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The Nature of Indonesian English as A Foreign Language (EFL)
Teachers' Feedback in L2 Writing: An Activity Theory
Perspective

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Doctor of Philosophy

Submitted in total fulfilment for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Arts)

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October 2019

ABSTRACT

The overall aim of the thesis was to investigate the nature of Indonesian English as A Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' feedback on L2 writing, particularly their feedback practices, decision-making processes while providing feedback, and factors which influenced their feedback practices using Activity Theory (Engeström, 1987, 2001, 2016; Leont'ev, 1978, 1981) as the theoretical framework.

Nine EFL university teachers and 24 students were recruited to participate in a case study approach using multiple data collection methods. First, the teachers were interviewed individually twice (i) at the beginning of semester to collect information about their beliefs towards written feedback and (ii) at the end of the semester to obtain information their development in feedback provision over the semester, in particular their feedback practices, decision-making processes, and factors which influence their feedback practices. Then, using think-aloud protocols, six teachers were requested to provide written feedback on four students' consecutive drafts of essay. It was followed by recording teacher-student writing conferences conducted by each teacher with these four students to collect information about the teachers' oral feedback. Observations were conducted twice during the semester. Finally, the teaching documents (syllabus, assessment rubric, modules, and students' essay drafts) were collected. The data were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively and were discussed using Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) and Leont'ev's (1978, 1981) generations of Activity Theory.

The main findings suggested that the teachers provided multiple sessions of written feedback followed by oral feedback using teacher-student writing conferences. Both written and oral feedback methods complemented each other, but both served different functions.

The teachers' focus and priority of written and oral feedback were similar: language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation. The teachers mostly provided indirect feedback in the written feedback sessions, and they mostly used graduated oral prompts to scaffold the students' learning in the writing conferences. The teachers seemed to follow an ordered but not always linear pattern of the decision-making processes while providing feedback, consisting of (a) task definition, (b) text reviewing (and problem identification), and (c) feedback decision (or feedback provision and follow-up).

Moreover, the teachers exhibited various decision-making actions in both feedback sessions which focused on metacognitive (i.e. focusing on self-monitoring own feedback) and cognitive (i.e. focusing on language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation) aspects of writing. Metacognitive actions appeared to be mostly exhibited in the task definition stage, while cognitive actions were mainly exhibited in the text reviewing (and problem identification) and feedback decision (feedback provision and follow-up) stages. When making decisions regarding feedback, the teachers considered their students' L2 writing profiles, as well as students' responses to the teachers' feedback in the previous draft (in the written feedback sessions) and the students' responses to the teachers' graduated oral prompts (in the writing conferences sessions). Finally, the teachers' feedback practices appeared to be shaped and mediated by a myriad of interrelated individual and contextual factors.

Keywords: Indonesian EFL teachers' feedback, written and oral feedback, second language writing, Activity Theory, English as A Foreign Language

DECLARATION

This is to certify that:

- i. the thesis comprises only my original work towards the Doctor of Philosophy degree,
- ii. due acknowledgement has been made in the text to all other material used,
- iii. Full ethics procedures and guidelines have been followed, and
- iv. the thesis is fewer than 100,000 words in length, exclusive of tables, language examples, list of references, and appendices.

Signed,

[Nanang Zubaidi]

Nanang Zubaidi,

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Alhamdulillah rabbil alamin. The process of writing this dissertation has been a wonderful academic journey for me, and I have been very grateful to share the time with many fabulous, good people. Firstly, my special thanks go to the teachers and students of International Program, Universitas Islam Indonesia, who welcomed me into their lives and educational activities. My special thanks go to bapak Wiryono Rahardjo, bapak Asmai Ishak, mbak Cithra, mas Herman, Tia, Ayu, Erna, Fajar, Gie, Mary, Nida, Sha, Amy, for helping with data collection and spending their time with me, as well as all other staff of International Program UII. I also thank the Indonesian Government for fully funding this study for four years through Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (Lembaga Pengelola Dana Pendidikan) scholarship under the Ministry of Finance. The scholarship has opened an excellent opportunity for me to pursue my PhD study. For that I am forever grateful.

This study would not have been possible without the support and encouragement of people at The School of Languages and Linguistics, The University of Melbourne. My special thanks go to Assoc. Prof. Neomy Storch (my main supervisor), Assoc. Prof. Ute Knoch (my co-supervisor), and Dr. Janne Morton (my Advisory Committee chairperson). Neomy is the first to spark my interest in feedback in L2 writing, set the idea for this research in my head, passionately provide constructive feedbacks, and encouraged me at every point of my study. My second supervisor imparts the same enthusiasm with her studies in feedback, provides critical feedback and alternative views, and gives generous supports. With hindsight, I can now fully appreciate Neomy's and Ute's constructive, critical, and analytical feedback in every stage of my study to ensure that my dissertation can reach the high standard they set for me. I thank them both for always believing that I can finish my PhD. Dr. Janne Morton is very supportive in every way needed and facilitates the discussion between the supervisors and me. Thanks also to Prof. Veronique Duche, Prof. Tim McNamara, Assoc. Prof. Paul Gruba, Assoc. Prof. Catherine Elder, Assoc. Prof. Brett Baker, and other faculty and staff. I remembered that Prof. Duche attended my confirmation talk and involved in the examination process. I took Prof. McNamara's class as first year PhD student and was invited to his house for a welcoming dinner. I also thank both my external examiners who have provided constructive criticisms. I have been very fortunate to make my PhD journey with those distinguished academics who are so highly regarded in their specific areas of teaching and research. My gratitude also goes to Faculty of Arts and SOLL for funding parts of field trips

and conferences through their GRATS and other grants, the crew in room 308 Babel Building and LAL Postgrad Club, particularly Ali, Hannah, Giang, Maria, Masha, Ross, John, Ruth, Leonard, James, Frankie, Philip, Samira, Eleanor, Josh, Vanya, and others for continuous supports, cheerful humours, and enlightening academic discussions. Thanks also to everyone else in The Melbourne School of Graduate Research team, Shut Up and Write, Thesis Boot Camp, Research Bazaar, Library academic skills, NVivo, Pomodoro, and others. Thank you very much everyone for being very supportive and kind when I was struggling to finish my dissertation.

Outside the campus, I would like to thank all friends in Pengurus Cabang Istimewa Nahdlatul Ulama Australia and New Zealand (PCI NU ANZ), Pengajian Doa dan Dzikir Melbourne, NU Victoria, Pengajian Footscray, IMCV and Melbourne Islamic centres, members of LPDP community, KJRI Melbourne, FKMI, and UII alumni. Thanks especially to Gus Nadirsyah Hosen, ning Inayah Hosen, Nazil, Rosyid, Aziz, Hakim, Halim, Mas Nur, Ust. Agus, Kang Iip, Kang Ade Ishs, and their families, as well as Indonesian communities in Victoria. I wish everyone all the best.

Thanks to my loving family, especially my parents (bapak Khomsun and ibu Luluk), parents-in-law (bapak Ali and ibu Indasah), brother and sisters (Nia, Surur, and Iza), and in-laws (Wakhid, Uswatun, Majid, Asiyah), as well as all friends for their love, supports, encouragements, and eagerness to substitute my responsibilities and help my family. Finally, I thank my long-suffering wife, Durotun Nasihah, and two wonderful kids (Nisa and Ofa) who have endured and have been waiting for the day that I finally free myself from my lovely laptop and resume my roles and responsibilities in family life. Duroh has singlehandedly taken roles as father and mother for Nisa in her first three years of life. Ofa came along to brighten our lives. Without my family's comfort, support, and encouragement, my solitary tasks of research and writing are impossible to finish. To all these important people in my life, I would like to dedicate this dissertation.

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CHAPTER ONE: Introduction

The current study, focusing on the teachers' feedback provision on second language writing, was stimulated by my experience in providing feedback as a university English as a foreign language (EFL) writing teacher in Indonesia. The university where I have worked for three years offered an International Program (in the Faculty of International Program) where English was used as the medium of instruction. I taught an EFL course in which the assessment included an essay writing task. The students were instructed to write a 1000-word essay using the process-based approach to writing. All teachers provided written and oral feedback on the students' consecutive drafts of the essay, but in my observation, the teachers' feedback practices varied. Some teachers seemed to focus on content, while some others focused on grammar. The teachers also seemed to use different feedback approaches. Some teachers provided their students with many questions, some gave more explanation, and some others only provided oral feedback when the students asked.

Some literature in second language acquisition (SLA) and second language writing that I read considered feedback on students' writing as an essential input to help students learn the second language (L2) writing (e. g., Bitchener&Ferris, 2012; Bitchener&Storch, 2016; Ellis, 2009; Ferris, 2003; Hyland&Hyland, 2006, 2019). Most SLA scholars agreed on the benefits of feedback provision on students' second language acquisition. The interactionists (e. g., Krashen, 1985) regard negative evidence (corrective feedback) as beneficial to help language acquisition. Feedback allowed students to notice their writing problems and to create form-meaning connections (Ellis, 2009). Similarly, L2 writing practitioners regarded feedback as an important part to develop second language writing

skills, both for its potential for learning and student motivation (Hyland&Hyland, 2006, p. 83).

I have also become aware that teachers' feedback has become an increasingly important topic of discussion in L2 writing studies because many L2 practitioners it was believed to improve students' L2 writing and is fundamental in teacher-student relation. The centrality of teacher feedback on L2 writing has been supported by the process-oriented approach to teaching which encourages students to write multiple drafts and teachers to provide feedback on these drafts (Ferris, 2003) and the genre-oriented approach to teaching which emphasises scaffolded instruction and learning as a social practice (Hyland&Hyland, 2006) . For example, in the process-based approach to teaching writing, L2 teachers used peer and teacher feedback as important tools to guide students through the different stages of their writing processes (Hyland&Hyland, 2006; Keh, 1990).Moreover, some L2 writing scholars stated that L2 teachers employed feedback in their writing class because they believed in its benefits in developing students' writing skills and students appreciate receiving teacher feedback (Cohen&Cavalcanti, 1990; Goldstein, 2004; Hamouda, 2011; F. Hyland, 2003; Lee, 2008; Radecki&Swales, 1988).

However, providing feedback is a challenging task for teachers because it is a tiring, frustrating, and time-consuming responsibility (Ferris, 2007; Jiang&Zeng, 2011), especially for teachers who are lacking in education/training in feedback provision (Tsui, 1996), lacking relevant knowledge about feedback, or teaching huge classrooms (e. g., Guénette&Lyster, 2013).Besides, teachers' feedback practices vary among teachers due to differences in instructional contexts where the feedback activity takes place (Hyland&Hyland, 2006) and the teachers' cognition (e.g., Borg, 2003, 2006).

Over the past three decades, many studies have been conducted to explore teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing. Most studies have focused on how teachers respond to students' linguistic errors in writing, termed written corrective feedback (WCF), and the comparison between various types of corrective feedback. For example, researchers have investigated the short-term and long-term effects of L2 teachers' WCF on students' language accuracy (e.g., Chandler, 2003; Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998), the efficacy of various feedback strategies on immediate student revision (e.g., Ashwell, 2000), and teachers' and students' views of teacher feedback (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hamouda, 2011; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Mori, 2011). Some previous studies have also explored L2 teachers' perspectives, philosophies, and practices in providing feedback (e.g., Ferris, 2014; Ferris et al., 2011; Lee, 2003b). For instance, Ferris et al. (2011) interviewed (N=23) and surveyed ESL college writing teachers (N=129) and found that the teachers' attitudes toward feedback on L2 writing varied. The teachers were aware that they had to adjust their feedback approach for their L2 writing students, but their adjustment varied. In the subsequent study involving these subject students, Ferris (2014) has also found that the teachers' written feedback practices varied and she discovered that some of L2 teachers' reported beliefs mismatched the teachers' actual feedback on L2 writing.

There have been at least three criticisms that could be made of these previous findings. The first criticism of much of the literature on teacher feedback on L2 writing was that relatively few studies had investigated L2 teachers' feedback practices in their naturalistic, academic settings, their process of providing feedback and making decisions, as well as factors influencing their feedback practices (e.g., Borg, 2003; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Such research is important to gain a better understanding of these practices and make appropriate recommendations. Some previous studies conducted in naturalistic settings have indicated that most L2 writing teachers provided written corrective feedback (WCF) as a part

of their teaching activities (e. g., Evans, Hartshorn,&Tuioti, 2010) and that their written corrective feedback practices were influenced by various internal and external factors, such as teachers' beliefs (e. g., Evans et al., 2010; Junqueira&Payant, 2015; Lee, 2003b), cognition (e. g., Borg, 2006), knowledge and experience (Junqueira&Kim, 2013), as well as institutional policies (e. g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014) . Secondly, many earlier studies, particularly studies on L2 teachers' written corrective feedback (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Fathman&Whalley, 1990; Ferris&Roberts, 2001), have only investigated feedback in a short duration. Short duration studies on L2 teachers' WCF made it difficult to observe the lasting effects of teachers' corrective feedback (e. g., Guénette, 2007; Storch, 2010). Also, short-duration studies hindered ones to trace the development of the teachers' feedback practices over time. Thirdly, many studies have not been informed by teaching and learning theories. There has been a need for more theoretical consideration on L2 teachers' feedback provision and decision-making while providing feedback on L2 writing, as well as factors which shape their feedback provision (e.g., Bitchener&Ferris, 2012; Bitchener&Storch, 2016). Such studies may contribute to the discussion about the role of feedback in SLA. Among the theoretically-motivated studies on teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing, most have employed cognitive perspectives (e. g., Bitchener&Knoch, 2008, 2009a, 2009b; DeKeyser, 1998; Lyster, 2004), and some others used Activity Theory of sociocultural theory, (e. g., Lee, 2014; Ng, 2015). I will describe both theoretical perspectives in the next chapter (Literature Review).

1.1 The current study

This body of empirical studies and my experience in providing feedback has stimulated my interest in examining more closely feedback practices in my teaching context, which was a university where I have taught EFL subjects for three years. Overall, English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher' feedback practices in Indonesia has been a relatively

under-researched language teaching context. More specifically, the current study aimed to understand these EFL teachers' feedback practices providing feedback, their decision-making processes in providing feedback, and factors, both individual and contextual, affecting their feedback practices using Activity Theory as the theoretical framework. I carried out a qualitative case study in the actual educational setting using several data collection procedures: audio-recording teachers performing think-aloud protocols (TAP) while giving written feedback on students' L2 writing, audio-recording teacher-student's one-on-one writing conferences, interviewing teachers, collecting teaching documents, and conducting classroom observations.

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the nature of the Indonesian EFL teachers' feedback on their students' L2 writing?
2. How do the Indonesian EFL teachers make decisions while providing feedback on L2 writing?
3. What factors influence the teachers' feedback practices?

The first research question aimed to explore Indonesian EFL teachers' feedback practices. More specifically, the teachers' feedback practices in this study referred to EFL teachers' actual feedback provision on L2 writing (the teachers' scope, priority, type, and approach to feedback provision). The second question aimed to study ways in which the teachers made decisions while providing feedback, as well as the sequence/procedure and actions (behaviours) which they displayed in the decision-making processes. According to Borg (1998), formal teaching activity was essentially a decision-making process. Teachers made a range of decisions before, during, and after the lesson regarding the teaching content and process. Similarly, the teachers' feedback provision required teachers to make decisions

while providing feedback. The last question aimed to investigate individual and contextual factors which determined the teachers' feedback practices.

1.2 Working definitions of terms used in this study

EFL1 Teachers: The EFL teachers in this study were full-time lecturers who taught EFL1 course offered to the first-year undergraduate students at the Faculty of International Program, at an Indonesian private university where the study was conducted. The teachers' had various duties, including teaching the EFL1 course, providing learning support to the students, evaluating the students' written work, and providing feedback on the students' work. The teachers reported that they had not received formal professional training/education in providing feedback on students' written work.

Teachers' feedback practices: the actions which the teachers carried out during the activity of providing written feedback (using teacher's written feedback) and oral feedback (using writing conferences) on students' essay drafts, in order to organise what they know and to map out what is possible (see e. g., Freeman, 1991; Hyland&Hyland, 2006, 2019). The feedback provision activity in this study was essentially a process of making decisions which occurred in a dynamic interaction between a teacher (expert) and a student (novice). Both the teacher and the student were the key participants in the process because the teacher's feedback decisions and actions were partly or largely shaped by his/her effort to accommodate the student's needs and expectations. Adopting sociocultural theory terminology, the transactional space and dynamic interaction between teacher and student can be characterised as a ZPD, as seen for example from the mutual benefits of scaffolded interaction and responsibilities.

Teacher's written feedback: An activity in which a teacher provides a written commentary which addressed all aspects of students' written texts (such as linguistic accuracy,

content, and organisation) (Goldstein, 2004) or error correction (written corrective feedback/error treatment/grammar correction) which focused on the text's linguistic accuracy (i.e. errors in grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics) (see e.g., Bitchener&Knoch, 2010a, 2010b; Ellis, 1994; Ferris, 2010; Truscott, 1996; Truscott&Hsu, 2008). In this study, the teachers' written feedback addressed all aspects of students' written texts.

Teacher-student writing conferences: A face-to-face teacher-student meeting conducted after the teachers provided written feedback. During the conference, the teacher and the student discussed the student's writing (e.g., writing process and product), teachers' feedback, and ways to improve students' L2 writing (e.g., Chen, 2005; Ewert, 2009; Glasswell, Parr,&McNaughton, 2003; Goldstein&Conrad, 1990; Haneda, 2004; Weigle&Nelson, 2004).

Teacher's belief: Belief in this study is synonymous with cognition. Teacher's belief is a mental system which includes teachers' existing knowledge and thoughts, ongoing thinking and decision-making processes, ideas and theories, assumptions, values, feelings, and attitudes that the teachers may consciously hold about themselves, teaching and learning, second language, and their students during the activity of providing feedback on students' essay drafts (see Richards&Schmidt, 2002). Teacher's belief can be assessed; it is often expressed using the statement such as 'what the teachers think', 'what they should do', and 'what is better to do' in providing feedback on students' L2 writing (e.g., Pajares, 1992; Borg, 1999, 2006; Basturkmen, Loewen&Ellis, 2004; Evans et al., 2010).

Activity Theory (AT): An interdisciplinary and philosophical approach initiated by Vygotsky, Leont'ev (1974, 1978, 1981), and Engeström (1987, 2001, 2016) to learn different

forms of human's practices as development processes with emphasis on the individual, social, and cultural factors (see e.g., Bardram, 1997; Engeström, Miettinen, 1999; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999; Kuutti, 1996; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Lee, 2014; Roth & Tobin, 2004; Smolcic, 2011).

Students' written work: In the scope of this study, students' written work refers to essay drafts that the EFL1 course students are required to write following a process-based approach to writing.

Writing problems: Writing problems refer to written problems produced by the students, including errors in language use, mechanics, and referencing style, as well as content and organisation issues.

1.3 The significance of the study

This study was significant in several ways. One important aspect of this study was that it employed Activity Theory as a theoretical framework to investigate teachers' feedback practices on students' L2 writing. Most previous studies on L2 teachers' feedback practices on students' L2 writing have been (a) empirical studies which have not been informed by any theoretical framework (e.g., Truscott, 1996, 2007; Truscott & Hsu, 2008) and (b) cognitively-informed studies (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a, 2008b, 2009a, 2009b, 2010; Ellis, 2010; Ferris, 2003). Previous cognitively-informed studies on written corrective feedback have tended to examine students' language development based on students' improved accuracy on revision or new writing as well as students' use of certain targeted linguistic forms, while studies informed by sociocultural theory also considered changes in the assistance required by students (Storch, 2018). As is evident in the field, a growing number of studies have begun to adopt Activity Theory, a branch of Vygotskian sociocultural theory, as a theoretical framework to investigate teacher feedback practices

(e. g. Elola&Oskoz, 2016; Fujioka, 2014; Haneda, 2000; Lee, 2014; Ng, 2015; Oskoz&Elola, 2012; Valentín-Rivera, 2016; Yu, 2013; Zeleznik, 2003). This study added to this body of research by extending the use of Activity Theory to teachers' feedback practices in a new context. Activity Theory was used to investigate the EFL teachers' feedback provision as it occurred in an activity system and was shaped by various factors. As such, Activity Theory provided an important perspective, unlike many earlier cognitive-informed feedback studies which provided too narrow an understanding of the writing context (e. g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a, 2008b, 2009a, 2009b, 2010a, 2010b; Ferris, 2003) and the role of scaffolding and mediation, and have been eclipsed by studies which address the social, cultural, historical, and political contexts of writing (e. g., Lee, 2014; Oskoz&Elola, 2012; Prior, 2006; Valentín-Rivera, 2016). Writing involves an interconnected interaction between the dynamic human mind and the dynamic writing context, which significantly influences the production of text (e.g., Matsuda, 1997). The sociocultural approach goes beyond mind-body distinction and seeks to explain human activities more comprehensively by considering how mental processes work when situated in social, cultural, historical, and political contexts (Lei, 2008). Sociocultural theorists believe that Activity Theory and sociocultural theory frameworks can provide new insights into teachers' practices of providing feedback on L2 writing (e.g. Lee, 2014; Storch, 2018). Thus, as a number of scholars have argued that more socioculturally-informed studies are needed to understand L2 teachers' written feedback process, decision-making, and factors influencing their feedback (e.g. Storch, 2018; Tsui & Ng, 2010).

This study investigated EFL teachers in an authentic teaching context of private Indonesian university, providing insights into how Indonesian EFL teachers assisted L2 students in learning English as an additional language (L2 writing). In addition, this study was longitudinal, and could, therefore, consider the long-term dynamics of teachers' feedback

practices. Many previous studies, particularly experimental studies on the efficacy of various types of teacher feedback (e.g., Truscott, 1996) have tended to be conducted in a short term or provided a one-off treatment, so readers have limited understanding on important factors influencing teachers' feedback and students' revision and uptake, or whether students benefitted from feedback provided or required treatments. Lastly, this study might have also served to raise the participating teachers' awareness of their own feedback practices and thus their ability to critically reflect on their practices. Besides, this study might contribute to the educational institutions in Indonesia both in theory and in practice by providing invaluable empirical insights into the process of teaching and facilitating students' learning.

1.4 The outline of the thesis

This thesis is organised into seven chapters. The first chapter introduces the background of this study. It also includes definitions of terms and highlights the guiding research questions and the significance of this study. Chapter Two reviews the theoretical perspectives informing this study and empirical studies related to the focus of the study. It includes the discussion of the major teaching approaches in L2 writing and L2 teachers' feedback practices. Next, Chapter Three describes the methodology of the qualitative case study, providing details about the context, participants, instruments, and procedures of data collection and data analysis. This chapter also describes ways to ensure the validity and reliability of the case study. Chapters Four to Six present the main findings of three guiding research questions, including (a) the teachers' feedback in the written and oral feedback sessions, as well as comparing the teachers' feedback practices in both sessions, (b) the teachers' decision-making processes while providing written feedback and oral feedback (writing conferences) in L2 writing, and (c) the individual and contextual factors which shape the teacher feedback on L2 writing. Chapter Seven summarises, discusses, synthesises, and

explains the key findings using the Activity Theory perspectives. It also presents the implications and limitations of the research, as well as recommendations for further studies.

CHAPTER TWO: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

As the aim of this study was to explore second language (L2) teachers' feedback practices, the current chapter begins with reviewing the literature on teacher feedback on L2 writing, including the definition of teacher feedback, techniques to provide teacher feedback, focusing in particular on teacher's written feedback and teacher-student writing conferences, the main forms of feedback provision in the current study. This chapter then describes the roles of teacher feedback in three main approaches to teaching writing. Next, the chapter presents a review of empirical studies on teacher's written feedback on L2 writing, teacher-student writing conferences, and factors influencing the teachers' written feedback practices. In addition to the review of empirical studies, this chapter also discusses theoretical perspectives on teacher feedback on L2 writing. Lastly, this chapter describes the gaps in the empirical and theoretical literature and outlines the rationale for the current study.

2.2 Teacher feedback on L2 writing

In the following sections, I discuss the definition of feedback in teaching writing and types of feedback strategies which were used by the teachers in my context of the study. In addition, I also describe the roles of feedback in three main approaches to teaching writing (i.e. product-based, process-based, and genre-oriented approaches to teaching writing).

2.2.1 Definition of feedback in teaching writing

In teaching writing, feedback refers to comments, clues, questions, information, error correction that the teacher, the listener, or the reader gives to the student's spoken or written production (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982) with the aims to provide information for revision and to improve the student's writing (Keh, 1990), as well as to consolidate their

learning (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). It includes any procedure to inform a student regarding the correctness of his/her instructional response (Lalande, 1982, p. 141) and the student's accomplishment in learning a task (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 199). Wajnryb (1992) specifies feedback as a teacher's responses to a student's production in the classroom. Nunan (1991) distinguishes a teacher's responses into positive feedback and negative feedback. Negative feedback contains information about a student's error (Ayoum, 2001) and can be divided into corrective feedback (also called error correction, error treatment, or grammar correction) which focuses on the text's linguistic accuracy (i.e. grammar, vocabulary, and mechanic) (Ellis, 1994; Ferris, 2010; Schachter, 1991; Truscott, 1996) and written commentary which addresses all aspects of students' written texts (i.e. linguistic accuracy, content and organisation) (Goldstein, 2004).

Feedback provision activity involves mutual decision-making processes occurring in a dynamic interaction between a teacher (expert) and a student (novice). The teacher is not the sole participant in the decision-making processes because his/her feedback decisions and actions are partly or largely guided by his/her effort to accommodate the student's needs and expectations. The dynamic interaction between the teacher and the student can be seen for example from the mutual benefits of scaffolded interaction and ZPD, as discussed more in section 2.7.4.

Feedback raises students' awareness of their strength and weakness in doing a certain task and supplies information which narrows the gap between what students have learned and intend to learn by "restructuring understanding, confirming to students that they are correct or incorrect, indicating that more information was available or needed, pointing to directions students can pursue, and/or indicating alternative strategies to understand particular information" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 82).

Some L2 scholars suggested that feedback was essential for students' language learning (e.g., Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Ferris, 2002; Hyland & Hyland, 2006, 2019; Mack, 2009). Firstly, feedback might stimulate students to notice problems in their texts, reinforce what they had learned, learn new knowledge, and improve linguistic accuracy, content, and organisation of their texts (see Hyland & Hyland, 2006, 2019). It also encouraged students to self-check and notice incorrect forms in their writing output and revise their output accordingly. Studies on L1 composition (e.g., Davis & Fulton, 1997; Sommers, 1982) and L2 composition (e.g.; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, 1994; Ferris, 2003; Zamel, 1985) suggested that feedback might provide explicit correct forms or implicit clues and strategies to correct students' erroneous forms. In addition, L2 teachers also felt that they should give students feedback although they might feel overwhelmed and confused by students' diverse educational expectations and writing ability (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Shepherd, O'Meara, & Snyder, 2016), and students might feel overwhelmed and frustrated by their teachers' styles and priority of feedback provision (Ferris, 2003). In short, feedback was believed by many writing scholars to develop students' linguistic and writing competence and improve their language performance.

2.2.2 Techniques of teachers' feedback practices in L2 writing

Three main techniques to provide teacher's feedback on students' L2 writing include (a) traditional written feedback, (b) one-on-one writing conference, and (c) electronic feedback. The traditional written feedback and the one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences have the most significant meaning to this study as the teachers in my context of the study used both feedback techniques.

Teacher's written feedback had been the most widely used form of feedback on students' writing (Beach & Friedrich, 2006). It could take different forms, ranging from implicit clues, comments, questions, praise, metalinguistic explanation, to direct/explicit

corrections on forms and content of the text (e.g., Mack, 2009). L2 scholars had identified at least three main types of written corrective feedback: (a) direct written corrective feedback, (b) indirect direct written corrective feedback, and (c) metalinguistic corrective feedback (e.g., Bitchener & Storch, 2016; Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ellis, 2009). Direct written CF refers to providing an explicit correction on a linguistic error by for example crossing out of an unnecessary word, phrase or morpheme, adding missing words, phrases or morphemes, as well as suggesting the correct forms or structures. On the other hand, indirect written CF refers to indicating the occurrence of an error without providing direct correction, for example by underlining, highlighting, or circling a linguistic error, using codes and colour, recording the number of errors per line in the margin, etc. Metalinguistic CF refers to providing clues (using codes) or explanation of the cause of the error and an example of correct usage. Written feedback can be provided traditionally using pen-and-paper or electronically via the computer using word processor software in an asynchronous mode. Electronic feedback is closely related to written feedback. Electronic feedback refers to two definitions: (a) computer-mediated human feedback, where teachers or peer students provided feedback via the internet in asynchronous mode (direct interaction) using a chat software or in an asynchronous mode (indirect interaction) using e-mail or other asynchronous communication platforms or (b) automated feedback generated by a computer software (e.g., Ware & Warschauer, 2006).

A teacher-student writing conferences refers to a meeting between a teacher and a student to discuss the student's intention, purpose and meaning in writing (White & Arndt, 1991). This individual conference provided opportunities to pay attention to the student's specific needs which the teacher could not deal with in the class sessions (Hyland & Hyland, 2006) and to negotiate and to interact with the student regarding his/her L1 composition (e.g., Davis & Fulton, 1997; Sommers, 1982) and L2 composition (e.g., Keh, 1990; Zamel,

1985). In the writing conferences, the teacher can request clarification, check students' comprehensibility, and help the student to examine problems and make decisions (Keh, 1990). Zamel (1985) added that the outcome of such writing conferences in L2 composition class was that they could help teachers get a better understanding of their students' writing concerns.

The source of feedback provision was not only limited to teacher, as it could be provided by other experts and peer student. Peer feedback, for example, was provided by exchanging the texts with the students' peers, and provide feedback to each other's texts. It had its merit, but it was less relevant to this study and would not be further reviewed. All in all, most L2 scholars agreed that feedback was central to L2 writing (e.g., Keh, 1990), as supported by the theoretical perspectives and empirical studies in feedback discussed later.

2.2.3 Roles of feedback in three main approaches to teaching writing

The following sections focus on three main approaches to teaching writing (i.e. product-oriented, process-oriented, and genre-oriented approaches) that have influenced and shaped the development of L1 and L2 writing instruction over the years and the roles of teachers' feedback within these approaches. These three paradigms in language teaching should not be viewed as autonomous, unitary, monolithic, or self-contained movements (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014) because these approaches have numerous shared features and overlapping assumptions (e.g., Fulkerson, 2005; Hedgcock, 2010; Knoblauch & Brannon, 1984). In addition, each of the three approaches should be seen as a range of approaches and not a singular model (Williams, 2014).

2.2.3.1 Product-oriented approaches to teaching writing

Product-oriented approaches, also called product approaches (e.g. Kroll, 2001), reflected the principles of structural linguistics, behaviouristic perspective, and audio-

lingual approach to L2 instruction (K. Hyland, 2003a, 2003b; Leki, 1992; Silva, 1990) which dominated the teaching of writing in the twentieth century up until the 1980s (Kroll, 2001; Leki, 1992). The philosophy of product-oriented approaches to teaching writing followed by many U.S. teachers up until 1960s were based on the careful reading and analysis of canonical literature (Ferris& Hedgcock, 2014). The teachers instruct students to read influential classic and contemporary literary works (e.g. novels, short stories, plays, and poetry) and analyse these texts in written works, essays, or themes. The advocates of this approach are mostly concerned with the students' quality of final writing product (Harmer, 2001). They consider students' texts and themes as static representations of students' content knowledge and learning (Ferris&Hedgcock, 2014). As a result, instructional efforts mainly consist of reading model texts, studying grammar, and introducing rules of good writing, rather than strategies or cognitive operations involved in writing. Additionally, the supporters of product-oriented approaches view language learning as a process of imitation, where students' writing development is generated through imitating and manipulating model texts provided by their teachers (K. Hyland, 2003b). The product approaches to writing instruction tend to be implemented using four steps: (a) familiarization (i.e. teachers present a model text), (b) controlled writing (i.e. students write sentences using a substitution table), (c) guided writing (i.e. students imitate model texts), and (d) free writing (students write texts using grammatical structures that which they had learned) (Badger&White, 2000).

The product-oriented approaches were criticised for ignoring students' cognitive processes, awareness of the writing audience, and the goal and context of writing (K. Hyland, 2003b; Reid, 2001). These approaches might be suitable for large classrooms and less proficient students (Tribble, 1996). Furthermore, the approaches ignored the nature of writing as a social act and errors as an inevitable and unavoidable part of the language learning process (Tribble, 1996). Also, product approaches tended to discourage students'

creativity(Reid, 2001). Students were expected to master a range of institution-based rhetorical models, such as descriptive, narrative, expository, and persuasive writing (Ferris&Hedgcock, 2014).However, the dedicated instructional time for teaching these rhetorical models (e.g., planning, drafting, sharing, revision, or editing of students' texts) was minimal (Babin&Harrison, 1999; Berlin, 1987; Clark, 2019; Grabe&Kaplan, 1996/2014; Graves, 1999; Kroll, 2001; Matsuda, 2003).

Supporters of product-oriented approaches viewed accuracy as the most important feature of writing and they emphasised syntax, grammar, mechanics and written expression (K. Hyland, 2003b; Tribble, 1996). Teachers tended to believe that they had a professional responsibility to correct and to eliminate students' errors (Tribble, 1996) and their feedback mostly focused on the accuracy of linguistic forms, especially structure and lexis, in students' new pieces of writing (e.g., Bitchener&Ferris, 2012). In addition to helping students produce error-free writing, feedback given was likely summative feedback to test and to justify a grade rather than formative feedback to teach and to help students revise their compositions (e.g., Lee, 2004, 2008; Lo&Hyland, 2004).

2.2.3.2 Process-oriented approaches to teaching writing

Process-oriented approaches, also called process approaches by some researchers (e.g. Susser, 1994),were a highly influential approaches to teaching L1 writing especially since the 1960s. The approaches emphasised the individual writer as a creator of original ideas and the need to cultivate his or her innately generative predispositions. Process-oriented approaches in L1 and L2 composition were useful to develop students' writing skills by developing their effective writing processes (Badger & White, 2000; Raimes, 1991; Reid, 2001; Richards & Schmidt, 2002; White & Arndt, 1991).

Process-oriented writing should be considered as a range of approaches and not a singular model (Williams, 2014). The approaches were categorised into two categories, namely expressivism and cognitivism (Ferris&Hedgcock, 2014; Polio&Williams, 2009). Expressivists considered composing as a creative act and that product and process were equally important. Expressivists highly valued fluency and voice. Writers should write freely without limitation to liberate their voice and to promote self-discovery (Casanave, 2011; Clark, 2019). Writing instruction should be nondirective and be personalised to promote personal voice (Clark, 2019; Zamel, 1983). Cognitivists, on the other hand, considered writing as problem solving, characterised by the nonlinear, recursive composing processes (Flower&Hayes, 1980, 1981). Cognitivists also emphasised the observable subprocesses of planning-writing-revising (McCutchen, Teske,&Bankston, 2008).The advocates of the process-based approach considered writing process (e.g., generating ideas, expressing feelings) and writing fluency more important to students' writing development than their actual writing products (e.g., Reid, 2001; Silva, 1990).

Process-based approaches in writing had two main elements: awareness and intervention (Kostelnick, 1989; Susser, 1994). Awareness meant that process-oriented approaches helped to make students aware that writing by nature was a process and different types of writing had different process (Susser, 1994). It was important to make students aware of their writing process (Susser, 1994),that writing was not just a matter of getting ideas to write, selecting appropriate words to convey these ideas, and providing them to others (e.g. Krashen, 1984),but it often involved careful planning, writing, revising processes (e.g. Parkhurst, 1990). Even writing a simple message was the result of a writing process that included planning, choosing proper vocabulary, as well as considering the context, audience, and format. The other important element, intervention, refers to teachers', peers', or other parties' involvement in student's writing process (Kostelnick, 1989; Susser, 1994),such as by

providing responses or feedback during the writing process to help student improve his/her writing. Intervention procedures might include brainstorming, journal writing, free writing, small-group writing activities, multiple drafting, teacher/student feedback, teacher/student conferences, editing and revising, as well as other activities to help students planning, writing, and revising their composition.

Among the teachers' primary tasks in process-based approaches were to help students develop their writing strategies and metacognitive awareness of the writing process (K. Hyland, 2003b; Kostelnick, 1989) and to help them generating ideas, organising their writing, and focusing on the writing goal (Hedge, 1993). Process-oriented teachers also helped students to learn strategies for identifying and solving problems, generating ideas to write, putting these ideas in writing, and revising emergent writing (Elbow, 1998; Emig, 1983; Kucer, 2014; Matsuda, 2003; Raimes, 1991; Tobin, 2001; Zamel, 1987). Another goal to achieve in process-oriented approaches was to adjust students' behaviours to match good writers' behaviours, which could be formalised and translated into the following stages of writing: (a) invention (prewriting), (b) planning, (c) drafting, (d) pausing, (e) reading, (f) revising, (g) editing, and (h) publishing (Cumming, 2003; Kucer, 2014; Matsuda, 2003; Smagorinsky, Cook,&Johnson, 2003; Williams, 2014).

However, some scholars have criticised supporters of process-oriented approaches for overly focusing on writing as a social activity and on developing students' writing strategies rather than the text (Hyland, 2004). The approaches have also been criticised for not providing students with enough input to assist in learning to write, and that it ignored the writing context (e.g., Badger&White, 2000). Many practitioners and researchers argued that process-oriented approaches to teaching writing were often delivered in isolation from the cultural, educational, and socio-political contexts where writing took place (Albrechtsen, Haastrup,&Henriksen, 2008; Atkinson, 2004; Canagarajah, 2002; Casanave, 2003, 2013;

Durst, 2006; Haastrup,&Henriksen, 2008; Hedgcock, 2012; Horowitz, 1986a, 1986b; K. Hyland, 2003b, 2004, 2016; Kubota, 2010; Kucer, 2014; Kucer&Silva, 2013). Moreover, different students might proceed through the stages of writing process in a linear sequence because the writing process was recursive and complex (Badger & White, 2000; K. Hyland, 2003a, 2003b; Tribble, 1996). The process of going through all stages of writing also required a long time (Harmer, 2001).

Feedback is important in process-oriented approaches to teaching writing because feedback functions as a tool to encourage and to consolidate learning, as well as to develop students' self-expression ability and control over composing skills through multiple drafting (Hyland&Hyland, 2006). Teachers should provide feedback which helped and motivated students to accomplish the writing process using, for example, teachers' written comments, teacher-student conference, peer feedback, and audio taped feedback (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996/2014; Keh, 1990; K. Hyland, 2003b). In addition, feedback should be utilised to help students gain fluency and understand the writing process.

2.2.3.3 Genre-oriented approaches to teaching writing

Genre-oriented approaches to teaching L2 writing have emerged “ as a response to process pedagogies, as an outcome of communicative methods, and in consequence of our growing understanding of literacy” (Hyland, 2004, p. 7). These approaches focused on teaching certain genres which students needed to master to succeed in specific settings (e.g., Paltridge, 2007).

Purpose or goal was an essential aspect of genre-oriented approaches. Supporters of genre approaches considered writing as a communicative activity aimed to achieve certain purposes. Different genres of writing (e.g., letters of permission, prescription, short story, and research report) served different purposes. Writers were considered to have “ certain goals and

intentions in certain relationships to his or her readers, and certain information to convey, and the forms of a text were resources used to accomplish these” (K. Hyland, 2003b, p. 18). The primary foci of genre-oriented approaches to teaching writing were the writing content (subject matter), writing purposes, audiences/readers, and the interaction/relationship between the writer, text, and audiences, as well as the pattern of writing organisation (Martin, 1993; Tribble, 1996). The writer was the text producer whose language and form follow the audience (the community) of writing; the reader’s reaction to the text determined whether the text has served its purpose. Writing was predominantly linguistic but it could vary depending on its context (e.g., Badger&White, 2000; Hyland, 2004).

L2 scholars (e.g., Cope&Kalantzis, 1993; Dudley-Evans, 1997) suggested three comparable stages of the writing process in genre-oriented approaches, which resembled the stages in product-oriented approaches. First, teachers introduced a model text from the target genre and analyse its features together with their students. The students then carried out exercises which manipulated the relevant structures and language forms of the target genre to internalise and to memorise features that were relevant to the learned genre. Finally, the students independently produced a text in the target genre. Genre-oriented approaches aimed to familiarise students with different text types, raised students' awareness of the culture and writing procedures in the target genre, and developed students' writing skills and knowledge about the writing genre, the writing purpose, and the audience (Hyland, 2004). Genre-oriented approaches have been criticised for undervaluing the skills students need to produce a text and perceiving students as mostly passive (Badger&White, 2000). Critics also claimed that genre-oriented approaches hindered students’ creativity and discouraged them from expressing themselves in their writing (Hyland, 2004).

Feedback played a key role in the genre-oriented approach to writing instruction, especially in contexts where scaffolded learning techniques were employed

(Hyland&Hyland, 2019; Tardy, 2019). Here feedback was important to build students' confidence in negotiating opportunity to new knowledge and practices and to provide literacy resources (i.e. rhetorical choices important to new academic literacy skills),so they could participate actively in the target communities (Hyland&Hyland, 2006, 2019).Tardy (2019) suggested that novice writers could use appropriation of teacher feedback as an active strategy to develop their voices and familiarity with genres. Tardy (2019) illustrated it with a case study of an engineering doctoral student who developed his agency and writing ownership as he gained confidence over some specific genres. At first, the student tended to adopt his supervisor's words and ideas when encountering less familiar genres, but he gradually became more independent as his sense of agency and writing ownership evolved. Supporters of genre-oriented approaches suggested the use of different sources and strategies of feedback provision, such as teacher and peer written feedback, teacher-student conferences, and computer-mediated feedback, to help students learning and internalising the different structures and terminology used in their target genre, as well as raising awareness of the purpose and the audience of writing. Supporters of the genre-oriented approaches focused their feedback on the conventions of the target genre and all aspects of writing (i.e., grammar as well as rhetorical organisation and development of ideas).Moreover, feedback in each draft targeted only some aspects so as not to overwhelm and confuse the students (Hyland, 2004).

To sum up, feedback has crucial roles in the three influential approaches to writing instruction, especially formative roles to assist students in revising and producing better writing products and summative roles of assessment. What might distinguish these three approaches in terms of feedback provision was the focus of teachers' feedback. Supporters of product-oriented approaches to writing instruction focus their feedback on students' accuracy and linguistic forms, supporters of process-oriented approaches focus their feedback on students' fluency and the writing process, and supporters of genre-oriented approaches focus

their feedback on introducing genre knowledge and genre conventions. Apart from the abovementioned theoretical perspectives, the literature on feedback on L2 writing have been enriched by empirical studies, as discussed in the following section.

2.3 Empirical studies on teacher's written feedback on L2 writing context

Four key topics which have been investigated in empirical studies on teachers' written feedback on L2 writing context included (a) the contribution of written feedback on students' L2 development, (b) L2 teachers' written feedback practices across different educational contexts, (c) the efficacy of various different types and strategies of teachers' feedback (see section 2.7.3), and (d) the effects of individual and contextual factors on teachers' written feedback (see section 2.6).

2.3.1 The contribution of teachers' written feedback on students' L2 development

Empirical studies investigating the contribution of teachers' written feedback on students' L2 development tended to compare the effects of WCF treatment (pre-test) and post-tests on feedback group and control group in revision or in new writing. Most studies reported that feedback groups substantially outperformed the control groups and teachers' WCF contributed to students' L2 development, particularly in their writing accuracy (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Van Beuningen, De Jong, & Kuiken, 2008, 2012). However, a few studies also reported that teachers' written feedback was detrimental (e.g., Truscott, 1996, 1999) or had small benefits towards students' L2 writing accuracy (e.g., Truscott, 2007; Truscott & Hsu, 2008).

Truscott and Hsu (2008) investigated Taiwanese ESL students' (N=47) writing accuracy using post-test and suggested that students' writing accuracy improved for short-term, but the improvement was not for long-term and not in new writing. Van Beuningen et al. conducted two studies (2008, 2012) to measure the effect of WCF on students' writing

accuracy and reported different results. In the first study involving 62 students, Van Beuningen et al. (2008) compared direct a WCF group and a control group, and she found that direct WCF group gained improved accuracy over control group. In the subsequent study involving larger students' population (N=268), Van Beuningen et al. (2012) reported that both direct and indirect WCF groups gained significant accuracy improvement.

2.3.2 Teacher's written feedback practices in various L2 writing contexts

Descriptive studies investigating teachers' actual written feedback practices on students' L2 writing have explored three key questions, including: (a) whether L2 teachers provided written feedback and for what reasons (e.g., Evans et al., 2010), (b) which aspects of writing L2 teachers focused on their written feedback, and (c) how L2 teachers provided written feedback, as summarised in the following sections.

2.3.2.1 Teachers' feedback practices and reasons for providing feedback

Some previous studies had investigated topics related to L2 teachers' actual written feedback practices: whether or not teachers provide written feedback (e.g., Evans et al., 2010), and if so, whether or not they provide accurate written feedback (e.g., Ferris, 2006; Ferris & Kurzer, 2019; Lee, 2003a, 2003b). Most studies had also explored what aspects of writing the teachers targeted when providing feedback (e.g., Alshahrani & Storch, 2014; Evans et al., 2010; Furneaux, Paran, & Fairfax, 2007; Junqueira & Payant, 2015) and what type of feedback strategies they used when providing feedback (e.g., Furneaux et al., 2007; Guénette & Lyster, 2013; Lee, 2003a, 2003b, 2004).

While it was clear that most studies reported that L2 teachers provided written feedback, the underlying reasons for providing written feedback varied across different teachers. Many L2 teachers believed that written feedback could help L2 students improve their L2 writing, their awareness of errors, and grammatical accuracy (Alshahrani & Storch,

2014; Cohen&Cavalcanti, 1990; Evans et al., 2010; Junqueira&Payant, 2015; Lee, 2003b; McMartin-Miller, 2014). For example, Evans et al.'s (2010) large online survey indicated that the most common reasons for providing written feedback were to help students to be aware of language errors and to build their self-editing skills (n=448 teachers). Similar findings were reported by studies employing qualitative analysis (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Junqueira&Payant, 2015; McMartin-Miller, 2014). These studies reported that L2 teachers believe that their written feedback was an important tool to boost students' confidence in writing (Junqueira&Payant, 2015), to prevent error fossilization (Alshahrani&Storch, 2014), and to be used as advice to improve students' accuracy (McMartin-Miller, 2014). For instance, McMartin-Miller (2014) interviewed three US university ESL instructors regarding their error correction practice and suggested that the participants considered error treatment as advice and not as a prescription. However, some teachers in Evans et al.'s (2010) and Lee's (2004) studies also reported the opposite results, namely: that some L2 teachers did not provide feedback because they believed written feedback was not effective, that grammatical accuracy was not important, and that students should self-correct their errors (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Lee, 2004).

Another frequently mentioned reason of providing feedback was that the teachers believed L2 students expected teachers' written feedback. Evans et al. (2010) reported that many L2 teachers (n=223) believed that their students expected written feedback to help them to understand, to locate, and to correct their errors. Written feedback might also raise students' consciousness of error patterns. Many L2 teachers (n=193) in Evans et al.'s (2010) study also believed that their students needed written feedback as a model of good writing. Providing written feedback was seen as a sign of understanding and respecting students. Few others believed that providing written feedback was one of the L2 teachers' responsibilities and that correcting students' errors was better than providing no corrective feedback. Similar

findings were reported by Hamouda (2011), who reported that 16 (out of 20) Saudi Arabian EFL teachers in his study saw written feedback as one of their responsibilities. Lee (2003b) also reported that L2 writing teachers believed that their written feedback could encourage their students to learn grammar, to write and express their ideas better, and to reinforce teaching activities. These studies suggested that many L2 teachers perceived written feedback as essential and that providing written feedback was viewed as an attempt to help students to improve their writing skills.

These studies showed that only a minority of teachers do not provide feedback comments (e.g., 1% in Evans et al., 2010 survey), particularly on errors in grammar. Some of these L2 teachers believed that grammatical accuracy was unimportant in their teaching context and that other aspects of writing (e.g., content, rhetoric, and organisation) were more important. Evans et al. found that some teachers who taught using process-oriented approaches preferred to focus on other writing features in the beginning of writing and only check students' grammar at the final stage. Another argument put forward was that L2 students should be responsible for correcting their errors, and that teacher's written feedback might overwhelm and discourage their students. They believed that providing no corrective feedback would encourage their students to keep writing and not to feel ashamed with the amount of error correction. One more reason proposed by L2 teachers was that many students were not ready for receiving negative criticism or that their students did not learn from the corrections.

2.3.2.2 Aspects of writing which L2 teachers focus on

Regarding the focus of L2 teachers' feedback, there are a large number of published studies that explore whether teachers focus on errors in language use or other writing issues

(e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Junqueira&Payant, 2015), and whether they react as writing teachers or readers of communication (e.g., Furneaux, Paran,&Fairfax, 2007). Some previous studies indicated that many L2 teachers reacted as language teachers who overwhelmingly focused on language errors (e.g., Furneaux et al., 2007; Zamel, 1985),while some other studies reported that teachers reacted as readers of communication (e.g., Hyland&Hyland, 2001).Zamel (1985) reported that the teachers in her study marked surface-level errors and omitted many meaning-related errors. Furneaux et al. (2007) surveyed the stance used by French, Korean, Spanish, Thai, and Cypriot EFL teachers (N=110) and found that most of the EFL teachers tended to react as language teachers who reacted as language teachers who mostly focused on language errors in their written feedback, rather than as readers of communication. However, Furneaux et al.'s (2007) results of the survey only showed what the teachers said they did which might not accurately describe teachers' actual written feedback practices.

Naturalistic studies on teachers' written feedback indicated that many L2 teachers provided comprehensive written feedback on all aspects of writing (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Lee, 2003a, 2008),while some others provided selective written feedback on certain aspects of writing (e.g., Guénette&Lyster, 2013). For instance, Lee (2003a, 2008) investigated Hong Kong secondary school ESL teachers' written feedback on students' essays. In her (2003a) study (N=58),Lee found that most L2 writing teachers (67%) provided comprehensive written feedback. She again reported in her subsequent (2008) study that all the EFL teacher participants (N=26) provided comprehensive written feedback even though the school regulation required L2 teachers to provide selective written feedback. Meanwhile, another study conducted by Guénette and Lyster (2013) on Canadian ESL teachers' written feedback on students' texts (N=61) indicated that the majority of the teachers (14 out of 18) used selective written feedback by correcting certain grammatical errors, such as spelling,

verbs, word choice, and prepositions. However, the researchers did not specify the number of errors corrected using selective written feedback and types of errors omitted in their selective written feedback.

Some studies which investigated the focus and priority of L2 teachers' written feedback reported that L2 teachers' actual feedback practices might mismatch their beliefs about feedback (e.g., Cohen&Cavalcanti, 1987, 1990; Ferris, 1997; F. Hyland, 2003). F.Hyland (2003), for example, conducted a case study on two university ESL teachers in New Zealand. The data from think-aloud protocols showed that both teachers focused on students' content and grammar, while the data from students' writing samples indicated that teachers provided more feedback on grammar, suggesting that the ESL teachers prioritised grammar over the content. In contrast, Diab (2005) investigated one Lebanese ESL teacher's written feedback and found that the teacher considered comments on content were more important for the students' L2 development than feedback on language use. Both studies suggested that the teachers' focus in providing written feedback varies depending on their beliefs about students' needs and proficiency.

2.3.2.3 Teachers' ways of providing written feedback

Previous studies suggested that many L2 teachers provide written feedback as a part of teaching activities, particularly in process-based writing classes where students typically learned to write drafts, revise, and edit the drafts (Evans et al., 2010; Hartshorn et al., 2010). Evans et al.'s (2010) large online survey of EFL and ESL teachers' written feedback (N=1053) found that majority of L2 teachers (99%) provided error correction on students' texts. The strength of this survey lied in the number of participants and the background of participants who came from 69 countries. However, Evans et al.'s study offered no information on what type of written feedback the L2 teachers provided, how they provided it,

how much feedback they provided, and whether or not they perceived their feedback as effective.

Numerous studies had also highlighted that L2 teachers overemphasised (e.g., Ferris&Roberts, 2001; Hyland&Hyland, 2006; Lee, 2011) and overlooked their students' errors (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Lee, 2003a, 2011). Lee (2003a, 2011) reported that ESL teachers in her study (N=26) focused too much on errors and paid less attention to other important aspects of writing, such as content, style, organisation. Teachers' overemphasis on errors might divert their time and energy from important dimensions of writing (Bitchener, Young,&Cameron, 2005). Moreover, teachers' focus on errors and grammatical accuracy might influence students to regard the production of grammatically correct texts as the goal of their writing activity (Leki, 2001). Some studies also reported that L2 teachers often provided arbitrary and vague comments (e.g., Leki, 1990; Zamel, 1985). Zamel (1985) reported that ESL teachers (N=15) often reacted arbitrarily and idiosyncratically to surface-level errors. However, it was difficult to conclude how prevalent such practices were because Zamel did not quantify the teachers' vague written feedback comments.

Due to the prevalent use of written feedback in teaching, scholars became interested in examining the accuracy of teachers' written feedback. Some studies (e.g., Ferris, 2006; Lee, 2003a) indicated that teachers could provide corrections accurately, while some other studies (e.g., Zamel, 1985) reported that the L2 teachers often made arbitrary and inaccurate corrections. Lee (2003a) analysed Hong Kong EFL teachers' written feedback on students' texts (N=58) and found that more than half (approximately 57%) of teachers' written feedback was accurate. More recently, Ferris (2006) also reported higher accuracy of L2 teachers' written feedback (N=146 texts): that three US university-level ESL teachers could correct most errors (89%) accurately. On the other hand, Zamel (1985) investigated US university ESL teachers' (N=15) error corrections and found that the teachers often provided

inaccurate error corrections. However, Zamel did not report the frequency of imprecise correction.

Some studies also looked at L2 teachers' change in feedback provision over time (e.g., McMartin-Miller, 2014). McMartin-Miller (2014) interviewed graduate instructors (N=3) and found that all instructors stated that they used different written feedback approaches now compared to when they first taught ESL. One of the participants, for example, used to provide fewer error corrections and mostly focused on high order errors when he was a novice ESL teacher in the United States. Later, he changed his approach when he taught EFL in China by providing 30-60% more error corrections than he used to and focused more on students' sentence-level errors because he realised that students made many sentence-level errors that potentially changed the meaning and that students needed more error correction. However, it should be noted that, as was the case with several studies mentioned above, McMartin-Miller's interview might only describe teachers' perception of their written feedback practices.

Studies on the teachers' preference and the use of direct and indirect written corrective feedback (WCF) showed an inconclusive finding. Some studies reported that L2 teachers tended to provide more direct error correction (e.g., Furneaux et al., 2007; Guénette&Lyster, 2013; Lee, 2003a, 2004, 2011), while some others suggested that L2 teachers provided more indirect written feedback (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014). For instance, Furneaux et al. (2007) investigated French, Korean, Spanish, Thai, and Cypriot EFL teachers' (N=110) error correction tasks and found that slightly more than half of the errors (n=2380 errors; 51%) were treated using direct error correction. In a recent study, Guénette and Lyster (2013) analysed written feedback provided by 18 high school ESL teachers in Canada (N=2, 506 errors) and found that 1, 492 errors (60%) were responded using direct corrections. Lee (2003a, 2004, 2011) employed a combination of survey (N=206)

and error correction task (n=58) to investigate the type of written feedback that the Hong Kong EFL teachers used. She found that the teachers used direct error correction on 55% of errors in the comprehensive written feedback group and on 65% of errors in the selective written feedback group. However, Lee (2003a) also indicated that most experienced teachers who had taught five or more years of teaching experience tended to indirect written feedback using codes. Lee did not explain why more experienced L2 teachers in her study used indirect written feedback. Another study conducted by Alshahrani and Storch (2014) showed that all three teachers in their study provided indirect written feedback to correct errors in mechanics (88.9%) and language expression (62.6%). In these studies, the teachers' feedback practices were influenced by their beliefs and institutional policies. Among these studies, only Furneaux et al. (2007), had focused on all aspects of writing.

As a comparison, some early L1 composition studies (e.g., Davis & Fulton, 1997; Sommers, 1982) showed that during the multi-draft process of L1 composition, L1 teachers applied different feedback strategies, such as responding to content in the initial draft and language use in the final drafts to help students develop their ideas without being side-tracked by linguistic difficulties. The literature also indicated that many L2 teachers had also employed oral feedback in their L2 writing such as one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences, as described below.

2.4 Empirical studies on teacher's writing conferences in L2 writing context

The second feedback strategy employed by the EFL1 teachers in this context of the study was the teacher-student writing conference (face-to-face teacher-student discussion aimed to scaffold students in writing an essay individually). A significant number of L2 studies had investigated teacher-student writing conferences in L2 settings. Among themes explored in these studies are:

1. Teachers' and L2 students' interactions and perspectives on writing conferences (e.g., Ewert, 2009; Freedman&Sperling, 1985; Goldstein&Conrad, 1990; Haneda, 2004; Patthey-Chavez&Ferris, 1997; Sperling, 1991; Thonus, 1999, 2001),
2. Roles of tutors in writing conferences (e.g., Weigle&Nelson, 2004).
3. L2 students' preference and perceptions on writing conferences (e.g., Ferris&Hedgcock, 2014; Hedgcock&Lefkowitz, 1994; Liu, 2009),and
4. Student's negotiation and input (e.g., Goldstein&Conrad, 1990),
5. Factors which influenced the writing conferences (e.g., Chen, 2005; Goldstein&Conrad, 1990; Haneda, 2004),
6. Effects of writing conferences on students' writing and revision skills (e.g., Bell, 2002; Eickholdt, 2004; Goldstein&Conrad, 1990; Haneda, 2000; Hewett, 2006; Jacobs&Karliner 1977; Koshik, 2002; Mitchell, 1990; Patthey-Chavez&Ferris, 1997; Steward, 1991; Wong, Butler, Ficzer,&Kuperis, 1996),
7. Ways to optimise writing conferences (e.g., Glasswell, Parr,&McNaughton, 2003),and
8. General procedure of the writing conferences in L1 writing (e.g., Freedman&Katz, 1987).

Freedman and Katz (1987) investigated five naturally occurring writing conferences between an experienced teacher and a highly motivated but low achieving student. They categorised the general procedure of conferences into five components: (a) opening, (b) student-initiated comments and questions, (c) teacher-initiated comments and questions, (d) reading, and (e) closing. In the opening stage, a teacher and a student offered initial greetings. The opening was beneficial to set the agenda of the writing conferences and the atmosphere of the interaction. Next, during student-initiated comments and questions, which could occur at any moment between the opening and closing stages, students talked about the general

issues in writing or other issues, such as the writing process (e.g., sharing about difficulties in starting to write, writing block, or insufficient time for revision) and writing product (e.g., asking about grammatical rules, problems with development). The third procedure, teacher-initiated comments and questions was when teachers talk about writing or other issues. It might occur at any moment between the opening and closing stages in this stage. The next one was reading stage. The teacher and student read the text aloud or silently. The reading process was often interspersed with student-initiated or teacher-initiated comments and questions. The last one was closing. Some actions displayed in this stage include thanking the opposite party, summarising the feedback provided, and scheduling the future appointments.

Goldstein and Conrad (1990) reported that the ways teachers and students interacted in the conferences varied and each student brought a unique personality that might affect his/her behaviours in the conferences. In addition, the teacher-student relationship in the writing conferences was different to that in the classroom (Goldstein&Conrad, 1990). Bell (2002) explored the interaction and the nature of writing conferences between four tutors and seven undergraduate students and found that most tutors displayed editor (5) and manager (5) roles in writing conferences. Another researcher, Thonus, conducted two studies on the ESL tutor-tutee interaction in writing conferences (see Thonus 1999, 2001). Thonus (1999) investigated the tutor-tutee interaction in an ESL writing centre in a US university (N=11 tutors). Thonus looked at 34 writing tutorials and found that the most common practice of tutoring in the university's ESL writing centre was that a tutor had higher position than the tutee. The tutor, as a paid staff, held more power and control than the tutee and cannot easily take a collaborative role. This practice often contradicts the writing centre theory (i.e. the equal status of tutor and tutee). Thonus (2001) added that a tutor's role in the tutoring sessions highly depended on the context and it was negotiated in every tutoring session. More recently, another study by Ewert (2009) reported that the teacher participants (N=2) used a

combination of negotiation and scaffolding moves and that the assistance they provided varied in relation to the students' L2 proficiency. Studies also highlighted that the teacher-student conference might be stressful for some students because it placed a burden on their oral fluency and aural comprehension (Ferris, 2003). It also required additional time and interaction skills (Hyland&Hyland, 2006, 2019). L2 writing scholars suggested that L2 teachers needed to explain the goals of writing conferences to their students and encouraged them to participate in the conference actively (Ferris, 2003; Goldstein&Conrad, 1990; Tribble, 1996),and create a relaxed atmosphere (Ferris, 2003).

Some studies on L2 teacher-student interaction in individual tutoring sessions had also reported L2 teachers' control or domination in the writing conferences (e.g., Cumming&So 1996; Haneda, 2004; Jacob, 1982; Powers 1993; Thonus, 1999, 2001; Weigle&Nelson 2004; Wong, 1988). For instance, Weigle and Nelson (2004) investigated the ESL writing tutor-tutee interaction in tutoring sessions in a US university writing context (N=3 tutor-tutee dyads) using online discussions, recordings of tutoring sessions, retrospective interviews, and tutors' reflective writings. Weigle and Nelson (2004) found that the pattern of tutor-tutee negotiation in each dyad was different depending on different factors emerged in each dyad. One of the tutors tended to dominate much of the interaction in the tutoring sessions due to the tutors' roles in the tutoring sessions were influenced by the tutee's limited oral proficiency, the tutor's natural tendency towards control, and the tutor's perceptions of what would be appropriate for the tutee. Weigle and Nelson (2004) suggested that it was difficult to resist the tutors' natural tendency to act as experts and to control over the tutoring sessions although the tutors knew they should act as supportive peers. Another study conducted by Haneda (2004) on Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) teacher's (N=1) and students' (N=11) writing conferences found that the teacher and student jointly constructed meaning in the writing conferences discourse. The teacher initiated most of the exchanges in the conferences

(72.5%). Meanwhile, the students exercised their agency by substantially contributing as the primary knower in the exchanges they initiated.

The benefits of the writing conferences had been examined by some L2 scholars (e.g., Ferris, 2004; Gitzen, 2002; Keh, 1990). Keh (1990) found that teacher-student interaction in the writing conferences were beneficial for students to construct a sense of 'live' audience, where a teacher could request for clarification, help the student cope with problems in writing, and help make decisions. Ferris and Hedgcock (2014) mentioned three main reasons which contributed to the popularity of teacher-student writing conferences: (a) it saved time and energy compared to paper marking, (b) it enabled teacher and student to interact and negotiate immediately; and, (c) it was more useful for auditory students than the visual students. Gitzen (2002) reported that novice-expert interaction in the writing conferences was beneficial to increase students' motivation to write, input, and control over the instructional programs. Gitzen added that writing conferences provided the teachers with opportunities to model an effective thinking and provide timely critique. It also enhanced students' higher-order critical thinking as seen in the students' acceptance of multiple solutions to problems and fostered their independent learning and thinking. Ferris (2004) suggested that the writing conferences should be combined with written feedback to achieve the best results because both feedback techniques complement each other. Teachers could address text-specific issues in written comments and address global issues (e.g., content, organisation, and supporting details) in the conferences. Also, the teachers should limit their participation in writing conferences to encourage students to express their ideas about their writing. The findings from both studies were encouraging for L2 teachers.

However, not all students benefitted equally from the writing conference. Goldstein and Conrad (1990) explored one-on-one writing conferences between a teacher and three advanced ESL composition students and found that students who negotiated the meaning in

the conferences successfully made improved revisions while students who did not negotiate meaning tended to make no revisions or make some surface-level revisions that did not lead to significant improvement. Another study conducted by Patthey-Chavez and Ferris (1997) examined how L2 proficiency influenced interactions and the outcome of the writing conferences, by comparing the performance of two ESL groups with different ESL proficiency levels. The study found that the writing conferences helped improve both groups' writing quality, but stronger ESL students appeared to gain more from the conferences. The stronger ESL students were more assertive than the weaker ones and produced more substantial revisions. The stronger ESL students proposed the topics, successfully displayed their engagement, and presented themselves as domain experts, while the weaker students tended to simply revise their drafts based on their teacher's advice. Moreover, the teachers tended to act less direct in their interactions with the stronger students; they tended to offer suggestion and avoid giving a direct evaluation. These studies showed that the teacher-student interactions in the writing conferences were dynamic.

The efficacy of teacher's oral feedback through writing conferences had been explored in some L2 written corrective feedback studies (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener&Knoch, 2008b, 2010a, 2010b; Bitchener et al., 2005). For instance, Bitchener et al. (2005) who compared the effect of direct feedback with and without oral meta-linguistic explanation and written feedback found that students who received direct feedback with written and oral explanation made more errors in new writing than those who only received direct feedback. Bitchener (2008) and Bitchener and Knoch's (2008b, 2010a, 2010b) following studies also reported that the oral meta-linguistic explanation significantly improves the students' writing accuracy. Bitchener (2008) also added that group and individual writing conferences were equally effective.

To sum up, above empirical studies on L2 teachers' written feedback and writing conferences have indicated that teacher's written feedback is still the most widely used feedback type in L2 writing, while teacher-student writing conferences is known for giving student and teacher an opportunity to work collaboratively and to discuss the composition in great detail to improve it. Also, these studies have shown that L2 teachers' feedback practices vary, which may be attributed to various factors beyond the scope, priority, and type of feedback provided. The following section discusses L2 teachers' decision-making processes while providing feedback on L2 writing.

2.5 Empirical studies on L2 teachers' decision-making processes in L2 writing

Decision-making processes had been a focus of study in many social science disciplines including second language learning although there was little published information on L2 teachers' decision-making processes while providing feedback on L2 writing. Thus, here I briefly described some studies on decision-making processes in the area close to feedback on L2 writing, including decision-making processes in L2 assessment studies (e.g., Cumming, 1990; Cumming et al., 2001, 2002) and professional editing and revision (e.g., Bisailon, 2007; Hayes, Flower, Schriver, Stratman, & Carey, 1987).

Studies on language assessment focused, for example, on how raters make decisions while scoring a composition (e.g., Cumming, 1990; Cumming et al., 2001, 2002). For instance, Cumming (1990) explored the TOEFL expert and novice raters' decision-making processes and found that both expert and novice raters employed a wide variety of knowledge and strategies in rating compositions. Their decision-making processes involved complex, interactive mental processes. They could distinguish between writing ability and language proficiency. Moreover, expert raters focused more on the higher-order aspects of writing while novice raters focused more on the lower order aspects. In addition, the novice raters used on-line text corrections to make a final decision. More recently, Cumming et al. (2001,

2002) identified 28 main decision-making behaviours which the TOEFL raters display while rating compositions. These behaviours were then divided into three foci (self-monitoring, rhetorical and ideational, and language foci) and two strategies (interpretation and judgment strategies). Cumming et al. also distinguished between macro strategies (behaviours when dealing with the overall rating) and micro strategies (behaviours related to a decision) of decision-making. A rater's prototypical macro strategy of evaluation involved: 1) scanning the composition for surface-level identification, 2) engaging in interpretation, and 3) articulating a scoring decision (see Appendix G).

Another body of studies had examined professional editors' decision-making in editing and revising texts (e.g., Bisaillon, 2007; Hayes et al., 1987). Hayes et al. (1987) developed a detailed model of the revision process, which included task definition, model of evaluation, and strategy selection process. Another researcher, Bisaillon (2007), conducted a study on six professional editors' revision strategies and reported that the editors' editing process followed the sequence of (a) reading, (b) detecting problems, (c) problem solving, and (d) rereading. The editors' problem detection strategies included (a) anticipating a problem and (b) comparing an item in the text with own knowledge (certain, less certain, and uncertain knowledge). The problem solving consisted of three strategies: no strategy (automatic processing), immediate strategy, and postponed strategies (see Appendix H). Bisaillon also identified four modes of reading, including reading to comprehend, reading to evaluate, reading to solve problems, and reading to check (pp. 302-303).

However, there were some differences between these studies and the current study. Cumming (1990) and Cumming et al.'s (2001, 2002) research contexts were of language assessment, where the rater participants focused on assessing TOEFL essays using a given rating scale, while Bisaillon's (2007) study setting was professional editing, where the professional editors focused on modifying and editing texts based on the client's

specifications. Moreover, the language background of TOEFL test takers in Cumming (1990), Cumming et al. (2001, 2002) and editing customers in Bisailon's (2007) studies were not explicitly specified. The current study was conducted in the EFL classroom context, where English was used and learned as a foreign language. The EFL teachers in the study focused on giving written feedback on students' L2 writing composition.

2.6 Empirical studies on factors influencing teachers' feedback practices

Teacher feedback was a complex phenomenon (e.g., Ellis, 2017) which did not take place in a social vacuum (Brock, 1995; Lee, 2014), but was connected and influenced by various factors (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Macaro, 2010). To date, there has been growing attention to exploring these factors, particularly in the last two decades. Previous studies reported that teachers' feedback on L2 writing was influenced by various individual teacher factors (e.g., Alshahrani & Storch, 2014; Evans et al., 2010; Ferris, 2006; Ferris & Kurzer, 2019) and contextual factors (e.g., Guénette & Lyster, 2013; Jodaie & Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2008, 2009). The literature also indicated that the teacher-student writing conferences in L2 writing were shaped by various factors, including the form of interaction in writing conferences, including teachers' authority, rules of speaking, and students' personality (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990), teachers' and students' strategies and attitudes (e.g., Haneda, 2004), and the context of the writing conferences (e.g., Chen, 2005). Chen (2005) wrote that the effectiveness of writing conferences was influenced by the students' pre-conference preparation, encouragement to the students, teachers' communication style, language and communication difficulties, participants' social connectedness, and teachers' focus of attention.

The following sections summarise previous studies on factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices. For the clarity, I had classified these factors into individual

factors (i.e. factors which the teachers brought with them to their teaching situation) and contextual factor (i.e. factors which characterised the L2 writing teaching situation).

2.6.1 Individual factors influencing L2 teachers' feedback provision

Studies in teacher feedback on L2 writing had reported several individual factors which might influence L2 teachers' written feedback practices, including teachers' beliefs (e.g., Evans et al., 2010), affective factors (such as teacher's goals, desires, and expectation) (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Ferris, 2006; Ferris&Kurzer, 2019; Hyland, 1998; Hyland&Hyland, 2006; Lee, 2004, 2008, 2011) , and prior learning and teaching experiences (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Guénette&Lyster, 2013). All studies which investigate the L2 teachers' beliefs, perception, and preferences in feedback provision reviewed above used interview and/or survey techniques to collect the data on the teachers' reported beliefs.

2.6.1.1 Teachers' beliefs about feedback provision

Teacher's belief was the most frequently mentioned individual factor which influences L2 teachers' written feedback practices. It included belief, perception, perspective, view, and preference. Belief refers to any idea and theory that teachers hold about themselves, their students, second language, teaching, and learning (Richards&Schmidt, 2002), perspective or view refers to teachers' certain attitudes towards written feedback, while preference refers to teachers' preferred practices of written feedback provision.

Studies on teacher feedback on L2 writing had reported that the teachers' beliefs significantly influenced their teaching and feedback practices (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Lee, 2003b; Zamel, 1985). For instance, Zamel (1985) indicated that L2 teachers in her study perceived themselves as language teachers rather than writing teachers and their students as language students. Therefore, they focused only on surface-level features of writing, such as sentences and clause structure, and ignored the meaning and discourse-related problems of

their students' texts. L2 teachers' beliefs were found to influence the teachers' feedback practices (e.g., the approach to feedback, types of feedback, and feedback focus) decisions to provide written feedback (Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Cohen&Cavalcanti, 1990; Evans et al., 2010; Junqueira&Payant, 2015; Lee, 2003b; McMartin-Miller, 2014) or to not provide it (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Lee, 2004) . One question remains as to what extent do teachers' beliefs about written feedback influence their written feedback practices. Studies in this area had also investigated L2 teachers' beliefs about the effectiveness of written feedback (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Cohen&Cavalcanti, 1990; Fathman&Whalley, 1990),importance of grammatical accuracy (e.g., Jodaie and Farrokhi, 2012),responsibility in marking and correcting errors (e.g., Zamel, 1985),and teachers' confidence in their written feedback practices (e.g., Hyland, 1998).

Previous studies on teacher's written feedback on L2 writing had explored the influence of L2 teachers' beliefs about ideal written feedback (e.g., McMartin-Miller, 2014),ideal writing (e.g., Junqueira&Payant, 2015),and student's needs (e.g., Lee, 2003b) on their focus and type of written feedback on students' L2 writing, especially the focus of written feedback (e.g., Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2003b, 2004, 2011; Montgomery&Baker, 2007),type of written feedback (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Guénette&Lyster, 2013),and time to provide written feedback (e.g., Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012). For instance, McMartin-Miller's (2014) interview showed that graduate instructors' beliefs about what constituted ideal teaching shaped their written feedback provision. Despite the ESL coordinator's request to provide comprehensive written feedback, two instructors provided selective written feedback because they believed comprehensive written feedback was exhausting for teachers and overwhelming for students. Another recent study conducted by Junqueira and Payant (2015) showed that the L2 teacher's beliefs about what constituted ideal writing and writer influenced her to provide more feedback on global issues. She

believed that students' global writing problems deserved more priority than their local issues and since each student had a different writing proficiency, she personalised her written feedback focus and strategy based on each student's ability and needs. Lee (2003b) surveyed Hong Kong ESL teachers (N=206) and found that 93% of teachers admitted that their beliefs about students' needs significantly influenced their written feedback practices.

Data from several studies suggested that L2 writing teachers perceived written feedback and grammatical accuracy as necessary (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012; Junqueira&Payant, 2015). Evans et al.'s (2010) large survey indicated that most ESL and EFL teacher-participants (n=448) believed that their written feedback could help students to notice and to self-edit language errors. Written feedback was essential to help English as an additional language (EAL) students to write in English (Junqueira&Payant, 2015). Some other studies also reported similar findings (e.g., Alshahrani & Storch, 2014; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Fathman & Whalley, 1990). Additionally, studies also reported that L2 teachers believe that grammatical accuracy was essential. Jodaie and Farrokhi (2012) surveyed Iranian EFL teachers (N=30) and found that all teacher participants agreed about the importance of grammatical accuracy in students' writing and error correction, particularly errors in the use of words and verb categories. Teachers' beliefs on the importance of their written feedback and grammatical accuracy of the students' L2 writing stimulated many L2 teachers to provide written feedback.

Nevertheless, some previous studies have also discovered that some L2 teachers viewed written feedback negatively. L2 teachers described their written feedback practices with unfavourable terms, such as frustrating (Ferris, Pezone, Tade,&Tinti, 1997; Lee, 2009; Mantello, 1997); confusing (Mantello, 1997); tedious and unrewarding (Hyland, 1990); intimidating and time-consuming (Junqueira&Payant, 2015); difficult and painstaking (Lee, 2003a); anxiety-ridden and gruelling (Stern&Solomon, 2006). Stern and Solomon (2006)

wrote that many teachers regardless of their education and experience felt that providing written feedback was an exhausting task of formative assessment. As for novice L2 teachers, providing written feedback was often an intimidating task (Junqueira&Payant, 2015) .

At least two studies (i.e. McMartin-Miller, 2014; Norouzian&Farahani, 2012) had indicated that L2 teachers' beliefs about written feedback change over time. Norouzian and Farahani (2012) conducted two interviews with fifteen Iranian university EFL teachers. In a pre-semester interview, nine teachers stated that they disagreed with the use of codes in corrections. However, 11 teachers stated in the post-semester interview that they provided indirect written feedback because they believed using codes made the error correction task more manageable and more effective.

L2 teachers might misjudge the quantity and type of feedback they provided, as reported by Montgomery and Baker (2007) and Norouzian and Farahani (2012). Montgomery and Baker (2007) explored university US ESL teachers' (N=15) perception about their feedback practices and found that the teachers tended to underestimate the quantity of feedback which they provided on local issues (such as errors in mechanics and grammar) and overestimated the importance and the amount of feedback on global issues (e.g., ideas, content, and organisation of writing). Some participants also inaccurately estimated the written feedback strategy they used. Norouzian and Farahani (2012) surveyed EFL teachers (N=15) and found that teachers underestimated the amount of written feedback they provided.

In relation to the teachers' actual practice of providing feedback on L2 writing, some previous studies had reported that L2 teachers' beliefs about written feedback provision were sometimes inconsistent with their actual feedback practices (e.g., Hyland, 2011; Junqueira&Payant, 2015; Lee, 2009; Montgomery&Baker, 2007). Three main mismatches

highlighted in the previous studies on teacher feedback on L2 writing include mismatches between L2 teachers' actual feedback practices and their views about the feedback focus (e.g., Jodaie & Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2008, 2009, 2011; Norouzian & Farahani, 2012), priority in feedback provision (e.g., Lee, 2009; Montgomery&Baker, 2007),and type of feedback to provide (e.g., Lee, 2003a, 2003b, 2009; Norouzian&Farahani, 2012).

Previous studies on teacher's written feedback had also explored mismatches between L2 writing teachers' beliefs about feedback on L2 writing and their corresponding feedback practices, especially regarding the focus and type of feedback to provide. The first mismatch was between L2 writing teachers' beliefs about the focus of feedback (global or local writing problems) and their corresponding feedback practices. Two studies had reported that some L2 writing teachers provided written feedback on local writing problems even though they preferred feedback on global issues (Lee, 2009; Montgomery&Baker, 2007). Montgomery and Baker's (2007) study on ESL teachers in the US (N=15) showed that all the teachers self-assessed themselves as focusing more on global issues by providing some to a lot of written feedback on the organisation in the first draft. However, the analysis of the teachers' feedback showed that most of the ESL teachers (87%) provided very few or no comments on the organisation. In fact, they offered more feedback on local issues, such as grammatical errors. In the post-semester interview, the ESL teachers explained that they provided written feedback on local issues because they felt some of their students needed more feedback on grammatical errors. More recently, Lee (2009) also found a similar mismatch in L2 teachers' focus on language forms although they did not realise that they provided more written feedback than they thought. In the pre-semester interview, the ESL teachers stated that they preferred to focus on content and organisation rather than grammatical accuracy. However, the analysis of students' writing showed that teachers mostly targeted errors in language forms (94.1%) due to the school policy. Some teachers also stated that they focused more on

grammatical accuracy because they had to prepare their students for the state exam. Lee (2009) also found that the teachers believed that process writing was important and effective, but they only provided one-time feedback treatment due to time constraints and state exam preparation. Teachers also believed that the written feedback practice regulated by the school was not effective and the result did not match their efforts, but they kept correcting students' writings according to the school policy.

Some studies focusing on errors in language use reported that L2 teachers stated that they preferred to provide selective written feedback on some errors, but they actually corrected all errors in language use comprehensively (e.g., Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2008, 2009; Lee, 2011; Norouzian&Farahani, 2012). For example, Lee (2003b) surveyed ESL teachers in Hong Kong (N=206) and found that most teachers preferred selective written feedback, but the error correction task (N=174 texts) showed most ESL teachers provided comprehensive written feedback due to the school policy which required them to correct all errors. In contrast, Norouzian and Farahani (2012) found that 10 (out of 15) Iranian EFL teachers preferred comprehensive written feedback, but their written feedback on students' writing indicated that most teachers provided selective written feedback.

The second mismatch discovered by L2 scholars was the mismatch between L2 teachers' beliefs regarding types of feedback which they should provide (direct or indirect feedback) and their actual feedback practices (e.g., Lee, 2003b, 2009; Norouzian&Farahani, 2012). Lee (2003b, 2009) reported that the ESL teachers in her study disapproved of the use of indirect feedback (the use of codes) because they believed students did not have sufficient skills to understand the codes and that codes might not cover some complex syntactic errors. However, the analysis of teachers' written feedback showed that they kept providing indirect written feedback using codes. In a more recent study, Norouzian and Farahani (2012) found that the L2 teacher-participants (N=15) believed that they provided more indirect written

feedback on the students' writings, but the analysis of teachers' written feedback on students' writing showed that teachers used direct written feedback to correct most errors (73.3%).

Another topic widely researched by studies on teachers' beliefs about feedback on L2 writing was teacher's preference (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Guénette&Lyster, 2013; Hamouda, 2011; Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2004, 2011a; McMartin-Miller, 2014). Some studies reported that L2 writing teachers preferred comprehensive written feedback (e.g., Alshahrani and Storch, 2014; Jodaie and Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2004, 2011; McMartin-Miller, 2014) while some others reported that the L2 teachers in their study preferred selective written feedback (e.g., Guénette&Lyster, 2013; Hamouda, 2011). Jodaie and Farrokhi (2012) surveyed Iranian EFL teachers (N=30) and found that the majority of the teachers (56.7%) preferred comprehensive written feedback. On the contrary, Guénette and Lyster (2013) reported that most pre-service ESL teachers (n=14) in their study favoured selective feedback. Similar findings were reported by Hamouda (2011).

Regarding the teachers' preference for direct and indirect feedback, most studies in L2 writing reported that L2 teachers had a strong preference for direct written feedback (e.g., Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2003a). Lee's (2003a) survey of secondary school ESL teachers in Hong Kong revealed that most teachers favoured direct written feedback. Similarly, Jodaie and Farrokhi's (2012) survey (N=30) showed that most EFL teachers (70%) preferred direct written feedback because they thought that their L2 students could not self-correct their errors and that students positively valued the practices of providing direct written feedback.

Regarding L2 teachers' preference for the time to provide feedback, the findings were inconclusive (e.g., Hamouda, 2011; Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012). Jodaie and Farrokhi (2012) reported that the majority of Iranian EFL teachers (n=10) preferred to provide feedback on grammatical errors in the final draft, while Hamouda (2011) found that the majority of Saudi

EFL teachers (N=20) preferred providing feedback during drafting (n=12) or revising (n=14) stages.

Although extensive research had been carried out on teacher's beliefs about feedback on L2 writing, many studies have only focused on teacher's stated beliefs and neglected the relationship between L2 teachers' beliefs and their corresponding feedback practices. In addition, many studies on L2 teacher's beliefs had employed questionnaires (e.g., Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2003b), which generated interesting results, but might not provide deeper understanding about L2 teachers' stated beliefs.

2.6.1.2 Teachers' goals, desires, and expectation

Previous studies have investigated the influence of teachers' goals, desires, and expectation on their feedback practices (e.g., Ferris, 2014; Lee, 2008, 2011). Ferris (2014) interviewed ESL teachers (N=23) and revealed their written feedback practices were influenced by the desires to build students' confidence, to increase learning accountability, and to produce correct writing. Lee (2008) interviewed ESL teachers (N=6) and noted that in addition to teachers' beliefs about grammatical accuracy, teachers' written feedback practices were driven by their desires to appear hard-working for the sake of their staff appraisal, to set a good example for their students, and to satisfy students and parents' expectations. In another study drawing on the semi-structured interview design, Lee (2011) reported that many teachers expected that their commitment to providing comprehensive written feedback would stimulate their L2 students to put extra efforts in writing their essays. The teacher-participants also provided more direct written feedback (71.5%) because they wanted to help their students to produce correct writings instantly.

2.6.1.3 Teachers' teaching and learning experiences

The teachers' prior learning and teaching experiences also shaped L2 teachers' written feedback practices (e.g., Evans, Hartshorn,&Tuioiti, 2010; Guénette&Lyster, 2013; Junqueira&Payant, 2015; Lee, 2008).For example, Evans et al.'s (2010) online survey on L2 teachers (N=1023) indicated that L2 teachers rated their personal teaching experience (m=2.51) and their professional training (m=3.48) as the first and second most salient factors influencing their written feedback practices. Most pre-service tutors in Guénette and Lyster (2013) provided selective written feedback (57 out of 61 texts) after taking a grammar class that encouraged them to provide indirect, selective written feedback and to avoid providing too much feedback. Meanwhile, Lee (2008) reported that many L2 teacher-participants constantly used certain ineffective written feedback strategies because their prior training did not expose them to other written feedback strategies. Similar findings on the impact of teachers' experiences on their pedagogical practices had been reported by studies on teacher's cognition (e.g., Borg, 2003; Cumming, 1990; Sengupta&Xiao, 2002; Shi&Cumming, 1995) .

In short, previous studies indicated that L2 teachers' beliefs influence their feedback practices. Moreover, these studies also showed that the teachers' feedback practices could be inconsistent with their beliefs due to the change in the teachers' beliefs and/or the influence of various contextual factors. Borg (2003) suggested that social realities such as institutional policy and curriculum might influence how the teachers actualise their beliefs in teaching practices and these realities might cause inconsistencies between the teachers' beliefs and practices.

2.6.2 Contextual factors influencing L2 teachers' feedback provision

Some influential contextual factors which had been explored in the previous studies include school policies (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2008),educational culture (e.g., Lee, 2011),and students' L2 writing profiles (Jodaie &

Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2003b). In the following sections I describe some main contextual factors in L2 teachers' feedback practices.

2.6.2.1 Institutional policies

Institutional policies on feedback provision were the most salient contextual factor influencing teachers' written feedback practices in several L2 writing studies. Educational institutions might regulate policies on how feedback should be provided (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012).Jodaie and Farrokhi (2012) reported that all Iranian EFL teachers in their study (N=30) provided comprehensive written feedback due to the school policy. To support its written feedback policy, an education institution might assign a course coordinator (Alshahrani&Storch, 2014) or teacher panel (e.g., Lee, 2003a, 2004) to monitor and to supervise L2 teachers' written feedback practices. L2 teachers might receive a bad annual staff appraisal if they did not provide written feedback in the ways regulated by the university. Lee (2003b) found that the school policy did not allow teachers to use their preferred written feedback technique or to experiment with different written feedback strategies. Under strict school policy, L2 teachers became more concerned about their careers and afraid of receiving a bad evaluation (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Lee, 2003a, 2008). In some cases, the school policy might contradict L2 teachers' beliefs and cause mismatches between their beliefs regarding feedback and their written feedback practices (Lee, 2003a, 2009).

Some other recent studies reported that school policy was not the most influential factor shaping written feedback practices in their contexts (Evans et al., 2010; Guénette&Lyster, 2013). Evans et al. (2010) surveyed EFL teachers worldwide (N=1023) and found that the teachers rated the institutional policy as the least influential factor on their written feedback practices. Similarly, Guénette and Lyster (2013) also reported that although the institution required ESL teachers to take extra grammar classes which advised teachers

about using indirect written feedback, most ESL teachers (17 out of 18) kept providing direct written feedback due to students' lack of writing improvement. In that case, teachers' grammar training seems to be the more dominant factor influencing their written feedback practices. These findings implied that the extent to which the school policies influenced L2 teachers' written feedback practices might vary depending on the context of L2 teaching.

2.6.2.2 Educational culture

In addition to the school policy, teachers' written feedback practices might also be shaped by a particular educational culture. Lee (2011) interviewed ESL teachers in Hong Kong (N=26) and found that they provided comprehensive written feedback to help students to instantly produce a good text due to the limited available time and the state exam. The pressure of the state exam was high, and it forced ESL teachers to teach English for exam purpose rather than following the guidelines of the local education authority. Lee (2008) described the Hong Kong context of education as culturally exam-dominated, and therefore, there was a tendency to view a school's reputation from its students' performance in exams.

2.6.2.3 Other contextual factors

Various other contextual factors had been reported to shape teachers' written feedback practices, such as students' L2 writing profiles (i.e. writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation) (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2003a), research and publication on a discipline related to language teaching (Evans et al., 2010; McMartin-Miller 2014), other teachers' experience, ideas, and suggestions (McMartin-Miller, 2014), and time constraints (Evans et al., 2010; Guénette&Lyster, 2013; Lee, 2003a). Evans et al. (2010) reported that many L2 teachers (n=426) provided written feedback because their students expect and need it. Similarly, Lee (2003b) identified students' expectation (68%) as the second most influential factor influencing L2 teachers' choice of direct written feedback (N=206). The effect of research on written feedback emerged in Evans et al.'s (2010) study

which reported that previous research and conferences was the third most influential factor influencing teachers' written feedback ($m=3.91$). They also found that some L2 teachers did not provide written feedback because they read articles written by Truscott who opposed written feedback and were convinced by his ideas.

Several previous studies had reported that students' L2 writing profiles influenced the teachers' feedback provision (e.g., Ferris et al., 1997; Hyland&Hyland, 2006). Ferris et al. (1997) reported that the students' proficiency development influenced the teacher's ($N=1$) feedback approach and Ferris, Brown, Eugenia,&Stine (2011) discovered that the students' needs shaped most teachers' feedback approach. Hyland and Hyland (2006) reported that the teachers considered the students' writing problems, writing needs and responses to the previous feedback.

The summary above showed that there had been a growing body of research on teacher feedback on L2 writing. Many studies have not been informed by L2 learning theories (theoretically motivated) to validate their claims (Bitchener&Storch, 2016; Polio, 2012). Thus, the following section discusses what the theories of L2 learning have contributed to the understanding of teacher feedback on L2 writing.

2.7 Theoretical perspectives on teacher feedback on L2 writing

SLA researchers were interested in how individuals acquired and learned an additional language. Accordingly, researchers were interested in understanding ways to assist second language learning, and feedback was a major form of assistance when it comes to addressing students' writing problems. In the field of L2 writing, various theoretical perspectives have been used to underpin the issues on the potential of written feedback in facilitating L2 development, the teachers' feedback practices, and factors that might shape the

teachers' feedback. In the following sections, I briefly discuss cognitive and sociocultural theories which are relevant to the analysis of teacher feedback on L2 writing.

2.7.1 Early perspective: Behaviourist perspectives

The behaviourist perspective, popular in language learning in the 1950s and 1960s, considered that learning occurred when students had a chance to give correct responses to a stimulus; errors were intolerable interferences from the student's first language (L1) which should be prevented; and feedback should be provided when students made errors (see e.g., Bitchener&Storch, 2012). However, behaviourists focused more on preventing students from making errors rather than treating them (see Brooks, 1960). The focus of behaviouristic research in L2 writing was to identify the source of potential errors, including contrastive analysis and error analysis. Two main approaches adopted within behaviourist perspectives were audio-lingual approach and contrastive analysis. Audio-lingual approach involved asking L2 students to spend hours memorising dialogues, manipulating patterns, and studying many grammatical generalizations to help L2 students produce error-free statements (Brooks, 1960). Another popular approach to error correction was contrastive analysis (CA), which assumed that students' first language (L1) negative transfer was the main cause of their L2 writing problems. Thus, there was a need to identify differences between L1 and L2 features to avoid negative transfer.

2.7.2 Cognitive perspectives on teacher feedback on L2 writing

A considerable body of L2 studies had adopted cognitive perspectives of SLA to explore L2 teacher's written and oral feedback. The literature indicated some cognitive theories which have been employed in written feedback studies, including information processing (e.g., Anderson, 1983, 1985; McLaughlin, 1987, 1990) and interactionist theories (e.g., Long, 1996, 2017). Empirical studies drew on these cognitive theories to investigate oral feedback, particularly using output hypothesis (e.g., Henshaw, 2013; Swain, 1985,

1995), interaction hypothesis (e.g., Bowles, 2011; Gor&Long, 2009; Long, 1983, 1996, 2017), and noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1994, 2001).

The information processing theories emerged in 1970s in the field of psychology as a reaction to behaviourists' stimulus-response model of human cognition. Information processing theorists proposed three main assumptions regarding human cognition in SLA: (a) human cognition was made of representation (knowledge) and access (processing), (b) mental processing consists of automatic/fluent (unconscious) and voluntary/controlled (conscious) processes, and (c) cognitive resources (e.g., attention and memory) were limited (Ortega, 2013). Information processing theorists differentiated between representation (knowledge) and access (processing). New L2 knowledge (i.e. grammatical, lexical, and schematic knowledge) was stored in the mind and had to be accessed every time it was needed for use in production or comprehension (Ortega, 2013). Using library as an analogy, representation (knowledge) was the act of knowing the content of a library, such as books and their classification, while access (processing) was the act of collecting information from the books at a particular time (Bialystok&Sharwood Smith, 1985). Access involved the use of relevant knowledge using controlled and automatic processing mechanisms. Using car as an analogy, voluntary/controlled process could be thought of as a standard, manual car which required the driver to perform a manual operation of changing gears, while automatic/fluent process was shown in the operation of automatic car which did not require the driver's deliberate intervention to shift gears (e.g., Segalowitz, 2003/2012; Ortega, 2013). Automatic processes required small effort and few cognitive resources, so several automatic processing routines might run in parallel. Conversely, controlled processes allowed one to set out to control behaviour intentionally (self-regulation), but these processes required more effort and cognitive resources, thus they could not operate in parallel. When one performed something using controlled processing, s/he needed to suppress the rest of processing because only

certain process would be prioritised and the rest would be in the queue (limited capacity model) (Ortega, 2013).

Three models of information processing (i.e. Anderson, 1983, 1985; McLaughlin, 1987, 1990; Pienemann, 1987, 1989, 1998) could be used to explain the role of feedback in facilitating the transformation of declarative knowledge into automatized process in L2 learning. McLaughlin's (1987, 1990) information processing model suggested that L2 students first employed 'controlled processing' which involved temporarily activating selected information in the memory. This processing required much attentional control and was limited to short-term memory. It could transform into 'automatic processing' through repeated activation so that information could be stored in the long-term memory (LTM) and accessed rapidly with minimal attentional control. Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought (ACT) model (1993) had a similar idea: that 'declarative knowledge' (knowledge 'that', which was similar to controlled processing), could transform into the automatized 'procedural knowledge' (knowledge 'how') through much practice. Both McLaughlin and Anderson suggested that L2 learning and acquisition occur when the controlled processing of declarative knowledge was transformed into automatized procedural knowledge because of practice (activation). When students received input (explicit instructions) and feedback, the controlled processing stage occurs. However, Pienemann (1987, 1989, 1998)'s processability and teachability theories also underline that the input and feedback should be given on grammatical features which students were able and ready to acquire (Bitchener&Ferris, 2012, p. 15), also known in sociocultural theory as zone proximal development (ZPD).

Cognitive-interactionists stressed that corrective feedback (CF) might contribute to L2 learning and acquisition if learners focused mostly on meaning, making errors, and then receiving corrective feedback (Ellis&Shintani, 2014, p. 259). Providing correction while students communicate might activate their cognitive mechanisms, and thus might enhance

their interlanguage development. From this perspective, CF facilitates L2 learning and acquisition processes by: (a) giving learners positive evidence of target language forms (in the form of recasts) or (b) prompting learners to self-correct their errors (in the form of prompts) (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). However, the effectiveness of both recasts and prompts were not conclusive yet. Goo and Mackey (2013) and Long (2006) suggested that using recasts were more effective to L2 acquisition than providing prompts because recasts provide both positive and negative evidences, while Lyster (2004) argued that prompting learners to self-correct was more effective because it helped learners to gain more control over linguistic features which they acquired. Ellis and Shintani (2014) argued that both recasts and prompts were facilitative but in different ways and it was possible to combine both as in corrective recasts (see e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998). Cognitive-interactionist perspectives focused more on the role of oral interaction and negotiation between students and their interlocutors (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012), as well as oral corrective feedback in the SLA process, and was thus less relevant to written feedback.

Cognitive perspectives had also been used to explore teacher oral feedback in L2 teaching. Two main assumptions informed by cognitive-based empirical studies were: (a) that L2 was viewed as an individual student's internalised process of learning and (b) that oral feedback was viewed as instructional input intended to help students to revise their linguistic errors (by processing the feedback) (Yu, Wang, & Teo, 2018). Oral feedback was also regarded as a form of negative evidence which contains explicit or implicit information about L2 learners' linguistic errors (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Thus, oral feedback was important because it gave students opportunities (a) to improve student's L2 acquisition by providing targeted input (Lyster, 1998) and to notice gaps between their interlanguage and the target input in the feedback (Mackey, 2006).

Researchers had used the cognitive theory to explain how the teachers provide feedback, but they had not examined how L2 teachers translated their thought into action (feedback provision) and what reasons underlied their action in much detail. Moreover, cognitivists assumed that the phenomenon of feedback provision occurred in the teachers' minds, but the existing empirical studies have suggested that various contextual and sociocultural factors shape and influence the teacher's feedback practices (see Section 2.6 on factors influencing teachers' feedback practices). The use of Activity Theory framework might help to explore these contextual and socioculturally mediated factors. Moreover, exploration on L2 teachers' feedback practices using Activity Theory, as discussed in the following section, might enhance our understanding of teacher feedback on L2 writing.

2.7.3 Cognitively informed studies on teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing

Over the past three decades, most theoretically-motivated studies on teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing have utilised cognitive perspectives. The main focus of these studies are on (a) the contribution of written feedback on students' L2 writing accuracy (see section 2.3.1 **The contribution of teachers' written feedback on students' L2 development**), (b) the efficacy of various different types of teachers' feedback, and (c) the effects of individual and contextual factors on teachers' written feedback (see section 2.6 **Empirical studies on factors influencing teachers' feedback practices**).

The largest body of research on teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing since the 1990s has focused on the short-term and long-term efficacy of different types of written corrective feedback (WCF) in improving students' accuracy in L2 writing (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a, 2008b, 2010a, 2010b; Bitchener & Storch, 2016; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2006; Ferris & Kurzer, 2019). This interest stemmed from L2 teachers' pedagogical motivation to find the most effective type of WCF. Two most frequent questions explored in those studies are: (a) the effectiveness of providing direct feedback versus indirect feedback

(discussed in section 2.7.3.1), and (b) the effectiveness of providing focused (selective) against unfocused (comprehensive) written feedback (discussed in section 2.7.3.2).

2.7.3.1 The efficacy of providing direct vs. indirect corrective feedback

The third topic explored in the previous studies was the relative effectiveness of providing direct feedback versus indirect feedback. Direct feedback refers to providing direct error correction on student's error(s) by supplying the correct forms, while indirect feedback refers to indicating a student's location or type of error without correcting it (see e.g., Ellis, 2009). In utilising indirect feedback, the teacher only provides implicit clues on the nature and cause of error, or ways to revise it by underlining the error, using colour, codes/symbols, or notes in the document's margin.

Studies which compared the efficacy of various direct feedback and indirect feedback have reported mixed findings: (a) some studies reported that direct feedback was more effective than indirect feedback (e.g., Chandler, 2003; Van Beuningen et al., 2008); (b) some studies found that providing indirect feedback was more effective than providing direct feedback (e.g., Ferris, 2006; Ferris&Kurzer, 2019; Lalande, 1982); (c) some studies reported that both feedback types were effective but on different aspects of writing (e.g., Van Beuningen et al., 2012); and (d) some other studies reported no significant differences between both feedback types (e.g., Ferris&Roberts, 2001; Robb, Ross,&Shortreed, 1986; Semke, 1984). Table 2.1 below summarises some studies comparing the efficacy of direct and indirect feedback.

Table 2. 1: Some studies comparing the efficacy of direct and indirect feedback

Main findings	Examples of studies
1. Direct feedback is more effective than	Chandler (2003), Van Beuningen et al. (2008)

indirect feedback	
2. Indirect feedback is more effective than direct feedback	Ferris (2006), Ferris&Kurzer (2019), Lalande (1982)
3. Both types are effective but on different aspects of writing	Van Beuningen et al. (2012)
4. No significant differences between direct and indirect feedback strategies	Ferris&Roberts (2001), Robb et al. (1986), Semke (1984)

Findings from these studies are still inconclusive due to some methodological issues (see e.g., Bitchener&Storch, 2016; Gu  nette, 2007). One main issue which Gu  nette (2007) noted was that different treatments received by groups in these studies might influence the findings. Van Beuningen et al. (2012) managed to minimise the methodological issues in their research design. Van Beuningen et al. (2012) compared four groups of ESL students receiving four types of treatments: (a) direct feedback/error correction, (b) indirect feedback, (c) self-correction, and (d) writing practices. They found that direct feedback was more effective for treating grammatical errors, while indirect feedback was more effective for treating non-grammatical errors.

Regarding the reported efficacy of direct feedback above, some studies have examined the efficacy of direct error correction/feedback compared to some more explicit feedback types on certain linguistic forms (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener&Knoch, 2008, 2010a; Bitchener et al., 2005; Sheen, 2007; Stefanou, 2014). Most studies reported no significant differences between direct feedback compared with direct feedback + other explicit feedback (e.g., Bitchener&Knoch, 2008, 2010a; Sheen, 2007; Stefanou, 2014; Stefanou&Revesz, 2015), while some other studies reported that direct feedback + more

explicit feedback was more effective than direct feedback (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005; Bitchener, 2008). Table 2.2 below summarises some studies comparing the efficacy of direct feedback and more explicit feedback types.

Table 2. 2: Some studies comparing the efficacy of direct feedback and more explicit feedback

Main findings	Examples of studies
1. No differences between direct error correction and direct error correction + more explicit feedback	Bitchener and Knoch (2008, 2010a), Sheen (2007), Stefanou (2014), Stefanou and Revesz (2015)
2. direct error correction + more explicit feedback was more effective than direct error correction	Bitchener et al. (2005), Bitchener (2008)

For example, Bitchener (2008) conducted a study comparing three types of treatments: (a) direct error correction only, (b) direct error correction + written metalinguistic feedback, (c) direct error correction + oral + written metalinguistic feedback in targeting two article errors (N=75). Bitchener (2008) found that (a) direct error correction combined with written and oral metalinguistic feedback, and (b) direct error correction only groups outperformed (c) direct error correction + written metalinguistic feedback group. However, in the subsequent study using the same research design but involving a larger sample size (N=144 low intermediate ESL students), Bitchener and Knoch (2008) found no significant differences between the three groups, which seemed to be linked to the big sample size. Regarding the inconsistent findings in the above studies, Bitchener and Storch (2016) suggested that separating feedback approaches (i.e. separating direct error correction and

metalinguistic feedback) might yield more consistent findings, as has been explored by some recent studies (e.g., Bitchener&Knoch, 2010b; Guo, 2015; Shintani et al., 2014).

Studies comparing the efficacy of different feedback types (direct feedback, indirect feedback, metalinguistic feedback, combination of direct feedback + metalinguistic feedback, and no revision) reported mixed findings, as summarised in Table 2.3.

Table 2. 3: Some studies comparing the efficacy of direct feedback, metalinguistic feedback, and combination of both

Main findings	Examples of studies
1. No difference between metalinguistic feedback and indirect feedback in an immediate post-test, but metalinguistic feedback was more effective than indirect feedback and no feedback in a delayed post-test.	Bitchener and Knoch (2010b)
2. All metalinguistic and direct error correction groups were more effective than indirect feedback., but no differences between both	Guo (2015)
3. metalinguistic feedback was more effective than direct error correction in an immediate post-test	Shintani and Ellis (2013)
4. direct error correction was more effective than metalinguistic feedback in	Shintani et al. (2014)

a delayed post-test	
5. Direct feedback was more effective than metalinguistic feedback in Kuwaiti groups, but not in Laos groups.	Rummel (2014)

The inconclusive findings could be seen, for example, in Shintani and Ellis' (2013) and Shintani et al.'s (2014) studies. Shintani and Ellis (2013) investigated the effect of direct error correction, metalinguistic feedback, and no revision in targeting indefinite article (N=49 intermediate ESL students). They found that metalinguistic feedback group outperformed direct error correction and control groups in an immediate post-test, but no difference between metalinguistic and direct error correction in a delayed post-test conducted two weeks after. Interestingly, in a larger, subsequent study examining direct feedback, metalinguistic feedback, and combinations of both in targeting indefinite article and hypothetical condition (N=214 Japanese EFL), Shintani et al. (2014) found that direct error correction group outperformed metalinguistic feedback groups in the delayed post-test.

These different outcomes seemed to suggest that the efficiency of various types of WCF were influenced by a range of factors. Future research should attempt to investigate variables which interact and mediate teachers' feedback practices (e.g., Bitchener & Storch, 2016).

2.7.3.2 The efficacy of providing focused (selective) vs. unfocused (comprehensive) written feedback

In addition to investigation on various types of WCF, previous studies have focused on the efficacy of providing focused (selective) and unfocused (comprehensive) corrective feedback. These studies can be classified into three research categories: (a) studies

investigating the effectiveness of providing focused feedback, (b) studies investigating the effectiveness of providing unfocused feedback, and (c) studies comparing the effectiveness of providing focused and unfocused feedback. Many recent WCF studies have paid attention to the efficacy of focused (selective) feedback (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005; Bitchener&Knoch, 2010a, 2010b; Shintani et al., 2014; Stefanou&Revesz, 2015). Four early studies on teachers' WCF on students' L2 writing (Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992) and some recent ones (e.g., Karim&Nassaji, 2018; Truscott&Hsu, 2008; Van Beuningen et al., 2008, 2012) have investigated the efficacy of L2 teachers' unfocused (comprehensive) feedback. Other recent studies have examined the efficacy of teachers' unfocused feedback or compared focused and unfocused feedback (e.g., Ellis, Sheen, Murakami,&Takashima, 2008).

The recent focused WCF studies mostly have investigated teachers' focused WCF on four main linguistic forms, including errors in articles, past and present perfect tenses, prepositions, and conditionals, as summarised in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2. 4: Previous studies investigating focused WCF

Focused feedback	Examples of studies
Definite article, past tense, and preposition	Bitchener et al. (2005)
Indefinite article and definite article	Bitchener (2008),Bitchener and Knoch (2008, 2009a, 2010a, 2010b),Ekiert&Di Gennaro (2019),Sheen (2007)
Indefinite article	Shintani and Ellis (2013)
Indefinite article and hypothetical conditional	Shintani et al. (2014)
Articles with specific and generic plural references	Stefanou (2014); Stefanou and Revesz (2015)
Past tense and present perfect tenses	Rummel (2014)
Past tense and prepositions	Guo (2015)

All of the above studies suggested that focused feedback contributed to students' increased accuracy in the targeted forms. However, Ekiert&Di Gennaro (2019),replicating Bitchener and Knoch's (2010b) study, found that focused WCF contributed to students' increased accuracy in the targeted linguistic forms, but it might also negatively affect the non-targeted articles, particularly for students in written + oral metalinguistic feedback group.

Studies exploring unfocused WCF have indicated inconclusive findings. Three recent studies (Karim&Nassaji, 2018; Van Beuningen et al., 2008, 2012) have reported that unfocused WCF was effective to improve students' writing accuracy, but Truscott and Hsu(2008) and four early studies (Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard,

1992) suggested that unfocused feedback was ineffective in facilitating students' L2 development. However, some scholars (e.g., Bitchener&Ferris, 2012; Bitchener&Storch, 2016; Storch, 2010) have criticised Truscott and Hsu's (2008) parameter and the other early studies' methodological issues.

Regarding both feedback types, focused feedback is believed by some scholars to be more effective than unfocused feedback because focused feedback could direct learners' attention to the selected linguistic forms more effectively (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Ellis et al., 2008; Nassaji, 2015; Sheen, 2007; Sheen, Wright,& Moldawa, 2009).However, unfocused feedback is considered to have more ecological validity because,in reality, L2 writing teachers tend to correct many types of error at a time (e.g., Ferris, 2010; Karim&Nassaji, 2018).

Some empirical studies have attempted to compare the efficacy between focused and unfocused feedback (Ellis et al., 2008; Farrokhi&Sattarpour, 2011; Frear&Chiu, 2015; Karim&Nassaji, 2018; Saeb, 2014; Sheen et al., 2009). Four studies reported that both focused and unfocused feedback were equally effective, while another study reported that focused feedback was more effective than unfocused feedback (Farrokhi&Sattarpour, 2011). For example, Frear and Chiu (2015) compared the efficacy of focused feedback on a few grammatical errors and unfocused feedback on all errors (N=42). They found that both focused and unfocused WCF were equally effective. On the other hand, Farrokhi and Sattarpour (2011) compared focused feedback on article errors, unfocused feedback on all grammatical errors, and no feedback (N=60). They found that the focused feedback group outperformed the two other groups in the accuracy of English articles. Since the number of studies comparing focused and unfocused feedback is quite small, more studies are needed to derive a meaningful conclusion.

2.7.4 Sociocultural Theory (SCT) and Activity Theory (AT) perspectives on teachers' feedback on L2 writing

The literature indicated conflicting findings and theoretical disagreements regarding the role of feedback in second language acquisition and learning among various theoretical sources (e.g., Ferris, 2010). For example, SLA researchers put emphasis on consistent experimental research designs and strong control groups in feedback studies (e.g., Truscott, 1996, 2007; Bitchener, 2008), while L2 writing researchers stressed ways to transfer the findings to naturalistic, educational L2 writing settings due to huge gaps between theory and practice in real life (e.g., Lee, 2014). Many SLA-based feedback studies were criticised for not taking into account contextual factors which might influence L2 teachers' feedback practices, such as context (e.g., Hyland & Hyland, 2006, 2019; Lee, 2008), social history, and teacher's and student's individual differences (educational backgrounds, language proficiency, motivations, and beliefs) (Evans et al., 2010; Ferris, 2010, 2014; Goldstein, 2005, 2006; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010, 2014, 2016; Hyland & Hyland, 2019). Thus, many L2 scholars called for more investigations into the role contextual factors in teacher feedback practice (e.g., Ferris, 2010, 2013; Goldstein, 2005, 2006; Hyland & Hyland, 2019). Contextual factors here refers to “a unique combination of factors stemming from the institution and the program within which the writing, commenting, and revision takes place, and factors that teachers and students bring to the process, as well” (Goldstein 2004, p. 65).

One of the alternative theoretical framework which had great potential to discuss these underexplored contextual factors in teaching and learning was sociocultural theory (SCT), a perspective on mental development and functions developed by Vygotsky (1978, 1986) and other scholars (e.g., Engeström, 1987, 2001, 2016; Frawley & Lantolf, 1985; Leont'ev, 1978, 1981). Sociocultural perspectives had great potential to address the role of these important, yet underexplored, contextual variables in L2 teachers' feedback practices.

Several studies on teacher feedback on L2 writing in 1990s and 2000s had employed sociocultural theory (SCT) paradigms to fill in the research gaps and to resolve the conflicting findings regarding the context of teaching and learning (e.g., Aljaafreh&Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf&Pavlenko, 1995; Swain, 1997; Villamil&De Guerrero, 2019).

One of Vygotskian sociocultural theory branches which I considered very relevant to explore teacher feedback on L2 writing in this study was Activity Theory (AT) (see Engeström, 1987, 2001, 2016). The following sub-sections described the key concepts and the development of Activity Theory from Vygotsky's sociocultural and activity theories, Leont'ev's second generation of Activity Theory, and Engeström's third generation of Activity Theory.

2.7.4.1 Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and the first generation of activity theory

Lev Vygotsky (1978, 1981) developed the basis of sociocultural theory (SCT) as a response to behaviourism which focused on the relationships between stimuli and responses. Several notions of SCT were beneficial for the analysis of teacher feedback, including the notions of cultural embeddedness, developmental change, internalisation, ZPD, and mediation.

The first main idea of SCT was that the subjects' mental abilities were shaped by the socio-cultural and historical context in which they live in and the ways the subjects interact with others (cultural embeddedness). Vygotsky, for instance, believed that parents, relatives, peers and society all had an essential role in developing higher levels of cognitive capacities in novices (e.g., students or children). SCT supporters viewed learning differently from cognitivists. Cognitivists regarded contextual factors as variables influencing learners' cognitive processes, while SCT supporters considered sociocultural elements as essential parts of cognition and learning (Villamil&De Guerrero, 2019).

The next important concepts were developmental change and internalisation. Vygotsky (1978) regarded social interaction played a key role in human's development of cognition. To understand human mental development, one needed to concentrate on the process of human development/change (Vygotsky, 1978, pp. 64-65). Focusing on child's development, Vygotsky (1978) suggested that all functions in a child's cultural and psychological development (including higher forms of thinking and ability to perform particular complex skills) originate in the social level between people (i.e. in the environment and social interaction; also called interpsychological) and then internalised in the individual level inside the child (intrapsychological) through an internalisation process (Salomon&Perkins, 1998; Vygotsky, 1978). Human mental development was generated by human's active engagement in social activities, not from his/her internal cognitive functions (Davydov, 1999). This SCT view on the role of social interaction and the internalisation process in the human's psychological and cultural development contrasted with interactionists' perspectives on learning. Interactionists regarded social interaction as a means for learners to exchange information with their partners or to modify input. In addition, learners could benefit from social interaction, but they could process information collected from social interaction separately (Villamil&De Guerrero, 2019).

Vygotsky (1978) suggested that an optimal scenario for development and internalisation was the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which he defined as “ the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). In the ZPD, areas which were sensitive to development and “ functions that had not yet matured but were in the process of maturation” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86) could potentially be developed through the mediation by others (Villamil&De Guerrero, 2019). To conceptualise the

development within ZPD, Wertsch (1981) proposed that a student developed from other-regulation (performing with assistance from others) to complete self-regulation (self-performing without assistance from others) through an internalisation process from inter-psychological to intra-psychological activity. The self-regulation was achieved when a student could control external actions and solve problems in the course of ZPD interactions (Villamil&De Guerrero, 2019). This assistance in the ZPD is also termed as scaffolding, which refers to help, fine tuning, and encouragement between a more capable expert and a less capable novice to help the novice (a) mastering a new skill or knowledge, (b) completing a task, and (c) moving from other-regulation to self-regulation (e.g., Gibbons, 2014; Storch, 2002b, 2005; Valentín-Rivera, 2016). Scaffolding was not a random support. It was negotiated within the student's ZPD and jointly constructed by the novice student and the expert teacher/peer based on the student's developmental ability and needs (Nassaji&Swain, 2000).

Vygotsky's idea on ZPD, internalisation of other-regulation to self-regulation, and negotiation could be illustrated through written and oral feedback. Nassaji (2007) gave an example of a negotiated feedback using graduated feedback. The student participants wrote weekly journals. The teacher reviewed students' journals, identified samples of common erroneous utterances, and then discussed those errors with the student in the follow-up oral feedback session. The teacher frequently used negotiated, graduated feedback by first providing indirect help/scaffolding on the feedback episodes, and then gradually using more direct help as needed.

From SCT perspective, oral feedback and writing conferences were considered as dialogue processes where a novice student interacted and collaborated with another expert teacher or peer during social interactions (Aljaafreh&Lantolf, 1994; Poehner, 2008; Sheen&Ellis, 2011). Such cooperative dialogue might facilitate student's learning by moving

them from other-regulation to self-regulation (Yu et al., 2018). In addition, an expert teacher or peer could provide additional interactive assistance by giving oral scaffolding (Weissberg, 2006), as well as suggestions and questions (Poehner&Lantolf, 2005) in oral conference or writing conferences.

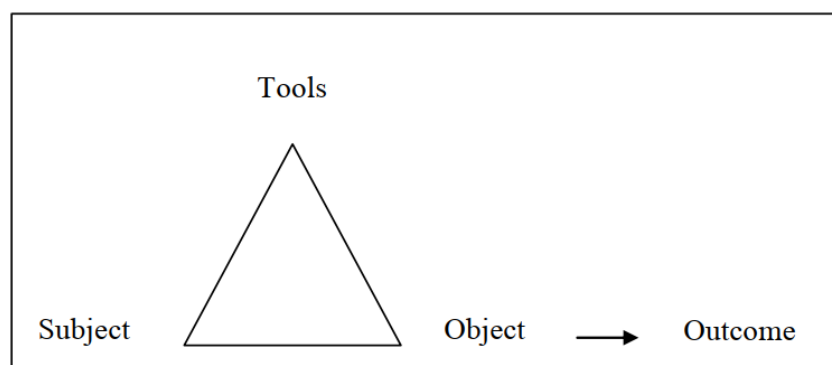
The idea of ZPD supported the importance of negotiation in language learning: when students cooperated/collaborated within their ZPD, they could use their existing linguistic knowledge to learn independently what they had not understood (e.g., Donato, 1994; Lantolf&Appel, 1994; Lantolf&Thorne, 2006; Nassaji&Cumming, 2000; Nassaji&Swain, 2000). Language learning could be considered as a socially mediated process through face-to-face and cooperative interaction processes, such as discussion and scaffolding (Mitchell&Myles, 2004; Nassaji, 2017). It was suggested that the student's and the teacher's cooperative participation and meaningful negotiations could make teacher feedback more effective (Nassaji&Swain, 2000) and thus could advance the students' interlanguage development (Aljaafreh&Lantolf, 1994). Additionally, by providing feedback using negotiation, teachers could map students' developmental level (ZPD) and provide feedback which suited students' current language level (Nassaji, 2017; Nassaji&Cumming, 2000)

Another important SCT concept proposed by Vygotsky was the idea of mediation: that the subject's internalisation process could be mediated using tools/artifacts/signs (mediation by artifacts) (Villamil&De Guerrero, 2019; Vygotsky, 1978). Mediation by artifacts could be seen, for example, in the use of language, tasks, and technology (e.g., internet and computer) in English teaching. Following sociocultural perspective, feedback in the writing class could be viewed as a form of mediation (Lee, 2017). The relationships between human and the world were mediated by material and symbolic tools. Lantolf (2000) added two other forms of mediation: mediation by others and mediation by the self.

Mediation by more knowledgeable others was shown, for instance, feedback provided by the teacher (e.g., written feedback, oral feedback, scaffolding) and more expert peer. Mediation by the self (self-mediation) could also be performed through a private speech.

Vygotsky (1978) was particularly interested in the use of mediation by artifacts to analyse human actions. According to Vygotsky, a human's action was constructed from a subject (an actor), an object (i.e. an entity or a goal), and mediational tools (artifacts). Tools could be a material tool (e.g., computer, pen, and paper) or conceptual tool (e.g., first/second language, feedback types, and graduated oral prompts). For instance, in the context of the L2 classroom, teachers were subjects who provide feedback on the students' writing (action) for a particular purpose, such as improving students' L2 writing ability (objects) and achieve the outcome. To achieve this goal, the subject's activity was mediated by material/physical tools (e.g., computer software) and symbolic/conceptual tools (e.g., L1 use). Figure 2.1 shows Vygotsky's model of artifact-mediated action; the subjects used tools/artifacts to achieve their objects.

Figure 2. 1: Vygotsky's model of artifact-mediated action



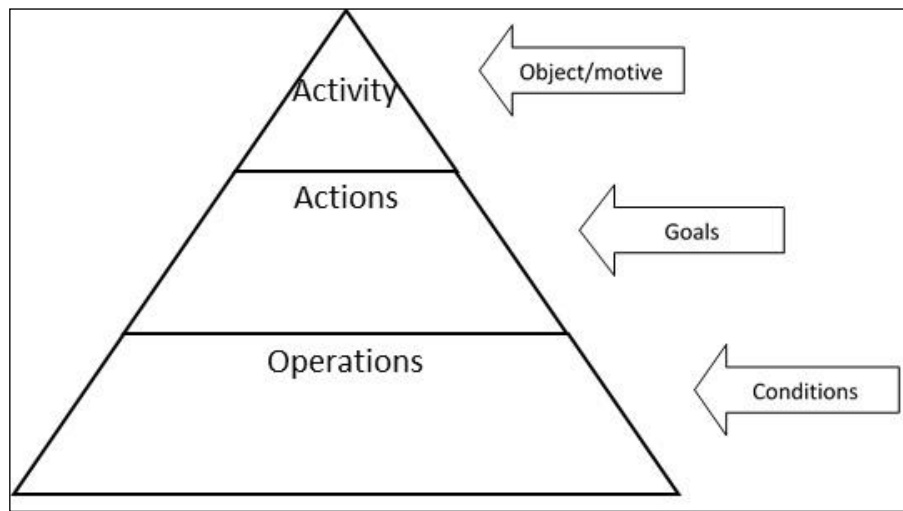
2.7.4.2 Leont'ev's second generation of activity theory

Leont'ev (1978, 1981) expanded Vygotsky's ideas of socially-mediated actions into the second generation of activity theory. The idea of activity theory revolved on activity,

which activity theorists define as “ a form of doing directed to an object” which was motivated by a need to transform an ‘object’ into an ‘outcome’ and was mediated by artifacts (Kuutti, 1996, p. 27). According to Leont’ev (1978), an activity (in activity theory) was always specific; each activity responded to a definite need of the subject and it was directed toward an object of this need. To distinguish one activity from another, one needed to understand the object (motive) of the activity which gave a direction to the activity it directs.

Leont’ev (1978, 1981) further distinguished between three interconnected, observable behaviours of ‘activities’, ‘actions’, and ‘operations’, which corresponded with the non-observable terms of ‘motive’, ‘goal’, and ‘conditions’. These three levels were connected hierarchically, as shown in Figure 2.2. Leont’ev (1978) wrote that activities, on the highest level, were cultural practices and behaviours that were directed towards the objects (motives) to fulfil the subjects’ needs, such as providing feedback on students’ written works. Activity was directed by the desire to transform the object into the outcome. The objects (motives) also distinguish one activity from another (Leont’ev, 1978). The objects (motives) of activity were often intangible but could be identified through the concrete actions which constitute the activity. Actions were conscious behaviours carried out by the subjects to achieve a goal (the purposes of the individual’s action) and were mediated by the tools. A series of operations, on the third level, were unconscious, automatic movements or means used to accomplish an action. Operations were associated and shaped by the specific conditions in the context. Figure 2.2, adopted from Bitchener and Storch (2016), illustrates the relationship between activity, actions, and operations within Activity Theory.

Figure 2. 2: Leont'ev's (1978, 1981) second generation of Activity Theory



Leont'ev gave an example of the relation between activity, action, and operation using hunting and sport hunting activities. The actions and operations in both activities could be the same (catching animals, making noise). However, the hunting activity was directed by the hunters' need for food, while the sport hunting activity was motivated by the sport hunters' need for pleasure. Thus, Leont'ev suggested that a human's behaviour could be an action or operation depending on the subject's goal and conditions which surround the activity (Leont'ev, 1978, 1981).

To illustrate the model in a context of feedback on writing, the entire activity of feedback provision included the teachers (subjects) whose action was providing written using computer software (mediation-by-artifact action). When the teachers had performed this action several times, this action became internalised and became more automatic and unconscious. This action eventually lost more of its intentionality and transformed into an operation. These three levels of activity-action-operation allowed one situation (e.g., teacher feedback) to be analysed from different perspectives (Wertsch, 1981).

2.7.4.3 Engeström's third generation of Activity Theory

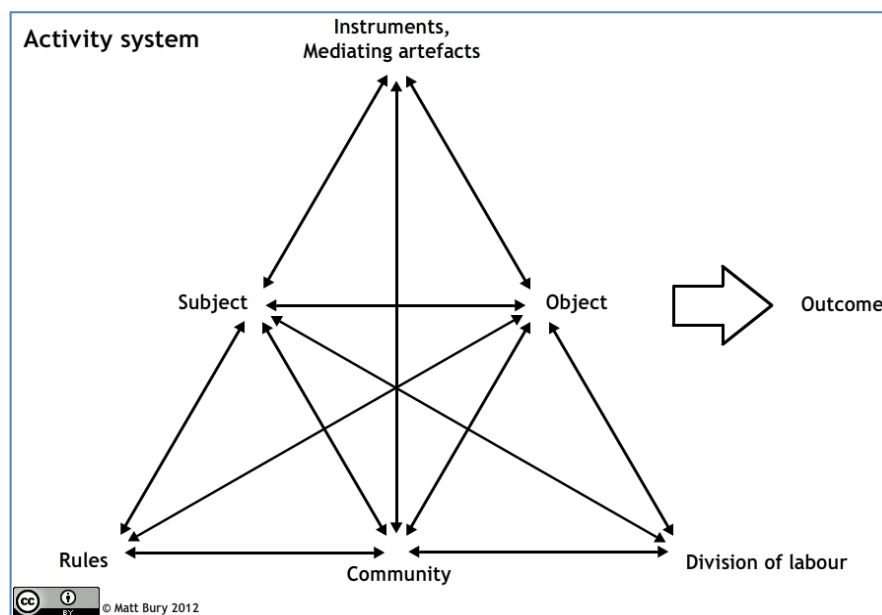
Even though Leont'ev has elaborated the relationship between activity, action, and operation in his model of Activity Theory, he has not explained how an activity was embedded in its context (Wells, 1999). His three-level structure did not accommodate the systemic relations between the subjects and their community in a social activity. To overcome these limitations, Engeström (1987) expanded Vygotsky's concepts and developed a framework which situated the human activity in its dynamically interacting community. He expanded the unit of analysis from an individual's activity (Leont'ev, 1978) toward a multifaceted notion of activity system.

Engeström (1987, 2001) considered that the object-oriented human activities take place in an activity system which consists of six components, including subject, object, mediating artifacts/tools, rules, community, and division of labour (see Figure 2.1). The top part of Engeström's activity system was identical to Vygotsky's socially mediated action. The subject of the activity system, usually a collective one, is the individual that performs the activity and whose agency is selected as the point of view (Engeström, 1993). The subject works towards some tangible or intangible objects, raw material, or problem space at which the activity was directed towards (object-relatedness) to transform them into some outcomes (Engeström, 1993). The object gave reasons for the subject to take part in the activity. The artifacts (tools/signs) were the culturally-historically developed mediating instruments which shape the activity and were used by the subjects to achieve the outcomes.

To demonstrate the collective nature of human activity and cognition, Engeström (1987, 1999) added three socio-historical aspects of mediation in the bottom part of the activity system: rules, community, and division of labour (see Figure 2.1). Rules are formal and informal, implicit and explicit regulations, norms, or conventions which guide or constrain the subject's actions and interaction with other community members in the activity

system (Engeström, 1993). The community refers to people, individuals, or social group that share the same object and to which the subject belongs while performing the activity. The division of labour refers to how roles and responsibilities were distributed horizontally among community members and vertically with respect to status and power (Engeström, 1993, 1996). These components of the activity system were tied with the subjects' shared objects (motives), which were realised in the goal-oriented actions (Hasu&Engeström, 2000, p. 63). The addition of rules, community, and division of labour not only demonstrates the social basis of human activity but also provides a more detailed explanation of the subjects' interaction in the activity system. Figure 2.3 illustrates Engeström's (1987) third generation of Activity Theory.

Figure 2. 3: Engeström's (1987) model of activity system



To illustrate Engeström's (1987) AT model in a context of EFL teacher feedback on L2 writing, for example, the subjects of feedback provision activity were the teachers who provide feedback on L2 students' texts. The teachers might share a similar object, such as to guide L2 students in improving their L2 writing. Artifacts such as pen-paper or computer

mediate the teachers' and students' actions. The rules which regulated the subjects' activity include the institutional policy. The educational institution was the community which constituted teachers, students, administrators, and other stakeholders. The division of labour might include the teachers and students' identities such as mentors-mentees. The activity system was shaped to achieve and transform the object into the outcome (Engeström, 1993), such as the students' improved writing ability. Engeström's Activity Theory model may be the simplest possible unit of analysis which contains three mutual relationships between subject, object, and community. Also, it should be noted that Engeström's (1987) model is descriptive rather than prescriptive; it describes processes rather than suggesting solutions (Crawford, 2008).

Following AT perspective, L2 teachers' feedback activity took place in and was influenced by particular sociocultural, historical, and institutional contexts (Villamil & de Guerrero, 2019). Although involved in the same activity, individual L2 teachers might have different teaching goals, and they might interpret and perform the same activity of providing feedback differently. Some teachers might focus on grammatical accuracy, while some others on content or organisation. L2 teachers' differences in interpreting the task might eventually lead to different opportunities and outcomes for the students. Therefore, to better understand L2 teachers' feedback practices, one needed to investigate the sociocultural contexts and teachers' thoughts in which the activities were situated.

An Activity Theory perspective focused not only on the influence of sociocultural factors on the human activity but also on people's role as agents (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Lee, 2014; Smolcic, 2011). Activity Theory assigned an agency role to the subject, which was a capacity to establish personal goals, set up conditions, and choose the means which fit with their motives or needs in doing an activity (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001), the human capacity to act and make choices (Smolcic, 2011). As an active agent, the teachers' goals and practices in

providing feedback or in teaching were dynamic and might change over time. Activity theory views human agency, not as a characteristic or property of an individual but a relationship which was continuously co-constructed and negotiated within the social system (Lantolf&Pavlenko, 2001; Roth&Tobin, 2004).The subjects of activity produced tangible outcomes reintegrated into the activity system; they also produced and reproduced their identities as the subjects of the activity system in the process of realising the object/motive of the activity (Engeström, 1987).

Activity systems were dynamic (Engeström, 1987, 1993). Engeström (1993) stated that continuous construction was going on between the components of an activity system. The subjects used the tools as well as continuously renewed and developed them; they followed the rules as well as shape and reformulate them (p. 67).As an analytical framework, Engeström's framework allowed researchers to capture how the components of the activity system influenced each other directly or indirectly and to capture the activity system as a whole.

Engeström's AT framework recognised the tensions between the components of activity systems. An activity system might appear to be static, but it was not a stable, harmonious system. It was constructed from multiple different elements, voices, and viewpoints which Engeströmlabelled as historical layers (Cole&Engeström, 1993; Engeström, 1987, 1993; Lektorsky, 2009). All components of an activity system reciprocally and dynamically influenced, corroborated and contradicted each other in an expansive cycle process (Engeström, 1987, 1993).

Contradictions were essential in driving the expansive development of a system. Although contradictions generated disturbances, they might provide an opportunity to find solutions for the existing problems (contradictions) which eventually stimulate

change (innovations and expansion) in the system. Contradictions could be seen as potential sources of development because the subjects could stimulate the development and innovations and structure activities to resolve contradictions which hamper the activity (Foot, 1999; Ilyenkov, 1977; Kuutti, 1996). Once contradictions were resolved, they could help generate actions which were essential for the successful transformation of a system.

At the beginning of the activity, newcomers internalised the practices and concepts of the system. They might create new tools and social practices that contradict the existing tools and practices in the system over time. The contradictions might become numerous and challenging, so they must be confronted and transformed. The process of confronting and transforming might change the activity system and result in the construction of a new object and motive. The change was called learning by expanding, a long-term cyclical and spiral process of internalising actions in one activity and externalising them into a new activity (Engeström, 1987).

In sum, Engeström's (1986, 1991) collective subjects who engaged in cycles of expansive transformation were analogous to the individual moving in the ZPD. Learning and development within the activity system occurred when the subject creates a tool to solve problems. Also, learning and development by the individual subject occur when the subject acquired and used a previously unknown concept of skill in a socially meaningful way within the activity system.

Activity theory is a work-in-progress; it has been used to analyse human consciousness in various disciplines (Ban, 2006; Engeström, 2001, 2018; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Activity Theory is continually expanding and Activity theorists must “develop conceptual tools to understand dialogue, multiple perspectives, and networks of interacting activity systems” (Engeström, 2001, 2018). In addition, Activity Theory should be used as a

powerful descriptive tool rather than as a predictive theory (Nardi, 1996, p. 7). It is more suitable to be used to analyse and explain the socio-cultural interpretation of research results collected in natural settings rather than to develop solutions to a problem. Therefore, this study employed Engeström's Activity Theory as the main theoretical framework to investigate L2 teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing, decision-making, and factors which influenced the teachers' feedback. Activity theory's perspective into systemic influences and contradictions had certain values and application for education. Teaching activity was significantly influenced by the sociocultural and historical context in which it was embedded. Similarly, contradictions in the activity system, depending on whether they were accepted and resolved or not, could enable or disable the teachers' feedback provision activity.

2.7.5 Socioculturally Informed Studies on teachers' feedback on L2 writing

2.7.5.1 Sociocultural Theory (SCT) perspectives

Although a considerable body of research on teacher feedback on L2 writing contexts had been informed by SCT perspectives, these studies had been mainly in response to students' oral problems (e.g., Nassaji, 2017). Several studies had investigated teacher feedback on written problems using SCT perspectives (e.g., Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994; Erlam, Ellis, & Batstone, 2013; Nassaji, 2007, 2011; Nassaji & Swain, 2000; Ohta, 2000; Storch, 2002a; Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2000; Villamil & De Guerrero, 1996, 2019). More specifically, some studies have investigated the nature and the effectiveness of oral negotiated feedback in writing conferences and revealed that negotiated feedback was effective to improve students' revision ability within the ZPD (e.g., Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Erlam, Ellis, & Batstone, 2013; Nassaji, 2007, 2011; Nassaji & Swain, 2000). Several other studies had also explored oral negotiated feedback (writing conferences) when combined with other feedback types and reported similar

significant effect of negotiated feedback (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005; Goldstein&Conrad, 1990; Saito, 1994; Sze, 2002; Weissberg, 2006; Williams, 2004).

Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) explored the role of negotiation in oral interactions between an ESL tutor and three ESL students using a Vygotskian framework. Aljaafreh and Lantolf developed a regulatory scale consisting of feedback moves ordered from indirect to direct help to categorise feedback within a student's ZPD. The analysis of the teacher-student dialogic interactions revealed that oral negotiation helped the students to gradually obtain more control over their L2 production and reduce their need for direct feedback/help over time. In addition, the error correction was effective when it was negotiated and teacher provided enough support. This study gave important insights into the negotiated feedback and its impact on students' interlanguage development. However, this descriptive study did not systematically compare feedback provided within the ZPD and regardless of the ZPD (Nassaji, 2017; Nassaji&Swain, 2000).

Nassaji and Swain (2000) explored the gap in Aljaafreh&Lantolf (1994) study by comparing the effectiveness of a tutor's feedback within the ZPD and regardless of the ZPD. A tutor provided feedback on two intermediate ESL students' compositions; feedback in a random manner to one student, and within the student's ZPD to another student using Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) regulatory scale. The analysis indicated that providing feedback within the student's ZPD was more effective than providing random feedback. Moreover, when a student received feedback within his/her ZPD, the student needed less and less assistance in revising their errors over time.

Both Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study and Nassaji and Swain's (2000) study were laboratory-based studies, so the findings were generalisable to classroom contexts. Nassaji (2007) more recently conducted an observational, naturalistic study on the role of oral

negotiation in teacher feedback in L2 classroom setting. Student participants wrote weekly journals and the teacher provided feedback on students' written errors. The analysis revealed frequent use of negotiated oral feedback and that feedback with negotiation resulted in more successful correction than feedback without negotiation. Nassaji (2007) identified three types of feedback: a) non-negotiated feedback (teacher resolved the error in one direction and without any negotiation), b) feedback with limited negotiation (involved some negotiation, but the teacher corrected the error after a few interactional turns), and c) feedback with extended negotiation (involved encouraging and guiding the learner to discover the correct form by first providing the learner with indirect help and then moving progressively towards more direct help as needed).

Feedback provided in Nassaji's (2007) study was on any error types. Thus, Nassaji (2011) conducted another study on the role of oral negotiation in a more controlled, experimental, classroom-based study. Nassaji compared three types of feedback (direct reformulation with no negotiation, prompt plus reformulation, and feedback with negotiation) provided on English articles and prepositions. Nassaji collected the data from two ESL classes using five cyclic phases (journal-writing, pre-test, feedback, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test) over a four-week period. The results showed that negotiated feedback had more advantages, but the effect of oral negotiation on article errors was more apparent than that for preposition errors.

Another study conducted by Erlam, Ellis, and Batstone (2013) explored the effects of explicit direct feedback vs. negotiated feedback. The participants consisted of 15 low-intermediate L2 students and a teacher. The target structures were past tense verb forms and English articles. The results showed that negotiated feedback was important in promoting self-correction. However, Erlam et al. also found that the degree of assistance did not reduce over time, possibly because of the new context and the target structure.

A relatively similar results had been reported by studies which explored negotiation in writing conferences alone and in writing conferences + other types of feedback, that negotiated feedback had a significant effect on students' revisions (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005; Goldstein&Conrad, 1990; Saito, 1994; Sze, 2002; Weissberg, 2006; Williams, 2004). Three studies which explored writing conferences alone indicated that negotiated feedback that oral negotiated feedback was effective to improve students' revisions (e.g., Goldstein&Conrad, 1990; Sze, 2002; Williams, 2004). Goldstein and Conrad (1990) had investigated the degree of negotiation in writing conferences in an advanced ESL composition course and its effects on the students' revisions. The participants consisted of one ESL composition teacher and three students. The study found that students' participation in interaction and negotiation differed, but students who participated in oral negotiation were more successful in revising their compositions than students who did not. More recently, Sze (2002) examined the role of oral negotiation in writing conferences and found that negotiated feedback had a positive effect on the students' type and degree of revision on their writing. Similarly, Williams (2004) found that students who participated in the writing conferences produce more successful revisions. The finding also suggested that the quality of the negotiation in the writing conferences was very important (e.g., Nassaji, 2017).

Few other studies have examined the efficacy of oral negotiation (five-minute writing conferences) + other types of feedback. For example, Bitchener et al. (2005), examined the effect of direct written feedback + writing conferences on the preposition, the past simple tense, and the definite article errors. They revealed that the combination of written feedback + oral conferencing had a significant effect on improving students' accuracy of the past simple tense and the definite article, but not the accuracy of prepositions. Bitchener et al. (2005) suggested that oral negotiation was less effective on prepositions because preposition errors

were less treatable (not following certain rules), while the past simple tense and the definite article errors were more treatable (rule-based) (see Ferris, 1999).

2.7.5.2 Activity Theory (AT) perspectives

As a branch of Vygotskian sociocultural theory, Activity Theory has been employed as the theoretical framework in numerous studies investigating teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing. Some topics which have been explored included L2 teachers' written feedback (e.g., Lee, 2014; Yu, 2013), teacher-student oral feedback using writing conferences (e.g., Haneda, 2000), multimodal feedback (e.g., Elola&Oskoz, 2016), teachers' feedback in cross-disciplinary courses (Ng, 2015; Zeleznik, 2003), and corrective feedback as an artifact (e.g., Oskoz and Elola, 2012; Valentín-Rivera, 2016). In addition to teachers' feedback practices, Activity Theory has been used to investigate various feedback topics including teachers' scaffolding (e.g., Aljaafreh&Lantolf, 1994; Poehner, 2005), complexity of multiple agencies in teacher feedback (e.g., Fujioka, 2014), and peer-feedback (e.g., De Guerrero&Villamil, 1994; Villamil&De Guerrero, 1996, 2019). However, the following review only summarises some previous studies to exemplify the nature of research on L2 teachers' feedback on L2 writing informed by AT.

Some previous studies have looked at teachers' written feedback on L2 writing using the lens of Activity Theory. Yu (2013) investigated the tools (L1 use in teacher's written feedback) used by 22 Chinese EFL teachers using Engeström's (1987, 2001) Activity Theory framework. Yu looked at the teachers' feedback on the students' essays and conducted retrospective interviews. He found that most EFL teachers used a certain amount of L1 to mediate the written feedback provision. The L1 use influenced the teachers' forms and types of written feedback. Another researcher, Lee (2014), revisited her previous (2008, 2009) studies on Hong Kong secondary school EFL teachers' written feedback using AT point of view, and found several individual and contextual factors shaped the teachers' feedback

instruments, including their beliefs, knowledge, and prior learning experience (Lee, 2014), as well as the school policy (Lee, 2009). Lee also suggested potential AT innovations to the traditional approach of teacher feedback in the process-based L2 writing.

At least one study had used activity theory to examine L2 teacher-student writing conferences (Haneda, 2000). Haneda (2000) examined nine sessions of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) teacher-student writing conferences using Leont'ev's version of activity theory, systemic functional linguistics, and situated literacy theories. She reported that the teachers' goals, the topics of discussion, and the students' target language (Japanese) proficiency significantly influenced the teachers and students' engagement in the writing conferences and the revision produced by the students.

Two studies (e.g., Li, 2016; Ng, 2015) investigated the teachers' cognition in providing written feedback using ZPD and AT frameworks. Ng (2015) examined five English and five science lecturers' feedback and found that these lecturers' feedback practices and modifications in their practices were shaped by their pre-conceived beliefs about well-written products and four contextual factors, including: (a) the feedback policies, (b) the lack of training on feedback provision and academic writing for the lecturers, and (c) the students' poor English proficiency. The lecturers solved the contradiction between the lecturers and students' expectations by considering the students' views into their feedback practices.

Another more recent study by Li (2016) examined the interaction between the Chinese tutors' cognitive processes in assessing undergraduates' written work and contextual factors which influenced their activity (N=16). Li found a contradiction between the tutors' intended goal and their actual practice in grading which was influenced by the tutors' emotions, cognition, and assessment actions. For example, the tutors intended to focus on content but tended to shift their focus to grammatical errors when they found many formal issues.

AT has also been used to explore various other topics related to teachers' feedback practices, including the influence of multimodal feedback on teachers and students (Elola&Oskoz, 2016), implications of teachers' corrective feedback as an artefact (e.g., Oskoz&Elola, 2012; Valentín-Rivera, 2016), and complexities of multiple agencies in teacher feedback (e.g., Fujioka, 2014). For example, Oskoz and Elola (2016) recruited four Spanish as a Foreign Language students in the US to participate in a case study investigating the influence of computer-mediated multimodal feedback on teacher and students. The teacher provided written feedback using Microsoft Office Word and provided oral feedback using a screencast software. The findings showed that the tools used influence the teachers' quality and quantity of feedback. The teachers used more explicit feedback on form when providing written feedback and provided longer but clearer feedback on content and organisation when providing oral feedback using the screencast software. Similarly, the study also found that students preferred written feedback for linguistic/language use errors and oral feedback to discuss global issues. Studies on the application of teachers' corrective feedback as an artefact (Oskoz&Elola, 2012; Valentín-Rivera, 2016) showed that teacher-student interactions in feedback activity stimulated multiple ways to solve linguistic and non-linguistic problems arising in teacher feedback, to co-construct activity (Oskoz&Elola, 2012) and knowledge (Valentín-Rivera, 2016).

To sum up, numerous empirical studies which utilised AT framework have been conducted to investigate various topics related to L2 teachers' feedback practices on students' L2 writing. These studies usually employed surveys and interviews (e.g., Lee, 2008, 2009), and sometimes supplemented by students' drafts containing teacher feedback, writing conferences (Haneda, 2000), and think-aloud protocols (e.g., Li, 2016). Conducting more studies using multiple research instruments and in various L2 writing contexts could perhaps

provide more detailed reliable data. Table 2.5 summarises the findings from some recent studies on teachers' feedback practices which employed Activity Theory.

Table 2. 5: Summary of some previous studies on teachers' feedback practices employing Activity Theory

Studies	Setting, participants, and methods	Results
Elola&Oskoz (2016)	• US • Spanish as a Foreign Language students (N=4)	• The computer-mediated tools influenced the teachers' quality and quantity of feedback and the students' revisions. • The teachers used more explicit feedback on form in the written feedback and longer explanation on global issues in the oral feedback
Li (2016)	• China • Chinese EFL tutors (N=16)	• Contradictions between the tutors' intended goal and their actual practices in grading emerged. • Contradictions were influenced by the tutors' emotions, cognition, and assessment actions.
Valentín-Rivera (2016)	• United states • Spanish as a Foreign Language learners (N=20)	• Indirect CF promoted a bigger amount of successful scaffolding instances, knowledge co-construction, and the development of effective feedback techniques
Ng (2015)	• Malaysia • English and science lecturers (N=5)	• The lecturers' feedback practices and modifications in their practices were shaped by their pre-conceived beliefs about well-written products and four

		contextual factors, including (a) the feedback policies, (b) the lack of training on feedback provision and academic writing for the lecturers, and (c) the students' poor English proficiency. • The lecturers solved the contradiction between the lecturers and students' expectations by considering the students' views into their feedback practices.
Lee (2014)	• Hong Kong, China • Hong Kong secondary school EFL teachers • Engeström's (1987, 2001) third generation of Activity Theory	• Several individual and contextual influences shaped the teachers' feedback instruments, including their beliefs, knowledge, and prior learning experience (Lee, 2014), as well as the school policy (Lee, 2009). • Suggesting potential AT innovations to the traditional approach of teacher feedback in process-based L2 writing.
Yu (2013)	• China • 22 Chinese EFL teachers • teachers' feedback on the students' essays; retrospective interviews • Engeström's (1987, 2001) third generation of Activity Theory	• Most EFL teachers used a certain amount of L1 to mediate the written feedback provision. • L1 use influenced the teachers' forms and types of written feedback.
Oskoz&Elola (2012)	• United States • Spanish as a Foreign Language college	• Teacher-student interactions in feedback activity stimulate co-construction of activity and ways to

	students (N=16)	solve arising problems in feedback provision.
Zelevnik (2003)	• United States • Four U.S. cross-disciplinary (agronomic content and rhetorical process knowledge) instructors • Engeström's (1987, 2001) third generation of Activity Theory	• Three instructors provided relatively substantive marginal and terminal feedback, while another teacher used different strategies in written feedback and oral feedback. The instructors' feedback styles remained relatively unaltered for four years. • Instructors provided more feedback on the 'effectiveness of argument' compared to visual design, content organisation, sentence-level conventions, and academic processes.
Haneda (2000)	• Japan • 9 Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) students' teacher-student writing conferences • Leont'ev's second generation of Activity Theory, systemic functional linguistics, and situated literacy theories	• The teachers' goals, the topics of discussion, and the students' target language (Japanese) proficiency significantly influenced the teachers and students' engagement in the writing conferences and the revision produced by the students.

2.8 The Current Study

The literature regarding teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing suggested some tentative conclusions. First, a significant number of studies have viewed feedback as a cognitive phenomenon and failed to take into account the contextual factors which might influence the feedback practice (Hyland&Hyland 2006; Lee 2008, 2017), such as instructional context, teacher's individual factors, and student's individual differences (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Ferris 2010, 2014; Goldstein, 2005, 2006; Hyland&Hyland, 2019). Relatively less attention have been paid to the contextual and sociocultural aspects of teachers' written feedback. Feedback activity took place not only in individual teachers' mental cognition, but also in particular cultural, historical, and institutional contexts. A language classroom was constructed not only from language and individual learning, but also from a social system where subjects participate, interact, and influence each other. Feedback should be considered a social activity and should be examined using sociocultural approaches (Villamil&de Guerrero, 2019). Another limitation of cognitivist research was that some cognitivist studies (e.g., Bowles, 2011, Henshaw, 2013) overlooked scaffolding occurrences in teachers' feedback practices. An analysis of scaffolding instances (defined in section 2.7.3.1) in teacher feedback activity can inform about teachers' and students' actions to achieve their common goal in writing. In addition, the analysis can provide a more thorough understanding of students' language development and motivate teachers to incorporate more effective collaboration strategies (Valentín-Rivera, 2016).

Activity Theory, a sub-branch of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory had a great potential to address the roles of underexplored, contextual factors in teacher feedback on L2 writing and to understand the teacher feedback activity better. Of three generations of AT, this study adopted Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) framework of Activity Theory (AT) as the main conceptual framework. Additionally, I used Leont'ev's (1978, 1981) second generation of

activity theory to examine the role of the teachers' goals and beliefs on the feedback practices. AT was not a ready-made theoretical framework to analyse the human activity. As a theoretical framework, AT was still in the process of development. Hence, through this study, I also intended to contribute to the ongoing discussion about activity theory and to conduct a study that would contribute to the development of activity theory.

AT framework might potentially help to illuminate the teachers' actions within the feedback provision activity, the teachers' decision-making processes, and elements within the activity system which influence the teachers' feedback provision. The Activity Theory framework was compatible with the goals of this study given that it examined the teachers' practices of providing feedback on L2 writing and how they implement it in their daily teaching practices. Activity Theory could be used to “define and analyse a given activity system, to diagnose possible problems and to provide a framework for implementing innovations” (Thorne, 2004, p. 18). Investigating certain human practices from an Activity Theory perspective provided a holistic view of various human practices as well as a human agency within these practices. Looking into human practices holistically also lets us find contradictions in these practices, and ultimately determine possible solutions for decreasing or removing such contradictions (Rohrer-Murphy, 1999; Thorne, 2004).

Second, recent studies on L2 teachers' feedback practices have mostly collected the data to describe teachers' written feedback practices using surveys (e.g., Evans et al., 2010) and/or interviews (e.g., Alshahrani & Storch, 2014). The criticism was that both techniques tend to yield the data on what L2 teachers think they did but what they were exactly doing while providing feedback remains poorly understood. There has been a need to collect information about teachers' actual written feedback practices and their cognitive processes using other data collection methods to generate richer, more comprehensive information

about L2 teachers' actual feedback practices while providing feedback in students' scripts, as would be described in the next chapter.

Third, most studies on written feedback on L2 writing have been conducted in ESL and English-dominant contexts such as the United States and New Zealand. There was a necessity to examine L2 teachers' written feedback practices in under-researched contexts, such as Indonesia to compare the L2 teachers' feedback practices across different contexts. English had been taught as a compulsory foreign language subject from primary to tertiary education levels in Indonesia but research on teachers' feedback practices were still scarce. One example was Halimi (2008) who compared 49 teachers' and 158 students' preferences on written corrective feedback and found that the teacher and students had different preferences and beliefs about corrective feedback which cause contradictions in their feedback practices.

The above review of empirical and theoretical studies on teacher feedback on L2 writing had identified some areas which need further research and forms the basis for the present study. The current study aimed to explore the nature of the Indonesian EFL teacher feedback on L2 writing where students worked on an essay writing task using a type of process-based writing approach. The current study also aimed to understand ways the teachers used in making decisions while providing feedback on L2 writing context. A further goal of the study was to understand factors which influence the teachers' decisions when providing feedback on L2 writing. Much had been reported on teachers' written feedback practices, but there had been fewer studies which had investigated L2 teachers' actions and the underlying thought process while providing feedback on L2 writing context. An investigation into how L2 teachers performed actions in approaching, interpreting, and completing the corrective feedback activity, as well as elements which explained their written

feedback practices, might provide more information about L2 teachers' actual performance in providing feedback.

To explore these areas of interest, the following research questions were proposed:

1. What is the nature of the Indonesian EFL teachers' feedback on their students' L2 writing?
2. How do the Indonesian EFL teachers make decisions while providing feedback on L2 writing?
3. What factors influence the teachers' feedback practices?

To answer these research questions, I employed a qualitative case study on nine Indonesian EFL teachers, as would be described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE: Research design and methodology

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the literature review on teacher feedback on L2 writing and Activity Theory (e.g., Engeström, 1987, 2001, 2016) which was used as the conceptual framework. A number of research methods have been used to investigate teacher feedback on L2 writing, but some researchers have called for more qualitative-based studies conducted longitudinally in the naturalistic settings (e.g., Storch, 2010). The current study addressed this call by adopting a qualitative research design with a case study approach.

This chapter begins with a brief discussion of the rationale for adopting a qualitative case study in this study. The description of the context of the study, the participants, and the data collection instruments follow. Next was the description of the data collection procedures, which include the procedures for trialling the research instruments, the human ethics procedures, and the procedures employed in the main study. Finally, this chapter describes the type of data collected in the study, and the procedures of data analysis, including the methods to ensure the validity and reliability of the research.

3.2 The rationale for qualitative case study design

Following the review of the literature, three research questions which guide this study are:

1. What is the nature of the Indonesian EFL teachers' feedback on their students' L2 writing?
2. How do the Indonesian EFL teachers make decisions while providing feedback on L2 writing?
3. What factors influence the teachers' feedback practices?

To better answer these research questions, I adopted a qualitative research design with a single case study approach involving Indonesian EFL teachers (N=9) and students (N=24). A qualitative research explores “the quality of relationships, activities, situations, or materials” (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2009, p. 422) by describing, analysing, and interpreting the case (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). Qualitative research generally occurs in a natural environment, employs multiple methods, and focuses on context. In addition, qualitative research is interpretive and emergent, but not strongly predetermined (e.g., Duff, 2008; Rossman & Rallis, 2003; Stake, 1995). Qualitative studies tend to be small-scaled, often based on a single or multiple case studies.

Scholars across different areas of study defined the case study somewhat differently (e.g., Merriam, 1988; Nunan, 1992; Yin, 2014), but the key recurring principles of a case study included: boundedness or singularity, in-depth study, multiple perspectives or triangulation, particularity, contextualization, and interpretation (Duff, 2008). In the words of Creswell (2013), a case study was:

A qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information ... and reports a case description and case themes. (p. 97).

Yin (2012, 2014) identified three types of case studies based on the study's main goal: exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory case studies. An exploratory case study was used to define the research questions of the following study or to examine the feasibility of the research procedures. The next type, descriptive case study, could be used to describe a phenomenon within its context. The third one, explanatory case study, was used to explain causal relationships (e.g., how an event occurs) and to develop a theory (Mills, Durepos, & Wiebe, 2010).

A case study differs from other research methods because it is an in-depth study conducted in a certain context. Data was collected from multiple sources (e.g., observation, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports) to gain multiple perspectives or triangulation (Duff, 2008). Hood (2009) wrote that a case consists of an individual/institution, a site, and the contextual features which provide information about the relationship between the two (p. 68).

Thus, case studies were considered suitable to address how and why questions, to consider contextual factors related to the investigated topic, and to analyse cases where the participants' behaviours were not manipulated (Yin, 2014). Case studies have also been increasingly used to study L2 writing (e.g., Li, 2012; Mak & Lee, 2014).

The unit of analysis used in the case study could be a single case (a within-site study) or multiple cases (a multisite study) (Creswell, 2013). I employed a single case study involving nine teachers and 24 students to get an in-depth understanding of the teachers' actions of providing feedback on L2 writing in their particular context (See Dörnyei, 2007; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). The case in the current study was the group of nine Indonesian EFL teachers who provided feedback on students' L2 writing. The site was within an EFL1 course

program taught in five departments in a private university in Indonesia, as described in the next section.

In adopting the case study design, I also employed multiple data collection methods to gain as much information as possible (Creswell, 2007; Dörnyei, 2016; Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2014). These included think-aloud protocols, teacher-student writing conferences, teacher interviews, the collection of teaching documents, and classroom observation. In addition, the use of various data collection methods was used to triangulate and improve the results by corroborating the findings of one data collection with the others (see Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989).

The qualitative and case study designs have been criticised for being subjective and ‘soft’ because these approaches do not use experiments or statistics to validate the findings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). Another criticism was that the participants’ views might be biased, and there was no standardised test to validate the participants’ claims (Weyers, Strydom & Huisamen, 2008). The generalisability, reliability, and validity of the case study were also criticised (see Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013). Case study researchers might overgeneralise their findings by applying the results of their study to other contexts which might not be applicable (Merriam, 1998). The findings of qualitative and case studies were also not generalisable beyond the context. However, interested practitioners or individuals in similar situations could judge the applicability of the research results and determine whether the findings fit their own situations (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). Moreover, researchers might be biased by providing preconceived ideas, wrongly interpreting the findings, or manipulating the findings by selecting only the results that agree with their assumptions (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2001). Similarly, case study participants might provide inaccurate information or wrong interpretation based on their unreliable memory or ideas (Cohen et al., 2013).

Another problem was related to the analysis of thick amount and variety of the data: an adequately big amount of data could be overwhelming and time-consuming (Duff, 2008). It was also one of the weaknesses of qualitative research which emphasise that the participants were the key to knowledge, and which might lead to distortion. These limitations will be addressed in this study through the systematic triangulation of the qualitative data which were collected and applying criteria for validating the trustworthiness of such research, as discussed in Section 3.6.

3.3 The context of the study

The present study was conducted in the Faculty of International Program (FIP) in a private university in Indonesia where I used to teach. English was used as a medium of instruction in the faculty. FIP consisted of five departments: Industrial Engineering, Economics, Management, Accounting, and Law. The faculty offered two obligatory EFL courses for first-year students: EFL1 course in the first semester and EFL2 course in the second semester. Both courses aimed to improve students' academic English and research skills and to support students' transition to university. More specifically, the EFL1 course aimed (1) to equip the students with the necessary study skills to succeed at university, and (2) to develop students' ability to read, write, and speak using academic English effectively (EFL1 Course Syllabus, 2016). The EFL2 course was intended to strengthen students' four academic skills: writing, reading, research and presentation. Each of EFL1 and EFL2 courses run for 16 weeks and four days a week. EFL1 course started in March and EFL2 course in September each year. The faculty ran five EFL1 classes in the 2016 academic year and each class was taught by two teachers (co-teaching).

Students took a placement test at the beginning of the semester, consisting of a TOEFL-like test to assess their English proficiency and an interview to evaluate their speaking ability and learning needs. The test was administered by the faculty and adopted

from TOEFL materials. The EFL1 course requires the students to get an TOEFL® ITP score above 500 at the beginning of the first year and above 550 before graduation. TOEFL® ITP, also known as TOEFL PBT (Paper-Based Test) was a paper delivered language proficiency test administered by ETS which measured an NNS test taker's English proficiency and assessed his/her ability to use English in an educational context (Educational Testing Service, n.d.). Alternatively, students could submit an equivalent score on the TOEFL® ITP, TOEFL® iBT (Internet-Based Test), or IELTS test (see Appendix A).

The data was collected from the essay writing task in the EFL1 course. In this course, students learned how to select a topic, build a thesis statement, outline an essay, and then develop an argumentative paragraph and essay. Students worked on their drafts individually and only sometimes in pairs. They were also required to consult their teacher about their drafts and revise the draft of each assessed task at least three times. The teachers provided written and oral feedback on the students' L2 writing.

The EFL1 course syllabus seemed to reflect an outdated process-oriented approach to L2 writing instruction and was highly traditional. It did not contain a guideline how to provide feedback although it listed the aspects of writing the teachers should focus when providing feedback. Therefore, the EFL1 teachers met regularly every week to discuss their teaching progress, such as assessment and feedback provision.

3.3.1 Assessment tasks and criteria used in the EFL1 course

There were changes in the assessment criteria during the data collection process. The percentage used by the teachers during the data collection was similar to the criteria used in the previous year, but the assessment criteria changed. Following were the latest assessment tasks and criteria which the EFL teachers used to assess their students' performance in the EFL1 course and were specified in the 2016 EFL1 course syllabus (see Appendix A):

1. **Essay (30%);** essay assignment is a 1000-word argumentative essay task, submitted at the end of the semester (week 16). The goal of the essay was to develop and assess students' academic writing, analysis, and critical thinking skills. The students selected one of the given five topics: (a) pluralism, (b) multiculturalism, (c) demographic bonus, (d) freedom of expression, and (e) kindness. Students then wrote an argumentative essay using process-oriented writing model:

- a. planning (selecting a topic, outlining),
- b. drafting a paragraph on the subject,
- c. developing the paragraph into an essay,
- d. revising and editing (consulting about the draft, revising, editing), and
- e. submitting the final work.

The assessment criteria of the essay included content (20%), structure/organisation (20%), written expression/language use (20%), consultation (20%), and referencing and mechanics (20%), as displayed in Appendix B. Consultation refers to the teacher-student writing conferences, where a teacher and a student meet face-to-face and discuss the written feedback points previously provided by the teacher.

2. **Intellectual diary¹ (20%)** is a short reflective argumentative writing task assigned after discussing each chapter of the EFL1 Part 1 and 2 guidebooks (Bridging Program, 2015a, 2015b, 2015c). Two teachers' self-published guidebooks were used as the teaching guide. The goals of this assignment were to examine and to improve the students' writing skills, as well as building their confidence in writing. The topic of each intellectual diary entry was 3-2-1, that is, students had to describe (a) three things they learnt from a chapter in the EFL1 textbooks (Bridging Program, 2015a, 2015b, 2015c), (b) two questions regarding the chapter or the topic discussed in class,

¹ One of the teachers reported that the 'intellectual diary' term was adopted from a movie entitled 'Freedom Writer.'

and (c) one interesting aspect they learned of the chapter studied. The teachers assess each entry based on the extent of the student's reflection and critical thinking about his/her learning, their own learning strengths and weaknesses, and responses or questions related to materials taught in class. The teachers assessed the students' intellectual diary using the intellectual diary assessment rubric and the assessment criteria included the number of intellectual diaries (5 marks),punctuality in submitting the assignment (5 marks),unity and coherence (4 marks),grammar and punctuation (3 marks),spelling (3 marks),and student's content of reflection (5 marks).

3. **Word bank (15%)** is a vocabulary writing assignment aimed to enhance students' English vocabulary. Students were required to write and submit two word bank tasks, one in the middle and the other one at the end of the semester. Each word bank task consisted of 60 English words learned from the EFL1 textbooks (Bridging Program, 2015a, 2015b, 2015c) which were compiled by the teachers and some supplementary information (the definition, the part of speech, the pronunciation, and a sentence example). The assignment was assessed based on the number of entries, supplementary information, sentence example, and punctuality of submission.
4. **Solo presentation (10%)** is a 3-minute individual presentation on one of five essay topics. The goals were to improve students' thinking, analysis, and communication skills and to develop their overall confidence in public speaking. The assessment criteria of the solo presentation included speaking ability, eye contact, use of visual aid, and responses to the audience's questions.
5. **Class participation (25%)** is the individual students' active involvement in class discussion and attendance.

I focused more on the essay writing task in this study because this task involved the EFL teachers providing both written feedback (via teacher's written feedback) and oral feedback (via writing conferences) on the students' multiple drafts of essay.

3.4 Participants

Nine EFL1 course teachers were invited and agreed to participate in the study. All nine teachers participated in the interviews, and six of them participated in think-aloud protocols, writing conferences, document collection, and classroom observation. The participants ranged in age from 23 -27 years at the time of the data collection. At the time of data collection, six participants had taught the EFL1 course for more than two years, and three others for one year. Tia participated in this study as the course coordinator (part of the course management) and as an EFL1teacher participant. Tia paired the novice teachers (i.e. teachers with less than two years of teaching experience) with the more experienced teachers. Seven EFL teachers held master's degrees in fields related to language or teaching, and the two others held bachelor's degrees in English Literature and in Arts. Table 3.1 provides a breakdown of the teacher participants' background. The names used were pseudonyms.

Table 3.1: The teacher participants' profiles

Teacher Name	EFL1 class	Department	Highest education level	Teaching experiences
<i>Group A: Teacher participants of think-aloud protocol, writing conference, interview, document collection, and classroom observation procedures</i>				
Gie	A	Industrial Engineering	Master's degree	Three years
Sha	A	Industrial Engineering	Master's degree	Three years
Mary	B	Accounting	Bachelor's degree	Two years
Ayu	C	Accounting	Master's degree	One year
Tia	D	Management	Master's degree	Six years
Fajar	D	Management	Master's degree	Three years
<i>Group B: Teacher participants of interview procedures</i>				
Nida	B	Accounting	Master's degree	One year
Amy	E	Law	Master's degree	One year
Erna	E	Law	Bachelor's degree	Two years

24 (out of 110) selected first-year students were invited to participate in the study. I selected four students (two low-intermediate and two-high intermediate students) from each of six teachers based on the teachers' suggestions regarding the students' English writing

skills. At the time of the data collection, all students were first-year students and their age ranged from 18 to 20 years old. They were non-English majors and had learned English as an additional language for at least six years at high school and at least half a year at university. Table 3.2 displays the demographic details of students whose drafts were used in the data collection procedures.

Table 3.2: The student participants' profiles

Teacher Name	Student Name	Gender	EFL1 Class	Department	English proficiency*
Gie	Mira	Female	A	Industrial Engineering	intermediate
	Ninda	Female	A	Industrial Engineering	upper intermediate
	Puput	Female	A	Industrial Engineering	upper intermediate
	Rafif	Male	A	Industrial Engineering	intermediate
Sha	Fira	Female	A	Industrial Engineering	upper intermediate
	Tata	Female	A	Industrial Engineering	upper intermediate
	Jeff	Male	A	Industrial Engineering	intermediate
	Fahri	Male	A	Industrial Engineering	upper intermediate
Mary	Ira	Female	B	Accounting	upper intermediate
	Nanin	Female	B	Accounting	upper intermediate
	Austine	Female	B	Accounting	Intermediate
	Salsa	Female	B	Accounting	Intermediate

Ayu	Dana	Female	C	Accounting	upper intermediate
	Intan	Female	C	Accounting	Intermediate
	Radja	Male	C	Economics	Intermediate
	Fio	Female	C	Economics	upper intermediate
Tia	Dini	Female	D	Management	upper intermediate
	Fita	Female	D	Accounting	upper intermediate
	Ardhi	Male	D	Economics	Intermediate
	Faishal	Male	D	Economics	Intermediate
Fajar	Lina	Female	D	Accounting	upper intermediate
	Habibi	Male	D	Accounting	Intermediate
	Lengga	Male	D	Management	Intermediate
	Anta	Male	D	Management	Intermediate

Note. *Students' English proficiency was assessed at the beginning of the semester using the university's English proficiency test which was not equivalent to TOEFL/IELTS score.

3.5 Data collection procedures

The data collection procedures consisted of three main procedures. The first procedure was trialling the research instruments which was aimed to examine whether the research instruments were valid for measuring the subjects. The next procedure was Human Ethics procedure to ensure that the participant recruitment in this study was completed in accordance to the University of Melbourne Human Ethics procedure. The third one was the primary data collection procedures.

3.5.1 Trialling the instruments

I conducted a small study to trial the think-aloud protocol and interview instruments and procedures before collecting data for the main study. The purposes of trialling both instruments were: (1) to evaluate the relevance, appropriateness, and feasibility of both procedures before being applied in the main study, (2) to develop and modify the research instruments, and (3) to collect preliminary information about the study context. The trial study was carried out in January 2016. Four EFL teachers participated in trialling the research instruments, consisting of two Indonesian EFL teachers from the same university in which the study was conducted and two PhD students from the School of Language and Linguistics in the University of Melbourne. All four participants had experience in teaching EFL writing and providing written feedback on Indonesian EFL students' writing.

The two Indonesian EFL teachers participated in trialling the think-aloud protocol (TAP) guides. I gave both participants a guideline to perform the think-aloud protocol procedure, and then I asked them to performed think-aloud protocols on three short texts. The participants could provide feedback on the texts using a word processor software or paper and pen. Afterwards, I asked both participants' opinions about participating in the think-aloud protocols: the clarity of the prompts, challenges which should be anticipated, as well as the relevance, feasibility and appropriateness of the think-aloud protocol guidelines.

The trial study of the think-aloud protocol procedures showed that both participants used a combination of Indonesian (L1) and English (L2) in performing the think-aloud protocol, but the subjects' ability to verbalise their thoughts in the L2 varied considerably. One of the participants could verbalise her thoughts in L2 well and switched easily between L1 and L2, while the other participant frequently paused when carrying out the think-aloud protocols in L2. In the follow-up interview, the latter argued that he felt nervous, and it was difficult for him to multitask (thinking, providing feedback, and enunciating the thought) at

the same time. The finding indicated that think-aloud protocol training was needed to help the participants to carry out the think-aloud protocol procedures, to verbalise their thoughts better, and to reduce their anxiety. Thus, I prepared a think-aloud protocol training session for the participants, as described in the data collection procedure section (see section 3.5.3.1). Both participants provided comprehensive feedback on various aspects of writing and used both direct and indirect feedback strategies. They also preferred providing feedback electronically rather than writing on the printout drafts.

I invited the two PhD students to participate in the trialling the pre- and post-interview guides. The interview questions followed the interview guide. Afterwards, the participants were asked to evaluate the interview questions: the clarity of the interview questions and probing questions, and the wording of the questions. The two interview participants said that they could answer all questions easily, except for the question which asked them to describe their decision-making processes while providing written feedback. The participants were also not familiar with some terms used in the interview guide, such as the decision-making processes, feedback focus, and direct and indirect feedback. Their suggested advice was used to change unfamiliar wording and terms used in the interview questions. For example, the 'decision-making processes' term was changed into 'the process the EFL teachers typically followed in providing feedback.'

3.5.2 Human ethics procedures

Before beginning the research, human ethics approval was sought and obtained from the University of Melbourne Human Ethics Committee. The permission was also obtained from the IPF to collect the data at the research site. I contacted the dean of the faculty and the EFL1 program coordinator and ensured that the study would not disrupt the everyday class activities or the assessment processes.

I set up an initial meeting with all EFL teachers in the faculty two weeks before the primary data collection period. During this session, I explained the aims of the study and invited the teachers to participate. I explained that the participation was voluntary, that participants' confidentiality and anonymity would be protected, and that unnecessary risks to the participants would be minimised. I also distributed a plain language statement which described the study, the data collection, type of information collected, and the use of the information in the study (see Appendix E). The EFL teachers who agreed to participate signed the consent form (see Appendix F). Nine EFL teachers decided to take part in the study. The study also involved students' participation, particularly in providing consent for their drafts to be used in the recorded teacher think-aloud protocols, permission to observe their regular classes and to record their teacher-student conferences. These teachers permitted the data collected (corrected texts, audio recordings of think-aloud protocols, teacher-student writing conferences, and interviews) to be used for this study (see Appendix F).

As for the EFL1 course students, I also met with the dean and course manager to explain the study and request their permission to attend the EFL 1 classes. I was granted permission to visit the classes and conduct the study. I visited all five EFL classes in the first week of the semester to explain the study to the students. In week 8, each of the six teachers participating in the think-aloud protocol procedures selected four of their students to be included in the data collection. These students' drafts would be used in written feedback and think-aloud protocol tasks and their writing conferences would be recorded, and (24 students in total). I invited these students to participate in the writing conferences procedure. I also asked their permission to use their drafts in the think-aloud protocol procedure and copy their drafts for this study. The students' identities were kept anonymous.

3.5.3 Data collection procedures

The main study was conducted in the first semester of 2016 for 16 weeks (from March to June 2016), as displayed in Table 3.3 below. I employed five data collection procedures, including teacher think-aloud protocols while providing written feedback, teacher-student writing conferences (oral feedback), teacher interviews, the collection of relevant documents (i.e. students' essay drafts, syllabus, assessment criteria and rubric), and classroom observations. Three data collection instruments were created for the main study, consisting of the think-aloud protocol guide, interview guide, and field note. Each instrument was described in detail in the following sections.

Table 3.3: Timeline of the data collection

Week	Data collection procedures and class activity
Week 0	Meeting with the EFL teachers Explaining the study to the teachers, inviting participants, explaining ethics procedures and signing a consent form
Week 1	Regular teaching activity Visiting the class, explaining the study to students, inviting participants, explaining ethics procedures&signing consent form
Week 2	First interview Regular teaching activity
Week 3-4	Regular teaching activity
Week 5	Think-aloud protocol training First classroom observation Regular teaching activity
Week 6-7	Regular teaching activity

Week 8	Students submitted the first draft of the essay. Mid-semester exam
Week 9	First think-aloud protocol (teacher's written feedback) Regular teaching activity
Week 10	Regular teaching activity First teacher-student writing conferences (teachers' oral feedback)
Week 11	Regular teaching activity Second classroom observation
Week 12	Students submitted the first draft of the essay Second think-aloud protocol (teacher's written feedback) Regular teaching activity
Week 13	Second teacher-student writing conferences (teachers' oral feedback) Regular teaching activity
Week 14	Students submitted the first draft of the essay. Third think-aloud protocol (teacher's written feedback) Regular teaching activity
Week 15	Third teacher-student writing conferences (teachers' oral feedback)
Week 16	Submission of the essay, second word bank and intellectual diaries Final exam
Week 17	Grading
Week 18	Second interview Collecting and copying teaching documents

The following sections describe the teachers' data collection procedures and instruments.

3.5.3.1 Teachers' think-aloud Protocols (TAP)

TAP was a procedure used to collect data about humans' cognitive/thought process as they complete a specific task. It was first developed by Newell and Simon (1972) and has since been used in a range of social science, psychology, and product development studies (Bowles, 2010). The procedure involved a subject saying aloud what he or she was thinking while performing an activity. The subject was not asked to interpret or structure his/her thoughts, but to present them as they come to mind (Van Someren, Barnard, & Sandberg, 1994). Think aloud protocols have also been used in a number of L2 writing studies, including research on teacher's feedback practice (e.g., Alkhatib, 2015; Cohen, 1991; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1987; Hyland, 1998, 2003), teacher and student's perception of teacher's feedback (Amara, 2015; Diab, 2005; Zarifi, 2017). The procedure has also been used to examine student's reaction (e.g., Cohen, 1991) and uptake of teacher's feedback (e.g., Çağlar, 2006; Rajoo, 2010). For instance, Alkhatib (2015) investigated the Saudi university EFL tutors' beliefs and practices of written corrective feedback (WCF) using several data collection procedures including the think-aloud protocol, interviews, and collecting students' essays. Alkhatib asked the tutors to perform think-aloud protocols while providing WCF on students' writing to examine their actual practice of feedback provision and factors which influence their feedback practices.

In the current study, I used the think-aloud protocol as the primary procedure to gather information about the EFL teachers' decision-making processes while giving

written feedback on students' drafts (real time). Moreover, the think-aloud protocol analysis was used to support the analysis of the students' drafts as this procedure enables me to observe the teachers' moment to moment practices of providing written feedback on students' drafts.

During the think-aloud protocol data collection procedure, I did not leave the participants who were performing the think-aloud protocol, but I minimised speaking and only spoke to remind them to continue talking when they remained silent, as recommended by Mackey and Gass (2011). Some scholars suggested that the quality of think-aloud protocols was higher if the researcher's and the participant's social interaction was minimised (Borg, 2006; Mackey & Gass, 2011). Thus, respondents in think-aloud studies were often advised to verbalise their thoughts as if they were alone (Gilhooly & Green, 1996). The researcher was then responsible for interpreting the thoughts and structure of the information. Cohen (1991) also suggested that the researcher should attend the think-aloud protocol data collection process and not to leave the subjects to perform the think-aloud protocol on their own to oversee the data gathering process and ensure that the subject produces the desired data.

Performing thinking, writing, and talking tasks simultaneously was problematic and potentially impeded the task (Lundgren-Laine & Salantera, 2009). Thus, scholars (e.g., Cohen, 1991) suggested that researchers provided a think-aloud protocol training session to the think-aloud protocol participants before the data collection. The findings from the trial study (see Section 3.5.1) also indicated that the think-aloud protocol participants required a training session for performing think-aloud protocol procedure to familiarise them with this procedure and improve the quality of the think-aloud protocol data. Therefore, I organised a think-aloud protocol training session before the actual think-aloud protocol procedure to familiarise the teachers with the method. I designed a think-aloud protocol guide to train and guide the teachers to perform think-aloud protocol and to verbalise their thought processes when they provide feedback on the students' drafts. This think-aloud protocol guide was adapted from Douglas (2007), Ericsson and Simon (1993), and Hyland (1998) and contained: (a) a short description of the purposes and techniques of performing the think-aloud protocol, (b) a think-

aloud protocol training instruction, (c) a list of probing questions, and (d) instructions for performing a think-aloud protocol (see Appendix C). The think-aloud protocol guide was translated into Indonesian to help the EFL teachers understand the instruction better. The training sessions were organised in week 5 and consisted of a group session followed by an individual training session. In the group session, I distributed the think-aloud protocol guide, explained the general procedure of carrying out think-aloud protocol, played a recording of a think-aloud protocol session, and answered the participants' questions. The individual session was held the next day, with each participant performing think-aloud protocols on three short paragraphs.

Van Someren et al. (1994) suggested that the data collected using the think-aloud protocol might have an invalidity issue caused by the cognitive process disturbance, memory loss, and the subject's interpretation. Admittedly, think-aloud protocol data might not necessarily capture a subject's cognitive process fully because the subject might only articulate parts of his/her thought. Also, during the think-aloud protocol, a subject might only verbalise the contents of his/her working memory rather than the whole cognitive process (Van Someren et al., 1994).

Each of the six EFL teachers performed three think-aloud protocols on four students in week 9, 12, and 14. The duration of the think-aloud protocol session increased as the teachers provided more feedback and the draft length and complexity increased. The first think-aloud protocol sessions averaged 19 minutes per draft, the second one 27 minutes, and the third one 36 minutes. The participants were free to verbalise their thoughts in their L1, L2, or both. In addition, the teachers could provide feedback electronically or in writing on the students' drafts. All think-aloud protocol sessions were audio-recorded and later transcribed.

3.5.3.2 Teacher-student writing conference

The teacher-student writing conferences were one-on-one teacher-student conferences that in this teaching context, takes place after the students have received the written feedback on their drafts. The writing conferences aimed to provide the students with the opportunity to consult the teacher about their draft and the teacher's feedback, and to ask for additional explanations.

The EFL teachers (n=6) scheduled individual writing conferences with all students approximately one week after each think-aloud protocol session in week 10, 13, and 15. To gather accurate data, I invited 24 students whose drafts were reviewed by the teachers in the think-aloud protocol procedures. All 24 students agreed to have their writing conference sessions audio recorded. I was present during these sessions and took notes on the teachers' oral explanation of written feedback on student's draft (feedback focus, type of feedback, rules, and examples), and responses to students' questions in the meeting. The length of the writing conferences session increased as the amount of feedback provided on the students' successive drafts increased. The first writing conference session averaged 10 minutes in duration, the second one 12 minutes, and the third one 15 minutes. Afterwards, the teachers asked the students to proceed with the draft revision. The drafting, think-aloud protocol, writing conferences, and revising tasks form a cycle. Following the syllabus, each student was expected to repeat the cycle at least three times. The teachers and students were free to converse using their L1, L2, or both while in the writing conferences.

3.5.3.3 Teacher interviews

An interview was a data collection method, which involved an exchange between the interviewer and the interviewee. Three basic types of interviews were distinguished in the literature, and they differ in terms of their structures how rigidly they were structured: structured, semi-structured, and unstructured. In a structured interview, the interviewer

asked the questions exactly as worded and ordered in the interview guide so that each interviewee's responses were comparable (Babbie, 2007). This form of interview was optimal for large-size studies with multiple interviewers collecting the data and limited response categories. The unstructured interview was the opposite of the structured one, with the flow of conversation varying according to the interviewee's responses (interviewee-led) (Lune&Berg, 2017). It was ideal for dynamic and unpredictable situations where the interviewees might produce a wide variety of response categories. The interviewer only prepared a loose set of topics without specific questions.

The third type, the semi-structured interview, was in between both interview types and it was selected for this study. Using this type, I prepared a set of predefined topics and questions, but the sequence and wordings of interview questions were flexible and could be changed to adapt to the interview context and the interviewee's responses (see Lune&Berg, 2017). Moreover, some questions could also be omitted or added to focus on new information given by the interviewee.

Two semi-structured individual interviews were conducted with all nine EFL teachers (two males and seven females) in week 2 and week 18. The goal of the first interview (conducted in week 2) was to obtain insights into the teachers' experiences as students and teachers and their feedback practices and beliefs about feedback. The goal of the second interview (conducted in week 18) was to gather information of the teachers' ways of providing feedback and making decisions in that semester, as well as factors which influenced their feedback practices and decision-making processes.

I developed an interview guide to direct the interview. It contained a list of pre- and post-interview questions. The pre-interview question section consisted of questions about the EFL teachers' prior learning and teaching experience, written feedback provision, and beliefs about feedback provision. The post-interview question section comprised questions about the

EFL teachers' experience and behaviours in providing written feedback, attitudes, opinions, knowledge of written feedback, the decision-making processes in providing written feedback, and factors that influence their feedback provision. The interview guide was also translated into Indonesian (see Appendix D). However, during the interview sessions, the teacher participants were free to answer questions using their L1, L2, or both.

I audio-recorded and later transcribed the audio recordings. All interviews were held in the office of the International Program faculty. The first interview sessions ranged between 28 and 80 minutes and the second interview between 53 and 108 minutes. During the interviews, the interviewees and I communicated in English and switched to Indonesian if needed. The interview procedures closely followed the interview guide prepared, but the structure and wordings of some questions were changed slightly, especially questions related to the participants' decision-making while providing feedback, to help the participants understand the questions and adjust with their responses.

3.5.3.4 Classroom observation

Observation was a widely used data collection method in social science studies. An observer's stance could be classified according to his/her involvement in the classroom: complete observer, complete participant (i.e. member of the class), participant as observer (i.e. becoming an insider and involving oneself in the activity), and observer as participant (i.e. interacting with participants but no involvement in the activity) (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Phakiti, 2014).

To explore the factors that influence the teachers' written feedback, I observed the EFL teachers' behaviours, teaching activities, and general class situation. I used the observer as participant stance, in which the main task was to collect information rather than to participate in the class activities. This stance was useful to collect a wide range of information from all participants. It allowed me to establish an insider identity without fully

participating in the activity and to report the findings using an outsider perspective. The researcher's (observer) minimal involvement was expected to minimise the risk of altering the context of study due to the researcher's presence (Spradley, 2016). I only made brief notes, which were expanded as field notes later. Two classroom observation sessions were carried out on five EFL classes in week 7 and 11, with each observation approximately 100 minutes long.

I used field notes adapted from Merriam's (2009) observation schedule to keep systematic records of the classroom observation. The field notes included information about the observation date, time, participants, setting, description of the class activities, and the teacher's feedback activities (see Appendix D).

3.5.3.5 Document (artifacts) collection

Documents or artifacts were objects which carried meanings about the culture of their users or creators (Schwandt, 2007) and represent some forms of communication. During the study, I collected several documents/artifacts including teachers' written feedback and commentaries on students' drafts (n=72 drafts), students' intellectual diaries (n=72), the 2016 EFL1 course syllabus, the teachers' teaching logs, grading report, attendance report, and EFL1 textbooks (Bridging Program, 2015a, 2015b, 2015c). I especially focused on gathering information which might contribute to answering questions about the factors which influence the teacher feedback on L2 writing. These documents were collected and photocopied a week after the teachers finished their assessment.

3.6 Data Collected

By the end of the data collection, I collected six forms of data, including:

- a. 72 subsequent drafts of essay written by 24 students (three rough drafts per student).
- b. 72 audio recordings of think-aloud protocols gathered from 24 students in three think-aloud protocol sessions. The audio recordings were approximately 27 hours and 13

minutes in length. The first think-aloud protocols ranged between 8 and 31 minutes per student's draft, the second ones between 15 and 37 minutes per draft, and the third ones between 24 and 49 minutes per draft.

- c. 72 audio-recordings of teacher-student writing conferences gathered from 24 students in three writing conferences sessions.
- d. 18 audio recordings of teacher interviews (nine teachers; pre- and post-interviews).
The audio recordings were approximately 23 hours and 10 minutes in total.
- e. Field notes; I collected ten field notes from two observations on five classes.
- f. Other relevant documents (i.e. syllabus, lesson plans, teaching logs, and EFL1 textbooks).

These data were then analysed qualitatively and quantitatively, as described in the following sections.

3.7 Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis began when I conducted the first data collection procedures because the data collection and data analysis could proceed simultaneously (Merriam, 1998). The data collected were then analysed using several stages of data analysis to enable me to get a deeper understanding of the data and draw relationships across different data sources. The three main procedures of data analysis consist of transcribing and organising data, initial coding using a priori frameworks, intercoder reliability, and coding emergent themes from the data, as described in the following sections.

3.7.1 Transcribing and organising the data

I transcribed the think-aloud protocol, writing conference, and teacher interview audio recordings using Easytranscript software version 2.50, a free audio and video transcription software whose features include time marks and speed settings and works with various file

types (downloadable from <http://www.e-werkzeug.eu/index.php/en/products/easytranscript>). I took notes on the duration of each audio-recording and inserted time marks into every passage and transition (turn-taking) between speakers (EFL teacher and researcher).

The audio-recordings were transcribed verbatim following Vygotsky's (1986) idea of the value of words. Vygotsky (1986, p. 256) wrote that words signal a speaker's thought and consciousness. The think-aloud protocol transcriptions in the current study contained information about the nature of the teachers' written feedback on L2 students' writing and the teachers' decision-making processes in providing written feedback. The writing conferences recordings contained the information of the teachers' oral feedback on students' L2 writing and decision-making processes in providing oral feedback. The transcriptions of the teacher interviews contained information about the teacher participants' beliefs and perception of their feedback practices in L2 writing, as well as the factors which influence their written and oral feedback practices.

The recordings were transcribed in full, and the spelling of words followed the standard orthography (Roberts, 1997). Participants' dialect and colloquial language were approximated to standard spelling (Dresing, Pehl, & Schmieder, 2015) to avoid stigmatisation and to stimulate the naturalness of the speech (Roberts, 1997). Most of the participants' L1 dialogue transcripts were not translated into English. Only a small portion of transcription used in intercoder reliability procedure and excerpts included in the thesis were translated into English.

I used several marks in the transcription. The passage which was read by the EFL teachers during the think-aloud protocol or quoted in the report was marked using double quotation marks. A short pause was indicated by plain ellipsis ... mark, while an ellipsis or omission was indicated by a bracketed ellipsis [...] mark. An irrelevant discussion was not transcribed and was marked by the bracketed [off topic] mark. A bracketed [unintelligible]

mark indicated inaudible words and obscure utterances. The added information to make the meaning clear was written in parentheses (). I indicated some non-verbal communication (e.g., laughter, sighing, and long pause) using the bracketed [] mark when possible. However, Dresinget al. (2015) suggested that the transcriptions of the teachers' think-aloud protocols, writing conferences, and interviews might not be able to adequately represent the teachers' real situation because it did not include some elements of communication such as paraverbal communication (such as pitch, tone, and speed).

The manual verbatim transcription process was arduous and time-consuming because it involved starting, pausing, and replaying the recordings, as well as double-checking the transcriptions to capture all dialogues. However, the long transcription process also provided me with opportunities to re-listen to the recordings and reflect on aspects of the research such as the interpretation and ways to present the findings. During the transcription process, I made contextual notes.

The next process was gathering copies of the students' drafts, transcripts of think-aloud protocols, writing conferences, and interviews, field notes, and teaching documents. I took notes about my initial impressions of the data collected and then organised the data for coding (Wolcott, 2001). I categorised the data differently based on the document types. For the transcripts of think-aloud protocols and writing conferences, I categorised the data based on the textual aspect or certain writing problems that the teachers and students discussed. For example, when they discussed a certain writing problem, I categorised the part of the transcript in which they identified a writing problem and discussed ways to correct it as one section. For the teacher interview transcripts, I categorised the data based on each discrete topic emerged from the teachers' responses to my questions. The sorting process helped to manage the data for coding.

I used NVivo 12 software, a QSR qualitative data analysis software downloaded from <https://www.qsrinternational.com/nvivo/nvivo-products/nvivo-12-plus>, to organise the data, develop the coding framework, code all collected data using both a priori and emergent coding, take notes, and conduct a line-by-line textual analysis. I set up a project in NVivo 12 software and created folders called students' drafts, think-aloud protocols, writing conferences, teacher interviews, teaching document collection, and classroom observations. I then imported the collected data and transcriptions into their respective folders. NVivo 12 software was also useful to analyse the codes across different types of data and examine relationships among these codes (Saldaña, 2013). For example, for each section of the think-aloud protocol and writing conferences that was related to a certain teacher's feedback, I added the codes of L2 teachers' feedback focus and feedback type. The software helped me examine which part of the think-aloud protocol and writing conferences co-occurred with specific feedback type.

3.7.2 A priori and emergent coding

The second stage of data analysis was a priori coding. I coded the data on the teachers' written feedback (i.e. students' essay drafts) and oral feedback (i.e. transcripts of teacher-student writing conferences) using a priori codes developed from the theoretical framework of Activity Theory (Engeström, 1987, 2001, 2016), previous studies of L2 teachers' written feedback (e.g., Ferris, 2006; Storch&Tapper, 2009) and language assessment (Cumming, 1990; Cumming, Kantor,&Powers, 2001, 2002), as well as the emergent coding categories from the trial study (data-driven). All collected data were then coded using NVivo version 12 software.

The a priori coding was important for the preliminary data analysis to structure and organise the data. Another equally important process was to code the emergent categories of the recurring patterns in the data. While reading the transcripts and coding the data using a

priori coding, I also highlighted any segments of writing that represented a new, complete piece of information beyond the existing a priori codes and used it as a raw coding base. Afterwards, the raw coding bases were labelled by descriptive codes. I grouped these codes into categories and sub-categories. I then combined the new emergent categories with the existing a priori codes and organised these data into a code tree or coding systems. To validate the coding categories, I invited a second coder to code about 10% of the data to establish inter-coder reliability. The procedure of inter-coder reliability was described in Section 3.7.8.

The next procedure of data analysis involved the qualitative and quantitative analyses. Table 3.4 below summarises the data sources, analysis procedures, and the corresponding research questions. The quantitative analysis was used to support the interpretation of the qualitative analysis. The quantitative analysis used a simple descriptive statistic by calculating the number and percentage of the EFL teachers' focus and types of feedback.

Table 3.4: Data sources, analysis procedures, and research questions

Data sources	Analysis	Research question
Students' drafts	Qualitative and quantitative analysis	Research question (RQ) 1
Think-aloud protocol transcripts	Qualitative and quantitative analysis	RQ 2, RQ 3
Writing conferences notes	Qualitative analysis	RQ 2
Interview transcripts	Qualitative analysis	RQ 1, RQ 2, RQ 3
Collection of relevant documents (i.e. syllabus, lesson	Qualitative analysis	RQ 3

plans, teaching logs, and EFL1 textbooks).		
Field notes	Qualitative analysis	RQ 3

The data analysis procedures employed to examine each type of data source were described in the following sections.

3.7.3 Analysis of the students' essay drafts

The students' drafts on which the teachers provided written feedback were coded and analysed quantitatively and qualitatively to explain the first research question, i.e. *what was the nature of the teachers' feedback practices?* More specifically, the analysis was aimed to describe the focus and type of the teachers' written feedback on writing problems (including the repeated problems) in the students' drafts. I adopted Hyland's (1997, 2003) *feedback point* as the unit of analysis. A feedback point refers to any EFL teachers' written intervention on students' writing which includes direct intervention/feedback (providing direct correction on a writing problem by deleting the erroneous form or inserting/adding the correct form), indirect intervention/feedback (indicating a writing problem by highlighting, underlining, providing implicit clues using codes, number, colour, etc. without providing direct feedback), annotations, comments (in the document's margin or in-text), and suggestions (see e.g., Hyland, 1997, 2003). Excerpt(3.1) was taken from Sha's written feedback on Jeff's third draft. Sha (teacher) provided written feedback on the writing problems using:

- a) direct feedback (by deleting word 'include' and adding words 'are', 'text messaging', and 'messaging service (what's the difference)' (line 5)

- b) indirect feedback, by writing comments in the document's margin (line 1) and in text (line 6), as well as highlighting the comment (line 6).

(3.1) Since internet connection growth so many advantage we get. For example is social media that enables people to communicate and share resources and information. Some examples of Social Media ~~include are~~ blogs, discussion forums, wikipedia, YouTube channels, LinkedIn, Facebook, and Twitter. Social media can be accessed by computer, notebook, smart phone, text messaging, and messaging service (what's the difference). This paragraph needs elaboration.

(Sha-Jeff-D3)

In analysing the teachers' feedback points in the students' drafts, I further categorised each written feedback point into (1) feedback focus (i.e. an aspect of writing on which feedback was provided) and (2) feedback type (the explicitness of L2 teacher's feedback provision).

The coding categories used to categorise L2 teachers' feedback focus were informed by previous research on teacher's written corrective feedback (Ferris, 2006; Lunsford&Lunsford, 2008; Storch&Tapper, 2009) and the emergent categories and themes from the data collected. Ferris (2006) discovered 16 types of grammatical and lexical problems in students' L2 writing. Lunsford and Lunsford (2008) replicated Connors and Lunsford's (1988) study on US college students' writing errors in L1 composition using 877 samples of US college students' essays. They found that L1 composition teachers marked 20 most frequent error types. A more recent study by Storch and Tapper (2009) found 18 error types made by the students consisting of syntactical, nominal morphological, verbal morphological, grammatical, lexical, and errors in mechanics. However, both classifications lacked categories of global writing problems such as organisation and content which this study also focused on.

For this reason, I developed a new taxonomy based on both empirical studies (Ferris, 2006; Storch&Tapper, 2009) and the EFL teachers' written feedback points in the students'

drafts (data-driven codes). These deductive and inductive coding systems ensured that the coding process was informed by empirical studies and was grounded in the data (see Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The adopted taxonomy of teachers' feedback focus consisted of 33 types of writing problems which included both local writing problems (i.e. language use and mechanics and referencing style problems) and global writing problems (i.e. content and organisation issues). In addition, the coding categories of teachers' type of feedback consisted of direct feedback and indirect feedback (see e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Chandler, 2003b).

After identifying the initial coding categories of feedback points, I prepared the description of the categories. Next, I trialled the coding categories on 10% of the students' draft data to refine the coding categories and their descriptions and to measure the inter-coder reliability. The final coding categories of teachers' feedback focus consisted of (a) content, (b) language use, (c) mechanics and format, (d) referencing, and (e) organisation foci. In addition, the categories of teacher's type of feedback consist of direct and indirect feedback types.

The coding framework for the analysis of the teachers' written feedback points on the students' drafts are displayed in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: The coding framework to analyse the students' drafts

Teachers' feedback focus • Language use: • grammatical problems ○ conjunction, ○ determiner,

- preposition,
- pronoun problems.
- lexical and style problems,
 - awkward or unclear expression,
 - collocation,
 - extraneous word and repetition,
 - inappropriate style and register,
 - word choice.
- morphological problems,
 - derivational (word form) or part of speech,
 - passive form,
 - singular-plural,
 - SV agreement,
 - tense and verb form.
- syntactic problems,
 - the absence of major constituent (sentence fragment),
 - the absence of minor constituent,
 - parallel structure,
 - run-on sentence,
 - word order problems.
- **Mechanics and referencing style** problems
 - mechanics,
 - document format,
 - referencing style

- mechanics of reference
- the use of reference
- **Content** issues
 - ambiguity,
 - ideas and logic,
 - lack of elaboration,
 - needs for supporting details,
 - term/definition.
- **Organisation** issues
 - lack of conciseness and redundancy,
 - paragraph organisation,
 - sentence flow (coherence),
 - unity.

Teachers' types of written feedback

- **Direct feedback**
 - Direct error correction by deleting the erroneous form, inserting/adding the correct form, informing ways to correct the error.
- **Indirect feedback**
 - Colour&coding
 - Comments >> Rhetorical structure of the teachers' comments:
 - request for clarification
 - giving implicit or explicit advice on how to correct a writing problem or improve the writing in general
 - describing the location or the type of writing problem

- describing the correct forms
- visualising the effects of writing on the readers or what the readers need
- giving a personal opinion about the writing problem

Below are two examples of codes used to identify errors in language use. Example (3.2) was taken from Mary's written feedback on Salsa's draft. Mary identified a tense and verb form error and provided a direct feedback by adding the correct simple future tense form 'there will be'.

- (3.2) situation is not always a 'disaster' for Indonesia. Indonesia can also gain some benefit from this demographic bonus such as, more opportunity window for Indonesia, more people in productive age that will help Indonesia and last but not least there will be sufficient time to have preparation of the youth and government due to this demographic bonus.

(Mary – Salsa draft 2)

Excerpt 3.3 was taken from Gie's feedback on Rafif's draft. Gie identified a word choice error and gave a direct feedback using a comment in the document's margin.

- (3.3) d perfectly, and the benefits of demographic bonus will be accomplished and the ' will be wealthier.
From this reflection I do believe that engineering is important to support demographic

 **Citizen** January 11, 2016
conclusion

(Gie – Rafif draft 3)

The full list of codes, description, and examples of the teachers' focus and type of L2 teachers' feedback are displayed in Appendix I.

Admittedly, the coding categories outlined above may not always be easily distinguishable. For example, the sub-categories of grammatical, lexical and stylistic, morphological, or syntactic errors may not always be easily distinguished because grammar necessarily entail morphosyntax (syntax and morphology) (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, Celce-

Murcia, Frodesen, White,&Williams, 2016). Similarly, the distinction between ‘paragraph organisation’ and ‘logic’ might be hard to distinguish because both are interdependent. However, I adopted these extensive coding categories (see Table 3.5) for two reasons. First, the teacher participants in this study categorised students’ writing problems and provided feedback based on those extensive specific categories (see Table 3.5). By employing these coding categories, I expected that the findings from the corrected essays (written feedback) would be consistent with the findings from teacher interview, think-aloud protocol, and writing conference (oral feedback) procedures. Second, I categorised those aspects of writing as discrete units to easily calculate the frequency and focus of the teachers’ feedback. Appendix I contains a detailed description and examples taken from the students’ writing, which the teachers identified as problems in the written feedback (think-aloud protocol) procedure.

To analyse the teachers’ written feedback points on the students’ texts, I first identified all written feedback points, classified each feedback point according to the focus and type of written feedback used using the above coding framework (See Table 3.5). Afterwards, the frequency of all teachers’ written feedback points was then calculated. To analyse the teachers’ written feedback points on the students’ repeated writing problems, I identified all repeated writing problems which occurred within a draft and in different drafts. I classified these feedback points into their focus and types of written feedback provided within a draft (intra-analysis) and across subsequent drafts (inter-analysis). The teachers’ feedback points were analysed quantitatively by calculating the frequency and percentage of written feedback points and qualitatively to describe the teachers’ feedback practice.

3.7.4 Analysis of the teachers’ think-aloud protocol transcripts

The teachers’ think-aloud protocol transcripts were analysed qualitatively to explain three main themes: (a) the teachers’ approach in providing written feedback, (b) their

decision-making processes while providing written feedback, and (b) factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices. To analyse the transcripts for the first theme (i.e. the teachers' approach in providing written feedback), I used a thematic coding emerged from the data. Meanwhile, to analyse the transcripts for the second and third themes (i.e. the teachers' decision-making processes while providing written feedback and factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices), I used theoretical and data-driven coding frameworks. The following sections describe the specific procedures to analyse the transcripts for these issues.

3.7.4.1 The teachers' approach in providing written feedback

The teachers' think-aloud protocol transcripts were coded and analysed thematically to describe the teachers' approach in giving written feedback on students' L2 writing. The themes used to code the transcripts were inductive and emerged from the initial research questions and my impressions while immersed in the think-aloud protocol transcript data.

To analyse the think-aloud protocol transcripts for the first theme (first research question), I first transcribed the audio recordings of the teachers' think-aloud protocols verbatim and then imported the transcripts into the NVivo 12 software. I then coded the data thematically (see e.g., Gibbs, 2007). I read the transcript of the first think-aloud protocol sessions and coded any word, phrases, or sentences that represented a complete piece of information related to the teachers' approach to providing written feedback (initial coding). These segments were labelled by descriptive codes (open coding). Afterwards, I re-read the data, gathered the open codes into the initial categories, and then condensed these categories into a coding framework. An example of emergent code identified thematically is 'using analogy to explain a concept', as shown in the following excerpt (3.4):

(3.4) Ayu: Good, so... and then, my next concern will be.. You...I think you made too many questions.

Raja: Oh!

Ayu: Okay. The question is enough for the beginning of an introductory paragraph, but you do not have, you do not need to repeat it here. So, the question is a hook. [Switching to Indonesian]. Ini cukup buat menarik perhatian pembaca sekali saja di awal paragraf, tapi tidak usah dikasih lagi di tengah paragraf intro. Setelah ngasih hook, tangkap ikannya di intro, lalu kasih makan pembaca dengan informasi umum. Gitu aja. Jadi, disini daripada kamu kasih pertanyaan, lebih baik kamu kasih statement, informative statement (Translation: It's enough to attract readers' attention once at the beginning of paragraph, but don't do that again in the middle of the introductory paragraph. After putting a hook, catch the fish in the introductory paragraph, and then feed them with general information. That's it. So, here, instead of make it as a question, you better make it as a statement, informative statement).

Using
analogy to
explain a
concept

I coded and analysed the transcripts of the second and third sessions of think-aloud protocols using the coding system. The findings of the second and third drafts were compared with the findings of the first drafts to see the teachers' overall patterns of feedback approach over time.

3.7.4.2 The teachers' decision-making processes while providing written feedback

To describe the teachers' decision-making processes while giving written feedback on students' drafts, I analysed the teachers' think-aloud protocol transcripts using two stages of analyses. First, I coded the data using a preliminary coding framework grounded in studies on

TOEFL raters' decision-making (Cumming, 1990; Cumming et al., 2001, 2002). Next, I coded and generated categories of the teachers' decision-making processes which emerged from the transcript data. I developed a preliminary coding framework based on Cumming's (1990) and Cumming et al.'s (2001, 2002) frameworks of raters' decision-making while evaluating compositions. I decided to adopt these frameworks because there was no suitable framework to analyse L2 teachers' decision-making processes in providing feedback on L2 writing and that Cumming's (1990) and Cumming et al.'s (2001, 2002) frameworks of teachers' decision-making behaviours while rating compositions have specific, rich categories of raters' actions. As described in Chapter 2, Cumming (1990) and Cumming et al. (2001, 2002) identified 28 common decision-making behaviours which the L2 raters displayed while rating TOEFL compositions. These behaviours were further divided into three foci (self-monitoring, rhetorical and ideational, and language foci) and two stages of the decision-making processes (interpretation and judgment strategies) (see Appendix G).

I adopted Cumming's (1990) criteria of decision-making behaviours as a unit of analysis to categorise the teachers' decision-making actions in this study: (a) "if these actions represented logically relevant and distinct cognitive behaviours; (b) if they occurred with sufficient frequency; and (c) if they could be coded with sufficient accuracy" (Cumming, 1990). I also adopted Cumming et al.'s (2001, 2002) criteria of decision-making behaviour as a unit of analysis to determine the boundary of decision-making, namely: (a) "teacher-participant reading aloud a section of the draft (indicated by quotes in the transcripts) and (b) the beginning or end of feedback indicated a new segment" (p. 8). Additionally, I also adapted Bisailon's (2007) decision-making stages because these categories were suitable to the EFL teachers' process of checking students' drafts in this study. The adapted coding framework was displayed in Appendix J. excerpts 3.5 and 3.6 are two examples of codes used to identify the teachers' decision-making actions:

(3.5) Discern type of feedback (macro-strategy) or sequence

Description: Teacher considers or recognises his/her own general type of feedback or sequence (macro strategy)

Sha: I think I will just check the draft in the order in which they come (Sha, think-aloud protocol 1)

(3.6) Read-interpret Feedback criteria or writing prompt

Description: Teacher reads or interprets the assessment criteria or feedback provision activity.

Mary: Um, actually regarding the organisation, why it is like this? Here. [pointing out at the text]. Students were asked to write an introduction in the first draft. So the thesis statement should be here, in the introduction section. (Mary, think-aloud protocol 1)

Following Leont'ev's (1978, 1981) Activity Theory framework, I used the term action to refer to any conscious, observable behaviours that the EFL teachers displayed to achieve certain goals in providing feedback (see section 2.7.4.2 on the distinction between activity, action, and operation). Actions were the most suitable units of analysis to examine the teachers' observable behaviours in making decisions while providing feedback. I adopted Cumming's (1990) criteria to define the teachers' decision-making actions: "if these actions represented logically relevant and distinct cognitive behaviours, and if they occurred with enough frequency" (p. 37). I classified the sequence of decision-making while providing written feedback into four stages (task definition, reading and interpretation, immediate feedback decision, and postponed feedback decision) and classified the teachers' decision-making actions into two foci, namely: metacognitive focus (focusing on self-monitoring

one's own feedback provision actions) and cognitive focus (focusing on language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation), as displayed in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: The coding framework to analyse the teachers' decision-making processes while providing written feedback

The teachers' sequence of decision-making processes while providing written feedback • task definition • reading and interpretation, • immediate feedback decision • postponed feedback decision The teachers' focus of decision-making actions while providing written feedback • metacognitive (self-monitoring) • cognitive ○ content and organisation, ○ language use, ○ mechanics, referencing, and format

Appendix J displays the list, the description, and examples of codes used to map the teachers' decision-making actions while providing written feedback.

To analyse the think-aloud protocol transcript data for the second theme (i.e. the teachers' decision-making processes while providing feedback on the students' drafts), I first read the think-aloud protocol transcripts of the first written feedback session and segmented the data into decision-making units using Cumming et al.'s (2001, 2002) criteria of decision-

making units. I also segmented the transcripts into the sequences of decision-making and decision-making actions using the above coding framework (Table 3.6). When a teacher performed two categories of thinking (e.g., the teachers discuss two writing problems at the same time) while discussing a segment of writing, it was coded twice (double counting or multiple coding). The practice of double counting is common in qualitative research because it is common for subjects to address more than one topic when they speak (Prochaska, 2018). I found that the teachers sometimes addressed more than one topic when they verbalised their thought in their think-aloud protocols, provided written feedback on a segment of writing, and discussed with their student in the writing conferences. Excerpt 3.7 below shows that while performing think-aloud protocol on the following sentence, Sha provided two feedbacks on the segment ‘discriminate’ below. She highlighted the segment and commented that the student needed to change part of speech: verb (discriminate) into noun (discrimination). She also wrote an interrogative comment in the document’s margin ‘what discrimination?’ She hinted that the student needed to explain what discrimination Muslims experienced while travelling.

(3.7) As an example the city of Sinton banned Barr’s Christian Organizatin that accommodate prisoners with christianity dogmas existing in the city limits, mosques are banned for no reason in Murfreesboro (Butterfield, 2013), and racial profiling and discriminate to Muslims while traveling, and on duties (Hacking, n.d). USA, the superpower country in the present

LENOVO Deleted: in

LENOVO January 11, 2016
What discrimination?

(Sha – Afif draft 3)

Both feedback points, i.e. part of speech (morphological errors) and lack of elaboration (content problems) problems, could not be put in a single theme, and thus it was coded twice and counted as two separate codes (double counting).

Afterwards, I re-read the transcripts and identified the piece of information about the teachers’ decision-making processes beyond the adapted coding framework. I coded the segments which contained new information and constructed new categories. I compared these

categories with the a priori coding framework and re-categorised the framework. I then coded and analysed the rest of the data using this new coding framework and continually re-categorised the coding system.

3.7.4.3 *Factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices*

The third analysis of think-aloud protocols transcripts aimed to describe the teachers' decision-making processes while giving written feedback on students' drafts. The coding process was both informed by the Activity Theory framework and driven by the data. Two stages of coding were used in the analysis: (a) coding the data using a preliminary coding framework derived from Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) components of activity system and (b) coding the data using categories which emerged from the data. The preliminary a priori coding framework adopted from Engeström (1987, 2001, 2016) was shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: The a priori coding framework to analyse factors influencing the teachers' feedback

Factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices (adopted from Engeström's activity system) • subjects, • communities, • instruments, • rules, • division of labour • objects

To analyse the data for the third theme (i.e. factors which influence the teachers' feedback provision), I first read the transcripts of the first think-aloud protocol sessions and coded the data using Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) components of the activity system. In addition to using the a priori coding categories, I also identified categories which emerged from the data. Both categories were then combined and structured (see Table 3.8). I continued coding the rest of the data using the new combined coding framework while re-categorising and re-organising the coding system.

The new categories of factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices were informed by both the Activity Theory framework and the transcript data, as shown below. These categories were used to code the rest of the data. Table 3.8 displays the final coding framework to analyse the think-aloud protocol data for the third theme.

Table 3.8: The final coding framework to analyse factors influencing the teachers' feedback

New categories of factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices

- **subjects**
 - teachers' beliefs, preference, and perception
 - teachers' desire and expectation
 - teachers' social history (background, education, and knowledge)
- **communities**
 - Inputs from other teachers
 - Students' L2 writing profiles (ability, needs, progress, and motivation)
- **instruments**
 - available technology

- **rules**
 - EFL1 course's policy on feedback (i.e. syllabus and assessment criteria)
 - the structure of feedback on L2 writing (written&oral feedback)
 - time pressure (time allocation and deadline)
 - Characteristics of EFL1 course (including the type of writing task/assignments)
- **division of labour**
 - teachers' roles and responsibilities in providing feedback
 - Students' request
- **objects**
 - to improve the students' writing ability
 - to comply with the course policy

Furthermore, I also assessed the intercoder reliability for these three coding frameworks, as I will report in section 3.7.8.1.

3.7.5 Analysis of teacher-student writing conferences transcripts

The teacher-student writing conferences transcripts were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively to understand three aspects of the teachers' oral feedback, which corresponded to the three research questions in this study: (a) the teachers' nature of oral feedback provision which corresponded with the first research question, (b) the teachers' decision-making processes while providing oral feedback which fitted the second research question, and (c) factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices which corresponded with the third research question. I selected 52 oral feedback transcripts (out of 72 transcripts) which matched the students' drafts and the teachers' think-aloud protocols. The other 20 transcripts

less relevant for the current analysis because these writing conferences did not match the students' essays and think-aloud protocols because these data were recorded not with the participating students or were recorded from different drafts.

3.7.5.1 The nature of the teachers' oral feedback provision

The writing conferences transcripts were first analysed to understand what happened in the writing conferences (the nature of the teachers' oral feedback), especially related to three topics: the teachers' oral feedback focus, types of oral feedback, and approach to providing oral feedback. When looking to the data, I noticed that the teachers used scaffolding in their writing conferences. Therefore, I also analysed the teachers' scaffolding and distinguished between scaffolding for new and repeated writing problems.

I adopted Nassaji and Swain's (2000) *relevant episodes* as the unit of analysis. A relevant episode was defined as an episode of discussion between a teacher and a student discussing a writing issue (Nassaji&Swain, 2000). In excerpt 3.8, Ayu and her student discussed an error in mechanics (punctuation). She pointed out the location of an error and noticed that the student had revised the error. Ayu then added information of the correct form.

(3.8) Ayu: This one. Can you check this one?

Student: Yes.

Ayu: The green one means punctuation. Punctuation is tanda baca and capitalisation. This one, okay, so you already=

Student: [I have fixed these.

Ayu: You have fixed it. Okay. So you have attached the punctuation right after the word. Don't put the space before the comma. Yes, just like

this.

Student: Yes.

(Ayu – writing conferences 1 Raja)

Each relevant episode was then classified into (1) the focus of oral feedback and (2) the type of oral feedback strategy. I classified the teachers' focus of oral feedback using the coding framework previously developed when analysing the teachers' focus of written feedback (see Section 3.7.4). To code and analyse the teachers' type of oral feedback in the writing conferences, I developed a preliminary coding framework informed by the sociocultural theory frameworks (Aljaafreh&Lantolf, 1994; Poehner, 2005) and the data.

Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) regulatory scale and Poehner's (2005) typology of mediation were adopted as a preliminary coding framework due to the similarity between their studies and the current study, which was the use of one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences to mediate students' interlanguage development and scaffold their L2 writing. In addition, both Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) and Poehner's (2005) frameworks seemed to complement each other. However, the focus of teachers' mediation in both studies was slightly different from the current study. The teachers' mediation in Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study was focused on negotiating the corrective feedback, while in Poehner's (2005) study, it was focused on shifting the students' performance in a given task (Poehner, 2005), and in the current study it was focused on helping the students understand the teachers' written feedback.

Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) developed a 13-stage mediation framework, as displayed in Table 3.9. They suggested that students' interlanguage development could be understood in

terms of the shifts in the tutor's level of mediation over time. A student who required level 8 mediation at the beginning and then responded positively to level 6 mediation later could be considered to move toward higher independent self-regulated performance (Lantolf, Kurtz, & Kisselev, 2016). Another researcher, Poehner (2005), developed a similar mediation typology consisting of 15 levels of mediation strategies (see Table 3.9).

Table 3.9: Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) and Poehner's (2005) lists of oral prompts

Aljaafreh & Lantolf's (1994) regulatory scale	Poehner's (2005) typology of mediation
(Prompts were ordered from the most implicit to the most explicit one)	(Prompts were ordered from the most implicit to the most explicit one)
0. The tutor asks the student to read, find the errors, and correct them independently, prior to the tutorial.	1. Helping move narration along
1. Construction of a collaborative frame prompted by the presence of the tutor as a potential dialogic partner.	2. Accepting response
2. Prompted or focused reading of the sentence that contains the error by the student or the tutor.	3. Request for repetition
3. Tutor indicates that something might be wrong in a segment	4. Request for verification
4. Tutor rejects unsuccessful attempts at	5. Reminder of directions
	6. Request for renarration
	7. Identifying specific site of error
	8. Specifying error
	9. Metalinguistic clues
	10. Translation
	11. Providing example or illustration
	12. Offering a choice

recognizing the error. 5. Tutor narrows down the location of the error. 6. Tutor indicates the nature of the error, but does not identify the error. 7. Tutor identifies the error. 8. Tutor rejects student's unsuccessful attempts at correcting the error. 9. Tutor provides clues to help the student arrive at the correct form. 10. Tutor provides the correct form. 11. Tutor provides some explanation for use of the correct form. 12. Tutor provides examples of the correct pattern when the other forms of help fail to produce an appropriate responsive action.	13. Providing correct response 14. Providing explanation 15. Asking for explanation

Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) and Poehner (2005) stated that their lists of oral prompts were meant to be representatives of major mediation/scaffolding strategies which the teachers offered in response to students' questions or difficulties and were not an exhaustive list of teachers' moves in the mediation process.

I developed a coding framework based on Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) and Poehner's (2005) theoretical frameworks as well as the collected data (writing conferences transcripts) to code the teachers' oral graduated oral prompts in this study (see Table 3.10). In

my opinion, both Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) and Poehner's (2005) frameworks contained not only corrective actions (e.g., providing metalinguistic feedback and direct error correction),but also other actions such as directive action (e.g., requesting for repetition),and expressive actions (e.g., rejecting unsuccessful attempts at recognizing the error).The following graduated oral prompts were sorted from the most implicit to the most explicit prompts.

Table 3.10: The coding framework of the teachers' graduated oral prompts

List of oral graduated oral prompts

1. Evaluating student's writing profile/product
2. Giving positive/negative comments or questions
3. Reading and summarising the text
4. Identifying the location or nature of a writing problem (feedback point)
5. Focusing on or moving on to a segment of writing
6. Repetition and elicitation
7. Request for clarification
8. Accepting or rejecting student's correction attempt
9. Challenging and encouraging elaboration
10. Request for reformulation
11. Metalinguistic feedback
12. Direct error correction

The analysis of the teachers' approach in providing oral feedback was conducted thematically. I looked at the relevant episodes in the writing conferences transcripts and

coded information regarding the teacher's approach in the writing conferences. Some thematic codes emerged from the data involved the following:

- I grouped two categories: 'teacher's contribution to the writing conferences' and 'student's contribution to the writing conferences' into 'teacher and student contribution to the writing conferences'

Moreover, I analysed the teacher and student participants' contribution to the writing conferences, especially who contributed more to the writing conferences and who dominated the conference. The analysis was first conducted by counting the time spent by each teacher and student participant to determine his/her contribution and dominance in the writing conference. However, I later noted that this approach might be less valid because I found many short and long pauses which influenced the participant's speaking duration. In addition, the duration of speaking might not in line with the significance of utterance produced. Thus, I changed the approach to determine each participant's dominance by looking at who started or led the topic in each relevant episode.

To analyse the writing conferences transcripts for the first theme (i.e. the teachers' oral feedback practices), I first transcribed the audio recordings of the writing conferences. Next, I imported to and organised the transcripts using NVivo 12 software. I read the transcripts of the first session of writing conferences and identified the teachers' relevant episodes using Nassaji and Swain's (2000) criteria. I also identified and coded the teachers' focus of oral feedback using the coding framework of developed to analyse the focus of written feedback (see Table 3.5) and the type of oral feedback using the framework adapted from Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) and Poehner's (2005) frameworks (see Table 3.10). While reading the transcripts and coding the segments, I also identified and coded any new piece of information of the teachers' focus and type of oral feedback which emerged from the data

which the a priori frameworks did not cover (open coding). For example, I suggested adding a new category ‘challenging and encouraging elaboration’ as a type of graduated oral prompts. I gathered these new open codes emerged from the data, combined them with the a priori categories in Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) and Poehner's (2005) frameworks, re-categorised and condensed them into a new coding system (see Table 3.10). Afterwards, I coded the rest of the data using the new coding framework. I also calculated the frequency of the teachers’ codes on the focus and type of oral feedback for each teacher and session.

The next stage of analysis was the analysis of the teachers’ approach to providing oral feedback in the writing conferences. I analysed the writing conferences transcripts thematically. I read the transcripts, identified segments of transcripts which contained information about the teachers’ approach to providing oral feedback in the writing conferences and coded these segments using descriptive codes (open coding). I re-read the transcripts, grouped the codes into initial categories and themes. The emergent themes included the use of L1 and L2 in the writing conferences, approach to providing oral feedback on repeated writing problems, and time spent for providing feedback. The intercoder reliability result was reported in Section 3.7.8.1.

3.7.5.2 The teachers’ decision-making processes while providing oral feedback

The writing conferences transcripts were also analysed in response to the second research question, that is, the teachers’ decision-making processes while providing oral feedback. I developed an initial coding framework informed by (a) the coding framework used to analyse the teachers’ decision-making in the written feedback session (see Table 3.6), (b) Freedman and Katz’s (1987) procedures of writing conference, (c) the list of graduated oral prompts (Table 3.10), and (d) the writing conferences data. Freedman and Katz’s (1987) procedures of teacher-student writing conferences was used as one of sources of the initial coding because their model included teacher- and student-initiated turns and the model was

frequently used or cited in some studies on L2 composition (e.g., Ferris, 2003; Goldstein&Conrad, 1990). Freedman and Katz (1987) analysed writing conferences and found that writing conferences contained five main procedures: opening, student-initiated comments and questions, teacher-initiated comments and questions, reading, and closing. I adopted Freedman and Katz' framework to code five transcripts of writing conferences (about 10%) and constructed an initial coding framework for writing conferences, as set out in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: The coding framework to analyse the teachers' decision-making processes (writing conferences data)

Sequences of decision-making processes in writing conference	Metacognitive (self-monitoring) behaviours	Cognitive behaviours (on language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation of writing)
Opening	• Inviting student to discussion and making plans	
Task definition	• Evaluating student's writing profile/product	
Text reviewing	• Giving positive/negative comments or questions	• Reading and summarising the text • Identifying the location or nature of a writing problem (feedback point) • focusing on or moving on to a segment of writing
Correction		• Repetition and elicitation

provision and follow-up		• Request for clarification • Accepting or rejecting a student's correction attempt • Challenging and encouraging elaboration • Request for reformulation • Metalinguistic feedback • Direct error correction
Closing	• Making plans	

In the above framework, I adopted Freedman and Katz's (1987) notions of 'opening' and 'closing' and adopted 'task definition' and 'text reviewing' categories from the decision-making framework. I added 'correction provision and follow-up' to classify the categories in which the teachers gradually scaffolded the students in understanding the teachers' written feedback on the students' drafts and/or ways to revise the writing problems. Since the decision-making processes related closely with the teachers' scaffolding and not so much could be observed from the teachers' internal process of thinking, I used the list of graduated oral prompts to code the teachers' decision-making actions (see Table 3.10).

To analyse the teachers' decision-making processes while providing oral feedback, I first transcribed the audio recordings of the writing conferences and organised the transcripts in the NVivo 12 software. I read the writing conferences transcripts of the first written feedback session and segmented the relevant episodes into decision-making units using the above coding framework. A segment which contained two or more categories of decision-making (e.g., the teachers discuss two writing problems at the same time) was coded as two or more items accordingly. I re-read the transcripts and search for any new information about

the teachers' decision-making processes which might not be covered by the adapted coding framework. I coded these new segments, constructed new categories, compared the categories with the a priori coding framework, and re-categorised the coding system. I assessed the intercoder reliability of this new coding framework, as will be described in Section 3.7.8.1. Afterwards, I coded and analysed the rest of the data using this new coding framework and continually re-organise the coding system.

3.7.5.3 Factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices

The procedures and the coding framework used to analyse factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices in the writing conferences and think-aloud protocol transcripts were similar. I analysed the writing conferences transcripts qualitatively using the coding framework in Table 3.7. The result of the intercoder reliability test will be described in Section 3.7.8.1.

3.7.6 Analysis of teacher interview transcripts

The teachers' responses to the interview questions were identified, summarised, and coded thematically using NVivo 12 software. In the beginning, more than ten different themes were identified based on the interview questions in the interview guide. I performed another coding procedure to collapse some categories that covered similar issues. Four categories relevant to the issues addressed in the current research were identified: (a) the teachers' learning and teaching experience, (b) the nature of EFL teachers' feedback (teachers' feedback practices and beliefs about feedback provision), (c) decision-making processes involved in feedback practice, and (d) factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices. These interview codes reflected the teachers' response and interesting points in the data. In addition, the interviews were searched to find evidence of tacit understandings and the multiple samples were compared to find patterns in the evidence (Quinn 2005, p. 19). Next, collective responses were written for each question. This descriptive writing

became a necessary first step to organise the data. The multiple samples were also compared to identify outlier voices, where students provided alternative insights into the situation. The heterogeneity of the voices was presented and preserved throughout the data analysis and presentation. The teachers' interview data were then analysed qualitatively and individually to preserve each teacher's beliefs and thoughts and then were related to the above conceptual categories (Johnson, 1994) to examine the teachers as a group. The result of the intercoder reliability test will be reported in Section 3.7.8.1.

3.7.7 Analysis of teaching documents and field notes

The teaching documents (i.e. syllabus, lesson plans, teaching logs, EFL1 textbooks, teachers' curriculum vitae) and the field notes were analysed qualitatively and thematically to understand (a) factors which influence the teachers' written feedback and (b) the teachers and students' L2 writing profiles. The teaching documents were coded using the coding framework in Table (3.7). This framework was informed by Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) theoretical framework of activity system and the data. I particularly paid attention to the segments which contain information about factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices. The video recordings of the classroom observations were not transcribed but analysed by cross-referencing the recordings with the field notes. I took notes on the teacher participants and class activities on an Excel document as documentation. I used the field notes and the teachers' CV to develop my description of the participants.

3.7.8 Establishing the validity and reliability of the study

To produce well-grounded results and conclusions, case study researchers should ensure the validity and reliability (dependability) of the case study (e.g., Davies&Beaumont, 2011; Kidder, 1981; Merriam&Tisdell, 2015).The validity of this case study was proven through three tests: construct validity, internal-validity (credibility),and external-validity (transferability):

- a) Construct validity, which aimed to examine whether the tool used was appropriate to measure the data and whether “the research adequately captures the construct of interest” (Mackey & Gass, 2016; Mills et al., 2010). Three procedures were used to ensure that the instruments, parameters, and framework used in this research are warranted and feasible: (a) devising data collection which matched the object of investigation, (b) trial study, and (c) considering multiple factors in the analysis process. First, the primary goal of this study was to understand L2 teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing and the object of investigation were the teachers' feedback (forms, approaches, focus, and types of feedback) and students' L2 writing (argumentative essay writing). I considered the object of investigation when I was devising the data collection method. It was expected that matching the type of data collection method and the object of investigation will help examining the teachers' feedback provision practices accurately and reliably (Loewen, 2018). Since the teachers provided written and oral feedback on their students' L2 writing, I collected the data on the teachers' written feedback by collecting students' L2 writing documents (essay drafts) and recording the teachers performed think-aloud protocols while providing written feedback. Next, I collected the data on the teachers' oral feedback by audio recording teacher-student writing conferences. Second, a trial study on the think-aloud protocol and interview procedures was conducted before conducting the main research (see Section 3.5.1). I also tested the construct validity by examining if the coverage of each question addressed the content and construct validity. Third, during the analysis process, multiple estimates which influenced the teachers' feedback activity were considered together to ensure the construct validity (Mackey & Gass, 2016). It should be noted that there were no foolproof coding

schemes as a well-designed coding scheme may still fail to operate or be used wrongly sometimes.

- b) Internal-validity (credibility) which aimed to test whether the results and interpretations of the data were credible and match the reality (Duff, 2008; Merriam&Tisdell, 2015). Merriam and Tisdell (2015) suggested five strategies to ensure the internal validity of qualitative research: (a) triangulation; (b) member checks; (c) adequate engagement in data collection (getting as close as possible to participants' understanding of a phenomenon); (d) researcher's position (reflexivity; how the researcher and the research process affect each other); and (e) peer examination (peer review).
- c) External-validity (transferability) which aimed to examine whether the findings of a study could be transferred into other contexts. The findings of a case study were not statistically generalisable because the study uses population rather than random samples, but it was possible to transfer the study into other situations (transferability) (see Lincoln&Guba, 1985). The original researcher had to provide sufficient descriptive data to ensure transferability (p. 298). To establish transferability, researchers could use the following three strategies: (a) providing rich, detailed description of the setting and the participants of a study (Merriam&Tisdell, 2015); (b) being careful in selecting the sample (maximum variation in the sample); and (c) purposefully selecting a typical sample (Merriam&Tisdell, 2015).

The second criteria of evaluation used in this study was reliability (dependability), which refers to the degree to which the procedures and findings of a case study could be replicated in another context and whether it could yield similar and consistent results (Merriam&Tisdell, 2015). Findings of a case study were considered more valid (credible) if replications of the case study could produce the same results (reliable). However,

some qualitative researchers believed that replication of a qualitative study will not yield the same results because “ socially constructed understandings were always in the process the context and participants change over time” (Tracy, 2010, p. 229). Four strategies could be applied to ensure the reliability (dependability) and consistency of qualitative research: (a) triangulation, (b) peer examination, (c) researcher’s position (reflexivity), and (d) the audit trail (Merriam&Tisdell, 2015). An audit trail strategy involves describing in detail how data were collected and categorised and how researchers made decisions throughout the inquiry (Merriam&Tisdell, 2015).

In addition to trial study, four strategies were used to establish the validity and reliability of the current study: (a) construct validity inter-coder reliability, (b) triangulation, (c) member checks, and (d) rich, thick descriptions.

3.7.8.1 Inter-Coder Reliability

To increase the reliability of the analysis, I invited a second coder to code 10% of the following data: (a) think-aloud protocol transcripts (n=8), (b) writing conferences transcripts (n=5), and (c) interview transcripts (n=2) using the prepared coding framework (inter-coder reliability). The inter-coder reliability procedure was aimed to measure the extent to which another independent coder agrees with the coding of the data using the same coding scheme (Güvendir, 2014) to ensure that my coding procedures were reliable and consistent and the inferences on the data were valid.

I recursively read all the think-aloud protocol transcripts using the a priori coding framework and the themes emerged from the data. Then I recruited an Indonesian student (PhD in Linguistics) to code the think-aloud protocol transcripts. I trained the second coder to code the data using the NVivo 12 software and prepared a coding guideline written in Indonesian. After the training, the second coder coded the eight think-aloud protocol

transcripts independently. However, because the second coder experienced difficulties in using NVivo 12 software, it was decided to allow the second rater to code the data using Microsoft Office Word software and I inserted the coding into NVivo 12 software.

I used Cohen's (1960) Kappa coefficient measure, a detailed statistical measure of inter-coder agreement, which accounts the observed the agreement and the agreement by chance (Cohen, 1960; Lombard et al., 2010). The calculation was conducted using NVivo version 12 software. The overall inter-coder reliability was established at 0.89, which indicated a high level of intercoder agreement. The second coder and I discussed the disagreement regarding terms used and code descriptions, resolved these issues, and refined the preliminary coding framework to analyse the think-aloud protocol transcripts (see Table 3.6). The same procedure was carried out for the coding frameworks used to analyse the teacher-student writing conferences (inter-coder reliability 0.81) and the interview transcripts (inter-coder reliability 0.90).

3.7.8.2 Triangulation

Case study researchers might oversimplify the complexity of the case by producing unwarranted claims based on a false data interpretation (Sturman, 1999). Thus, to improve the credibility of a case study, one requires triangulation (Sturman, 1999) to identify the same case from different perspectives (Stake, 2005). To achieve this goal, researchers could adopt a mixed method study and compare the findings generated by the different methods for corroboration and correspondence (Greene, 2001). Triangulation can be conducted on the data sources, data collection and analysis methods, data collection period, investigator, and the theory (Duff, 2008; Freeman, 1998; Merriam&Tisdell, 2015).

I employed triangulation of data sources as well as data collection and analysis methods. Triangulation of data sources was conducted by collecting data from multiple

participants (nine teachers and 24 students) and conducting follow-up interviews with the same participants (see Merriam&Tisdell, 2015). In total, I collected 33 different data sources. I triangulated the data collection method by collecting the data using five data collection procedures (i.e. teachers' think-aloud protocol, teacher-student writing conferences, teacher interviews, classroom observations, document collection) and triangulating the data analysis method by employing qualitative and quantitative analyses, and comparing the findings obtained from these procedures. These multiple data collection and analysis procedures were expected to help gain different but complementary data and produce a detailed picture of the EFL teachers' written feedback from multiple perspectives (see Rothbauer, 2011). A comparison of results from various data collection techniques was expected to enhance the accuracy, consistency, reliability, and validity of the findings generated from various data collection methods.

3.7.8.3 Member checks (respondent validation)

Lincoln and Guba (1985) considered member checking (respondent validation) procedure as an essential strategy to reinforce the internal validity of the qualitative research findings (Merriam&Tisdell, 2015).

I performed member checks at the conclusion of thesis writing. I e-mailed the findings to the teacher participants at the conclusion of my preliminary analysis to check if my transcriptions were accurate and if my preliminary interpretation regarding what the participants thought accurately reflected their intended meaning. Three teachers responded to my e-mail.²One of the teachers provided feedback on my interpretation regarding what the teacher thought when he paused and provided feedback on students' drafts using colour/codes.

²Six other teachers did not respond to my email, including some who had resigned from the university.

3.7.8.4 Rich, thick descriptions

To enhance the external validity (transferability), I provided a detailed description of the setting and the participants of the study to help the readers determine the extent to which the findings of this study could be transferred into their situations.

CHAPTER FOUR: The Nature of The Indonesian EFL Teacher feedback on L2 writing

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presents the research design and approaches to the data collection, data coding, and data analysis in the current study. The current chapter presents the findings of the first research question regarding the nature of the teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing. The data were gathered from the students' essay drafts and transcripts of think-aloud protocol and writing conferences. The data were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively. In the following sections, I first report the teachers' focus and type of written feedback as derived from the students' essay drafts. What follows is the description of the teachers' approach to written feedback on students' L2 writing. The data were derived from the teachers' think-aloud protocol transcripts. Afterwards, I describe the nature of the teachers' oral feedback in the teacher-student writing conferences, including the focus, type, and approach to oral feedback. In the last section, I briefly summarise the differences between the teachers' written and oral feedback.

4.2 The teachers' written feedback on students' L2 writing

All EFL teacher participants provided three to five sessions of written feedback followed by oral feedback on the students' consecutive drafts of essay. The written feedback was mostly provided electronically using Microsoft Office Word software.

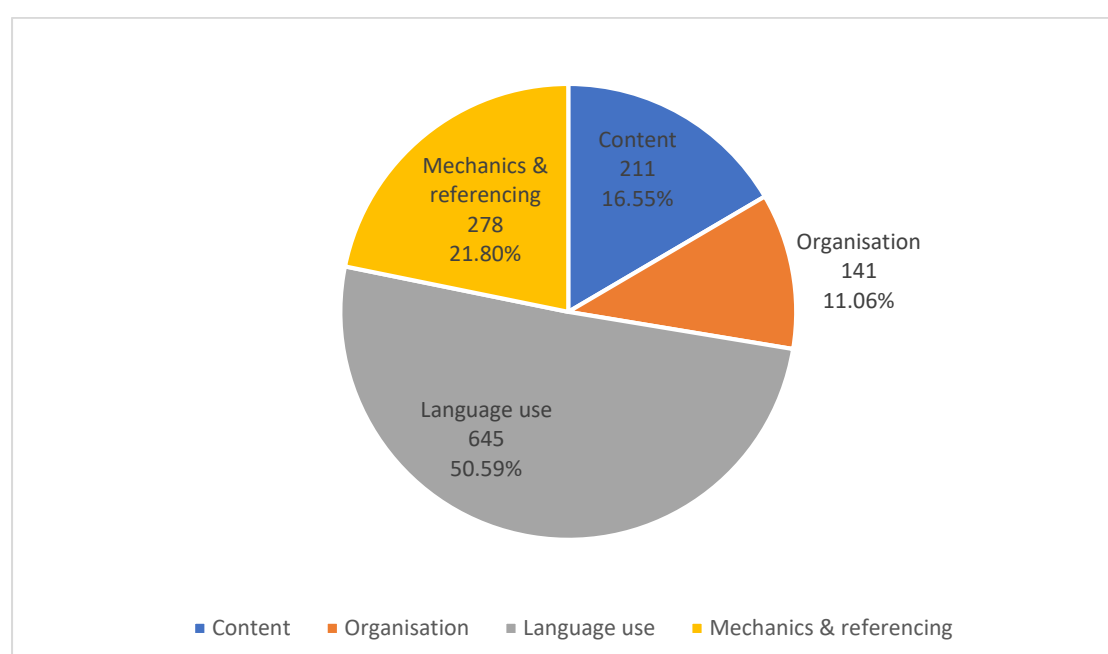
4.2.1 Findings from the students' essay drafts

All teachers reviewed and provided written feedback using Microsoft Office Word features, except for Gie who provided first written feedback using pen and paper.

4.2.1.1 The focus of written feedback

Approximately 1275 written feedback points were identified and analysed and the results showed that the teachers provided feedback on four aspects of writing, in the following order of frequency: (a) language use (50.59%), (b) mechanics and referencing style (21.80%), (c) content (16.55%), and (d) organisation (11.06%). Figure 4.1 shows the total number and percentages of the teachers' written feedback points on the students' drafts, while Table 4.1 shows the frequency of written feedback points on each aspect of writing across the three feedback sessions. The findings indicated that the teachers focused more on local issues (language use, errors in mechanics and referencing style). Approximately half of the teachers' written feedback was on errors in language use (50.95%). On the other hand, the teachers provided less feedback on global issues in students' L2 writing (i.e. content and organisation problems), as displayed in Figures 4.1 and 4.2.

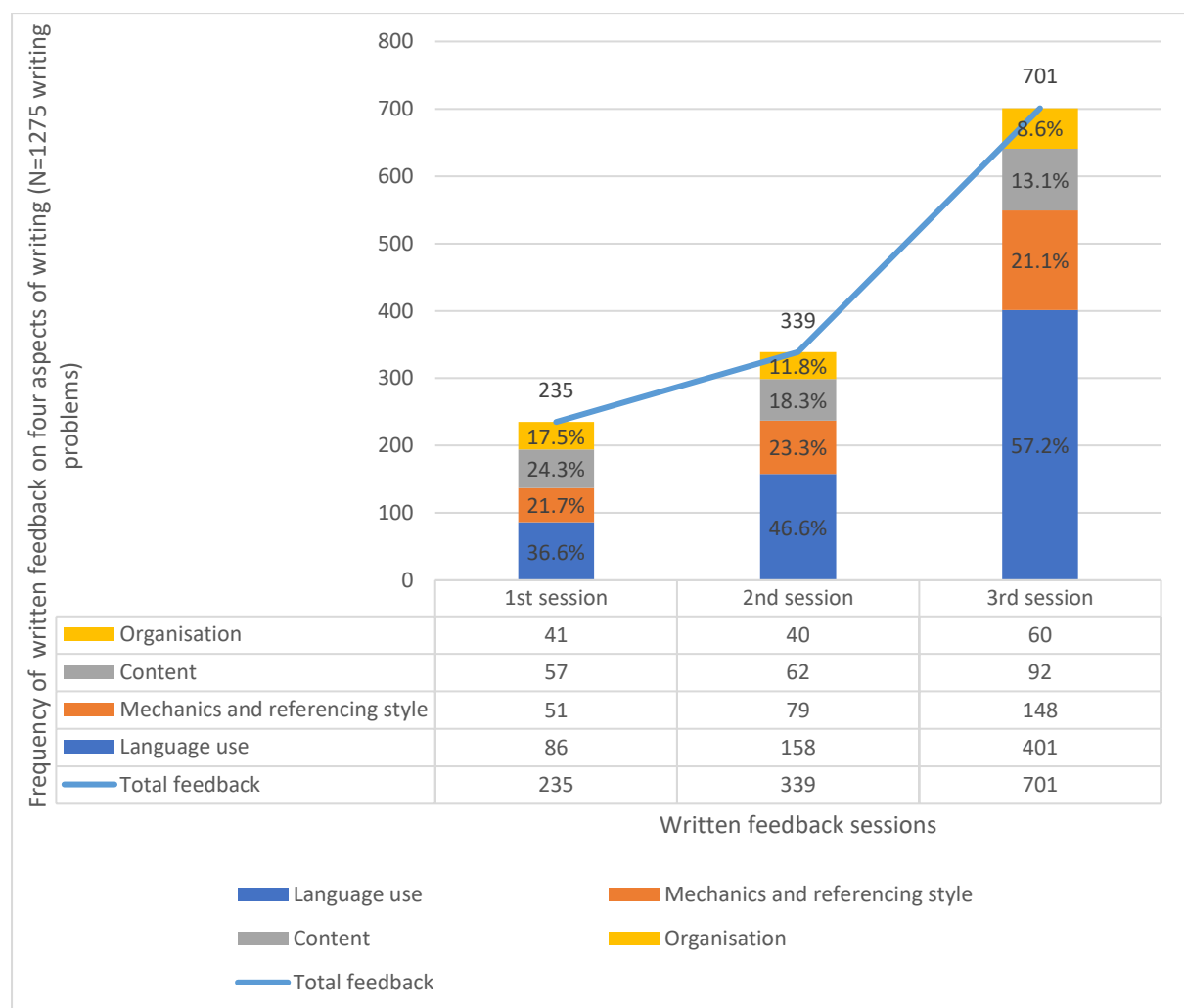
Figure 4.1: The focus of EFL teachers' written feedback (N=1275 feedback points)



The tendency of the teachers to provide more feedback on language errors was also evidenced across each of the three feedback sessions, as shown in Figure 4.2, the overall

frequency of the teachers' written feedback increased from the first feedback session to the second and peaked in the third feedback session. The amount of written feedback on errors in language use increased over three feedback sessions, while the amount of feedback on errors in mechanics and referencing style tended to be steady, and feedback on content and organisation decreased.

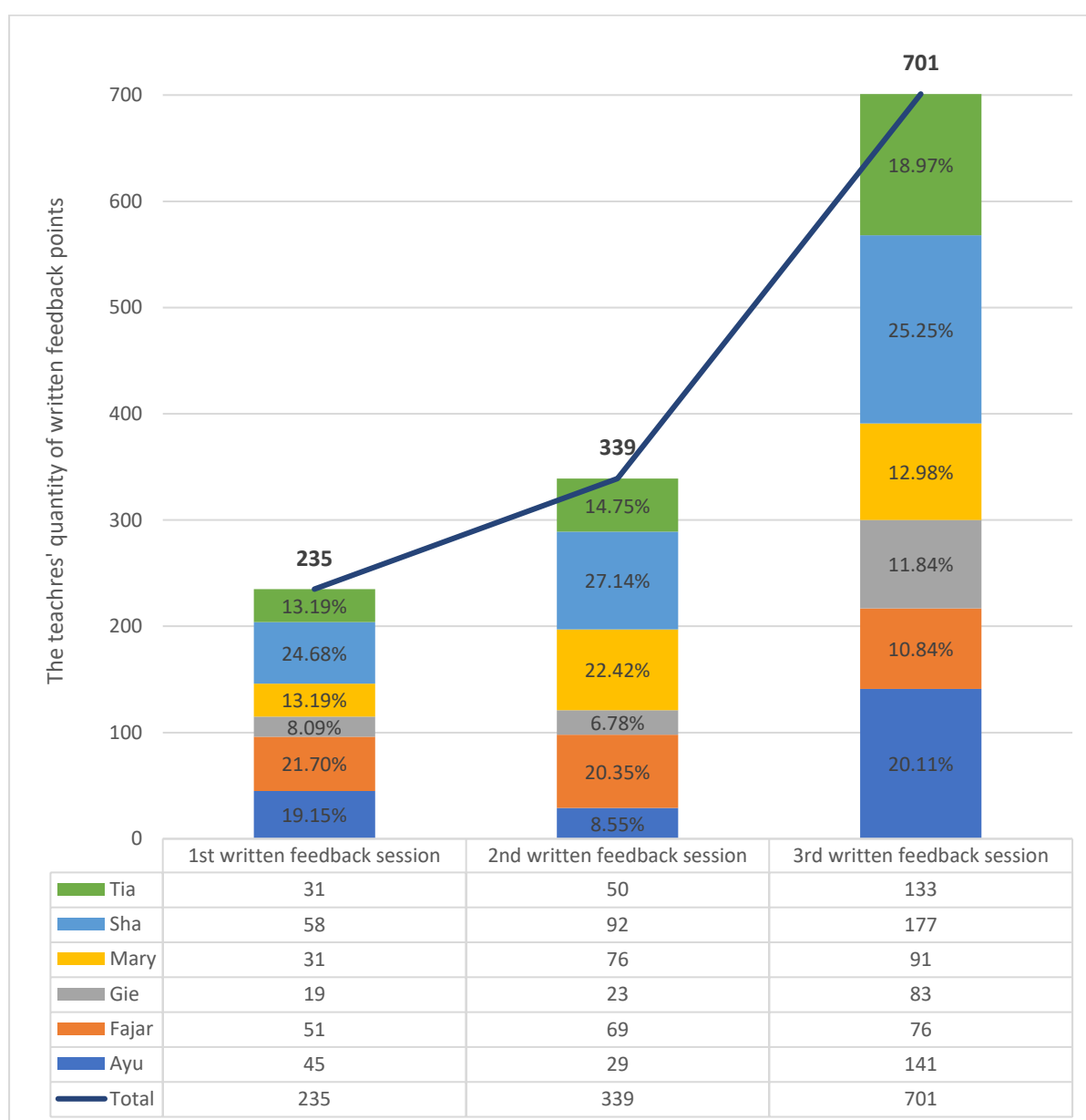
Figure 4. 2: The quantity of feedback points on each written feedback session (n=6 teachers)



Another point to note from Figure 4.2 is that the quantity of written feedback points provided in the third feedback session increased more than twice when compared to the second feedback session. However, content and organisation received progressively less attention when compared with the total proportion of all feedback.

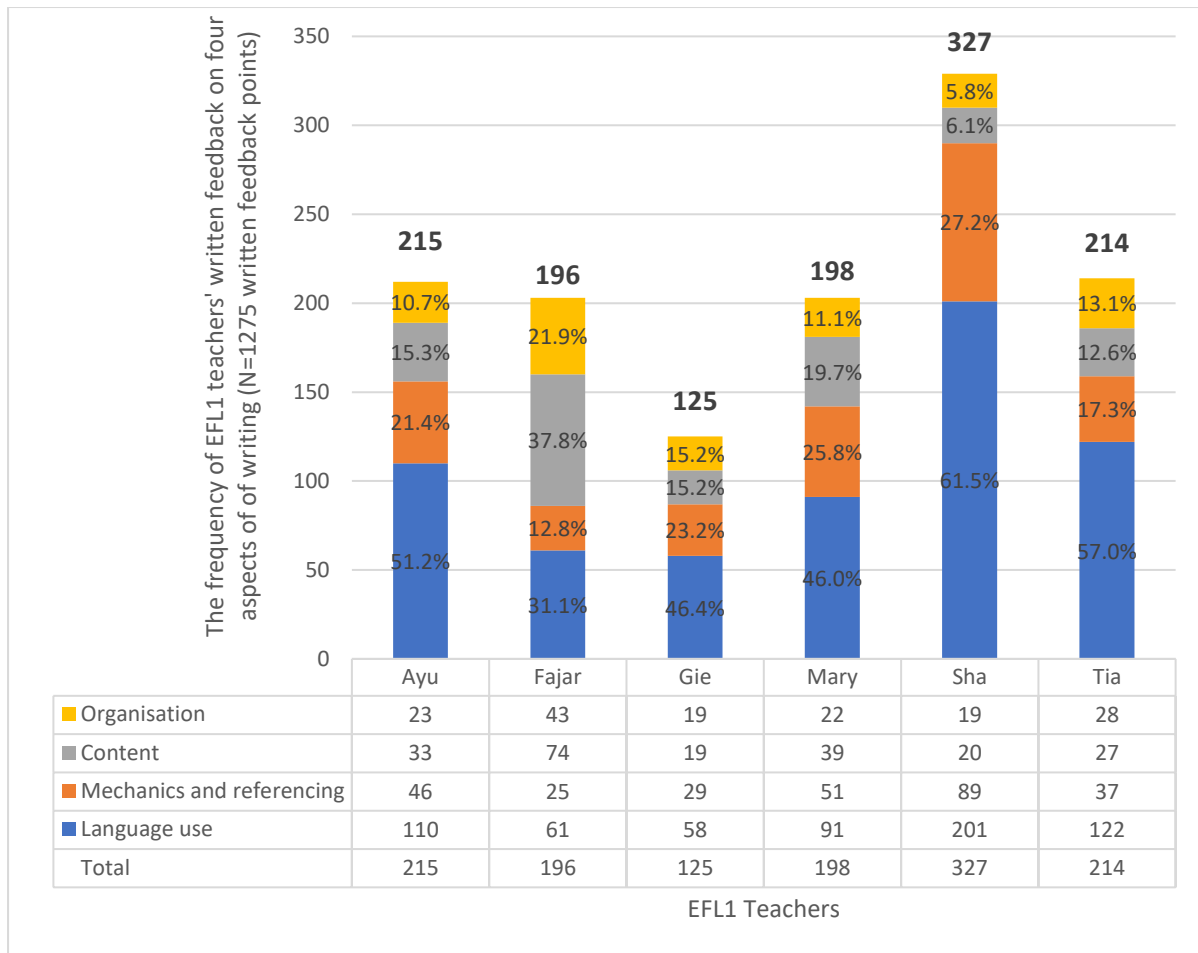
The amount of written feedback that each of the teachers (n=6) provided on the students' (n=24) drafts can be seen in Figure 4.3. Most teachers provided increasingly more feedback over three written feedback sessions, except for Ayu, who provided slightly less feedback in the second feedback session. Sha consistently provided the most written feedback in all three written feedback sessions, while Gie provided the least feedback, especially in the first and second feedback sessions.

Figure 4. 3: The frequency of written feedback points the teachers provided on students' drafts (n=6 teachers)



The frequency and focus of the EFL1 teachers' written feedback on four students' drafts can be seen in Figure 4.4. Five (out of six) teachers provided more feedback on errors in language use than on errors in three other aspects of writing (i.e. mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation), and another teacher (Fajar) provided more written feedback on content issues.

Figure 4. 4: The frequency and focus of teachers' written feedback (n=6 teachers)



The following analysis involved examining the teachers' written feedback on each aspect of writing, as discussed in the following sections. Since the teachers provided significantly more feedback on errors in language use (slightly more than half of the written feedback points), the sections below were organised into (a) written feedback on errors in language use and (b) written feedback on other aspects of writing (mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation).

4.2.1.2 Written feedback on errors in language use

The analysis of the students' drafts showed that the teachers provided written feedback on errors in language use in the following order: (a) morphological errors, (b) lexical and stylistic, (c) grammatical, and (d) syntactic errors. Written feedback on

morphological errors was mostly provided on tense and verb form errors (see excerpt 4.1), while feedback on lexical and stylistic errors was commonly provided on word choice errors (see excerpt 4.2). Feedback on grammatical errors was mostly provided on conjunction errors (see excerpt 4.3) and feedback on syntactic errors was mostly provided on the absence of major constituent (sentence fragment) errors (see excerpt 4.4). Following are examples of errors in language use. In excerpt 4.1, Mary provided direct feedback on Salsa's tense and verb form errors. Mary changed a long phrase into a sentence by adding future tense form 'there will be'.

(4.1) Feedback on tense and verb form errors

situation is not always a 'disaster' for Indonesia. Indonesia can also gain some benefit from this demographic bonus such as, more opportunity window for Indonesia, more people in productive age that will help Indonesia and last but not least there will be sufficient time to have preparation of the youth and government due to this demographic bonus.

(Mary – Salsa draft 2)

Excerpt 4.2 shows Gie gave a direct feedback on a word choice which he considered incorrect. Gie suggested his student to change 'reflection' to 'conclusion'.

(4.2) Feedback on word choice errors

d perfectly, and the benefits of demographic bonus will be accomplished and the will be wealthier.

From this reflection I do believe that engineering is important to support demographic

 **Citizen** January 11, 2016
conclusion

(Gie – Rafif draft 3)

Excerpt 4.3 shows a feedback on conjunction errors. Mary added a conjunction 'not only ... but also.'

(4.3) Feedback on conjunction errors

Muslims” (Smith, 2014). However those **bad images** affect the Islam, not **only** the person who does the mistake, **but also...** Anti-Muslim should be banned because of the way they treat Muslim, the way they make a bad image for Islam **,and** the way they discriminate Muslim’s psychology.

(Mary – Austine draft 2)

Below is an example of indirect feedback on the absence of major constituent (sentence fragment) (excerpt 4.4). Gie highlighted a phrase and wrote in the document’s margin that the phrase was not a sentence. He wrote, “ It is not a sentence.”

(4.4) Feedback on the absence of major constituent (sentence fragment) errors

From their brand new technology invention that changed the human’s lifestyle. In engineering, there are fundamentals that all engineers must have, it is some kind of doctrine. **My lecturer Mr. Ridwan Andi Purnomo.** He said “in industrial engineering, there is no great system and we think it is the best system, there is always a way to improve it, no matter what.

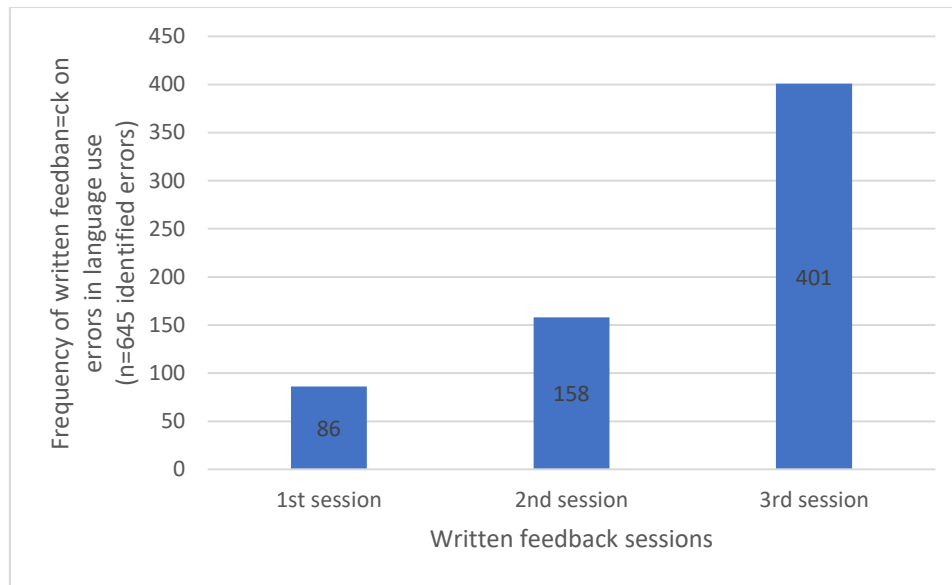
Citizen January 11, 2016
It is not a sentence

(Gie – Rafif draft 3)

Appendix K displays the overall quantity of teachers’ written feedback on all errors in language use.

The number of teachers' (n=6) written feedback on errors in language use significantly increased over the three written feedback sessions and peaked in the third feedback session, as shown in Figure 4.5.

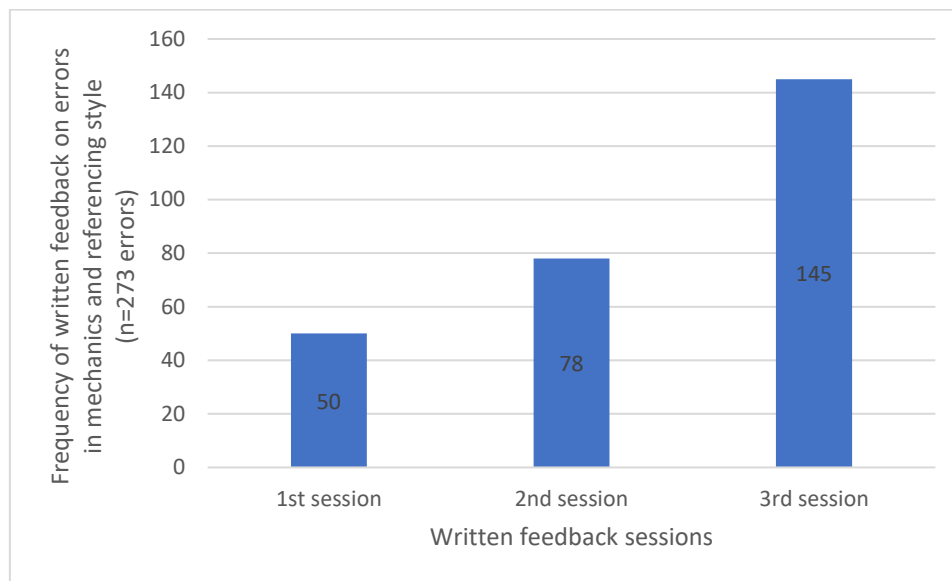
Figure 4. 5: The frequency of the teachers' (n=6) written feedback on language use



4.2.1.3 Written Feedback on mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation

About 50% of the teachers' written feedback was provided on errors in mechanics and referencing style (21.73%), content (16.63%) and organisation (12.08%) problems. The teachers' written feedback on errors in mechanics and referencing style significantly increased over the three feedback sessions and peaked in the third written feedback session, as displayed in Figure 4.6. However, the frequency of feedback on mechanics and referencing style did not increase in terms of overall percentage. The most common type of mechanics errors (n=144) which the teachers targeted included errors in punctuation, spelling, capitalisation, and abbreviation. Errors in document format, including spacing, margin, and font size, were the least frequently identified errors in this category. The detailed frequency of the teachers' written feedback in errors in mechanics and referencing style was displayed in Appendix O.

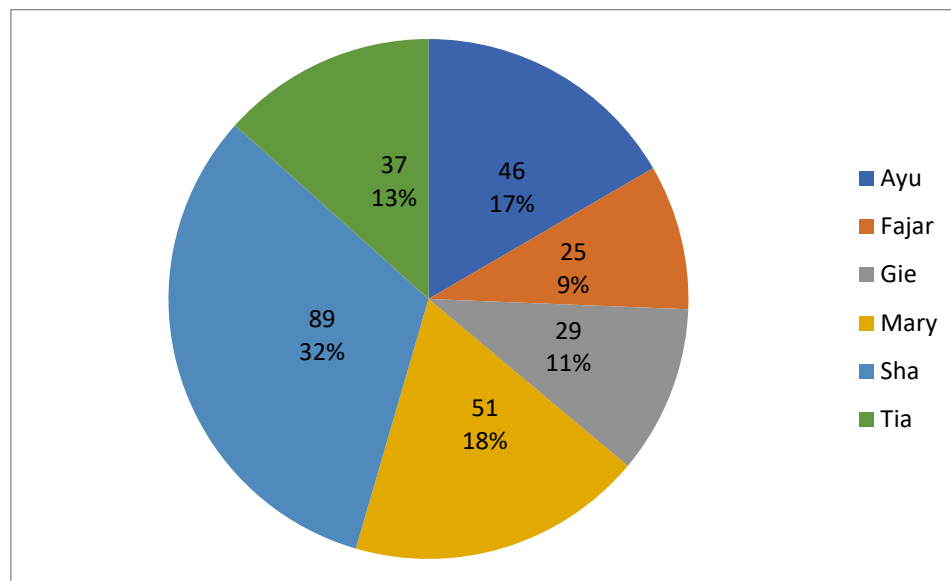
Figure 4. 6: The frequency of teachers' (n=6) written feedback on errors in mechanics and referencing style



As Figure 4.6 shows, the frequency of the teachers' feedback on errors in mechanics and referencing style increased significantly and almost doubled in the third written feedback session.

Of the six teachers, Sha provided the most feedback on mechanics and referencing style (n=89), while Fajar provided the least (n=25). The teachers' amount of written feedback on errors in mechanics and referencing style is shown in Figure 4.7.

Figure 4. 7: The teachers' quantity of written feedback on students' (n=4) errors in mechanics and referencing style



The teachers provided 211 feedback points on content issues, on the ideas and logic issues, including problems in constructing ideas and the logic of argumentation or reasoning. Excerpt 4.5 shows an example of Mary's feedback on ideas and logic problem in Salsa's concluding paragraph. She wrote a comment, “ please see your previous topic sentence → you relate it to DB, unfortunately this topic sentence is not directly related to the DB.”

(4.5) Feedback on ideas and logic problem

prosperity of Indonesia and the value of rupiah itself. More GDP also can lead Indonesia to have higher standard living.

More people in productive age means people who are willing to work are increasing, “113 million skilled workers needed” (Oberman, et al., 2012, p. 9) from that we can say that the role of people in productive age are important. It is important because people in productive age tend to have

Marin January 06, 2016
Please see your previous topic sentence → you relate it to DB, unfortunately this topic sentence is not directly related to the DB

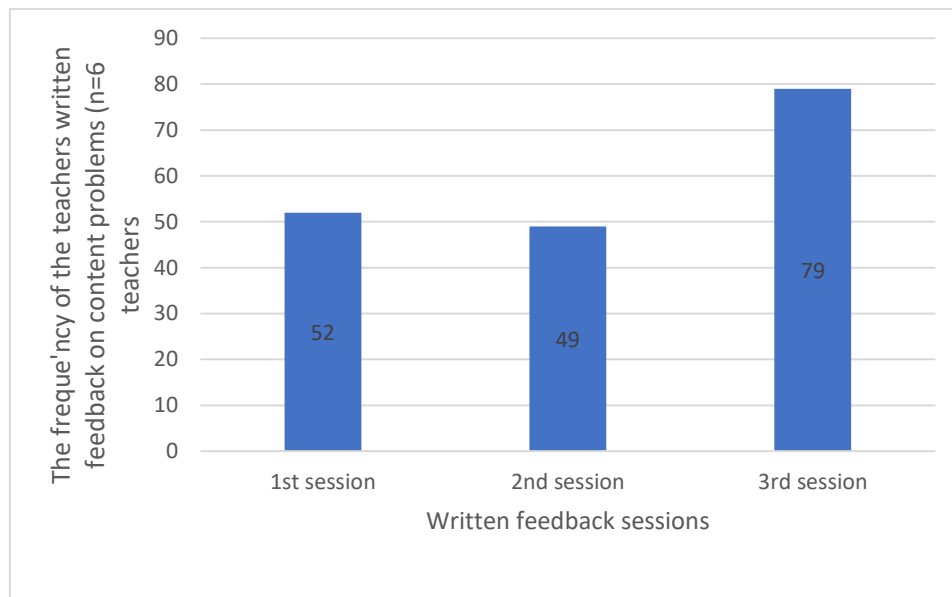
[Reply](#) [Resolve](#)

Marin You can improve this sentence by ▼

(Mary – Salsa draft 2)

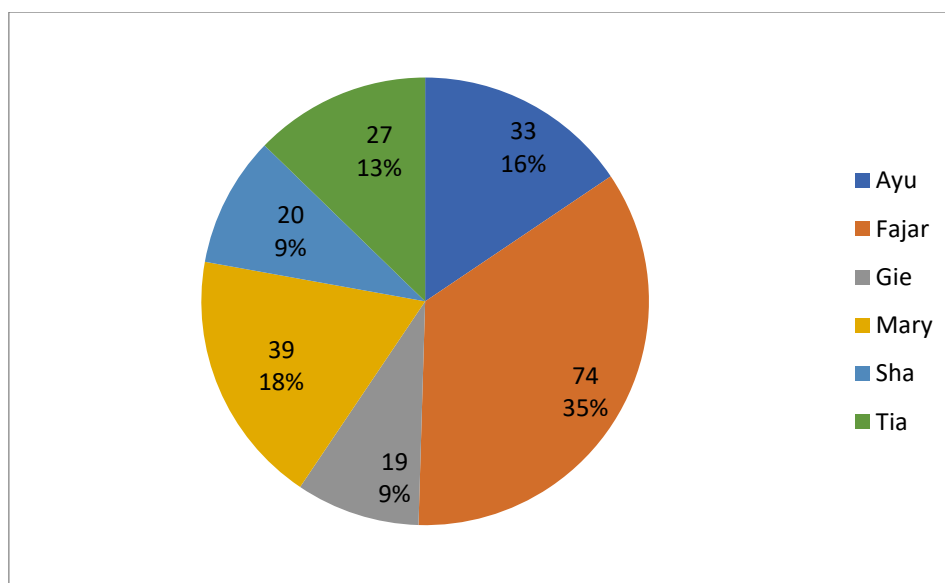
The teachers' frequency of written feedback increased over three written feedback sessions, except for idea and logic where the teachers provided slightly less feedback in the second feedback session, as shown in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.8: The amount of the teachers' written feedback points on content problems (n=6 teachers)



Appendix K showed the teachers' written feedback on content issues. Of the six teachers, Fajar provided the most written feedback on content (n=74), while Sha provided the least one (n=20). Figure 4.9 displays the teachers' frequency of written feedback on content issues.

Figure 4. 9: The teachers' (n=6) written feedback on four students' content problems



Organisation received the least written feedback. Among organisation problems, the teachers provided most feedback on sentence flow (coherence) problem, particularly in the second and third feedback sessions. Excerpt 4.6 shows Mary's feedback on the sentence flow problem in Salsa's second draft. She wrote a comment, "It will be complete your paragraph if you can give concluding sentence wo wrap up your points here → also in other paragraphs."

(4.6) Feedback on sentence flow (coherence) problem

make the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) increasing. The increasing of GDP also will lead to increase the prosperity of Indonesia and the value of rupiah itself. More GDP also can lead Indonesia to have higher standard living.

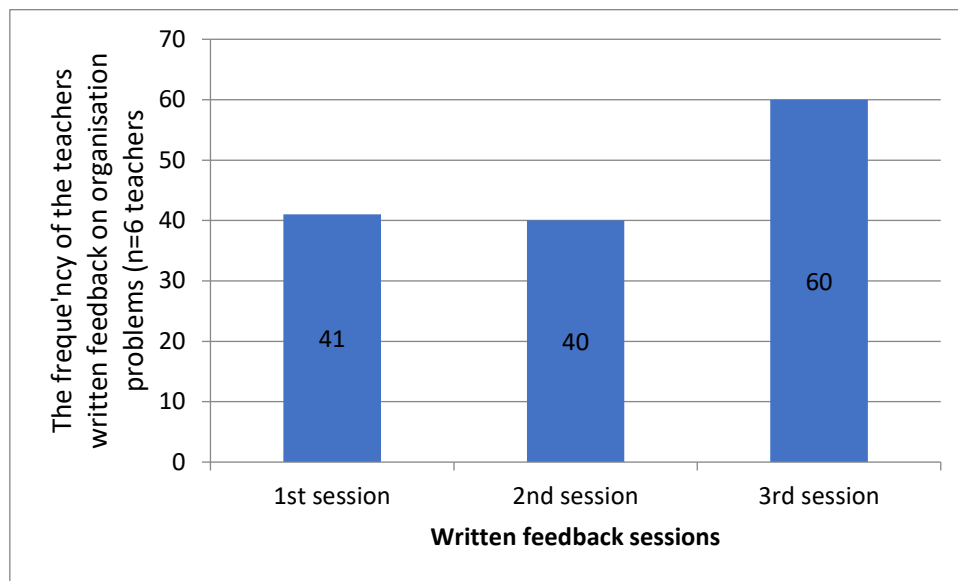
M **Marin** January 06, 2016
It will be complete your paragraph if you can give concluding sentence wo wrap up your points here → also in other paragraphs

✎ D Drafts ✎ D Drafts

(Mary – Salsa draft 2)

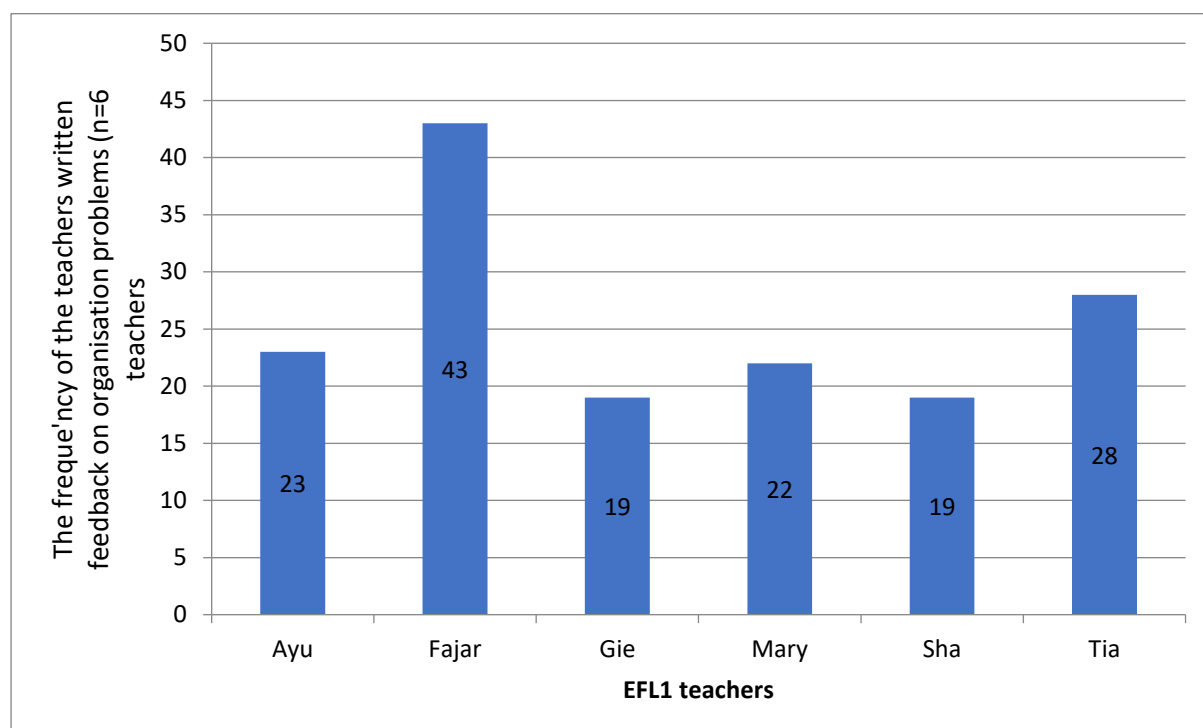
Figure 4.10 displays the teachers' written feedback on organisation problems.

Figure 4.10: The frequency of teachers' (n=6) written feedback on organisation problems



The overall frequency of the teachers' written feedback in organisation problems is shown in Appendix K. Similar to written feedback on content problems, Fajar provided the most written feedback on organisation problems (n=43) in the students' (n=4) drafts, while Sha provided the least one (n=19), as shown in Figure 4.11.

**Figure 4. 11: The teachers' written feedback on four students' organisation problems
(n=6 teachers)**



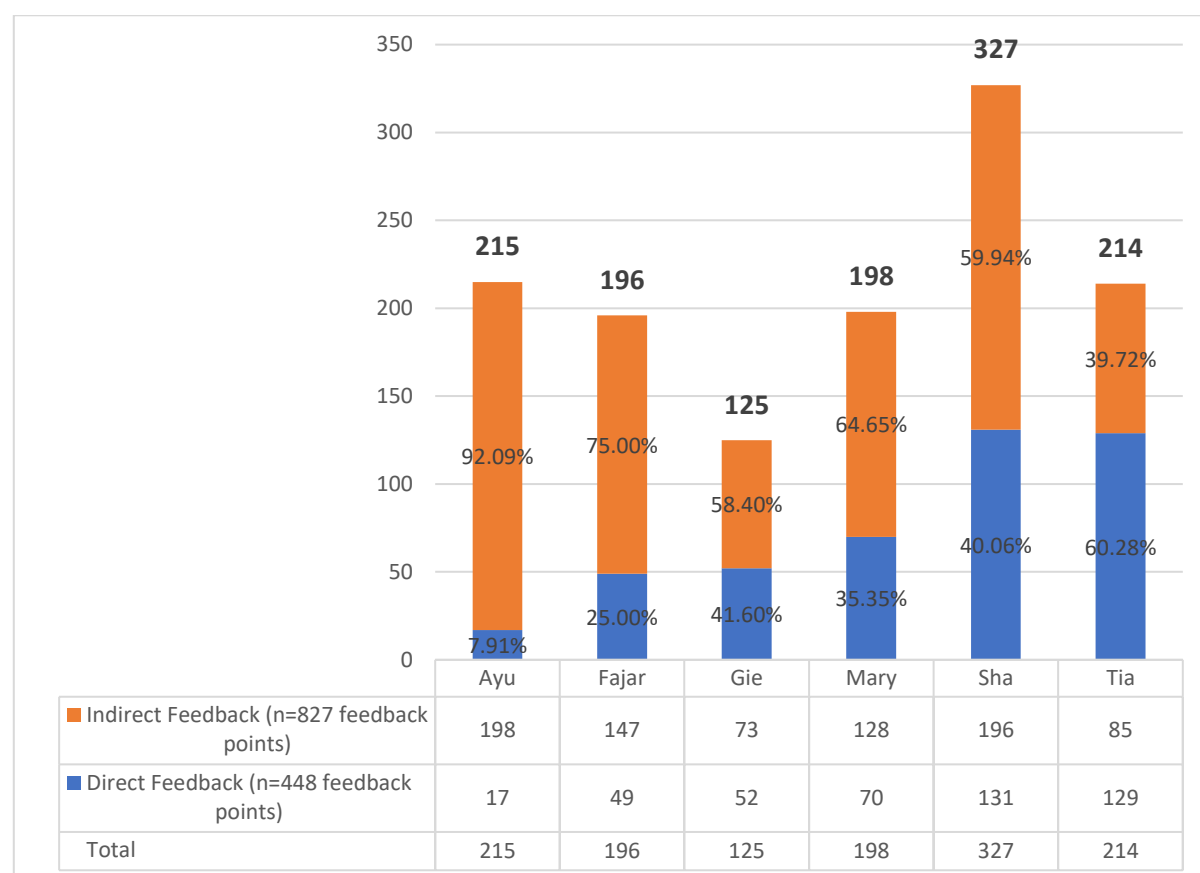
After describing the focus of the teachers' feedback, the following section reports the type of the teachers' written feedback.

4.2.1.4 The teachers' type of written feedback

The analysis of teachers' written feedback points on the students' drafts over three written feedback sessions (N=72 drafts) showed that the teachers provided both direct feedback (i.e. providing explicit error correction on the student's error) and indirect feedback (i.e. providing implicit feedback by indicating the occurrence of error without giving direct correction) on four aspects of writing (language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation). Figure 4.12 displays the amount of direct and indirect feedback that each teacher provided. The analysis of the quantity of feedback showed that the teachers provided more indirect written feedback (64.86%) than direct feedback (35.13%). In addition,

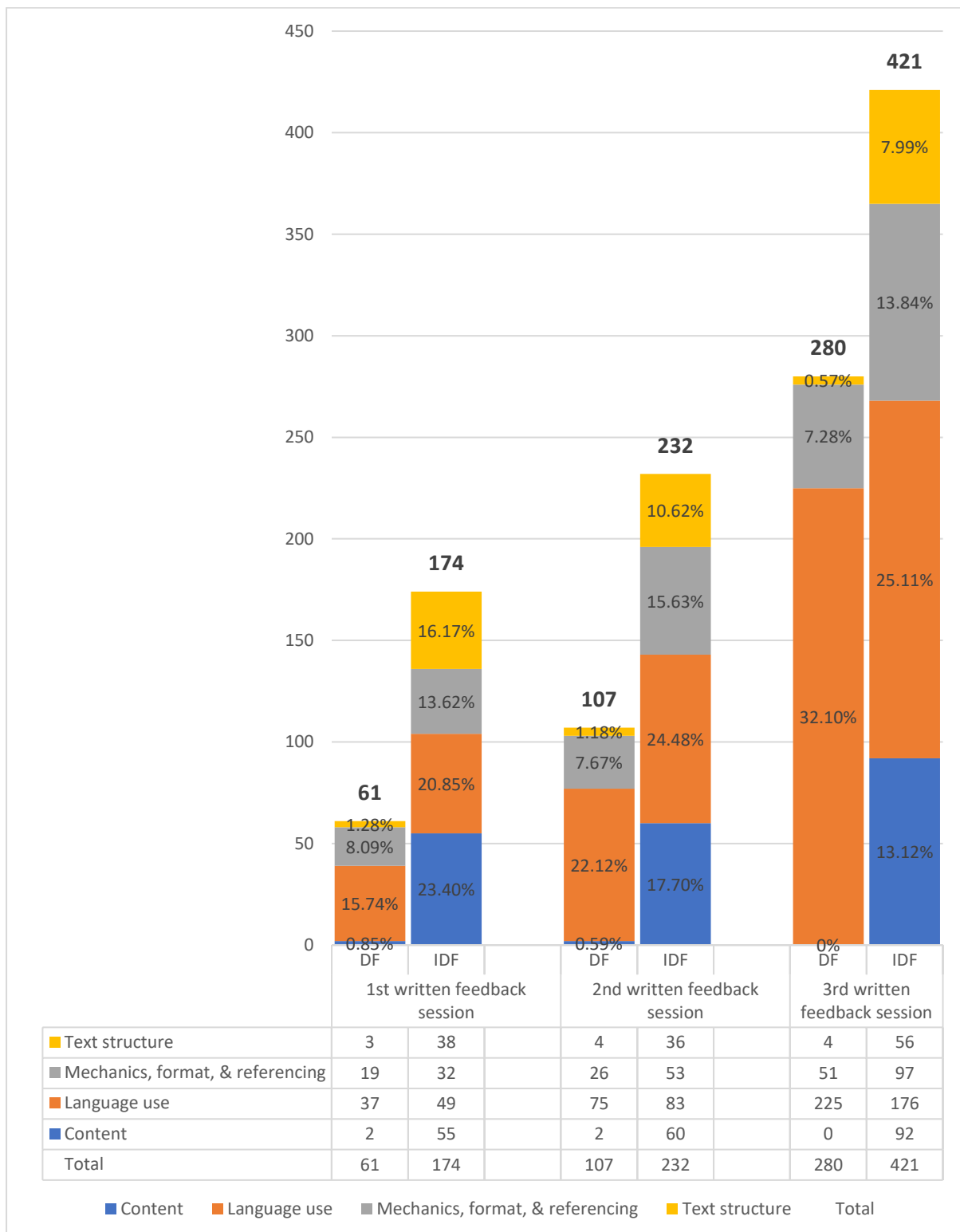
five teachers tended to provide more indirect feedback over the three feedback sessions, and only one teacher (Tia) provided more direct feedback over three written feedback sessions.

Figure 4.12: The teachers' types of written feedback (N=1275 feedback points)



The amount of both direct and indirect feedback increased over three written feedback sessions. However, the percentage of indirect feedback decreased gradually when compared with the direct feedback, as displayed in Figure 4.13. The percentage of indirect feedback declined from 74.04% in the first written feedback session, to 68.44% in the second feedback session, and 60.06% in the last written feedback session. On the other hand, the percentage of direct feedback increased from 25.96% in the first written feedback session to 31.56% and 39.94% in the second and third feedback sessions.

Figure 4. 13: The frequency of the teachers' direct and indirect feedback (n=1275 feedback points)



Note. DF = Direct feedback; IDF = Indirect feedback

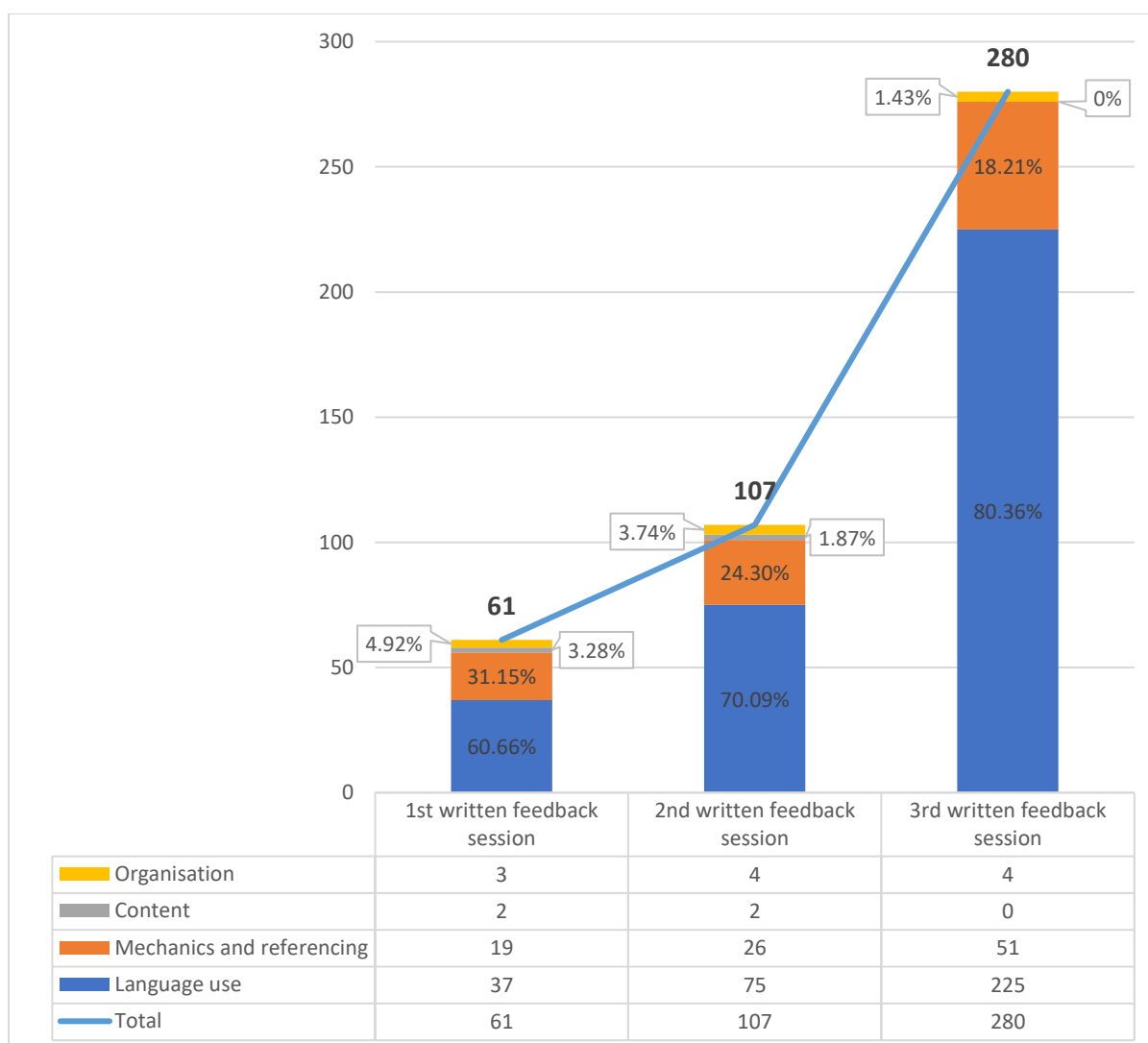
In addition, Figure 4.10 above shows that the amount of indirect feedback the teachers provided on each of the four aspects of writing in all three written feedback sessions was always higher than that of direct feedback, except on errors in language use in the third written feedback session where the teachers provided more direct feedback (32.10% of all feedback, as opposed to 25.11% of direct feedback).

The comparison between the students' essay drafts and the students' writing profile data showed that the teachers tended to provide more indirect feedback to more proficient students (upper intermediate level students) and more direct feedback to less proficient students (intermediate and lower-intermediate level students). Following is the description of the teachers' direct and indirect written feedback.

4.2.1.4.1 Direct feedback

The analysis of students' drafts indicated that the teachers provided direct feedback on all four categories of writing problems in writing. They mostly used direct feedback to deal with local issues (language use and mechanics and referencing style). Figure 4.4 shows the teachers' direct feedback on the students' drafts. Direct feedback was used as the main strategy to deal with language use error in the third feedback session.

Figure 4. 14: The frequency of the teachers' direct feedback (n=6 teachers)



The teachers' approach to providing direct feedback on all four aspects of writing was similar: deleting the incorrect form and adding the correct form. Moreover, they tended not to provide additional information or explanation. Excerpts 4.5 and 4.6 were requested from excerpts 4.1 and 4.3 to show the teachers' direct feedback. The teachers supplied the correct forms for two types of language use errors made by Salsa: (a) tense and verb form and (b) conjunction errors.

(4.5) Direct feedback on tense and verb form errors

situation is not always a 'disaster' for Indonesia. Indonesia can also gain some benefit from this demographic bonus such as, more opportunity window for Indonesia, more people in productive age that will help Indonesia and last but not least there will be sufficient time to have preparation of the youth and government due to this demographic bonus.

(Mary – Salsa draft 2)

(4.6) Direct feedback on conjunction errors

Muslims" (Smith, 2014). However those bad images affect the Islam, not only the person who does the mistake, but also.... Anti-Muslim should be banned because of the way they treat Muslim, the way they make a bad image for Islam, and the way they discriminate Muslim's psychology.

(Mary – Austine draft 2)

4.2.1.4.2 Indirect feedback

The teachers provided indirect feedback using two main ways: (a) comments in the document's margin or in the text and (b) colour or codes. The analysis indicated that comments in the document's margin or in the text were used by the teachers as the main technique to provide indirect feedback on all four aspects of writing. Of the 682 writing problems marked using indirect feedback, about three quarters of writing problems identified (n=516) were dealt using comments and another quarter (n=166) using colour codes. Table 4.1 shows the six teachers' amount of indirect feedback on 24 students' drafts over three written feedback sessions.

Table 4.1: The frequency of the teachers' indirect feedback (n=6 teachers)

Aspects of Writing	IDF	1st Written Feedback	2nd Written Feedback	3rd Written Feedback
Language use	Colour/codes	24 (14.37%)	10 (6.21%)	71 (20.06%)
	Comment	25 (14.97%)	28 (17.39%)	77 (21.75%)
Mechanics and referencing style	Colour/codes	15 (8.98%)	13 (8.07%)	18 (5.08%)
	Comment	15 (8.98%)	39 (24.22%)	71 (20.06%)
Content	Colour/codes	1 (0.60%)	4 (2.48%)	3 (0.85%)
	Comment	48 (28.74%)	33 (20.50%)	69 (19.49%)
Organisation	Colour/codes	1 (0.60%)	1 (0.62%)	5 (1.41%)
	Comment	38 (22.75%)	33 (20.50%)	40 (11.30%)
Total IDF		167 (100%)	161 (100%)	354 (100%)

Below is a description of the comment and colour/codes techniques used by the teachers in their indirect feedback.

4.2.1.4.2.1 Indirect feedback using comments

The teachers written comments were provided in the text, under the text, or in the document's margin as comment bubbles. In excerpt 4.7, Mary identified two similar awkward or unclear expression/word choice problems in the sentences. She wrote comments “ what do you mean by this one?” to request information regarding the student's word choices: occupation's chairs and company's chair.

(4.7) has turned into demographic nightmare for developing countries which haven't prepared yet for this beneficial aspect. In this industrial era, the competition to get the **occupation's chair** is very tight. There are many considerations to get into the job's field. There is no doubt that the requirements built by the company must be in a very high qualifications. Unfortunately, the **company's chairs** for the required job are limited, this condition makes an inequality between the jobseeker and the demander. Meanwhile, the phenomenon of demographic bonus which is the

M **Marin**
What do you mean by this one?
Reply

M **Marin**
What do you mean by this one?
Reply

(Mary – Nadhira draft 1)

Following Example (4.8) was another feedback given on an awkward or unclear expression problem, as shown in. Sha gave a comment on the student's word 'included' by writing “ find more suitable diction” to request the student to change the word.

(4.8) Do **not** you realize that today many people do the traditional dance only for commercial purposes but not to show the culture? It is already **included** in the deviation.

L **LENOVO** January 04, 2016
Find more suitable diction
Reply

(Sha – Fira draft 1)

Example (4.9) displays an example of comments on language use error. Sha marked the student's 'and' connector word and gave a suggestion to the student by writing “ avoid using 'and' in the beginning of the sentence.”

(4.9) minutes, no longer function as a ceremonial dance, but as **entertainment**, can be displayed among the public, not only in the palace. **And** in general, clothing that **is** used by the dancers is the greatness of the bride dress. **However, the development in this era of globalization, which is used in clothing typical *serimpi* the *seredan* fabric and a sleeveless shirt.??**

L **LENOVO**
Avoid using "and" in the beginning of sentence
Reply

(Sha – Fira draft 2)

4.2.1.4.2.2 Indirect feedback using colour codes

Colour codes were another technique used by the teachers when providing indirect feedback. For instance, in excerpts 4.10 and 4.11, Ayu identified several errors in language use and provided indirect feedback by highlighting the erroneous forms using different colours: yellow, purple, and green. In the first written feedback session, Ayu used yellow colour to identify errors in mechanics (spacing); green for conjunction, capitalisation, and punctuation errors; and purple for pronoun errors.

(4.10) program to help people who needs and the poor people , and they try to give some things to the poor people , they are really being kind people .and from this program slowly they can get attention from the people , and the people trying to start believe they company .the company will be very happy because slowly people start to follow they , and make they being a famous company .from

(Ayu – Raja draft 1)

company **In 3 aspect** like, getting popularity, getting sympathy as a result of their health charity, and getting the reputation as **Eco Friendly company**.

(Ayu – raja draft 3)

The analysis indicated that each teacher developed and used different colour codes system. For instance, Tia only used one colour/code (i.e. yellow) to identify the students' writing problems. Ayu used three colour codes (i.e. yellow, purple, and green tosca), as shown in the examples above. Sha used two colour codes: blue colour to identify content issues and red colour for grammatical errors (errors in language use), as shown in the example (4.12).

(4.12) dance, especially Javanese dance. Ranging from movements that may change, the clothes worn during the dance, until the dance which show purposes only as commercial activities. If subject left for a long time it will be worse. It is feared if one day future generations do not even understand the traditional dance history due to many irregularities present. It will be

(Sha, think-aloud protocol 3, Safira)

Moreover, the analysis indicated that all the teachers' colour codes systems seemed to change and were inconsistent over time. The teachers seemed not to have a consistent colour

codes system in their feedback provision. The above two examples illustrate the teachers' change in colour codes. Ayu used three colours (i.e. yellow, purple, and green tosca) in the first feedback session, as shown in the example (4.6). However, she changed her colour codes system and only used one-colour codes (i.e. yellow) to mark writing problems in the third feedback session (see example 4.7). Also, Ayu used yellow highlight only to mark errors in mechanics in the first feedback session, but then she used it to highlight mechanics and errors in language use in the third feedback session.

Comparison between subsequent drafts also indicated that the teachers occasionally revised or changed their written feedback in the subsequent written feedback sessions. In Excerpt 4.13, Sha added an 'on' preposition on Fahri's firstdraft and deleted it in the third feedback subsequent draft (see excerpt 4.14).

(4.13) The national exam score does not simply reflects **on** the student's performance. In this three days test there could be some factors that may affect the students

(Sha – Fahri draft 1)

(4.14) on getting good grades. The national exam score does not simply reflect **on** the student's performance. In this three days test, there could be some factors that may affect the student's condition during the exam.

(Sha – Fahri draft 3)

4.2.1.5 Written feedback on recurring writing problems

Another interesting point that this study looked at and other studies paid less attention was the teachers' feedback on recurring writing problems in the students' drafts. The analysis indicated that the teachers dealt with not only new writing problems but also recurring problems within a draft and in the multiple subsequent drafts. About one-fifth of written feedback points (n=263) were provided on the recurring writing problems within a draft and between the three written feedback sessions. The frequency of feedback on the recurring

writing problems increased over three written feedback sessions and peaked in the third written feedback session, as displayed in Table 4.2. As the table shows, the teachers used three feedback strategies on the repeated writing problems, including (a) direct feedback, (b) indirect feedback, and (c) combination of direct and indirect feedback. Of the three strategies, indirect feedback was the most frequently used feedback strategy to deal with recurring problems.

Table 4. 2: The teachers’ written feedback on recurring writing problems (N=72 drafts)

Feedback type	1st written feedback session	2nd written feedback session	3rd written feedback session
Direct feedback	10 (21.73%)	20 (28.16%)	47 (32.19%)
Indirect feedback	28 (60.86%)	36 (50.70%)	60 (41.09%)
Mix/combination of direct and indirect feedback	8 (17.39%)	15 (21.12%)	39 (26.71%)
Total	46	71	146
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

The teachers used indirect written feedback to mark all repeated content problems, as well as most of repeated organisation problems (78.57%) as well as mechanics and referencing style problems (42.85%) (see Appendix K). Moreover, indirect feedback was provided in the form of comments. Excerpts 4.15 and 4.16 illustrate Ayu’s indirect feedback

on two repeated content issues (i.e. idea and logic) in the third essay draft. In the first encounter, Ayu marked a content problem by writing a comment “ really?” (see excerpt 4.15). She also marked the next content issue by writing a longer explanation. She wrote “ You have mentioned an argument about Human Right at the end of your first body. Finding another reason will be better and will enrich your argumentative writing.” (see excerpt 4.16).

(4.15) Islamophobia is a form of racism. Mariam (2004) said that discrimination is tolerable in Multicultural Country, a continent where people from diverse cultural and religious backgrounds are living

lenovo January 12, 2016
really???

 Reply

(Ayu – Dana draft 3)

(4.16) the right for education and work. So, French Government should not implement the law that ban anyone to wearing hijab because those are kind of discrimination and also contradictory with International Human Rights.

lenovo January 12, 2016
you have mention an argument about Human Rights at the end of your first body. Finding another reason will be better and will enrich your argumentative writing

(Ayu – Dana draft 3)

Direct feedback was used on nearly half of recurring errors in language use (46.21%), as well as a smaller percentage of organisation, mechanics and referencing style problems (see Appendix K). Excerpt 4.17 below shows that Mary gave direct error corrections on four morphological errors (singular-plural errors) by adding plural -s in things and deleting plural -s in skill.

(4.17) In the demographic bonus, skills is very useful for every young generation. One of the important things is leadership skills. Leadership skills is the ability to lead effectively, but

(Mary – Almira draft 2)

The combination of direct and indirect feedback was used to respond to most recurring errors in language use (57.37%), as well as some mechanics and referencing style errors and organisation problems. Examples (4.18) and (4.19) show that Sha used a combination of direct and indirect feedback to treat two recurring language use errors (run-on sentence errors) in Fahri's third draft. For the first writing problem (Example 4.20), Sha wrote

a direct advice using a comment “ you can separate it to make a more effective sentence.”

When she found a similar error in the following paragraph (Example 4.21),she wrote a short comment “ too long and confusing.”

(4.18)

used since the nineteenth century. From the record there had been many cheating in form of collision. as we can see from the news, students paying someone to do their test, student swap their answer one to another and in some places it is a common thing that the teacher helps the students

(Sha – Fahri draft 3)

LENOVO January 10, 2016
You can separate it to make more efficient sentence

Reply

(4.19)

Students should be given the freedom to choose the subject they are interested in. The transition from elementary school to junior high school heralds the end of child hood and the beginning of adolescence enormous physiological, cognitive, social, and environmental changes are either beginning or on the near horizon. Yet, until recently, these were the “forgotten years” of

(Sha – Fahri draft 3)

LENOVO January 10, 2016
Too long and confusing

Reply

4.2.2 Findings from the teachers’ think-aloud protocols

The transcripts of the think-aloud protocols were analysed qualitatively to understand the teachers’ feedback practices. I first described the focus of teachers’ feedback, followed by the description of the teachers’ approaches to providing feedback on the students’ drafts.

4.2.2.1 The teachers’ focus of written feedback

The analysis of think-aloud protocol transcripts showed that the teachers gave more priority on content and organisation than on language use. The teachers stated that they prioritised providing written feedback on content and organisation, at least in the initial drafts. Moreover, they stated that as they progressed with their feedback provision, they gradually switched their priority to language use in the subsequent drafts. For example, Gie reported that he prioritised content issues in the first written feedback session because content is essential in an essay as a change in content will influence overall essay. Thus it needs to be fixed first (Gie, think-aloud protocol 1, Almira). Gie added that during the third written feedback session he focused on Almira’s errors in language use due to the time pressure during the semester. Other teachers also reported that they focused more on content

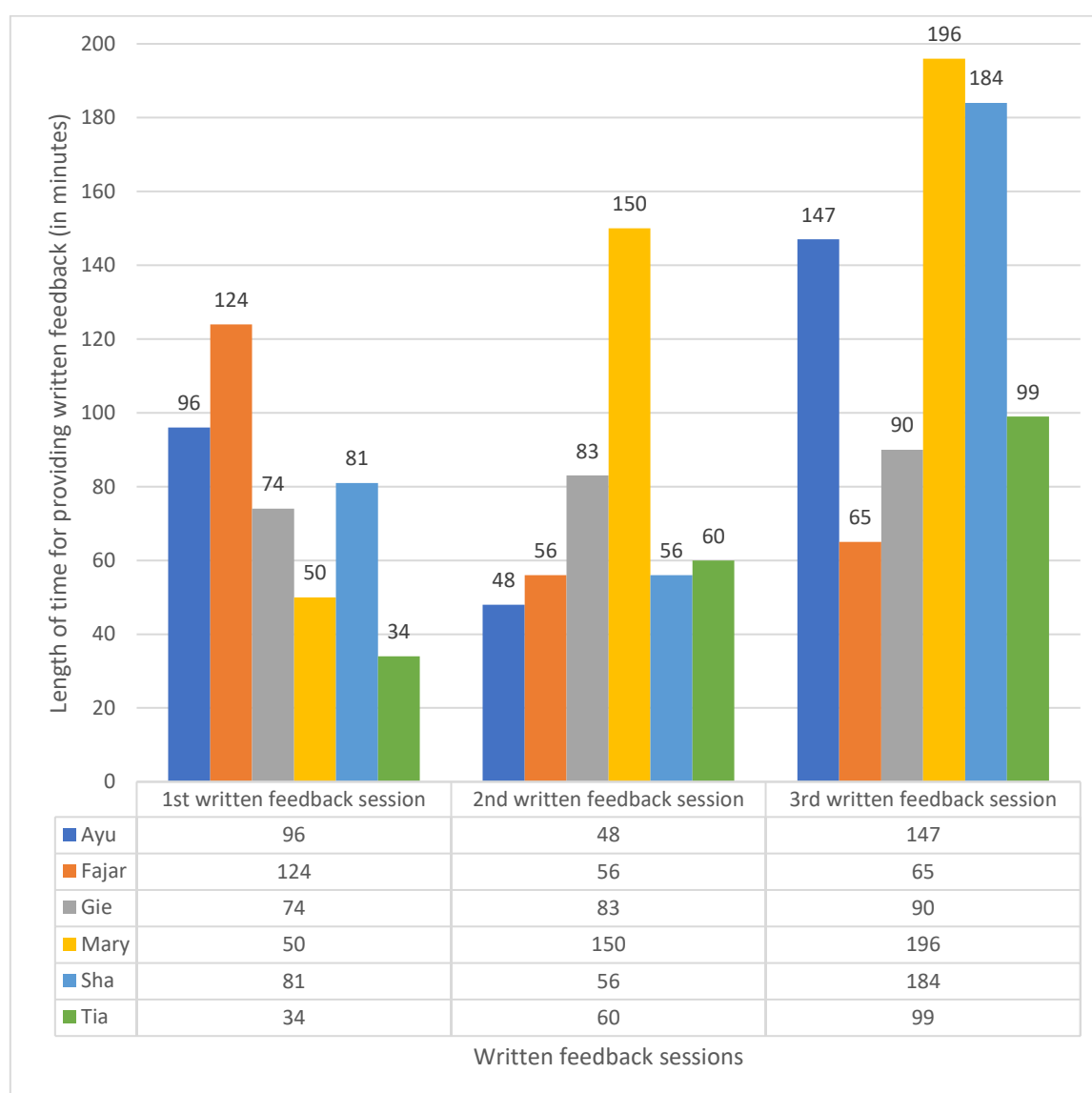
especially in the initial drafts because many students had problems in developing arguments and expressing their ideas (e.g., Fajar, think-aloud protocol 1, Amalina; Fajar, think-aloud protocol 2, Rafif).

However, the data on the quantity of the teachers' written feedback on the students' drafts showed that teachers (n=5) consistently provided more written feedback on errors in language use over three written feedback sessions, with the exception of Fajar who provided more feedback on content. As reported in the previous section, the teachers provided feedback in the following order: language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation.

4.2.2.2 The teachers' approach to written feedback

The think-aloud protocol transcripts showed that the teachers' duration of time spent on providing written feedback on four students' drafts increased over three written feedback sessions. The teachers spent between 34 and 124 minutes to check four students' drafts (n=4) in the first written feedback, 48 and 150 minutes in the second session, and 65 to 196 minutes in the third session, as displayed in Figure 4.12. Overall, Mary spent the longest time in providing written feedback on four students' drafts (n=12 drafts) over three written feedback sessions (396 minutes), while Tia, the most senior teacher, spent the shortest time for writing providing written feedback (193 minutes). Figure 4.15 also indicates that the length of time spent on providing feedback increased over the three sessions.

Figure 4.15: The length of time the teachers (n=6) spent on providing written feedback on the students' drafts (n=4) in each feedback session (in minutes)



The above finding also suggests that there is a connection between the time spent on providing written feedback and the quantity of written feedback. The length of time spent on providing written feedback increased over three written feedback sessions, except for three teachers (i.e. Ayu, Fajar, and Sha) who spent less time for providing written feedback in the second written feedback session, so did the amount of written feedback that the teachers provided. The analysis suggested that the teachers spent longer time in the second and third written feedback sessions because they attended to more writing problems.

Regarding the written feedback provision, the think-aloud protocol transcripts indicated that all teachers provided written feedback using a similar approach: First, the teachers read the whole draft once or twice. While reading the text, they identified some writing problems and immediately provided written feedback on these problems. When the teachers had difficulties in identifying the writing problems or determining the appropriate feedback, they looked up information from various sources. The teachers' procedures in providing feedback seemed to suggest that the teachers' primary mission in providing feedback was to eradicate students' writing problems.

I identified four sources of information that the teachers used while checking students' drafts, including (a) the internet (e.g., online dictionary, Google Translate, and thesaurus), (b) teaching materials and documents (e.g., APA reference style guidebook, teaching materials, and syllabus), (c) teaching colleagues, and (d) students' response to the previous drafts. The analysis suggested that the teachers mostly looked up information by checking the students' previous drafts, as shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: The teachers' external sources of information in providing written feedback

Sources of information	Frequency
1. Student's previous draft	75.61%
2. Internet	18.29%
3. Teaching materials	3.66%
4. Teaching colleagues	2.44%

The think-aloud protocol analysis also indicated that the teachers often compared students' drafts when providing feedback in the second and third feedback sessions. They

checked the previous draft to remind themselves what feedback they previously provided and see what changes the students made. In excerpt 4.20, Sha reviewed Fahri's third draft of the essay. She noticed a lack of unity issue in the third paragraph and checked Fahri's second draft to remind herself what feedback she had provided on the previous draft.

[checking Fahri's 3rd draft]. What is wrong with this third paragraph? In the
(4.20) previous draft, I highlighted it with a blue colour because ...I cannot remember. Let me check it first.

[checking draft 2 and reading the third paragraph] 'However, there are some advantages of having the national exam. First, the students...'

So, the topic sentence of this paragraph contains three ideas with different subjects.

[continue reading] 'The students will study the material seriously. Students will be in school.' Then he explained another idea.

[reading] 'Nowadays It is a common thing that society intelligence students' judges are based on the national exam score. For elementary school and junior high school students, they use their national exam scores to apply to their next study.'

Last week, I didn't ask him to split these ideas into several sentences and support with explanations Okay. So, let's write a comment.

[typing] Please have a look at your reviewed second draft. Compare the third paragraph in this draft and the previous second draft. I previously asked you to split your topic sentence into three parts and elaborate each, [but] you put your supporting details (the examples of advantages) in your topic sentence.

(Sha, think-aloud protocol 3, Fahri)

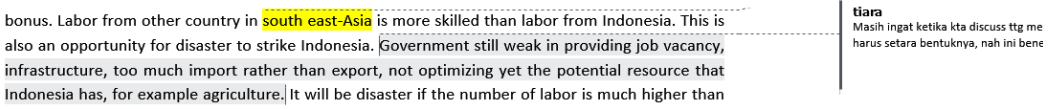
After comparing the second and third draft, Sha noticed that Fahri had not successfully resolved the issue. Consequently, she provided a more explicit comment by identifying the issue and a way to revise it.

Moreover, the teachers varied their written feedback to students, even to students with similar English proficiency. For instance, Gie considered Puput and Ninda as equally proficient students (upper intermediate level), but he gave more written feedback on errors in language use on Puput's essay drafts than on Ninda's (Gie, think-aloud protocol 2, Ninda; Gie - TAP 2 Puput).

The teachers' approaches varied slightly regarding the means of feedback provision, L1 use, and peer feedback at the interim stage. Five teachers consistently provided feedback electronically using Microsoft Office Word software. These teachers reported that electronic feedback was more permanent and clearer than the handwritten feedback, and it simplified the process of providing and editing feedback (Sha, think-aloud protocol 3, Fira). Some teachers added that they were comfortable to provide electronic feedback (Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Nida, personal communication 2, 2016). Two teachers, Erna and Gie, provided handwritten feedback on his students' first draft. Gie argued that using pen and paper helped him to be more meticulous (Gie, think-aloud protocol 1).

Another variation was noted regarding L1 use. All teachers (n=6) provided written feedback using English (L2), but Tia and Ayu also used L1 (Indonesian) in their written comments in their third written feedback. The interviews revealed that both teachers used L1 because they wanted to ensure their students fully understood their feedback, particularly on later drafts considering it was their last opportunity to provide feedback on these assignments (Tia - TAP 3 Faishal). For instance, in Excerpt 4.21, Tia wrote a comment on a parallelism error in Ardi's third draft using L1; she identified the error type by asking if Ardi

remembered their previous discussion on parallel structures and asked him to revise this marked error accordingly. She wrote: “ Do you still remember our discussion about parallel structure? Revise it.”

(4.21) 

(Tia, think-aloud protocol 3, Ardi)

When providing written feedback, the teachers seemed to consider several factors (e.g., student’s L2 writing profiles) when providing written feedback and personalise their written feedback practices according to these factors. For instance, Gie decided to focus on language use, especially grammar, in Almira’s third draft because he realised that Almira had not successfully built a good argument and it was too late to improve it (see excerpt 4.22).

(4.22) For Almira, I am focusing more on grammar because I think it is impossible to revise the content in the third feedback session. I had explained the topic to her from the very beginning, but she did not understand what leadership was. This content was shallow. It was like a high school student’s essay: what leadership was, why it was good and useful. (Gie, think-aloud protocol 3, Almira, line 203-208)

Following is another example of the teachers’ thinking about students’ writing profiles (Example 4.23). When providing written feedback on Raja’s second draft, Ayu decided to provide more written feedback on content and less on language use due to Raja’s writing skills.

(4.23) Raja made many grammatical errors and he needed to be scaffolded individually in the consultation (writing conference) session. So I think it is better for me to just focus on the content today. Later I will organise a separate peer feedback session so he and his friends could proofread each other, and I would scaffold his learning on

grammar later (Ayu, think-aloud protocol 2, Raja).

The teachers also considered contextual factors which influence their feedback practices, such as the time pressure and training on referencing style. For example, All the teachers predicted that many students would make many errors related to the mechanics of referencing style because the students had not learned about how to cite sources in high school (e.g., Ayu, think-aloud protocol 1, Intan). Therefore, some teachers (e.g., Ayu and Sha) planned to organise an additional class session to discuss the citation style (e.g., Ayu, think-aloud protocol 3, - Dana)

4.3 The teachers' oral feedback on students' L2 writing

The following sections report findings collected from the quantitative and qualitative analyses of 52 (out of 72) selected audio recordings of teacher-student writing conferences. The data were gathered from six teachers and 24 students. I only selected audio recordings which corresponded to the students' essay drafts used in the preceding TAP sessions to ensure that the findings were comparable and consistent with the findings of the teachers' written feedback. The teacher-student writing conferences were conducted after each session of written feedback provision. The teachers provided written feedback on the students' drafts and then scheduled a face-to-face teacher-student writing conferences to discuss their written feedback. The teachers mostly provided written and oral feedback separately, but when the time was limited, the teachers conducted both feedback procedures simultaneously (e.g., Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Nida, personal communication 2, 2016). In addition, the teachers tended to discuss all written feedback points which they had identified in the written feedback session. However, if the time was limited, they tended to discuss some major, serious problems.

4.3.1 The sequence of writing conferences

In most teacher-student writing conferences (n=52) analysed, the teachers and students tended to follow the following procedures: (a) opening, (b) teacher- or student-initiated comments and questions, (c) text reviewing and problem identification, (d) feedback provision, and (e) closing. If the time was limited or the student was late in turning in a draft, the teachers combined the written feedback and the writing conferences. Below is the description of each stage.

4.3.1.1 Opening

At the beginning of the writing conferences session, the teacher opened the writing conferences and set the atmosphere of the scaffolding dialogue. The teacher and the student opened the writing conferences by exchanging greetings, asking and commenting on general topics (e.g., internet), such as daily activities, education, and the internet, and inviting students' opinion or questions. This stage was mostly teacher-led. In the following excerpt (4.24), Ayu and her student (Raja) discussed the slow internet connection and Edmodo while downloading the file from the internet before beginning their writing conference.

(4.24) Ayu: Are you still downloading from Edmodo?

Raja: Yes.

Ayu: Okay.

Raja: It is a bit slow.

Ayu: Yes, I agree with you. The internet is taking too long [time].

Raja: It's [Edmodo] just like Facebook.

Ayu: It's just like Facebook, but for academic purposes.

Raja: Yes. Wait, I don't see anything.

Ayu: Okay, so, [...] Internet connection problem. So, let's just go with this.

Let's just do [discussing the text] with mine [laptop].

(Ayu – writing conferences 1 Raja)

4.3.1.2 Teacher- or student-initiated comments and questions

The second stage was fluid; either the teacher or the student initiated the interaction by giving comments or questions related to writing (e.g., writing progress or product) or feedback provision. The comment or question procedure was mostly conducted after the opening.

The most common behaviour the teachers displayed in this stage was explaining how he/she provided written feedback (for example, comments, track changes, or colour codes used by the teacher). Moreover, the teachers also frequently gave a general evaluation of the student's writing essay. The most common behaviour the students displayed in this stage was asking questions related to writing or the teacher's written feedback.

Excerpt 4.25 was taken from Mary's first writing conference with Nadhira, representing a typical exchange in this stage. Mary asked Nadhira to comment on the written feedback she previously provided. She also asked if Nadhira was familiar with track change and comment features in Office Word software. Since Nadhira was not very familiar with these features, Mary gave her brief information about the software features and how to use these features to revise her writing.

- (4.25) Mary: Okay, let's see. Have you seen my feedback?
- Nadhira: Yes, miss, I have seen it. I don't know there's so much feedback.
- Mary: It's okay.
- Nadhira: I like it.
- Mary: You told me that you like more [feedback] in your work, right?
- Nadhira: Yes.
- Mary: Okay, but first, are you familiar in using comments like this
[comments in Office Word software]? Do you know how to erase
them?
- Nadhira: I am not too familiar with this. Because it is my first to get this,
comments not in paper, like this.
- Mary: So, after you read my comment here, for example the first one,
[pointing at a comment] 'what is the sweet dream you mean?' Oh, my
sweet dream that you mean is this one. So you can just re-type it here,
and after than you can delete comment. Then it's gone, in review.
There. See?
- Nadhira: Yes.
- Mary: I also use track changes here. [pointing at a segment] For example, I
don't want you to write general statement there, so I will erase it like
this. There. Okay?
- Nadhira: Okay.

Mary: So after that you see it and you accept it, so it's gone.

Nadhira: Oh,

Mary: Something like that. Okay?

Nadhira: Yes.

(Mary – writing conferences 1 Nadhira)

4.3.1.3 Text reviewing and problem identification

The teacher and the student read the text and identify segments which the teacher had marked during the preceding written feedback (think-aloud protocol) session.

The current process (text reviewing and problem identification) often occurred simultaneously with the next process (feedback provision), as illustrated in excerpt 4.26. Mary read the sentence which contained a written feedback point and identified a too long sentence problem in Nadhira's first draft. Simultaneously after identifying a problem, Mary provided feedback and suggested Nadhira to split the sentence into two. She asked if Nadhira knew where the sentence should be split and Nadhira replied to her question correctly.

(4.26) Mary: [Pointing to a sentence], [reading] The sweet dream of demographic bonus, which is actually a beneficial period for Indonesia, has turned into demographic nightmare for developing countries which haven't prepared yet for this beneficial aspect.

This sentence, maybe it's kind of difficult because you have lots of information.

Nadhira: Mm...

Mary: I mean it is too long. I think you should split this sentence into two.

Where do you think you can cut this sentence?

Nadhira: [Reading unintelligibly]. Here.

Mary: Yes. The first sentence from the beginning until Indonesia.

Definition. Full stop. Then, the second sentence. But you need to edit these again.

Nadhira: Yes.

(Mary – writing conferences 1 Nadhira)

While scaffolding the student, the teachers sometimes identified and discussed written feedback points which they postponed in the written feedback session (postponed feedback) and new writing problems they identified. In the Example (4.27) below, Sha noticed a postponed written feedback in Jeff's draft and discussed it immediately. While reading a sentence, Sha found a preposition error which she had marked using a question mark. She browsed the internet to find the correct form and found the correct form on a website.

(4.27) Sha: [reading] encrypted messaging service to avoid their location and identity revealed, and provide their propaganda in hopes...'

This hopes... I have not found it before. Let's check it in the internet. [accessing internet].

I only get 'hope' here, life in hope, and in hopes of. In Yahoo Answers. I think we can use it. Hope, hope, [unintelligible], hope against, in hope ... in hope.

Personally, I prefer in the hope of, in hope of, [reading]. Oh, there is one here in Merriam-Webster.

I just checked Merriam Webster and I think you cannot use 'hopes + V-ing', but you should use like 'in the hope of' or 'in hope that the whole sentence.

(Sha – writing conferences 1 Jeff)

The teachers sometimes also discussed new writing problems which they identified while providing oral feedback. Example (4.28) below shows that while discussing the above too long sentence problem, Mary found a lexical problem (awkward or unclear expression). She considered 'beneficial aspect' as unclear and suggested Nadhira to explain what she meant by that phrase.

(4.28) Mary: I mean it is too long. I think you should split this sentence into two.

Where do you think you can cut this sentence?

Nadhira: [Reading unintelligibly]. Here.

Mary: Yes. The first sentence, from the beginning until Indonesia.

Definition. Full stop. Then, the second sentence. But you need to edit these again.

Nadhira: Yes.

Mary: And... Here. [pointing to a phrase: beneficial aspect]. Check this one too. I think it is not clear what the beneficial aspect that you want to mention is. Can you explain it?

Nadhira: Okay.

(Mary – writing conferences 1 Nadhira)

4.3.1.4 Feedback provision

The teachers mostly provided oral feedback and scaffolded the students in understanding the written feedback and revising the draft using oral prompts in gradual fashion. The types of oral prompts which the teachers commonly used have been discussed in the previous section.

4.3.1.5 Closing

In this last step, the teacher and the student thanked each other. In addition, the teacher summarised his/her feedback, informed the student about the next step of writing, and scheduled the next appointment.

The teachers instructed students to follow the feedback cycle (writing a draft, followed by teacher's written feedback, teacher-student writing conference, and redrafting/revising) at least three times (e.g., Mary –writing conferences 2 Salsa; Tia – writing conferences 1 Fahri). The teachers mostly conducted the writing conferences after providing written feedback on a student's draft but sometimes combined both sessions if the time was limited or the student was late in submitting his/her draft.

The teachers and students mostly conversed in English (L2) in the writing conferences, but they sometimes switched to Indonesian (L1) when they had difficulties in discussing the writing using English. Similarly, students used Indonesian in the writing conferences when they did not fully understand the teacher's explanation. Excerpt 4.29 illustrates how Ayu switched to Indonesian (L1) while discussing paragraph organisation with Raja. Ayu noted the use of several questions in the middle of Raja's body paragraph to engage readers in discussion. Ayu thought that a question as a hook should be used in the introductory paragraph, not in the body paragraph. She made an analogy between a hook in

the paragraph and a fishhook. Afterwards, she suggested some options. Ayu used L1 to explain the writing problem and provide feedback to help Raja understand her explanation.

(4.29) Ayu: Good, so... and then, my next concern will be..you, I think
you made too many questions.

Raja: Oh!

Ayu: Okay. The question is enough for the beginning of an introductory paragraph, but you do not have, you do not need to repeat it here. So, the question is a hook. (L1)

[Switching to Indonesian]. (Translation: It's enough to attract readers' attention once at the beginning of paragraph, but don't do that again in the middle of the introductory paragraph. After putting a hook, catch the fish in the introductory paragraph, then feed them with general information. That's it. So, here, instead of make it as a question, you better make it as a statement, informative statement. You better just explain about the implementation of CSR. The implementation of CSR is not so good or is not so bad or something, or not so effective, or something).

You don't need to attract the readers' attention anymore with more questions. And [reading] are they doing the CSR with correctly or just to get advantage for the company? Nice. Okay. and then =

The teachers' general approach to the writing conferences was using graduated oral prompts. The teachers started with giving an implicit hint/prompt which gave

relatively general information about the correction. They led the students to read the text together and the students identified feedback points. If the student could not self-identify and correct the problem, the teachers gradually used more explicit feedback prompts that offered more detailed information to help students generate the correct forms such as metalinguistic feedback and direct error correction. For instance, in the excerpt below (4.30), Mary provided scaffolding to Salsa in understanding her written feedback on a conjunction error. She first asked for clarification regarding the use of conjunction ‘while’. Mary then provided more explicit prompts and provided a metalinguistic explanation on the use of while. She then provided a direct error correction because Salsa seemed not to understand her explanation.

Writing conferences on conjunction error; third feedback session

(4.30) Mary: [Reading unintelligibly]. Why there is ‘while’ here? Request for clarification

Salsa: To say that ... both happened in the same time.

Mary: In the same time? Request for clarification

Salsa: Yes, at the same time. Or should I just say at the same time?

Mary: You can use while, but in this sentence, there is only one situation, that is about doing socialization for the others. Metalinguistic feedback

Salsa: The previous sentence is [Reading] 'The government is preparing for opening more job

opportunity and the young generation is trying
to socialize with other people'.

Mary: Mm, okay, I think it should not be 'while', but Direct error correction
'meanwhile.

Salsa: Okay. What is the difference between while
and meanwhile?

Mary: While is actually... While... it should be in one Metalinguistic
sentence. While thinking about her boyfriend, feedback
she is also talking to me. So, at the same time,
there are two conditions in one sentence.

Salsa: But if we use meanwhile it can be put in
separate sentences?

Mary: Yes.

(Mary – writing conferences 3 - Salsa)

However, the teachers did not predetermine the sequence of graduated oral prompts. Sometimes, they followed an implicit hint with an explicit one although the implicit hint alone was sufficient to help the student to generate a correct form.

The teachers controlled much of the writing conferences, especially at the beginning of the relevant episodes. They selected which feedback points should be discussed in the writing conferences and they initiated the discussion in most of relevant episodes. Moreover, the students tended to follow the teachers' lead, especially in the initial writing conferences. They tended to respond to a teacher's prompts, answered the teacher's questions, or provided

clarification. In excerpt 4.31, Mary scaffolded Salsa in identifying a lexical error (i.e. awkward or unclear expression error) in the first writing conference session. Mary gave a series of questions to clarify another plus expression used by Salsa. She also offered some alternative diction, such as plus side, opportunity, advantage, and added value. Salsa answered Mary's questions and Mary then suggested Salsa to use added value as a substitute to another plus. In this case, Mary tended to be more active to guide the writing conferences and Salsa tended to follow Mary's lead.

(4.31) Mary: [Reading] 'We can see people nowadays are trying to be the best of them, trying to get another plus', What do you mean by that plus?

Salsa: It is like another advantage of higher than as a worker. Or ... how to say that in English?

Mary: Plusside?

Salsa: Yes.

Mary: Try to get another opportunity?

Salsa: Oh, yes.

Mary: Opportunity or advantage?

Salsa: No, it is like trying to polish one of my skills, so that I can have a plus value to make people want to hire me.

Mary: Additional value? Added value?

Salsa: Yes, the added value of me.

Mary: Okay, so here I think plus side here you can change it into added value,

(Ind.) 'nilaitambah' right?

Salsa: Yes, nilaitambah.

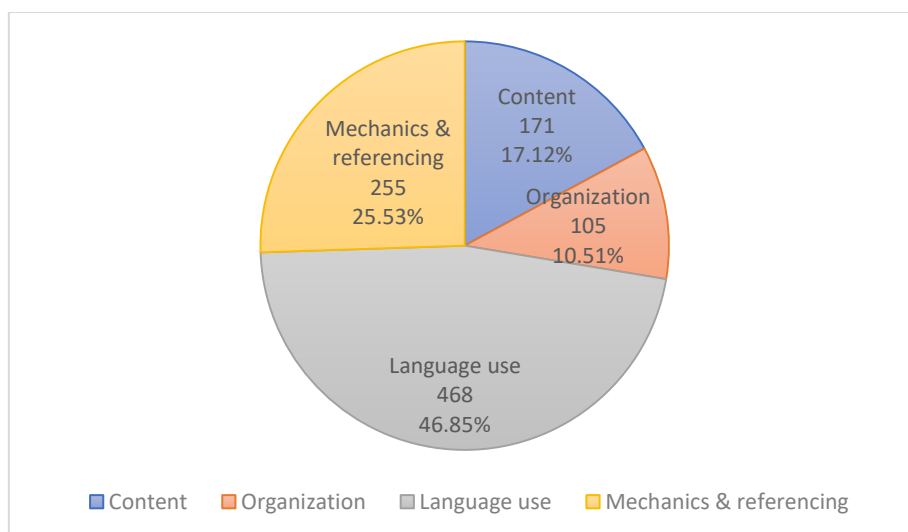
Mary: [Typing: added value]. Added value of them. [Reading] 'so they can compete with other people to achieve their goal.'

(Mary – writing conferences 1 Salsa)

4.3.2 The teachers' focus of oral feedback

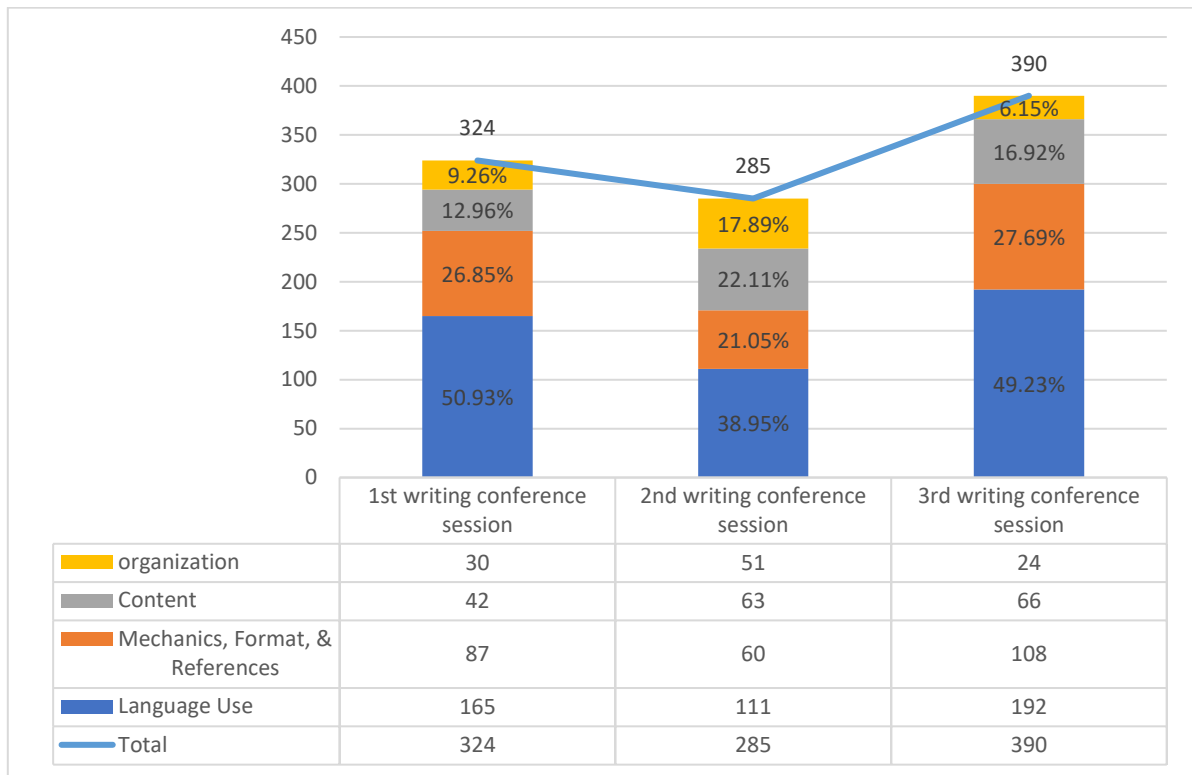
The analysis of the teachers' relevant episodes (sections of the writing conferences where a teacher and a student discussed writing problems), indicated that the teachers provided oral feedback on four aspects of writing in the following order: (a) language use, (b) mechanics and referencing style, (c) content, and (d) organisation. Figure 4.16 shows the teachers' focus of feedback in their relevant episodes. The teachers' focus and priority in the writing conferences were in line with the focus and priority of their written feedback. They focused more on local issues (i.e. language use, mechanics and referencing style) than global issues (i.e. content and organisation).

Figure 4.16: The focus of EFL teachers' relevant episodes (N=999)



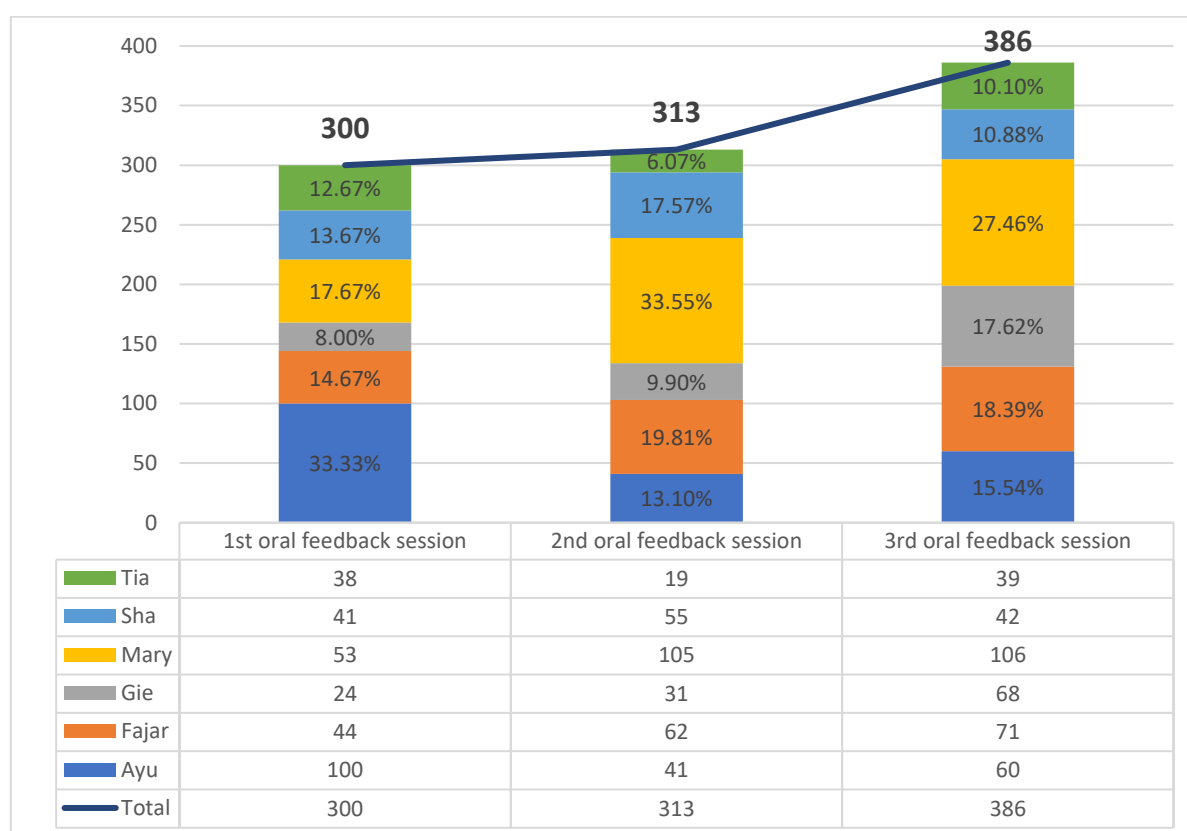
A detailed account of the relevant episodes found in the three sessions of writing conferences (n=52 writing conferences) is displayed in Figure 4.17 below. The teachers focused mostly on language use problems in all three writing conferences.

Figure 4. 17: The quantity of the teachers' (n=6) relevant episodes in three writing conferences sessions



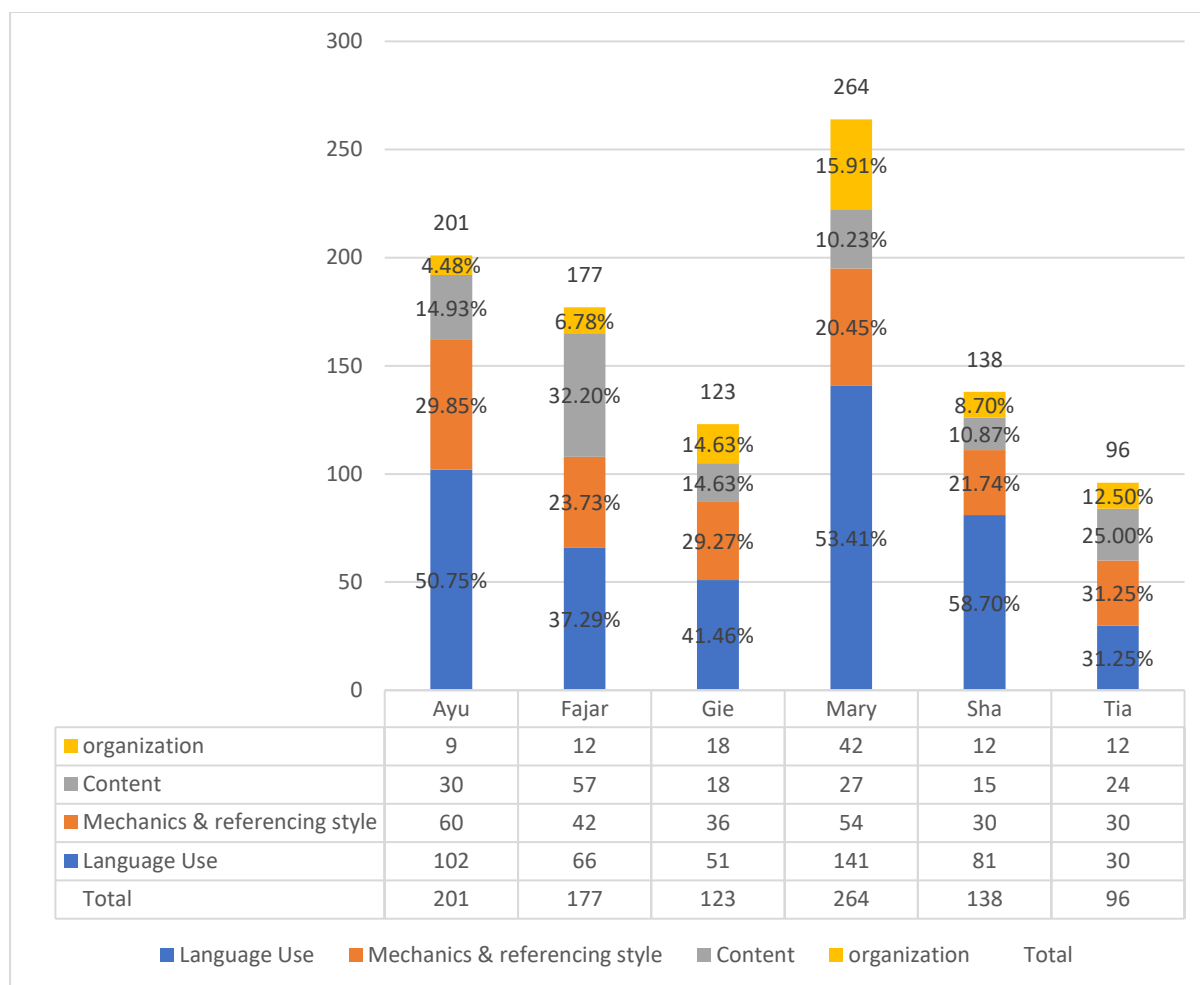
The number of relevant episodes identified in the three writing conferences sessions (n=52 writing conferences) decreased in the second writing conference and increased in the third session, as shown below in Figure 4.18. In total, Mary provided the highest amount of relevant episodes and Tia provided the least.

Figure 4. 18: The frequency of relevant episodes identified in 52 writing conferences
sessions



The amount and focus of each teacher's relevant episodes are shown in Figure 4.19. Of the six teachers, Mary scaffolded most errors in language use and organisation problems, Ayu scaffolded most errors in mechanics and referencing style, and Fajar scaffolded most content problems in 52 writing conferences.

Figure 4. 19: The focus of the teachers' relevant episodes (n=52 writing conferences)

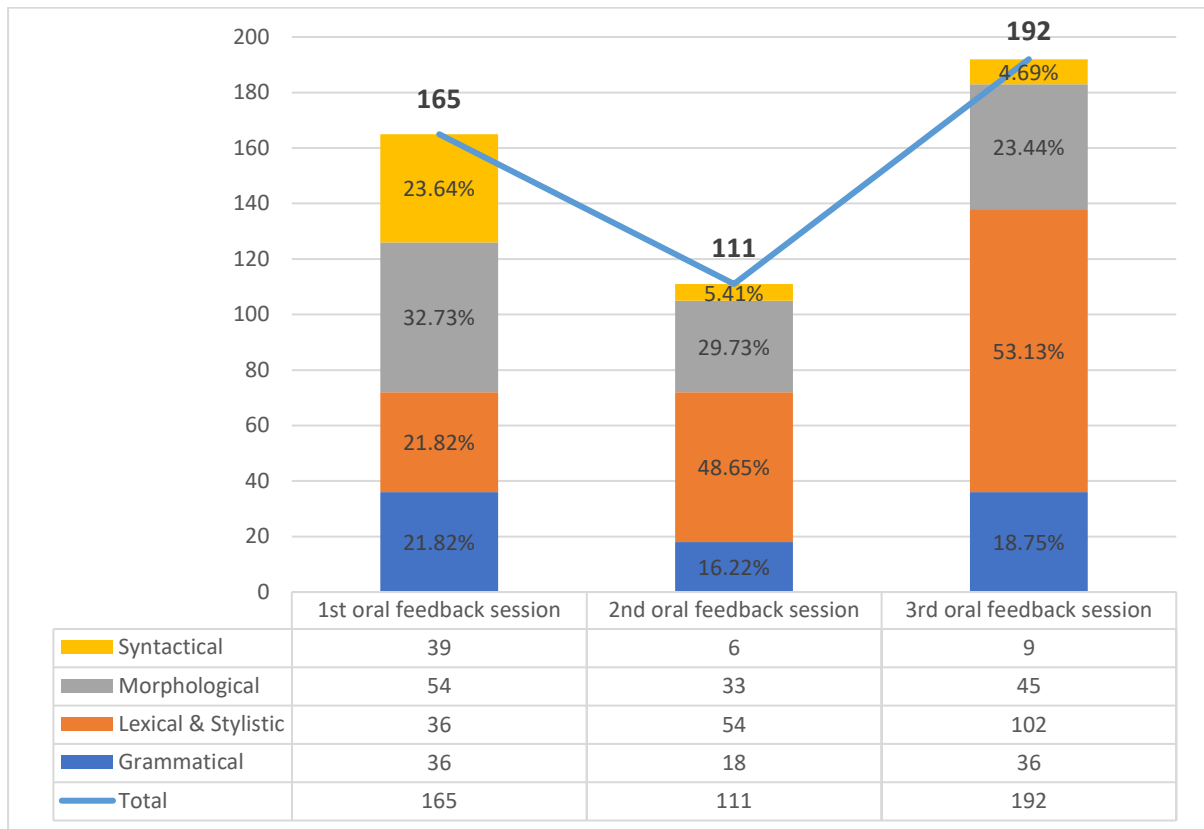


The following sections describe the teachers' focus of oral feedback on each aspect of writing.

4.3.1.1 Oral feedback on errors in language use

The analysis of the teachers' relevant episodes indicated that the teachers provided oral feedback on errors in language use in the students' drafts in the following order: (a) lexical and stylistic, (b) morphological, (c) grammatical, and (d) syntactic errors. The following Figure 4.20 shows the amount of oral feedback on various errors in language use. As shown in the Table, the frequency of oral feedback on lexical and stylistic errors steadily increased over three feedback sessions, while the frequency of oral feedback on other errors decreased in the second session and then rose in the third session.

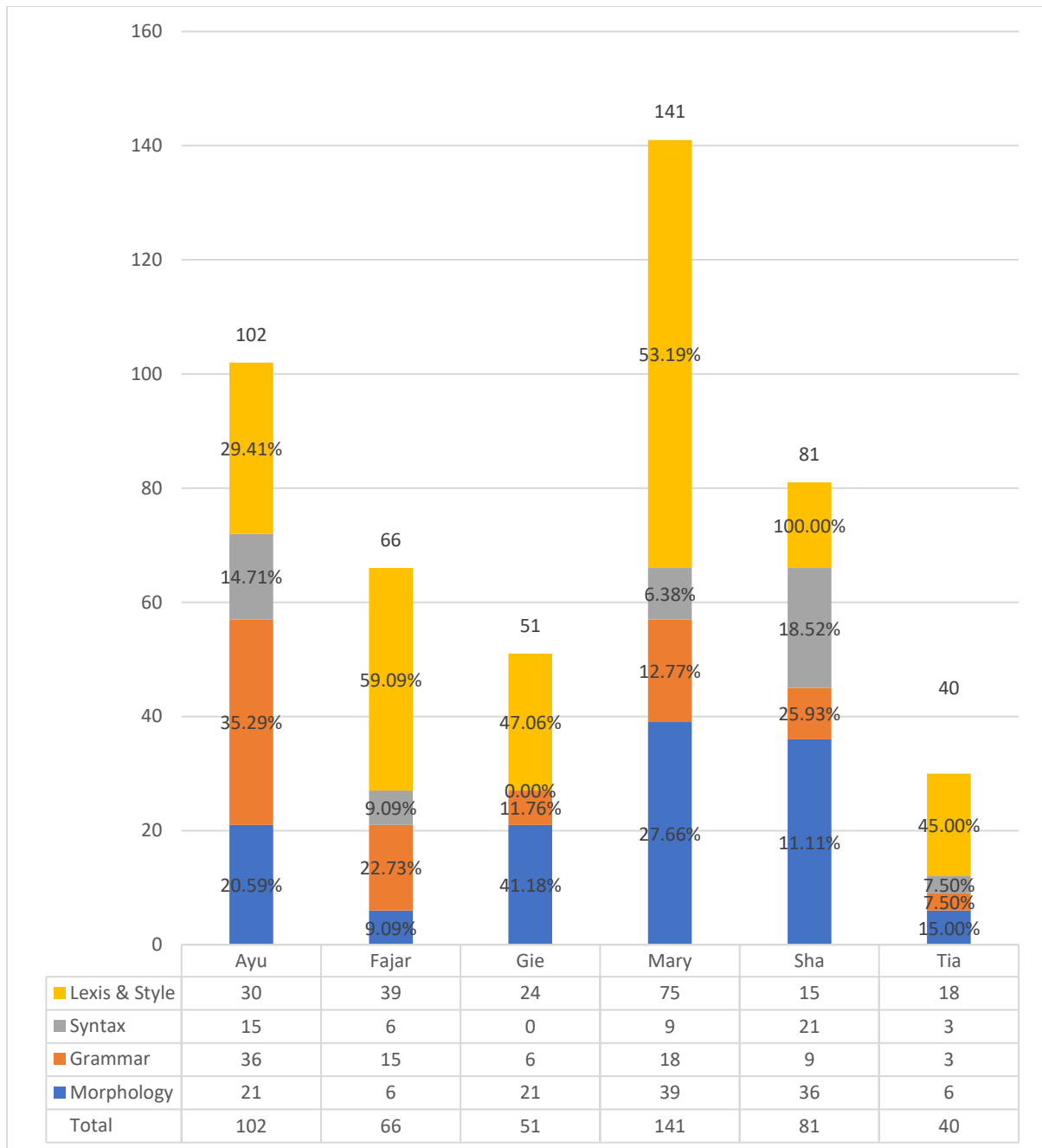
Figure 4. 20: The frequency of the teachers' (n=6) relevant episodes on errors in language use on the students' (n=24) drafts



Moving to each writing conferences session, the teachers mostly scaffolded morphological errors (especially singular-plural errors) in the first writing conference and lexical and stylistic errors (especially awkward or unclear expression errors) in their second and third writing conferences.

The frequency of relevant episodes and the teachers' (n=6) focus of oral feedback in the writing conferences sessions are shown in Figure 4.21. Mary provided the most oral feedback on errors in language use and Tia provided the least one. Mary focused mostly on morphological and lexical and stylistic errors, Ayu focused mostly on grammatical errors, and Sha focused mostly on syntactic errors.

Figure 4. 21: The teachers' (n=6) relevant episodes on errors in language use

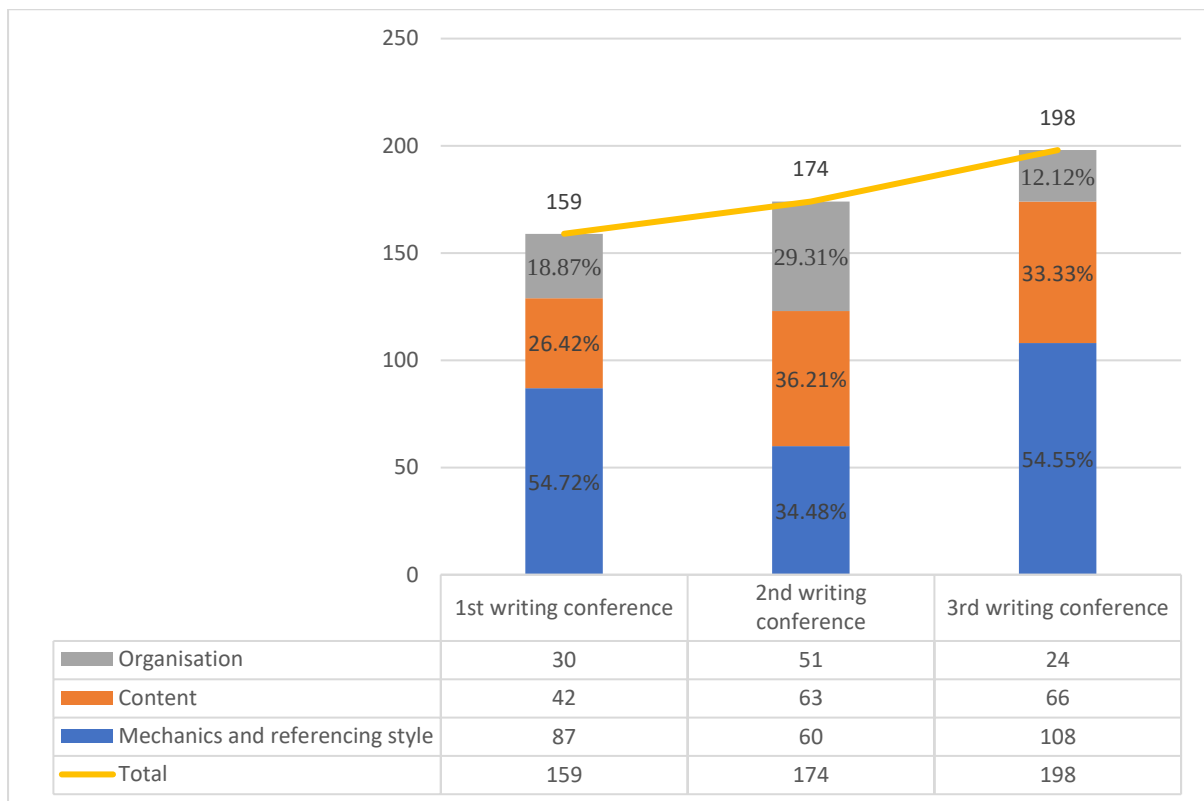


4.3.1.2 Oral feedback on mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation

More than half of the teachers' relevant episodes (n=531) targeted three aspects of writing, namely mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation problems. Figure 4.22 displays teachers' (n=6) scaffolding on these aspects of writing in three writing

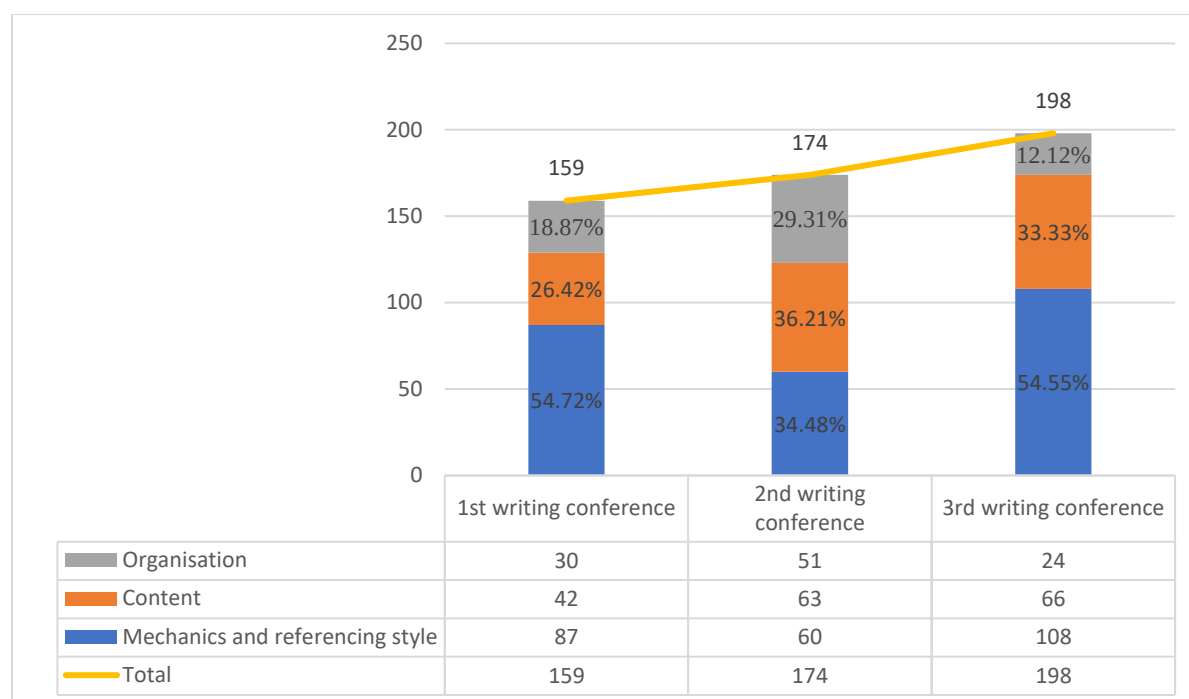
conferences sessions (n=52 drafts). The teachers mostly scaffolded errors in mechanics and referencing style, especially in the first and third feedback sessions.

Figure 4. 22: The amount of the teachers’ oral feedback on other aspects of writing (n=52 writing conferences)



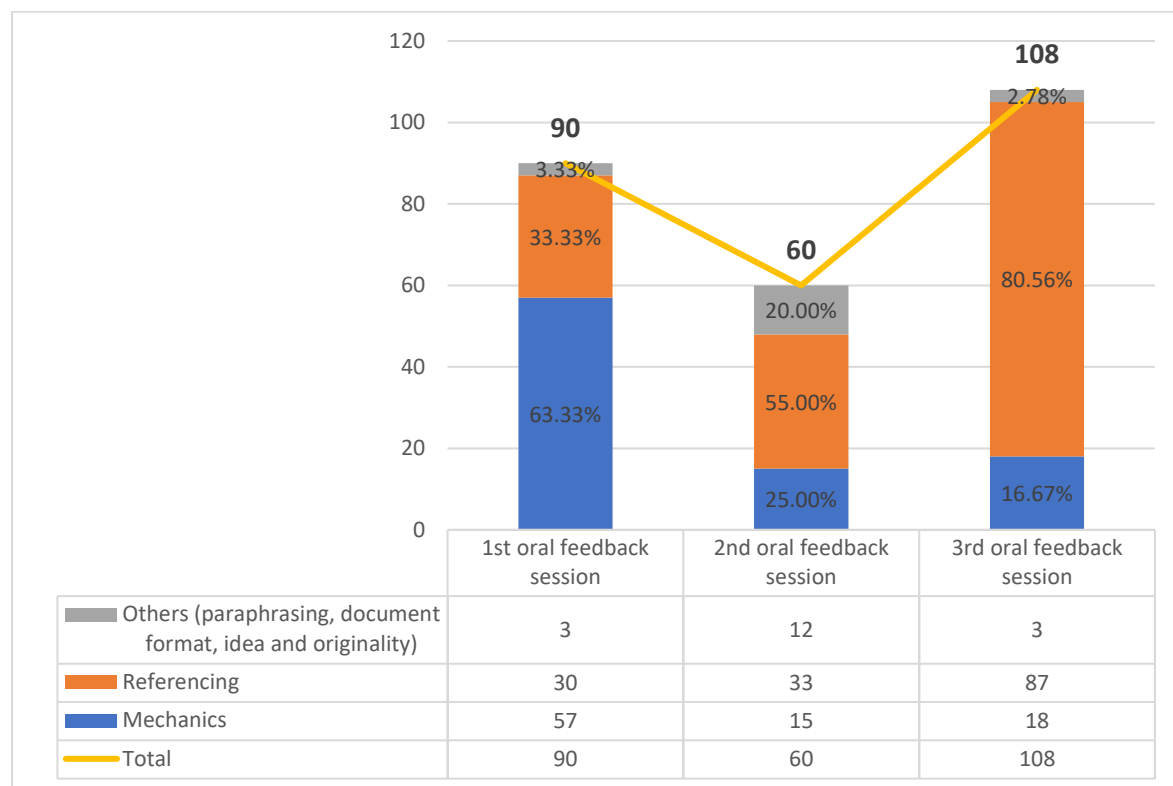
The frequency of relevant episodes on mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation problems identified in the teachers’ (n=6) writing conferences sessions are shown in Figure 4.23 below. In addition to oral feedback on errors in language use, Mary provided the most quantity of oral feedback on organisation problems. Ayu provided most oral feedback errors in mechanics and referencing style and Fajar provided most oral feedback on content problems.

Figure 4. 23: The teachers' relevant episodes on other aspects of writing (n=6 teachers)



Of the errors in mechanics and referencing style, the teachers mostly scaffolded the students' referencing style errors, which include the use of reference and mechanics of referencing, as shown in Figure 4.24. The teachers had frequently mentioned their concerns about the students' lack of understanding regarding citation style and plagiarism because they had not learned these topics before. In the first writing conference, the teachers focused on errors in mechanics in general, and in the two following conference sessions, they focused more on referencing, including the mechanics of referencing.

Figure 4. 24: The teachers' relevant episodes on errors in mechanics and referencing style (n=6 teachers)



Example (4.32) illustrates Ayu's scaffolding on a student's citation style error. Ayu marked the student's citation style error, that was putting a space after an author's last name. In the writing conferences session, Ayu told the student about her colour coding system and noticed that the student had revised a citation error which she marked. Ayu then gave additional information regarding the punctuation error.

(4.32) Ayu: The green one means punctuation. Punctuation is tanda baca and capitalisation. This one, okay, so you already=

Student: [I have fixed these.

Ayu: You have fixed it. Okay. So, you have attached the

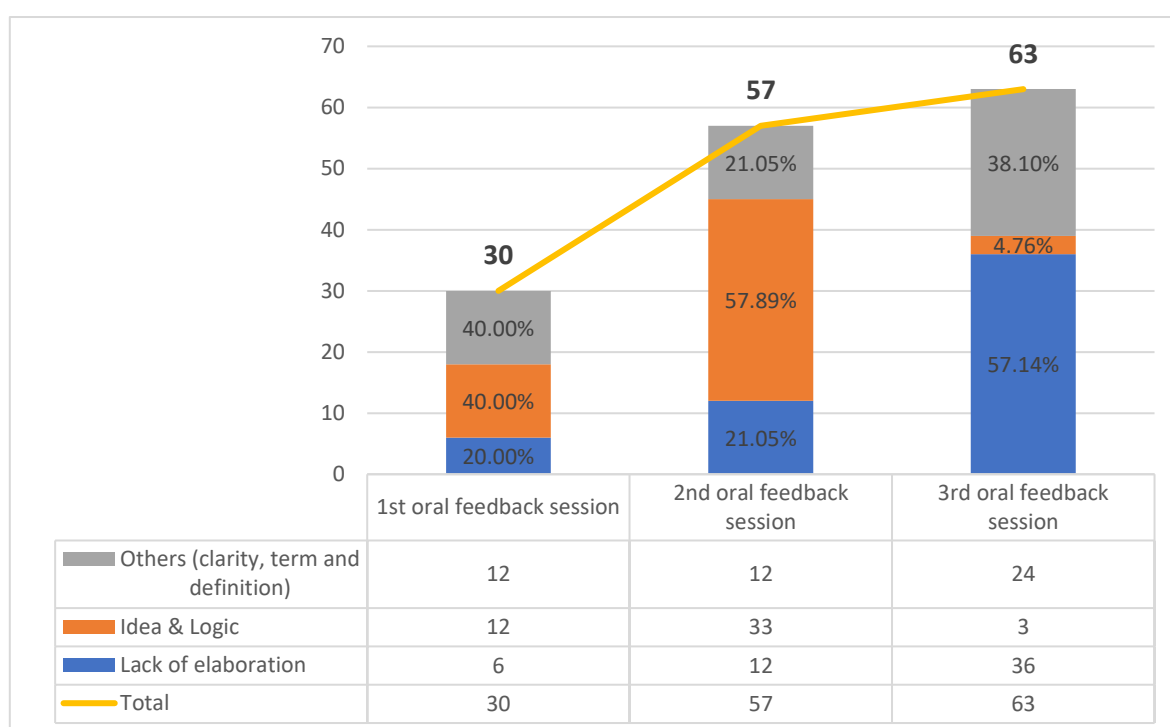
punctuation right after the word. Don't put the space
before the comma. Yes, just like this.

Student: Yes.

(Ayu – writing conferences 1 Raja)

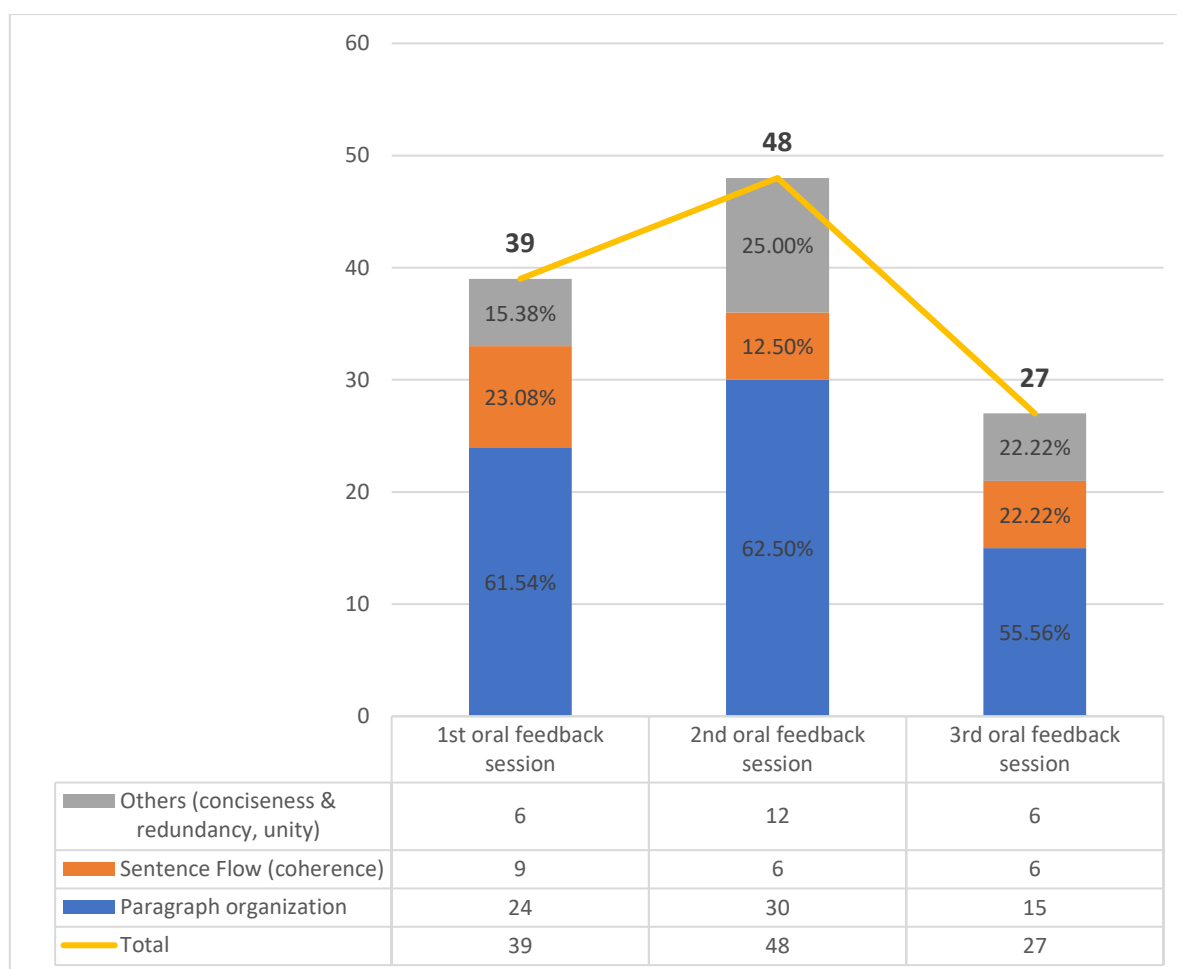
The amount of relevant episodes on content problems steadily increased over three writing conferences sessions. Overall, the teachers mostly focused on scaffolding lack of elaboration issues in the students' writing. Moving to each writing conferences session, the teachers mostly focused on idea and logic problems in the two first writing conference and on lack of elaboration problems in the third writing conference, as shown in Figure 4.25.

Figure 4. 25: The teachers' (n=6) relevant episodes on content problems



Among the organisation problems, the teachers mostly scaffolded paragraph organisation errors. The teachers consistently scaffolded more paragraph organisation problems over three writing conferences sessions, as shown in Figure 4.26.

Figure 4. 26: The teachers' relevant episodes on organisation problems (n=6 teachers)



Example (4.33) below illustrates the teachers' feedback on the organisation of a paragraph in the essay. Ayu led Raja to discuss a paragraph organisation issue in Raja's draft. Ayu explained that the order of ideas in the body paragraph was problematic due to the use of interrogative sentences in the middle of the paragraph. She explained the reason, made an analogy between a hook in writing and a hook in fishing, and then suggested a revision.

(4.33) Ayu: Good, so... and then, my next concern will be..you, I think you made too many questions.

Raja: Oh!

Ayu: (In Indonesian) Okay. The question is enough for the beginning of an

introductory paragraph, but you do not have, you do not need to repeat it here. So, the question is a hook. It's enough to attract readers' attention once at the beginning of paragraph, but don't do that again in the middle of the introductory paragraph. After putting a hook, catch the fish in the introductory paragraph, and then feed them with general information. That's it. So, here, instead of make it as a question, you better make it as a statement, informative statement. You better just explain about the implementation of CSR. The implementation of CSR is not so good or is not so bad or something, or not so effective, or something.

You don't need to attract the readers' attention anymore with more questions. And [reading] are they do the CSR with right way or just to get advantage for the company? Nice. Okay. and then

The following sections describe types of oral feedback which the teachers provided in their writing conferences.

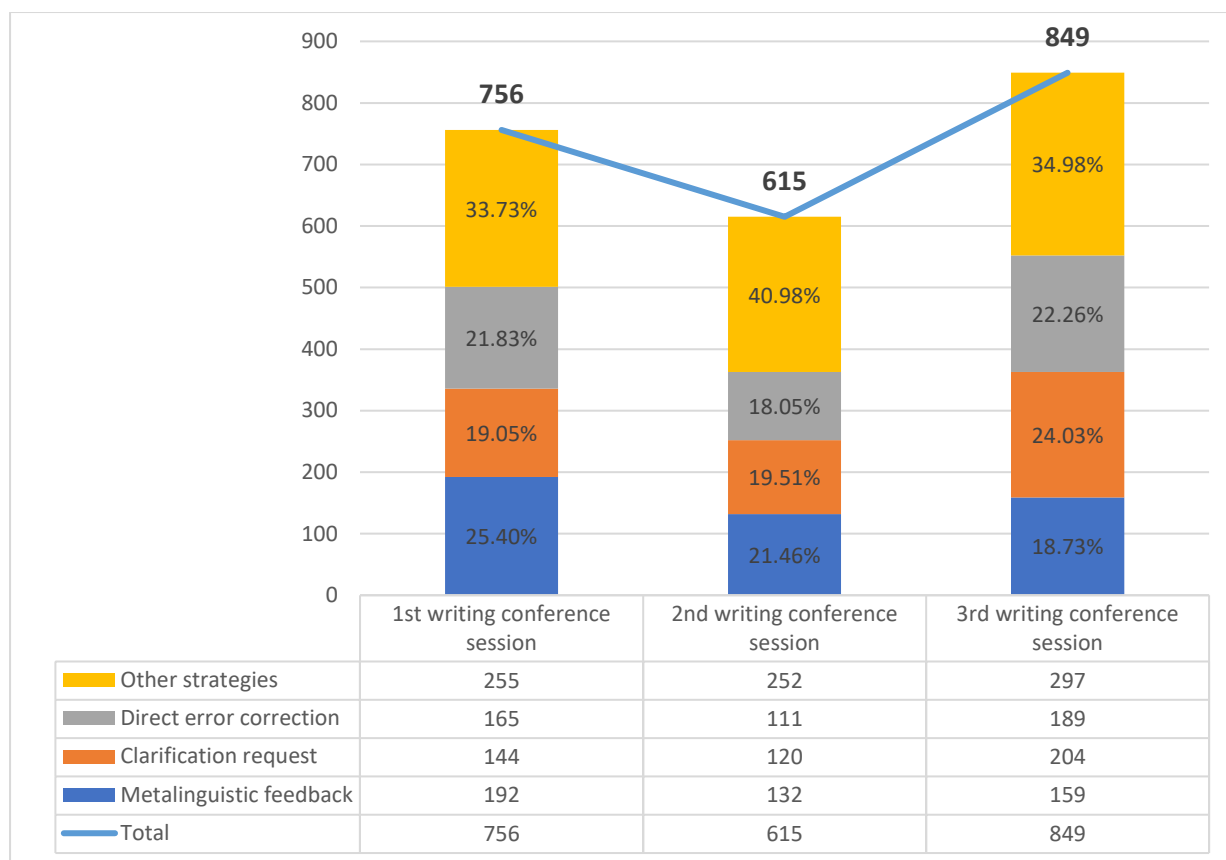
4.3.3 The types of oral feedback in the writing conference

The analysis of the TAP and individual conferences showed that the teachers' (n=6) approaches and strategies in writing conferences and written feedback were different. In the written feedback sessions, the teachers provided written feedback using direct and indirect feedback (see section 4.2.1), while in the writing conferences sessions, the teachers used graduated oral prompts to scaffold the students' comprehension on teachers' written feedback. The teachers used the following oral prompts to scaffold the students' comprehension on the teachers' written feedback:

1. Identifying feedback points
2. Repetition and elicitation
3. Request for clarification
4. Accepting or rejecting a student's correction attempt
5. Challenging and encouraging elaboration
6. Request for reformulation
7. Metalinguistic feedback
8. Direct error correction

The three most frequently used feedback strategies in the individual conferences were (a) metalinguistic feedback, (b) request for clarification, and (c) direct error correction, as shown in Figure 4.27.

Figure 4. 27: The teachers' writing conferences strategies (n=6 teachers)



Excerpts 4.34 to 4.36 illustrate teachers' three most frequent writing conferences strategies, namely metalinguistic feedback, request for clarification, and direct error correction. In the first excerpt (4.36), Ayu provided metalinguistic feedback on her student's pronoun error by providing information about the well-formedness of the segment of writing marked. She read the student's draft, paused when noting the error, and then pointed out the source of the error by reference to parts of speech. When the student was able to self-correct the error, Ayu confirmed the student's revision by repeating it (see excerpt 4.34).

Metalinguistic feedback

- (4.34) Ayu: [Reading] 'Slowly people start to follow... follow they'. 'They' is a pronoun subject. We don't need subject here. Providing metalinguistic feedback

Dana: Them.

Ayu: Them. Yes, you are right Repetition and accepting student's answer

The second mostly used feedback strategy was the request for clarification, in which the teachers requested information, clarification, or confirmation regarding the students' identified error. In excerpt 4.35, Sha notices an error in mechanics (location of a full stop). Rather than giving a direct correction, she directs the student to the location of the error. The student self-corrects, and the teacher then asks the student to confirm the position of the error.

Request for clarification

- (4.35) Sha: [Locating a writing problem]. Here.

Student: Full stop.

Sha: Where is the full stop? Here? Request for clarification

Student: Yes.

The third most frequently used feedback strategy in the current study is direct error correction. This method involved the teachers provided the correct forms. In excerpt 4.36, Mary provided a correct word choice by requesting clarification.

Direct error correction

(4.36) Mary:	Okay, so here I think plus side here you can change it into added value. (Ind.) nilai tambah, right?	Direct error correction Request for clarification
Salsa:	Yes, nilai tambah.	
Mary:	Added value of them. [Typing: added value]. [Reading] ‘so they are able to compete with other people to achieve their goal.’	Direct error correction

While looking at the teachers’ use of oral prompts, I discovered that the teachers used oral prompts to scaffold the student understanding a written feedback point in two general ways. First, to use a single prompt strategy, which is using one type of oral prompt. Secondly, the teachers also used multiple oral prompt strategies, which refers to using a combination of two or more oral prompts in a graduated fashion. The analysis indicated that multiple prompt strategies were used more frequently than the single prompt strategy over three writing conferences sessions, as shown in Figure 4.28. Despite using a larger amount of multiple feedback strategies, the proportion of single feedback strategy steadily increased over the three feedback sessions.

Figure 4. 28: The amount of single and multiple feedback strategies (n=6 teachers)

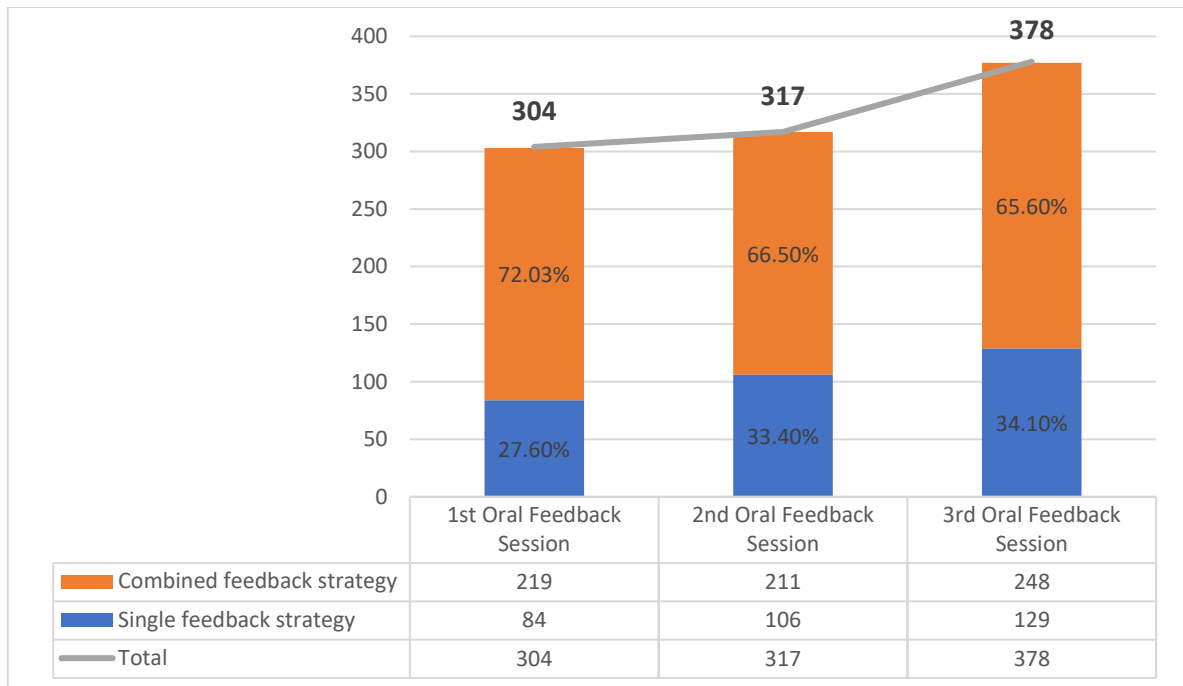
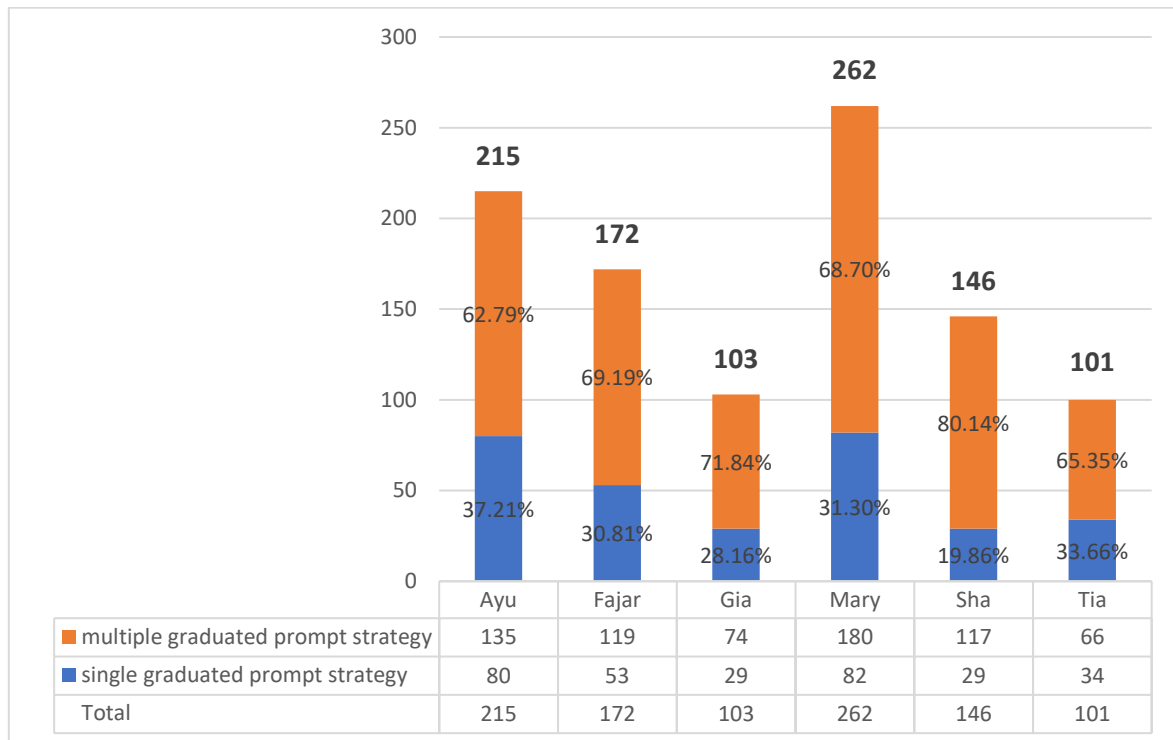


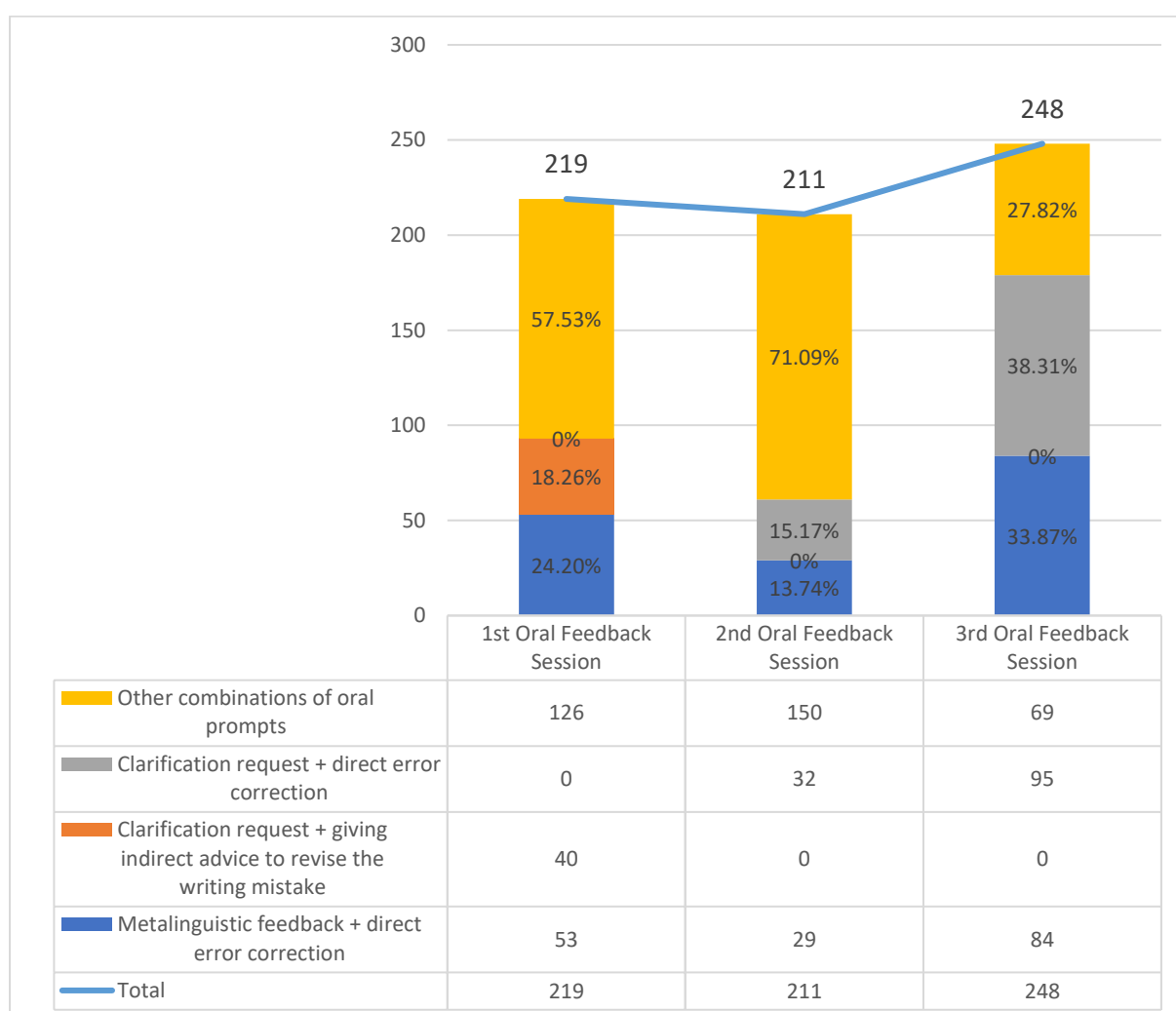
Figure 4.29 displays all teachers' frequency of single and multiple feedback strategies. Multiple feedback strategies, as mentioned above, were used as a form of scaffolding. Mary provided the highest proportion of both single and multiple feedback strategies and Tia provided the least.

Figure 4. 29: The frequency of the teachers' single and multiple graduated prompt strategy (n=6 teachers)



The choice of a single or multiple graduated prompt strategy seemed to be irregular and not related to the type of writing problem. However, there was a tendency for the teachers to use more explicitoral prompts when using multiple graduated prompt strategy, especially in the third writing conference. Direct error correction was the most frequently used single prompt strategy and the combination of metalinguistic feedback + direct error correction was the most frequently used multiple graduated prompt strategy. Figure 4.30 shows the frequency of the three most frequently used multiple prompt strategies.

Figure 4. 30: Three most frequently used multiple feedback strategies (n=52 writing conferences sessions)



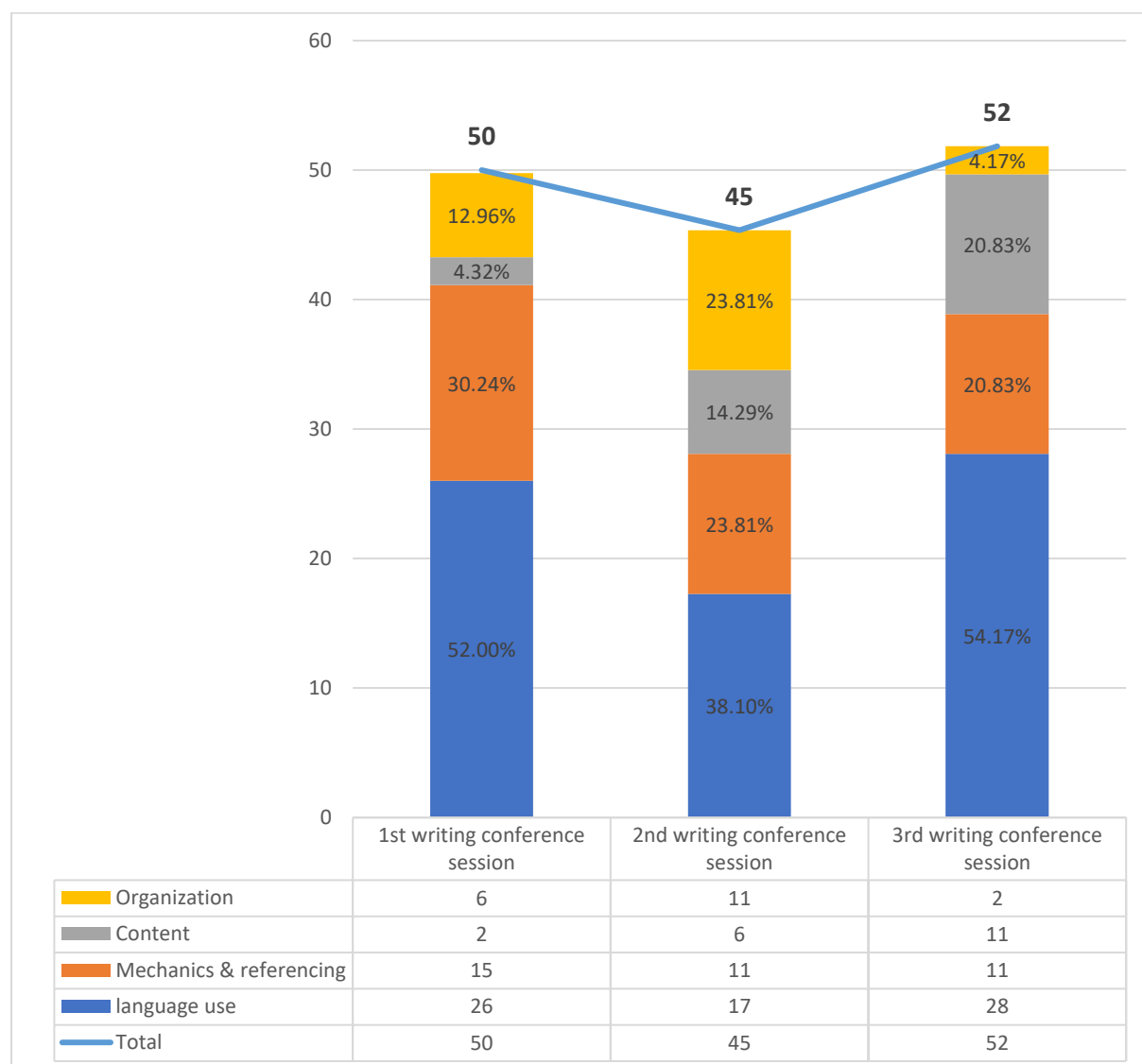
In the following section, I report the findings of the analysis of the teachers’ oral feedback on repeated errors to see whether the teachers’ pattern of providing oral feedback was consistent.

4.3.4 Oral feedback on repeated writing problems in the writing conference

This section reports the findings of the analysis of relevant episodes on repeated writing problems within one writing conferences session (intra-session) and over three writing conferences sessions (inter-session). In the intra-session analysis on three sessions of writing conferences (n=52),147 relevant episodes on repeated writing problems were

identified. Nearly half of these relevant episodes discussed repeated errors in language use, as shown in the following figure (4.31).

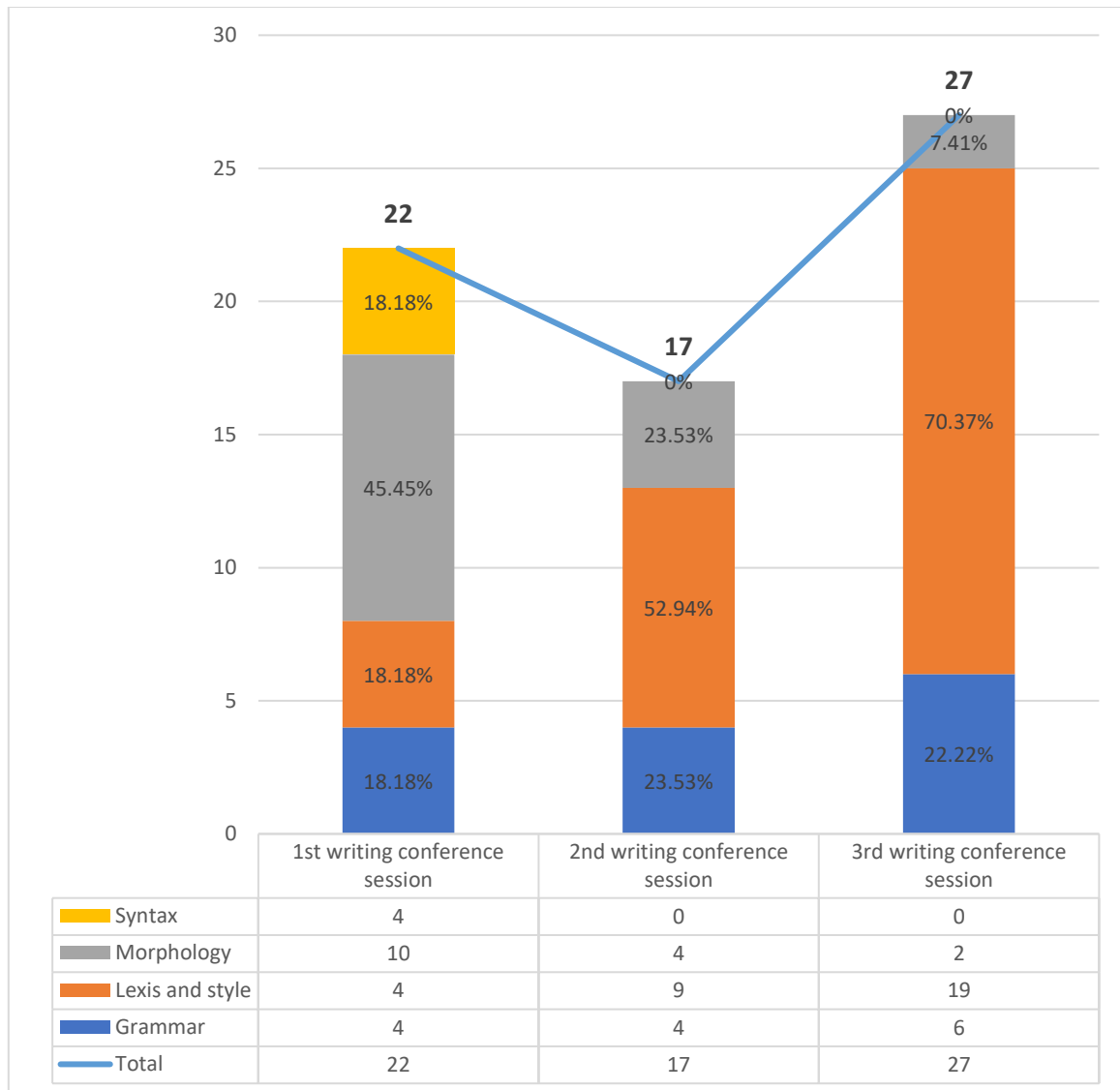
Figure 4. 31: The frequency of relevant episodes on repeated writing problems



4.3.4.1 Repeated errors in language use

Figure 4.32 displays the quantity of repeated errors in language use which were discussed by the teachers and students in the writing conferences. The teachers mostly discussed repeated errors related to lexis and style, such as awkward expressions and dictions errors.

Figure 4. 32: The frequency of relevant episodes on repeated errors in language use



To scaffold repeated errors in language use, the teachers mostly used multiple oral prompts in a graduated fashion, starting with implicit prompt and followed by more explicit prompts. For instance, Ayu and Dana discussed two repeated pronoun errors in the first writing conference session in excerpts 4.37 and 4.38 below. Ayu first used a multiple feedback strategy on the pronoun error in excerpt 4.37. She first read the sentence and then gave information about part of speech of ‘they’ (metalinguistic feedback). Her feedback helped the student to identify her error, and she could self-correct the error. Ayu affirmed the student’s answer.

Feedback on repeated pronoun errors; first feedback session

First error

Ayu: [Reading] 'Slowly people start to follow... Providing
(4.37) follow they'. They are pronoun subject. metalinguistic feedback
We don't need a subject here.

Dana: Them.

Ayu: Them. Yes, you are right Repetition and
accepting student's
answer

Next, excerpt 4.38 shows Ayu discussing another similar pronoun error with Dana. Ayu began with reading the text and gave Dana a question. Dana could not answer her question, so Ayu provided explicit feedback using direct error correction. This excerpt shows the typical graduated oral prompts provided by the teachers which began using an implicit strategy. If students could not identify the error, the teachers then followed with a more explicit strategy.

Second error

Ayu: [Reading] But, some others still do not Request for
(4.38) know, still believe in...them.' Who are clarification
them here?

Dana: [No answer]

Ayu:	In the company [typing: in the company]	Direct error correction

4.3.4.2 Repeated writing problems other than language use

The analysis of relevant episodes in the writing conferences transcripts indicated that the teachers' approach to oral feedback on repeated mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation problems was to use graduated oral prompts and mostly using multiple graduated prompt strategy. They tended to begin with a relatively implicit feedback strategy, typically request for clarification or identifying the specific site of the writing problem, followed by a more explicit feedback strategy, mostly metalinguistic feedback.

Excerpts 4.39 and 4.40 illustrate teachers' writing conferences on repeated errors in mechanics. For example, in the first error encounter (see excerpt 4.39), Sha began with an implicit prompt, followed by a more explicit one. Sha first asked if Fahri wanted to use a comma or a period in a long segment of writing. Fahri answered that he wanted to use a period. Afterwards, Sha gave an additional metalinguistic explanation and affirmed Fahri's answer.

Feedback on repeated errors in mechanics

First error; first writing conference

(4.39)	Sha: Do you want to use a comma or a period here?	Request for clarification/providing alternatives
	Fahri: A period.	
	Sha: Take a look at this sentence. Last night I read these (sentences), and I didn't find	Identifying the writing

any period.	problem
So, from this one until this one is one whole sentence.	Metalinguistic feedback
Yes, this is a period. You often put a comma, not a period, in your sentences.	Direct error correction

Afterwards, Sha used a more implicit prompt when she discussed another punctuation error (see excerpt 4.41). She first narrowed down the location of error which helped Fahri to identify the error by himself. She then confirmed Fahri's answer by asking him the correct location of the punctuation.

Second error; second writing conference

Sha:	[Pointing to a location]. Here.	Identifying the specific site of the writing problem
(4.41)		
Fahri:	Period.	
Sha:	Where is the period? Here?	Request for clarification
Fahri:	Yes.	

The following section describes the stages which the teachers followed in their writing conferences.

4.4 Comparison of written feedback and writing conference

The analysis showed that the teachers' focus and priority of feedback in the written feedback provided on the students' drafts and writing conferences sessions were similar, but their approach (as evident in the TAP) and type of feedback strategies they used were different. The teachers provided comprehensive feedback on four aspects of writing (i.e. language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation) in both written feedback and writing conferences and they tended to prioritise language use over other aspects of writing.

An analysis of the TAP showed that when providing written feedback on drafts, the teachers read the whole essay once and simultaneously identified writing problems and provided electronic feedback while reading. The written feedback was mostly indirect. On the other hand, the writing conferences involved a dialogic exchange between a teacher and a student to discuss the written feedback points in the student's draft. There were also negotiations as the teachers scaffolded the students through a range of oral graduated prompts. They frequently began with an indirect oral prompt, followed by the more direct one if the student did not understand or could not self-correct.

4.5 Summary

My focus in this chapter has been on presenting the collective findings regarding six EFL teachers' feedback practices in L2 writing in this study: What is the nature of the teacher feedback on L2 writing? Based on three sources of data (i.e. students' consecutive drafts of an essay, think-aloud protocol transcripts, and writing conferences transcripts), this study showed that the teachers provided written feedback (using teacher's written feedback) and oral feedback (using teacher-student writing conferences) on the students' L2 writing. The teachers' written and oral feedback was focused on four aspects of writing, ranked as follows: language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation. The written

feedback was mostly provided using indirect feedback, although the quantity of direct feedback increased over time. The oral feedback was provided using graduated oral prompts that began with an implicit prompt and followed by more explicit prompts when necessary. The teachers used more implicit prompts in the initial writing conferences session and gradually used more explicit prompts in the final writing conference.

Thus, in the following chapter I will examine the teachers' cognition and decision-making processes while providing feedback in written form (elicited via the think-aloud protocols) and in writing conferences to understand if the teachers' feedback practices were related to their cognition and what reasons may underlie their feedback practices.

CHAPTER FIVE: The Teachers' Decision-Making Processes While Providing Feedback on L2 Writing

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has reported the findings of the first research question regarding the nature of the EFL teachers' feedback practice, their feedback focus, feedback priority, types of feedback, and approach to providing written and oral feedback on students' writing. As discussed in the previous chapter, the EFL teachers in the study provided written feedback and oral feedback (in the form of writing conferences), but the teachers' behaviours in feedback provision might vary between teachers.

This chapter aims to present the findings of the second research question which seeks to explore the EFL teachers' reported and actual decision-making processes while providing written feedback (teacher's written feedback) and oral feedback (writing conferences). The activity of feedback provision in L2 writing is essentially a mutual process of making decisions (which involves identifying problems, selecting alternatives and the best feedback decision) in a dynamic interaction between the teacher (expert) and the student (novice). The teachers (expert) are not the sole participants in this process: The teachers' decisions and actions are partly or largely guided by their effort to accommodate the needs and expectations of the student writers, the other key participant in the transactional space.

This chapter reports the teachers' self-stated beliefs and actual decision-making processes while giving written and oral feedback on students' L2 writing. To examine the teachers' reported decision-making processes while providing feedback, I interviewed nine EFL1 teacher participants. Next, to analyse the teachers' actual decision-making processes,

audio recorded the teachers (n=6) performed think-aloud protocols while providing written feedback on students' drafts (N=72) and the following teacher-student writing conferences.

This chapter first presents the findings related to the teachers' decision-making processes while providing written feedback, followed by their decision-making processes while providing oral feedback.

5.2 The teachers' decision-making processes when providing written feedback

In the following sections, I described the teachers' perception of their decision-making processes while providing written feedback. Afterwards, I also described the teachers' actual decision-making processes while provide written feedback on students L2 writing.

5.2.1 The teachers' perception of their decision-making in written feedback

In the interviews, the teachers stated that they made decisions when providing written feedback by considering their beliefs about feedback, personal experiences, student's L2 writing profiles, and the EFL1 course policies (e.g., Mary, personal communication 2, 2016; Tia, personal communication 1, 2016). The teachers also mentioned the institutional rules which required the teachers to provide feedback as also affecting their decision-making (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Gie, personal communication 1, 2016). These factors which influence the teachers' decision-making processes and feedback practices are discussed more in Chapter 6.

5.2.1.1 Teachers' beliefs

All the teacher interviewees believed that teacher feedback was beneficial to facilitate their students' learning and improve students' writing, grammatical accuracy, and second language knowledge. They believed that providing teacher's written feedback could improve student's writing, and, conversely, that not providing feedback led to the recurrence of

writing errors. For example, Erna reported in interview 2 that her students' grammatical accuracy improved in the following semester due to her feedback, as displayed in excerpt 5.1.

(5.1) For Economics student batch last year, I can say that the teacher feedback [on students' essay writing assignment in the first semester] improved their writing. Students had a mini-research assignment in the second semester; I can see that students' grammatical accuracy in their research report improved (Erna, personal communication 2, 2016).

The teachers also believed that providing feedback is also beneficial for themselves. First, it gave opportunities for the teachers to monitor the students' writing progress (e.g., Mary, personal communication 1, 2016). More than half of the teacher interviewees (n=5) reported that providing multiple feedback on students' drafts helped them to monitor and assess their students' learning progress and the effectiveness of their teaching and feedback provision. For instance, Mary said that by providing feedback regularly, she could monitor each student's writing progress and needs (see excerpt 5.2).

(5.2) Feedback was useful to keep track of a student's weakness or writing problems. I sometimes found that a student repeatedly made the same writing problems because she did not read my previous feedback (Mary, personal communication 1, 2016).

In addition, by regularly providing feedback, the teachers became more informed about their students (e.g., Gie, personal communication 1, 2016). Gie became aware of each student's writing skills and what to do to improve each student's L2 writing by regularly providing feedback (see excerpt 5.3).

(5.3) For us the lecturers, it [multiple feedback provision] gives us information. If

students' writing progress is poor, we must improve it [feedback] or make it simpler. Some students quickly understood my feedback, but some others were confused with my feedback. I learned how to provide better [feedback] because of students' ability to understand our feedback varied. (Gie, personal communication 1, 2016)

Four teachers stated that providing feedback to students improves the teachers' linguistic competence (e.g., Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Gie, personal communication 1, 2016). Excerpt 5.4 below illustrates that the feedback provision motivated the teachers to learn more about how to provide effective feedback and to reflect on their own experience of learning to write (Nida, personal communication 2, 2016).

(5.4) Providing feedback improves my writing skills. For example, I checked a student's draft and I found a grammatical structure which I was not sure about, so I looked it up on the internet and I found the correct one. Providing feedback also make me realize that the writing process is not as easy as we imagine. Since students were learning to write, I had to learn writing to add my knowledge. (Nida, personal communication 2, 2016)

A similar sentiment was also found in some other teachers' comments (e.g., Amy - Interview 2; Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Gie, personal communication 1, 2016). Erna, for instance, said that providing feedback on students' drafts makes her become more aware of her writing accuracy (see excerpt 5.5).

(5.5) Maybe to make myself aware of those problems as well. I often made the same problems, but I might not be aware. But when I provide feedback, I remember the correct ones. Oh yes. Also, the mini research, it helps remind me and updates

myown information. (Erna, personal communication 2, 2016)

All teachers stated that they used the syllabus (the 2016 EFL1 course syllabus) as the guide of their feedback provision (e.g., Mary, personal communication 1, 2016; Tia, personal communication 1, 2016). The teachers stated that the 2016 EFL1 course syllabus instructed the teachers to provide multiple sessions of written and oral feedback and comprehensive feedback on all aspects of writing (e.g., Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Tia, personal communication 2, 2016). However, the analysis of the 2016 EFL1 course syllabus (Appendix A) showed that it only contained information about the assessment criteria of writing task (i.e. language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation). The syllabus did not contain information about ways or approach to providing feedback, the amount and the type of feedback which should be provided (2016 EFL1 course syllabus, p. 18). Thus, one could see that there was a lack of guidelines in providing feedback. Thus, the teachers tended to rely more on their beliefs, knowledge, and experience, as well as the weekly teacher meetings as their feedback guide (e.g., Fajar, personal communication 1, 2016).

5.2.1.2 The teachers' sense of responsibility

In addition to their beliefs about the benefits of feedback, six teachers reported that they provided feedback because they felt responsible for helping students improve their English writing and monitor it. For instance, Nida stated that as a teacher, she felt that she had a moral obligation to [help the students] to avoid making errors (...) Moreover, there were many chances to provide feedback in the EFL1 course” (Nida, personal communication 1, 2016). These teachers also believed that they were responsible for checking student’s draft and helping them understand difficult concepts in writing (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016). They felt that the in-class writing activities were insufficient to improve students’ writing and that more personal guidance was needed (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016).

Four teachers mentioned that feedback provision was a means to show their appreciation for the students' efforts in writing and following their instruction (e.g., Amy, personal communication 1, 2016; Gie, personal communication 1, 2016; Mary, personal communication 2, 2016). For instance, Mary indicated in her second interview that feedback was compensation for the students' efforts (see excerpt 5.6).

(5.6) It (teacher's feedback) is a form of moral responsibility because I knew a little more about English writing than my students (...) If I ask you (students) to do this task (writing essay task), I must reward you by giving feedback on your task.
(Mary, personal communication 2, 2016)

Gie added that he viewed feedback provision as “a take and give; since students had written a draft, we [teachers] need to review it as a form of reward” (Gie, personal communication 1, 2016).

Three teachers asserted that they felt responsible for sharing what they knew about English writing to their students due to their personal experience in learning English writing. Mary remarked that she had learned English writing earlier and had more knowledge of it than her students (Mary, personal communication 1, 2016). Four other teachers suggested that students' poor English learning experience caused them to feel responsible for guiding students (Erna, personal communication 1, 2016) or to select certain feedback approach (e.g., Nida, personal communication 1, 2016), as discussed in the next section. These teachers also said that they wanted their students to be better writers than them (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016; Gie, personal communication 1, 2016).

5.2.1.3 Approach to providing written feedback

All teachers (N=9) stated that they provided written and oral feedback based on each student's needs. They gathered information about each student's needs from their interaction

with students in class and when providing feedback, students' needs analysis at the beginning of the semester, and students' written work. Erna said that the feedback exchange was bidirectional; she provided feedback to each student and received information regarding the student's needs in exchange (see excerpt 5.7).

(5.7) Written feedback provision is a process of transferring information from students to us ... so that I understood students' understanding level [in writing] and I used the information to adjust what approach I should use when I [taught] in class and when I [provided oral] feedback. (Erna, personal communication 2, 2016)

The teachers differed in their opinions about providing feedback on the students' final work (the draft submitted for assessment). Most teachers (n=6) asserted that they did not provide feedback on the student's final work. They said that the students had received enough feedback in the previous drafting stages (e.g., Interview 2 Sha) and feedback on the final work was not useful for students because they did not have a chance to revise the draft (e.g., Interview 2 Fajar). Three other teachers said they provided feedback on the students' final works to justify their scoring (Interview 2 Erna; Mary; Sha). In excerpt 5.8, Sha stated that she marked the final work to help her justify her assessment on the student's writing.

(5.8) I marked errors in the students' final works, but not a lot. Just simple marks such as TS for the topic sentence mistake.... So, when I assessed using the rubric, I check my marks at work....to justify my scoring. I think three sessions of written and oral feedback [writing conferences] were enough; and in the final work, the errors were not too many. I suppose the student may doubt my assessment because maybe they thought their essay was good, but their grade was low, so they may ask me, and I need to explain. (Interview 2 Sha)

All teachers reported that the time spent providing written feedback varied depending on students' writing ability and progress. Most teachers (n=5) reported that they spent more time providing written feedback on lower proficiency students' drafts than those of the higher proficiency students. In excerpt 5.9 below, Erna said that drafts written by low proficiency students were more difficult to understand.

(5.9) For low achievers... at the beginning [I] spent a short time to provide feedback, and a longer time at the end because I had to understand the content, compared the outline and the draft, and checked everything from scratch. It even could be more than an hour if the student did not attend the consultation. (Erna, personal communication 2, 2016)

Also, some teachers (n=4) also mentioned that students' writing progress and length of the draft also influenced the time they spent to provide feedback (e.g., Sha, personal communication 2, 2016; Tia, personal communication 2, 2016). In excerpt 5.10, Sha reported that she spent longer time to give feedback on students' poor, longer drafts.

(5.10) The time I spent on providing feedback varied because students' abilities varied; not all students made significant progress. Sometimes only three people made significant progress ...Many [students] had good ideas, but they had not put these in their writing. So, I spent a longer time providing feedback Some wrote longer texts and thus needed longer time for feedback provision (Sha, personal communication 2, 2016)

5.2.1.4 Feedback Focus

All teacher interviewees (N=9) reported that they provided comprehensive feedback on four aspects of writing, consistent with the findings from the students' drafts which indicated that the teachers provided feedback on language use, mechanics and referencing

style, content, and organisation. Most of these teachers (n=6) believed that comprehensive feedback on these aspects of writing was more beneficial for their students than the selective feedback because their students were non-English major who learned English as the minor component of their degree (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016).

In addition, four teachers believed that comprehensive feedback was in line with the objectives of the EFL1 course (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016; Mary, personal communication 1, 2016; Nida, personal communication 1, 2016; Tiara – Interview 1). Nida commented that the goal of the essay writing task was to improve all aspects of students' writing ability, not only language use (see excerpt 5.11).

- (5.11) So, we could do all at once, and students could get more improvement on content, punctuation, grammar, and so on in a single feedback session. Also, it [EFL1 course] is not a course focusing on English grammar only; it was like comprehensive writing. (Nida, personal communication 1, 2016)

Nida also claimed to have received comprehensive and selective feedback as a student and concluded that selective and comprehensive feedback had different benefits depending on the students' English proficiency, as shown below in excerpt 5.12.

- Their [students] writing skill is at the beginner level ... I had experienced
- (5.12) receiving selective feedback from my lecturer. He only provided feedback on content, and I had to check grammar by myself... It depends on the students. Selective feedback is good for advanced students, while comprehensive feedback is good for beginner students. (Nida, personal communication 1, 2016).

Two other teachers added that they provided comprehensive feedback due to the time pressure in the semester. The time for the writing activity in the EFL1 course was limited, but

students had many writing problems (e.g., Mary, personal communication 1, 2016; Tia, personal communication 1, 2016).

Regarding the focus of their written feedback, most teachers (n=8) claimed that they gave priority on the content, at least in the initial drafts. They considered content more important than other aspects of writing and content was the focus in the EFL1 course (e.g., Fajar, personal communication 1, 2016; Tia, personal communication 1, 2016). Fajar, for example, said that content was the primary assessment criterion of the essay writing task in that semester (see excerpt 5.13).

(5.13) The goal of the EFL1 course this semester is that students can construct ideas in a logical order and the content. It also becomes the main criterion in the assessment rubric (...),so we put emphasis on it. Grammar is an important aspect of the assessment, but the content is more essential (Fajar, personal communication 1, 2016).

One of the teachers, Mary, related her decision to prioritise the content to the time pressure in the semester. As we can see from the data, Mary provided more feedback on content and organisation problems in the first written feedback session and more feedback on errors in language use in the second and third written feedback sessions. Mary said that she focused more on content and organisation at the beginning, and then gradually focused more on language use due to the limited time (Mary, personal communication 2, 2016). Another example was from Sha. Sha was the only teacher who gave priority on language use over content because she regarded English as a foreign language, so her students would mostly make more errors in language use than content-related errors (Sha- Interview 1).

Despite providing comprehensive feedback on all aspects of writing, most teachers (n=6) reported that they limited the amount of feedback which they provided (e.g., Gie,

personal communication 1, 2016; Nida, personal communication 2, 2016; Sha, personal communication 1, 2016; Sha, personal communication 2, 2016; Tia, personal communication 1, 2016). These teachers did not deal with all writing problems found in the students' drafts. For instance, Tia mentioned in excerpt 5.14 that she avoided providing feedback on all writing problems so as not to hurt her students' feelings.

(5.14) I set a limitation in my comprehensive feedback; I mean how many writing problems to mark. Marking all problems may hurt the student's [feelings], and he perhaps could not comprehend all feedback at a time. (Tia, personal communication 1, 2016)

Despite providing comprehensive feedback on all aspects of writing, most teachers (n=7) reported in the interview that they believed providing selective corrective feedback on certain categories of writing problems was more beneficial for their students than providing comprehensive feedback on all errors in language use. Giving selective feedback might improve students' understanding of English and reduce the students' study load (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016; Fajar, personal communication 1, 2016). Excerpt 5.15 below illustrates Fajar's belief about the benefit of selective corrective feedback compared to the comprehensive one.

(5.15) I think selective feedback is better [than the comprehensive one] ... Students know better which errors to fix, improve, or revise. Although my students are used to comprehensive [corrective] feedback, I think it is better to learn it gradually. For example, this 'used' verb is incorrect, fix it and come back tomorrow. Later we check all errors in this category. Afterwards, we move to other aspects. I think selective [corrective] feedback is better for any aspect emphasised. (Interview 1 Fajar)

These teachers also stated that providing selective feedback could stimulate their students to self-check, identify, and revise their own writing (e.g., Nida, personal communication 1, 2016).

Consistent with these beliefs, most teacher interviewees (n=5) stated that comprehensive corrective feedback provision was overwhelming and perplexing for students because students had to learn lots of error types and thus hampers students' writing performance (e.g., Gie, personal communication 1, 2016; Mary, personal communication 1, 2016; Sha, personal communication 1, 2016). Gie called it too much for the students (Gie, personal communication 1, 2016) and Mary commented that it decreases the students' ability to digest the feedback (Mary, personal communication 1, 2016).

5.2.1.5 Types of written feedback (direct vs. indirect feedback)

The teachers differed in their beliefs regarding the type of written feedback they considered beneficial for their students. Three teachers (Erna, Gie, and Sha) considered direct feedback more beneficial for their students, three others (Fajar, Mary, and Nida) considered indirect feedback more beneficial, and the other three (Ayu, Amy, and Tia) considered both direct and indirect feedback equally beneficial.

Those teachers who believed that direct feedback was more useful than indirect feedback suggested that direct feedback helps students understand the teachers' feedback. The correct form was supplied, so students did not need to think too hard (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016; Gie, personal communication 1, 2016; Sha, personal communication 1, 2016). Gie commented that students can directly check the error correction provided by the teachers and could focus on comprehending the teachers' direct feedback (Gie, personal communication 1, 2016).

Three other teachers believed that indirect feedback was the most beneficial type of feedback for their students because it can motivate students to be more independent in thinking and figuring out the revision (Fajar, personal communication 1, 2016, Mary, personal communication 1, 2016, and Nida, personal communication 1, 2016). As illustrated in excerpt 5.16, Mary commented that indirect feedback can stimulate the students to self-correct errors.

(5.16) Indirect feedback is more beneficial [than direct feedback] because it stimulates students to think more. Sometimes, students know that ‘does not’ should not be written as doesn’t’, but they forget. When I correct it directly, they said that they knew it, but they just forget it. If I use codes, students will think about the error I identified and a way to revise it. They will remember more. (Mary, personal communication 1, 2016)

Nida added that she preferred providing indirect feedback especially if there was extra time, as she mentioned in excerpt 5.17.

(5.17) If we have plenty of time, I think indirect feedback is more useful than the direct one. Students can search, correct, and understand their errors. They will remember more. (Nida, personal communication 1, 2016)

Indirect feedback was also useful to mark writing problems which the teacher wanted to ask for clarification or provide explanations in the writing conferences session (Fajar, personal communication 1, 2016).

Three other teachers believed that both direct and indirect feedbacks were equally beneficial and they changed the feedback type depending on the degree of seriousness of students’ writing errors and students’ writing ability. For instance, Tia said in the first interview that she usually provided direct feedback in the first written feedback session and indirect feedback on the following written feedback sessions. However, sometimes she

provided direct feedback if the writing problem was severe, but she doubted the student could self-revise it.

The interview data also indicated that the teachers' beliefs about which type of feedback was beneficial might change over time. In the second interview, most teachers (n=7) suggested that they believed indirect feedback was more beneficial for their students and they stated that they provided more indirect feedback. For instance, Ayu stated in the first interview that direct and indirect feedback were equally beneficial. However, in the second interview session, she reported that she provided 95% indirect feedback and 5% direct feedback. She argued that indirect feedback was more beneficial for her students because it helped train the students to self-revise their writing errors. Ayu said in excerpt 5.18:

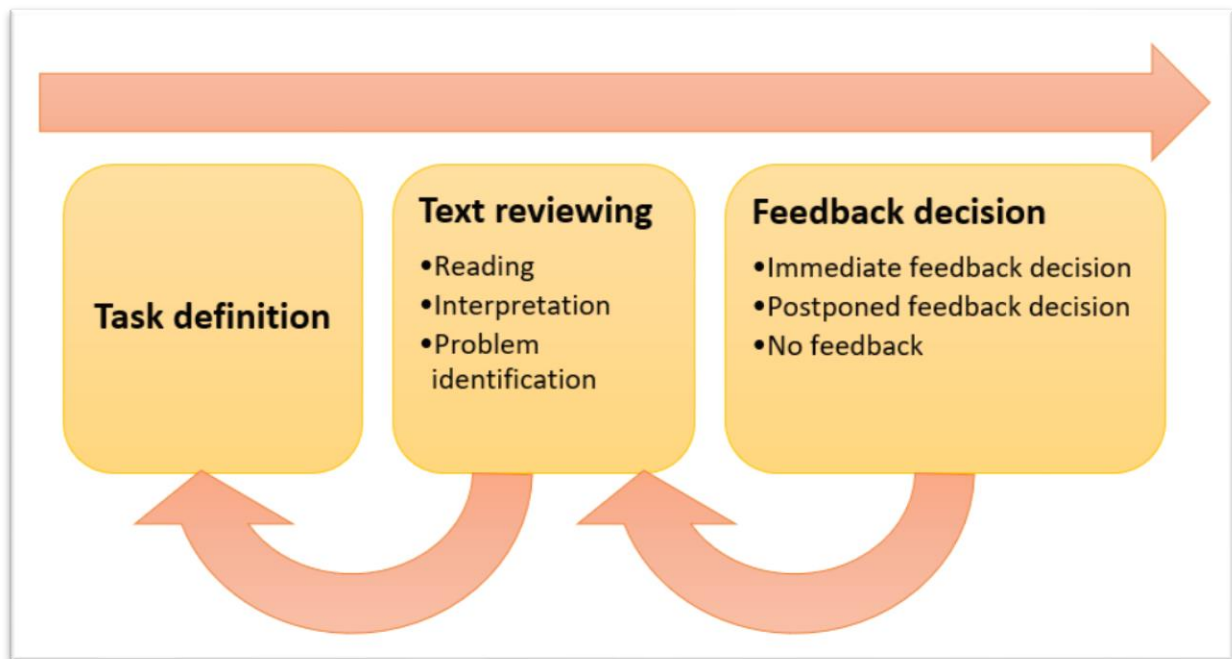
(5.18) so, they will be more capable of checking their writing. Students cannot be spoon-fed all the time. I may also make problems or miss something (Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016)

Following the description of findings related to the teachers' reported decision-making in providing written feedback on L2 writing, I will report the findings regarding the teachers' actual decision-making processes while providing written feedback on the students' essay drafts.

5.2.2 Actual decision-making processes in written feedback

The analysis of the think-aloud protocol transcripts indicated three main steps of decision-making which the teachers took when providing written feedback on students' L2 writing, comprising (a) task definition, (b) text reviewing, and (c) feedback decision. Figure 5.1 displays the teachers' decision-making processes while giving written feedback on students' L2 writing.

Figure 5. 1: The EFL teachers' decision-making processes while providing written feedback



As indicated in Figure 5.1, the teachers' process of making decisions while providing written feedback was not always linear. It could move forward and backward between the three decision-making processes. For example, while considering alternatives of written feedback on a writing problem, the teachers might stop to comment on the student's L2 writing profiles, read another segment of writing, or recheck another writing problem. Excerpt 5.19 shows Mary's recursive actions while providing written feedback.

The findings also showed that the teachers performed 29 types of actions in these decision-making stages which can be further classified into (a) metacognitive-focused actions which focus on self-monitoring one's own feedback provision actions and (b) cognitive-focused actions which focus on language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation in writing, as displayed in Table 5.1.

Table 5. 1: The teachers' decision-making actions in written feedback(n=6 teachers)

Stage of feedback provision	Feedback focus	
	Metacognitive	Cognitive
Task definition	• Considering the student's L2 writing profiles (writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation) • Considering teacher feedback (criteria, strategy, and sequence) or the writing assignment • Observing the format of the essay draft	—
Text reviewing	• Compare student's drafts • Consider student's writing ability & products, knowledge; own feedback & communication • (Re) read the text • Interpret or summarise the reading or the student's argument • Articulate general impression on student's writing ability or products • Collect information from external sources • Consider own feedback criteria & strategy, and the writing assignment • Consider own knowledge, personal response, or biases	• Consider and identify language use problems • Consider and identify mechanics and referencing style problems • Consider and identify content and originality problems • Consider and identify organisation problems
Feedback decision	• Consider feedback strategy and criteria • Revise feedback decision • Provide general comments on writing • Plan to clarify with the student • Plan to provide general Feedback after finishing checking • Plan to recheck later • Plan to guide or to remind the student • Identify problem but not providing feedback • Consider feedback strategy and criteria	• Provide feedback on language use • Provide feedback on mechanics and referencing style • Provide feedback on content and originality • Provide feedback on rhetorical and organisation structure • Provide feedback on overall aspect of writing

Excerpt 5.19, taken from Mary's second think-aloud protocol on Nadhira's draft, shows that Mary performed actions recursively. While reading a segment of the text, she stopped reading and commented on Nadhira's English skills. Mary inferred that Nadhira had a good English writing ability. Afterwards, Mary resumed her reading.

(5.19) Mary: [reading] 'Job in a company is very tight. There are many considerations to get into the field jobs, such as leadership skills, a good degree, even having a driving license. There is no doubt that the requirements built by the company must be in a very high qualification.'

This one, you know, reading this sentence I know that her English understanding [ability] is okay [good]. That is it, I want to say it.

Nanang: Okay.

Mary: [reading] 'Unfortunately, the company's necessity for the required job is limited.' She has understood the reduced clause, while her friends still get confused.

The decision-making stages and actions performed in each stage of decision-making are described in the following sections.

5.2.2.1 Task definition

The first step of decision-making in the written feedback session was the task definition in which the teachers set goals, criteria, approach, and strategy of feedback provision on a draft they were reviewing. The teachers seemed to perform metacognitive actions only in this first stage of decision-making. Three types of metacognitive actions were identified, as shown in Table 5.2 below. These actions were performed by the teachers (n=6) in 72 written feedback (think-aloud protocol) sessions.

Table 5.2: The teachers' type and frequency of metacognitive actions in the task definition stage (N=72 written feedback sessions)

Types of metacognitive actions in the task definition stage	Frequency of performed actions
Considering the student's L2 writing profiles (writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation)	44 (58.67%)
Considering teacher feedback (criteria, strategy, and sequence) or the writing assignment	21 (28.00%)
Observing the format of the essay draft	10 (13.33%)
Total	75 (100%)

Considering the student's L2 writing profiles was the teachers' most frequently performed action in the task definition step, which accounted for more than half of the performed actions. This action includes considering a student's L2 writing ability by assessing each student's writing skill and areas which needed improvement, as well as comparing a student with his/her classmates. The teachers also commented on each student's essay draft; they paid attention to the student's essay topic, previous drafts written by the student, and writing progress. They also assessed the quality of the essay draft written, such as whether it was good or not (Erna - think-aloud protocol 1). In addition, the teachers sometimes also commented on the student's in-class behaviours and attitudes toward writing assignment and teacher's feedback. They paid attention to students' change over three drafting cycles and adjusted their feedback approach accordingly.

Excerpt 5.20 displays Ayu's thinking while performing think-aloud protocol on Dana's third draft of essay. Ayu considered Dana's L2 writing ability and progress over three sessions of drafting and feedback provision. She also compared Dana's and Tiara's writing.

- (5.20) Ayu: Dana. Now is Dana. Dana gets better, so let me refresh my eyes.
[laughing]. Let's first describe her writing skills. Dana is a quiet
[student], (...). She was a passive one, she did not talk a lot. (...)
When she received an instruction, especially on her writing, she
was able to make good progress.
[preparing document]
So, her progress last week was very good. (...) when we were doing
think-aloud protocol 2 on Dana's writing.
- Nanang: I Forget. I think so.
- Ayu: Dana has good progress, just like Tiara. She has better [writing]
ability than Tiara. Her [Tiara] introductory paragraph was lacking,
but this one [Dana's introductory paragraph] is good.
(Ayu, think-aloud protocol 3, Dana)

The teachers thought about the students' L2 writing ability and personal characteristics to gauge what aspects of writing should be the focus in their feedback provision and what effective feedback approach should be used. Erna called this action 'student profiling', an act of considering individual student's writing ability, needs, progress, and product. Erna said in the second interview that she created a student profile based on three months of interaction with the student, their intellectual diary, class participation, public speaking, and writing conferences (Erna, personal communication 2, 2016). Using her profiling, Erna was capable of categorising students based on their individual writing

abilities/proficiency (i.e. low or high) and then decide on feedback focus (i.e. what aspects of writing should receive feedback), and type of feedback to use (i.e. direct or indirect feedback).

5.2.2.2 Text reviewing (reading, interpretation, and problem identification)

The second stage of decision-making is text reviewing. In this stage, the teachers read the text to collect initial, pertinent information about the essay. They stated that reading helped them understand the text and critically evaluate the text. While reading a segment of text, the teachers interpreted and evaluated their reading as well as processed and synthesised information in the reading.

The analysis indicated 12 cognitive and metacognitive actions in the text reviewing stage, as displayed in Table 5.3 below. (Re) reading the text was the most frequently performed metacognitive action and considering and identifying language use problems was the most common cognitive action performed by the teachers in the text reviewing stage.

Table 5.3: Teachers' decision-making actions in the text reviewing stage (n=6 teachers)

Metacognitive actions	Frequency of performed actions	Cognitive actions	Frequency of performed actions
1. Compare student's drafts	62 (2.46%)	9. Consider and identify language use problems	604 (24.01%)
2. Consider student's writing ability&products, knowledge; own feedback&communication	85 (3.38%)	10. Consider and identify mechanics and referencing style problems	297 (11.80%)
3. (Re) read the text	892 (35.45%)	11. Consider and identify content and originality problems	209 (8.31%)
4. Interpret or summarise the reading or the student's argument	70 (2.78%)	12. Consider and identify organisation problems	170 (6.76%)
5. Articulate general impression on student's writing ability or products	17 (0.68%)		
6. Collect information from external sources	82 (3.26%)		
7. Consider own feedback criteria&strategy, and the writing assignment	19 (0.76%)		
8. Consider own knowledge, personal response, or biases	9 (0.36%)		
Total	1236 (49.13%)		1280 (50.87%)

The text reviewing step consists of three main sub-processes: (a) reading text, (b) interpretation, and (c) problem identification, as described below.

5.2.2.2.1 Reading and Interpretation

The reading and interpreting the text processes occurred simultaneously. The teachers read the draft sentence by sentence and simultaneously interpreted what was read. Most essays were relatively easy to comprehend, but sometimes the teachers found sentences which were difficult to understand, ambiguous, or confusing, and thus they reread these segments. In excerpt 5.21, Mary read Nadhira's second draft. When she got confused, she reread the sentence to comprehend it.

(5.21) Mary: [reading] 'Meanwhile, the demographic bonus phenomenon that productive young people outweigh the other in a country like Indonesia is a bad idea.' I get confused.

Nanang: Why?

Mary: Wait, wait, I will try to understand this sentence.

[rereading]

[rereading] 'Meanwhile, the phenomenon of demographic bonus which is the young productive people is greater than the others in a country like Indonesia becomes a bad idea.'

[selecting text], [typing] What is the others that you mean here?

You should mention: unproductive.

(Mary, think-aloud protocol 2, Nadhira)

Most teachers read the text once, but few teachers, including Mary, read some drafts twice. In the first reading, she focused on content and in the second readingshe focused on language use.

While reading and interpreting a text, the teachers thought about the general strategy for identifying writing problems and providing written feedback. Excerpt 5.22 displays a teacher, Gie, comparing her student's first draft with Almira's outline (previous draft). Comparing the first draft and the outline, Gie was able to spot the incoherence in Almira's paragraph and he wrote a feedback comment asking her to revise her paragraph. The excerpt below also shows the teachers expressed their personal views of their students' drafts. Gie said that Almira's sentences were not smooth and were incoherent.

(5.22) Gie: Next is the second paragraph, I am comparing it with the outline.

She wrote about.

[comparing the essay outline with the first draft].

Gie Okay. Here she has..Shewanted to put her idea in the outline into this paragraph, but [it is] still not smooth, incoherent, the coherence between sentences is too jumping [too low] for me.

Nanang: Which one is jumping [low coherence]?

Gie For example, ... [reading essay outline]

Okay. So here she talked [wrote] about, for example, uh .. In the first three sentences,she talked about the demographic bonus, characteristics of demographic bonus, but this follows immediately.

[reading draft 1]

Nanang: Right.

Gie Yes, ifshe discussed job vacancy from this paragraph, this question

might be suitable. She should eh.. talk about job vacancy.

Therefore, I will write a comment here. [typing] 'Start your paragraph with job vacancy, for example.

(Gie, think-aloud protocol 1, Almira)

The above excerpt also indicated that the teacher compared the current draft with the previous one to comprehend the text and check the student's progress.

The interpretation process went beyond the comprehension of sentence and passage. The teachers not only gathered information from the draft but also critically assessed the information presented and sometimes responded to the text. They frequently matched what they read with their prior knowledge or accessed external sources of information, as discussed in the following section. During the interpretation process, the teachers also summarised and paraphrased the student's arguments, as shown in excerpt 5.23 below.

(5.23) Ayu: [reading] 'They make the company more advance then, ultimately can increase ...' Well, oh my god. She ...

Nanang: Why?

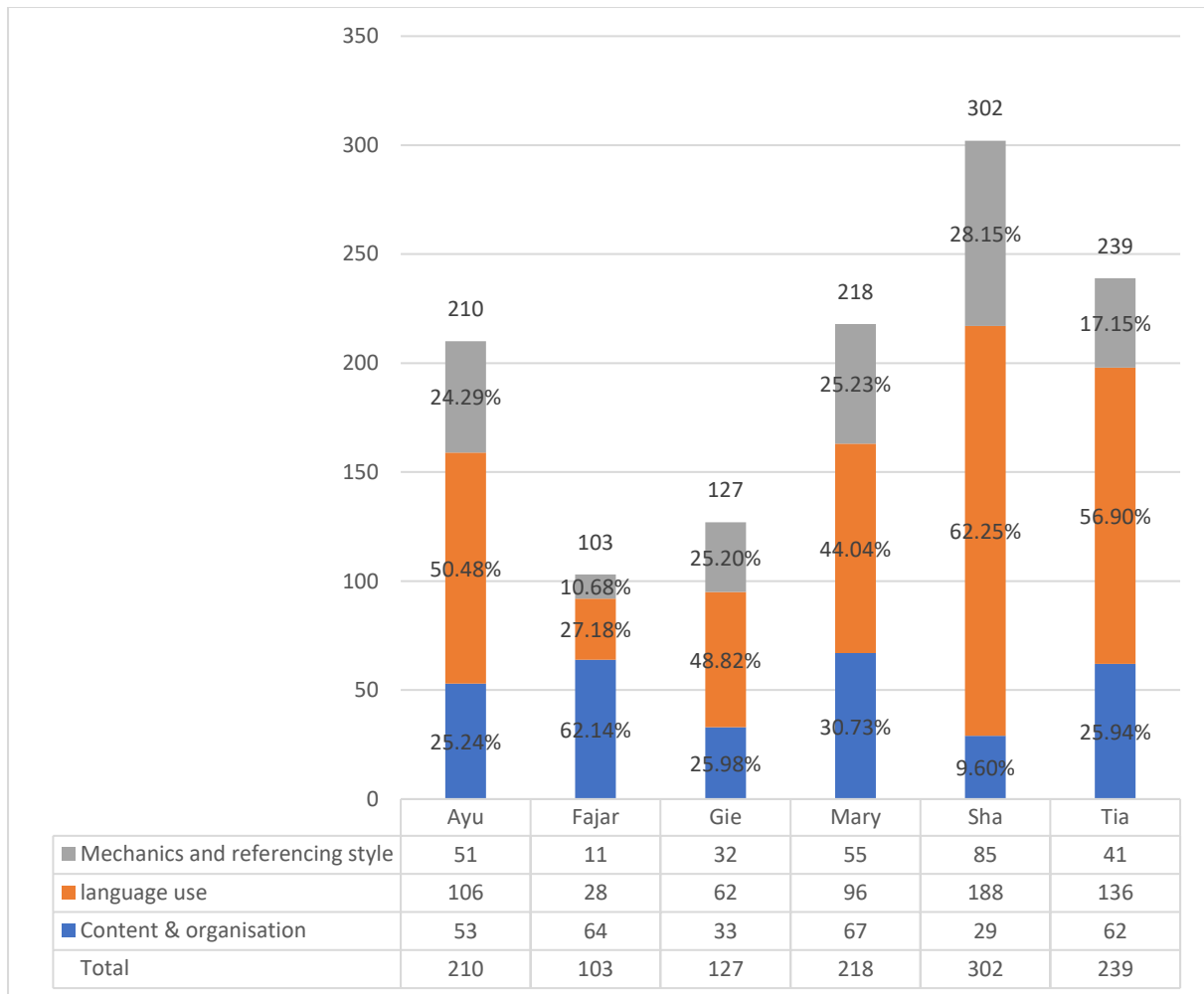
Ayu: So, she wants to explain ... what is it .. If women work, they work very well. If [their work is] good, they make more profits for the company. If the company makes profits, it can benefit the country. If the state makes profits, blah blah blah ... Well, this is difficult to understand.

(Ayu, think-aloud protocol 1, Fio)

5.2.2.2.2 Problem identification

Almost immediately after reading and interpreting a segment of writing, the teachers began identifying writing problems in the segment. They identified writing problems based on (1) the goal they set in the task definition and (2) problems which they detected while reading and interpreting the text. While identifying writing problems in the text, the teachers performed both cognitive and metacognitive actions. Considering and identifying errors in language use was the most frequently performed action in the problem identification step (see Figure 5.2). Most teachers identified more language use problems, except Fajar who identified more content and organisation problems.

Figure 5. 2: The teachers' quantity and focus of identified writing problems



Despite identifying more problems of language use, most teachers spent longer time on providing written feedback on content and organisation problems (see Table 5.4 below). Table 5.4 below displays the length of time needed by the teachers in problem identification.

Table 5.4: Time spent on problem identification activities (in minutes)

	Ayu	Fajar	Gie	Mary	Sha	Tia
Content&organis ation	40m92s	89 min 97 s	36 min 12 s	64 min 7 s	57 min 38 s	44 min 14 s
language use	37 min 3 s	12 min 89 s	20 min 63 s	46 min 37 s	75 min 23 s	26 min 86 s
Mechanics and referencing style	30 min 92 s	6 min 46 s	14 min 08 s	24 min 29 s	29 min 93 s	12 min 28 s
Total	108 min 87 s	109 min 32 s	70 min 83 s	135 min 36 s	162 min 54 s	83 min 28 s

Note. Min = minute; s = second

The think-aloud protocol transcripts indicated that the action of considering content and organisation problems required longer time and more complex cognitive process than considering language use, errors in mechanics and referencing style. In excerpt 5.24, Ayu had trouble in comprehending a sentence and identifying the writing problem in it. She reread the sentence, then she decided to skip the sentence and check it later.

(5.24) Ayu: [reading] ‘As stated by Nisar, the debates on the wearing of hijab by Muslim women in Europe is contradictory with the following three-fold dimension of International ... standards, namely: freedom of thought, blablabla.’

[selecting text: sentence], [highlighting text].

[rereading] ‘namely: freedom of thought, conscience and religion; freedom from discrimination; and the right...’

What does it mean?

[rereading] ‘is contradictory with the following three-fold blablabla, namely...’

Okay. We will reread it again later; I knew there is something wrong here. I will find the most appropriate structure for this sentence later.

(Ayu, think-aloud protocol 3, Dana)

As a comparison, Ayu tended to spend a shorter time to identify local writing problems such as errors in mechanics, as shown in excerpt 5.25 below.

(5.25) Ayu: [Reading] 'One of Muslims in west...' [highlighting text], 'claim that...'

Nanang: What happens with that west?

Ayu: West here is like in the West or western countries. The initial w must be capitalised.

(Ayu, think-aloud protocol 3, Dana)

5.2.2.2.2.1 Causes of students' writing problems

While considering a writing problem, teachers sometimes predicted the cause of that particular writing problem. Table 5.5 displays the frequency of teachers' comments on the causes of the students' writing problems during the think-aloud protocol sessions (N=72 sessions).

Table 5.5: The teachers' beliefs about the causes of students' writing problems (N=9 teachers)

Causes of students' writing problems	How many times cited by the teachers
Students' poor academic writing skills and knowledge of content area	23 (33.82%)
Students' carelessness	16 (23.53%)
Students' use of L1 writing and circular reasoning styles	12 (17.65%)
Students' forgetfulness	11 (16.18%)
Technology-related issue	6 (8.82%)
Total	68 (100%)

Two main causes of students' writing problems according to the teachers were (a) the students' poor academic writing skills and knowledge of content area and (b) students' carelessness. The most frequent cause of writing problems mentioned by the teachers was the students' poor writing skills and inadequate background knowledge of content area. Some students were not able to write accurately, communicate ideas clearly, construct a strong argument, and organise ideas effectively due to their poor understanding of academic writing

skills. For instance, while reviewing Fio's first draft, Ayu commented that some writing problems were caused by students' poor writing skills (see excerpt 5.26).

(5.26) Ayu: Sometimes, based on the writing conferences sessions, some students did not write a thesis statement. I asked them during the writing conferences session, and they showed it, this is it, miss. They just did not write it well, so the reader did not know which one is the main idea of this introductory [paragraph], which is the thesis statement. They need a help to write the statement thesis accurately so that the reader would understand the direction of the draft.

(Ayu, think-aloud protocol 1, Fio)

Sha gave a similar comment that some students made citation errors because they had not learned it in their class yet (see excerpt 5.27).

(5.27) Sha: I mean we had taught about referencing style in general. (...) However, the details what if there is no author, what if there is no year, we had not explained the details yet due to limited [time]. (...) They could not write references accurately because it had not been taught explicitly [in class].

(Sha, think-aloud protocol 3, Tata)

Another main cause of problems often cited by the teachers was student's carelessness (e.g., Gie, think-aloud protocol 3, Rafif; Mary, think-aloud protocol 3, Austine; Sha, think-aloud protocol 1, Jefri). While reviewing drafts, the teachers commented that some of the students' errors, especially repeated errors, were caused by student's carelessness. They argued that some students had sufficient writing skills and background knowledge and could

write correctly, but they made minor problems because they were careless. For example, Mary spotted a word derivation error in Austine's third draft, which she believed was due to the student's carelessness. She claimed that she just taught about derivation in class, but Austine might have forgotten it (Mary, think-aloud protocol 3, Austine). Another teacher, Sha, also complained about student's carelessness when checking her students' drafts (Sha, think-aloud protocol 1, Jefri; Sha, think-aloud protocol 3, Fahri). She said that Jefri and Fahri frequently forgot to put a period at the end of a sentence and between two sentences.

5.2.2.2.2 Internal and external sources of information for problem identification

Before making feedback decisions while providing feedback, the teachers reviewed the text and simultaneously collected and analysed information from internal and external information sources. The internal source search involved self-assessing their own memory and knowledge of the writing or content area, while external source search involved gathering information from other sources. The analysis of the teachers' written feedback points indicated that the teachers mostly relied on their internal sources to identify the writing problems and provide feedback. However, if they were not able to identify the problems by themselves, they search for information from external information sources, such as students' previous draft, internet, teaching materials, and teaching colleagues (see Table 5.6).

Table 5. 6: Sources of information used by the teachers to identify problems (N=1250 writing problems)

Sources of information	Frequency of mention
Internal sources (teacher's memory or knowledge of content area)	1168 (93.44%)
External sources	82 (6.56%)
a. Teaching colleagues	2 (0.160%)
b. Teaching materials	3 (0.240%)
c. Internet	15 (1.200%)
d. Student's previous draft	62 (4.960%)
Total	1250 (100%)

As Table 5.6 shows, student's previous draft (n=49) and internet (n=15) were two most frequently accessed external sources of information. The teachers checked the student's previous draft to obtain information about (1) their previous feedback (e.g., what feedback they had provided on a certain writing problem), (2) student's writing topic (e.g., arguments proposed by the student), and (3) student's writing progress (e.g., whether the student revised the draft according to the teacher's advice, whether the writing improved). The teachers used

online Thesaurus and dictionary to check language use (such as word meaning and uses) and Google to check writing originality and grammatical explanation.

5.2.2.3 Feedback decision

The third step is the feedback decision. After identifying an error, the teachers identified possible alternatives of feedback to provide, weighed the alternatives, and made a written feedback decision. The teachers' text reviewing and feedback decision steps often occurred simultaneously. While reading the draft line by line, the teachers often stopped to interpret and comprehended what they read, identified writing problems, and provided feedback on the detected problems.

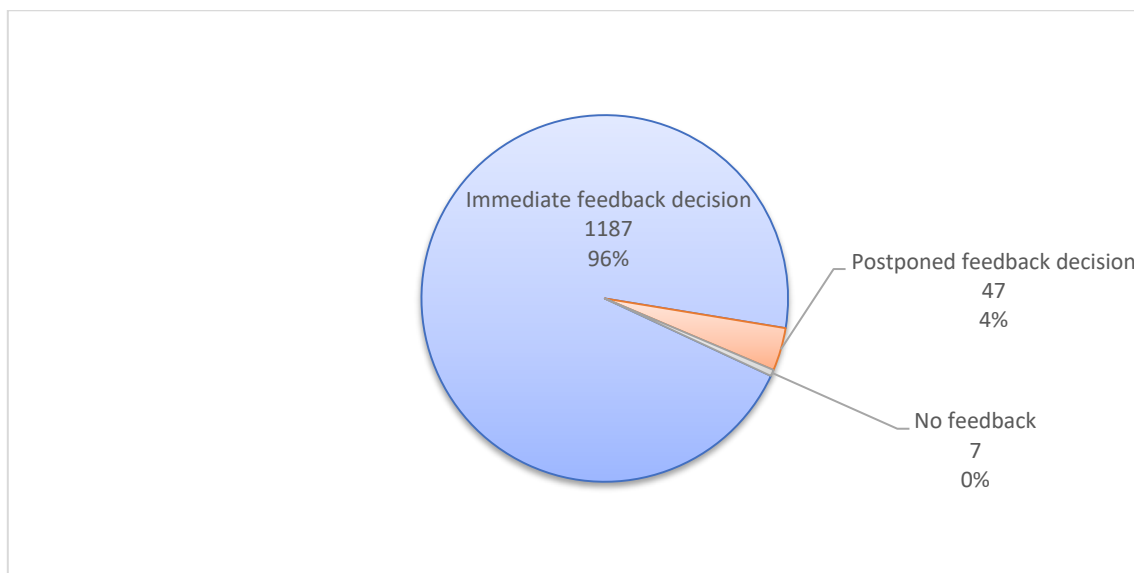
The teachers performed 14 cognitive and metacognitive actions in the feedback provision stage, as shown in table 5.7, providing feedback on language use was the most frequently performed action.

Table 5.7: Teacher's actions in the feedback provision stage (N=72 written feedback sessions)

Metacognitive actions	Frequency of performed actions	Cognitive actions	Frequency of performed actions
Consider feedback strategy and criteria	27 (2.06%)	Provide feedback on language use	598 (45.61%)
Revise feedback decision	7 (0.53%)	Provide feedback on mechanics and referencing style	279 (21.28%)
Provide general comments on writing	12 (0.92%)	Provide feedback on content and originality	182 (13.88%)
Plan to clarify with the student	24 (1.83%)	Provide feedback on rhetorical and organisation structure	137 (10.45%)
Plan to provide general Feedback after finishing checking	1 (0.08%)	Provide feedback on overall aspect of writing	4 (0.31%)
Plan to recheck later	11 (0.84%)		
Plan to guide or to remind the student	12 (0.92%)		
Identify problem but not providing feedback	7 (0.53%)		
Consider feedback strategy and criteria	10 (0.76%)		
Total	111 (8.47%)		1200 (91.53%)

In addition to the teachers' actions, the analysis also indicated that the teachers in the study used three approaches to respond to the student's writing problem, including providing immediate feedback, postponing feedback decision, and providing no feedback. Immediate feedback decision refers to providing a feedback decision right after identifying a writing problem. Postponed feedback decision refers to delaying a feedback decision to a later time. No feedback decision refers to a condition when the teachers identified a writing problem but did not provide feedback. The findings indicated that the teachers mostly provided immediate feedback (95.6%). Figure 5.3 displays the overall frequency of teachers' approach to written feedback decisions.

Figure 5. 3: Frequency of teacher's written feedback decisions (n=1241 writing problems)



The amount of each teacher's immediate and postponed feedback and ignoring writing problem (no feedback) strategies are displayed in Table 5.7. All teachers provided immediately and postponed feedback on writing problems identified. Only two teachers used no feedback decision strategy. Sha provided the most immediate and postponed feedback.

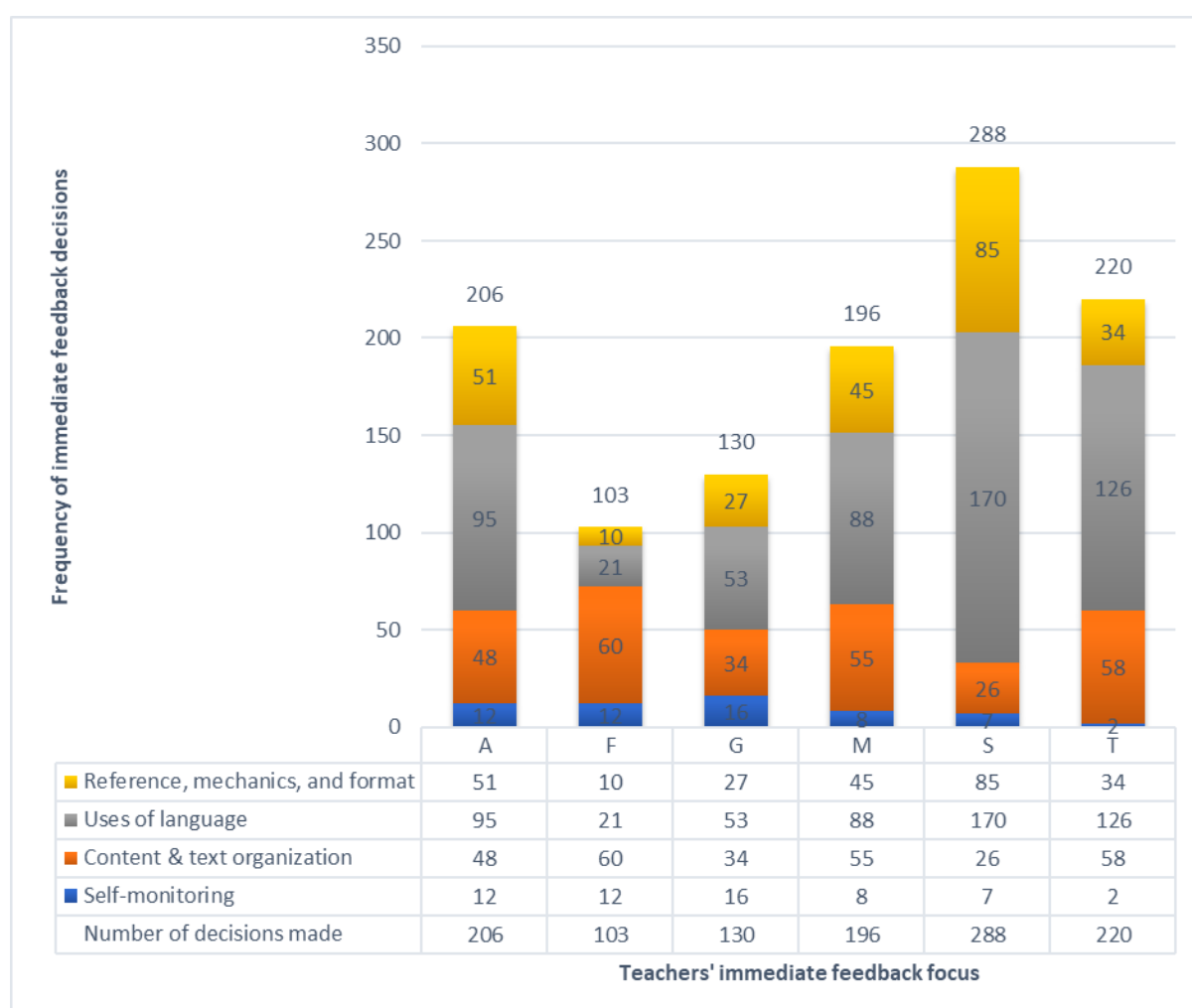
Table 5.8: The teachers' approach in the feedback decision stage (N=1241 feedback points)

	Ayu	Fajar	Gie	Mary	Sha	Tia
Immediate feedback decision	217 (94.76%)	103 (98.10%)	118 (95.16%)	213 (96.82%)	309 (94.50%)	227 (96.19%)
Postponed feedback decision	9 (3.93%)	2 (1.90%)	4 (3.23%)	6 (2.73%)	18 (5.50%)	8 (3.39%)
No feedback	3 (1.31%)	0 (0%)	2 (1.61%)	1 (0.45%)	0 (0.00%)	1 (0.42%)
Total	229 (100%)	105 (100%)	124 (100%)	220 (100%)	327 (100%)	236 (100%)

5.2.2.3.1 Immediate feedback decision

All six teachers responded to most language and non-errors in language use using immediate feedback decision approach (i.e. providing written feedback immediately after identifying an error). The proportion of teachers' immediate feedback decision on four students' language and non-errors in language use is shown in Figure 5.4 below.

Figure 5. 4: Focus and frequency of teachers' immediate feedback provision (n=6 teachers)



The analysis indicates that the teachers performed nine immediate feedback actions focusing on cognitive and metacognitive aspects of writing (see Table 5.9). Five teachers gave more immediate feedback on language use, while another teacher Fajar provided more immediate feedback on content and organisation problems. Providing feedback on errors in language use was the teachers' most frequently performed action. The result supported the finding reported in Chapter 4 that the teachers provided more feedback on language use errors.

Table 5.9: The teacher's immediate feedback behaviours

Metacognitive (self-monitoring) focus	Cognitive focus
• Consider micro strategy of feedback and feedback criteria • Revise feedback decision • Provide general comments on writing	• Provide feedback on language use • Provide feedback on mechanics and referencing style • Provide feedback on content and originality • Provide feedback on rhetorical and organisation structure • Provide feedback on overall aspect of writing

Teachers often dealt with different writing problems simultaneously. They often identified two writing problems and provided a general comment to respond to both errors.

The results also indicated the relationship between the type and amount of identified writing problems with the time needed for feedback provision. Despite identifying more local writing problems, most teachers spent more time providing feedback on global writing problems (see Table 5.10). The act of providing feedback on global writing problems required higher mental resource than providing feedback on the local ones. Gie commented that providing feedback on content was more difficult than on grammar and he could not easily make students understand (Gie, personal communication 2, 2016).

Table 5.10: The length of time (in minutes) the teachers spent in the feedback provision stage (n=72 think-aloud protocols)

	Ayu	Fajar	Gie	Mary	Sha	Tia
Content&organisation	34.12	91.22	22.71	46.62	29.08	38.93
language use	33.77	12.83	20.86	37.84	71.33	27.31
Mechanics and referencing style	22.25	6.46	11.30	21.58	26.78	11.12
Total (in minutes)	90.14	110.51	54.87	106.04	127.19	77.36

5.2.2.3.2 Postponed feedback decision

The analysis of think-aloud protocol transcripts shows that the six teachers used postponing feedback approach on both language use (n=14 problems) and three other aspects of writing (n=30 problems). Four metacognitive actions on postponing feedback decisions were identified (see Table 5.11). The most frequent postponed feedback action is planning to clarify with the student in the writing conferencesessions (n=24).

Table 5.11: The teachers' postponed feedback actions

Metacognitive focus
• Plan to clarify with the student in writing conferences session • Plan to provide general feedback after finishing checking • Plan to recheck later • Plan to guide or to remind the student

The act of planning is a metacognitive action because planning involves self-monitoring/self-controlling one's own future feedback provision actions.

Three reasons for postponing a feedback decision were identified in the think-aloud protocol data. Firstly, the teachers wanted to ask for clarification from the student about

his/her writing problem. In excerpt 5.28),Ayu postponed a feedback decision to clarify with Dana first before deciding.

(5.28) Perhaps I will ask Dana to show the original references, documents or articles that she cited, and I will check them. Maybe it will not hurt her feelings. (Ayu, think-aloud protocol 3, Dana)

Secondly, the teachers postponed their feedback decision because they intended to personally guide their students to correct the problems or to explain a difficult concept, such as the content. Ayu postponed giving written feedback on a thesis statement problem in Intan's first draft, as displayed in excerpt 5.29).She said,

(5.29) Here we are.... tomorrow, I will explain it to Intan again, I will remind her because Sean (one of the teachers) has reminded her many times that thesis statement is not a list of statements; this thesis statement is not strong argumentation yet. (Ayu, think-aloud protocol 1, Intan)

Thirdly, the teachers planned to search for further information before making a decision. Excerpt 5.30 illustrated how Sha postponed a feedback decision because she could not judge the use of 'in hopes' phrase in the draft, so she planned to search for more information on the internet before making a decision.

(5.30) Sha: [reading] 'Now terrorist use social media or cyberspace to communicate with the member by using encrypted messaging service to avoid their location and identity revealed and provide their propaganda in hopes brainwashing... Uh, this is what I still get confused;I have not found it yet, sorry. [selecting text: in hopes].

Nanang: Which part? In that hopes?

Sha: Yes.

Nanang: What are you unsure?

Sha: Um .. I have not found how to use it properly. I often heard in hopes from songs or in hopes to brainwash young Muslim. I will check it later, but let's just put it into blue. [changing text colour: blue].

(Sha, think-aloud protocol 2, Jefri)

Another teacher, Sha, commented on her reason for postponing her feedback on certain writing problems in the first interview (see excerpt 5.31). She planned to ask for clarification or make her students more proactive.

(5.31) Sha: Sometimes I deliberately leave some writing problems, mm, without any notes [feedback]. I plan to ask the student when I consult. Sometimes I wrote a note, I let them [students] knew in advance, in my feedback, you might find some with marks [colour codes] and some without any feedback. If you don't understand, please ask me, but if you understand why it's wrong, then it's okay. (Sha, personal communication 1, 2016)

5.2.2.3.3 No feedback provision

The analysis also showed that the teachers skipped a small number of errors identified (n=7). In excerpt 5.32, Gie identified a referencing error in Puput's second draft, but he did not provide feedback because he had marked a similar error before.

(5.32) Gie: [Identifying a reference error]

This is the same error. The citation was not bracketed.

[did not provide written feedback]

(Gie, think-aloud protocol 2, Puput)

5.3 The EFL teachers' decision-making processes in writing conference

This section describes the findings regarding the teachers' actual decision-making processes and actions while providing oral feedback in the form of one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences.

The writing conferences data indicated that the teachers tended to discuss most feedback points they identified in the written feedback sessions, but if the time was limited, they focused on discussing problems which they considered severe. The teachers tended to make feedback decisions in the writing conferences using the following three decision-making steps: (a) task definition, (b) text reviewing and problem identification, and (c) feedback provision and follow-up, as described in the following sections. In each stage of the decision-making processes, the teachers performed some scaffolding actions, as discussed in the following sections. The data indicated that these steps of the decision-making processes are not always linear; the teachers often repeated the steps of the decision-making processes.

5.3.1 Task definition

The first procedure of decision-making (task definition) involves setting the goals of the decision-making in the writing conference. In this stage, the teachers performed one metacognitive action, that is evaluating student's writing profiles (writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation) (n=51 mentions). Task definition is a teacher-initiated action of commenting student's writing profiles or asking a student about his/her writing or other topics (e.g., family and study) to make the students feel comfortable. For example, in excerpt 5.33, Ayu began her second writing conference by evaluating Dana's draft which she thought was passable (line 1-4) and commenting on his referencing issue (line 4-7)

(5.33) Ayu: Hi Dana, I have reviewed your essay. Seems like grammatically you made a minor mistake. It seems like your grammar is quite okay. It's not yet perfect or excellent, but it's fine. I can enjoy reading your draft without my eyebrows raising. [laughing]. But it's not the same with your quotations or your citations. It seems like, it seems like you still have some problems when you cite or when you made..what is it..When you made, when you mention the sources in your writing. (Ayu – writing conferences 2, Dana)

Another example was shown in Tia's third writing conference on Dwipa's draft. She started her writing conferences session by evaluating student's draft and praised the student for being able to construct a good paragraph, as shown in excerpt 5.34.

(5.34) Tia: This .. the last time we met..mm..we were discussing a lot about your first, second, and third paragraph, right? Now, congratulation, your first paragraph is finally in good form.

Dwipa: [laughing]. Finally.

Tia: Finally. But we still need to work on the others, but it is a good thing that you have fixed, you made it fixed with your introductory paragraph.

(Tia – writing conferences 3 Dwipa)

5.3.2 Text reviewing and problem identification

The teachers' actions in the 'text reviewing and problem identification' stage focused on cognitive and metacognitive aspects of writing. Most actions displayed by the teachers focused on cognitive aspects and consisted of (a) reading through the student's draft together,

(b) reading and summarising the text, and (c) focusing on or moving on a segment of writing, as displayed in table (5.12). In addition, the teachers also performed metacognitive actions by giving comments and questions to the students.

Table 5.12: The teachers' actions in the task definition stage (n=6)

Metacognitive actions	Frequency		Cognitive actions	Frequency
• Giving positive/negative comments or questions	51 (21.51%)		• Reading and summarising the text • Identifying the location or nature of a writing problem • Focusing on or moving on to a segment of writing	186 (78.48%)
Total	51 (21.51%)		Total	186 (78.48%)

The reading process was teacher-directed; the teacher directed the student to focus on a segment which the teacher marked in the written feedback, then read the segment and comprehend it together. Afterwards, the teacher and student discussed the marked segments and proceeded with the next step: feedback decision and follow-up.

5.3.3 Feedback decision and follow-up

The third procedure feedback of decision-making processes while providing feedback was feedback decision. In this stage, a teacher and a student discuss the written feedback points which has been identified by the teacher before, negotiate, and the teacher makes a

feedback decision. Table 5.13 displays the teachers' decision-making actions in the feedback decision and follow-up stage.

Table 5.13: The teachers' (n=6) action in the feedback decision and follow-up stage

Cognitive actions	Frequency
Repetition and elicitation	45 (2.90%)
Request for clarification	468 (30.12%)
Accepting or rejecting student's correction attempt	21 (1.35%)
Challenging and encouraging elaboration	72 (4.63%)
Metalinguistic feedback	483 (31.08%)
Direct error correction	465 (29.92%)
Total	1554 (100%)

The teachers tended to use graduated oral prompts while providing oral feedback in the writing conferences because the main goal of writing conferences in the context of this study was to scaffold the students' comprehension on the teachers' written feedback (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016; Tia, personal communication 2, 2016).

The teachers did not predetermine the sequence of scaffolding prompts. The type and frequency of the graduated oral prompts were influenced by the teachers' perception of the students' L2 writing profiles, and the student's response to the teacher's prompt in the actual writing conferences. They selected a prompt which they thought could help the student to understand the feedback points. The more a student showed difficulty in understanding the teacher's help, the more prompts and more explicit help the teachers provided. The teachers tended to begin with the implicit prompt and followed by explicit prompts if needed. However, they did not strictly follow the sequences of decision-making. They sometimes repeatedly used a specific feedback prompt or moved up and down between the implicit and explicit oral prompts.

5.4 Comparison between the EFL teachers' decision-making processes in written and writing conference

Among the differences between decision-making processes apparent in the think-aloud protocol when giving written feedback and the oral conference sessions was that the feedback provision and decision-making processes were performed independently by the teachers when providing written feedback, while in the writing conference, both feedback provision and decision-making processes were performed together by teacher and student. When providing written feedback, the teacher made decision regarding feedback using their own internal knowledge and some help from external sources but were not able to draw on the student writer. This resulted sometimes in the teachers needed to postpone a feedback decision, as described in Section 5.2.2.3

The writing conferences session, on the other hand, involved the teacher and student, where the feedback could be co-constructed. The teachers could make feedback decisions with the help of the student writer. The student writer's clarification and information, which previously was unavailable to the teacher, helped the teacher providing feedback which

seemed more understandable to the students. Excerpts 5.35 to 5.37, taken from Ayu's first writing conference session with Raja, show examples of Ayu's request for clarification of three errors (mechanics, word choice, and pronoun). In the first excerpt (5.35), Ayu asked Raja the reason for capitalising the letter p in the word 'popularity.' The response suggested that it was not an error created by the student but some automatic computer correction. In the second excerpt (5.36), Ayu asked what Raja meant by 'almost each people' phrase. Raja answered, admitting that this was an oversight and that he meant to say some teachers. The third excerpt was the request for clarification of the referent of the pronoun 'them' which Ayu thought inaccurate in the context; the question allowed the student the opportunity to self-correct (see excerpt 5.35).

(5.35) Ayu: [reading] 'the company .. in three aspects.' Why do you use popularity?

Why do you use capital in popularity?

Raja: No, it's automatically.

Ayu: Really?

Raja: Yes

[Changing capitalisation]

(5.36) Ayu: [reading] 'From this thing, people can see the real purpose of this program,

but almost each people still do not know ...' [changing punctuation:

apostrophe]. Almost each people. What do you mean almost each people?

Raja: Mm .. some of them have realised and known the real purpose of CSR, and some =

Ayu: Okay.

Raja: Some people.

Ayu: You mean from this thing, people.. Oh, you mean some? From this thing,

some .. [changing text: almost each to some], some people can see the real purpose of this program, but some others ..[adding text: some others]. Like this?

Raja: Mm ... yes.

(5.37) Ayu: [reading] 'but some others still do not know .. still believe in .. them. Who is them here?

Raja: The company.

Ayu: In the company. [changing text: them to in the company]. That's it.

Regarding the procedures of decision-making, the teachers' decision-making processes while providing written feedback consisted of three main stages: task definition, text reviewing, and feedback decision. On the other hand, the teachers' procedures of decision-making processes in the writing conferences were different and consisted of five stages. The text reviewing stage in the written feedback session was slightly different to the text reviewing in writing conferences session. The text reviewing stage in the written feedback session involved a teacher reading the draft independently, but the text reviewing in the writing conferences session was conducted by a teacher and a student.

The examples above (5.35 to (5.37) show that Raja's clarification significantly helped Ayu understand the source of the error. In the second excerpt, Raja clarified that he meant some people, and Ayu then inserted the correct form in the text, changing 'almost each people' to 'some people'. In the third excerpt, Raja clarified that the pronoun referred to 'the company', and this clarification allowed Ayu to change 'them' with 'the company'. These excerpts also showed that the teacher worked collaboratively with her student in the writing conference.

5.5 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to focus on the nature of the teachers' decision-making processes while providing written and oral feedback on L2 writing. To recap, the teachers' decision-making processes (procedures and actions) revealed both similarities and differences in their cognitive processing of feedback provision in L2 writing. On the one hand, the teachers showed a general tendency to follow a relatively similar procedure of feedback provision in both written feedback and writing conferences sessions, consisting of (a) task definition, (b) text reviewing (and problem identification), and (c) feedback decision/provision (and follow-up). On the other hand, the analysis showed that the teachers' decision-making actions while providing feedback in both feedback sessions differed. In addition, the data showed that the teachers' decision-making processes while providing feedback on L2 writing were influenced and shaped by various factors, as reported in the following chapter.

CHAPTER SIX: Factors influencing the EFL teachers' feedback practices

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has reported on the teachers' feedback practices and decision-making processes while providing feedback on students' L2 writing. This chapter describes the findings of the third research question which endeavours to investigate the factors which may influence the teachers' feedback practices.

The data to answer this research question were gathered from the audio recordings of written and oral feedback sessions, interviews, and the teaching documents, including the 2016 EFL1 course syllabus, teaching logs, and assessment rubric. The data were analysed thematically and were presented qualitatively.

6.2 Factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices

The interview and think-aloud protocol data indicated that the teachers' feedback practices were influenced and shaped by various individual (teacher-related) and contextual factors (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016, Gie, personal communication 1, 2016; Sha, personal communication 1, 2016, and Tia, personal communication 1, 2016), as displayed in table 6.1. Some factors such as teachers' beliefs and goals, the EFL1 course policy, and students' L2 writing profiles had been briefly mentioned in Chapter Four and Five. The analysis indicated that the teachers' beliefs and perception of feedback provision were the most influential individual factor, and the students' L2 writing profiles were the most influential contextual factor. The order of these factors in influencing the teacher was determined by the number of mentions in the data and my judgment.

Table 6.1: Individual and contextual factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices

Individual factors	Contextual factors
1. Teachers' beliefs and perception of feedback provision (including intuition) 2. Teachers' goal, target, and expectation 3. Teachers' social history (background, experience, and knowledge of academic English)	1. Student's L2 writing profiles (ability, needs, progress,&motivation) 2. The EFL1 course policies (e.g., syllabus, assessment criteria) 3. The nature of the EFL1 course (e.g., the type of writing task) 4. Time pressure (time allocation, deadline) 5. The nature of students' writing problems 6. Lack of teacher training on feedback provision 7. Other contextual factors

The following sections describe the individual and contextual factors which shape the teachers' feedback practices.

6.2.1 Individual (teacher-related) factors

The analysis of data indicated three main individual factors which seemed to shape the teachers' feedback practices and decisions in this context of the study, as summarised in Table 6.2. The teachers' beliefs and goals in providing feedback were found to influence the teachers' feedback practices significantly.

Table 6.2: Individual factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices and decisions

Individual factors	Impacts on the teachers' feedback practices and decisions
1. Teachers' beliefs and goals	• Different approach, focus, and type of feedback, • Personalised teacher feedback, • Stance in providing feedback.
2. Teachers' preferences	• Feedback focus: Comprehensive feedback • Type of feedback: Indirect feedback
3. Teachers' social history (background, experience, and knowledge of academic English)	• Judgement regarding the students' L2 writing profiles, • Different approach towards students with different writing profiles, • Quantity and type of feedback.

6.2.1.1 Teachers' beliefs

The analyses of the teachers' think-aloud protocol, writing conference, and interview transcripts indicated that the teachers' beliefs significantly influenced their feedback practices and decision-making. Some aspects of the teachers' beliefs have been described in Chapter Five. Thus, the following sections report three main beliefs which the teachers held, including beliefs about the role of feedback on L2 writing instruction, the teachers' responsibilities, and the ideal feedback practices.

6.2.1.1.1 Beliefs about the role of feedback on L2 writing instruction

When asked about factors which influence their feedback practices, the participants (N=9) were unanimous in the view that they provided feedback on students' L2 writing because they believed that feedback was beneficial to improve the students' L2 writing. The teachers believed that feedback could improve the students' writing ability (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016) and the quality of their writing (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Nida, personal communication 2, 2016). They agreed that in-class writing instruction was insufficient to improve students' writing; the students needed more personalised guidance in the form of teacher feedback (e.g., Tia, personal communication 1, 2016).

In addition to improving students' L2 writing ability, the majority of the teacher interviewees (n=7) believed that providing feedback could increase their students' motivation and confidence in writing, as well as their self-revision and editing skills (e.g., Mary, personal communication 1, 2016). Three teachers (Erna, Gie,) mentioned that their feedback practices helped establish a closer relationship with their students and improve the students' confidence to express their ideas (e.g., Gie, personal communication 2, 2016).

Moreover, the teachers stated that feedback provision helped them to gauge each student's L2 writing profiles (i.e. their writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation) and provided information regarding the effectiveness of their teaching. For instance, Erna commented on the benefits of feedback for the students and herself as a teacher in the first interview (see excerpt 6.1).

(6.1) For students, feedback is essential because they need someone to help them improve their writing by providing information about what to improve.... Students

may be open to receiving feedback if feedback is personally given to each of them For lecturers, feedback can indicate how ... we taught the students in the class. When we provide feedback, we collect information ... which may increase the effectiveness of our teaching. I know each student's progress, and I can adjust my teaching. I also collect information on how to provide feedback to each student in the writing conferences effectively, what approach and strategy I should use ... It can help mapping students' profiles. (Erna, personal communication 1, 2016)

6.2.1.1.2 Beliefs about teachers' responsibilities

Most of the teacher interviewees (n=6) believed that as teachers they were responsible for providing feedback on students' writing because of their position as teachers who needed to show efforts equivalent to the efforts put in by the students to complete the writing task. For example, Mary said in excerpt 6.2:

(6.2) That [providing feedback on student's writing] is a form of responsibility. For example, if I tell students to do it [writing an essay], students will do many things. Thus, the consequence is I must provide feedback on their work. (Mary, personal communication 2, 2016)

These teachers even assumed that the task to provide feedback on L2 writing was obligatory. Nida added that the teachers considered providing feedback as mandatory because they felt having moral responsibility in providing feedback on students' L2 writing (see excerpt 6.3).

(6.3) I think it [providing feedback] is mandatory because a good teacher must provide feedback as a teacher I have moral obligation to help students avoid writing problems. Moreover, there are many opportunities to give feedback on the students'

L2 writing in the EFL1 course. For example, written feedback on intellectual diary, essay, and other writing tasks. (Nida, personal communication 1, 2016)

Moreover, five (out of nine) teachers considered themselves as experienced, authoritative mentors who had more knowledge than their students and could provide accurate feedback and considered their students as novice writer (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Sha, personal communication 1, 2016). Their conceptualisation of their identity as experienced mentors influenced how they interacted with the students and provided feedback. For example, the teachers provided more indirect feedback on errors in language use in the first two feedback sessions but then provided more direct feedback (56.10%) in the third feedback session because of their expectation (that students produce error-free writing) and the time pressure.

6.2.1.1.3 Beliefs about ideal feedback practice

The teachers also hold several beliefs regarding the ideal feedback practice which influence their feedback on L2 writing. The teachers reported that they provided comprehensive feedback on their students' L2 writing because they believed it was more suitable for their non-English major students (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016). Moreover, they stated that they focused on the quantity of writing (number of words) in the initial drafts and then on the quality and originality of writing in the second and third draft.

The teachers believed that feedback should be personalised and feedback decisions should be made based on each student's L2 writing profiles. The teachers developed students' profiles from various sources. The students' L2 writing profiles included information about the students' English writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation. These profiles guided their feedback practices. Erna, for example, said that she made decisions based on her perception regarding students' L2 writing profiles (see excerpt 6.4).

(6.4) I decided which student should get more stimulation [challenge] and which should get more advice from student's profiling. I developed students' profiles by observing their performance inside and outside the class and comparing my observation with students' task output [written works]. I reviewed it [the written work], returned it to the students, and set a consultation [individual oral feedback] schedule. These processes affect my perception of students: This student was good; this one was average, this one had special needs, and so on. The student profile also partially helped me to decide, [whether] this student needed help in developing ideas, [whether] this student needed guidance in the outlining process, and so on (Erna, personal communication 1, 2016)

All the teachers considered teacher's written feedback and writing conferences mutually complementing each other. While written feedback provided a written guide for revision, the writing conferences involved direct interactions between a teacher and a student. Regarding writing conferences, most teachers (n=7) believed that writing conferences were beneficial to guide students with their writing task (e.g., Amy, personal communication 2, 2016; Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016; Mary, personal communication 2, 2016), to oversee students' writing progress and check students' understanding of the teachers' feedback (e.g., Gie, personal communication 2, 2016; Mary, personal communication 2, 2016), and to develop good relationship with the students (e.g., Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Gie, personal communication 2, 2016).

The teachers asserted that the writing conferences were useful to guide the students in learning to write and oversee their writing progress (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Fajar, personal communication 1, 2016; Nida, personal communication 1, 2016; Sha, personal communication 1, 2016). For instance, Nida said that during the writing conferences she checked and discussed her written feedback on the students's drafts (see excerpt 6.5).

(6.5) The function of consultation (writing conferences) is to help students be aware of the problems they made. We discuss those problems and how to improve their writing ability. In addition to explaining my feedback, I also ask what you write, what your idea is, what do you want to write. (...) We also teach how to write APA, and other things to help them develop their writing. (Nida, personal communication 2, 2016)

The teachers believed that students might understand better through the combination of written and writing conference. The teachers were afraid that students could misunderstand their written feedback so conducting writing conferences may provide clearer information to the students (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Nida, personal communication 1, 2016; Sha, personal communication 1, 2016). Sha commented that writing conferences might stimulate the students to participate in class activities more actively (see excerpt 6.6).

(6.6) A combination of written and writing conferences helped students understand more. Written feedback might not stimulate students to ask for more explanation. Through consultation (writing conference), we could know better about his understanding. (Sha, personal communication 1, 2016)

The teachers noted that their students sometimes got confused with the teachers' use of colour codes and comments in their written feedback (e.g., Nida, personal communication 1, 2016; Sha, personal communication 1, 2016). Nida said in excerpt 6.7 below,

(6.7) Students often misunderstand written feedback, so we need to clarify using writing conferences ... By giving written and writing conference, students would understand clearer; they may learn to avoid the same writing problems ... There is also allocated time for doing the consultation. (Nida, personal communication 1, 2016)

These teachers used writing conferences as an addition to the written feedback and a means to interact with each student (e.g., Nida, personal communication 1, 2016).

Fajar emphasised the importance of face-to-face supervision in the writing conferences for scaffolding individual student's writing process (see excerpt 6.8). He said,

- (6.8) The writing conference is important because we can provide an individual explanation while conferencing. We can discuss common errors in a small group, but individual errors - such as content problems should be discussed individually. (Interview 1 Fajar, line 521-530)

Writing conferences enabled the teachers to oversee students' writing progress, checked students' understanding of the teachers' feedback, and provided the necessary help (e.g., Gie, personal communication 2, 2016; Mary, personal communication 2, 2016). In the writing conferences, both teacher and student could discuss the student's writing and clarify the feedback given and (Interview 1 Erna; Interview 1 Sha). For the teacher, it was also an opportunity to check the student's comprehension of the feedback. Erna explained the relationships between written feedback and writing conferences as follows (see excerpt 6.9):

- (6.9) A teacher's written feedback is a written guideline which students can access anytime. After we gave the students written feedback, we invited them for consultation [writing conferences session]. That was the moment when the student asked questions or clarified unclear feedback. We could give clearer feedback orally and gave alternatives to help the student. The student could also (...) explain his intended meaning or negotiated the feedback - if the feedback was too difficult to apply. We checked students' understanding of feedback or their writing problems. Therefore, there were two processes to ensure students understood the point. (Erna, personal communication 1, 2016)

The third benefit reported by the teachers was that writing conferences could create closer relationships with the students (e.g., Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Gie, personal communication 2, 2016; Sha, personal communication 2, 2016; Tia, personal

communication 2, 2016). Gie said in excerpt 6.10) that one-on-one writing conferences helped him to get to know his students better.

(6.10) Consultation [writing conference] session can bring us closer to the students. We discuss the writing together. I know whether the student pay attention to our feedback or not. I can see which problems are revised and which are not, (...) who came only to fulfill his responsibility and who really want to study. (Gie, personal communication 2, 2016)

Most teachers (n=6) even stated that the writing conferences was more important than written feedback for their teaching context. The teachers stated that writing conferences gave them a chance to encourage and motivate students to learn to write and self-correct their errors (e.g., Mary, personal communication 1, 2016; Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Gie, personal communication 1, 2016). Mary said in her first interview that in addition to feedback which she gave to all students, she also encouraged her low proficiency students to learn more (see excerpt 6.11).

(6.11) I don't just provide feedback on the students' writing problems, I also encourage them too. In quotation marks. For example, my student told me that he did not like writing. I gave him motivation. (Mary, personal communication 1, 2016)

Gie added that written feedback “ was better in stimulating students to think and to learn than the writing conference” (interview 1 Gie).

6.2.1.2 Teachers' preferences

In addition to these beliefs, the teachers' preference influenced the focus and priority of the feedback (e.g., Fajar – think-aloud protocol 1, Amalina; Ayu – think-aloud protocol 3, Tiara), as well as the type of feedback which they provided (e.g., Sha, personal communication 1, 2016; Tia, personal communication 1, 2016).

All teachers reported that they provided comprehensive feedback because they preferred this type of feedback for their non-English major students (see also Chapter Five). Most teachers (n=7) stated in the second interview that they preferred and therefore provided more indirect feedback in the written feedback sessions, as described in Chapter Four. For instance, Ayu commented that indirect feedback helped train her students to self-revise their writing errors and not rely solely on the teacher (Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016). Regarding the writing conferences, Gie mentioned that he preferred using more questions (request for clarifications) than explanation in his writing conferences because he wanted to stimulate his students to think, learn from their problems, and improve their writing (Gie, personal communication 1, 2016). This finding indicated that the teachers' preferences influenced their feedback type.

Among four aspects of writing, most teacher interviewees (n=8) stated that they preferred focusing on content and organisation problems in the students' initial drafts and on errors in language use in student's final drafts (e.g., Gie, personal communication 1, 2016; Tia, personal communication 1, 2016). In excerpt 6.12, Ayu considered the content and quantity of writing were the most important in the initial draft,

(6.12) It was essential [for students] to write more at the beginning. I asked them to write more and develop their arguments...We could correct the grammar together later (Ayu – think-aloud protocol 3, Tiara).

Given the importance of content, some teachers (n=3) even mentioned that they preferred providing written feedback and discussing content and organisation issues in the writing conferences using Indonesian (L1), particularly in the third feedback session, to ensure that the students fully understood their feedback (e.g., Tia – think-aloud protocol 3, Faishal).

6.2.1.3 Teachers' social history (background, education, and knowledge)

Five teacher interviewees (Amy, Ayu, Gie, Nida, and Sha) indicated that their social history (background, previous experiences, and knowledge of academic English and content area) influenced their feedback practices. For instance, some of these teachers stated that their previous experiences in teaching and providing feedback (e.g., Amy, personal communication 1, 2016; Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016) and receiving feedback as a student (e.g., Nida, personal communication 1, 2016; Gie, personal communication 1, 2016) influenced the way they provided written feedback in the EFL 1 course. Amy stated that she used the assessment criteria from her previous IELTS class when providing feedback to the EFL1 students (see excerpt 6.13).

(6.13) I have never received a training in providing feedback, but I previously taught an IELTS writing course. Therefore, I use the guidelines of writing in that course in the current EFL1 course. (...) In the IELTS course, I checked the students' task achievement or task response, how the writers responded to questions or something, whether it is suitable or not. For example, when checking coherence and cohesion, I checked how was the flow, were sentences connected well, were main ideas and supporting details relevant ... lexis, diction, vocabulary, and lastly grammar. I used these IELTS criteria when providing feedback in this EFL1 course. (Amy, personal communication 1, 2016)

Another teacher, Nida, said that she followed the model of feedback provision which her teacher had used, as displayed in excerpt 6.14.

(6.14) I learned to provide feedback from my experience. My undergraduate lecturer instructed me to send my writing via e-mail. She provided feedback using comments and colour features in the Microsoft Word. I learned from it, and I try to

practice it to make the students understand better. (Nida, personal communication 1, 2016).

The analysis of think-aloud protocol transcripts showed that the teachers generally relied on their background knowledge and perception while identifying and addressing the students' writing problems (e.g., Gie – think-aloud protocol 1). Excerpt 6.15 illustrates Gie's comment on Rafif's use of references in his third think-aloud protocol session. Gie noted that Rafif inserted a long quotation in his third essay draft. Gie felt that the quoted section was lengthy and lazy and wrote that Rafif should paraphrase the section.

(6.15) Okay. This one [sentence], I think I had told him to simplify it. It is too long, and my impression is it is lazy [sentence], you know. It is like a quotation. So, I will write here, [selecting text], [typing] 'Paraphrase and simplify this quotation.' You can use it. The quotation is relevant, but it is lazy. It can be simplified into one sentence (Gie – think-aloud protocol 3, Rafif).

6.2.2 Contextual factors

A thematic analysis of the interview, think-aloud protocol, and writing conferences transcripts, as well as teaching documents (syllabus, assessment rubric, and students' drafts) data identified several contextual factors which potentially influenced the teachers' feedback practices. Table 6.3 showed six main factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices and decisions in this study. The list is presented in order of salience, based on the number of mentions in the data or other indications of priority. Of these factors, students' L2 writing profiles (ability, needs, progress, & motivation) seemed to be the most important factor influencing the teachers' feedback practices in the context of the study, mainly based on the number of mentions in the data.

Table 6.3: Contextual factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices and decisions

Contextual factors	Impacts on the teachers' feedback practices and decisions
1. Student's L2 writing profiles (ability, needs, progress,&motivation)	Quantity and type of feedback
2. The EFL1 course policies (e.g., syllabus, assessment criteria)	Feedback focus
3. Time pressure (time allocation, deadline)	Approach and focus of feedback
4. The nature of the EFL1 course (e.g., the type of writing task)	Approach to feedback provision
5. The students' writing problems	Feedback type
6. lack of teacher training/education on feedback provision	Approach, focus, and type of feedback
7. Other contextual factors	

Other contextual factors were factors that were mentioned infrequently or by very few teachers and included available technology, input from other teachers and students, as well as research and publication on feedback provision.

The following sections describe the major factors which shape the teachers' feedback practices.

6.2.2.1 *Students' L2 writing profiles (writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation)*

The students' writing profiles (writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation) were found to significantly influence the teachers' approach, amount, and types of feedback on L2 writing. Four teachers (e.g., Erna, Nida, Sha - Interview 1) said in the interviews that they tended to provide indirect feedback to their proficient students and direct feedback to less proficient students. For instance, Erna mentioned that she considered the students' ability in both written and oral feedback sessions, and she provided a higher amount of direct written feedback on the less proficient Law students' writing and a higher amount of indirect feedback on the more proficient Economics students' writing. She said in excerpt 6.16):

(6.16) I considered the student's writing ability when providing feedback [on their drafts]. When I taught English in Economics faculty, I tended to use indirect feedback because most of my Economics students had understood what I meant when I used red colour for lexical errors, spelling and punctuation, subject-verb agreement, and word order errors (...) Those students have understood my indirect feedback and we can interact well using English. However, I used more direct feedback on my Law students' drafts because they have limited English ability. I tended to mark their writing problems, wrote the type of writing problems, and supplied an alternative of the correct form (Erna, personal communication 1, 2016)

Erna added in the second interview that she tended to use explicit oral prompts to students who have poor English ability or make many language use problems and implicit oral prompts to students who have intermediate or advanced writing profiles (e.g., Erna, personal communication 2, 2016). Erna said in excerpt 6.17:

(6.17) if I see that the student has good writing skill or if he/she does not request me to revise the writing problems together, I will tell him/her the main clue [implicit prompt]. But if I know that the student is a novice student, I may actively correct the student's writing problems. I may say, 'this is wrong, let's correct it.' (....) For example, Widhi is an advanced writer and Fathur is a low intermediate one. When I am with Widhi, I say, 'Widhi, it is wrong, check this sentence, ' and she can check it by herself. However, Fathur cannot do that, (...) He may ask me. (Erna, personal communication 2, 2016)

The think-aloud protocol transcripts also showed that the teachers seemed to be aware of their students' writing profiles. They mostly considered the students' writing ability while providing written feedback, particularly in the task definition stage. The teachers often evaluated students' writing ability based on their drafts or compared students' writing ability and progress (e.g., Ayu – think-aloud protocol 1, -3 Dana; Tia – think-aloud protocol 2, Dwipa). Ayu considered Dana's writing ability by comparing Dana's writing ability with another student's, and then provided more feedback on Dana's organisation problem, as shown in excerpt 6.18 below.

(6.18) Raja has understood about the organisation of his writing, but he has not been able to arrange it properly. On the contrary, Dana doesn't seem to understand the organisation of her writing (...) However, Dana's writing is indeed neater than Raja, as can be seen from her weekly intellectual diary writing. However, now Dana doesn't seem to understand what to write though. (...) She wrote three paragraphs of introduction, but I did not see her points. So, um, I think grammar was not a problem for Dana; it was understandable. The problem lied on the writing organisation as she had not understood what to do. (Ayu – think-aloud protocol 1,

Dana)

Similarly, the writing conferences transcript data showed that the teachers frequently considered the students' writing ability or written work in the task definition stage while providing oral feedback (65 out of 72 writing conferences sessions). For example, during a writing conference session, Ayu told Dana, her student, she knew Dana was able to cite a source, but Dana was just careless with referencing and she has reminded the student many times. Thus, Ayu responded that she would only give implicit clues to Dana (see excerpt 6.19 below).

(6.19) Okay, here, here is the source. [pointing at a writing segment]. I don't want to discuss anymore because you are a grown up, Miss Dayu has reminded you many times about how to put a source. You know how to put a source. You are just ignorant and not aware, lacking awareness to put a source. So, I will not re-explain to you how to put a source. I will just remind you to put it. Okay.

(Ayu – think-aloud protocol 3, Dana)

Afterwards, when discussing writing problems in a segment of writing (referencing style and lack of elaboration), Ayu used implicit prompts by describing the nature of writing problems and giving implicit advice to revise these writing problems, as shown in excerpt 6.20 below.

(6.20) Next, this one, APA format. [reading text, inaudible]. Here you are talking about France. I don't believe that you went to France by yourself, asked the French government about its policy, and reported it by yourself. I believe you took it from another person, a journal, or an article. So please mention the source using APA format and give your opinion. After mentioning other people's work, you should elaborate, you explain it, you discussed it in your own language, then try connect it

with your topic.

(Ayu – think-aloud protocol 3, Dana)

The writing conferences data also indicated that the teachers used more oral prompts while scaffolding students whom they considered less proficient in writing and conversely fewer oral prompts when scaffolding the more proficient students, as reported in Chapter Four.

Some teachers (n=4) also reported that the students' writing progress influenced their feedback provision. In excerpt 6.21) below, Erna commented that her quantity and type of feedback were based on each student's writing progress. She provided less feedback to students who made good progress and more feedback to students who made poor progress.

(6.21) The amount of feedback which I provide to a student depends on the student's writing. If a student's writing needs much attention, (...) I give more written comments and discuss more in the oral feedback sessions. If the student has a good writing progress, I give him/her less feedback, for example, only how to improve the writing or whether we have reached the teaching objectives. However, if the student's development is stagnant later on, I usually provide the same quantity or more feedback (Erna, personal communication 1, 2016)

Excerpt 6.21 also indicates that Erna monitored and was aware of her students' writing progress over the period of writing and provided feedback as necessary.

The think-aloud protocol transcripts also indicated that teachers changed their feedback approach based on the student's revision progress (e.g., Ayu – think-aloud protocol 2, and 3 Raja). For instance, Ayu checked Raja's third draft and noticed that Raja did not revise some writing problems and even made similar writing problems. Ayu decided to mark

a few writing problems, and she planned to ask Raja to self-revise the rest of writing problems in the next writing conferences session. As shown in excerpt 6.22 below, Ayu said:

(6.22) So, my plan is, because Raja seemed to be careless (...) many repeated writing problems, I will stop this correction. If he comes, I will give this draft back, ask him to stand up in the corner, and check his own draft. [laughing]. If he has identified all writing problems, we can discuss it (in the writing conference). (....). He made the same writing problems which I have reminded several times. (Erna, personal communication 1, 2016)

The students' motivation in writing was the third aspect of writing profiles which the teachers reported to influence their feedback practices. The teachers were aware that students have different motivation in writing which influenced their own writing and the teachers' feedback (e.g., Ayu - Interview 1; Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Gie, personal communication 2, 2016). These teachers believed that most EFL1 students have low motivation in writing (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Gie, personal communication 2, 2016). Students with low motivation in writing completed the essay writing task to meet the EFL1 course requirements, to pass the course, and to get a good grade. On the other hand, students with high motivation in writing did the task because they were more diligent and curious to improve their writing, and were aware of its benefits (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Mary, personal communication 2, 2016). Excerpt 6.23, taken from Ayu's second interview, reflected Ayu's opinion about students' different motivation in essay writing.

(6.23) Some students wrote an essay to pass the course ... and some others wanted to conquer it. They wanted to master the course and wrote an essay on a topic they liked; they wanted to explore it ... It can be seen from their behaviours. The

motivated students actively searched for references, asked me questions, while the less motivated ones did it lazily; they only came for consultation once with their final draft. (Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016)

Most teachers (n=7) reported that they approached students with low and high motivation in writing differently. They tended to provide more encouragement to students with low writing motivation and provide more feedback to those with high motivation in writing (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Gie, personal communication 2, 2016; Sha, personal communication 2, 2016). Ayu, for example, said in the first interview that she gave more encouragement to students with low motivation, as shown in excerpt 6.24 below.

(6.24) For a lazy student who had low motivation to write, it is impossible for me only to say your grammar is poor, your organisation is weak. I give him advice like a junior high school teacher. That is what I think I should do because the goals of the program were facilitating the writing process – not only the writing product – and forming the writing habit. I could just criticise the grammar or organisation and help students doing good work, but I was aware that the writing activity is for their benefits (Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016).

6.2.2.2 *The EFL1 course policies*

The second factor which seemed to significantly influence the teachers' feedback practices was the EFL1 course policies, which were reflected in the 2016 EFL1 course syllabus (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016), course coordinator's instruction, and the weekly meetings (e.g., Mary – think-aloud protocol 3, Nanin). The syllabus of the EFL1 course contained general information about the subject, materials and topics which were covered, as well as the procedures and criteria of assessment. It specifies the assignments and the criteria of assessment in the semester, consisting of essay writing (30%), class participation and discussion (25%), intellectual diary (20%), word bank (15%), and solo

presentation (10%) (2016 EFL1 Course Syllabus, p. 5). As the syllabus showed, the essay writing assignment had the highest percentage of total mark.

The syllabus also contained the assessment criteria of the essay writing task, which include content (20%),organisation (20%),language use (20%),consultation/writing conferences (20%),and mechanics and referencing style (20%).It also mentioned that the writing process was important and the students should follow the writing process, as shown in the EFL1 course syllabus below (see excerpt 6.25).

(6.25) The process of consultation [multiple drafting-teacher feedback-revising] is more important than the final work. Therefore, you should regularly consult your essay writing process from the pre-writing to the editing process to your EFL lecturer.
(the 2016 EFL1 course syllabus, p. 10)

However, the syllabus did not provide information such as the procedures and approach to providing feedback, frequency and quantity of feedback, and the schedule of feedback provision. Some teachers (n=3) mentioned that the syllabus did not provide a detailed guideline of feedback provision (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016).

The course policy was also represented by the coordinator, who managed, monitored, and reviewed the course. As noted earlier, the course coordinator acted as both teaching staff and part of management whose primary role was to maintain the quality, consistency, and viability of teaching and instruction in the EFL1 course. Eight teacher interviewees reported that the course coordinator instructed them to provide written and oral feedback based on the syllabus and the above assessment criteria (e.g., Amy, personal communication 1, 2016; Erna, personal communication 2, 2016). These included requesting the teachers to provide comprehensive feedback on some aspects of writing specified in the assessment rubric.

Moreover, the course coordinator instructed the teachers to focus more on content over other aspects of writing, particularly in the initial feedback sessions.

The course coordinator organised the weekly meetings to monitor and to review the teachers' teaching process. In these weekly meetings, the course coordinator and the teachers discussed teaching progress and other responsibilities over the week, as well as planned teaching activities for the following week. They also discussed the assessment guidelines and procedures in the weekly teacher meeting, and the teachers acted according to the coordinator's instruction. For example, Mary stated that the coordinator also instructed the teachers not to be too strict in reviewing students' referencing errors (Mary, personal communication 2, 2016). The weekly meeting also served as an opportunity for the novice teachers to consult others about their feedback provision and to seek input from the more experienced teachers (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016; Nida, personal communication 2, 2016). Mary said that in her first year she learned how to give feedback from the weekly meetings, the course coordinator's advice, and a workshop organised by The U.S. Embassy. She remembered that one of the workshop presenters suggested teachers use codes and colours in feedback provision and limit the amount of feedback they provided, which she implemented in her teaching (Mary - Interview 1).

6.2.2.3 The nature of the EFL1 course

Five teachers reported in the first interview that the nature of the course which they taught influenced the scope of their feedback. These teachers suggested that selective feedback was more appropriate for students majoring in English and comprehensive feedback was more appropriate for non-English majoring students. Tia compared the writing courses designed for English major and non-English major (EFL1 course) and stated that the comprehensive feedback was more beneficial for her EFL1 course students (see excerpt 6.26).

(6.26) As opposed to students majoring in English, the EFL1 students were majoring in non-English subjects and they learned English writing to support their various courses. The essay writing [in the EFL1 course] has been taught only for one semester. It was hard at the beginning, and students had many things to improve. We could not just focus on the writing content and let the grammar failed. (...) So I think it should be unfocused [comprehensive feedback], providing feedback on most types of writing problems which they made so they could learn many things in the limited time (Tia, personal communication 1, 2016)

Another teacher, Mary, compared two courses which she taught (the EFL1 course and IELTS preparation course) and commented that she should provide comprehensive feedback in the EFL1 course (see excerpt 6.27).

(6.27) The assessment in the IELTS preparation course was split. Ifocused on writing content and another teacher on grammar and pronunciation. However, the assessment in the EFL1 course was richer. While teaching writing, we must focus on grammar, (...) pronunciation, and so on. If a student has poor writing, grammar, and spelling, we should give a more comprehensive [feedback]. (Mary, personal communication 1, 2016)

In excerpt 6.28, Nida stated that she provided different feedback depending on her students' writing ability: she provided indirect feedback for her English major students and direct feedback for her non-English major students (e.g., Nida, personal communication 1, 2016).

(6.28) I usually gave direct feedback ... it clearly showed which segment was incorrect, and because my students (EFL1 course students) were not an English major, it

helped students to understand fast and not repeat making the same error. Indirect feedback mostly suited for English major students; it was more challenging than the direct one. (Nida, personal communication 1, 2016)

6.2.2.2 *The students' writing problems*

The nature and frequency of students' writing problems influenced the teachers' feedback (e.g., Amy, personal communication 2, 2016; Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Mary, personal communication 2, 2016; Gie – think-aloud protocol 1, Puput). For example, Amy stated in the interview that she tended to use a certain feedback type to deal with the students' different categories of writing problems (see excerpt 6.29).

(6.29) It depends on the type of writing problems. For example, for grammatical errors I usually use both direct and indirect feedback. I use codes like circle or underline for indirect feedback, sometimes I used direct feedback, I supply the correct form. However, for content and vocabulary problems, I usually used indirect feedback. It depends on the type of writing problems reviewed. (Amy, personal communication 2, 2016)

The teachers (e.g., Amy, Gie, Nida, Sha) seemed to target writing problems which occurred repeatedly. For instance, Gie's first think-aloud protocol on Puput's draft showed that Gie marked Puput's repeated errors. Gie initially skipped singular-plural error to help Puput self-edit it (Gie – think-aloud protocol 1, Puput), but he changed it later because Puput repeatedly made the same errors. As shown in excerpt 6.30 below, Gie said:

(6.30) The use of the abstract noun, which should be singular, Puput kept using the plural form. Actually, I may skip the error if there is only one [error] in the text. However, it is repeated, so I think I should mark these errors. (Gie - think-aloud protocol 1,

Puput).

As reported in Chapter Four, the students' drafts indicated that most teachers provided indirect feedback using colour codes or comments to deal with repeated writing problems. Excerpt 6.31 below is taken from Mary's second think-aloud protocol and illustrates Mary's indirect feedback on students' repeated errors using the crying emoticon T_T.

(6.31) Mary: [selecting text: but], [typing characters: T_T] ... They already knew [what the code was], so this is my feedback.

Nanang: Why was that, Mary?

Mary: But [putting but at the beginning of the sentence] was among errors that students frequently made since the intellectual diary assignments at the beginning of the semester. I had told them [not to use 'but' at the beginning of the sentence], but they repeatedly made the same error. I gave them this symbol; they will understand it.

(Mary – think-aloud protocol 2, Austine)

The type and severity of writing problems were two most frequently mentioned factors influencing the teachers' decisions regarding their feedback type, as shown in Sha's interview transcript below (see excerpt 6.32). Sha commented that she provided direct feedback for what they considered simple or easy to deal with writing problems and indirect feedback for the more severe or difficult to deal with problems (see except 6.32).

(6.32) I used direct feedback on simple problems which was easy to correct and indirect feedback on writing problems which required a long explanation or hard to correct. I only gave a clue which I will explain later. (Sha, personal communication 1, 2016)

Gie also gave similar comment, that he used indirect feedback to deal with writing problems which required a detailed explanation or frequent writing problems (see excerpt 6.33).

(6.33) Direct feedback is more useful But when the error needs further explanation, I usually added notes under the text [indirect feedback]. For example, when I recognised a sentence needed correction, I checked how many corrections were needed. If it was little revision, I usually correct directly, but if it required major revision, I made notes under the text due to limited space. (Gie, personal communication 1, 2016)

Tia, one of the teachers, considered both the severity of writing problems and the sequence of the draft in deciding which feedback type to use. She used direct feedback to review the first draft and indirect feedback on the following drafts; she also tended to use direct feedback for writing problems which students did not understand (see excerpt 6.34).

(6.34) I used both (direct and indirect feedback). In the first draft, I used direct first. Later, in the second draft, I used indirect feedback when students had known about the error. However, when I identified a serious error which I think students would not understand if I used codes, I used the direct feedback. (Tia, personal communication 1, 2016)

6.2.2.5 Time pressures

The time pressure in the semester seemed to influence the teachers' L1 use (e.g., Ayu – think-aloud protocol 1, Fio; Tia – think-aloud protocol 3,), type and focus of feedback (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016; Gie – think-aloud protocol 3, Mira; Mary, personal communication 2, 2016), as well as the duration and number of writing conferences (e.g., Ayu). The time pressure in the semester seemed to influence the teachers to provide a higher amount of direct feedback in the written feedback sessions and to use explicit prompts more

frequently in the writing conferences sessions. The students' essay draft data showed that the amount of direct written feedback in errors in language use in the third written feedback sessions increased, as described in Chapter Four. Similarly, the writing conferences data indicated that the teachers mostly used explicit prompts, especially direct error correction. The time pressure also influenced the teachers' scope of feedback, as reported by five teacher interviewees (e.g., Mary, personal communication 2, 2016; Nida, personal communication 2, 2016; Tia, personal communication 2, 2016). For example, Mary mentioned below (see excerpt 6.35) that one of her reasons in providing comprehensive feedback was the time pressure in the semester.

(6.35) I provide feedback on all types of writing problems because I think this is the students' opportunity to learn. (...) I do not split it, for example focusing on grammar first, especially conditional sentence error. The time is a little limited, so I must do all at once. In the first and second feedback sessions, I focused on the content and flow of ideas, and I also provide feedback on the grammar although I was not very demanding about the grammar at that stage. Sometimes I let one or two grammatical errors in the first feedback session. (Mary, personal communication 2, 2016).

In addition, the time pressure also motivated most teachers (n=5) to use more Indonesian (L1) when providing written feedback on repeated writing problems (e.g., Ayu – think-aloud protocol 3, Fio; Tia – think-aloud protocol 3, Faishal). For example, Tia mentioned in the third think-aloud protocol that she intended to provide feedback on some writing problems using Indonesian to help her students understood her explanation better (see excerpt 6.36).

(6.36) Yesterday I told my students that in this written feedback session I will give comments on repeated writing problems using Indonesian, so they can understand well. You will see some comments are in English and some are in Indonesian. (....) Tomorrow is the last opportunity to provide feedback before students submit the final work and I want to ensure that they fully understand my feedback. (Tia - think-aloud protocol 3, Faishal)

At times, unexpected time pressure also added to the existing feedback practices. The university administration abruptly organised a one-week obligatory religious and character-building training for all first-year students, including all EFL1 course students. Consequently, the number of class meeting in the semester decreased and the teachers had to reschedule and shorten the writing cycle and adjusted their feedback approach to coping with the issue. For instance, Sha mentioned that she only had one meeting to introduce plagiarism and referencing to students she had to cancel the class meetings (Sha – think-aloud protocol 3, Tata), while Ayu stated that the teachers distributed an APA reference style guidebook to assist the students in self-studying the referencing style. In excerpt 6.37, Ayu said,

(6.37) [The schedule] was really tight. First, there were fewer meetings in this semester; many day-offs and agendas, especially in the second half of the semester The time allocation for writing conferences was tight. We expected them to learn a, b, c, d, and e of essay writing and APA referencing system because they were beginners, but we had to shorten the writing conferences duration and change the feedback strategy, providing more direct feedback [explicit prompts]. (Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016).

6.2.2.6 *Other contextual factors*

The teachers reported other minor contextual factors including lack of teacher training on feedback provision, input from other teachers (e.g., Mary, personal communication 1, 2016) and the available technology. The lack of teacher training/education on feedback provision was an understated contextual factor in this context of the study. Some teacher participants related the influence of their prior formal education on their current feedback practices, but they did not point out the lack of training or education on feedback provision. They also did not consider the lack of training/education on feedback provision as an important factor influencing their feedback provision.

Six teachers mentioned that they discussed their feedback provision with their teaching colleagues and used the senior teachers as a model for feedback provision (e.g., Mary, personal communication 2, 2016; Nida, personal communication 2, 2016i). Mary said in the second interview that she discussed and observed the other teachers, especially the senior ones (see excerpt 6.38).

(6.38) I often discuss my feedback provision with other teachers, such as Tia, Erna, and others. I observed these teachers, and I feel that their feedback practices may improve the effectiveness of my feedback too. So, I adopted it. (Mary , personal communication 2, 2016).

The teachers preferred to provide written feedback on students' draft electronically than on paper because they could directly utilise the internet and computer-based technologies in their feedback provision (e.g., Mary, personal communication 1, 2016; Sha, personal communication 2, 2016), such as checking the originality of the students' writing.

6.3 Summary

The analysis for the third research question showed several factors which influenced the teachers' feedback provision. Some factors related to teachers themselves, including teachers' beliefs, preference, expectation, and knowledge of academic English and content area. Other factors are related to the broader context which influenced the teachers' feedback provision. These factors included the university policy, characteristics of the EFL1 course, the time pressure in the semester, and inputs from other teachers. More specifically, the teachers also established in their minds a profile of each student, including their writing ability and progress, the nature of errors, and the occurrence of errors, as well as motivation which then guided them in the type and nature of feedback they provided in written form and in the conferences. The following chapter will discuss the main findings of this study and make conclusions.

CHAPTER SEVEN: Discussion and conclusion

7.1 Introduction

The main goal of the current case study was to investigate feedback practices in an Indonesian university EFL context. The case study participants were a group of Indonesian EFL teachers in one college. The study was longitudinal and investigated the nature of the teachers' feedback provided to their students on their essay drafts and in oral conferences over a semester. In addition, the present study aimed to investigate ways in which these teachers made decisions in their feedback activity and factors which influence their feedback practices.

To achieve these aims, I collected data from several sources including: (a) think-aloud protocols from teachers while they were providing written feedback, (b) audio recordings of one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences, (c) recordings of teacher interviews, (d) teaching documents (The 2016 EFL1 Course Syllabus, the assessment rubric and students' drafts with the teachers' feedback), and (e) classroom observation. The gathered data were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively. I employed Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) third generation of Activity Theory (AT) as the main theoretical framework to explain the findings because it provided a useful means to conceptualise the teachers' feedback provision activity and the configurations of the context and individual factors which shape the teachers' feedback in their activity system. In addition, I also employed Leont'ev's (1978, 1981) second generation of Activity Theory to explain the role of teachers' agency in this study (see Chapter Two for a detailed discussion of AT).

This chapter summarises and discusses the main findings reported in the study in response to the three research questions. I discuss and interpret the findings and responses to

each research question using AT. I then map the findings of each question onto the activity system model, thus gradually building a visual representation of the feedback activity system. Following the discussion, I then consider the theoretical and practical implications of these findings. I conclude the chapter by describing the limitations of the current research and outlining suggestions for future research.

7.2 Summary of main findings

The key findings of the current case study were summarised as follows:

1. The teachers provided multiple sessions of written feedback (using teacher's written feedback) followed by oral feedback (using one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences) on the students' written work. Both feedback methods complemented each other but both had different main purposes: the teachers provided written feedback mainly as a written guideline to assist the students in revising their writing and conducted writing conferences to scaffold each student in understanding the teacher's written feedback points and self-revising the writing problems.
2. The teachers provided comprehensive feedback focusing on four aspects of writing: language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation. In the written feedback session, the teachers mostly provided indirect feedback. In the writing conferences, the teachers mostly used graduated oral prompts to scaffold the students' learning.
3. The teachers' seemed to follow an ordered pattern of the decision-making processes while providing feedback, consisting of (a) task definition, (b) text reviewing (and problem identification), and (c) feedback decision (or feedback provision and follow-up). Moreover, the teachers exhibited various decision-making actions in both written and oral feedback sessions focusing on metacognitive (i.e. focusing on self-monitoring one's own feedback provision actions) and cognitive (i.e. focusing on

language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation in writing) aspects of writing. It should be noted that this conclusion only related to the decision-making processes while providing feedback (reading, interpreting, identifying writing problems, and providing feedback), and not to the overall process of providing feedback.

4. In both written feedback and writing conferences sessions, the teachers seemed to exhibit more metacognitive actions, as defined in this thesis (i.e. focusing on self-monitoring one's own feedback provision actions) in the task definition stage and more cognitive actions, again as defined in this thesis (i.e. focusing on language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation in writing) in the text reviewing (and problem identification) and feedback decision (feedback provision and follow-up) stages.
5. The teachers mostly made decisions regarding feedback by considering their students' L2 writing profiles and their responses to the teachers' feedback in the previous draft (in the written feedback sessions) and the students' responses to the teachers' graduated oral prompts (in the writing conferences sessions).
6. The teachers' feedback practices were shaped and mediated by a myriad of interrelated individual and contextual factors. The most important individual factor was teachers' beliefs, and the most important contextual factor was the student's writing profiles.

These main findings were organised according to the three guiding research questions and discussed in detail in the following sections.

7.3 The nature of the EFL teachers' feedback

Research Question 1: *What is the nature of the EFL teachers' feedback on students' L2 writing?*

7.3.1 The teachers' written feedback

The teachers' written feedback tended to be unidirectional, and their approach to providing written feedback tended to be similar: the teachers simultaneously read the student's written work, identified writing problems, and provided written feedback electronically using Microsoft Office Word software. In addition, the teachers provided comprehensive feedback on all problems related to four aspects of writing in the following order of frequency: (a) language use, (b) mechanics and referencing style, (c) content, and (d) organisation. This finding is in accord with the results reported by some other studies which showed that teachers in authentic language classes tend to provide feedback on various aspects of writing, beyond errors in language use (corrective feedback) (e.g., AlBakri, 2016; Lee, 2008, 2009b). As evidenced by the interview data, the teachers in this study provide comprehensive feedback because they believe it is beneficial for their students' L2 writing development (see also AlBakri, 2016) and the institutional policy require the teachers to provide comprehensive feedback (Lee, 2008, 2009b).

The findings from the written drafts and think-aloud protocols reveal that the teachers focus on and provide more feedback on local errors (i.e. language use, mechanics, and referencing style errors) than on global issues in students' L2 writing (i.e. content and organisation problems) throughout three written feedback sessions. This practice, however, contradicts the 2016 EFL1 program coordinator's instruction which suggests the teachers to prioritise content over other aspects of writing as well as most teachers who prioritise content of writing (e.g., Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Nida, personal communication 1, 2016). This focus on local language issues over more global issues have also been reported in

several previous studies conducted in a range of L2 teaching contexts (e.g., Applebee, 1981; Cohen, 1987; Furneaux et al., 2007; Lee, 2011; Zamel, 1985). For instance, Furneaux et al. (2007) surveyed 110 EFL teachers in five different countries and found that most L2 teachers focused on grammar rather than content. Similarly, Lee (2008b, 2009b, 2011) analysed 26 Hong Kong EFL secondary teachers' commentary and found that the teachers overwhelmingly focused on form (94.1%) rather than content and organisation because they believed language forms should receive the most attention.

Regarding the type of feedback, the EFL teachers in the current study provide more indirect feedback (64.86%) than direct feedback (35.14%) in the written feedback sessions. Eight (out of nine) teachers mentioned in the interview sessions that indirect feedback enabled L2 students to self-revise their writing problems and that the students understand the codes which the teachers used. However, this finding contradicts the results of some previous WCF studies which reported that the EFL teachers provided more direct corrective feedback (e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Ferris, 2006; Guénette&Lyster, 2013; Lee, 2008, 2011). For example, Lee (2011) found that the Hong Kong EFL secondary teachers mostly provided direct feedback (71.5%) on forms due to the strict school policy on direct feedback. In the present study, the course policy did not prescribe the type of feedback that the teachers should provide.

The frequency of the teachers' written feedback also indicates the inconsistency between what feedback the teachers thought they provided or considered important and what feedback they actually provided. The teachers consistently provided most feedback on errors in language use although they considered content and organisation were more important because they believed that many students had difficulty in developing ideas in their writing (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 2, 2016). Three inconsistencies investigated in this study will be discussed further in Section 7.5.1.

The teachers' feedback practices changed over time. They provided more indirect feedback on errors in language use in the first and second written feedback sessions and then more direct feedback (56.10%) in the third feedback session. The interview and think-aloud protocols data also indicate that the teachers' feedback focus change over time; they focused on students' different aspects of writing when providing feedback in different stages of writing. This change of their feedback type (i.e. providing more direct feedback especially on errors in language use over time) can be explained in terms of the teachers' beliefs about their identity as authoritative mentors and the time pressure, as will be discussed in response to the third research question.

7.3.2 The teachers' one-on-one writing conference

The primary goal of the one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences in this study was to scaffold student's learning individually to help student to identify and self-revise his/her writing problems. In contrast to the written feedback, the teachers' approach in the writing conferences was bidirectional. The teachers used the writing conferences as an opportunity to discuss the feedback they provided and to elicit the students' concerns about their writing so that they could provide relevant feedback. The students in these conferences were given a chance to negotiate and to clarify any misunderstanding or confusion that they might have regarding the feedback.

In scaffolding the students, the teachers used a series of graduated oral prompts. The teachers generally started with an implicit prompt, such as identifying the location of the writing problems and followed with the more explicit prompts such as a metalinguistic explanation or direct error correction if students required it (see also Aljaafreh&Lantolf, 1994; Poehner, 2005). However, the study also reported that the teachers reversed the sequence of the graduated oral prompts, particularly when dealing with frequent errors in language use and in the second and third conferences. In these later conferences, they began

with direct error correction and followed with a metalinguistic explanation to help the students understand the cause of the writing problems. Eleven types of prompts were identified in the study, with the three most frequently used were: (a) metalinguistic feedback, (b) request for clarification, and (c) direct error correction. The teachers' prompts were guided by the students' responses in the face-to-face conferences. The scope of feedback in the writing conferences was similar to that in the written feedback, namely that the teachers tended to discuss all written feedback points they identified in the preceding written feedback and scaffolded more local errors. However, the teachers sometimes only discussed the most severe writing problems due to the time pressure.

The teachers used English (L2) in most of the writing conferences sessions but they switched to Indonesian (L1) if they found difficulty in discussing complex ideas and linguistic terminology or negotiating meaning in L2, or if the students did not understand the explanation given in L2. The teachers' use and switch between L1 and L2 in the writing conferences supports some previous studies which reported that L1 use in L2 writing conferences (Ekmekçi, 2015) and in L2 classrooms more generally (Canagarajah, 2007; Jingxia, 2010; Macaro, 2005) was beneficial to convey meaning, provide long, complicated explanation of grammar and vocabulary, and to reduce the cognitive burden on less proficient students.

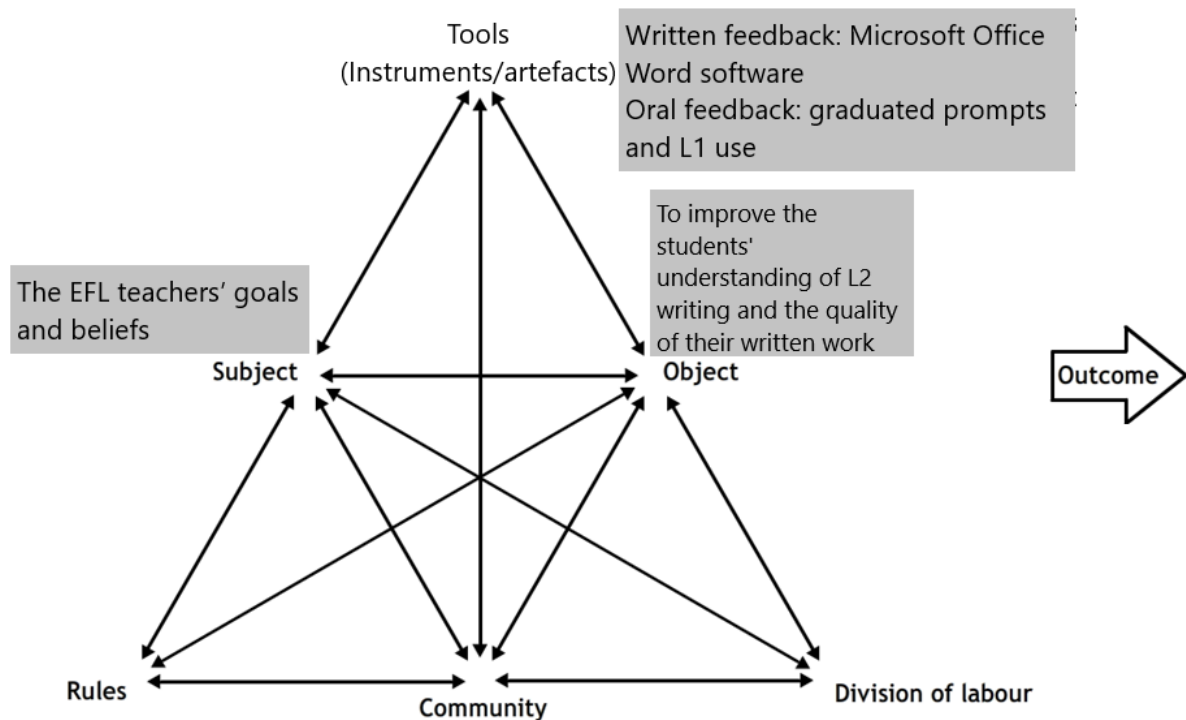
Although the teachers perceived the conferences as opportunities for students to clarify feedback and express concerns, this study found that the teachers tended to dominate the interaction and use increasingly more explicit prompts in the writing conferences. I initially expected that the teachers would gradually decrease their participation in the discussion as the writing conferences progressed and use more implicit prompts in the final writing conferences sessions to help the students achieve self-regulation (see Lantolf & Ahmed, 1989; Vygotsky, 1978), but the findings indicate the opposite results,

namely that the teachers tended to use more explicit prompts in the final writing conferences. The teachers' domination and use of increasingly more explicit oral prompts in the writing conferences are in line with findings reported by other studies (e.g., Cumming&So 1996; Jacob, 1982; Powers 1993; Thonus, 1999, 2001; Weigle&Nelson 2004; Wong, 1988). Weigle and Nelson (2004), in a small case study looking at the interaction between ESL student tutors (N=3) and tutees and its impacts on the tutoring success, have found that the student tutors tended to dominate the writing conferences. They attributed the teachers' dominance to a number of factors: the students' limited L2 proficiency, the teachers' English Additional Language (EAL) background and inadequate training, as well as the feedback setting. Some of these factors can also explain the teachers' action in this study. All teacher participants (N=9) were EAL speakers and most of them (n=7) did not receive training on feedback provision, so the resources available for them to draw on while scaffolding the students were limited, especially when the time was limited. Another possible cause of this action is the teachers' perceived identity as mentors who believed that they were responsible for providing feedback and had the authority to make decisions in feedback provision.

7.3.3 An Activity Theory perspective on the nature of the EFL teachers' feedback practices

The findings concerning the first question (the nature of the teachers' feedback practices) and the salient components in the feedback activity can be explained using Engeström's (1987, 2001) third generation of activity theory, as mapped in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7. 1: Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) map of the teachers' nature of feedback practices



From an Activity Theory perspective, the teachers' feedback provision can be viewed as an activity system, where the teachers (subjects) oriented to transforming their object/motive to achieve the outcomes through the mediation of culturally-historically developed tools/artifacts, by providing written feedback (i.e. using Microsoft Office Word software) and oral feedback (i.e. using graduated oral prompts and L1) (see e.g., Bitchener&Storch, 2016; Lee, 2014). The findings confirm the previous studies on teachers' feedback which reported that the teachers' feedback practices were influenced by several factors including the teachers' goals and beliefs (e.g., Haneda, 2000; Li, 2016; Ng, 2015), tools (e.g., Oskoz & Elola, 2016; Yu, 2013). In addition, as mapped in Figure 7.1, the teachers' shared main objects in providing feedback were to improve the students' L2 writing. They intended to transform these objects to achieve the outcomes: the students' improved L2

writing proficiency and written work. To attain these objects, the teachers provided written feedback on multiple drafts followed by one-on-one writing conference.

7.4 The teachers' decision-making processes while providing feedback on L2 writing

Before discussing the second research question, it should be noted that many studies on teachers' feedback have not treated the teachers' decision-making processes while providing feedback on L2 writing in much detail. In my understanding, there has been no studies using think-aloud protocols on decision-making when giving written feedback. However, the analysis of the second research question benefitted from studies conducted by Cumming (1990) and Cumming et al. (2001, 2002) on TOEFL raters' decision-making while evaluating TOEFL compositions and Bisailon (2007) on professional editors' composition editing.

The second research question was '*How do the EFL teachers make decisions while providing feedback on students' L2 writing?*' Below I discuss the teachers' decision-making processes while providing written feedback (i.e. teacher's written feedback) and oral feedback (i.e. teacher-student writing conferences).

7.4.1 Decision-making processes in the written feedback

The teachers' decision-making processes while giving written feedback on students' L2 writing seemed to be in an ordered but not necessarily linear pattern. The decision-making processes consisted of three main procedures: (a) task definition, (b) text reviewing, and (c) feedback decision. The teachers began the feedback provision task by considering the student's writing profiles, the feedback criteria, and the reviewed draft, as well as deciding the approach, priority, scope, and type of feedback to provide (task definition). Afterwards, they read the whole draft at least once to comprehend the text and identify the writing problems in the draft (text reviewing). Finally, they considered some feedback alternatives

and selected a feedback option to provide (feedback decision). The second and third steps often co-occurred.

These findings seem to be consistent with those observed in Cumming's (1990) and Cumming et al.'s (2001, 2002) studies which analysed ESL/EFL raters' decision-making behaviours while evaluating compositions. Cumming et al. (2001, 2002) requested seven ESL/EFL to perform think-aloud protocols while rating ESL students' (n=6) compositions. Cumming et al. discovered two stages of raters' decision-making while evaluating compositions: interpretation strategies and judgment strategies which correspond to the text reviewing and feedback decision procedures. Cumming et al. (2001) explained that the interpretation strategies involved reading strategies aimed at comprehending the text while judgment strategies included evaluation strategies aimed to formulate a score (p. 15). The difference between this study and Cumming et al. (2001, 2002) is that this study included task definition as one of the procedures of decision-making. In this study, the teachers considered the students' writing profiles or the feedback provision task while providing written feedback. On the other hand, in Cumming et al.'s (2001, 2002) studies, the EFL raters seemed not to recognise the composition writers personally, so they did not consider the writers' profiles while evaluating the writers' compositions.

Twenty-nine main decision-making actions were identified from the think-aloud protocol data. In the task definition procedure, all the teachers tended to make intuitive decisions and to display metacognitive actions which focused on self-monitoring, such as 'considering the macro- and micro-strategies of feedback provision'. Their decision-making actions mostly relate to their feelings and impressions of their students, as well as the goal of the feedback provision activity. Three decision-making actions were identified in the task definition step, as described in Section 5.3.1. Of these three actions, 'considering the student's L2 writing profiles' was the most frequent action (58.66%). These teachers mentioned that

they considered their students' L2 writing profiles when making decisions regarding approach, scope, priority, and type of feedback to provide. For example, four TAP participants stated that they provided more direct feedback to students whom they considered less proficient and provided more indirect feedback to those which they considered more proficient.

The teachers' decision-making in the text reviewing and feedback decision stages tended to be in order and immediate, and mostly focused on the cognitive aspects of writing (emphasising on language use, mechanics and referencing style, content, and organisation). The teachers began by detecting a writing problem, then identifying and weighing feedback alternatives, and finally determining and executing a feedback decision. In the feedback decision stage, the teachers decided whether to provide feedback, to postpone it, or to ignore the writing problem. The teachers mostly provided feedback immediately after they identified a problem, and only a few feedback decisions (0.03%) were postponed due to the teachers' plans to ask for clarification, to check other sources, or to deal with the problem in the oral feedback session. When making these feedback decisions, the teachers again considered each student's revisions and L2 writing profiles (writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation). Although the teachers' decisions were unilateral, they did take into consideration some students' requests regarding how to deliver the feedback. For example, Erna and Gie provided written feedback using paper and pen in the first feedback session due to their students' request (Erna – think-aloud protocol 1; Gie – think-aloud protocol 1).

7.4.2 Decision-making processes in the writing conferences

The teachers' decision-making appeared to be in an ordered but not necessarily linear pattern: The teachers made decisions through three main stages: (a) task definition, (b) text reviewing and problem identification, and (c) feedback provision and follow-up. The teachers began providing feedback by commenting or asking students questions related to their

writing(task definition).Afterwards, teachers and students read through the draft, identified and discussed most feedback points previously identified (text reviewing). Finally, the teachers guided the students in understanding the feedback points and revising the writing problems (scaffolding) using graduated oral prompts (feedback provision and follow-up). The graduated oral prompts appeared to be used in an ordered pattern: The teachers began with providing implicit oral prompt and followed by explicit prompts when needed. Implicit prompts were used to stimulate the students to self-revise their writing problems and explicit prompts to help if the students faced difficulties. The finding is consistent with Gurzynski-Weiss' (2016) study Spanish as a foreign language (SFL) instructors' (N=32) feedback decisions in response to learners' errors. Gurzynski-Weiss reported that the instructors' in-class corrective feedback decision appeared to be in an ordered but not necessarily linear process. The instructors took into account several factors; the instructors' individual factors filtered their attention to the contextual factors.

The EFL1 teachers' decision-making in the writing conferences sessions seemed to correspond to their decision-making in the written feedback sessions (captured using think-aloud protocols),as well as Cumming's (1990) and Cumming et al.'s (2001, 2002) studies on ESL/EFL raters' decision-making while evaluating compositions. However, the teachers' approach to decision-making and the actions which they displayed in both feedback sessions differed. Unlike the decision-making in the written feedback which involved interactions with the text, the teachers made decisions in the writing conferences by directly interacting with the students one-on-one and considering the students' responses to a teacher's graduated oral prompts.

The interactions in the writing conferences in this study were largely controlled and dominated by the teachers. This was apparent from the graduated oral prompts used in the

writing conferences which were guided by the teachers. This finding broadly supports the work of previous studies which have reported L1 teachers' (e.g., Artman, 2005; Demott, 2006) and L2 teachers' domination in the writing conferences (e.g., Cumming&So 1996; Haneda, 2004; Jacob, 1982; Powers 1993; Thonus, 1999, 2001; Weigle&Nelson 2004; Wong, 1988). For instance, Haneda (2004) reported that the Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) teacher (N=1) in her study initiated most of the exchanges in the writing conferences (72.5%) conducted with 11 students.

The teachers' choice of graduated oral prompts were partly influenced by the student's responses to the teacher's prompts and the teachers' goal, beliefs about each student's L2 writing profile (e.g., Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Tia, personal communication 1, 2016), social history (teachers' background, knowledge, and experiences), and other affective factors (see Bitchener&Storch, 2016). The teachers' social history influences the teachers' ability as active agents in setting individual goals and choosing different means to obtain these goals (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001; Lantolf& Poehner, 2008; Lantolf& Thorne, 2006; Lee, 2014; Van Lier, 2008). The teacher's goals guided their writing conferences. However, when providing written feedback, the teacher's perception of student's L2 writing profile was an important factor. It influenced the type and amount of the prompts, and the student's responses to the prompts affected the teacher's follow-up prompts. For example, Erna said she used more prompts to scaffold students who made many severe errors and used less prompts to scaffold students with good writing progress (Erna, personal communication 1, 2016).

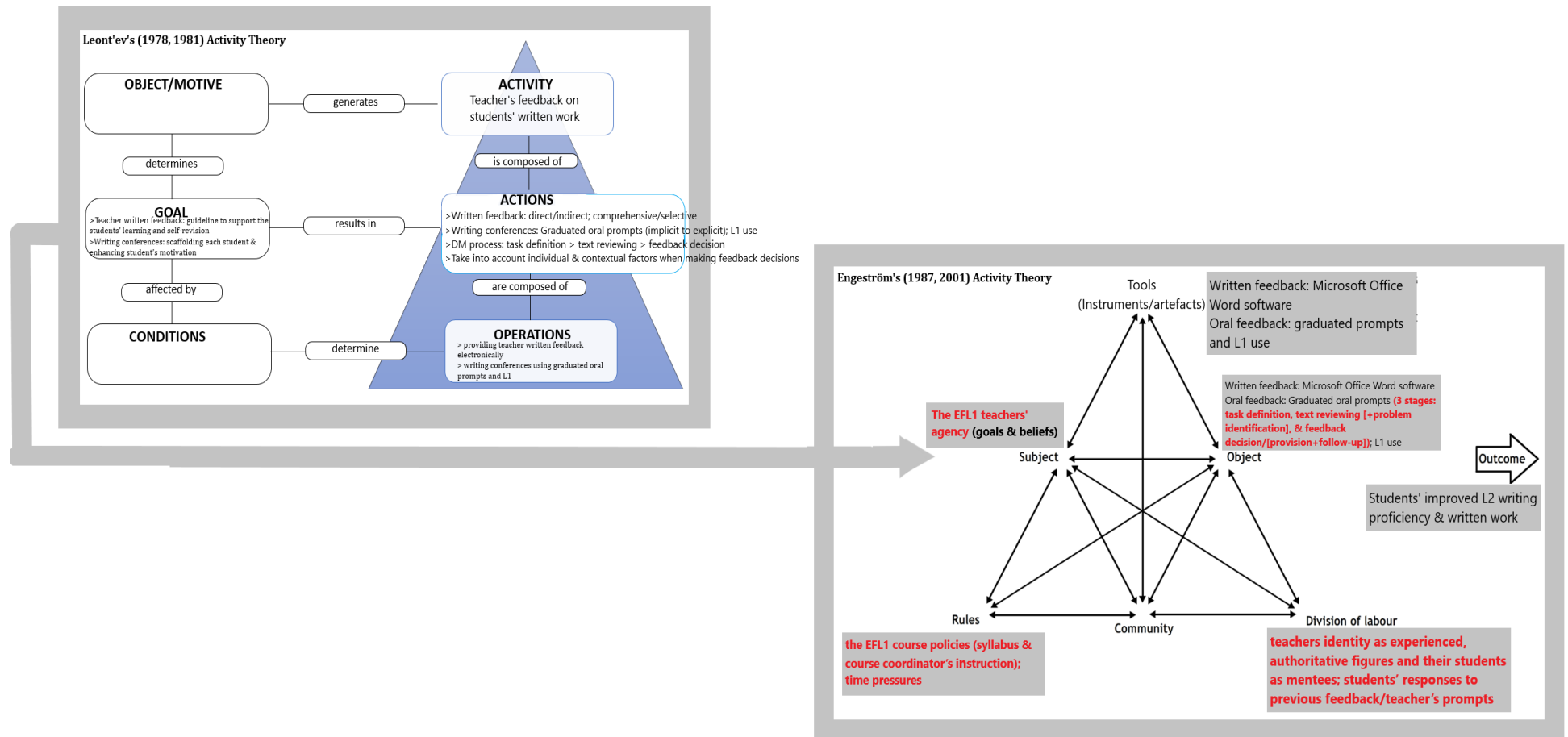
7.4.3 An Activity Theory perspective on the EFL teachers' decision-making processes while providing feedback on L2 writing

Following Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) Activity Theory point of view, the teachers' feedback provision activity reflects a mutual process of decision-making which occurs in a dynamic transactional interaction between expert (teacher) and novice (student) subjects, community, and objects (e.g., Hung, 1999; Hung & Wong, 2000), as can be seen from bi-directional arrows in Figure 7.2. The transactional process of decision-making is apparent especially in the individual writing conferences, where a teacher and a student negotiate meaning and the teacher provides scaffolding and guides the student in understanding written feedback.

Using Leont'ev's (1978, 1981) generation of Activity Theory, the teachers' decision-making processes can be perceived as a series of actions that were guided by their goals/motives. The interview data indicate that the teachers have different goals in conducting written feedback and writing conferences: their goals in providing written feedback are to provide a guideline to support the students' learning (by informing individual students' weakness and learning), so students can self-revise their writing problems. The teachers' goals in conducting writing conferences are (a) to scaffold each student in understanding the teacher's written feedback points and revising the writing problems and (b) to enhance the students' motivation to write and self-edit. These different goals result in different decision-making actions in the teachers' written and oral feedback sessions. In addition to these different goals, the data also seem to suggest that eradicating writing problems in students' writing, which is an outdated perspective of feedback provision, is another purpose of the writing process and the expert intervention (feedback provision) in this study, although no teachers reported this motive in the interviews. Using Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) model of the activity system, the teachers' goals and the resulted

decision-making actions are subsumed in the element of ‘subjects’ and their actions denoted by the arrow orient towards the object. Figure 7.2 attempts to map the relationship between the teachers’ goals and actions onto the activity system.

Figure 7. 2: Map of the teachers' decision-making processes in feedback provision based on Leont'ev's (1978, 1981) Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) models of activity theory



These goals result in the teachers' ordered decision-making actions while providing written feedback and oral feedback (writing conferences). The think-aloud protocol procedures which was employed to investigate the teachers' real-time decision-making actions while providing feedback show some chaotic and non-linear process of making decisions, but the trend seem to indicate a somewhat orderly but not necessarily linear pattern of decision-making while providing feedback, which consisted of task definition, text reviewing (and problem identification), and feedback decision/provision (and follow-up). The teachers also took into account various individual (e.g., teachers' beliefs about the best practice of providing feedback, goals in providing feedback) and contextual factors (e.g., students' writing profiles) while making feedback decisions. The teachers' decision-making processes seemed to be shaped by individual factors (see Ferris et al., 1997, 2011; Hyland & Hyland, 2006, 2019) and broader contextual factors (see Lee, 2008, 2009b), as will be discussed in the following section.

7.5 Factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices

The third research question is *what factors influence the EFL teachers' feedback practices?* In the following sections, I discuss factors which shaped and influenced the teachers' feedback practices and decision-making while providing feedback on L2 writing. I then discuss two most influential factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices in this study.

Utilising a combination of think-aloud protocols, writing conferences, and interviews, the data reveal that the teachers' feedback practices and decision-making while providing feedback seemed to be in an ordered but not necessarily linear pattern: the teachers' feedback practices were influenced by a combination of teachers' individual and contextual factors. Moreover, the teachers considered these factors when making feedback decisions. The individual factors which appeared to influence the teachers' feedback practices were the

teachers' beliefs, goals, and social history(background, education, and experience). For instance, the teachers provided comprehensive feedback due to their beliefs that this form of feedback was the most effective feedback type for their students. This require them also to have clear conceptualisations of the students' L2 writing profiles (ability, needs, progress, and motivation). This finding agrees with other studies in L2 writing which suggest that L2 teachers' feedback practices (feedback provided) are susceptible to the influence of the teachers' individual factors, including teachers' beliefs (see Lee, 2008a),goals, desires, and expectation (see e.g. Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Ferris, 2006; Hyland, 1998; Hyland&Hyland, 2006, 2019; Lee, 2004, 2008, 2011),education (see Lee, 2008a),as well as teaching and learning experiences (Evans, et al., 2010; Guénette et al., 2013).

In addition to these individual factors, the teachers' feedback practices were susceptible to the influence of contextual factors including student's L2 writing profiles (ability, needs, progress,&motivation),EFL1 course policies (e.g., syllabus, assessment criteria),the nature of the EFL1 course (e.g., the type of writing task),lack of teacher training, the students' writing problems, and time pressures (time allocation, deadline). The findings corroborate the results of a great deal of the previous studies which reported that L2 teachers' feedback practices were influenced by various contextual factors, including the institutional policy (see e.g., Alshahrani&Storch, 2014; Jodaie&Farrokhi, 2012; Lee, 2008a, 2009),educational culture (see Lee, 2008a, 2011),time constraints (Evans et al., 2010; Guénette&Lyster, 2013; Lee, 2003b).In this study, the teachers' beliefs and the students' writing profiles were found to be the two most important factors which influence the teachers' feedback practices, as discussed below.

7.5.1 The teachers' beliefs and goals

The teachers' beliefs about feedback and goals in providing feedback significantly influenced their feedback practices and decisions. Three main beliefs which influenced the

teachers' feedback were (a) beliefs about the role of feedback on L2 writing instruction, (b) beliefs about their responsibilities as teachers (moral responsibility), (c) and beliefs about ideal teacher feedback practices. However, the study also found that the teachers' stated beliefs sometimes contradicted their feedback practices and decisions.

Regarding the goals of feedback provision, all the teachers (N=9) stated in the interviews that they believed that feedback was important to support their students' learning. The teachers argued that in-class writing instruction was insufficient and that the students needed personal guidance in the form of teacher feedback. This finding generally supports the work of other studies in this area (Alshahrani, 2014; Hyland&Hyland, 2006, 2019; Lee, 2007; Mubarak, 2013) which reported that the L2 teachers considered feedback as beneficial for the students' learning. Moreover, the teachers also saw the provision of feedback as having additional pedagogic benefits. Most teachers (n=7) believed that providing feedback could increase their students' motivation and confidence in writing and self-revising (Mary, personal communication 1, 2016) and establish a closer relationship with their students (e.g., Gie, personal communication 2, 2016).

Another belief that guided the teachers' feedback was their belief about their roles as teachers. Five (out of nine) teachers said in the interviews that they felt morally responsible as teachers to provide feedback to facilitate the students' L2 learning (e.g., Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Fajar, personal communication 1, 2016; Gie, personal communication 1, 2016). They considered themselves as experienced, authoritative mentors who had more knowledge than their students and could provide accurate feedback (e.g., Sha, personal communication 1, 2016).

The teachers' conceptualisations of the students' L2 writing profiles (writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation) also influenced the kind of feedback they provided. The

teachers provided comprehensive feedback because they all believed their non-English Major students needed feedback on various aspects of writing. The teachers also stated they prioritised content over other aspects in the initial drafts because they believed that content was the most essential aspect of essay writing and many of their students had difficulties in developing their ideas in writing. In line with the findings of Guénette's (2007) small-scale study, most of the teachers in this study (n=8) provided indirect feedback on proficient students's writing and direct feedback on less proficient students' writing, as well as more corrective feedback for students who were perceived as highly motivated and more encouragement for those with low motivation.

All the teachers believed that the written feedback and the writing conferences complemented each other, so they approved of the structure of feedback provision set by the EFL1 course policy. A few (n=3) even considered the writing conferences as more important because the writing conferences provided an opportunity to scaffold each student's learning and better understand their students' writing ability, needs, and progress (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016). This view is in line with some L2 writing scholars (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005; Ferris, 2002) who suggest that teacher-student writing conferences can be more beneficial than written feedback because it provides an opportunity for clarification, negotiation, and instruction. Apart from this, the course policy (2016 EFL1 course syllabus) also includes face-to-face teacher-student consultation (writing conferences) as a criterion of assessment, so the teachers considered writing conferences as obligatory.

Although the study found that the teachers' feedback practices tended to be consistent with their beliefs about feedback provision, three inconsistencies (inner contradictions/tensions) were found between the teachers' beliefs about the scope, priority, and type of feedback and their feedback practices. First, all the teachers provided comprehensive feedback (as shown in the students' corrected essay and TAP data) even

though all of them considered selective feedback more beneficial than comprehensive feedback. Second, the teachers provided more feedback on language use issues even though they said they gave priority to content and organisation. Third, most teacher interviewees (n=8) reported that they provided indirect feedback on the students' drafts although six of them believed that direct feedback was more effective. The findings regarding the inconsistencies between the teachers' beliefs about feedback and their actual feedback practices are in accord with what has been reported by a growing number of L2 written feedback studies (e.g., Alshahrani, 2014; Evans et al., 2010; Ferris, 2014; Lee, 2009, 2013) and L2 oral feedback studies (e.g., Basturkmen et al., 2004; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2016; Roofhooft, 2014; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2016). Lee (2009) investigated Hong Kong EFL school teachers' written feedback and reported ten mismatches between the teachers' beliefs about feedback provision and their actual feedback practices which were caused by the tensions of the institutional context (e.g., the exam pressure), rules (e.g., the school policy on error correction), and values (i.e. the high regard for error correction). The contradictions between the individual and contextual factors were also evident in the current study.

In my analysis, these contradictions seem to be caused by the teachers' changing beliefs. For instance, all the teachers stated that selective feedback was more superior to the comprehensive feedback and that comprehensive feedback could be overwhelming and perplexing for their students. However, they provided comprehensive written feedback because they believed that their non-English major students' needs for comprehensive feedback. Three teachers preferred direct feedback, and three others preferred indirect feedback. However, most teachers (N=5) provided more indirect feedback due to some of their beliefs regarding the benefits of indirect feedback and the type and the severity of the writing problems. Thus, although some teachers still considered that selective and indirect feedback was more beneficial, over time they understood that comprehensive and indirect

feedback were more relevant and appropriate for their students and their context. This finding regarding teachers' changing beliefs is in accord with some studies which reported L2 teachers' changing beliefs over time (e.g., Cabaroglu&Roberts, 2000; Yuan&Lee, 2014). For instance, Yuan and Lee (2014) investigated Chinese EFL student teachers' (N=3) changing beliefs about EFL teaching using Cabaroglu and Roberts' (2000) framework of teachers' belief change and found that student teachers' beliefs might change during the period of teaching practicum due to some sociocultural factors including the learning context and the expert support. Calderhead (1996) noted that many teachers could hold quite conflicting beliefs that created problems in processing their respective practices.

7.5.2 The students' L2 writing profiles

The students' L2 writing profiles (writing ability, progress, and needs, and motivation in writing) influenced their decision-making actions and their beliefs and feedback practices. All teacher interviewees (N=9) stated that they considered their students' L2 writing profiles while providing written feedback (e.g. Ayu – think-aloud protocol 1, Raja; Ayu – think-aloud protocol 1, -3 Dana). The think-aloud protocol data also showed that the teachers personalised their written and oral feedback type according to each student's L2 writing profiles. Most teachers participating in think-aloud protocol procedures (n=5) appeared to frequently take into account the students' writing profiles when making feedback decisions in the written feedback and writing conferences sessions. During the task definition procedure, the teachers appeared to frequently evaluate students' writing ability, describe their writing progress or needs, and compare students to get a general picture of the students' writing profiles (e.g. Ayu – think-aloud protocol 1, -3 Dana). The teachers stated in the interview that they provided more indirect and selective feedback to the more proficient students and provided more direct and comprehensive feedback to the less proficient ones (e.g. Erna, personal communication 2, 2016; Nida - Interview 1; Sha - Interview 1). In the oral one-on-

one feedback conferences, they also considered the student's response when selecting the oral prompts (e.g. Erna, personal communication 1, 2016). Most teacher interviews (n=6) also stated that they determined the amount and type of written feedback to provide based on the amount and type of feedback based on each student's progress and they might change their feedback type depending on the student's revision quality (e.g. Ayu – think-aloud protocol 2, Raja; Erna, personal communication 1, 2016; Erna, personal communication 2, 2016). This study produces results which corroborate the findings of several previous works in teachers' written corrective feedback (e.g., Ferris et al., 1997; Hyland&Hyland, 2006). Ferris et al. (1997) reported that the students' proficiency development influenced the teacher's (N=1) feedback approach and Ferris et al. (2011) discovered that the students' needs shaped most teachers' feedback approach. Hyland and Hyland (2006) reported that the teachers considered the students' writing problems, writing needs and responses to the previous feedback. Several previous studies have reported that students' L2 writing profiles influenced the teachers' feedback provision (e.g., Ferris et al., 1997, 2011; Hyland&Hyland, 2006). Ferris et al. (2011) discovered that the students' needs shaped most teachers' feedback approach. They showed that some teachers were responsive to the L2 students' various individual needs. Several teachers tended to provide selective error correction in order not to overwhelm the students.

Motivation was another student-related attribute which influenced the teachers' feedback provision in the study. Previous studies highlighted the importance of student's variables, such as motivation (e.g. Guénette, 2007) and education level (e.g. Van Beuningen, 2010), to the effectiveness of corrective feedback. Any feedback type will fail if the students are not dedicated to advance their writing skills (Guénette, 2007). In this study, over half of the teachers interviewed (five out of nine) acknowledged that students' motivation influenced their feedback (e.g. Ayu - Interview 1; Erna, personal communication 2, 2016). The teachers

reported that they approached students with low and high motivation quite differently. They gave students with high motivation in writing more corrective feedback and students with low motivation more encouragement (e.g. Ayu, personal communication 1, 2016; Erna, personal communication 2, 2016). The finding is consistent with that of Guénette (2007) who suggested that the students' L2 writing ability and motivation significantly influenced the teachers' feedback provision.

7.5.3 An Activity Theory perspective on the factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices

The findings regarding the third research question can be mapped on Engeström's (1987, 2001) second generation of Activity Theory, with the teachers' feedback conceptualised as a collective, socially mediated activity (e.g., Swain et al., 2011; Yu&Lee, 2014). This mapping enables readers to understand the teachers' feedback activity as complex phenomena mediated and shaped by a myriad of individual and contextual factors, rather than just a phenomenon in teachers' mind.

As gradually mapped in the first and second research question, the teachers are the subjects of the activity who intend to transform the objects of the feedback activity into the outcomes by employing several tools (e.g., L1 use and graduated oral prompts). The teachers' feedback activity takes place in an educational institution community. The rules which govern the teachers' feedback practices and decision-making processes were set out in the 2016 EFL1 Course Syllabus, the assessment criteria of the essay writing assignment, the course coordinator's instruction, and the weekly teacher meetings. The rules of feedback provision in the EFL1 course syllabus and the course coordinator's instruction were not strict, but the teachers were expected to comply with the rules. The 2016 EFL1 Course Syllabus listed aspects of writing that the feedback should target but it did not specifically mention the approach, procedure, type, and frequency of feedback. The division of labour was shown in

the distribution of roles and responsibilities in an activity (e.g., Cross, 2010; Engeström, 1987), and in this context between the teachers, the students, and the course coordinator. The teachers' conceptualisation of their identity as experienced mentors influences how they interact with the students and provided feedback. For example, the teachers considered themselves as experienced, authoritative figures that were responsible and capable of providing accurate feedback and their students as novices. This belief, together with the time pressure, motivated the teachers to take a rigid stance by providing more direct feedback on errors in language use and increasingly using more explicit oral prompts in the third written feedback session. The teachers' feedback provision activity, as presented above, was mediated by at least three material and symbolic instruments (tools). The teachers used word processor software (material tool) to speed up giving or changing the written feedback. Also, they used two symbolic tools in the writing conference: graduated oral prompts and language (L2 and the shared L1). The graduated oral prompts were used to guide the students in self-revising their writing problems and L1 (Indonesian) was used to explain complex ideas and to negotiate meaning which otherwise were difficult to understand if using L2.

Figure 7.3 below shows the teachers' activity system according to Engeström's (1987, 2001) generation of Activity theory and highlighted the relationship between the teachers (subjects) and the context where the feedback activity takes place.

Figure 7. 3: The application of Engeström’s (1987, 2001) structure of teachers’ feedback activity in the current study

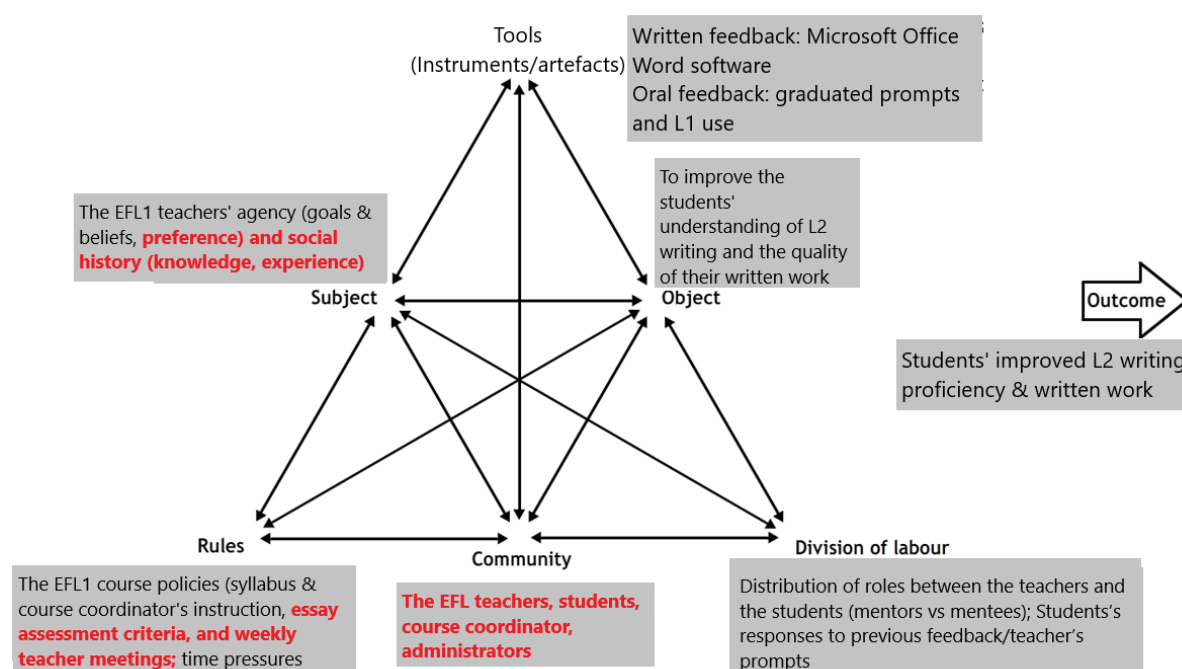


Figure 7.3 shows that the teachers' feedback provision activity in the current study was carried out within a social context of the EFL1 course community and shaped by the combination of constituents (the subjects, expectation and rules, community, distribution of labour, and instruments/mediating artifacts) as a whole. The teachers' feedback activity, as a unit of analysis, cannot be broken down into its elements (Cross, 2010; Roth, 2007) because all components are interrelated and inseparable (Hyland&Hyland, 2006). Given the similarity of the teachers' expressed goals, the teachers' feedback actions in the study are also generally similar (e.g., providing written and oral feedback, comprehensive feedback, more indirect feedback, and oral prompts/scaffolding).

The teachers' feedback activities were influenced by individual factors (goals, beliefs, and social history) but these individual factors need to be understood in this specific context. The course policy did not strictly control the teachers' feedback practices, and although the

course coordinator instructed the teachers to provide feedback and organised weekly meetings to evaluate the progress, the coordinator did not strictly control the teachers' feedback practices. Thus, the teachers could exercise their agency, relying on their beliefs (as discussed in Section 7.5.1), social history (background, experience, and history), and objects/goals in making decisions regarding the feedback (e.g., the approach, scope, priority, and type of feedback).

It is important to note that in Activity Theory, goals are dynamic (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). The teachers' goals in this study changed over time and influenced their feedback practices. One of the teachers' shared goals set at the beginning of the semester was to focus on content and organisation of writing in the initial drafts and then on language use in the final drafts (e.g., Erna, personal communication 1, 2016). In practice, most of the teachers focused on form and provided feedback on language use in all three written feedback sessions because their goals changed into helping their students produce grammatically correct writing as they began to provide feedback on their students' corrected drafts. The shift in teachers' goals might be influenced by the abovementioned factors. In addition, L2 writing curriculum and assessment plan in the context of the study were governed by a highly traditional theory of composition.

Activity theory viewed the contradictions between the components of the activity system as potential causes of tensions. In this activity, the inconsistencies were evident in the teacher participants' beliefs and their actual feedback practices, as described in section 7.4.2. The teachers believed that selective feedback was more beneficial, but they provided comprehensive feedback because of their conception of their non-English major students' needs and the EFL1 course policies which instructed the teachers to provide comprehensive feedback. Furthermore, although the EFL1 course policies (course syllabus and assessment criteria) required the teachers to provide comprehensive feedback on four aspects of

writing(see 2016 EFL1 course Syllabus),the time pressure in providing feedback in the semester seemed to encourage the teachers to focus more on local errors (language use, mechanics and referencing style) which were easier to identify than the global issues (content and organisation). Another source of tension was that the way the feedback actions were organised (i.e. written feedback followed by face-to-face teacher-student writing conference) which influenced the teachers to provide more indirect written feedback using colour/codes so that they could scaffold the student to self-revise the errors in the writing conferences session. However, over time, the teachers' conceptualisation of their identity as mentors and the time pressure seemed to push them to provide a higher amount direct feedback on errors in language use in the final written feedback session.

7.6 Implications of the study

Several theoretical and pedagogical implications emerged from the current study, as described in the following sections.

7.6.1 Theoretical implications of the study

The current study interpreted the teachers' feedback using activity theory perspectives, as opposed to drawing on SLA, cognitive, and socio-cognitive approaches because AT perspectives offers a systematic means to examine an activity which takes place in a sociocultural context without separating the subjects and their activities. The current study conceptualised teacher feedback on L2 writing as a socially mediated activity within a particular sociocultural context (e.g., Swain et al., 2011; Yu&Lee, 2016).Following Engeström's Activity Theory view, the teachers' feedback activity is constructed by some components of activity, including subject, object, rules, division of labour, and community, which he further termed as a system (Lektorsky, 2009). As a system, feedbackprovision activity " should be seen in relation to other activity systems and interpreted as multivoiced, including a community of multiple points of view, traditions, interests, and

interactions"(Lektorsky, 2009, p. 79). Future studies should consider adopting this model of activity which include overlapping triangles, with one triangle representing the students, the other the teachers. The components of Activity Theory (e.g., actions, goals, subject, objects, tools, and community) were employed in this study to show how AT can be applied in analysing teacher feedback in an L2 writing instructional context.

This study employed Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) generation of Activity Theory. Engeström's (1987, 2001, 2016) activity system focuses on the constituents of the teachers' feedback activity system and highlights the importance of the context in the feedback activity (McLaughlin&Talbert, 1993). Moreover, the framework adds knowledge about the relationship between the teachers' agency and their sociocultural context. In my use of Engeström's model, I incorporated elements of Leont'ev's (1978, 1981) generation of activity theory to focus on the teachers' agency, particularly their goals and beliefs, in the feedback activity, to explain the teachers' decision-making processes and actions.

In addition to illustrating the teachers' feedback, the current study used Activity Theory to illustrate the teachers' decision-making processes and actions in providing feedback on the students' L2 writing (see Chapter Five). This model drew upon and synthesised several decision-making theories from studies on L2 writing assessment (e.g., Cumming et al., 2002; Milanovic, Saville,&Shuhong, 1996; Sakyi, 2000) and professional editing (Bisaillon, 2007). The framework documents the complex decision-making actions which the EFL teachers in the study tended to exhibit and think about when they provide feedback on students' L2 writing.

7.6.2 Pedagogical implications of the study

Several pedagogical implications emerge from the current study, which may contribute to the improvement in teacher feedback on L2 writing practices. First, the current

study shows that the teachers have not received up-to-date education/training which prepared them to provide feedback, as shown, for example, in the reflections of Amy (Extract 6.13) and Nida (Extract 6.14) on their feedback practices. The teachers' feedback practices largely replicate a three-decades-long theory of process-oriented writing that has yet to undergo a needed paradigm shift. They are not well-informed about the best practice in providing and making decisions about feedback in both written feedback and writing conferences sessions. Also, the teachers rely more on their beliefs about feedback and students' L2 writing profiles, their teaching and learning experiences, and students' responses to their feedback. Few if any teachers underwent much up-to-date teacher preparation. Amy and Nida did what most teachers do in the absence of a systematic knowledge base: They replicated practices that they had observed as learners. An outdated curriculum and rigid institutional structure naturally encourage and perpetuate such ineffectual response practices, as does the pressure to reproduce the formulaic (and irrelevant) writing required in high-stakes assessments such as IELTS and TOEFL tests. Moreover, the finding of the teachers' high proportion of written and oral feedback on errors in language use, mechanics and referencing style reflects a very traditional (and likely unproductive) approach to writing instruction.

This finding, along with the teachers' insights and feedback practices, represent one of the most salient implications of this study: Teachers want and need guidance and training in effective, research-based expert response practices. The teacher participants' approaches to feedback in this study suggest that, whilst teachers clearly do the best they can, their strategies lack effectiveness, efficiency, and consistency. Writing teachers need a great deal more explicit knowledge, expert guidance, intervention, and monitored practice in feedback provision. Universities should provide future teachers with explicit instruction or training in writing pedagogy (i.e., courses that focus squarely on composition instruction in multilingual contexts) as well as sustained practice and intervention from experienced tutors and lecturers.

The training should also include metacognitive skills, such as evaluating students' L2 writing profiles (writing ability, needs, progress, and motivation) and providing effective, appropriate, and dynamic feedback for individual students. Writing centre pedagogy can likewise offer a great deal of help in training teachers in interacting with novice writers.

This study reveals contradictions between the teachers' beliefs about feedback provision and their actual feedback practices which the teachers do not seem to be fully aware of. Activity Theory-based studies suggest that contradictions in the activity system should be viewed as a source of development and transformation rather than an inconsistent pattern of activity (see e.g. Engeström, 1987, 2001, 2016). Feedback activity is continuously in the process of working through contradictions (Kuutti, 1996). Thus, teachers need to be aware of their feedback practices and factors which influence and shape their feedback to successfully transform their objects. The teachers' training on effective feedback provision should also encourage teachers to reflect on their feedback practices. Teaching situation may dynamically change over time within one course or semester and feedback provision is not a once-off/stable activity. Thus, teachers should anticipate and learn to cope with changes.

The current study and several previous studies (e.g., Lee, 2008, 2009b) have reported that teacher feedback provision is a complex phenomenon taking place in a complex system and is simultaneously shaped by individual and contextual factors. Some studies have reported that the stakeholders and teachers had high power distance; the stakeholders often made decisions without consulting the teachers (e.g., Cheng & Walker, 2008) and the teachers often felt powerless to stand against the institution's feedback policy because it might risk their job (Lee, 2008). The teachers in this study had quite a bit of autonomy, but broader autonomy in teaching should be given to the teachers to enable them to bring innovations in their feedback practices. What was perhaps missing in this context is more input from the students about the feedback that they would like to receive. As an inseparable actor in the

mutual, dynamic interaction of feedback provision, teachers should hear students' voices regarding feedback provision, as well as teaching and learning processes, to achieve the intended learning outcomes. Teacher feedback activity is an essential component of L2 writing instruction, so the teachers should prepare well, plan carefully, and implement their activity according to their plan consistently. Lastly, the longitudinal study design in this study is also another emerging methodological implication from this study. This design shows that the teachers' feedback practices change over time, unlike a once-off investigation which cannot reveal such findings. Thus, L2 practitioners should consider the dynamic of teaching-learning over time when preparing and conducting teaching.

7.7 Limitation of the study

Several shortcomings of the current study must be acknowledged. Four main methodological limitations of the study are the transferability (generalisability) of the findings, the issues related to think-aloud protocol procedures, the lack of data on the teachers' stated beliefs about their decision-making processes, and the accuracy of data.

The first obvious limitation of the study is the issue of transferability, the degree to which the results of this current study can be transferred to other contexts (McKay, 2006, p. 13). I adopted a case study approach to investigate how the EFL teachers in a specific context engaged in providing feedback on students' L2 writing. Thus, the results of this study may not be transferable to other L2 teaching contexts. However, I have provided detailed descriptions about the case/phenomenon in Chapter Three to increase the applicability of the study (Lincoln&Guba, 1985). The readers can consider if the results apply to other cases in similar contexts using these descriptions (transferability judgment).

The next limitation relates to the think-aloud protocol procedure which involves the participants verbalising what comes to their minds as they provide written feedback.

Although some previous studies have reported that concurrent think-aloud protocol techniques could provide richer data about the subjects' thinking processes than retrospective interview techniques (e.g., Latif, 2018), my review of this study indicates that the teachers' think-aloud alone may not accurately capture the teachers' cognitive processes because I found that the teachers could verbalise some written feedback points that they provide but failed to verbalise some others. As suggested by some scholars (e.g., Ericsson, 2006), I refrained from interrupting the task flow too frequently with questions to not interrupt the teachers' train of thoughts. However, this caused the teachers to fail to explain some underlying reasons for their actions in the think-aloud protocol sessions. Thus, future research can combine concurrent verbalisation (through the think-aloud protocol) with retrospective stimulated recall or interview methods. Some L2 scholars claimed that think-aloud protocols might have a reactivity effect because the act of thinking aloud can trigger changes in the teachers' cognitive processes while performing certain task (Lado, Bowden, Stafford, & Sanz, 2014; Rajoo, 2009; Sanz, et al., 2009). The retrospective stimulated recall methods require the participant to recall his/her thoughts right after an oral experimental task/interaction and explain what s/he was thinking during the original interaction (see Gass & Mackey, 2000). The use of retrospective stimulated recall procedures can help gather more detailed information about the teachers' certain cognitive processes as the teachers can explain what they were thinking at the time of the original experimental task/interaction.

The third shortcoming is linked to the coding scheme, which compromises the study's construct and criterion validity. For example, the main category of 'language use' is sufficiently broad to capture different language related errors, but readers may argue that the sub-categories of language use errors, including grammatical, lexical and stylistic, morphological, or syntactic errors are hard to be distinguished logically and consistently because grammar necessarily entail morphosyntax (syntax and morphology) (see e.g.,

Larsen-Freeman, Celce-Murcia, Frodesen, White,&Williams, 2016). Another example is that idiomatic word choice, lexical redundancy and variety, and syntactic structure underlie the communication of ideas and logical sequencing (rhetorical arrangement). One may find it hard to distinguish 'paragraph organisation' from 'logic' because both are interdependent. In this study, those categories were kept separated because I found that the teachers provided feedback on those specific categories with some frequency and classified those problems as distinct categories. In addition, I acknowledge that the findings may be skewed towards certain categories of language use due to the very long list of coding categories related to language use. To help readers better understand the distinctions of these categories, I have attempted to provide descriptions and examples to clarify the distinctions between these terms (see Appendix I), but future research may consider combining some sub-categories or forming new categories of coding, for example combining 'formal' characteristics and 'content' (meaning oriented) categories, which are interrelated.

The fourth weakness is the lack of data on the teachers' beliefs about their decision-making in the writing conferences. The analysis of the teachers' decision-making processes in the writing conferences in this study has relied on the observed writing conferences practice (i.e. the transcribed dialogues of teacher-student writing conferences and my observations). The observations and the concurrent method employed in the writing conferences may inform what actually happened in the writing conferences, but these methods may fail to uncover the teachers' thoughts and stated beliefs about what happened in the writing conferences, as well as the consistencies between the teachers' thoughts and the actual writing conferences. As a solution, a retrospective stimulated recall procedure can be employed to supplement the concurrent method to collect the data on the teachers' thoughts.

The last issue is the accuracy of the data. All collected data were assumed to reflect the teachers' feedback practices, beliefs, and goals. I relied on the teachers to provide valid

and accurate data. The teachers were not pressured to provide specific data. However, it is possible that the teachers provided some socially correct/acceptable answers in the interview sessions rather than their true attitudes or behaviours (Driessen&Jansen, 2013). Hence, the readers may need to consider this issue when considering the findings of the present study.

7.8 Suggestions for further research

The present study has attempted to address some gaps in the literature, as described in Chapter Two. Future research can build on the current study and delve deeper into some potentially influential factors/elements which shape the teachers' feedback provision activity and have not been discussed in detailed in this study. These issues include variations in the teachers' feedback actions, inconsistencies between the teachers' beliefs about and goals in feedback provision and their actual feedback practices (outcomes), contradictions between agents (subjects), contradictions between constituents of the activity system, contexts and institutions (community), social relations (division of labour), teachers' and institution's theory of L2 writing and literacy development (rules), and other factors influencing the teachers' feedback practices. There are also additional aspects which need further investigation based on the findings and limitations of this study.

First, as previously mentioned, future research should explore other EFL contexts and participant groups and involve more participants. It will be interesting to investigate teachers' feedback practices and the underlying reasons for these practices across different language learning contexts, such as EFL in secondary schools. The addition of more participants (agents) from the same L2 writing course or other courses may deepen our understanding of teachers' feedback activity. In addition, this study has not touched the students' voices and roles the dynamic interaction of feedback practices. The investigation of student's roles as another main actor in feedback provision should be highlighted in the future research.

Future research should also include data collected from other core participant groups in the context, such as the dean, heads of the departments, faculty administrators, and particularly the students. A fuller perspective on the overall activity system in operation could usefully include the perspectives of students (e.g., Antoniadou, 2011; Bitchener&Basturkmen, 2006; Park&De Costa, 2015), the educational institution and administration (e.g., Goldstein, 2006; Séror, 2009), and even the status and policies for English instruction in Indonesia (from theoretical perspectives such as Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Although the current study successfully captured the voices of one core participant group (i.e. the EFL teachers), the voices of other core participants would have enriched the study.

Additionally, future research should use a range of data collection instruments, including retrospective interviews with the teachers. The findings of such studies will increase our understanding of the teachers' decision-making processes and their feedback practices. Future research can also examine the potential impact of such feedback procedures on the students' L2 learning by examining the students' decision-making in revising the draft or writing a new composition.

This study was informed by Activity Theory which I suggest being used by future researchers as an alternative theoretical interpretive framework in investigating L2 teachers' feedback provision. Activity Theory is a systematic theory to investigate how subjects (teachers or students) act within a context, so it may significantly contribute to the understanding of whether teacher feedback may result in the students' L2 development or not and for what reasons. Moreover, the use of Activity Theory framework can be extended to other aspects of teaching and learning. One of the strengths of Activity Theory is its multi-dimensional nature which offers many possibilities for future research. For instance, researchers can investigate a phenomenon using a bottom-up method, starting by analysing

the individual component of the activity system, and then focus on the entire activity system, and conversely using a top-down method.

7.9 Final remarks

This study was motivated by the needs to gain a better understanding of the feedback practices in the context in which I work: An Indonesian EFL teacher teaching EFL university students at low to intermediate English proficiency. Thus, the primary purpose of the current study was to explore the nature of Indonesian EFL teachers' feedback practices, decision-making processes while providing feedback, and factors which influence their feedback practices. Relatively little attention has been paid to these areas in previously published research, particularly in L2 writing classes in Indonesia. An accumulated body of research relevant to the EFL teachers' feedback practices can contribute a blueprint for improving L2 writing teaching practices in Indonesia, and perhaps beyond.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Syllabus of EFL1 course 2016

ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE SECTION 1 (EFL1) COURSE SYLLABUS ACADEMIC YEAR 2016

Credit points (SKS): EFL1 course will be recorded on your academic transcript as follow:

- ✓ Accounting major (5 credits): Business Communication (3 credits) & English 1 (2 credits)
- ✓ Management major (6 credits): Business Communication (4 credits) & English 1 (2 credits)
- ✓ Economics major (4 credits): Scientific Writing & Presentation (2 credits) and English 1 (2 credits)
- ✓ Industrial Engineering major (3 credits): Academic writing (2 credit) and Professional Communication (2 credit)
- ✓ Law major: English 1 (4 credits): English for Academic Purposes (2 credit) and Legal Writing (2 credit)

Prerequisites: Nil

Consultation times: By appointment

EFL1 Course Overview

The International Program (IP) was established with the understanding that education is one of the major factors essential to build and sustain a nation. In the context of a rapidly changing and increasingly globalized world, the IP was established with the vision of creating programs that would equip you with the skills necessary to be able to succeed in the world of international competitions.

EFL1 course is one of the programs that is designed by the IP UII to prepare all its students to meet the international competition. This one-year program prepares them to be active in all classroom forums, to be capable critical thinkers, effective communicators and to be innovative leaders. Furthermore, this course will equip students' proficiency in English to complete successfully the academic requirements of the International Program.

EFL1 Course Objectives

The major objective of the EFL1 group is to equip you with study skills necessary to become an effective & efficient student. This program will facilitate and support you to develop your study and communication skills, as well as strategies to allow you to successfully both learn the coursework and complete the assessment tasks. In addition, the EFL1 course aims to develop your ability to read, write, and converse in academic level of English.

Section One of EFL1 course is divided into three parts, which aim to facilitate your development of the following knowledge, values, and skills:

The Structure of EFL1 Course

EFL1 course focuses on bridging the gap between high school learning to university learning, therefore, the materials designed to ease the transition and help you adapt with the new culture and challenges in the international program of UII. The following figure summarizes the structure of EFL1 course section one:

EFL1 Course Section One	
Part One: Making the transition from school to university	<u>Step one: Pleased to meet you</u>
	<u>Step two: Introduction to university life</u>
	<u>Step three: University survival skills</u>
Part Two: Learning in the university	<u>Introduction to Academic Reading & Writing</u>

EFL1 Part One: Making the transition from school learning to university learning

Objectives

At the end of this part, you should be able to:

Knowledge

- ✓ identify your learning methods both in high school and at university;
- ✓ explain your rights and responsibilities as a university student;
- ✓ describe your expectations as a university student;
- ✓ identify your learning strengths;
- ✓ identify conditions that optimize and inhibit your learning

- ✓ identify your role in upholding academic integrity;
- ✓ identify the role of effective communication for your learning; and
- ✓ identify academic rules implemented in IP so that you can make strategies to achieve the result you expected.

Values/Attitudes

- ✓ respect others' need for learning
- ✓ being confident
- ✓ being honest in your learning
- ✓ being motivated to keep learning and developing yourself
- ✓ have willingness to share knowledge, skills and experience with the other peer students
- ✓ being communicative in your learning
- ✓ being open minded,
- ✓ being a critical thinker and
- ✓ develop a desire to be an active learner, who upholds Islamic values (that is, one who reads, reflects, discusses, writes, makes linkages between knowledge, values and skills and in a variety of learning situations

Skills

- ✓ further develop the learning strengths you acquired at high school for your university studies;
- ✓ manage your time effectively in relation to what you want to achieve during your time as a university student;
- ✓ plan a systematic learning method for your university studies;
- ✓ integrate your personal goals with your academic interests
- ✓ contribute effectively to a team environment
- ✓ express your ideas in English oral and written; and
- ✓ apply academic skills in your study.

EFL1 Part Two: Introduction to academic skills

Knowledge

- ✓ identify reasons why students should read and write;

- ✓ understand how to assess their reading and writing proficiency and strategies to improve those skills;
- ✓ understand the difference between facts and opinions;
- ✓ identify the basic structure of an essay;
- ✓ understand how to develop 1000-word argumentative essay containing of topic sentence, supporting sentences and concluding sentence and understand the strategies to avoid plagiarism; and
- ✓ identify strategies to use APA reference correctly.

Values/Attitudes

- ✓ be open minded with different opinion;
- ✓ respect other people and their opinions;
- ✓ listen respectfully when other people are presenting or discussing their work;
- ✓ being an active and honest contributor to your learning, willing to avoid plagiarism;
- ✓ being confident in expressing ideas through speaking and writing
- ✓ being able to participate well in any discussion forums, and
- ✓ keep trying and not easily give up for a better result.

Speaking & Listening Skills

- ✓ develop critical and active listening skills;
- ✓ identify and evaluate information that is relevant for your study purposes both within and outside the classroom; and
- ✓ take notes effectively during oral presentations by identifying important information in the content.
- ✓ identify and ask important questions;
- ✓ make constructive contributions to the discussions that occur in the various learning forums;
- ✓ deliver ideas through a well-constructed writing;

Reading & Writing

- ✓ identify, assess and improve your critical thinking skills in reading and writing;
- ✓ explain the importance of reading in lifelong learning
- ✓ develop strategies to improve your reading skills.
- ✓ write effective topic sentence, supporting sentences and concluding sentence
- ✓ develop a 1000-word argumentative essay with a topic of your choice.

It is not the result that counts, but the process!

EFL1 course places an importance of the process of your learning, not the end result. This brings consequences that you should be serious in completing all the learning tasks and assessment we will give, because they will help you develop your skills in many ways.

D. Learning Tasks and Assessment Criteria

There is a variety of learning tasks provided for you throughout the EFL1 course. Your performance in this program will be evaluated using a range of assessment tools to allow you to identify what you want and need to learn, what you are good at, and where you are having difficulties. It lets you see what you are learning and helps you to document growth. Assessment also helps you, as an adult, understand your own capabilities as you engage in tasks and projects, read and write for enjoyment, and involve yourself in the challenges of daily life. Assessment can document the knowledge and strategies that you as a learner bring to a communicative task or a literacy event and provide evidence of the skills gained along the way. Besides providing a record of attainment and accomplishments, assessment helps you gain a better sense of which strategies work for you under what circumstances and why. Assessments can also provide important insights into the barriers that impede success to learning so that necessary support and assistance can be offered.

The assessment tasks and assessment criteria were shown in the following table.

Assessment	Percentage	Requirements	Significant date
Final Essay & consultation	30	Typed, A4 paper	At the end of EFL1 course
Class participation/ Discussion	25	Rubric	Every EFL1 Course meeting
Intellectual diary	20	Using Intellectual Diary book	Every chapter
Word bank	15	Legal lined paper, file holder hand written	In the middle and final of EFL1 course
Solo Presentation	10	Speaking, based on a reliable text about the topic you chose for essay	After reading materials

4.1 Assessment criteria:

a. Essay 30%

The focus of this assignment is how you can write in good English seen from the aspects of task achievement, grammatical range and accuracy, lexical resource, and coherence and cohesion. This task also requires you to use academic reference for your writing material. It is expected that you can meet the international standard of writing for international students all around the world. The process of consultation is more important than the merely the final result of the essay. Therefore, you should regularly consult your essay writing process from the pre-writing to the editing process to your EFL1 Course lecturer.

The objectives of this activity are to:

1. develop your academic writing skills;
2. expand your critical thinking skills;
3. develop your referencing skills, and
4. increase your awareness of implementing academic integrity into writing.

You will be assessed based on the content, structure, written expression and referencing (see attachment for further details). Your assignment should consist of:

- an assignment attachment sheet;
- your own written work, which addresses the task;
- a list of references in the APA style; and be:
 - printed on A4 paper, in 12-point Times New Roman font, with at least a 3 cm margin on the right-hand side, with a staple in the left-hand corner. No plastic sheets or binding should be used.

b. Intellectual diary: 30%

What is intellectual diary (ID)?

An intellectual diary is a place for you to express what you learn, what bothers your mind, and what you like from learning. In Bridging Program I, you are required to write an ID for each chapter. the lecturer will regularly check it since it is part of the assesement.

Objectives

Our objectives in using an intellectual diary as a method of assessment are to enable us (as instructors) and you (as students) to:

- examine your progress over time;
- provide you with opportunities to gather and interpret information, to ask questions, and to make connections;
- involve you in a process of self-evaluation, which should include time spent by you reflecting about your accomplishments;
- assist you and us to set goals; and evaluate the effectiveness of English as A Foreign Language section 1 (EFL1), in terms of its methods, materials, activities, and grading systems.

Preparing an intellectual diary, should also enable you to:

- develop appropriate learning skills, strategies, and habits;
- become a more independent learner;
- develop a commitment to accurate work;
- develop a commitment to personal achievement; and
- cultivate a sense of responsibility for one's own behaviour.

What should you include in an ID?

An intellectual diary contains your record of your thoughts, feelings and reflections. It employs 3-2-1 structure that covers:

- 3 things that you have learned from a chapter
- 2 questions that you still have, and
- 1 aspect from the chapter that you enjoy.

This structure can reflect to what extent your comprehension on the given materials in each chapter. Things you learn from each chapter could encompass comprehending reading materials, acquiring a new learning skill (communication, note taking, individual presentation, etc.), or understanding certain values in learning. In addition, through ID, you can ask about further information you need to know related to that chapter. Questioning is important, because it is the essence of learning. At last, you can express what particular aspects that you like in each chapter. You can value the content of materials, types of exercise conducted in the class, the way lecturer teach, the learning atmosphere in the class or even specific attitude of your friends towards you, e.g., appreciating your opinion or giving you a constructive feedback.

An ID is a personal document. Its content may be very loosely structured and only of relevance to you. Once you have commenced a learning log you will find it a valuable and useful ‘tool’ to help your learning, and to help you to think about and structure your own learning.

Try to write something down after every new learning experience, which includes:

- what you did;
- your thoughts;
- your feelings;
- how well (or badly) it went;
- what you learnt; and
- what you will do differently next time.

Be honest with yourself.

Ask yourself questions, such as:

- Have I achieved anything? If so, what?
- What progress have I made?
- Have I put any theory into practice?
- How does what I have been doing lead to me to become better at a skill?
- How can I use this to plan for the future?
- How can I use this to plan new learning?
- Experiences?

At first it may seem difficult to start to critically reflect upon your own learning; over time though you will find it becomes easier. The more often that you practice the skill of self-reflection, then the easier it will become.

You can use your ID to record courses you are studying, books you have read, discussions you have had, Internet sites you have looked at, television programs you have watched. At the end of the day, your ID should become something that is directly relevant to you and your learning.

You will be assessed on the extent to which you have:

- (1) reflected on, analysed, critical evaluated, and summarised information that you have collected on your own learning;
- (2) diagnosed your strengths and weaknesses as a learner, considered threats and opportunities, and generated possible remedies for problems;

- (3) posed questions; and
- (4) structured your writing in a way that is logical and flows easily.

Further details of the ID assessment criteria are set out in the Marking Guide (see below).

c. Word bank 15%

Word bank is a collection of new words you found in English as A Foreign Language section 1 (EFL1) module. This assessment will allow you to remember new words and will enhance your vocabulary skills. When you are assigned to complete a word bank, meaning that you have to make a list of all new words from the module and complete it with the following information:

1. the word
2. the meaning of the word
3. the part of speech
4. the way it is pronounced, and
5. an example using the word in a complete sentence.

The assignment of the word bank will be given twice: in the middle of the semester and at the end of the semester. Please hand write the list and submit it on the agreed upon date. Your word bank will be assessed based on:

1. the number of words you have collected
2. the complete information about the word (pronunciation, meaning, part of speech and the use of the word in a sentence) and
3. the punctuality of the submission
4. The originality of the sentence.

d. Solo presentation 10%

What is a solo presentation?

A solo presentation is an assessment that requires you to verbalize your knowledge or experience in a three-minute talk about a certain topic. You can choose one of the five topics that will be used throughout this semester for your presentation and essay writing as your presentation topic. The topics are as follows:

- Pluralism
- Multiculturalism
- Demographic Bonus

- Freedom of Expression
- Kindness

The source of your presentation can be taken from any sources you think is valuable to share, it can be from a textbook, or a light-reading magazine. The most important is, when you choose the topic you have to make sure that it will be useful for your classmates.

This solo presentation will be conducted every day after you have learned about effective communication. You will get mark from this activity, but the most important is that you learn how to share your ideas and express your opinion in front of many people confidently.

Objectives

Our objectives in using a solo presentation as one of the assessment tasks are to assess your ability to:

- apply principles of effective communication. (This will involve working in a team, public speaking, critical listening, questioning, and answering questions.);
- evaluate information that you receive;
- develop your ability to think logically, analytically and critically and to articulate your thoughts orally;
- develop your information literacy skills;
- read and summarize written material used to research your presentation;
- apply your information and communications technology skills; and
- think with an open-mind and to assess differing points of view; and
- develop a desire to be an active learner, i.e. one who reads, reflects, discusses, writes, and makes linkages.

Assessment Criteria

You will be assessed on the extent to which you have:

- (1) spoken clearly, intelligibly, concisely, and in a well-considered manner;
- (2) managed eye contact with the audience;
- (3) demonstrated skills with visual aids;
- (4) functioned effectively as a group; and
- (5) managed questions from the audience.

e. Class Participation 25%

Objectives

Why do we want you to participate in class discussions?

We want you to participate so they can learn from each other. We know that active involvement in learning increases what is remembered, how well it is assimilated, and how the learning is used in new situations. In making statements to your peers about your own thoughts on a class topic, you must articulate those thoughts and also submit them to (hopefully constructive) examination by others. In listening to your peers, you hear many different ways of interpreting and applying class material, and thus are able to integrate many examples of how to use the information.

Our objectives in assessing your participation in class are to enable us (as instructors) and you to:

- examine your progress in speaking, discussing and listening over time; and
- examine your capacity to respond to questions, study and complete assigned tasks.

Participating in class also should enable you to:

- develop appropriate learning skills, strategies, and habits;
- accept and make constructive criticism;
- develop skills for focusing on the task;
- develop social skills and skills for cooperating in teams; and
- cultivate a sense of responsibility for one's own behavior.

Class Participation Assessment Criteria

The participation is graded using the criteria below. The criteria focus on what you demonstrate, and do not presume to guess at what you know but do not demonstrate. This is because what you offer to the class is what you and others learn from.

Criteria	score
Outstanding Contributor: • Demonstrates excellent preparation: has analyzed the course work exceptionally well, relating it to readings and other material (e.g., readings, course material, discussions, experiences, etc.). • Offers analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of course work, e.g., puts together pieces of the discussion to develop new approaches that take the class further. • Contributes in a very significant way to ongoing discussion: keeps analysis focused, responds very thoughtfully to other students' comments, contributes to the cooperative argument building, suggests alternative ways of approaching material, and helps class analyze which approaches are appropriate, etc. • Demonstrates ongoing very active involvement.	20 -25
Good Contributor: • Demonstrates good preparation: knows course work or reading facts well, has thought through implications of them. • Offers interpretations and analysis of course work (more than just facts) to class. • Contributes well to discussion in an ongoing way: responds to other students' points, thinks through own points, questions others in a constructive way, offers and supports suggestions that may be counter to the majority opinion. • Demonstrates consistent ongoing involvement.	15 -20
Adequate Contributor: • Demonstrates adequate preparation: knows basic course work or reading facts but does not show evidence of trying to interpret or analyze them. • Offers straightforward information (e.g., straight from the course work or reading), without elaboration or very infrequently (perhaps once a class). • Does not offer to contribute to discussion but contributes to a moderate degree when called on. • Demonstrates sporadic involvement.	10 -15
Unsatisfactory Contributor: • Present, not disruptive. • Tries to respond when called on but does not offer much. • Demonstrates very infrequent involvement in discussion.	5-10
Non-Participant: • This person says little or nothing in class. Hence, there is not an adequate basis for evaluation. If this person were not a member of the class, the quality of discussion would not be changed. ▪ Absent.	0 -5

4.2 Policy on Assessment

Grading system of EFL1 course is based on the University policy, as follows.

<i>Total</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Grade</i>
86	A	61	C+
83	A-	56	C
80	A/B	53	C-
76	B+	49	C/D
71	B	45	D+
68	B-	35	D
64	B/C	0	E

In general, a pass grade will be awarded where you have demonstrated a satisfactory level of performance on the criteria for each piece of assessment, while a grade of ‘A’ will only be awarded to you if you have demonstrated consistently high levels of performance in all criteria on all pieces of assessment.

Late penalties

What happens if I cannot submit my assessment on time?

We may penalize late submissions of each component 1 mark for each day past the due date. However, we may grant an extension of time where a ‘serious’ circumstance prevents you submitting on time. We require requests for extensions to be made to the lecturer BEFORE the due date (unless there are extenuating circumstances). You will need a detailed medical certificate (i.e. one which states simply ‘illness’ is not sufficient; you will need to be suffering from more than a mere cold) when asking for an extension due to illness.

What can I do if I do not agree with the mark I receive?

If you do not agree with the result that you achieve for any piece of assessment for this subject, please contact the lecturer immediately. You have a right to know the reasons why your work has received a certain grade, and to request a re-assessment if you can supply logical reasons as to why you consider your work has been unfairly assessed. However, please note that a reassessment of your work can mean that your grade may go up or down or, of course, remain the same.

Plagiarism and Cheating

The International Program does not condone plagiarism; plagiarizing is a breach of student discipline and may incur a range of penalties.

When you prepare written work for submission, you must give credit to your sources and reference both direct quotes and paraphrasing (summarizing). More advice on this is given below. Failure to reference is plagiarism. One definition is: “Plagiarism is the unauthorized use or close imitation of the language and thoughts of another author and the representation of them as one’s own original work” (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plagiarism>). “Within academia, plagiarism by students, professors, or researchers is considered academic dishonesty or academic fraud and offenders are subject to academic censure... Some individuals caught plagiarizing in academic ... contexts claim that they plagiarized unintentionally, by failing to include quotations or give the appropriate citation” (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plagiarism>). You must reference your work carefully. If you do not reference, this is plagiarism. The consequences are that you may receive zero for the assignment or at the very least your work will not be marked until you have added references.

In this case, your assignment will be returned to you to reference and, on resubmission, the best possible grade you can obtain is a pass. You may discuss and explore the topic with others but the work submitted must be your own work.

It is not an excuse to say ‘I did not know I had to reference’ or ‘I did not understand how to reference’.

Referencing Style

The form of reference to be used in EFL1 course is the American Psychological Association (APA) referencing style. A referencing skills session will be conducted during Section 1. Following a style is not intellectually challenging, it just requires a bit of effort to follow the example (see the layout of the references listed below). Any information summarized from texts and other sources must have a reference.

Please note that electronic sources are not different to print resources – they still have to be referenced, following the same methodology with additional information required, i.e. the database or URL and date of retrieval. The URL is merely a place of publication. DO NOT just list web sites in your bibliography – only list particular articles or pieces of information found on them.

d. Assistance available

What if I have learning or personal problems?

If you who have life circumstances or personal limitations that may affect your course of study, then you should raise these as soon as possible with a staff member with whom you feel comfortable – e.g. your lecturers. Please don't delay. Students may encounter many different problems and the sooner you talk to someone, the better!

How do I learn the skills needed to undertake research?

It is essential that you become familiar with the library resources – both paper-based and online. We will help you with this by running a research skills session during Section 1.

Please note that once you have chosen and examined an assessment task's topic and selected key words, you should first read broadly in textbooks, plan your answer and then look for further resources using the University's databases and the Internet (usually as a last point of reference).

Respect

You must respect the learning and teaching needs of others in your class. In order to create an effective learning environment for every student in the classroom, it is a must that you obey the following rules in EFL1 COURSE class:

1. Attend the class on time. If you come later than 15 minutes, you will not be allowed to join the class;
2. Some meetings in academic English part will require you to bring laptop, however, if it is not instructed, do not use any gadget during the class. If you are caught using the gadget, your gadget will be confiscated until the class ends; and
3. Listen while others are speaking; do not interrupt or shout people down.

Main References used in Section One

Cottrell, S. (2008). *The study skills hand book* (3rded.). New York: Palgrave Macmillan Ltd.

Gamble, T.K. & Gamble, M. (2005) *Communication works*. New York: McGraw Hill

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- Marshall, L. (1997). *A learning companion: Your guide to practicing independent learning* (2nded.). Perth: Murdoch University.
- Mohan, T., McGregor, H., Saunders, S., & Archee, R. (2001). *Communicating! Theory and practice* (4thed.) Victoria: Nelson Thomson Learning.
- Mundsack, A., Deese, J., Deese, E.K. (2003). *How to study*. United States of America: McGraw-Hill
- Ryan, J. (2004). *Improve your study skills*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
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 INTERNATIONAL PROGRAM UNIVERSITAS ISLAM INDONESIA	Universitas Islam Indonesia INTERNATIONAL PROGRAM	Date received

ASSIGNMENT ATTACHMENT SHEET

This form must be completed, signed and attached to each assignment you submit within the International Program, Universitas Islam Indonesia.

Student name Please use block letters, and enter your name as it appears on your student card	Student ID

Subject name	Lecturer

Assignment number / title	Due date

Plagiarism and Collusion Declaration:

Plagiarism occurs when a student passes off as the student's own work, or copies without acknowledgement as to its authorship, the work of another person.

Collusion occurs when a student obtains the agreement of another person for a fraudulent purpose with the intent of obtaining an advantage in submitting an assignment or other work.

“I certify that the attached work is entirely my own (or, where submitted to meet the requirements of an approved group assignment, is the work of the group), except where material quoted or paraphrased is acknowledged in the text. I also declare that it has not been submitted for assessment in any other unit or course.”

Student's signature:		Date:	

Assignment will not be accepted for assessment if the declaration appearing above has not been signed by the author. If the assessment task involves group work, marks will be allocated only to students in the group who have completed and submitted a copy of this form. It is advised to retain a copy of your work until the original has been assessed and collected by you. This assignment has been assessed and moderated in accordance with University Policy.

Assessor's Name	Signature	Date

Assessment Breakdown

Original Thought 30%	Content 40%	Evidence/ Research 20%	Quality of Presentation 10%	Final Mark for this assignment

Comments:

Appendix B: Assessment Criteria And Rubric Of Essay Writing

Student Name: Marking Criteria <u>You have:</u>	Very poorly (0-19%)	Poorly (20-39%)	Satisfactorily (40-59%)	Well (60-79%)	Very well (80-100%)	MARK
CONTENT (5 marks) • interpreted the instructions appropriately • clearly addressed the topic (with appropriate elaboration of relevant sub-topics, appropriately weighted) and within the prescribed word count • demonstrated an appropriate depth of understanding of the necessary concepts • used sufficient and appropriate material from relevant and credible sources to effectively support the key points • followed any instructions on the number and type of references to be used • demonstrated the ability to critically reflect upon key ideas/issues/findings						
STRUCTURE/ORGANISATION (5 marks) • the introduction is appropriate to the type and format of response and clearly outlines the focus • the body of the response is well structured, with coherent and logical development of key ideas in appropriate paragraphs • each paragraph has a clear focus and line of thought • the conclusion is appropriate to the type and format of response, successfully summarising the key ideas/issues/findings						
WRITTEN EXPRESSION (5 marks) • the writing style is appropriate to the task • the writing is fluent, exhibiting grammatically correct sentences that are appropriately punctuated • there are no spelling or typing errors and due regard is given to rules of capitalisation and abbreviation, etc • key ideas from the literature are effectively paraphrased and cited, and direct quotes are appropriately incorporated • the response conforms to the appropriate style guide advice and the requirements of the specified format (font, margins etc)						
CONSULTATION (5 marks)						

• Students consult his/her paragraph regularly • Students made improvement during the consultation						
REFERENCING (5 marks) • in-text citations and direct quotes follow referencing guide rules • reference list appropriately compiled						
Total available marks – 25						Total mark obtained

Appendix C: Guideline of Think-Aloud Protocol (TAP)

The following think-aloud protocols training guide is adopted from Douglas (2007), Ericsson and Simon (1993) and Hyland (1998).

Dear Bridging Program teachers,

We are conducting a study of EFL teachers' feedback practices. We would like to know what you are thinking and doing as you provide feedback to your learners. To do so, we are going to ask you to think out loud and describe everything that you are thinking about and doing as when you correct your learners' scripts. We want to know your reasoning for providing feedback on certain aspects of writing, and for not providing feedback on other aspects of writing. This may be difficult at first, but with little practice, you will become more comfortable talking out loud about what you are thinking.

It is extremely important that you talk as much as possible. Try to say everything as you are thinking while providing feedback. This includes everything you are thinking which relate or does not relate to the task; irrelevant comments are fine. Of course it's impossible to say everything you are thinking, but just try to say as much as you can. We are doing this study to better understand what you are thinking about and doing as you provide feedback and we can only know what you are thinking about and doing when providing feedback if you talk out loud as you think and do it. If you are silent for more than a few seconds, we will say, "Keep talking" in order to remind you to talk. Of course, your thoughts are going to be in both Indonesian and English. Please think out loud in any language you are thinking. If you are thinking in Indonesian, then you should speak in Indonesian. If you are thinking in English, then you should speak in English. As you think out loud, we may ask you to explain what you are thinking further if it is not clear, or why you are doing what you are doing. For example, as you are looking at an aspect of writing you say out loud, "They sees each other is incorrect," we will ask you, "Which part is incorrect? Why did you decide that it is incorrect?" After a little practice, you should understand what it is we are asking you to do. We will model for you an example of think-aloud protocol as an EFL teacher provides feedback on one of his learner's paragraph.

[Example of feedback provision]

Naturalization Soccer Players in Indonesia

Indonesia is a big country in South East Asia, but we are in "posisi terbawah" if you compare with other country in South East Asia. Naturalization is a program to help Indonesia soccer team to increase achievements and get a lot of trophy, but with a lot of player become naturalization we have some problem, one of the problem is, the relationship between local and naturalized players, local player think that naturalized player have a lot of privilege, although there are a few problem in this program, actually this program has a lot of beneficial for us.

[example of concurrent report]

He wrote a paragraph about the naturalization soccer players in Indonesia.

"Naturalization Soccer Players in Indonesia." The title is okay but it needs a preposition between naturalization and soccer because both are nouns, a noun phrase, and naturalization is modified by soccer players.

"Indonesia is a big country in South East Asia." Okay, correct.

"But we" I do not know who is we. "posisi terbawah" it needs to translated into English.

"if you compare with other country" should be in plural because it uses other.

"in South East Asia." Okay.

"Naturalization is a program and... it is too long, too many ideas in one sentence. Need to be revised, difficult to understand. He needs to separate into some sentences.

"a lot of trophy" hm, should be trophies because a lot of.

"Become naturalization," I do not understand what it means.

"Problem" should be plural, since it has "some"

"between local and naturalized players, local player think that naturalized player have" local player and naturalized player should use plural

“priviledge” wrong spelling, d should be deleted.

“Few problem” is plural.

“program,actually” it needs a space between program and actually.

Note: Phrases or clauses in quotes are taken from the text.

After conducting think-aloud protocol, we would like you to tell us what you can remember about what you were thinking while providing feedback. Please do not look at your feedback correction. We are interested in what you can actually remember, not what you think you may or should have thought. If possible, tell us your feedback provision process from the beginning to the end in sequence. If you are not sure about the order or your feedback, please say so. We do not want you to try to provide feedback on the script again, we just want you to tell us what you can remember thinking.

Just now I corrected a student’s assignment. First, I corrected his writing from the beginning. Among problems that I found are the title which is lack of pronunciation *of*. Then, there are other errors such as lack of s, plural use. Some sentences are too long and there are some less acceptable sentences, I mean they are not commonly used in... I mean not acceptable, not acceptable.

In conducting think-aloud protocol, please remember:

- Say out loud everything that you are thinking about as you provide feedback on your learners’ scripts.
- Think and speak using the same language. if you are thinking in English, then speak in English. If you are thinking in Indonesian, then speak in Indonesian.
- If you are quiet for more than a few seconds, I will ask you, "What are you thinking?"
- We would ask you to describe your thoughts more if I want to get more information on what you are thinking.
- We would not be able to help you at all with the feedback.
- We would be testing the recording equipment while you practice so that you can get used to that, too.

Think-aloud protocols exercises

Exercise 1: Body paragraph

Try the following two paragraph exercises. Think-aloud as you provide feedback on this paragraph. Say everything aloud from the time you see the paragraph until you finish providing feedback. Just keep talking!

A lot of player from other country now can be naturalized, How to naturalized that player become Indonesian? What about the relationship naturalization in FIFA? Sometime we do not know about the regulation to naturalized player. Naturalized player have some regulation:

1. The player must be born in the country that will be defended
2. Have a biological father or mother was born in that country that will be defended
3. Have a biological grandfather or mother was born in that country that will be defended
4. Live in a country that will be defended at minimal at least 2 years
5. Player never defended other country

(Start thinking-aloud now)

After conducting think-aloud protocol, we would like you to tell us what you can remember about what you were thinking while providing feedback. Please do not look at your feedback correction. We are interested in what you can actually remember, not what you think you may or should have thought. If possible, tell us your feedback provision process from the beginning to the end in sequence. If you are not sure about the order or your feedback, please say so. We do not want you to try to provide feedback on the script again, we just want you to tell us what you can remember thinking.

Exercise 2: Concluding paragraph

Now try responding and providing feedback on a concluding paragraph below.

Therefore we can conclude that naturalized players maybe do not have a big feel about Indonesian, but they always struggle in game eventough our team going to lost, compare with Indonesian they have a big nationalism but their professionalism is a fucking bad. Maybe naturalized players have a same skills, so naturalized players can tutor our homegrown with a Europe style, and our homegrown can teach about nationalism in Indonesia. This program is good, because players can share each other about skills and professionalism so this program must be continue, eventough we have some problem, like squad harmony in national team, the selection of naturalize player, and nationalism, this program is a good program because has a lot of benefits for us .

(start thinking-aloud now)

After conducting think-aloud protocol, we would like you to tell us what you can remember about what you were thinking while providing feedback. Please do not look at your feedback correction. We are interested in what you can actually remember, not what you think you may or should have thought. If possible, tell us your feedback provision process from the beginning to the end in sequence. If you are not sure about the order or your feedback, please say so. We do not want you to try to provide feedback on the script again, we just want you to tell us what you can remember thinking.

Do you have any questions about what we want you to do?

List of Probing Questions for Think-Aloud Protocols

Below are examples of probing questions to stimulate the EFL teachers to provide relevant information in think-aloud protocol or to talk more while they are doing the protocols (adapted from Willis, 1999).

Comprehension/ Interpretation probe	• What does the term X mean to you? • What do you mean by fragments?
Paraphrasing	• Can you repeat the feedback you provided on X? • Can you repeat the feedback you provided on the definite article "the" use?
Recall probe	• Do you remember what feedback do you provide in the introductory paragraph?
Specific probe	• Why is it ungrammatical?
General probes	• Was the use of past tense in that sentence less acceptable? • Tell us what you were thinking about X? • What? • Why?

Instructions for carrying out protocols

Please follow the same procedure for each of the four case study subjects' drafts.

Before you begin to look at the essay for the first time, we will switch on the audio-recorder and keep it running until you finish providing feedback.

Try to say aloud everything you are thinking as you read and respond to the essay. Of course you can't say absolutely everything you are thinking, just try to say as much as you can. Don't try to plan what to say, or explain it to me, just keep talking. Irrelevant comments are fine.

As soon as you finish this task, please spend a few minutes recounting what you remember doing as you responded to the essay. Keep the tape running and tell us about your memories in the sequence in which they occur. We don't want you to respond to the essay again, just report all you can remember thinking about when reading and responding to the essay. Please do this without reading the written text of the essay, or your written comments on it.

Thank you for your help. We really appreciate it.

Appendix D: Interview Guide

First Interview Guide

Dear EFL teachers,

We would like to ask you some questions related to your 1) learning and teaching experience and knowledge, and 2) your behaviors, opinions, and attitudes to teacher's feedback. Please stop us and ask if you do not understand. Please feel free to expand on any point, or to make any extra observations you feel are important.

Learning experience

1. How were you thought to write in English?
 - a. Did you receive teacher's feedback when you were student?
 - b. Have you ever learned L2 essay writing before?
 - c. Have you ever learned L2 essay writing through multiple drafts before?
 - d. Did you receive L2 teacher's feedback on your drafts?
 - e. If yes, do you think the teacher's feedback you received is useful for you? Why?

Teaching experience

2. What teaching approach do you usually use when teaching EFL writing? Why?
3. What is the highest degree that you completed?
4. Are you currently enrolled in a study program?
5. Including this year, how many years of English teaching experience do you have?
6. What English subjects that you have taught before?
7. Including this year, how long have you been teaching EFL writing?
8. In which Bridging Program class are you currently teaching?
9. Could you estimate the number of hours you spend on the following responsibilities in Bridging Program class in a week.
 - a. ____ hours of teaching EFL students in the university (including in class, group, or individual teaching)
 - b. ____ hours of planning or preparing lessons inside or outside the university.
 - c. ____ hours of administrative duties inside or outside the university.
 - d. ____ hours of marking learners' writing
 - e. ____ hours of professional development (training, workshop, seminar, etc.)
 - f. ____ hours of other tasks (please specify what tasks)

Experience in providing feedback

10. When you taught EFL writing before, did you provide feedback on your learners' writing?

- a. Probing questions: If yes,
 - i. Do you think providing feedback on learners' writing is a good idea? Why?
 - ii. What are your goals/motivations in providing feedback to your students? Why?
 - iii. What aspects of writing do you comment on? Why? (specify: Content? Grammar? Mechanics? Etc.)
 - iv. How do you provide feedback on these aspects of writing?
- b. Have you received any training or education on how to provide feedback to learners?
 - i. If yes, could you describe what the training or education is about?

Beliefs, attitude, and opinions on feedback

11. Do you think providing feedback on learners' writing is beneficial? Why?

- a. If yes:
 - i. What feedback strategy you think are useful for your learners? (explain: comprehensive –selective, direct-indirect feedback)
 1. In what aspects of writing do you think feedback is necessary? Why?
 2. When should feedback be provided? Why?
 - ii. What kind of feedback do you think your BP learners may need? Why?
 - iii. What kind of feedback do you think your BP learners may prefer? Why?
 - iv. Do you ask your learners about their preferred feedback? Why?
 - v. What do you expect your students to do with the feedback you give on their writing? Why?
 - vi. What do you expect your students to do if they could not understand your feedback? Why?
 - vii. Based on your experience, what do your learners usually do with the feedback you provide?
 - viii. What do you think are the reasons for doing that?
- b. What do you think teachers should do to improve learners' L2 writing skill? Why?

Second Interview Guide

Dear EFL teachers,

I would like to ask you some questions related to your: 1) actual feedback practices on BP learners' writing, 2) decision-making process, 3) beliefs and opinions on teachers' feedback, and 4) factors which influence your feedback practices. Please stop us and ask if you do not understand. Please feel free to expand on any point, or to make any extra observations you feel are important.

L2 teachers' actual feedback practices and decision-making process:

1. Could you please describe the essay writing activity in your class?

Probing questions:

- a. Could you describe your learners' writing ability?
- b. What aspects of L2 writing do you think your learners struggle with?
- c. Could you please rank these aspects according to how much learners struggle with? Why?

2. How do you provide feedback on your BP learners' writing?

- a. What strategy do you use in providing feedback to your BP learners? Why?
- b. Do you provide feedback on all errors or selected errors? Why?
- c. Which aspects of writing do you focus more in providing feedback to your BP learners? Why?
- d. How long did you spend to correct each BP learner's writing?
- e. What the syllabus recommends you to do in providing feedback?
- f. Do you think your BP learners have similar or different needs? Why?
- g. Do you provide the same amount feedback to all BP learners? Why?
- h. Do you provide the same type of feedback to all BP learners? Why?
- i. Do you look at learners' rough and final drafts in the same way or not? Why?
- j. What is your focus in correcting draft 1? Draft 2? Draft 3? Why?
- k. Do you provide feedback on the learners' final work? Why?
- l. What do you ask the learners to do after you provide feedback on their writing? Why?
- m. Do you give the learners' draft a score? Why?
 - i. If yes, what criteria do you use in grading learners' drafts?
- n. Do your learners ask you to grade their writing?

- o. Do you experience any constraint in providing feedback?

Questions on decision-making process

3. Could you describe the process you typically follow to make a decision about which aspects of writing should be corrected while you provide feedback? (*alternatively: how do you make a decision about which aspects of writing you provide feedback?*)
4. Could you describe the process you typically follow to make a decision about what feedback strategy should be used while you provide feedback? (*alternatively: how do you make a decision about what feedback strategy do you use?*)
5. Based on your feedback on your BP learners' writing, what factors do you think influence your decision-making process while providing feedback? Why?

Factors influencing overall teachers' feedback practices

6. Based on your experience in providing feedback, what factors do you think influence your overall feedback provision? Why?
 - a. Could you give examples of the effects of these factors on your feedback provision?
 - b. Could you please rank these factors based on their significance on your feedback provision? What is the rationale behind your ranking?
 - c. Which factors do you think are influential? Why?
 - d. Which factors do you think are less influential? Why?

Questions on teachers' opinions, values, attitudes, and reasons for providing feedback

7. How do you assess the effectiveness of your feedback practice?
8. Who do you think should be responsible for providing feedback on learners' writing? Why?
9. Who do you think should be responsible for correcting learners' errors? Why?
10. When do you think feedback should be provided on learners' writing?
11. What do you think are the effects of your feedback practices on yourself?
12. What do you think are the effects of your feedback practices on learners?
13. Do you plan to change your feedback practice in the future? Why?
14. What are some ways to improve the effectiveness of teachers' feedback practice?

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Project: “An Investigation into The Nature of EFL Teachers' Written Corrective Feedback”

Introduction

We are inviting all Bridging Program 2 teachers to participate in the present study about EFL teachers' written corrective feedback practices. This participation is for research purposes only. The aim of the study is to investigate the nature of EFL teachers' written corrective feedback practices, their decision-making process, and factors which influence their feedback practices. The project has received clearance by the HREC, the University of Melbourne.

What will I be asked to do?

Should you agree to participate, you would be asked to contribute in five ways:

First, we would ask you to conduct think-aloud protocols, that is speaking aloud as you provide feedback on each of three rough drafts of an essay written by four selected EFL learners. Please select four of your EFL learners which you think are sufficiently different to give us a sense of the nature of your feedback. A guideline of think-aloud protocols is attached. This procedure will be video-recorded and may take around six to nine hours of your time in total (4 learners x 3 drafts x @30-45 minutes).

Second, we would audio-record your essay consultation session, that is individual consultation that you conduct with your students to discuss their writing and your feedback on their essay drafts. We will audio-record your consultation sessions with four learners you select on each of their three drafts. This procedure may take around three to six hours of your time in total (3 sessions x 4 students x 15-30 minutes each).

Third, we would ask you to participate in two interviews at the beginning and at the end of semester to collect information about your feedback practices, beliefs about feedback, decision-making processes, and factors which influence your feedback practices. This procedure will be audio-recorded and may take around two hours of your time (2 interviews x @1 hour).

Fourth, we would like to observe your teaching (classroom observation). Each class will be observed twice during the semester.

Fifth, we would ask you to help collecting teaching documents (including syllabus, teaching material, feedback policy, and lesson plans) and learning documents (EFL learners' essay drafts). We would copy these documents.

How will my confidentiality be protected?

The small sample size may have implications for protecting the identity of the participants. We intend to protect your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest possible extent, within the limits of the law. The confidentiality of information provided is subject to legal limitations. Your name and contact details will be kept in a separate, password-protected computer file from any data that you supply. This will only be able to be linked to your responses by the student researcher. The data will be kept securely in the School of Languages and Linguistics, the University of Melbourne, for five years from the date of publication, before being destroyed.

Will participation prejudice me in any way?

Please be advised that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to withdraw at any stage, or to withdraw any unprocessed data you have supplied, you are free to do so without prejudice.

Where can I get further information?

Should you require any further information, or have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher on the e-mail address given above. Should you have any concerns about the conduct of the project, you are welcome to contact the Executive Officer, Human Research Ethics, The University of Melbourne, on ph: 8344 2073, or fax: 9347 6739.

How do I agree to participate?

If you would like to participate, please indicate that you have read and understood this information by signing the accompanying consent form and returning it to the researcher.

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What will I be asked to do?

Should you agree to participate, you would be asked to contribute in three ways:

First, we would ask you to participate in two interviews at the beginning and at the end of semester to collect information about your feedback practices, beliefs about feedback, decision-making process, and factors which influence your feedback practices. This procedure will be audio-recorded and may take around two hours of your time (2 interviews x @1 hour).

Second, we would like to observe your teaching (classroom observation). Each class will be observed twice during the semester.

Third, we would ask you to help collecting teaching documents (including syllabus, teaching material, feedback policy, and lesson plans) and learning documents (EFL learners' essay drafts). We would copy these documents.

How will my confidentiality be protected?

The small sample size may have implications for protecting the identity of the participants. We intend to protect your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest possible extent, within the limits of the law. The confidentiality of information provided is subject to legal limitations. Your name and contact details will be kept in a separate, password-protected computer file from any data that you supply. This will only be able to be linked to your responses by the student researcher. The data will be kept securely in the School of Languages and Linguistics, the University of Melbourne, for five years from the date of publication, before being destroyed.

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Project: “An Investigation into The Nature of EFL Teachers' Written Corrective Feedback”

Introduction

Your name has been selected from all learners studying Bridging Program 2 course in the even semester, 2016. We are inviting all Bridging Program 2 learners to participate in the present study about EFL teachers' written corrective feedback practices. This participation is for research purposes only. The aim of the study is to investigate the nature of EFL teachers' written corrective feedback practices, their decision-making process, and factors which influence their feedback practices. The project has received clearance by the HREC, the University of Melbourne.

What will I be asked to do?

Should you agree to participate, you would be asked to contribute in three ways:

First, we would audio-record your essay consultation session, that is your individual consultation with your Bridging Program 2 teacher to discuss your writing and his /her feedback on your essay drafts.

Second, we would like to observe your Bridging Program 2 teacher's teaching (classroom observation). Your class will be observed twice during the semester.

Third, we would collect and copy your essay drafts (rough drafts and final work).

How will my confidentiality be protected?

The small sample size may have implications for protecting the identity of the participants. We intend to protect your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest possible extent, within the limits of the law. The confidentiality of information provided is subject to legal limitations. Your name and contact details will be kept in a separate, password-protected computer file from any data that you supply. This will only be able to be linked to your responses by the student researcher. The data will be kept securely in the School of Languages and Linguistics, the University of Melbourne, for five years from the date of publication, before being destroyed.

Will participation prejudice me in any way?

Please be advised that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to withdraw at any stage, or to withdraw any unprocessed data you have supplied, you are free to do so without prejudice.

Where can I get further information?

Should you require any further information, or have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher on the e-mail address given above. Should you have any concerns about the conduct of the project, you are welcome to contact the Executive Officer, Human Research Ethics, The University of Melbourne, on ph: 8344 2073, or fax: 9347 6739.

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What will I be asked to do?

Should you agree to participate, you would be asked to contribute in classroom observation. We would like to observe your Bridging Program 2 teacher's teaching (classroom observation). Your class will be observed twice during the semester.

How will my confidentiality be protected?

The small sample size may have implications for protecting the identity of the participants. We intend to protect your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest possible extent, within the limits of the law. The confidentiality of information provided is subject to legal limitations. Your name and contact details will be kept in a separate, password-protected computer file from any data that you supply. This will only be able to be linked to your responses by the student researcher. The data will be kept securely in the School of Languages and Linguistics, the University of Melbourne, for five years from the date of publication, before being destroyed.

Will participation prejudice me in any way?

Please be advised that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to withdraw at any stage, or to withdraw any unprocessed data you have supplied, you are free to do so without prejudice.

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How do I agree to participate?

If you would like to participate, please indicate that you have read and understood this information by signing the accompanying consent form and returning it to the researcher.



SCHOOL OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

Consent form for persons participating in a research project

PROJECT TITLE:

An Investigation into The Nature of EFL Teachers' Written Corrective Feedback

Name of participant:

Name of investigator(s): Dr. Ute Knoch, Dr. Neomy Storch, and Nanang Zubaidi

1. I consent to participate in this project, the details of which have been explained to me, and I have been provided with a written plain language statement to keep.
2. I understand that after I sign and return this consent form it will be retained by the researcher.
3. I understand that my participation will involve ***conductingthinking-aloud protocols, audio-recording of individual essay consultation sessions, interviews, classroom observation, and collecting teaching and learning documents*** and I agree that the researcher may use the results as described in the plain language statement.
4. I acknowledge that:
 - (a) the possible effects of participating in ***conductingthinking-aloud protocols, audio-recording of individual essay consultation sessions, interviews, classroom observation, and collecting teaching and learning documents*** have been explained to my satisfaction;
 - (b) I have been informed that the participation is voluntary. I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without explanation or prejudice and to withdraw any unprocessed data I have provided;

- (c) the project is for the purpose of research;
- (d) I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded subject to any legal requirements, that there are legal limitations to data confidentiality, and that the small sample size may have implications for protecting my identity;
- (e) I have been informed that ***my audio-recordings of think-aloud protocols, individual essay consultation sessions, and teacher interviews, classroom observation notes, and teaching and learning document data*** will be stored at University of Melbourne and will be destroyed after five years;
- (f) my name will be referred to by a pseudonym in any publications arising from the research.

Participant signature:

Date:



SCHOOL OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

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4. I acknowledge that:
 - (a) the possible effects of participating in ***interviews, classroom observation, and collecting teaching and learning documents*** have been explained to my satisfaction;
 - (b) I have been informed that the participation is voluntary. I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without explanation or prejudice and to withdraw any unprocessed data I have provided;

- (c) the project is for the purpose of research;
- (d) I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded subject to any legal requirements, that there are legal limitations to data confidentiality, and that the small sample size may have implications for protecting my identity;
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2. I understand that after I sign and return this consent form it will be retained by the researcher.
3. I understand that my participation will involve **audio-recording of individual essay consultation sessions, classroom observation, and collecting essay drafts** and I agree that the researcher may use the results as described in the plain language statement.
4. I acknowledge that:
 - a) the possible effects of participating in **audio-recording of individual essay consultation sessions, classroom observation, and collecting essay drafts** have been explained to my satisfaction;
 - b) I have been informed that the participation is voluntary. I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without explanation or prejudice and to withdraw

any unprocessed data I have provided;

- c) the project is for the purpose of research;
- d) I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded subject to any legal requirements, that there are legal limitations to data confidentiality, and that the small sample size may have implications for protecting my identity;
- e) I have been informed that my **audio-recordings of individual essay consultation sessions, classroom observation, and essay draft data** will be stored at University of Melbourne and will be destroyed after five years;
- f) my name will be referred to by a pseudonym in any publications arising from the research;

Participant signature: _____

Date: _____



THE UNIVERSITY OF
MELBOURNE

SCHOOL OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

Consent form for persons participating in a research project

PROJECT TITLE:

An Investigation into The Nature of EFL Teachers' Written Corrective Feedback

Name of participant:

Name of investigator(s): Dr. Ute Knoch, Dr. Neomy Storch, and Nanang Zubaidi

5. I consent to participate in this project, the details of which have been explained to me, and I have been provided with a written plain language statement to keep.
6. I understand that after I sign and return this consent form it will be retained by the researcher.
7. I understand that my participation will involve **classroom observation** and I agree that the researcher may use the results as described in the plain language statement.
8. I acknowledge that:
 - g) the possible effects of participating in **classroom observation** have been explained to my satisfaction;
 - h) I have been informed that the participation is voluntary. I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without explanation or prejudice and to withdraw any unprocessed data I have provided;
 - i) the project is for the purpose of research;
 - j) I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded subject to any legal requirements, that there are legal limitations to data confidentiality, and that the small sample size may have implications for protecting my identity;
 - k) I have been informed that my **classroom observation data** will be stored at University of Melbourne and will be destroyed after five years;
 - l) my name will be referred to by a pseudonym in any publications arising from the research;

Participant signature:

Date:

Appendix G: Cumming et al.'s (1990, 2001, 2002) Framework of Raters' Decision-Making While Evaluating Compositions

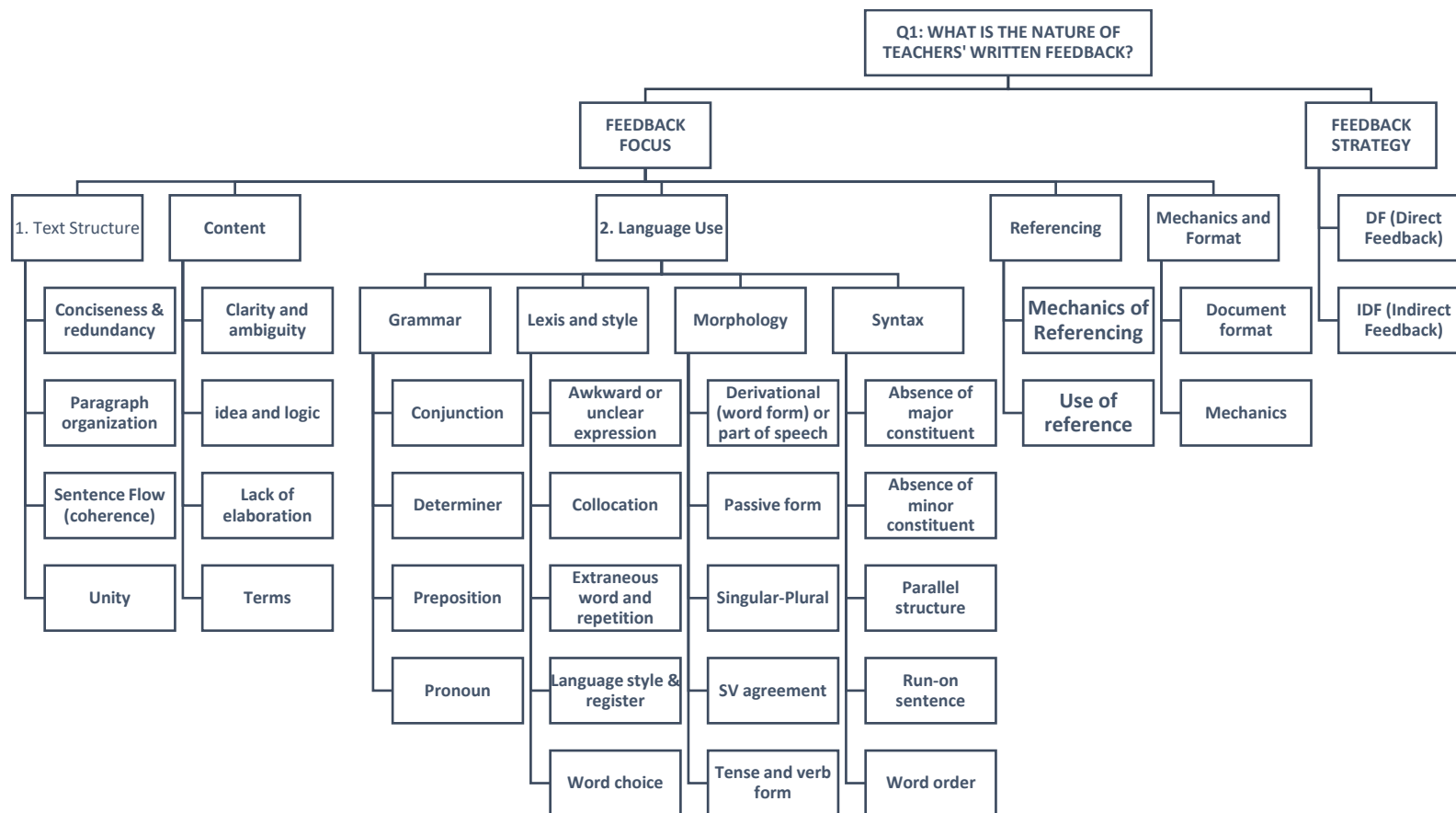
Descriptive Framework of Decision-Making Behaviors while Rating TOEFL Essays (Version Used for Coding Data in Studies 2 and 3)

Self-Monitoring Focus	Rhetorical and Ideational Focus	Language Focus
<i>Interpretation Strategies</i>		
Read or interpret essay prompt	Interpret ambiguous or unclear phrases	Observe layout
Read or reread composition	Discern rhetorical structure	Classify errors into types
Envision personal situation of the writer	Summarize ideas or propositions	Edit phrases for interpretation
Scan whole composition		
<i>Judgment Strategies</i>		
Decide on macrostrategy for reading and rating	Assess reasoning, logic, or topic development	Assess quantity of total written production
Consider own personal response or biases	Assess task completion	Assess comprehensibility
Define or revise own criteria	Assess relevance	Consider gravity of errors
Compare with other compositions or "anchors"	Assess coherence	Consider error frequency
Summarize, distinguish, or tally judgments collectively	Assess interest, originality, or creativity	Assess fluency
Articulate general impression	Identify redundancies	Consider lexis
Articulate or revise scoring decision	Assess text organization	Consider syntax or morphology
	Assess style, register, or genre	Consider spelling or punctuation
	Rate ideas or rhetoric	Rate language overall

The Professional Editor's Revision Process: A Linear Model

Process	Strategies	Results
1. Reading a paragraph for comprehension a sentence for evaluation purposes		
2. Detection of problems	a) Anticipation of a potential problem→ b) Comparison between an item in the text and knowledge stored in memory - certain knowledge→ - uncertain knowledge→ - lack of knowledge→	Potential problem Genuine problem Potential problem Potential problem
3. Problem solving	a) No strategy b) Immediate strategy 1. Rereading operation 2. Reflection operation 3. Immediate search operation c) Postponed strategy→	 Immediate solution 1. No modification 2. Revision 3. Rewriting Postponed solution 1. No solution 2. Suggestion to author 3. Tentative solution
4. Rereading a paragraph to make checks the entire text to make checks		

Appendix I: Coding framework of the Nature of the EFL Teachers' (n=6) Written Feedback



3.8.1.1 Coding categories of the teacher's feedback focus in the written feedback

The categories used in this study to code teacher feedback were partially informed by those developed by other researchers, such as Ferris (2006). Ferris (2006) used three separate taxonomies to classify feedback given by teachers, error types, and revision outcomes. These taxonomies only partially met the needs of this study because they included feedback on different types of grammatical and lexical problems but lacked categories for feedback on other types of writing problems such as organisation and content. For this reason, a new taxonomy was created for this study that was driven by the data, to categorise the writing problems identified by the feedback points and resulting revisions. The classifications of revisions were taken from Conrad and Goldstein (1999), while the classifications of the types of writing problems and written feedback points were specifically created for trialling the research instruments.

Content

The teachers' feedback pointed to various content issues in writing including (1) lack of clarity and ambiguity (2) ideas and logic, (3) lack of elaboration, (4) need for supporting details, and (5) terms. Table 4.1 indicates the raw frequency of teachers' feedback provision on these content related problems, with Fajar providing the most feedback (n=74). Five other teachers gave less written feedback. Mary provided 39, Ayu 33, Tia 27, Sha 20, and Gie 19 feedback points.

1. Clarity and ambiguity

The teachers identified sentences which were lacking clarity and preciseness due to an ambiguous word or phrase (e.g. *personal capabilities to hold on the efforts*) in the students' drafts.

- (3.1) religion especially Islam usually happens in Western country. Islam is widely spread in Western with immigration and birth. It leads to an increasing population of Muslim in Western. The big number of Muslim population is more confident of their Islamic identity like wearing headscarf or hijab for Muslim women and also more of claiming their human rights. Hijab is the religious symbol of Islam

 **Author**
What do you mean? Can you make this sentence clearer?

 Reply  Resolve

(A - Dana-1)

- (3.2) effect of demographic bonus by improving their education by reading and their personal capabilities to hold on the efforts.

Last, young generations have to own their work experience. Work experience is any

 **Author**
What do you mean?

 Reply  Resolve

(M– Nadhira-3)

2. Idea and logic

The teachers marked some problems related to the quality of idea (M-Nadhira-1). Another problem marked related to the complexity of the idea (see A-Dana-3).

- (3.3) tight. There are many considerations to get into the job's field. There is no doubt that the requirements built by the company must be in a very high qualifications. Unfortunately, the

 **Marin**
Is it possible to little bit explain the "considerations"?

(M-Nadhira-1)

- (3.4) the right for education and work. So, French Government should not implement the law that ban anyone to wearing hijab because those are kind of discrimination and also contradictory with International Human Rights.

lenovo

you have mention an argument about Human Rights at the end of your first body. Finding another reason will be better and will enrich your argumentative writing

(A-Dana-3)

3. Lack of elaboration

The EFL teachers marked the students' lack of elaboration problems. Both examples were lacking supporting detail. The idea stated was not supported by sufficient/relevant supporting details.

(3.5
)

Since internet connection growth so many advantage we get. For example is social media that enables people to communicate and share resources and information. Some examples of Social Media ~~include are~~ blogs, discussion forums, wikipedia, YouTube channels, LinkedIn, Facebook, and Twitter. Social media can be accessed by computer,notebook, smart phone, text messaging, and messaging service (what's the difference). This paragraph needs elaboration.

(S-Jeff-3)

(3.6
)

which people are angry and likely to fight or protest. We can conclude that ~~economic rest~~ economic unrest is a condition that people are angry and likely to fight or protest due to economic condition. Demographic bonus can trigger economic unrest through over population in city because of migration from sub urban area. When demographic bonus happen, big migration to the city happened. Government cannot stop the flows of people so many slum areas formed all around the

tiara

You have not been able to explain to me why then demographic bonus happen people will move to the big city

 [Reply](#)

 [Resolve](#)

(T-Ardi-2)

The National Commission on Writing in America's School and Colleges (2003) reported that lack of elaboration was one of the students' common problems in essay writing.

4. Term

Some problems on the use of term were also identified. The students used a word or phrase which is unfamiliar to the readers; thus the students should supply a definition or explanation.

(3.7)

Here is another interesting fact of social media. There was a phenomenon caused by social media called "Word of Mouth". It happened to a young man in Indonesia named Reza Nurhilman. He

Citizen

Explain WORD OF Mouth!

(G-Puput-3)

- (3.8) technique, and costumes with the *bedhaya*, although it is performed by only four female dancers. It has been used in the Central Javanese *kratons* for the training of the princesses. Its four dancers are seen as representing the four universal elements of earth, water, fire, and air, as well as the four cardinal points of the universe. The composition depicts a battle

LENOVO

Terms should be followed by brief explanation

 Reply

 Resolve

(S-Fira-2)

Language use

The teachers paid attention to various *language use* problems. The researcher distinguished the problems into four categories: (i) grammar (ii) style and lexis, (iii) morphology, and (iv) syntax problems.

Grammar

The EFL teachers provided written feedback on various grammar problems including use of (i) conjunction, (ii) determiner, (iii) preposition, and (iv) pronoun.

5. Conjunction

The teachers provided some feedback on incorrect conjunction which linked words, phrases, or clauses. In the examples below, the teachers provide feedback on subordinating conjunctions.

- (3.9) their rights. Why would Anti-Muslim be racist to Muslim people? We know choosing religion is our individual right and it is not okay to discriminate people by being racist to them *becauseand* every people deserve a peace *too*. "Islamophobia could be defined simply as the irrational fear

(M-Austine-2)

- (3.10) US President promised in his campaign that if he is selected as the President in the next period, Moslem (immigrants and tourists) should be banned to enter US. It is a new psychological pressure for Moslem. **So** for the world peace, Islamophobia in the US should not be the reason to forbid Moslem because it will make the gaps among Moslem and US, also it collided with the freedom of human right.

LENOVO

So cannot be in the beginning of sentence. Instead, use Thus or Therefore|

 Reply  Resc

(S-Tata-3)

The teachers also provided feedback on two other types of conjunctions: coordinating (e.g., and, but, or) and correlative (e.g., not only... but also...) conjunctions.

6. Determiner

A determiner is a noun phrase head which functions to limit the meaning of the noun phrase (Aarts et al., 2014). It comprises definite and indefinite articles (the, a, and an), demonstratives (e.g., this and that), possessive determiners (e.g., my and their), quantifiers (e.g., many, few and several), numerals, distributive determiners (e.g., each and any), and interrogative determiners (e.g., which). The teachers provided feedback on the missing, redundant, or incorrect determiners.

- (3.11) **Preparing ~~the~~ Leadership Skills of the Young Generation for Demographic Bonus**

In the demographic bonus, ~~skills~~ is very useful for every young generation. One of the

(G-Mira-3)

- (3.12) development for social scientists (Lipsitz, 1997). The emergence of new interest in early adolescence was sparked in part by findings suggesting that self-esteem declines at the time of the transition to junior high school [\(source\)](#). Early cross sectional students has found a decline in self-esteem at the time (Piers & Harris, 1964).

LENOVO
The or that?

(S-Fahri-3)

7. Preposition

In the examples below, the teachers provided feedback on the missing and incorrect use of simple prepositions. In Example 3.13, the error highlighted an error in the use of the preposition of in the phrase ‘because of’ (which in fact was not an error) and underlined In Example 3.14.... an error in the use of ‘on’ with a date was indicated but the error in the preposition beginning this sentence (In the economic aspect) was overlooked. ~~words functioning as the head of a prepositional phrase.~~

- (3.13) **create new cultures. Those new cultures happen because of several factors, such as attitudes of mutual respect and appreciation on the cultures that carried by foreigners. Then, one of the**

(T-Dian-2-4)

- (3.14) **In the economic aspect, United State import so many oil from the foreign countries. Based on the research **on the** 2014, **T**op five countries that import so many oil for consuments**

(S-Tata-2)

8. Pronoun

The teachers gave feedback on the improper use of pronoun I and it. The teacher considered pronoun I improper to be used to substitute a noun in academic writing.

(3.15) men only or female only'. Do you know what is the feminism? I think we already heard that word. Feminism is the believe that men and women should have equal right and

user
Don't use personal pronoun!!!

(A-Fio-1)

(3.16) Recently, Indonesia's income per capita is increasing rapidly. It means that this demographic bonus situation it is not always a 'disaster' for Indonesia.

(M-Sasa-2)

Lexis and Style

Feedback on problems in lexis and style were categorised into problems related to (i) awkward or unclear expression, (ii) collocation, (iii) extraneous word and repetition, (iv) inappropriate style and register, and (v) word choice.

9. Awkward or unclear expression

Feedback on the awkward or unclear expression was found in the students' essays.

(3.17) Actually the cigarette company has do the CSR in right way but the purpose of doing this is not the same with the real purpose from CSR. They just do this to get a huge

(A-Raja-1)

(3.18) One aspect that needs to be fully concerned is engineering field. Engineering offers a great opportunity in order to get benefits from demographic bonus. In demographic bonus condition, there are many, building and creating products or a structure.

Citizen In the time of demographic bonus

(G-Rafif- 3)

10. Collocation

The teachers gave feedback on collocations, words or phrases that consistently occur together (Aarts, 2014). In the example below, the teacher provided direct feedback on the same phrasal verb (specify) on two occasions. At first, the teacher added the preposition 'on,' but in the third think-aloud protocol, the teacher decided to delete the proposition.

(3.19) The national exam score does not simply reflects **on** the student's performance. In this three days test there could be some factors that may affect the students

(S-Fahri-1)

- (3.20) on getting good grades. The national exam score does not simply reflect ~~on~~ the student's performance. In this three days test, there could be some factors that may affect the student's condition during the exam.

(S-Fahri-3)

11. Extraneous word and repetition

The teachers gave feedback on word repetition (see A-Fio-3) and extraneous words (too many unnecessary words or phrases in a sentence) in (T-Faisal-3) and (S-Tata-3).

- (3.21) As we know, women usually get discrimination in Indonesia. According to Alison Scott (cited in Satari, 2014, p.3) a specialist of sociology from England, there are four types of discrimination of women, they are, the process of exclusion where the women shunned from mercenary work or specific work; the process of women mutation to suburb of labour like such as having a job that does not optimize women potential; the process of feminism or segregation which is separation that is solely done by men only or women only;

Author Just one

(A-Fio-3)

- (3.22) ~~and still~~ a lot of unemployment. All of that factors make ~~l~~indonesia in slowed growth of economy but the writer will discuss about education and ~~providing~~ job availability in this essay.

(T-Faisal-3)

- (3.23) During the years after the attacks, it continued to the involvement ~~by United State~~ in another war(Iraq) (Pressler, 2011). It is only the example of physical attack from the United State.

(S-Tata-3)

12. Language style and register

The teachers provided some feedback on the students' language style and register.

- (3.24) cigarette. Based on (World Health Organization, 2002) **In** Indonesia the first percentage of what thing make most of people died is caused by cigarette, second thing is accident and third is because cancer. **As stated by (wilardjo, 2008)** for the company people were a suffering is an opportunity to
- Author**
This sentence sound like bahasa Indonesia.

(A-Raja-3)

- (3.25) program has a larger effect than the intervention ~~(Kyllonen, 2013, 20)~~. **So, in order to** be a professional and qualified person, Indonesian young generation should improve their soft skill by practicing or following a training.

MarindaGhaisani
Please do not "so"

(M-Nadhira-3)

13. Word Choice

The teachers provided feedback on the students' choice of right words.

- (3.26) Belge (2012) the LGBT people could change and become straight with therapy. **But** there is **another aspects**, for example; a few LGBT people will struggle that being LGBT is a choice, particularly those who were once married or failed in **housekeeping** in their life.

(A-Intan-3)

- (3.27) What Swift did by using her social media to made a huge change in **musicians' field** is very inspiring and telling. She helped them without costing anything and just rely on her connections in social

Citizen
Music field

(G-Puput-3)

Morphology

14. Derivational (word form) or part of speech

Some problems in students' derivational (word form) and part of speech use were detected.

- (3.28) a bad image to Islam. **For instance**, the terrorist attack that happened at 9 September 2001 is marked as a one of **disasterdisastrous** moment especially in the United States. After the

(M-Austine-3)

- (3.29) to make policy to wipe out terrorist in social media/cyber space. Shutting down and banned accounts or website linked to terrorist is not very effective because every day almost 1.000 new accounts or websites linked to terrorist group or contain violence **is-are** made, social media company should make **more tighten** the policy to **limitation** terrorist movement in social media.

LENOVO January 11, 2016
"should more tighten" or "should make tighter policy".
"Should make more tighten" will have 2 verbs and it is not acceptable.

(S-Jeff-3)

15. Passive form

The teachers gave direct intervention (see M-Salsa-2) and metalinguistic explanation (see A-Fio-3) of the incorrect use of passive voice.

- (3.30) A good country will have less number of unemployment, because GDP **is also affected** by unemployment. Country with higher GDP will make higher income per capita. Even if Indonesia is in

Marin
Passive voice

(M-Salsa-2)

- (3.31) "Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world." (Mandela, n.d.). In old era, education **more prioritized** to men than women. The women considered that they do not need education because, in the future they only be a mother and wife that administer their husband and children. However, that is not absolutely

Author
Passive voice → Subject + to be + V3

(A-Fio-3)

16. Singular-plural

The teachers gave direct correction on the students' plural noun uses.

- (3.32) deliver it. For the example in the beginning maybe the teacher can deliver the meaning of the leadership, the importance of having leadership skills^s, the relationship of leadership skills with their jobs, and the way to improve the leadership skills.

(G-Almira-3)

- (3.33) some parts of life such as religion, culture, etc. Pluralism definitely does not suit to be applied in **cultural** **terms** because it can harm the existence of local culture by influencing the adherents.

(R-Habibi-1)

17. SV agreement

The teachers provided direct feedback on the singular-plural agreement between a subject and a verb.

- (3.34) The second reason is some countries in Europe have implemented a law that **bans** anyone in the country to wear any headscarf or hijab. One of those countries in Europe is France. As

(A-Dana-3)

- (3.35) (*Lieberman, Fredric*). Javanese dance and its nature ~~has~~ have different styles and philosophy compared to other Indonesian dance traditions. Javanese dance are commonly involving slow movements and graceful poses. Javanese dance have somewhat a meditative quality

(S-Fira-3)

18. Tense and verb form

The teachers also provided feedback on the verb tense, aspect, mood, or form.

- (3.36) further, to the depths of the ocean and into space". We cannot deny that engineers influence human's life, assist human to live in this world. In the past time, many engineers invented new technology that ~~is~~was beneficial and supporteded human's business. For example, Thomas

(G-Rafif-3)

- (3.37) the town, they also launched a twitter hastag campaign #ALLeyesonISIS. It was a strategy of ISIS in digital marketing, and few hours after they launched hastag, this information ~~is~~ spread out to the world, it ~~can be~~ raise ISIS prestige among another terrorist group, and make the older jihadist to join ISIS.

(S-Jeff-1)

Syntax

19. Absence of major constituent (sentence fragment)

The teachers also identified and provided feedback on the absence of major constituent (subject, verb, or object). Example (A-Intan-3) did not have verb and object and the teacher (M-Salsa-3) did not contain a subject as well, but the teacher added a pronoun to substitute the subject.

(3.38) helps to solve the problem of economic of underperformance resulting from the mental pressure of being an lower group. Furthermore, based on the article written by Marcin (2015) the good news for the wedding industry, which has struggled during years of sinking marriage rates. The typical total cost

Author

this is incomplete sentence/fragment

(A-Intan-3)

(3.39) it will not be last longer because of the sufficient preparation. Thus, it will not affect many aspects in Indonesia because of the high number of unemployment. Government preparation can be in form of

MarindaGhaisani
Subject..?

(M-Salsa-3)

20. Absence of minor constituent

The teachers provide feedback on the absence of minor constituent. The teacher added an article and conjunction *as* in example (3.40) and noun *attack* in example (S-Tata-2).

- (3.40) problem not only in Indonesia, which is a developing country, but cognitive skill has become as the most wanted thing in many kind field. Soft skills will bring many advantages to us, like having a

(M-Nadhira-2)

- (3.41) For ~~the~~ example, almost one month after the 9/11 attack, the United State responded by attacking al-qaeda training camp in Afghanistan and during the years after the attacks, it ~~continue~~ to the involvement by United State in another

(S-Tata-2)

21. Parallel structure

The teachers provided a hint of a way to revise the parallel structure in both examples below. In the first example (3.42).....In the second example, the teacher provided feedback in Indonesian and reminded the student that the structure had to be parallel because both are important.

(3.42)

be a smart mother and wife must have good intellegency. Not only in formal education like go to school or learn new thing, but a women also needs an softskills such as patient, kindness, and able to control their emotion. So, to get a good education, they also need a

Author

not only subject, but also S + V.

(A-Tiara-3)

(3.43)

bonus. Labor from other country in south east-Asia is more skilled than labor from Indonesia. This is also an opportunity for disaster to strike Indonesia. Government still weak in providing job vacancy, infrastructure, too much import rather than export, not optimizing yet the potential resource that Indonesia has, for example agriculture. It will be disaster if the number of labor is much higher than

tiara

Masih ingat ketika kta discuss ttg menyebutkan beberapa hal dan harus setara bentuknya, nah ini benerin dulu ya

(T-Ardi-3)

22. Run-on sentence

In the current study, the teachers also identified some run-on sentence problems. The student made a long sentence by joining two or more independent clauses without appropriate punctuation or conjunction.

(3.44)

them family. Not only those things the company also make an advertisement about people with disabilities and try to motivate them for not giving up in this life, it is a good thing actually. Even

Author

Run-on!

(A-Raja-3)

(3.45)

media can give positive vibes into its users. Also, Peoples' lifes can change to the lifes they have always dreamed about just in a second with social media, because social media has three positive impacts to people's lifes.

Author
Run on

(G-Puput-1)

23. Word order

The teachers provide indirect feedback by underlining 'people all' (see A-Raja-1) and direct feedback by adding 'will also' (S-Tata-3) on the word order problem.

(3.46)

place who needs help , or help the people having a disaster . Another version of BUT actually people all have been cheated by the cigarette company , in order to get "Popularity" . They make a social

(A-Raja-1)

(3.47)

This discourse **also will** will also create new human right's violation for moslem, especially for the religion-religious freedom. It is easy to make a gap than make a wonderful relationship.

(S-Tata-3)

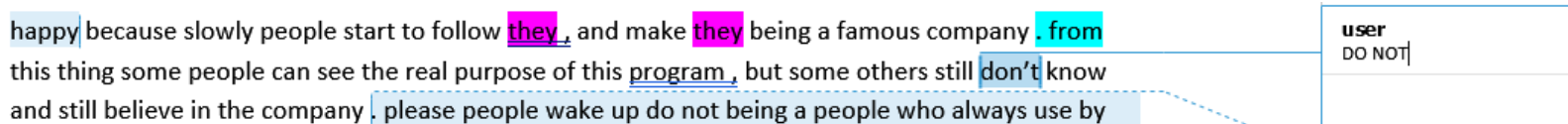
Mechanics and format

24. Document format

The teachers also provided feedback on the format of the text document, including font, spacing, indentation, and page setup.

25. Mechanics

The teachers provided feedback on various mechanics issues, including incorrect use of capitalisation, spelling, punctuation, and contraction.

- (3.48) happy because slowly people start to follow they, and make they being a famous company . from
this thing some people can see the real purpose of this program , but some others still don't know
and still believe in the company , please people wake up do not being a people who always use by
- 
- user
DO NOT

(A-Raja-1)

- (3.49) First thoughts that came up on my mind about engineering are, building, creating, innovating and modification. These are things that assist human's business in every aspect of

(G-Rafif-2)

Referencing

Many students got difficulty in understanding referencing. The teachers provided feedback on the mechanics of reference and the use of a source. Tia commented in her first think-aloud protocol session that it was normal for the students to make referencing errors

because at that time they had not learned it in class yet. The researcher classified the teachers' feedback on referencing into (i) mechanics of reference and (ii) the use of a source.

26. Mechanics of reference

The teachers provided feedback on the incorrect use of capitalisation, spelling, punctuation, and contraction in the in-text citation and reference. Both examples below showed the mechanics of reference in the in-text citation.

(3.50) Anti-Muslim should be banned because they treat us differently. According to Glynn (year) in Kaminski, Abercrombie and Fitch (year) in the United States 2011, a woman got fired because of she would not abandon wearing hijab, even though when she asked was

(M-Austine-2)

(3.51) According to Zhang et al., who measured demographic and academic performance variables in a large sample of undergraduates in engineering, science, and non- science programs at nine universities over a 13-year time period, engineering students had higher SAT- math scores than the

LENOVO
check

(S-Fahri-3)

27. Use of reference

It refers to the incorrect use of paraphrasing and source.

(3.52) care about nature. However they are doing that entire thing just not to protect the nature, but they just want to make them sales increase. Based on journal of Ariningsih "Because of a good Brand Image, it will makes cigarette sales increase". In fact it is true because the cigarette company will get more consumers from those Things. Previously they are saying about they care with the nature, in

Author
Please paraphrase it.

(A-Raja-3)

qualification and become a professional one. There are many ways to improve our soft skill, for example respecting other people while they are talking, being humble, and practicing telephone manner (Lazarus, 2013, p.44). Meanwhile, Kyllonen stated that specific interventions, for example, therapy for anxiety, can affect personality traits, by following specific interventions will alter some personality traits especially emotional stability (Kyllonen, 2013, 20). Following corporate training also can improve personality

MarindaGhaisani
Is all of this quotation?
Do not let the quotation dominates your paragraph.

(M-Nadhira-3)

Organisation

28. Conciseness & redundancy

The teachers also provided feedback on the conciseness, which is the briefness of writing. The teacher saw that the student should avoid unnecessary repetition and details in conveying his/her meaning.

(3.53)

Besides, they may be tricked by other people. There is a case that happened to one of Indonesian's famous magicians, Sutarno or people usually call him "Pak Tarno". Behind his popularity, he is illiterate since his father was dead and her mother left him. Thus, he has had no one to send him to the school. Unfortunately, he had been tricked by some people who borrowed money from him with the motive to open a business, stores, even to purchase a car. From those cases, Pak Tarno had been tricked as much as hundreds million Rupiah. Since then, he decided not to lend money to other people. That is one example, but how many

MarindaGhaisani

Too many for a story, you can straight to the main thing happening
In text citation? Bhisma

(M-Nanin-3)

29. Paragraph organisation

The teachers provided feedback on the paragraph organisation. The teachers provided feedback on the organisational pattern of the paragraph, including introductory paragraph (A-Dana-1) and concluding paragraph (G-Rafif-3).

(3.54) **General comment:**

- **Is it introductory paragraph??? Why do you divide it into three small paragraph that do not have any clear connection???**
- **Where is your thesis statement???**

(A-Dana-1)

- (3.55) bonus condition. Even though it seems not many people know how important engineering is, but in fact it was very important. Every country eager to become a rich and wealth country. It takes time and appropriate technique in order to get the best result. With engineering, a country can reach their objectives easier and faster. Engineering provides many ways to achieve something in a n effective way and get the best result. Especially in this demographic bonus condition. If a country applies an appropriate engineering to their demographic bonus window, writer believes their main objective will accomplished just like what they expect.

Citizen
restate what are the significances of engineering in demographic bonus.

(G-Rafif-3)

30. Sentence Flow (coherence)

Some feedbacks were also given on the lack of coherence and ideas in the paragraph.

- (3.56)
) "All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination" (Bayar Rustin, year, website)

↓ There should be a sentence to connect the quotation with the sentence below

(A-Dana-1)

- (3.57)
) Why do we have to ban Anti-Muslim? As you know Muslim may have the minority of its population especially outside Asia country. Choosing religion is our right and everyone deserve a better life to live, it's not okay when people screamed at you and judge you because of the religion you choose. Respecting

Marin December 25, 2015
The connection of these two sentences are not really nice. Try to put one more idea or sentence between these two.

[Reply](#) [Resolve](#)

(M-Austine-1)

31. Unity

The teachers provided feedback on the lack of unity in the paragraph.

- (3.58 traits especially emotional stability. Following corporate training also can improve personality
) traits, according to Arthur, Bennett, Edens, and Bell (2003, np) in Kyllonen (2013, 20) this
program has larger effect than the intervention (Kyllonen, 2013, 20).

Marin January 06, 2016
I like the information that you have. However, I think you need
relate your explanation to Indonesian young generation and ho
why preparing soft skill for them will be beneficial to face
Demographic Bonus.

(M-Nadhira-2)

- (3.59 **Different explanation** **Outside** government, social-media companies have
) increasingly revised their own systems and terms of service in an effort to mop
up terrorist accounts before they spread, as with Twitter's recent ban of all
"indirect threats of violence." (**source**) Hacker and independent activists are also

(S-Jeff-2)

Description of the nature of the EFL teachers' written feedback

Feedback Focus

Content	Content and rhetoric: The art of writing or speaking effectively in order to persuade an audience to accept an idea.
Clarity and ambiguity	A clarity and ambiguity problem refers to a lack of clarity and preciseness in a sentence (Bailey, 2015; Wallwork, 2016) due to an ambiguous word or phrase. >> http://www.mhhe.com/socscience/philosophy/reichenbach/m4_chap05studyguide.html +++ https://www.american.edu/cas/writing/pdf/upload/Sentence-Clarity.pdf
idea and logic	The idea relates to the quality and complexity of ideas, while the logic denotes the logical development and sequence of ideas.
Lack of elaboration	A lack of elaboration refers to a lack of supporting detail (insufficient/irrelevant supporting details) (King's College London, n.d.). The National Commission on Writing in America's School and Colleges (2003) reported that lack of elaboration was one of students' the common problems in essay writing.
Supporting details	Lack, incorrect, or too many supporting details
Terms	terms used, not clearly defined
Language use	
Grammatical	
Conjunction	Conjunction is a word used to link words, phrases, or clauses. Three types of conjunctions are coordinating

	(e.g., and, but, or), correlative (e.g., both... and..., not only... but also...), and subordinating (e.g., whenever, while, however) conjunctions (Center for Writing Studies, 2017). >> http://www.cws.illinois.edu/workshop/writers/conjunctions/
Determiners	Missing, redundant, or incorrect determiners. Determiner is a noun phrase head which functions to limit the meaning of the noun phrase (Aarts et al., 2014). Determiners include definite and indefinite articles (the, a, and an), demonstratives (e.g., this and that), possessive determiners (e.g., my and their), quantifiers (e.g., many, few and several), numerals, distributive determiners (e.g., each and any), and interrogative determiners (e.g., which). The examples of determiner problems are presented in Tab
Preposition	Preposition is a word functioning as the head of a prepositional phrase, preceding the constituent it licenses, typically a noun phrase. Prepositions are classified into simple (e.g. at, by), compound (e.g. alongside, into, throughout), and complex prepositions (e.g. according to, regardless of).
Pronoun	Is a word that can substitute a noun and perform the functions of a noun or noun phrase (Aarts, 2014; Bhat, 2007). Pronouns can be classified into (1) personal, (2) reflexive, (3) reciprocal, (4) possessive, (5) demonstrative, (6) relative, (7) interrogative, and (8) indefinite pronouns. . >> https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pronoun + Bhat, Darbhe Narayana Shankara (2007). Pronouns (Paperback ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press. ISBN 978-0199230242.
Lexis and Style	
Awkward or unclear expression	The use of uncommon, awkward, or unclear expressions in English
Collocation	Collocation is a fixed syntagmatic relationship typically between individual elements (words or phrases) that

	consistently occur together (Aarts, 2014), e.g. provides feedback, written feedback. Six main collocation structures are (1) adjective + noun, (2) noun + noun, (3) verb + noun, (4) adverb + adjective, (5) verb + prepositional phrase (phrasal verbs), and (6) verb + adverb. The teachers marked incorrect expressions and phrasal verbs. (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collocation).
Extraneous words and repetition	Extraneous word problem indicates too many unnecessary words or phrases in a sentence. Repetition is the use of repeated words or phrases. The teachers provided feedback...>>> https://www1.villanova.edu/content/villanova/artsci/acsp/writingcenter/resources/handouts/_jcr_content/pagecontent/download/file.res/AvoidingAwkwardSentences.pdf
Language style & register	The use of L1 in L2 writing, use of positive, negative, interrogative structure; formal and informal (https://www.uts.edu.au/sites/default/files/HELPS%20Formal%20and%20Informal%20Language.pdf - and - https://goo.gl/d4k32Q)
Word Choice	Word choice is the student's selection of correct words. The use of incorrect word use in English was detected in the students' drafts.
Morphology	
Derivational (word form) or part of speech	Errors in derivational (word form) or part of speech uses.
Passive form	Passive form is the grammatical category of voice whereby the subject undergoes, experiences, or receives the action denoted by the verb (Aarts, 2014). Missing or incorrect passive form.
Singular-plural	Singular is a word that indicates a single entity, in contrast to plural.
SV agreement	SV agreement refers to the agreement between a subject and a verb.

Tense and verb form	Verb tense, aspect, mood, and form; including gerund
Syntax	
Absence of major constituent (sentence fragment)	sentence fragment or an absence of major constituent, such as subject, verb, object
Absence of minor constituent	Absence of minor constituent. For example: Enterprises may not be professional [enough] to master the coordination of ...
parallel structure	Parallel structure means the use of a word to show that words or phrases are equally important (yourdictionary.com) (http://examples.yourdictionary.com/parallel-structure-examples.html)
Run-on sentence	run-on sentence problem refers to joining two or more independent clauses without an appropriate punctuation (e.g., periods) or conjunction (e.g., and), a very long sentence with too many ideas contained.. >> https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Run-on_sentence
Word order	A word order problem refers to the incorrect arrangement of words in a sentence.
Mechanics and Format	
Document format	the format of text document, including font, spacing, indentation, and page setup
Mechanics	All errors on mechanics, capitalization, spelling, punctuation, contraction
Referencing	
Mechanics of reference	The incorrect use of capitalization, spelling, punctuation, and contraction in in-text citation and reference.
Use of Reference	It refers to the incorrect use of paraphrasing and source.
Paraphrasing	How student paraphrase the reference
Sources	1) Whether student appropriately quoted a reference or not, whether source of quotation was present or

	missing, whether a reference was required to support the proposition, whether source is correct or acceptable, number and type of references; 2) idea originality (whether ideas are own or borrowed ideas),
Text structure	
Conciseness & redundancy	Conciseness refers to the briefness of writing; conveying the meaning in a concise way and avoiding unnecessary repetition, details, and redundancy (using repetitious expressions to express a meaning >> https://www.thoughtco.com/conciseness-speech-and-composition-1689902
Paragraph organization	Paragraph organization refers to the structure of a paragraph. The main features include the topic sentence, controlling ideas, supporting details, organizational patterns, and signal words (Kaplan University Writing Center, 2011).
Sentence Flow (coherence)	The lack of coherence, the smooth connection and flow of sentences and ideas in a paragraph (Sherman et al., 2010). See https://www.southeastern.edu/acad_research/programs/writing_center/handouts/pdf_handouts/coherence.pdf
Thesis statement and topic sentence	Errors of thesis statement or topic sentence use. For example: TS may be weak, not strong enough; TOS may not exist
Unity	It refers to the unity of topic in a paragraph. The unity problem includes missing or lacking unity, jumping ideas, poor link back, and overly broad discussion.

Feedback strategies

CODE	TYPE OF FEEDBACK	DESCRIPTION AND EXAMPLE
2A	Direct feedback (DF)	Explicitly indicate the location of error and correction of error; usually involves: 1) indicating the error/issue, 2) inserting feedback (correct form or structure) or meta-linguistic explanation (the provision of grammar rules and examples of correct usage). Example: a. <i>"Jadi disini ini nggak perlu pakai the, preparing the leadership skills."</i> [deleting text: the]. (Gie). b. <i>"After the 9/11 attack, at least there are some good relationship between moslem and American. ' Good. Karena ini ada are, harusnya ini ada s disitu."</i> [adding text: -s]. (Mary).
2B	Indirect feedback (IDF)	Indicate an error/issue, but does not provide a correction or explicit meta-linguistic information. Typically using 1) codes/symbols, or 2) notes to implicitly show the cause, type, or ways to correct feedback. Example: a. <i>"Muslim women claim that wearing the hijab...wearing..." Ini nggak perlu pakai the."</i> [highlighting text: the]. (Ayu). a. <i>"but a women also needs an..." oke, ini salah juga, artikel."</i> [selecting text: a], [typing] article." (Mary).

Appendix J: Adopted framework of the EFL Teachers' Decision-Making behaviours while providing written feedback

Stage	Focus	a. Self-monitoring focus	b. Content and text structure
Task definition		• 4a1. Articulate general impression on student's writing skills or products • 4a2. Discern type of feedback or sequence • 4a3. Read-interpret Feedback criteria or writing prompt • 4a4. Scan whole composition or observe layout or organization • 4a5. Select student or envision student's personal situation or writing skills	
Reading and Interpretation		• 5a1. Compare two drafts • 5a2. Consider student's previous draft, revision, or feedback; own discussion with student • 5a3. Discern own type of feedback (microstrategy) • 5a4. Read or reread the composition • 5a5. Summarise reading passages, ideas, or propositions	• Language Use • 5c1. Consider language aspects (grammatical, lexical, morphological, syntactical, language style, & register) • 5c2. Classify errors into types • 5c3. Consider frequency and gravity of errors • Other aspects of writing • 5b1. Consider coherence • 5b2. Consider content, idea, arguments • 5b3. Consider interest, originality and creativity structure • 5b4. Consider rhetorical and organizational structure • 5d1. Consider other aspects of writing (mechanics, reference, document format)
Immediate feedback		• 6a1. Articulate general impression on student's writing skills or products • 6a2. Consider own personal response or biases	• Language use • 6b1. Consider use and understanding of source material • 6b2. Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on coherence

decision

- 6a3. Consider own understanding of writing theory
- 6a4. Decide and justify microstrategy of feedback decision
- 6a5. Decide and justify macro-strategy of feedback
- 6a5. Consider unrevised passage
- 6a6. Provide no feedback
- 6a7. Revise Feedback decision
- 6b3. Provide-justify Feedback (DF/IDF) on content, ideas, and arguments
- 6b4. Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on interest, originality, and creativity
- 6b5. Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on rhetorical and organizational structure
- 6b6. Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on the completion or relevance of student's revision
- **Other aspects of writing**
- 6c1. Provide-justify Feedback (DF/IDF) on language aspects (grammatical, lexical, morphological, syntactical, language style, & register)
- 6c2. Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on overall language
- d1. Provide-justify Feedback (DF/IDF) on other aspects of writing (mechanics, reference, document format)

**Postponed
feedback
decision**

- 7a1. Plan to clarify with the student
- 7a2. provide general feedback after finishing checking
- 7a3. recheck later

The Description of the EFL Teachers' Decision-Making Process While Providing Feedback

ACTIONS	DESCRIPTION AND EXAMPLE
1. Task definition	Define the goal he/she wants to achieve, including feedback purpose, problem to solve, etc.
1a. task definition-self-monitoring focus	
Articulate general impression on student's personal situation, writing skills, or written products	Express general impression or envision student's personal situation, writing skills, or written products (composition) Example: <i>"...I suppose he could get a high marks in, uh, his writing."</i> (Mary)
Discern type of feedback (macro-strategy) or sequence	Consider or recognise his/her own general type of feedback or sequence (macrostrategy) Example: <i>"I think I will just check the draft in the order in which they come"</i> (Sha)
Read-interpret Feedback criteria or writing prompt	Membaca atau menginterpretasikan kriteria penilaian, feedback, atau tugas. Example: <i>"Mm, sebenarnya dari cara struktur, kok begini ya? Dalam hal kan, dalam draft pertama yang diminta adalah mereka menulis introduction. Jadi harusnya thesis statement sudah menjadi bagian disini, di bagian introduction seharusnya"</i> (Mary).
Scan whole composition or observe layout or organization	Scan the whole composition or observe composition layout or organization for surface identification Example: <i>"I am scanning over the writing again, to see if I can find any other features."</i> (Ayu)
Select student or envision student's personal situation or writing skills	Select a student and justify the choice; consider a student's writing profiles. Example: <i>"So, kayaknya yang ini karena lebih sedikit dan mm salah satu, apa ya, 30%nya itu sendiri quotation, sebenarnya kayak dia nggak punya masalah sama punctuation atau"</i>

	<i>capitalization daripada yang pertama. Tapi kayak ide-idenya itu nggak [unintelligible] connect gitu lo. Paling tak general comment” (Ayu).</i>
4b. task definition-Content, coherence, & organization focus	-
4c. task definition-Language focus	-
4d. task definition-task definition-other aspects of writing	-
5. Reading & Interpretation (reading interpretation, problem detection-interpretation)	
5a Reading & interpretation - self-monitoring focus	
Compare drafts	Compare between student’s composition drafts (previous and current drafts) or compare between students’ drafts. Example: <i>“Let’s check the previous draft again, maybe I can find something” (Ayu)</i>
Consider student’s previous draft, revision, or feedback; own discussion with student	Consider previous discussion, communication, or interaction with the student, particularly related to writing, feedback, and revision. Example: <i>“I asked her to revise her thesis statement, but she did not revise it” (Ayu)</i>
Discern own type of feedback (microstrategy)	Consider or recognise his/her own type of feedback for particular problem. Example: <i>“I will highlight it because he kept making the same mistake” (Fajar)</i>
Read or reread the composition	Read or reread the composition to comprehend, to evaluate, to solve problem, or to check.

	Example: <i>"I'm rereading this again silently."</i> (Mary)
Summarise reading passages, ideas, or propositions	Summarise reading passages, ideas, or propositions. Example: <i>"So he is writing about mm, this you know, prejudice to those who wear the hijab."</i> (Mary)
5b Reading & interpretation - coherence, content, and rhetoric	
Consider coherence	Identify or consider unity and coherence. Example: [Reading] <i>"The same sex marriage have positive side such as ..."</i> [reading unintelligibly]. <i>"Okay. Because of this ... Okay. So this, um, its coherence is lacking."</i>
Consider content, ideas, and arguments	Consider content, ideas, and arguments. Example: <i>"But it is like his ideas were not [unintelligible] connected"</i> (Ayu)
Consider interest, originality, and creativity	Consider interest (whether the topic of writing interesting), originality (whether it is student's original idea or not), and creativity (how creative student is). Example: <i>"Hm, just like yesterday. it is creative enough I think."</i> (Gie)
Consider rhetorical and organization structures	Consider rhetorical and organization structures of the text. Example: <i>"This is not a reflection, it should conclusion."</i> [Selecting text], [typing: conclusion]. (Gie)
5c. Reading & interpretation - language focus	
Consider language aspects (grammatical, lexical, morphological, syntactical, language style, &	Identify or consider language aspects of writing (including grammatical, lexical, morphological, syntactical, language style, & register).

register)	Example: <i>“This should be plural, because there are several,”</i> [adding text: -s], <i>“so there is ... eh, no, several kinds of, yes, it's okay.”</i> [deleting text: -s].
Classify errors into types	Mengklasifikasikan kesalahan kedalam jenis/tipe kesalahan.
Consider frequency and gravity of errors	Menimbang-nimbang tingkat keseriusan masalah dalam tulisan.
5d. Reading & interpretation - Other aspects of writing	
Consider other aspects of writing (mechanics, reference, document format)	Consider other aspects of writing including mechanics, reference style, document format, etc. Example: <i>“Faced by LGBT couples. ’ Okay. This means there must be the source.”</i>
6. Immediate feedback (problem solving, judgment)	
6a feedback - self-monitoring focus	
Articulate general impression on student's writing skills or products	Articulate general impression on student's writing skills or products after providing feedback or making a particular decision. Example: <i>“Okay. This paragraph is good. We can retain it. Um, Let’s continue.”</i> (Gie)
Consider own personal response or biases	Consider own self-personal response or biases towards the text or the ideas in the text. For example, <i>“I think both sentences have a strong connection.”</i>
Consider own understanding of writing theory	Consider own understanding of writing theory. Example: <i>“Ah, the conclusion, I had explain to you in the class. In conclusion, the first one, the first one is to conclude and restate the points”</i>

Decide and justify feedback decision (micro-strategy)	Decide and/or justify feedback decision (micro-strategy). Example: <i>"Just highlight it. My students have learned about what is verb base."</i>
Decide and justify macro-strategy for reading, interpretation, or Feedback	Decide and/or justify macro-strategy for reading, interpretation, or Feedback. Example: <i>"First is content, okay... Next, grammar will be next"</i>
Provide no feedback	Identify a problem or an issue, but does not provide feedback. Example: [Reading] <i>"Not okay when people screamed at you ... ' Um, okay, but here 'when people screamed...' right here she must use facts."</i> [no feedback].
Revise feedback decision	Revise or change feedback decision. Example: Here, [selecting text], [typing] <i>do not write this way.</i> <i>"Do not write this way?"</i> [Deleting comment]. <i>"Do not use contraction. Use... yes it is..."</i> [deleting text]. [Typing] <i>it is.</i>
6b feedback - coherence, content, and rhetoric	
Consider use and understanding of source material	Memperhitungkan kegunaan dan pentingnya materi
Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on coherence	Provide and justify feedback (DF/IDF) on unity and coherence. Example: [typing] <i>your ideas are jumping here.</i>
Provide-justify Feedback (DF/IDF) on content, ideas, and arguments	Provide and justify feedback (DF/IDF) on content, ideas, and arguments. Example: <i>"I will write,"</i> [typing] <i>why don't you revise the TS???</i>
Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on interest, originality, and creativity	Provide and justify feedback (DF/IDF) on interest, originality, and creativity (development) of composition.

	Example: [Reading] <i>"in general, clothing that is used... ' well, I know it is not his own sentence. "</i> [Adding text: is].
Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on rhetorical and organizational structures	Provide and justify feedback (DF/IDF) on rhetorical and organizational structures of text. Example: [typing] <i>You should make it into 2-3 simpler/shorter sentences instead of making a very complex one.</i>
Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on the completion or relevance of student's revision	Menyediakan dan menjustifikasi feedback pada kesesuaian dan relevansi revisi
6c feedback - language focus	
Provide-justify Feedback (DF/IDF) on language aspects (grammatical, lexical, morphological, syntactical, language style, & register)	Provide and justify feedback (DF/IDF) on language aspects (grammatical, lexical, morphological, syntactical, language style, & register) Example: [selecting text: demographic bonus have], [highlighting text], <i>"it's a passive voice, her to be is incorrect"</i>
Provide-justify feedback (DF/IDF) on overall language	Menyediakan dan menjustifikasi feedback pada penggunaan bahasa secara keseluruhan
6d. Feedback - Other aspects of writing	
Provide-justify Feedback (DF/IDF) on other aspects of writing (mechanics, reference, document format)	Provide-justify Feedback (DF/IDF) on other aspects of writing (mechanics, reference, document format). Example: <i>"Okay, the thesis statement is done. Now formatting. The format let's make it justified and use the indent 1."</i> [changing document format].
7. Postponed feedback decision	
7a. Postponed feedback decision – self-monitoring focus	

Plan to clarify with the student	Plan to clarify an issue/problem to student in consultation session. Example: “ <i>What is it? I have to slarify it again</i> ” (Tia)
provide general feedback after finishing checking	Provide general feedback after finishing checking. Example: “ <i>Let’s just give general comment after</i> ” (Gie)
recheck later	Plan to recheck the passage later. Example: “ <i>I will skip it first, and, check it later</i> ” (Fajar)

Appendix K: The Frequency Of Teachers' Written Feedback On Four Aspects Of Writing

	AYU		FAJA R		GIE		MAR Y		SHA		TIA			
ASPECTS OF WRITING	FF	%	FF	%	FF	%	FF	%	FF	%	FF	%	TOTA L FF	%
Content	33	15.35 %	74	37.76 %	19	15.20 %	39	19.70 %	20	6.12%	27	12.62 %	212	16.63 %
1. Clarity and ambiguity	15	6.98%	7	3.57%	8	6.40%	4	2.02%	12	3.67%	4	1.87%	50	3.92%
2. ideas and logics	9	4.19%	41	20.92%	6	4.80%	18	9.09%	2	0.61%	20	9.35%	96	7.53%
3. Lack of elaboration	7	3.26%	12	6.12%	4	3.20%	8	4.04%	1	0.31%	2	0.93%	34	2.67%
4. Terms	1	0.47%	7	3.57%	1	0.80%	4	2.02%	3	0.92%	1	0.47%	17	1.33%
Language use	110	51.16 %	61	31.12 %	58	46.40 %	91	45.96 %	201	61.47 %	122	57.01 %	643	50.43 %
Grammar	34	15.81 %	7	3.57%	7	5.60%	17	8.59%	45	13.76 %	20	9.35%	130	10.20 %
5. Conjunction	13	6.05%	3	1.53%	3	2.40%	5	2.53%	13	3.98%	1	0.47%	38	2.98%
6. Determiners	5	2.33%	3	1.53%	1	0.80%	4	2.02%	14	4.28%	8	3.74%	35	2.75%
7. Preposition	2	0.93%	1	0.51%	1	0.80%	1	0.51%	9	2.75%	10	4.67%	24	1.88%
8. Pronoun	14	6.51%	0	0.00%	2	1.60%	7	3.54%	9	2.75%	1	0.47%	33	2.59%
Lexis and Style	22	10.23 %	32	16.33 %	13	10.40 %	31	15.66 %	40	12.23 %	35	16.36 %	173	13.57 %
9. Awkward or unclear expression	4	1.86%	14	7.14%	4	3.20%	9	4.55%	5	1.53%	5	2.34%	41	3.22%
10. Collocation	0	0.00%	1	0.51%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	7	2.14%	3	1.40%	11	0.86%
11. Extraneous word	4	1.86%	0	0.00%	2	1.60%	6	3.03%	5	1.53%	4	1.87%	21	1.65%
12. Repetition	6	2.79%	1	0.51%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	6	1.83%	4	1.87%	17	1.33%
13. Language style & register	3	1.40%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	7	3.54%	2	0.61%	4	1.87%	16	1.25%
14. Word Choice	5	2.33%	16	8.16%	7	5.60%	9	4.55%	15	4.59%	15	7.01%	67	5.25%

Morphology	35	16.28%	18	9.18%	31	24.80%	31	15.66%	67	20.49%	41	19.16%	223	17.49%
15. Derivational (word form) or part of speech	4	1.86%	6	3.06%	3	2.40%	5	2.53%	11	3.36%	8	3.74%	37	2.90%
16. Passive form	2	0.93%	0	0.00%	2	1.60%	9	4.55%	13	3.98%	5	2.34%	31	2.43%
17. Singular-plural	6	2.79%	7	3.57%	20	16.00%	3	1.52%	10	3.06%	5	2.34%	51	4.00%
18. SV agreement	5	2.33%	2	1.02%	0	0.00%	2	1.01%	3	0.92%	3	1.40%	15	1.18%
19. Tense and verb form	18	8.37%	3	1.53%	6	4.80%	12	6.06%	30	9.17%	20	9.35%	89	6.98%
Syntax	19	8.84%	4	2.04%	7	5.60%	12	6.06%	49	14.98%	26	12.15%	117	9.18%
20. Absence of major constituent (sentence fragment)	7	3.26%	0	0.00%	3	2.40%	5	2.53%	13	3.98%	15	7.01%	43	3.37%
21. Absence of minor constituent	2	0.93%	4	2.04%	0	0.00%	5	2.53%	3	0.92%	9	4.21%	23	1.80%
22. parallel structure	1	0.47%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	0.51%	1	0.31%	1	0.47%	4	0.31%
23. Run-on sentence	7	3.26%	0	0.00%	4	3.20%	1	0.51%	29	8.87%	1	0.47%	42	3.29%
24. Word order	2	0.93%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	3	0.92%	0	0.00%	5	0.39%
Mechanics and format	22	10.23%	10	5.10%	10	8.00%	28	14.14%	57	17.43%	22	10.28%	149	11.69%
25. Document format	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	0.80%	2	1.01%	0	0.00%	2	0.93%	5	0.39%
26. Mechanics	22	10.23%	10	5.10%	9	7.20%	26	13.13%	57	17.43%	20	9.35%	144	11.29%
Referencing	24	11.16%	15	7.65%	19	15.20%	23	11.62%	32	9.79%	15	7.01%	128	10.04%
27. Mechanics of reference	6	2.79%	6	3.06%	12	9.60%	16	8.08%	12	3.67%	12	5.61%	64	5.02%
28. Use of Reference	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
29. Paraphrasing	1	0.47%	0	0.00%	2	1.60%	2	1.01%	0	0.00%	1	0.47%	6	0.47%
30. Sources	17	7.91%	9	4.59%	5	4.00%	5	2.53%	20	6.12%	2	0.93%	58	4.55%
Text structure	23	10.70%	43	21.94%	19	15.20%	22	11.11%	19	5.81%	28	13.08%	154	12.08%

31. Conciseness & redundancy	2	0.93%	0	0.00%	2	1.60%	2	1.01%	0	0.00%	1	0.47%	7	0.55%
32. Paragraph organization	10	4.65%	28	14.29%	13	10.40%	15	7.58%	12	3.67%	8	3.74%	86	6.75%
33. Sentence Flow (coherence)	9	4.19%	8	4.08%	2	1.60%	3	1.52%	5	1.53%	11	5.14%	38	2.98%
34. Unity	2	0.93%	7	3.57%	2	1.60%	2	1.01%	2	0.61%	8	3.74%	23	1.80%
	215	16.86%	196	15.37%	125	9.80%	198	15.53%	327	25.65%	214	16.78%	1275	100.00%

The Frequency Of Teachers' Written Feedback On Language Use In Students' Drafts

	Ayu				Gie				Mary				Fajar				Sha				Tia				
	Dana	Intan	Raja	Fio	Mira	Ninda	Puput	Rafif	Nadhira	Austine	nanin	Salsa	Lina	Habibi	Lengga	Anta	Fira	Tata	Jeff	Fahri	Dini	Fita	Ardi	Faishal	TOTAL
Grammatical errors	7	7	8	14	3	0	2	1	5	4	1	7	4	0	2	4	9	26	10	1	5	6	6	6	138
Lexical & Stylistic errors	3	4	8	5	7	1	4	2	11	8	6	6	20	6	14	0	5	16	12	5	4	11	4	14	176
Morphological errors	8	6	14	14	25	0	4	3	3	14	3	11	9	7	3	5	7	27	26	8	11	5	14	12	239
Syntactical errors	2	3	6	6	3	1	1	4	4	2	1	6	0	0	2	0	14	12	12	10	2	3	11	10	115
	20	20	36	39	38	2	11	10	23	28	11	30	33	13	21	9	35	81	60	24	22	25	35	42	668