EAP. As also detailed in Chapter 7, EAP tutors reported developing strategies while giving feedback for learners'

writing (e.g., eliciting rules by asking questions to learners, having as much exposure as possible to disciplinary writing and prioritization). These accounts add to our understanding of the existing literature on disciplinary variation from a variety of perspectives (Berman & Cheng, 2010; Evans & Morrison, 2011; Wu & Hammond, 2011; Martinez, Beck & Panza, 2009; Valipori & Nassaji, 2013; Mozaffari & Moni, 2014; Gimenez, 2008; Samraj, 2008; Uhrig, 2012) by revealing EAP tutors' perceptions and attitudes towards working with a variety of disciplines inside the classroom, which has not been examined so far.

Despite the above reasons that position ESAP with its own status, there are still challenges it must face in order to successfully achieve its goals. One challenge, according to learner and EAP tutor accounts in the interviews, is that disciplinary tutors directed learners to EAP classes. Furthermore, EAP tutors indicated that departments decided who would attend those classes, timetable those classes, and so forth. More importantly, EAP tutors also indicated that the support academic tutors provide on academic writing varied, sometimes being insufficient. This situation supports ESAP research indicating that academic tutors do not see literacy teaching as part of their job (Braine, 1988; Lea & Street, 1998; Hyland, 2002; Zhu, 2004; Hyland, 2013a). Rather, it shows that teaching academic literacy is regarded as the duty of EAP classes. Indeed, these accounts reveal an institutional orientation towards treating teaching academic writing as the duty of EAP classes.

Another issue, which was stated by the Pre-requisite EAP tutor in particular, was the discrepancy between IELTS and academic writing requirements. Irvette's account of the formulaic structure of IELTS not fitting into academic writing requirements indicates that academic writing does not have a uniformed structure, which would challenge EGAP supporting studies (Spack, 1988; Coxhead, 2000; Coxhead & Nation,

2001) for a 'context-independent' approach towards academic writing. Rather, this finding indicates the variation and changing nature of academic writing particularly when combined with the EAP tutor's approach of balancing text-specific and generalized feedback on academic writing. Thus, this study widens the existing literature, which mostly focused on academic tutors' perceptions and beliefs (Quinlan, 1999; Krause, 2014; Galley & Savage, 2014) by revealing *EAP tutors'* perceptions and beliefs about the academic disciplines. Likewise, in relation to IELTS not fitting into academic writing requirements, the findings also fill in a gap by revealing the discrepancy between IELTS and academic writing requirements, which would explain why "IELTS does not serve as a suitable predictor of a learner's university performance" (Cooper, 2013, p.63).

The findings of my study also revealed that EAP tutors experienced tensions caused by external authority in the classroom. EAP tutors explained that they had to rush in the class while providing feedback due to lack of time. Also, the Specialised EAP tutor indicated that learners' departments determined the schedule of those classes, which was late in the evening when everybody was tired for that particular class. Likewise, tutors indicated that the timing of EAP had to be arranged according to the time of academic writing assignments for learners to see the relationship between EAP and disciplinary writing. In terms of students attending the EAP classes, the Specialised EAP tutor in particular underlined the variety of learners in terms of their disciplinary backgrounds. The Specialised EAP tutor reported that since the departments were paying for these courses, they were able to make adjustments in the student profile at any time.

These issues broaden the findings by Tuck (2008), who found that academic tutors experienced alienation from feedback due to institutional demands. My findings add

to our understanding by revealing how the extra-personal dimension/institutional demands created tensions for EAP tutors' feedback practices inside the classroom by revealing EAP tutors' perceptions. These findings can also be related to the studies that examined the impact of institutional discourse on teachers' interactional patterns in feedback interactions (Ulichny & Watson-Gegeo, 1989; Thonus, 1999, 2004). Since previous research usually focused on how and whether the institutional discourse created teacher dominance, my findings broaden the knowledge by revealing the tensions resulting from institutional demands that EAP tutors experience during these interactions.

The challenges detailed above and issues emerging into the extra-personal dimension are also important in broadening the existing calls in literature for collaboration between EAP and subject tutors "to promote learning opportunities for students" (Barron, 2003; Sloan & Porter, 2010, p.209). All these issues in the extra-personal dimension, as Sloan and Porter (2010) argued, indicate that there is a need for more concrete and better designed collaboration between EAP tutors and departmental tutors regarding design and delivery of EAP. Since these findings emerged across all the units of EAP classes, they also fill a gap by revealing this necessity not only for In-session classes as shown by Sloan and Porter (2010) but also for Specialised EAP, Pre-requisite and Pre-session classes. However, it is worth acknowledging that a clear-cut answer as to how collaboration between Pre-requisite EAP units and the potential external authorities could be arranged would not be found using solely the findings of my study.

Inter-personal dimension of relationship patterns

The findings from the inter-personal dimension of learners and teachers are meaningful for the literature on ESAP versus EGAP, classroom spoken discourse and feedback on writing research.

In terms of ESAP versus EGAP research, the findings from both learners' and teachers' interviews indicate that one major gap in the previous research on EGAP versus ESAP is mechanisms of classroom feedback interactions between EAP tutors and learners on academic writing. The interactional dimension of relationship patterns for both learners and EAP tutors indicate that the EAP setting is where academic writing needs to be taught instead of leaving teaching of writing solely to disciplinary tutors as Spack (1988) argued.

What EAP tutors and learners do at the interactional dimension reveals the underlying reasons. EAP tutors reported that the existence of an external authority turned EAP classroom feedback into a low stakes interaction, where learners were able to talk about issues they were not able to talk about to their disciplinary tutors. This finding supports and extends the study by Harklau (1994), where it was found that learners' participation patterns were different in the mainstream content classes and ESL classes due to curriculum differences. Similarly, the findings support the studies that examined teachers' pedagogical approaches and their impacts on learners' classroom participation (Yoon, 2008; Salazar, 2010; Ollerhead, 2012).

In addition to the curriculum and pedagogical approaches, EAP tutors' attributes might also reveal why this difference exists between learners' participation in EAP and content classes. Various studies revealed that teachers' training (Brock, 1986; Harklau, 1994) and their personal histories (e.g., being an ESL learner) (Ajayi, 2011) shaped how teachers engaged with learners in elicitation and overall classroom

interactions. In my study, EAP tutors reported focusing on learners' interactional styles during feedback interactions and broader classroom interactions, which might be a sensitivity stemming from EAP tutors' training and their experiences of teaching in EAP. Likewise, EAP tutors' sensitivity towards issues emerging from learners' being second language learners (e.g., lack of meta-language, culture-related power expectations, and previous learning experiences) as well as sensitizing learners to variation (i.e., exposing learners to options) would support this finding. Learners' concerns resulting from their being second language learners might also indicate that learners regard EAP as a setting where their problems are being addressed. As has been shown in the analysis chapters, learners frequently reported downgrading themselves due to being second language learners and experiencing problems due to being second language learners.

Despite the significant role of EAP, learners' and teachers' accounts indicate issues that need to be approached carefully within EAP and during feedback interactions. These issues also shed light on the emergence of relationship patterns. Learners explained that even though they oriented towards EAP, they reported difficulties at the interactional level, one of them being the feedback's features. Studies on learners' repair (Suzuki, 2005; Sheen, 2006; Bao et al., 2010) and learners' perceptions of quality of feedback on writing (France & Wheeler, 2007; Roberts, 2008; Morra & Asís, 2009; Cryer & Kaikumba, 1987; Olesevo et al., 2011; Silva, 2012; Thompson & Lee, 2012) revealed that types (e.g., explicit correction versus recast, oral-audio versus written feedback), length and intonation of feedback had an influence on learners' engagement with (i.e., uptake, noticing) and perceptions of clarity in feedback. These studies indicated that, in addition to length and intonation of feedback, clarity and explicitness were important for learners. In that sense, my findings provide a clue that

‘straightness, specificity, being realistic and critical’ might be what are needed to construct clear and explicit feedback. My findings also broaden previous studies by revealing how learners might actively manage these issues, which can be another explanation for the dynamic and nonlinear nature of actions in the behavioural dimension as well.

The findings on learners’ expectations of clear and explicit feedback are also important in showing that learners actively engage with agenda-setting and maintenance in feedback interactions, which could explain why the issue of personalized feedback emerged as a significant finding in several studies (Patrie, 1989; Olesova et al., 2011; Rotherham, 2008). In that sense, explicit, specific and not over-complimentary feedback might be what shows learners that EAP tutors acknowledge their agendas. Likewise, these could be interpreted as learners’ criteria for “tailor-made” (Oomen-Early et al., 2008, p.272) and individualized feedback. Finally, learners’ active agenda-setting/maintaining together with the personalized feedback expectations also indicate that the traditional powerful status of tutor as expert and agenda-setter in oral feedback is challenged. This study, therefore, also expands the study by Blair and McGinty (2013, p.472), who revealed challenges to traditional power dynamics between students and teachers since students utilized feedback dialogues as a way to request “explanation and justification of the grades” they were given.

Learners’ feedback expectations are meaningful also to develop a better understanding of how learners’ self-efficacy works interactionally. One of the sources for developing learners’ self-efficacy for Bandura (1997, as cited by Habel, 2009) is verbal persuasion. That is, although the impact of positive feedback is well known, utilizing it as an “explicit source of self-efficacy helps to refine feedback approaches” (Habel, 2009, p.97). In my study, learners’ emphasis on ‘critical and realistic’ feedback, which

is not over-complimentary and which does not give too much hope while telling about their real conditions with academic writing, provides clues regarding how verbal persuasion through feedback interactions needs to be. By calling for more concrete and explicit examples of good practices, these findings also extend the calls to provide “encouraging feedback” to learners to develop their academic self-efficacy (Schunk, 2003, p.165). Further research might also examine the connections between relationship patterns in feedback interactions and their impact on learners’ self-efficacy in EAP classes.

In addition to feedback features, learners also highlighted tutors’ moment-by-moment attitudes as a possible influencing factor on their participation in feedback interactions. Learners reported that whether the EAP tutor was open to listening, encouraging, open to learners’ agenda, flexible, not harsh when learners made mistakes and not self-justifying through feedback, shaped their participation in feedback interactions. A number of studies examined learners’ perceptions from a phatic perspective in relation to feedback (Ice et al., 2007; Oomen-Early et al., 2008; Rodway-Dyer et al., 2009; Liu, 2009; Cryer & Kaikumba, 1987; Thompson & Lee, 2012). Those studies indicated that the medium of feedback had an impact on learners’ perceptions of the phatic aspect within feedback. The findings in my study highlight these studies in an EAP classroom feedback interaction setting. It also adds to the current understanding by unravelling the possible relationship between phatic issues residing in feedback interactions and the relatively more frequent emergence of certain relationship patterns. For example, it might be interpreted that learners would display more collaborative actions with an EAP tutor with the described attitude. Further research is required to explain the role of tutor attitude in shaping learners’ participation in classroom feedback interactions.

In addition to the challenges encountered in learners' accounts, EAP tutors also reported experiencing tensions resulting from learners' certain role expectations. Among these were correction expectations, which tutors rejected as their only role. Likewise, tutors also indicated that students usually chose not to challenge tutors and had certain power expectations due to either their coming from certain cultural backgrounds or learning experiences. Studies examining feedback interactions on writing presented findings on the relationship between learners' familiarity with the dynamism residing in writing conferences, culture-related experiences and their participation patterns (Liu, 2009; Cumming & So, 1996). Similarly, several studies conducted on spoken classroom discourse indicated that learners' culture-related learning experiences shaped their classroom participation (Harklau, 1994; Morita, 2004; Hu and Fell-Eisenkraft; 2003; Yates and Nguyen, 2012; Bista, 2012). The findings in this study support these studies in terms of the impact of culture-related learning on learners' participation. However, my findings also relate to a second line of spoken classroom discourse studies (Kato, 2010; Morita, 2004; Samar & Yazdanmehr, 2013; Hamouda, 2013) which called for a cautious attitude towards focusing solely on culture when examining learner participation. In that regard, Kato (2010, p.14) underlined that "learners' participation (and silence) need to be examined with a 'contextual focus' to show the 'complexity and diversity of students' experiences in the classrooms", thus assuring that context is not obscured by the "overemphasis on the culture while examining learners' participation into the classroom discourse". In my study, in addition to learners' culture-sourced tutor role expectations, tutors also reported a tendency to become more prescriptive with lower proficiency learners. However, among higher proficiency learners, tutors mentioned the lack of pre-requisite content-related knowledge. Due to this variation, tutors had

to work with a prioritization mechanism while talking to students on their writing. However, as teachers in this study also indicated that priorities did not always match, they had to negotiate priorities. This finding suggests that a potential relationship exists between teachers' perceptions of students' proficiency and teachers' orientation towards certain actions leading to certain relationship patterns. These findings also expand the study by Xie (2011), which found that there was a relationship between teachers' perceptions of student proficiency and teachers' elicitation strategies in terms of teachers' turn allocations in spoken classroom discourse. However, these findings also reveal that learners could challenge teachers' perceptions as well since teachers indicated that negotiations with learners might be needed to determine priorities. In addition to the variation, tutors indicated issues of rapport and whether learners had good communication skills as important issues influencing learners' participation. These findings in my study support the need to examine learner participation from a contextual perspective as both learners' and teachers' accounts indicate that relationship patterns in feedback interactions are set, challenged, changed and re-set.

Intra-personal dimension of relationship patterns

How learners and teachers envision themselves in relation to the feedback interactions indicates the intra-personal dimension of relationship patterns, and reveals how both sides actively lead the feedback interactions through these envisionings. This self-perceptions of learners and EAP tutors are also meaningful for ESAP-EGAP and classroom spoken discourse-related research.

As has been shown in Chapter 4, 5, 6 and 7, two issues emerge as striking in both EAP tutors' and learners' accounts: a) disciplinary variation has an influence on feedback practices, which has already been detailed on the extra-personal and interpersonal

dimension; and b) in addition to the disciplinary variation, EAP tutors' accounts on role and learner perceptions together with their goals indicate a shared conception of disciplinary identity, which is challenged by learners' expectations and goals together with the fact that learners are directed to EAP by disciplinary tutors. In terms of point b, the findings of this study reveal that EAP tutors have shared descriptions of their identities, which has not been explored previously. EAP tutors indicated that they approached differently to different learners depending on the level, displayed multiple roles depending on their goals, did not see mere correction as part of their jobs while also underlining that there were limitations to what they could know due to disciplinary variations. Likewise, EAP tutors underlined that learners' needs did not necessarily result from their being second language learners. In that sense, EAP tutors' identity might be constructed as what Brew (2008, p.430) described as "confluent conceptions of disciplinary and interdisciplinary identity". EAP tutors stand between various disciplines even though they have a basic area of specialism. These findings add to previous research, which has focused mostly on academic tutors' disciplinary identity construction (e.g., Pinch, 1990; Brew, 2008; Krause, 2014).

Learners' accounts on the intrapersonal dimension indicate challenges for EAP tutors' conceptions of their disciplinary identity. Most of these challenges arise from learners' self-perceptions, goals and expectations. It was revealed through interviews that learners frequently indicated being a second language learner as an overall weakness. In addition to the difficulties at the interpersonal dimension, being a second language learner shaped learners' beliefs in their skills of writing and expectations from the EAP tutor. As some EAP tutors indicated, learners approached EAP tutors at times with unrealistic expectations within the given time limits. Likewise, some learners explained that since the EAP tutor cannot know the content very well, they expected

the tutor to focus on issues such as ‘polishing the text in terms of grammar, style and word choices’. These findings can support the findings by studies showing a relationship between learners’ expectations and their interactional patterns in feedback dialogues (Liu, 2009), and in broader classroom interactions (Samar & Yazdanmehr, 2013). Likewise, at a broader level, that students from different disciplines raised issues of second language learners and experiencing the resulting difficulties while detailing their needs and expectations from EAP might support the findings by Huang’s (2013) EGAP-oriented study. In Huang’s study, native/non-native, graduate/undergraduate students from various disciplines had similar perceptions of academic language learning needs. However, the findings of my study might also be explained through disciplinary tutors’ attitudes towards and practices of academic writing, which have been focused on by several ESAP-oriented scholars (Braine, 1988; Hyland, 2002; Zhu, 2004; Lea & Street, 1998; Tuck, 2012; Hyland, 2013a). In other words, learners’ accounts of their self-conceptions, and resulting expectations from EAP tutors in relation to academic writing and feedback practices, might indicate an institutionally constructed status of EAP, which would emerge as a challenge for EAP tutors’ conceptions of their disciplinary identity.

In addition to the above issues, learners’ self-motivation, feedback/EAP tutor attitude expectations, and critical awareness of academic writing (i.e., proactivity and increased self-awareness of writing) are also worth detailing. Learner accounts showed learners utilized self-motivation mechanisms to overcome potential problems posed by being second language learners. They underlined that being a second language learner was what necessitated being more eager to ask questions, and seek help. By indicating that low language proficiency does not necessarily lead to lower

participation, these findings challenge Hamouda (2013) and Cho (2013), who found that low-oral-proficiency learners were reticent in their classroom participation.

8.1.2.3. Bringing it together: EAP Classroom Feedback Interactions as a Multi-directional, Multi-dimensional Dynamic Construction

This study revealed the relationship patterns emerging in classroom feedback interactions on academic writing. It also revealed the institutional self as a possible influencing factor for both teachers and students while also unravelling critical awareness of academic writing as a potential outcome of these ways of positioning. These findings fill in a very specific gap in the literature, which Watson-Todd (2003, p.150) indicates as “an imbalance in the literature with more attention paid to the what of EAP”. Cadman (2005, p.355) interprets this criticism as “an indication of a reluctance in EAP to go into the living-and-breathing classroom, as writers prefer to focus on materials and teaching approaches rather than relationships”. This study, thus, provides a picture from the “living-and-breathing classroom feedback interactions” and existing relationship patterns within these feedback interactions. Through these relationship patterns, the multi-directional, multi-dimensional nature of feedback interactions is shown, and the potential of classroom feedback interactions on academic writing to harbour multiple roles and identities for both learners and teachers is emphasised.

8.1.2.4. EGAP and ESAP revisited

I have so far examined the findings in relation to broader issues in EAP. Although I have previously referred to ESAP-EGAP debates as well, it is still worth further highlighting how the model I have developed informs the EGAP-ESAP debates. While doing that, I will also provide practical exemplifications from my research. The model indicates three major implications regarding EGAP-ESAP debates: a) the necessity to design ESAP-oriented classes, b) that designing ESAP classes would still have

challenges, c) the need for establishing better collaboration between ESAP classes and academic departments.

One implication of the model for ESAP-EGAP debate is that designing ESAP-oriented classes rather than EGAP would be more advantageous for teaching and learning practices. The findings on different dimensions reveal the underlying reasons. At the extra-personal dimension, EAP tutors frequently indicated the existence of variation among learners not only in terms of their disciplinary backgrounds but also the departmental support and the modules learners were taking. More specifically, one tutor from Generic In-sessional EAP classes (Heled, Generic EAP tutor) reported encountering conflicting comments on the same piece of writing. All these findings support the findings by Quinlan (1999), Krause (2004), Galley and Savage (2004) who found that even the academics from the same disciplines had varying basic conceptions of their fields. These findings also broaden the literature by providing perspectives and experiences of EAP tutors *vis-à-vis* these variations.

In the inter-personal dimension, it was found that EAP tutors, particularly Generic In-Sessional EAP tutors, had to elicit rules from learners. Likewise, these tutors indicated that the fact that EAP tutors could not answer all the questions created tensions for learners who came to the classes with certain power expectations. These findings might potentially support Spack (1988) who claimed that EAP tutors might not have the control over the specialised content of an ESAP teaching. However, when examined altogether, these findings challenge Spack (1988) by revealing that tutors still face challenges with specialised content both in Generic In-Sessional EAP and Specialised EAP classes as Specialised EAP tutors also indicated the existence of a large amount of negotiation with learners for similar reasons. Likewise, the variation among learners EAP tutors encountered at the inter-personal dimension also support

Johns (1978, p.706) who claimed that an EGAP approach would overlook “EAP learners’ proficiency, learning environments, and majors”. Furthermore, it was found that EAP tutors, particularly Generic In-Sessional tutor Steen and Specialised EAP tutor Michael, indicated having to utilise prioritisation strategies and negotiating with learners while talking on learners’ academic writing. These findings support and broaden the findings by Brinton and Holten (2001) who found that learners’ proficiency varied even among learners who were placed in the same course. However, as there was no placement procedure for EAP learners in this study, the findings indicate the need for a more systematic design of EAP classes by showing the higher possibility of encountering learner proficiency variation in such settings.

Likewise, the behavioural dimension of the model also presents supporting findings for ESAP design. For example, the existence of all three relationship patterns in a dynamic way and with different learner and teacher actions supports Johns (1988, p.706) in that the general inquiry strategies an EGAP teaching would focus on are vaguely described. That is, even though normative relationship patterns existed, these were accompanied by collaborative relationship patterns (aiming at exploring and understanding the requirements together with the learner) and subordinated relationship actions (deferring to an external authority and staying cautious). Likewise, as was already mentioned previously, the existence of learner variation in terms of disciplinary background (i.e., both intra- and inter- disciplinary variation) and language level together with the behavioural dimension expands the literature by highlighting that the type of the relationship would differ even among the students from the same disciplines. The construction of these relationship patterns in relation to the disciplines would require further research while also highlighting the literature that supports establishing more solid collaborations between EAP departments and

academic departments (Dudley-Evans, 2001; Barron, 2002). These findings also expand the literature by revealing that relationship patterns present a fruitful line of research to develop teaching and learning practices in those ESAP classes.

Finally, the fuzziness and the uncertainties surrounding both Generic and Specialised EAP classes as well as Pre-Sessional EAP classes indicate that challenges would still exist even if an ESAP design were embraced. Several EAP tutors in my study indicated the lack of a healthy communication with academic departments (e.g., Tim from Pre-Sessional EAP). Other EAP tutors also mentioned how they benefited from the few occasions where they were able to receive help from departmental tutors (e.g., Michael from Specialised EAP). These findings, thus, also indicate the need for more examples of good practices on how an efficient collaboration could be established with academic departments.

Part II. Discussion of Methodological Issues

In the second part of this chapter, I set out the criteria for evaluating this study, the lessons learnt during the conduct of the study, and reflections.

8.2. Evaluating Qualitative Research

As I have already outlined in Chapter 3, Section 3.6 ‘Evaluating Qualitative Research’, I followed the criteria outlined by GT scholars Charmaz (2005) and Glaser (1978) while also following the criteria offered by Lincoln and Guba (1985) to evaluate my research. I now go on to discuss how my research fits in these criteria.

8.2.1. Credibility

As I earlier noted in Chapter 3, Section 3.6.1 for the criteria of ‘Credibility’, Charmaz (2006, p.182) lists the below questions to evaluate the credibility of a GT study:

- Has the research achieved intimate familiarity with the setting or topic?
- Are the data gathered sufficient to merit the claims: the range, number, and depth of observations, (and interviews) contained in the data?

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are there strong logical links between the gathered data and the argument, and analysis? • Has the research provided enough evidence for the claims to allow the reader to form an independent assessment-and agree with your claims? |
|--|

Table 8.1. Guiding questions to achieve credibility

In my pursuit of achieving credibility and dependability, I also stated earlier that I followed the strategies recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985) while underlining that credibility and dependability are constructed together. Below I present how I attempted to address credibility and dependability in my study:

- **Displaying intimate familiarity with the setting and topic:** In terms of presenting familiarity with the setting, I followed the strategies of prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, and member checks as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985). Through prolonged engagement, I attempted to ensure “spending sufficient time in field to learn the culture, test for misinformation provided the distortions either of the self or the respondents, and building trust” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.301). In my data collection phases, I allotted approximately 42 and 82 hours of observation respectively per period for classroom observations. Moreover, as a member of the department, I always had the chance to see and talk to the participants informally. Again, being a member of the department also gave me the chance to have some general insight into what was happening in those classes. This engagement with the research site helped me understand the culture of EAP classes in terms of how feedback interactions were conducted, the constraints on those classes, student attendance, and so forth. Moreover, it also helped me develop trust with teachers and students over time. Although trust was a challenge for me in the initial stage, especially since some teachers did not know me as a researcher very well, in the focused data collection phase they

knew my goals and orientations better. Thus, they could accept my participation relatively easily in the focused data collection phase. Via prolonged engagement, I also had the chance to verify some of my observations by asking teachers or students about them.

Persistent observation was another technique I used in this study. In my study, I observed EAP classes from beginning till the end. There were classes which turned out not to be on academic writing, but even though those classes with different orientations did not become officially part of my study, they still had value for relationship building and for general understanding of the context. This eventually led me to determine what was relevant to the feedback on academic writing and what was not relevant, thus fostering the analysis procedure.

As for topic familiarity, my research displays this through providing a literature review on a broad scale: it begins by presenting the research on EAP teaching with the widely debated issues. Following this, the literature review presents the research on broader spoken classroom discourse (e.g., teachers' control of interaction, teachers' elicitation, speech modification, repair, learners' participation in classroom interactions, responding to teacher questions, uptake, and noticing). This section is followed by previous studies on feedback practices on writing. In this discussion chapter, I discussed my findings under the light of the issues outlined in the Literature Review chapter: how my findings relate to EAP studies, classroom spoken discourse studies and feedback on writing studies.

- **Sufficiency of the depth, range and number of data gathered:** To facilitate the depth of the data gathered, I followed several suggestions by Lincoln and

Guba (1985). One strategy was triangulation, which is defined as the collaboration between various sources of data, investigations, theories, or research methods to reach multiple perspectives on the issue being studied (Dörnyei, 2007; Bryman, 2012; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, triangulation was achieved through implementation of different methods and inquiry traditions. Use of multiple methods, which are classroom observations with audio recording support (please see the limitations section for various issues with audio recording) and teacher-student interviews, led to the generation of multiple perspectives both in the initial and focused data collection phases. Also, the use of different inquiry traditions, case study and grounded theory, sharpened the triangulation by compensating for the weak aspects of each inquiry tradition. Charmaz (2000) states that GT is not clear about data collection methods, but provides clear guidelines for data analysis. On the other hand, case study is not clear about the data analysis phase while allowing the implementation of multiple data collection methods (Yin, 2009). Therefore, I decided to follow the principles of case study in data collection while implementing GT in the data analysis phases. Still, it is worth noting that separating case study and GT completely was not possible as there were times when GT informed data collection (e.g., sampling) while case study informed data analysis (e.g., comparing and contrasting case units).

As for the range and number of the data, approximately 42 and 82 hours of classroom observations both in the initial and focused data collection phases were conducted across a wide variety of classrooms: in total, five Generic In-Sessional EAP classes, five Specialised EAP classes, one Pre-sessional EAP class, and three Pre-requisite EAP classes were observed. The range of the

classes observed allowed me to tap into a variety of feedback practices in the classes with different purposes, thus having the chance to better understand what led to the emergence of certain relationship patterns in feedback interactions in certain classes. Likewise, I conducted interviews with five EAP teachers while simultaneously interviewing 37 students from a wide range of backgrounds and EAP classes (some of them in groups). These interviews lasted on average around 45 minutes (although there were ones lasting 30 minutes). The number and length of interviews allowed me to explore a broad range of topics. To further facilitate the depth of the data gathered, I implemented a member-checking strategy: I shared the interview transcripts with the participants to receive their comments or reactions to them. Although it was efficient for reaching more information, it is worth noting that contacting student participants in particular did not produce any further insightful responses. Additionally, I also had the chance to present my findings at a departmental meeting where some of the teacher participants joined as well as other members of the department. This meeting allowed me to present the complete findings of classroom observations and receive comments from the teacher participants. Likewise, conducting the data collection in two phases (i.e., initial data collection and focused data collection) and following constant comparison method as recommended by GT allowed me to evaluate my findings on an ongoing basis. This also helped with comparing emerging categories, concepts and themes with each other to be able to better differentiate between different categories, concepts and themes.

- **Logical links between the gathered data and the argument and analysis:**

One criterion was the member check. During data collection, I shared the interview transcripts with the participants to be able to receive their comments or reactions to them. Likewise, at times I asked participants about several issues that emerged through data analysis. The emerging findings were considered and discussed in light of the literature on EAP teaching, classroom spoken discourse, and spoken feedback practices on writing. In this way I was able to draw upon the key issues within the field and from various perspectives while also expanding these studies. Regarding logicity, however, as earlier discussed in Chapter 6 ‘Theoretical analysis’, Glaser (1978) warns against falling into the trap of logicity. As I earlier mentioned, to avoid falling into the trap of logicity, I followed Glaser’s suggestion and continuously went back to the original data and memos to find supporting samples for my claims. Only if these claims were supported by the memos and data samples, would I proceed with my decisions in theory building.

- **Provision of enough evidence for the claims for independent reader**

assessment: While conducting the data analysis, chapters of open coding, selective coding, theoretical coding and comparing/contrasting case units were discussed simultaneously with my supervisor until it was felt that sufficient and meaningful evidence had been provided. Similarly, as earlier noted, presenting in departmental research groups as well as at various postgraduate conferences (e.g., Lancaster University, Warwick University, Newcastle University) and large scale conferences (e.g. Norwegian Forum for English for Academic Purposes) provided a useful forum to discuss others’

views of the findings. Very often, EAP teacher participants in my presentations found the findings meaningful for their classroom experiences.

8.2.2. Originality

In Chapter 3, Section 3.6.2 for the criteria for Originality, I stated that I followed the below questions offered by Charmaz (2006). I also stated that these questions might address the concept of authenticity concept of Guba and Lincoln (1994):

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| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Are your categories (themes) fresh? Do they offer new insights?• Does your analysis provide a new conceptual rendering of the data?• What is the social and theoretical significance of this work?• How does your grounded theory challenge, extend or refine current ideas, concepts and practices? |
|---|

Table 8.2. Guiding questions to achieve originality

I now go on to discuss how my study fits each criterion:

- **New Insights:** In this study, I presented an analytical framework to analyse classroom feedback interactions at a global level. In this way, I detailed how learners' and teachers' behavioural, extra-personal, inter-personal and intra-personal dimensions have implications on a wide variety of issues in terms of EAP design (EGAP versus ESAP), classroom spoken discourse, and feedback on writing studies. It was revealed that learners' actions in classroom feedback interactions showed the learners' dynamic and diverse ways of perceiving and approaching academic writing and their needs. Likewise, learners' actions in different relationship patterns were meaningful for learners' changing perceptions of normativity and epistemic asymmetry. The findings on changing learner actions within different relationship patterns also expanded on the existing literature in ESAP by offering implications for the nature of academic disciplines. As for teachers' behavioural dimensions, teachers' actions added to our understanding by revealing EAP tutors' perceptions of

learners' needs and academic writing and genres. In the extra-personal dimension, it was revealed that EAP emerged as a discipline with EAP tutors' perceptions and attitudes towards working with a variety of disciplines. Likewise, the findings on the extra-personal dimension supported existing literature by showing that academic tutors did not see teaching academic writing as part of their job. Classroom-level evidence (e.g., EAP tutors' perception of IELTS as formulaic) was presented to show why IELTS could not predict learners' success with academic writing due to its being formulaic. Finally, at the extra-personal level, my findings broadened the knowledge by revealing the institutional-sourced tensions EAP tutors go through during feedback interactions. At the inter-personal dimension, I showed how teachers' sensitivity towards learners' interactional styles and difficulties resulting from being second language learners constructed EAP as the setting to focus on academic writing. In the intrapersonal dimension, I detailed how learners and teachers envisioned themselves in relation to the feedback interactions and how both sides actively led the feedback interactions through these envisioning. Furthermore, by detailing EAP tutors' role perceptions, I showed the shared descriptions of EAP tutors' disciplinary identities, which has not been examined previously. EAP tutor accounts depicted EAP tutors as being between different disciplines. Likewise, I detailed learners' accounts on their self-conceptions, and resulting expectations from EAP tutors in relation to academic writing and feedback practices. These accounts showed an institutionally constructed status of EAP, which would emerge as a challenge for EAP tutors' conceptions of their disciplinary identity.

- **A new conceptual rendering of the data (Charmaz, 2006):** This study, as I have already mentioned in the above bullet point, developed an analytical framework to analyse classroom feedback interactions at a global level. The framework sets out ways power is distributed between teacher and students by developing types of relationship patterns, the nature of each relationship pattern, possible mediating issues surrounding these patterns and possible outcomes of all the feedback interactions and their influencing factors. This provides insight into the complexity within feedback practices within EAP classes, and illustrates the experiences of teachers and students within EAP. This study's way of categorization might facilitate further exploration of feedback practices in the context of EAP in the future.
- **The social and theoretical relevance of this work:** Social and theoretical relevance of this work might be reflected through the implications for EAP conduct, EAP tutors, EAP learners, EAP's role within higher education conducts, and future research. In terms of social relevance, findings indicated why an ESAP approach would better address learners' needs in relation to academic writing. Also, findings showed that the institutionally-sourced tensions EAP tutors went through during feedback interactions had implications on how EAP was constructed and positioned within departments, which can also be related to the position of EAP within the higher education system. As for the theoretical relevance of this work, findings showed how academic disciplines and EAP tutors' disciplinary identity perceptions are conceived.
- **How this study “challenges, extends, or refines current ideas, concepts and practices” (Charmaz, 2006, p.182):** The study refines and extends current

ideas and concepts on feedback interactions by focusing on the ‘classroom’ feedback practices rather than writing conferences or other oral modes of spoken feedback on writing. Also, while simultaneously supporting existing studies in various ways (e.g., construction of disciplines and disciplinary identities, ESAP versus EGAP, and interactional dynamics of feedback interactions), this study also challenges and refines existing notions in terms of indicating the need for reviewing views on learners’ actions within feedback interactions (e.g., learners’ challenge being interpreted as showing not understanding versus showing active participation), teachers’ participation in feedback interactions, the status of EAP vis-à-vis the departments it works with, and the influence of institutional discourse on classroom feedback interactions. This study also challenges the existing practices of collaboration between EAP units and departments at a local level.

8.2.3. Resonance

In Chapter 3, Section 3.6.3., I stated that even though different scholars offered different names, these criteria covered similar issues. I also stated that I utilized the guiding questions offered by Charmaz (2006, p.182) to address the resonance while also drawing from the criteria of relevance and work. These questions were:

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| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Do the categories portray the fullness of the studied experience?• Have you revealed both liminal and unstable taken for granted meanings?• Have you drawn links between larger collectivities or institutions and individual lives, when the data so indicate?• Does your analysis offer them deeper insights about their lives and worlds? |
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Table 8.3. Guiding questions to achieve resonance

I now go on to discuss how my study fits each criterion:

- **The fullness of the studied experience** was achieved through two criteria in this study. The first criterion was theoretical saturation, which is achieved when newly collected data generates no new issues regarding the categories,

themes, and concepts. Secondly, I utilized a member-checking strategy. Through member-checking, I aimed at gaining feedback from the participants regarding the data collected and give them the chance to review and “check out the evolving interpretations of the data gathered from them” (Sandelowski, 1993, p.4). In my study, member-checking was achieved through either: a) sharing the transcripts with participants, asking them whether they would like anything to be removed or added; or b) asking further questions about the basic issues raised by members in interviews to able to receive further clarifications or confirmations about my understanding of these issues. In total, both in the initial and focused data collection phases, approximately 37 students and 7 teachers were given the interview transcripts. Among the students, 19 returned them with answers to my questions and further clarifications. Among the teacher participants, five of them were invited for follow-up interviews: two participated for follow-up twice (one in initial data, one in focused data collection). All of the teacher participants were provided with interview transcripts. None of the members requested me to delete anything from the interviews. Similarly, at a departmental research meeting where I presented the classroom observation data analysis results, I invited all available teacher participants. Two teachers attended this meeting, where they offered their comments.

- **Revealing ‘taken for granted meanings’:** In this study, taken for granted meanings by a group of participants were revealed at different levels. At learners’ level, it was revealed that being a second language learner was taken for granted by several learners. Likewise, the status of EAP within the wider context indicated that EAP is perceived as a service unit by departmental tutors

(e.g., directing students to EAP to ‘fix’ their language problems). Also, both learners and EAP tutors showed an awareness of the fuzziness existing in the nature of EAP.

- **Links between ‘larger collectivities or institutions and individual lives’:** In this study, the constituent elements of the institutional self were identified as being of relevance to the feedback-related experiences of both teachers and students across different types of EAP classes. It was revealed that both learners’ and teachers’ institutional selves had intrapersonal (e.g., self-reinforcement), interpersonal (e.g., teacher attitude, tensions in EAP tutor’s role perceptions) and extra-personal (e.g. existence of an external authority) dimensions.
- **The extent to which the study offers participants deeper insights about their lives and worlds:** One particular way this was achieved was that although various participants did initially had little to say about ‘their feedback experiences with EAP tutors’, they later reflected that they indeed had a lot to talk about feedback. They indicated that being given the chance to talk about it made them recognize its relevance.

8.2.4. Usefulness

As I have shown in Chapter 3, Section 3.6.4., I followed the below questions to evaluate the usefulness, which also complements the criteria of modifiability and transferability:

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| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Does the analysis offer interpretations that people can use in their everyday worlds?• Do the analytical themes and categories offer ‘any generic processes’? Have these ‘generic processes’ been examined for tacit implications?• What is the contribution of the study to the existing knowledge?• How does the analysis reveal future directions for research? |
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Table 8.4. Guiding questions to achieve usefulness

I now go on to discuss how my study answers these questions:

- **Interpretations that people can use in everyday life:** This study has identified relationship patterns in feedback interactions and possible mediating issues (e.g., the institutional self and its components), which are particularly relevant to classroom feedback practices for both teachers and students in EAP classes. Evidence from the study may be used to develop the cooperation between disciplines and EAP units of universities, to train teachers to increase their awareness of the relationship patterns and to develop strategies to utilize in different types of relationship patterns to be able to facilitate the teaching-learning process in EAP classes.
- **The ‘generic processes’ the study findings captured are as follows:** This study provided a potentially useful analytical categorization for teacher-student classroom feedback interactions on EAP writing. Thus, relationship patterns, institutional self and critical awareness of academic writing were identified as generic processes identified across units of EAP (i.e., Pre-requisite, Generic, and Specialised classes). I also compared and contrasted the case units in Chapter 7. It has been shown that although each unit had differing definitions and activities - as I retrieved from the university website - at the onset of the study, the existence of similar issues within each case unit made it difficult to distinguish between these units. This was due to the existence of plenty of commonalities the theory indicated across the case units. More specifically, the differences on the extra-personal, intra-personal and inter-personal dimensions were less visible across case units while differences existed on the behavioural dimension. In terms of tacit implications, the existence of relationship

patterns and their dimensions indicated that classroom feedback interactions within EAP classes had a hidden role in revealing the dynamics of EAP classrooms in terms of EAP design and broader classroom spoken discourse.

- **Contribution of the study to the existing knowledge:** These can be categorised into three groups: a) Contextual contribution: highlighting EAP spoken classroom dynamics as an under-researched field, examining different types of EAP classes (e.g., pre-requisite and pre-sessional) in addition to the much researched EAP classes; b) Theoretical contribution: Providing a theoretical framework to analyse classroom feedback interactions while foregrounding the issues of:
 - EAP with its own disciplinary specialism and tutors' disciplinary identity perceptions,
 - Challenges to EAP tutors' conceptions of disciplinary identity,
 - Personalised feedback and its features
 - Learners' actions in feedback interactions and its implications from various perspectives
 - EAP tutors' diverse ways of perceiving/approaching learners' needs
 - EAP tutors' actions in feedback interactions, and its implications from various perspectives
 - EAP tutors' ways of sharing responsibility with learners
 - Institutional discourse and its impact on EAP classroom interactions,
 - Collaboration between EAP and departments
 - Influence of departmental culture where EAP units are embedded on EAP classrooms

c) Methodological contribution: Providing a framework to combine case study and grounded theory; sampling an analysis of case units.

- The analysis identified **the need for further research** in other substantive areas as well. One potential direction is in terms of raising awareness: relationship patterns within feedback interactions in different EAP settings might be examined to reveal good practices that teachers (or institutions) utilize, thus offering facilitating strategies for EAP teachers and feedback practices. Similarly, further research might be conducted to assess the specific relationship between certain relationship patterns and the constituents of the institutional self for both teachers and students. Finally, since this study revealed a relationship between critical academic awareness for learners, future study might be conducted to better understand how relationship patterns and critical awareness of academic writing for learners are related to each other. It is worth noting that future directions indicated by a study and the term transferability by Lincoln and Guba (1985) are closely related. In my study, paving the way for possible future directions has also been achieved through giving thick descriptions, which Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended, within theoretical themes in the analysis. In this way, I believe that, researchers are given the chance to compare and further explore the issues raised by my study. Further work might be conducted to assess the relationship between possible mediating factors or to expand the findings on these factors. Likewise, further work might be conducted to assess the utility of the study.

8.3. Other Methodological Issues

8.3.1. Researcher's Agency and an Emergent Approach

The role of the researcher in GT is defined as a key determiner by GT scholars (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser, 1978). Glaser (1978, p.3), for example, states that the perspective the researcher presents “is a piece of a myriad of action in Sociology, not the only, right action”. In this study, I was also able to consider my role at various stages. Before conducting the study, even though I experienced being a student in embedded ESP classes during my Master's studies, I had little prior knowledge about EAP in the sense it is designed and conducted in the UK higher education system. This meant that while I was collecting and analysing the data through teacher-student interviews and classroom observations, I was simultaneously learning about the underlying mechanisms of classroom feedback interactions in EAP. Conducting a minor literature review, which was later followed by a major literature review, also allowed me to locate gaps in the existing knowledge in relation to EAP. More importantly, even though I was not experienced with the particular setting, I was able to connect with all participants' experiences and perspectives. Thus, it is necessary to acknowledge that the resulting theory might be the product of a construction developed by my interaction with the research site and participants, which is underlined by the constructivist paradigms (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Therefore, my study has provided perspectives and broader insights into the issues of classroom feedback interactions at a particular setting in EAP classrooms at a UK institution. Even though feedback interactions appear to be between learners and teachers, it is, as has already been shown, fundamentally constituted of other parties. My study has considered the role of different parties as well as being a work generated through my interaction with those parties.

8.3.2. The Timing of the Literature Review

The timing of literature review in GT is one of the widely debated issues (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978; Charmaz, 2006). It is recommended that the literature review be delayed to avoid a “received theory” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). It is underlined that delaying the literature review would also help the researcher to stay open and flexible during data analysis (*ibid.*). However, as already stated in Chapter 4, several scholars (Bulmer, 1978; as cited by Bryman, 2012; Albeti-Alhtaybat & Al-Htaybat, 2010) contended that delaying the literature review is not feasible due to various factors. Some of these factors are already existing knowledge (Bryman, 2012; Albeti-Alhtaybat & Al-Htaybat, 2010), requirement from researchers and doctoral candidates to demonstrate the possible contribution of their study and well-established research questions at the beginning (Bryman, 2012; Jones & Alony, 2011). In my study, I also had to conduct a literature review since I had to submit annual progress reports. However, as shown in Chapter 4, these literature reviews were divided into minor and major literature reviews. Through the minor literature review, I was able to reveal possible relevant dimensions of feedback on writing. As for the major literature review, I conducted it after I completed the data analysis. Conducting the major literature review after the data analysis facilitated the process of clarifying and building upon the data analysis (Charmaz, 2006; Henderson, 2011), and understanding the findings. I was also able to evaluate my work in relation to the existing work. Dividing my literature review in two steps played a key role in locating possible gaps in the field of classroom feedback interactions in EAP.

8.3.3. Following a Pragmatic Approach towards GT Schools

In Chapter 3, it was shown that various schools of GT existed. Among these, while Glaser’s GT School was more positivist, Charmaz’s school of GT was accepted as

constructivist. Strauss and Corbin's version was pragmatic. As I have already stated in Chapter 3, I did not treat GT as a paradigmatic stance. Rather, I believe that GT is a tool that offers various strategies to analyse the data.

8.3.4. Combining Case Study and Grounded Theory

One of the most important contributions of my study was achieved through combining case study and grounded theory. As have already stated in Chapter 7, I worked with the data analysis at a holistic level in the open coding, selective coding and theoretical coding stages to be able to “explore and build explanation” as part of the hypothesis-generation process (Yin, 2003, p.120; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Still, I was worried that conducting a holistic analysis would result in missing and incorporating perspectives within and across EAP case units, which could also influence the production of “contextually grounded” (Ayres, Kavanaugh, Knafl, 2003, p.871) and “illustrative findings” (Richards, 2011). Therefore, as I have shown in Chapter 7, I conducted a “(within and) across unit analysis strategy” and described the theory as it emerged in each case unit. While doing so, I adjusted the steps described by Knafl, Breitmayer and Zoeller (1996), whose work was for the research in nursing. Therefore, this movement between the holistic and unit-specific level of analysis provided a potential framework to work with case study and grounded theory together. The steps below taken to balance the general and specific explanations in my study, through which grounded theory and case studies were combined, can be adjusted in different studies as well:

- Identification of general defining and managing theoretical themes that shaped classroom feedback interactions in *all* EAP classes (which has been completed in open coding, selective coding and theoretical coding stages)

- Detailing the variation of overarching themes within and across the case: comparing and contrasting the dimensions of relationship patterns within and across case units for teachers and learners
- Creating a theoretical profile for each unit

8.3.5. Defining Case Units: Single Case Study with Embedded Units

Earlier in methodology chapter in Section 3.2.1.3., it was explained that determining the size of the study was one of the challenges. However, it was later noted that through a spatial (i.e., being regulated by the same institution) and activity-defining (i.e., goals and activities in each EAP provision) focus, I attempted to define this study as a single case with embedded units (Yin, 2009): examining one single programme (EAP programme at a higher education institution in England) in the broad sense. Yet this single programme was constituted of smaller units, which are Pre-sessional EAP, Pre-requisite EAP, Generic EAP, and Specialised EAP. These units shared similar goals, although they also had unit-specific goals. Therefore, I decided to describe the study as single case study with embedded units. However, the analysis procedure revealed questions about defining units and their boundaries within the case study. Although each EAP class had their particular goals, the boundaries between these classes (units) were blurred in terms of factors influencing the conduct of these classes, and the emerging patterns of relationships. That is, each unit had similar transactions within the wider context in which they were embedded. The existence of commonalities across case units could be due to the fact that case unit boundaries are heuristic. Another explanation of these similarities would also be closely related with case studies being located and bounded in terms of time, space and constituents within a larger system (Stake, 2000; Baxter & Jack, 2008; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). This would mean that “case studies are not a separate entity, but a located one, existent in some

particular geographic, political, cultural time and space” (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, pp.119-120). In this study, the commonalities indicated the influence of a departmental culture (the Applied Linguistics department where the EAP case units are located). The EAP team in the department was stable, conducting a number of meetings to share practice, expectations and experiences. The existence of a departmental culture might not be an issue to be observed in different settings.

8.3.6. Generalizability of the Findings

Richards (2011) stated that generalizability is not an achievable demand of case studies. Thus, Richards (2011, p.216) recommended that “rather than seeking to work within an inappropriate trajectory from ‘representative sample’ to ‘generalizable findings’, it is more productive to think in terms of using ‘strategic selection of a case to generate ‘illustrative outcomes’ that draw strength from the rich particularity of individual cases”. Therefore, in my study I provided a collection of case units that might offer “illustrative outcomes”. The impact of these findings can be evaluated by readers in terms of the methodological and analytical contributions, and the “resonance of the findings with other researchers or professionals” (Tang, 2012, p. 103). Similarly, using the criteria to evaluate a grounded theory work (see Section 8.3), the strength of the presented findings can be evaluated by readers.

Part III. Limitations and Further Research

8.4. Limitations of the study

Various limitations in terms of sampling issues, case study and grounded theory studies existed.

8.4.1. Limitations with Sampling

As stated earlier in Chapter 3, section 3.5., sampling forms were determined by the period and layer of the study. More specifically, in the initial stage of data collection

in both classroom observation and interview layers, while utilizing convenience sampling, I moved towards theoretical sampling (Glaser, 1978) forms in the focused data collection. However, as also stated earlier, a tension existed between convenience sampling and theoretical sampling (Glaser, 1978) along the whole period of the study. More specifically, limitations emerged in terms of practicalities in adopting the theoretical sampling (*ibid.*) form. This was because I had effectively no control over persuading those students and teachers with specific viewpoints on and experiences of feedback interactions on academic writing to participate in interviews. Likewise, I sometimes felt that even if the people had specific experiences and viewpoints, asking questions about the emerging themes and categories from the analysis could be imposing others' views upon these participants (e.g., asking a student whether their disciplinary writing conventions emerge as an issue in their feedback interactions with their EAP tutors).

Similarly, accessibility in terms of classroom observations was frequently an issue since I was allowed to observe some classes only in certain weeks by some of the teacher participants. I now go on to discuss the potential limitations of the grounded theory and case study inquiry traditions as utilized in my study.

8.4.2. Limitations with Case Study

My study has been conducted on only one institution as a single case study. Considering the heuristic nature of qualitative research, I would prefer to have conducted the study in multiple sites as a multiple case study would be able to better understand the realities across these sites. Unfortunately, due to access issues and constraints on time and funding, I was only able to conduct the research within the given research site. Likewise, due to conducting the research only at one site, this research does not make claims of wider relevance, but presents “illustrative findings”

(Richards, 2011, p.216). However, two further approaches might compensate for this limitation. Firstly, similar issues with the relationship patterns in feedback interactions emerged across EAP classes with different purposes, which were explained by the departmental culture. In that sense, conducting the research at different institutions might have revealed a detailed account of the relationship between departmental culture and the EAP classroom feedback interactions. Secondly, similar studies might also be conducted through replication, which could contribute to my study's claims and its contribution to theory.

8.4.3. Limitations with Grounded Theory

Although using GT as an inquiry tradition facilitated my research in many ways, GT still has various limitations, as does any other research methodology. Various scholars indicate that “predicting a phenomenon or building a theory heavily relies on researchers’ ability, thus resulting in subjectivity” (Gorra, 2007, p.96). In my study, I also acknowledge the possible subjectivity in the theory I developed. As I have detailed in Section 8.2., I followed the methodological guidance of Charmaz (2006), Glaser (1978) and Lincoln and Guba (1985) to strengthen the trustworthiness of my study. Still, I acknowledge that the theory is interpretive and is primarily valid for the research site in question. However, it can still add to the understanding of reality in other contexts.

8.4.4. Other Limitations

At the data analysis stage of interviews and classroom observation data, I encountered issues where further clarification through more observation or interviews would add to my understanding and analysis. I attempted to achieve this through follow-up interviews, but it was not always possible to reach participants for a second interview as I have already detailed in the Methodology chapter.

I believe that one major limitation of my study is the lack of academic tutors' perspectives, which could provide a more complete picture of issues surrounding EAP. Likewise, a second major limitation is that I was not always able to obtain the learners' writing samples they talked about with EAP tutors. I believe that an analysis of the learners' writing would provide me with the understanding of how the content of writing shaped the emerging relationship patterns in feedback interactions.

It could also be argued whether implementing stimulated recalls for EAP tutors and students to ask about their participation and decisions during certain feedback interactions would provide more detailed information. However, I believe that I compensated for this aspect through the amount of classroom observations I conducted.

During my research, I also experienced the withdrawal of Master's students, which meant that I was able to reach them for only a limited time.

8.5. Further Research

The findings, contributions and limitations of my research indicate several areas of further research directions, which could complement my research:

- As I have already stated above as one of the possible limitations, research in different contexts (e.g., different institutions in ESL settings, or institutions in EFL countries) might be undertaken. Such research could reveal further dimensions of the institutional self and relationship patterns in feedback interactions.
- As I have already detailed earlier as well, one limitation was the lack of academic tutors' perspectives and learners' writing samples. Future research on these issues might further broaden the dimensions of the theory I have developed in this study.

- In the Methodology chapter, I noted that I did not utilize audio-recordings as one of the major data collection tools. Future research might utilize audio-recordings (or video-recordings) in EAP classes to provide a more thorough picture. Similarly, EAP tutors might be asked to record their classroom feedback interactions with students as well.
- Also, as I detailed in Section 8.2.4., the findings of my research indicated further paths to explore. One possible substantial area to explore would be examining how and why disciplines shape learners' actions in relationship patterns residing in feedback interactions on academic writing. Secondly, further research might present examples of good practices EAP teachers, institutions or academic tutors utilize, thus facilitating the conduct of EAP classroom feedback interactions as well. Further research might also examine the specific relationship between certain relationship patterns/actions and the institutional self for teachers and students. Finally, future study might be conducted to better understand how relationship patterns and critical academic awareness of writing for learners are related to each other.

8.6. Summary

This chapter was constituted of three main parts. In Part I (Analytical Findings and Discussion), I first provided a brief summary of the findings. Then, using the dimensions of the theory as I have shown on the pictorial model earlier, I discussed the findings in light of the literature. In Part II, I discussed the methodological issues (e.g., evaluating the trustworthiness, researchers' agency and so on). In Part III, I discussed the limitations of the study while also suggesting possible paths for further investigation and future research. Finally, the summary of the chapter is presented.

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Appendix 1a- Classroom Observations in Initial Data Collection

	CLASSES			
	Generic Insessional EAP	Specialised Insessional EAP (Statistics)	Specialised Insessional EAP (B.Ed TESL)	Pre-requisite EAP
Teacher Names	Heled	Michael	Jade	Irvette
Dates of Observation	January 23, 2012- March 12, 2012	January 27, 2012- March 2, 2012	February 6, 2012- March 12, 2012	January 23, 2012 - March 5, 2012
Hours observed per observation	~1-2 hours	~1-2 hours	~1-2 hours	2 hours
Total Observation Hours	~15 hours	~11 hours	~ 6 hours	10 hours
Days of Observation	Mondays	Fridays	Mondays	Mondays
Number of Students	~11 students	~8 students	~10 students	10 students
Students' Nationalities	Taiwan, China, Indonesia, Burundi, Kazakhstan, Czech Republic, Singapore	China, Kazakhstan	Malaysia	Kazakhstan, Turkey, Mexico, Saudi Arabia

Appendix 1b- Classroom Observations in Focused Data Collection

Focused Data Collection-1

	CLASSES OBSERVED IN SUMMER TERM
	Pre-sessional EAP
Teacher Names	Tim
Dates of Observation	August 28, 2012 September 06, 2012
Hours observed per observation	~1 -2 hours
Total Observation Hours	~6 hours
Days of Observation	Tuesdays
Number of Students	~10 students
Students' Nationalities	Taiwan, South Korea, Syria-Germany, China, Japan

Focused Data Collection-2

	CLASSES OBSERVED IN AUTUMN TERM				
	Generic Insessional EAP (1)	Generic Insessional EAP (2)	Specialised Insessional EAP (Law-1)	Specialised Insessional EAP (Law-2)	Speacialised Insessional EAP (Law-3)
Teachers	Heled	Heled	Michael	Michael	Michael
Observation Dates	October 29 2012- December 3, 2012	October 30, 2012- November 20, 2012	October 08, 2012 December 2, 2012	October 09, 2012 December 3, 2012	October 11, 2012 December 5, 2012
Duration of each observation	~2 hours	~1 hours	1 hour	1 hour	1 hour
Total Observation Hours	12 hours	4 hours	9 hours	9 hours	9 hours
Observation Days	Mondays	Tuesdays	Mondays	Tuesdays	Thursdays
Number of Students	~10 students (regular attendees) (the number and which classes students joined were changing)		~10 students (regular attendees) (the number and which classes students joined were changing)		
Students' Nationalities	Taiwan, China, Indonesia Belarus, Kazakhstan, Singapore, Mexico		Poland, Luxemburg, France, Hungary, Belarus, Turkey		

Focused Data Collection-3

	CLASSES OBSERVED IN AUTUMN TERM	
	Specialised Insessional EAP (PhD-Science)	Pre-requisite EAP
Teacher Names	Steen	Irvette
Dates of Observation	October 17, 2012 November 28, 2012	October 15, 2012 December 3, 2012
Hours observed per observation	~1 hours 30 minutes	2 hours
Total Observation Hours	~5 hours	8 hours
Days of Observation	Wednesdays	Mondays
Number of Students	Changing	10 students
Students' Nationalities	England, USA, Bangladesh	Kazakhstan, Saudi Arabia, Japan, Iraq

Focused Data Collection-4

	CLASSES OBSERVED IN SPRING TERM		
	Generic Insessional EAP	Pre-requisite EAP	Specialised Insessional EAP (Law)
Teacher Names	Steen	Amy	Michael
Dates of Observation	February 1, 2013- February 22, 2013	January 23, 2013- February 13, 2013	January 16, 2013 February 6, 2013
Hours observed per observation	~2 hours	1 hour	~2 hour
Total Observation Hours	8 hours	4 hours	8 hours
Days of Observation	Fridays	Wednesdays	Wednesday
Number of Students	~5 students	10 students (these are the same students with the Prerequisite EAP class in the autumn term)	~10 students (regular attendees)
Students' Nationalities	Chile, China,	Kazakhstan, Saudi Arabia, Japan, Iraq	Poland, France, Hungary, Turkey, Hong Kong

Appendix 2a- Student Interviews In Initial Data Collection

Note: In initial data collection, all student participants were contacted through an e-mail once the transcriptions were completed. However, since I could not receive any answers from all of them, I show only those who replied to my e-mail on the above table in the follow-up columns.

CLASSES	STUDENTS					
	Name	Nationality	Duration of Interview	Date of Interview	How many interviews	Follow-up Interview
EAP Generic In- sessional	Lewis	Burundi	~45 minutes	February 21, 2012 Tuesday	1	-
	Miriam	Indonesia	~45 minutes	March 6, 2012 Tuesday	1	(By e-mail) April 12, 2012 Thursday
	Kseniya	Kazakhstan	~45 minutes	March 6, 2012 Tuesday	1	-
	Havel	Czech Republic	~45 minutes	March 16, 2012 Friday	1	(By e-mail) April 20, 2012 Friday
	Cheryl	China	~45 minutes	March 6, 2012 Tuesday	1	(By e-mail) April 12, 2012 Thursday

CLASSES	STUDENTS					
	Name	Nationality	Duration of Interview	Date of Interview	How many interviews	Follow-up Interview
Spec. EAP(Statistics)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Specialised EAP (B.Ed TESL)	Seila Huma	Malaysia	~45 minutes (students interviewed as a group)	March 15 2012, Thursday	1	-
Pre-requisite EAP	Adaim	Kazakhstan	~45 minutes	March 13, 2012 Tuesday	1	(By e-mail) April 13, 2012 Friday
	Zekiye C.	Turkey	~45 minutes	March 7, 2012 Wednesday	1	(By e-mail) April 18, 2012 Wednesday
	Ece	Turkey	~45 minutes	March 16 2012 Friday	1	(By e-mail) April 26, 2012 Thursday
	Kyoko	Mexico	~45 minutes	February 20, 2012 Monday	1	-
	Neda	Saudi Arabia	~25 minutes	March 12, 2012 Monday	1	-
	Himmet	Turkey	~45 minutes	March 8, 2012 Thursday	1	-
	Timur	Turkey	~45 minutes	March 8, 2012 Thursday	1	-

Appendix 2b- Teacher Interviews in Initial Data Collection

CLASSES	TEACHERS						Follow-up Interview Duration
	Name	Nationality	Duration of Interview	Date of Interview	How many interviews	Follow-up Interview	
EAP Generic Insessional	Heled	UK	~45 minutes	20 March 2012, Tuesday	1	-	
Specialised Insessional EAP (Statistics)	Michael	UK	~30 minutes	April 30 2012, Monday	1	1 (face-to-face) April 30, 2012 Monday	~15 mins.
Specialised Insessional EAP (B.Ed TESL)	Jade	UK	no interviews	-	-	-	
Pre-requisite EAP	Irvette	UK	~45 minutes	19 Mart 2012, Monday		1 (face-to-face) April 30, 2012 Monday	~15 mins.

Appendix 2c- Student Interviews in Focused Data Collection

Classes	Students				
	Name	Nationality	Duration of Interview	Date of Interview	Follow-up Interview
EAP Pre-sessionals	Tohigo	Japan	~45 minutes (students interviewed as a group)	September 13, 2012 Thursday	-
	Salman	Syria-Germany			
	Shu-Hao	China			
	Huihui	China			
	Zhe	China			
EAP Generic Insessionals	Song	China	~45 minutes	November 29, 2012 Thursday	-
	Angie	Chile	~45 minutes	February 28, 2013 Thursday	-
Specialised EAP (Law)	Hannah	France	~45 minutes	November 6, 2012 Tuesday	-
	Charlo	France	~45 minutes	November 7, 2012 Wednesday	-
	Danuta	Poland	~45 minutes	5 December, 2012 Wednesday	e-mail March 26, 2013 Tuesday
	Kerim	France	~45 minutes	November 9, 2012 Friday	-
	Cengiz	Turkey	~45 minutes	February 19, 2013 Tuesday	e-mail March 12, 2013 Tuesday
	Thomas	Hungary	~45 minutes	November 1, 2012 Thursday	-
	Khan	Luxemburg	~45 minutes	October 25, 2012 Thursday	-
	Tiantian	Hong Kong	~45 minutes	February 27, 2013 Wednesday	-
	Chloé	France	~45 minutes	November 16, 2012 Friday	-
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Each student was interviewed once. 					

Classes	Students				
	Name	Nationality	Duration of Interview	Date of Interview	Follow-up Interview
Specialised Insessional EAP (Phd Science)	Elizabeth	UK	~45 minutes	November 29, 2012 Thursday	e-mail March 26, 2013 Tuesday
	Laura	UK	~45 minutes	November 30, 2012 Friday	e-mail March 26, 2013 Tuesday
	Kelly	UK	~45 minutes	November 30, 2012 Friday	e-mail March 26, 2013 Tuesday
	Rachel	UK	~45 minutes	November 28, 2012 Wednesday	e-mail March 26, 2013 Tuesday
	Surinder	Bangladesh	~45 minutes	November 29, 2012 Thursday	e-mail March 26, 2013 Tuesday
Prerequisite EAP	Azamat	Kazakhstan	~45 minutes	February 18, 2013 Monday	-
	Yerbol	Kazakhstan	~45 minutes	February 21, 2013 Thursday	-
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Each student was interviewed once. 					

Note: **In Focused Data Collection**, all student participants were contacted through an e-mail once the transcriptions were completed. However, since I could not receive any answers from all of them, I show only those who replied to my e-mail on the above table in the follow-up columns.

Appendix 2d- Teacher Interviews in Focused Data Collection

CLASSES	TEACHERS						
	Name	Nationality	Duration of Interview	Date of Interview	How many interviews	Follow-up Interview	Follow-up Interview Duration
EAP Generic Insessional	Heled	UK	-	-	-	-	
EAP Generic Insessional	Steen	UK	~45 minutes	February 25, 2013 Monday	1	-	
Specialised Insessional EAP (Law)	Michael	UK	~45 minutes	November 30, 2012 Friday	1	1 (face-to-face) April 30, 2012 Monday	~15 mins.
Specialised Insessional EAP (PhD Science)	Steen	-	-	-	-		
Pre-sessional EAP	Tim	UK	~45 minutes	September 13, 2012 Thursday			
Pre-requisite EAP	Irvette	UK	~45 minutes	December 14, 2012 Friday		1 (face-to-face) April 30, 2012 Monday	~15 mins.
Pre-requisite EAP	Amy	UK	-	-	-	-	-

Appendix 3a- Guiding Teacher Questions for Interviews in Initial Data Collection

Openings:

Thank

Self Introduction (name, where did you graduate/ study, how long have you been teaching academic writing etc)

Beliefs:

What are the criteria for a well-written academic essay for you?

Contextual Factors Affecting Teacher Feedback

To what extent can you provide students with feedback on their writing?

Perceptions:

What do you think students expect as feedback on their writing? And why do you think this happens?

How do you know students make changes or improve their writing? What is the proof for you that they are making effective use of your comments?

What are the most persistent problems that you observe in students' writings? And how do you comment on this problem or problems?

Purposes of Feedback:

What is feedback for you? What does it serve for in academic contexts?

What are the primary reasons for you to give feedback on students' writing?

How do you expect students to utilize your comments on their writing? What is a good utilization of feedback?

What kinds of issues do arise with regard to students' using your responses on their writings?

How do students cope with the different expectations in different fields? Do they challenge your feedback?

Appendix 3b- Guiding Student Questions for Interviews in Focused Data Collection

Opening/Thanks/ Getting Information about the backgrounds of students (departments, previous studies)

Opinions on Feedback Negotiation (Central Phenomenon)

- a) Do you bring your writing from your department to EAP class? Why do you bring your writing to EAP class?
- b) Can you just explain what kinds of talks you have with EAP tutor when he is giving feedback on your writing? Any examples?
- c) Do you have trouble during feedback talk with your teacher in the class? Any difficulties? Any examples?
- d) What issues your questions generally focus on while talking to your EAP tutor? Why? Any examples? (trying to clarify his meaning, trying to understand better, trying to learn something you don't know how to do etc etc)
- e) What does your EAP tutor do/say/explain while talking to you about your writing?

Influencing Factors:

- a) What kinds of issues can you list that may affect your effective communication with EAP tutor during feedbacking?
- b) What is the most important factor that affect the feedback discussions with your teacher? Why?

Consequences:

- a) How do those discussions affect your future writing? What functions feedback talks have for you?

Appendix 4- Participant Information Sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET	
	
Title of Project:	Teacher-student relationship patterns in classroom feedback interactions around EAP writing
Investigator:	Züleyha ÜNLÜ, Centre for Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick.
	Email: Z.Unlu@warwick.ac.uk
Participant selection and purpose of study:	
You are invited to participate in a study of feedback on international students' writing in EAP Classrooms. The purpose of the study is to investigate the teacher feedback on international students' writing studying in different disciplines and attending EAP classes in the UK. The findings of the study will contribute to the understanding and development of EAP writing provision for international students.	
What your participation will involve:	
If you are willing to participate, the researcher will ask you to	
1. participate in an interview about face-to-face teacher feedback you receive in the class on your writing	
Confidentiality and disclosure of information:	
All data obtained as above will be confidential to the researcher and will be used solely for research purposes. In any research report, publication or feedback to academic departments and the University, information will be provided in such a way that no participating student can be identified by name or university ID.	
Feedback to participants:	
At the completion of the study, all participants will be most welcome to consult the research findings.	
Your consent:	
Your decision on whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with The University of Warwick. <i>If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.</i> If you have any additional questions concerning the project, the investigator, Züleyha ÜNLÜ, will be happy to discuss these with you. Her email address is: Z.Unlu@warwick.ac.uk	

Appendix 5- Participant Consent Form

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM	
	
Title of Project:	A Case Analysis of Teacher Feedback on Learners' Writing in EAP Classrooms: Relationship patterns in the spoken feedback discussions between students and teachers
Investigator:	Züleyha ÜNLÜ, Centre for Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick
<p>I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet dated 28.02.2013 for the above project, which I may keep for my records, and that I have had the opportunity to ask any questions I wish.</p> <p>I agree to take part in the study and am willing to</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">allow the researcher to use the data for research purposes (e.g., Phd thesis, academic presentations, academic publications) <p>I understand that my information will be held and processed for research purposes. I understand that I will not be personally identifiable from any research report. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, and without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.</p>	
Name of Research Participant (please PRINT)	Signature of research participant
.....	 Zuleyha UNLU
28.02.2013 Date ÜNLÜ	
*You will be given a copy of this form to keep	