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Negotiation of Feedback on Academic Writing at the Doctoral Level: A Contextualized, Qualitative Inquiry of Multilingual Students

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NEGOTIATION OF FEEDBACK ON ACADEMIC WRITING AT THE DOCTORAL LEVEL: A CONTEXTUALIZED, QUALITATIVE INQUIRY OF MULTILINGUAL STUDENTS

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Title: Negotiation of Feedback on Academic Writing at the Doctoral Level: A Contextualized, Qualitative Inquiry of Multilingual Students

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This research aims to improve scholarly understandings of doctoral feedback practices, thereby exploring how doctoral students develop their academic writing abilities. Specifically, I was interested in how individual writers incorporate all the information available to them and how each source of feedback interacts with the others in the writing process. Unlike previous studies, feedback in this study also includes various forms of advice that can influence an understanding of a task as well as discipline-specific knowledge and linguistic accuracy.

To address the contextualized nature of this project, I employed a case study approach (Yin, 2009). This approach involved the coded content analysis of interviews with students and their professors, drafts with written feedback, and observations of literacy practices in doctoral courses embedded in a graduate school in the mid-Atlantic region. Two separate coding systems were developed for this research: one for the types of feedback that students received and one for the learning outcomes that the participants reported throughout the semester.

Drawing on the frameworks of academic socialization (Duff, 2007) and communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), the results of this study corroborate and extend the limited empirical evidence to date by showing that graduate feedback addresses professional enculturation in a broad sense. Feedback needs to be understood as a situated social practice that facilitates a multidirectional academic socialization. Developing academic writing is an ongoing process of academic socialization and constructing a professional identity, which enables

students to learn ways of writing and presenting arguments in specific disciplines. This is partly grounded in the dynamics between learner agency and the diverse, overlapping communities of practice to which student writers belong. The participants' networks of feedback are manifestations of their diverse patterns of membership in these overlapping communities. From a pedagogical perspective, the present research also reveals the full extent of the positive impact of multiple sources of feedback. This study moves the knowledge of academic writing forward by situating the empirical evidence for the nature of doctoral feedback within the current efforts of understanding doctoral writing, especially during the initial years of doctoral education.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In my first year at a graduate school in the United States, I was required to write a critical review of a research article for the midterm and a research paper for the final. At that time, I did not even know what "critical" meant or what a research paper looked like. Although I had taken an academic writing course, these genres were new to me. What made me more frustrated was the fact that I hardly received any feedback on either the content or linguistic aspects of my writing from the professors. Usually they simply gave me a letter grade at the end of the semester, occasionally with one or two sentences of general comments. This was in sharp contrast to a foreign language class I had taken in which the teacher had tried to provide as much feedback as possible on my writing. Naturally, I tried to seek out some ways in which I could see what my writing for a specific course should look like. Among them were talking with people who took the class or had previously worked with the professor in the past, reading the guidelines on the syllabus repeatedly, or visiting the writing center. It seems that the reasons why I was struggling were twofold: first, as a graduate student, I was expected to write in genres with which I was not familiar and furthermore to meet each individual professor's specific expectations for graduate-level writing; second, as an English language learner, I was constantly mindful of linguistic aspects of my English writing. From different sources of feedback on my writing, I was exposed to different voices on a particular piece. To me, writing and revising a piece for a particular class was a series of small- and large-scale decisions from the use of articles to organizational structures, causing me to wander in the forest of uncertainties due to blurry expectations, possible conflicts with my established persona from writing in my country, and a lack of confidence in my English proficiency. I had a checkered history with my academic writing,

making gradual improvements overall as my graduate years went by. I am sure that, as a multilingual student, I was not the only one who went through the struggles and was engaged in constant negotiations of literacies and identities at a graduate school in the United States. My own experiences as well as those of my classmates inspired me to pursue the issue of graduate feedback practices.

One of the literacy practices that multilingual[1] writers perform at the doctoral level is to write in genres that they, presumably in many cases, have had few experiences with in their home countries. To cope with these challenges, they employ a wide range of strategies. One of the strategies is trying to get feedback on their work. Interestingly, formal written feedback from the professor is not the only source of feedback (Pometrantz & Kearney, 2012), although it is unclear whether this is because some professors provide very little written feedback, or some other reasons come into play. Casual conversations over lunch with peers, conferences with tutors at the writing center, or email with professors might influence a piece of writing a multilingual writer is working on at the moment. These various forms of interactions that take place revolving around the piece can shape the academic text, while the extent to which and the way in which they shape the revision may vary. It is important to note that the multiple sources of feedback provided might be diverse and contradictory, even though students might not view all those sources as *feedback*. Students might not recognize that certain forms of feedback are, in fact, feedback. And students' writing might be influenced by forms of feedback, even when they do not consciously realize it. With rich information from the feedback at hand, writers need to make choices in each phase of revision depending on their contexts and who they are. When

[1] In this dissertation, I refer to international study-abroad students as *multilingual* rather than L2 writers. Also another population who was born and raised in the U.S. or came to the U.S. at an early age, 1.5 Generation, is not included in this research. When I refer to studies by others, however, I use the terms they employed in their studies such as L2 writers, EFL or ESL students.

faced with a range of choices for a particular textual decision, writers do not choose randomly. Rather, they must make "decisions of self-representation and identity construction" (Abasi, Akbari, & Graves, 2006, p. 104).

This qualitative study looks at how multilingual students make decisions in the revision process by drawing upon multiple sources of feedback on academic writing at a doctoral program in the U.S. Specifically, this research takes a very contextualized and in-depth look at the writing of an academic paper and all the sources of feedback that informed the piece, thereby carefully considering how this rich information is used, integrated, and negotiated in student texts, if at all. This dissertation is contextualized not only because it is framed within courses in a particular institution, but also because it is situated within a broader frame of doctoral-level education and the specific issues that occur within this level of education. One rationale for contextualizing this project within a doctoral-level program comes from the problem of Ph.D. completion. According to the Council of Graduate Schools (2010), 23% of doctoral students in the humanities and 21% of doctoral students in the social sciences completed their doctoral degrees based on exit surveys between 2006 and 2008. That is, approximately 80% of students did not achieve their Ph.Ds for various reasons, which is why we should be concerned about improving doctoral education. This research ultimately attempts to provide further insights into how multilingual doctoral writers are socialized into academic communities. This enhanced understanding is expected to help educators and multilingual students themselves to deal with the challenges in disciplinary enculturation more effectively. This chapter begins with the problem statement, followed by the statement of purpose and the research questions. Also, a brief overview of theoretical frameworks that frame this study are discussed. The chapter concludes with the rationale and significance of this dissertation.

Statement of the Problem

Research indicates that multilingual students in higher education in English-speaking countries struggle with the writing tasks they are expected to perform (e.g., Angelova & Riazantseva, 1999; Braxley, 2005; Chang & Kanno, 2010; Prior, 1991; Tardy, 2009). Looking across research on writing, it becomes clear that written corrective feedback from professors is not the only source student writers rely on to complete writing tasks. Studies of different forms of feedback do exist. Studies of writing conferences either in classrooms or at the writing center deal with issues such as the types of tutoring strategies (Thompson, 2009), tutoring ESL writers (Bruce & Rafoth, 2009; Williams, 2004), the role of negotiation of meaning in student-teacher conferences (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990), or the discursive characteristics of face-to-face writing conferences with L2 writers (Ewert, 2009; Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997: Weissberg, 2006). Discussions with peers, tutors at the writing center, or teachers in the classroom might be qualitatively and quantitatively different from each other, possibly due to differential power structures and unique dynamics of particular interactions. And it would be helpful to look at each source separately, which the previous studies on feedback which will be discussed in Chapter 2 have tried to do. Thus, while there has been research in the field on each different source of feedback, the influence of each source type has been considered in isolation. To advance our understanding, however, what is needed is to explore what happens when feedback from these different sources is combined. Student writers do not encounter only one source in the real world. They receive multiple forms of academic feedback from teachers, tutors, and peers. In this sense, little is known about how individual writers incorporate all the information available to them, how they reconcile conflicting advice in different forms of feedback, and how each source of feedback interacts with the others in the writing process, particularly in writing at the doctoral level. Hence, a close investigation of multiple sources of

feedback with individual writers at the center of attention would provide richer information about feedback.

When it comes to feedback specifically on academic writing at the graduate level, relatively less research has been published than studies targeting undergraduates and ESL students in language programs. As Reid (1994) and Leki (2006) reported, there are perceptible differences between feedback practices in composition or language and those of traditional subject-based classes; beyond disparate attitudes toward content, students receive much less feedback at advanced levels of education than they do on tasks in language programs. The high-stakes nature of writing tasks and unclear expectations in an academic community further complicate the problems experienced by learners. Nonetheless, some multilingual students tackle the challenges and somehow finally succeed in achieving the appropriate level of writing expertise and becoming members of academic communities in spite of those seemingly unfavorable conditions. This is where one of the pressing motivations to research graduate feedback in this dissertation stems from.

Unlike feedback studies with undergraduate students, studies on doctoral literacy practices tend to understand feedback in connection with developing a social identity as a researcher, which means the process of becoming a member of a particular community of practice (CoP) (Castello, Inesta, & Corcelles, 2013; Kumar & Stracke, 2007). As Casanave (2002) aptly put it, “Professors’ feedback on graduate students’ work, like advice from a good coach to a new player, can serve the powerful function of assisting students’ movement into a particular community’s professional practices” (p. 114). This different focus comes from the unique nature of advanced-level education. Learning academic writing needs to be understood not merely as learning the conventions and content of the discipline but also as “a socialization

into the communicative values, norms, and processes of the academy" (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 168). Overall, research on academic socialization has been conducted with a longitudinal research design, focusing on literacy practices from writing to oral participation in disciplinary classes (Duff & Kobayashi, 2010; Morita, 2000, 2004; Nelson & Lu, 2008; Vickers, 2007; Zappa-Hollman, 2007). Despite varying focuses, studies on academic literacy acquisition corroborate the claim that learning academic writing, and by extension socializating oneself into the disciplinary communities, in a second language is dynamic and complex (Canagarajah, 2002; Casanave, 2002; Morita, 2000; Morita & Kobayashi, 2008), "multidimensional" (Li, 2005, p. 153), "situated" (Duff, 2007a, p. 1), and "multidirectional" (Duff & Talmy, 2011, p. 98). These scholars would agree that this process is far from a one-way assimilation (Morita, 2004; Prior, 1998; Zamel, 1997), regardless of the terms the scholars use: L2 disciplinary socialization (Morita & Kobayashi, 2008), academic discourse socialization (Duff, 2007a; Morita, 2000), disciplinary enculturation (Canagarajah, 2002; Li, 2005), the development of academic literacies (Street, 1996), participation in CoPs (Lave & Wenger, 1991), or academic enculturation (Casanave, 2002).

Upon receiving feedback that conflicts with their established writing practices, writers have to make some sort of choice. In other words, they need to negotiate and make a decision. Even when they accept advice from others, they have agency because they decide to integrate the others' voice into their writing (Prior, 1998). The appreciation of L2 writers as individuals in specific contexts provides strong support for the use of a qualitative approach. More specifically, a case study approach allows me to capture this contextualized nature of multilingual writers' revision practices. In the current study, in which comparing the effectiveness of feedback itself on linguistic accuracy is not a main concern, and feedback is viewed as "multidimensional social

acts" (Sperling, 1994, p. 202) tied to particular contexts, in-depth naturalistic inquiry is undoubtedly suitable to answering the research questions. Another rationale for a case study approach that elicits both professors' and students' voices comes from two critical features of feedback: the reciprocal relationship between teachers and students, and the dialogic nature of feedback practices. If studies intend to focus on the interactive dimension of feedback practices but focus on only one aspect of a reciprocal relationship, the resulting understanding of a phenomenon under consideration could be limited (Lee & Schallert, 2008b). Furthermore, the dialogic and situated nature of feedback (Tardy, 2006), which will be discussed in Chapter 2, also led me to employ a qualitative case study approach to answer the research questions of this dissertation.

Many studies on disciplinary enculturation in higher education have explored the issue of multilingual writers' literacy practices in general, rather than with a specific focus on feedback practices in the enculturation process. Particularly, little research delves into the integration of multiple sources of feedback doctoral students are involved in with an in-depth qualitative approach. Thus, this is clearly where further research is needed to fully understand how multilingual doctoral students with diverse backgrounds negotiate the network of feedback in the process of learning academic writing in the disciplines.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this case study is to better understand what multilingual graduate students do when they respond to both formal and informal sources of feedback on particular pieces of writing in an interdisciplinary doctoral program in the U.S. In turn, this study is expected to provide a more nuanced picture of the process through which students learn academic writing and the ways in which they manage the challenges of writing papers at the doctoral level. Informed by the notion of situated learning in Lave and Wenger (1991), this study

views learning as an academic socialization process that involves participation on the part of learners (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Morita, 2004; Nelson & Lu, 2008). This perception leads me to investigate factors beyond academic texts such as writers' experiences and interactions with others, instead of focusing exclusively on the texts and written feedback from teachers. In turn, this theoretical underpinning determines the highly-contextualized nature of this case study, among other aspects.

Graduate students acquire academic discourse as they are immersed in literacy practices in an academic community and interact with members of that community (Casanave, 2002; Duff, 2007a; Morita, 2000; Morita & Kobayashi, 2008). As Duff (2007b) explained, language socialization is "the process by which novices or newcomers in a community or culture gain communicative competence, membership, and legitimacy in the group" (p. 310). In second language socialization, "added complexity" (Duff, 2007b, p. 310) is presented to second language learners because they already have their ingrained methods of writing and reading from previous educational experiences. Multilingual writers' academic experiences are colored by struggles and successes as they engage in academic writing demands. There seems to be agreement that feedback is essential to "students' growing control over writing skills" (Hyland & Hyland, 2006a, p. 2). But a simple appreciation of feedback in academic writing is not sufficient for a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between feedback and acquisition of academic literacies.

Getting feedback and shaping their drafts subsequently is one of the most noticeable literacy practices multilingual learners perform when writing at the doctoral level. Feedback can be understood as active interaction between student writers and the teacher, who is a member of the academic community students try to belong to (Casanave, 2002). In addition, the whole

feedback and revision cycle is dynamic (Lee & Schallert, 2008a; Murphy, 2000). This perception of feedback clearly departs from the perspective that considers feedback as a way for teachers to transmit their established knowledge to students. This is particularly important considering that graduate learning is interactive in nature (Buell & Park, 2008; Casanave, 2002; Prior, 1998).

In brief, this dissertation aims to improve scholarly understandings of graduate feedback practices, thereby exploring how graduate students develop their academic writing abilities. Student writers' negotiation practices in responding to feedback can be seen as manifestations of the academic socialization process through which they learn to read, write, think, and behave as members of the academic community they seek to join. Having said that, the research questions that guided this study are:

(1) What feedback do multilingual doctoral students receive on writing in and beyond classrooms, and how do they perceive the feedback?

(2) How do multilingual doctoral students negotiate multiple sources of feedback?

(3) In what ways have multilingual doctoral students perceived they have transformed in their academic socialization?

(a) How did the perception of their academic writing develop?

(b) How did the perception of their writing strategies develop?

(c) How did the perception of their behaviors and attitudes develop?

(d) How did the perception of their engagement with knowledge and academic expectations develop?

(e) How did the perception of their research agenda develop?

To address the contextualized nature of this project, a case study approach (Yin, 2009) was employed. This approach involved the coded content analysis of interviews with students and

their professors, drafts with written feedback, and observations of literacy practices in doctoral courses embedded in a Composition and TESOL program at a graduate school in the Mid-Atlantic region. It is necessary to present the rationale behind the decision to choose this program for this research and also to establish how findings of my study will be potentially applicable to contexts beyond the research site. The Composition and TESOL doctoral program was chosen as a research site for this study, not only because I was interested in this discipline, but also because the field of TESOL itself is an exemplary case of multilingual writers involved in academic writing across various disciplines due to its interdisciplinary nature. It is a good example for the social sciences because it draws from humanities, psychology, linguistic anthropology, and sociology. Particularly, the chosen research site for this study is interdisciplinary in that the fields of applied linguistics, composition, and TESOL coexist and further intermingle in teaching practices and course offerings. Students of this program can get feedback not only from applied linguists, compositionists, and TESOL specialists, but also from peers and colleagues with different interests and expertise. Thus, the insights from this case study are not limited to TESOL students but can expand our understanding of multilingual academic writing at the doctoral level beyond this scope.

Research Paradigm

Because researchers' epistemological perspectives filter through aspects of their research studies from research topics to research methods, it is important to position myself as a researcher epistemologically. A piece of research is an outward façade of a researcher's search for truth, although what truth is and how to approach it means different things to different people. I agree with the idea that diversity as well as situated and contingent truth should be honored and represented faithfully in research studies (Clarke, 2005; Creswell, 2007; Golafshani, 2003). This mission is possible when scholars conduct research from the social constructionist perspective in

which knowledge is believed to be constructed socially. A wide range of factors, from conspicuous ones to hidden, silenced, and not-yet identified ones, come into play in a particular phenomenon in the real world. The social constructionist perspective is reflected in aspects of this dissertation ranging from the view of writing as relative to a process shaped by the writer's beliefs and the expectations within social contexts to methodological decisions that will be discussed in Chapter 3. Specifically, Creswell's (2007) metaphorical description of qualitative research as "an intricate fabric composed of minute threads, many colors, different textures, and various blends of material" (p. 35) evokes the wide range of insights qualitative inquiry can achieve. That is, the purpose of a qualitative research study would not be to find one universally right way to see the world, but rather to construct "situated knowledges" (Clarke, 2005, p. 22) about different participants with different perspectives in different situations.

Theoretical Frameworks

Ways of viewing academic literacies in this dissertation are based on the New Literacy Studies movement, which characterizes literacy in terms of social practice (Barton & Hamilton, 2000; Gee, 1996; Street, 1993, 2006), situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991), and second language socialization (Duff, 1996, 2003; Duff & Talmy, 2011; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). Acquiring academic writing is more than simply learning and mastering formal writing skills; it also involves the students' process of socializing themselves into academic communities (Canagarajah, 2002; Casanave, 1995, 2002; Dong, 1998; Leki, 2006; Morita, 2004; Spack, 1997). In an academic socialization framework, learning is seen as "developing the capability to participate in new discourse communities as a result of social interaction and cognitive experience" (Duff, 2007a, p. 4). Moreover, multilingual doctoral students are posited as being simultaneously situated in multiple CoPs (Lave & Wenger, 1991), which are not restricted by physical boundaries and can be manifested in any type of community that has its own specific

ways of using writing and reading in its particular contexts. Hence, particular disciplines, the field of TESOL, a graduate school, a disciplinary course, an online chatting group with shared purposes, and a study group that students organize for themselves are all types of CoPs. Additionally, Thaiss and Zawacki (2006) view the discipline "not only as a system of terms, texts, expectations, and procedures, but also as a dynamic realm that can accommodate and nurture different personalities and visions" (p. 160). Therefore, disciplines are understood in this dissertation as spaces which are not static and can embrace alternatives that teachers and students choose to use with passion.

Doctoral courses, which this research investigated, are seen as CoPs because students in each class share the ways they engage with writing and reading in that particular context. Students can access particular ways of writing and thinking in academic communities through interacting with the various forms of feedback provided by members of the communities to which they belong. These members include professors or tutors. Social views of literacy and academic socialization can be interwoven seamlessly with this study's method of interpreting feedback in academic settings. That is, multilingual graduate students who participate in academic literacy practices are gradually socialized into the CoPs, from peripheral toward fuller membership (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), partly through "variable amounts and uptake of modeling and feedback" (Duff, 2007a, p. 1).

In summary, drawing from the theoretical frameworks mentioned, when multilingual graduate students start their academic lives in schools in which English, a second language to them, is required to function inside and outside of classes, it means that the students are involved in learning a whole new "identity kit" (Gee, 2006, p. 29), one aspect of which is getting feedback through interaction with peers and professors as members of the specific community. By getting

feedback, they can gradually attain a sense of what it is like to write academically in a given setting, and, by revising based on multiple sources of feedback, they are gradually initiated into the relevant CoPs. Thus, by saying that this study investigates students' responses to feedback in doctoral courses, I mean that this research deals with the responses of individual agentive learners to feedback, which is dialogic interaction, in a graduate class as a particular CoP with shared values and practices among members. Therefore, exploration of the research questions of this dissertation is expected to make meaningful connections between studies on feedback and academic socialization in a second language.

Significance of the Study

The rationale for this research stems from the researcher's hope of finding more effective ways to help multilingual students in American institutions of higher education with academic writing. An enhanced understanding of multilingual students' writing process and strategies enacted upon receiving various comments on their academic writing can be of great help to both multilingual writers and educators who have multilingual students in their classes. In particular, the current research can contribute to the field in several respects. First of all, this project is significant because it seems that the investigative gaze in most of the studies mentioned in the previous section is restricted to one source of feedback, such as teacher written feedback in the classroom. Unlike such studies, feedback in this study also includes various forms of advice that can influence an understanding of a task and discipline-specific knowledge as well as linguistic accuracy. Expanding the scope of inquiry is also attributable to the reconceptualization of feedback. Feedback in this dissertation is seen not only as a pedagogical genre but also as a type of dynamic interaction between teacher and student through which students can learn appropriate ways to write in academic settings, as discussed in the previous section. As Hyland (2008) recognized, interactions regarding writing that occur beyond the classroom have been largely

neglected, and their potential to influence writing strategies needs to be explored as well. Braxley (2005) also provides evidence for the importance of interactions revolving around written work. She found that one of the common characteristics of successful graduate students was their active efforts to seek opportunities to interact with peers, writing center tutors, and their professors in order to obtain additional feedback to supplement formal written feedback from teachers. In fact, Seror (2011) provided empirical evidence for ESL undergraduate students' positive perceptions of "alternative sources of feedback," such as friends, roommates, or writing center tutors and their usefulness as "crucial resources for students who used them to compensate for what was often perceived as less than ideal feedback from content instructors" (p. 125).

Given that academic communities are local and interactive (Casanave, 1995, 2002), conversations with others are meaningful in becoming a member of a particular community. Moreover, while a large amount of research on L2 feedback examines types of feedback and their effectiveness on linguistic accuracy, second language writers' appropriation of feedback has not received deserved attention (Tardy, 2006). As I realized the importance of interactions and multiple sources of feedback, I was compelled to extend the scope of inquiry to include several sources of feedback across the academic setting, both inside and outside the classroom. In addition, this study explores both informal and formal modes of feedback, particularly those types that are not usually recognized as such, including informal comments from peers, anecdotes from peers who have experienced the task, or even rumors about a professor and his/her writing assignments, let alone emails written to ask questions or express concerns about an assignment. Thus, the present study is important in that it explores how multilingual writers interact with a specific text through revision shaped by different sources of feedback, which are not restricted to teachers' voices. Although examining a one-on-one relationship between student

revision and teacher feedback can tell us what is going on in academic socialization, it only tells us part of the story. This is because individual writers' decisions in writing may be shaped by all the information they have received regarding the piece they are working on at the moment. Because the view through one source of information alone can be incomplete, I aim to illustrate a multilayered approach in this dissertation. To address this limitation in the existing body of knowledge, this dissertation places primary emphasis on how multiple sources of feedback are negotiated in this process.

Second, much is yet to be known about academic socialization with a specific focus on feedback practices on writing at the graduate level. Graduate feedback studies (Belcher, 1994; Castello et al., 2013; Hirvela & Yi, 2008; Kumar & Stracke, 2007; Ohashi, Ohashi, & Paltridge, 2008) tend to deal with feedback and mentoring relationship in dissertation writing rather than the initial years of doctoral studies in classrooms. The studies on graduate feedback embedded in doctoral classrooms that are relevant to the current research will be detailed in Chapter 2. Among the few qualitative case studies of multilingual writers' feedback practices, Hyland (1998, 2003) examined ESL writers' responses to teacher feedback, using teacher think aloud protocols, interviews, and student drafts. Fiona Hyland (2003) acknowledged that explorations of how individual writers use their feedback are needed in order to get a richer picture of the ways in which they actively use feedback in their language learning process. Hyland's (1998, 2003) case studies of ESL writers inform the current dissertation in that they specifically explore students' responses to teacher feedback and the subsequent revisions. Unlike Hyland, however, this dissertation looks specifically at graduate writing and therefore may paint a different picture than feedback studies on ESL writers in general. Graduate writing in classrooms is unique in nature in that classroom writing at advanced levels is "genred writing" that is "guided and evaluated by

certain disciplinary expectations" (Tardy, 2009, p. 48). This unique nature of writing at an advanced level of education points to a pressing need for more research on graduate literacies.

In sum, there has been a large body of research in the fields of second language writing and second language acquisition on specific types of feedback and their effectiveness on particular linguistic aspects, how one-on-one relationships between teachers and students affect student writing, and second language socialization dealing with literacy practices in general. However, relatively few studies have addressed how multilingual writers cope with feedback on graduate writing, including situations in which they receive little or no feedback from professors, and tried to make specific connections between feedback practices and academic socialization in a second language. Additionally, the current research is significant in part because it is different from the L2 feedback studies reviewed earlier, which mainly pay attention to feedback as a pedagogical genre rather than as a socially situated literacy practice that is essential to the process of academic socialization in a second language.

Ultimately, this study will benefit multilingual students in the U.S. by helping professors and teachers to better understand what they do with various forms of feedback they receive, thus enabling the teachers to give better advice on writing. Viewing feedback and revision practices not only as related to the language learning process but also as manifestations of the academic socialization process and acknowledging that these two aspects are intertwined will better equip professors to teach multilingual students. Specifically, professors will be able to provide more suitable feedback and information about the resources available to facilitate multilingual writers' successful enculturation when they situate writing assignments and design courses. If the workings and benefits of multiple sources of feedback are properly investigated, educators can think about how they can create a framework within which students can benefit from feedback

and supportive environments in which students interact with members of the academic community. By consciously reflecting on their own methods of responding to feedback, multilingual writers themselves will be able to develop a repertoire of useful strategies that will enable them to meet the demands of each newly-presented writing task in their academic careers. Writing center tutors will also gain a greater understanding of how multilingual writers can be different from students who speak English as their first language and how they can address those differences in their tutoring sessions. Simply put, educators in academic communities and multilingual students will better understand the challenges students may encounter at the doctoral level and how the academic communities can address these students' needs appropriately.

Outline of the Dissertation

In Chapter 2, I firstly delineate theoretical frameworks that frame this project and provide lenses through which the research questions are explored: situated learning and second language socialization. Then, I review the existing research that is relevant to the current dissertation to situate this work within the disciplinary context: studies on L2 feedback in general and then those that focus specifically on graduate literacies. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology used, from an overall design to data collection methods, and the rationale for each decision about the research design, along with detailed information about the participants, the contexts of the study, and how data was analyzed. Chapters 4 and 5 encapsulate the results by presenting the coded content analysis of the data and narrative reports of emerging themes. Chapter 6 discusses the meanings and implications of the findings and pedagogical recommendations, followed by the limitations of this research. To conclude this dissertation, I make recommendations for further research needed to advance the field.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS AND SITUATING THE STUDY

Overview of the Chapter

This chapter situates the current research in a broader context by describing what we know and what is yet to be known about academic literacies and L2 feedback. For this purpose, it first elaborates on theoretical frameworks to present the lenses through which I analyze my data: the second language socialization approach and the notion of legitimate peripheral participation. Second, previous studies on L2 feedback and academic writing in higher education are outlined. In this portion, I discuss what it means to be a multilingual writer responding to feedback and how multilinguals negotiate the rich information they obtain from feedback. Third, feedback is operationalized for this study by reconceptualizing feedback as a situated social practice and a form of academic socialization. The process of operationalizing feedback includes the issue of writers' negotiation and agency. Finally, this chapter concludes by summarizing propositions shaped by the conceptual frameworks and assumptions addressed in the chapter.

Academic Writing Development in a Second Language

The academic socialization process that graduate students go through involves writing papers, getting feedback, and revising pieces. The feedback component, in turn, encompasses many sources of information, such as comments on particular works from professors, comments students received on other assignments in the past from those professors, and casual conversations with professors and peers.

Socialization into Academic Communities

Originally, language socialization, one of the alternative perspectives to second language acquisition, is rooted in various disciplines such as linguistic anthropology (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986), sociology (Bourdieu, 1977), cultural psychology (Lave & Wenger, 1991), and

sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978). Language socialization refers to the process through which newcomers in a community become competent communicatively and gain membership and legitimacy in the community with the aid of more proficient members or experts. Therefore, social interactions during sociolinguistic routines is at the center of this framework. The scholars from this camp tend to focus more on contexts in which a language is learned and on culture, social knowledge and ideologies that are "learned in and through language" (Duff & Talmy, 2011, p. 95), than acquisition of discrete linguistic items.

Unlike L1 socialization, L2 socialization deals with "the manifold complexities of children or adults with already developed repertoires of linguistic discursive, and cultural practices as they encounter new ones" (Duff & Talmy, 2011, p. 97). In this process, social interactions with members of a community do not merely enable learners to gain linguistic knowledge but also mediate the learners' other forms of knowledge derived from values, literacy practices, and ideologies embedded in the community. Duff (2007a) legitimately recognized that this process features "variable amounts and uptake of modeling and feedback, variable levels of investment and agency on the part of learners" (p. 1). I want to immediately add a caveat: learners' agency and investment, as Duff (2007a, b) explained, need to be considered seriously when understanding a socialization process, and it is significant to keep in mind that varying outcomes result from this process. It might result in hybrid practices and identities at the same time. "The incomplete or partial appropriation of the L2" (Duff, 2007b, p. 311) is another result. This hybridity and partiality can prevent us from falling into the inappropriate tendency to assume that the intended outcome of L2 students' adaptation processes is the exact reproduction of dominant literacies. This tendency would eventually force the students to mold themselves toward the dominant literacies as a reference point.

However, despite the explanatory power of this framework, there have been critiques of the earlier language socialization research, as Duff and Talmy (2011) reported. Research on this tradition was predominantly about young children and socialization through face-to-face interaction, among other cases, in homogeneous and monolingual contexts. This orientation not only obscures the "contested and contingent character of socializing processes" (Duff & Talmy, 2011, p. 100) but also causes their "multidirectionality" (Duff & Talmy, 2011, p. 101) to remain unnoticed. Furthermore, the discursive construction of newcomers is such that they are implied to have little to no agency as they simply go through a one-way assimilation into a community that is not changing, and the process has been misleadingly characterized as smooth.

In reflecting on the limitations of the academic socialization approach, it is vital to include a discussion of Lea and Street's (2006) academic literacies model, which expands the scope of inquiry to insights into graduate students' acquisition of academic literacies; more precisely, the supporters of this approach take a critical look at the process of academic socialization. From an academic literacies perspective which stems from the New Literacy Studies, reading and writing are viewed as "social practices, that vary with context, culture and genre" and, more importantly, involve "epistemology and identities rather than skill acquisition or academic socialization alone" (Lea & Street, 2006, p. 227). Building upon an academic socialization approach, the academic literacies model takes a step further to raise awareness of the fact that the socialization process also involves epistemology and identities under unequal power relations and the cultures of diverse communities. However, as Hyland (2006) explained, it is worth noting that these two models "are not mutually exclusive" (p. 119), but the academic literacies model adds critical insights to the understanding developed in the academic socialization approach. Therefore, our understanding of multilingual writers' negotiation of

multiple sources of feedback in this dissertation can indeed be refined by taking insights from both the academic socialization and the academic literacies approaches. In short, following the theoretical assumptions discussed so far, this dissertation regards feedback on academic writing as one of the routine social interactions and literacy practices through which new members can gain greater communicative competence in an academic CoP, and a graduate classroom as a CoP.

Communities of Practice and Legitimate Peripheral Participation

Shifting attention from viewing language learning as a solely individual and cognitive endeavor to one that also involves individuals within CoPs of many kinds, academic writing scholars have come to be concerned about the nature of learning and the appropriation of literacy practices in a specific community. They found it useful to draw on Lave and Wenger's (1991) formulation of situated learning and legitimate peripheral participation in CoPs. Participation, which is integral to the second language socialization perspective and second language acquisition, can be better understood within this perspective. However, as Duff and Talmy (2011) stated, language socialization goes beyond the issue of "access and participation", because it also entails "the social, cultural, pragmatic, and other meanings that come bundled with language and various interactional routines and activities" (p. 105). In this dissertation, these frameworks are integrated into the process of interpreting multilingual writers' literacy trajectories through their performance of the target writing.

In the communities-of-practice framework, "learning is doing (practice), …belonging (community), …becoming (identity), …[and] experience (meaning)" (Duff & Kobayashi, 2010, p. 92); it means much more than simply learning knowledge transmitted by the teacher in classrooms. Lave and Wenger (1991) define learning as "legitimate peripheral participation in communities of practice" (p. 31), which means that "learners inevitably participate in communities of practitioners and that the mastery of knowledge and skill requires newcomers to

move toward full participation in the sociocultural practices of a community" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29). Another concept in Wenger's (1998) framework that is relevant to this dissertation is that individuals can belong to multiple CoPs at once. Belonging to multiple CoPs means that students have more chances to engage in academic interactions with various members of different communities. Accepting this possibility grants researchers promising chances of better understanding the complexities and intricacies of students' growing participation patterns. This is essential in order to explore how multilingual students negotiate many voices.

With these advantages of using the communities-of-practice framework in mind, it is also worth discussing critiques of this perspective that have emerged in the field (Barton & Hamilton, 2005; Duff, 2007b; Fujioka, 2008; Haneda, 2006; Morita, 2004). For instance, Haneda (2006) aptly pointed out that the conception of a community in this perspective misleadingly implies that communities are both "relatively problem-free" (p. 811) and homogeneous. The fact that the CoP framework does not put enough emphasis on existing power imbalances and possible conflicts in a community in the analysis (Barton & Hamilton, 2005) can undermine its argument when real-world communities are under investigation. The social world is far from a homogeneous CoP. Fujioka (2008) illustrated in her telling example of a dissertation CoP that a power imbalance may exist in the relationship between a dissertation advisor and a dissertation writer and that it is difficult to plainly distinguish an expert from a newcomer in this case. The reason why dissertation writers may not be easily considered as total newcomers derives in part from the fact that they have a relatively large amount of content knowledge regarding their topics from their coursework and academic activities, while an advisor might not have as much knowledge on a specific topic as the advisee does, as in the case of Fujioka (2008). But it cannot be said that the advisor is not an expert, taking their extended academic experiences in the field

into account. It may be problematic to make a clear distinction between a newcomer and an expert in this particular case, as Fujioka (2008) explained. Thus, this dissertation takes the contested nature of communities seriously in analysis.

On the basis of the conceptual frameworks discussed so far, each of the doctoral classes in which the participants of this dissertation were enrolled is considered a CoP, and the participants were envisioned as newcomers who tried to learn through growing participation in the CoP. In the next section, I describe the relevant research on academic writing in a second language in higher education in the U.S., some of which draws simultaneously from New Literacy Studies, second language socialization, and CoP frameworks, and some of which is essentially rooted in just one of the preceding frameworks.

The Unique Nature of Academic Writing in Higher Education

With the appreciation of the tremendous variations across disciplines and the growing number of multilingual students in higher education, scholars have explored L2 socialization based on diverse key concepts and assumptions. Researchers seek to identify disciplinary conventions related to communicative purposes defined by specific discourse communities mainly through genre-based research (Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2004; Swales, 1990; Tardy, 2009). This perspective greatly affects material development and pedagogy, which is relevant to advanced academic writing and actually plays a valuable role in teaching academic writing. A relatively large body of research has explored the academic discourse socialization of L2 students in university settings (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995; Casanave, 1995; Duff & Kobayashi, 2010; Leki, 1995; Morita, 2000, 2004; Prior, 1995, 1998; Riazi, 1997; Spack, 1997). This line of research is usually conducted with longitudinal designs, using ethnographic observations, interviews with students and teachers, recorded interactions in natural settings and collecting written artifacts such as reflective journals and student texts written for class. This

body of research provides empirical evidence that academic socialization goes beyond the simple acquisition of a set of academic skills. Rather, it is a complex and situated process that involves constant negotiation of expertise, identity, culture, and power relations.

Specifically, scholars have used qualitative designs to explore multilingual graduate students' academic writing development in English-speaking countries, though they employ various terms to refer to this primary phenomenon. These research studies focus on topics such as adaptation to the requirements of written discourse in the disciplines (Angelova & Riazantseva, 1999), how multilingual graduate and undergraduate students expand genre repertoires (Leki, 2011), how multilingual doctoral students "resist, challenge, and create hybrid forms of literacy practices" in both spoken and written texts (Seloni, 2008, p. 63), discourse socialization across post-secondary contexts (Zappa-Hollman, 2007), a Chinese doctoral student's academic socialization as reflected in his negotiations with posting online and speaking in class (Nelson & Lu, 2008), building genre knowledge (Tardy, 2009), and disciplinary enculturation focusing on the relationship between linguistic competence and participation in disciplines (Chang & Kanno, 2010). In particular, studies on doctoral writing (Belcher, 1994; Belcher & Hirvela, 2005; Bitchener, Basturkmen & East, 2010; Casanave, 2010; Fujioka, 2008; Hirvela & Yi, 2008; Li & Flowerdew, 2008; Ohashi, Ohashi, & Paltridge, 2008; Paltridge, 2002) tend to focus more on dissertation writing processes and advisor-advisee interactions than writing situated in classroom frameworks, which is the center of the current research.

As Tardy (2009) points out, classroom writing at advanced levels involves "genred writing," and classrooms can be characterized as "important sites of knowledge building, as it is here that students encounter guidelines, feedback, models, and samples that feed into their developing understanding of writing in general and of genres in particular" (p. 48). As early as

1995, in a study of writing and response in graduate seminars, Prior (1995) explored the complex and situated nature of academic literacy in higher education in the U.S. Along with the landmark acknowledgement of the situatedness of academic literacy, Prior (1995) convincingly argued that writing tasks are not fixed but rather constantly negotiated throughout the semester by students and the professor. Also, students' responses to professors' feedback were shaped by contextual factors, although Prior's focus was more on task representations than feedback practices. While Prior's (1995) exploration advances our understanding of the contextual nature of student reactions to the professor's feedback considering contexts, and his legitimate acknowledgement of the need for ethnographic inquiry is valuable, it is limited in the sense that it takes only the professor's response into account.

Beyond recognizing the complex nature of academic socialization, researchers started to notice that multiple agents play roles in socialization processes. With a close look at a particular academic activity, an academic presentation, Duff and Kobayashi (2010) uncovered the iterative and longitudinal nature of the language socialization process, and they emphasized that the participants were socialized into the academic community by the experienced members of the community, the teacher, and peers, instead of by the teacher alone. This research effectively illustrated how the L2 socialization framework applies to investigating the ways in which L2 students learn an academic discourse in a given setting. It examined how eleven exchange students performed a group academic presentation in Canada. The participants had been exposed to model presentations demonstrated in pre-departure orientations by the students who had experienced the exchange program in the past. Then in class, the teacher and the teaching assistant gave model presentations in front of the participants, along with providing course outlines, coaching, and feedback. Additionally, in the process of preparing for a group

presentation, the members of a group supported one another and shared and negotiated their different experiences, interpretations of a task, strategies of performing a PowerPoint presentation, and language uses in the slides. In their analysis, Duff and Kobayashi (2010) drew upon sociocultural theory and Wenger's (1998) notion of situated learning. Here, learning is not merely about perceiving and restructuring new linguistic knowledge. Rather, it also entails social and personal aspects.

Although this study could have paid more attention to individual participants' agentive processes of negotiating the demands of academic work, it is quite relevant to the current dissertation to see how the researchers organically interwove theories of L2 socialization and concrete instances of the phenomenon in their analysis. Their focus was on "the 'life cycle' of one…project, and its organic in-class and out-of-class development" (Duff & Kobayashi, 2010, p. 81). Because their explorations of specific, practical cases of interactional processes and socialization outcomes considered learning as belonging and becoming, they added an extra layer to understanding the acquisition of academic discourse. Utilizing this line of reasoning as an analytical tool, the current dissertation aims to further contribute to existing knowledge by first diverting the focus to concrete instances of getting feedback from several sources on one discipline-specific writing task and second to the negotiations individual writers conduct during their revision processes.

At this point, considering the method of data analysis employed in this dissertation, it is quite relevant to see how writing specifically facilitates socialization. Through interviewing ten students enrolled in a biology writing lab at a university in the U.S., Carter, Ferzli, and Wiebe (2007) identified six ways in which disciplinary writing facilitates socialization into academic communities by looking closely at students' reports. This study is in a somewhat different vein

from this dissertation in that the researchers did not limit their participants to L2 students, nor did they look specifically into feedback practices. Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that the researchers recognized and delved into the relationship between disciplinary writing and socialization into the discipline through the lens of legitimate peripheral participation.

For instance, Carter, Ferzli, and Wiebe (2007) viewed the genre of the lab report as "a legitimate apprenticeship genre" (p. 294). While this genre is not exactly one which full members in the science community perform, it noticeably mirrors the structure of professional genres such as research proposals and conference papers, and the scientific way of knowing is embedded in the genre. The authors suggest that writing apprenticeship genres carrying legitimacy in the discipline can have a significant effect on socialization into academic communities.

Subsequently, Carter et al. (2007) investigated precisely how composing in a legitimate apprenticeship genre facilitated students' socialization into the scientific community. One of the answers was that the lab report helped the students to be exposed to the way of thinking and the structures of professional genres in the community. Significantly, the second possible answer was that, when these students were asked to write as full members in the community do, it had some bearing not only on the writing itself but also on their behaviors. To be precise, they behaved more as scientists than as students in the lab. Therefore, the researchers assumed that genres which ensure legitimate participation in other fields, even if it is peripheral, promote socialization into the academic community to which they seek to belong.

Carter et al.'s (2007) research contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of how disciplinary writing affects the socialization process and positively informs the current dissertation in this regard. Nonetheless, it raises some doubts about whether this is true of

multilingual graduate students as well. Had this study focused on multilingual graduate students, it might have yielded a much more complex picture of the relationship between writing and socialization because developing writing ability in English may be "more challenging" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 40) for multilingual students than for English-speaking students. A reasonable amount of research reveals that second language socialization processes are complex (Morita, 2000), "multidimensional" (Li, 2005, p. 153), "situated" (Duff 2007a, p. 1), and "multidirectional" (Duff, 2007b, p. 311), as mentioned earlier. Also an image of a smooth or one-way assimilation which Carter et al. (2007) might possibly have implied in their discussion is contradicted by evidence in other research (Canagarajah, 2002; Fujioka, 2008; Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008). Canagarajah (2002) maintained that "the academy has to be, and is to some extent, permeable to alternate/oppositional discourses" (p. 174). For instance, using Prior's (1998) work, Canagarajah showed how an advisor and a student "move[d] toward a position that satisfie[d] both of them while leaving their original positions slightly altered" (p. 175) through constant negotiation. What should be noted here is that "both" the advisor, presumably a full member of the academic community, and the student, a newcomer in the community, get their positions "slightly altered" (p. 175) as a result of the negotiation. For example, when doctoral students try to find dissertation topics, they will almost certainly want to pursue a topic of their own interest, which may come from their personal histories and established literacies. But when they consider the topics with the advisors' feedback in mind, the students would likely alter the topics to varying extents in order to find topics that are interesting to both themselves and their advisors. Similarly, the advisor's comments would be shaped by who the student is and what he/she is interested in. Finally, they would reach one that, *both* feel, is worth researching for a dissertation. Negotiation would not lead to simply a replica of established dominant discourses. Canagarajah (2002)

successfully captured this reciprocal relationship of multilingual students and the academy. Noting that students cannot simply throw away literacy practices that worked for them, he claimed that cultural contact under asymmetrical power relationships in the academy enables "minorities [to] adopt many subtle and creative forms of communication to construct their oppositional forms of knowledge and discourses" (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 173).

These possible limitations of Carter et al.'s (2007) research might have arisen because they were more inclined to explore the students' perceptions about how writing is connected to their socialization, rather than what the students really do in the process of writing the lab reports; the researchers' general perceptions of literacy practices were also likely to have had a significant effect. In this sense, the current dissertation is designed to provide a more complete understanding of the writing-socialization relationship by focusing not only on how multilingual graduate writers actually pursue and enact these literacies but also on some of the ways they perceive their own practices.

To sum up, previous research on academic socialization in a second language is mainly concerned about overall literacy practices, rather than specifically focusing on feedback practices, and not much has been done on feedback at doctoral level, particularly the networks of feedback multilinguals develop during the initial years of their doctoral studies. This dissertation aims to fill this gap in the existing knowledge based on the reconceptualization of feedback.

Feedback

This section addresses what has been known about L2 feedback in general, followed by feedback specifically at the graduate level.

Feedback in Second Language Writing

Narrowing down our attention from academic writing in general to feedback in L2 writing, it is important to review previous studies on L2 feedback in order to situate the current

dissertation within the disciplinary context. The importance of feedback to students is well documented (e.g., Benesch, 2000; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Ivanič, 1998). Particularly, a relatively large body of literature deals with feedback in L2 writing; specific topics addressed in this content area range from written corrective feedback to oral feedback in the classroom or at the writing center. Even before serious research on feedback in writing instruction began, writing teachers had nonetheless been vaguely aware that feedback is part of their job anyway. Considering this appreciation of the importance of feedback and the tremendous amount of time teachers spend providing feedback, it is quite understandable that published research has demonstrated increasing interest in feedback.

Questions that applied linguists and second language writing researchers pursue are mainly concerned with whether some types of feedback are more helpful than others to improve linguistic accuracy and, if so, what types of feedback are more effective (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2004, 2006; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Gascoigne, 2004; Hartshorn et al., 2010; Sachs & Polio, 2007; Truscott & Hsu, 2008). There have been second language acquisition studies on feedback by applied linguists which focus on narrowly defined linguistic features such as article systems in English through quantitative research designs (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami & Takashima, 2008; Sheen, 2010). Possible limitations of this line of research also need to be acknowledged to move the knowledge of feedback phenomena forward. For instance, Xu (2009) specifically criticized Bitchener (2008) and Ellis et al.'s (2008) narrow focus on a linguistic aspect, the English article system. This skepticism about the possibility of inappropriately generalizing findings about "specific" linguistic aspects to "overall" linguistics features was grounded in the

realization that most studies (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Ellis et al., 2008) documented the impacts of types of feedback on only *certain* linguistic domains such as the English article system.

Another possible limitation of this line of research comes from the fact that the quantitative-oriented designs that many researchers employ to explore feedback may not be sufficient to fully capture the contextualized nature of feedback and individual differences in student responses. While it is helpful to see the effects different types of feedback have on the use of articles, as Ferris (2010) appropriately pointed out, this line of research might not be enough to address more problematic errors in student writing. L2 students make a wide range of errors in writing, from word order and sentence structure to word choice and collocations, that obscure their intended meaning and cause communication breakdowns. Overall, findings consistent across these studies are that some types of written corrective feedback can be more effective in improving accuracy, especially in terms of certain linguistic features and structures, and written corrective feedback has great potential to facilitate successful language learning. And yet, questions still remain unanswered as to the exact nature of this potential and to what extent it can influence learners' performance. Compared to research on short-term effects of feedback, Bitchener and Ferris (2012) agreed that an important yet not fully answered question remains as to whether the apparent benefits of feedback when revising existing texts will ultimately help L2 writers improve their linguistic accuracy when working on new pieces of writing. This issue requires further investigation since it not only carries implications for one of the major debates in the field but also legitimately illustrates how L2 feedback studies can have real-world applications by helping L2 learners become better writers. Thus, this dissertation attempts to extend the established body of knowledge by broadening the concept of feedback so that we can

better understand the types of feedback student writers actually receive in certain class frameworks and, more importantly, how they are holistically related to academic socialization.

A review of the scholarship on L2 feedback, however, presents mixed findings regarding effective types of feedback, partly due to varying research designs, and partly due to insufficient consideration of the contexts in which teachers provide feedback and learners' developmental stages. In other words, a type of feedback which is found effective in one context might not be as effective as in another context. Recently, Ferris, Liu, Sinha, and Senna (2013), in their qualitative study of Generation 1.5 writers at the university level, found that "background characteristics (especially prior education), current attitudes, confidence or motivation levels, and external factors such as time constraints" (p. 324) can explain the variation across L2 writers regarding how and to what extent written corrective feedback benefits their writing. While some researchers doubt whether variations in contexts actually change the essential nature of the L2 acquisition process (Ellis, 2010; Long, 1998), it seems reasonable to at least argue, as Ellis (2010) reported, that there are factors which affect L2 development, and those factors should be identified to gain more insight into context-sensitive feedback practices.

The realization that local contexts of writing, teachers, and tasks may play certain, even significant, roles in L2 writing (Ortega, 2012) led some researchers to suspect that findings from settings manipulated for quantitative approaches may not be sufficient. In a way, it is not surprising that researchers (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferris, 2010) suggest diversifying research designs since different research questions require different research designs to be answered satisfactorily. This change in trend points to the need to widen the scope of inquiry by examining feedback sources beyond texts and teacher comments. This effort is expected to contribute to capturing the full complexities of learners' revision practices. As researchers shift their attention

to how learners process and engage with the feedback they receive and why they respond the way they do, research methods reflect this change. Naturally, researchers asking different types of research questions employed qualitative research designs in natural settings (e.g., Ferris, 1997; Hyland, 1998, 2003; Lee & Schallert, 2008a, b; Qi & Lapkin, 2001; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010a; Tardy, 2009). To capture learners' thinking, researchers collected data through think-aloud protocols (Hyland, 2003; Hyland & Hyland, 2006b; Qi & Lapkin, 2001), interviews (Hyland, 1998, 2003; Hyland & Hyland, 2006b; Leki, 2006), and recorded pair discussions of feedback provided (Swain & Lapkin, 2002). Beyond establishing that L2 writers respond to feedback differently, this body of research indicates that the ways in which learners engage with feedback depend not only on the types of feedback but also learners' goals, attitudes, values, and beliefs, all of which play critical roles.

In order to make clear the issues that this dissertation addresses, I take an example of Fiona Hyland's (1998) case study. At an English proficiency program at a university, this research examined six ESL writers' responses to one source of feedback: written teacher feedback. This study is significant in that it reveals that students have various ways of reacting to feedback to revise their work. Although this research informs the current study in this regard, it adopts a somewhat different focus than the current dissertation in several aspects: first and foremost, the latter deals with multiple sources of feedback instead of teacher written feedback alone. One major aspect that was not addressed to its fullest in Hyland (1998) yet is addressed thoroughly in this dissertation can be seen in the extent of attention paid to revision. When Hyland (1998) analyzed participants' revision, she reported the percentages of revisions addressing different aspects such as meaning or form-related issues, among other aspects. Interestingly enough, she provided figures for revisions not attributable to teacher written

feedback in parenthesis in her tables as well. It should be noted that the percentage of revisions not tied to teacher feedback was quite high in some cases. For example, in terms of meaning-related issues, Maho, one of the participants, revised 18% based on teacher advice and, as indicated in the parentheses, revised 62% for other unidentified reasons which were not initiated by teacher feedback (Table 9, p. 274). Whereas Hyland (1998) focused on the revision initiated by teacher feedback, my attention was drawn to the question of what initiated the other 62%, which Hyland (1998) put in parenthesis. The belief that this issue merited further consideration to achieve a rich picture of feedback practices led me to investigate all sources of information students receive regarding a written piece.

Another interesting aspect of Hyland's research (1998) is that, Maho, one of the participants, did not use her teacher's advice "when she disagreed with it" (p. 275). She was the one who made a conscious decision to follow or not follow her teacher's advice based on whether she agreed with it, and the decisions regarding revision were based on her past educational experiences, culture, and personal experiences. Different patterns of responses to feedback can be seen in the different ways in which two participants, Samorn and Maho, revised their writing after they received feedback from the teacher. L2 writers do negotiate pieces of feedback they receive against the backdrop of who they are. Hyland (1998) presumed that the differences were attributable to the fact that Maho was a new member in the academic community whereas Samorn had already obtained a graduate-level degree. The researcher, however, did not go beyond guessing and making assumptions when explaining why the participants acted in these ways. The current dissertation attempts to tighten these impressionistic assumptions about multilingual writers' negotiation practices by taking a closer look at the ways

in which teacher feedback interacts with other sources of feedback in student texts and why students respond to feedback in the ways that they do.

While scholarship in the fields of second language acquisition and second language writing has mostly focused on teacher feedback, disciplines such as writing center pedagogy and composition studies have investigated other sources of feedback, such as feedback from tutors at writing centers or interactions at writing conferences. The scholarship on L2 writers in writing centers varies in its focus from one-to-one collaboration in multicultural writing centers (Blalock, 1997) and tutoring ESL writers (Bruce & Rafoth, 2009; Harris & Silva, 1993; Williams, 2004) to interactions at the writing center (Thonus, 2004). What is worth noting is that there has been acceptance of the dialogic nature of writing, the role of oral language in learning writing, and efforts to go beyond grammar issues and delve into how oral feedback in writing conferences addresses global issues in academic writing, including textual structures, or modes of argumentation.

In sum, while there has been a large body of established knowledge in which the effects of various forms of feedback such as written corrective feedback, oral feedback, peer feedback, or tutor feedback at writing centers are considered separately, my primary intention for this dissertation is to illuminate what happens when all of these pieces of information come together. This is what students actually face in the classroom and where the current research aims to contribute to the L2 feedback scholarship.

Feedback on Writing at Advanced Level of Education

More than linguistic accuracy. Feedback in ESL or composition classrooms has received a lot of attention in recent research, as discussed in the previous section, but most of the studies have been conducted at the undergraduate level. Moreover, while graduate-level academic writing has been extensively discussed, much is yet to be known specifically about

graduate feedback practices despite the significance of writing at the graduate level and the critical role of feedback in academic writing development. Graduate feedback may be different from feedback on ESL writing in other contexts because of "asymmetrical relationships among the elements of writer, text, and reader" (Reid, 1994, p. 283) and various attitudes toward content (Leki, 2006). The amount of feedback provided in graduate classes is generally less than undergraduate classrooms, and feedback in language classrooms tends to cover sentence-level issues such as grammar. Considering this observation, it becomes clearer that further research on feedback practices is warranted.

In graduate courses, students are to learn the content knowledge, values, and appropriate ways to express arguments in discipline-specific language (Leki, 2006). Also, unlike personal stories or letters, which are often assigned in ESL classrooms, academic writing is high-stakes in nature; evaluative criteria for writing at advanced levels of education are strictly defined by a professor based on particular expectations of an academic community, and outcomes of writing tasks are not simply reflected in scores or letter grades, but rather have a serious effect on the student's future. Moreover, writers might seldom receive feedback on writing, but they still have to address this challenge (Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008). Student writers have to do something about their writing even when they get almost no feedback. Of course, it cannot be said that ESL classrooms do not have asymmetrical relationships. But it is evident that asymmetrical power relationships between professors and student writers are much more profound in graduate classrooms. For example, professors will eventually become advisors and committee members for learners' theses and, therefore, learners' performance has a direct influence on their abilities to complete their graduate degrees. As I aim to demonstrate, unequal power relations and dynamics in academic communities have a noticeable impact on how students interact with

others through feedback, along with the fact that added complexity may be presented when the students are multilingual. By specifically focusing on writing embedded in doctoral courses, this dissertation is designed to uncover the intricacies of the ways in which multilingual writers learn academic writing.

One of the few studies on L2 graduate students' response to discipline-based feedback is Leki's (2006) work, which drew from interviews with twenty-one L2 graduate students and conducted an analysis of their written texts. She explored how much feedback the writers received on their papers during one semester, how they addressed the feedback provided, and how they perceived the relationship between the professors' feedback and their literacy skills. According to Leki, the number of written comments by category perceptibly indicates that feedback practices in the disciplines are different from the ones in ESL and composition classes. The participants were given 299 pieces of feedback related to language and writing, which amounted to a relatively small portion of the 1,203 total pieces of feedback they received. One of the students said his professor "tended not to give much feedback…and none on language errors" (p. 275). The other commentary categories created by Leki ranged from checks and underlines and professional enculturation to substantive response which included comments asking for elaboration on or clarification of content. Another unexpected observation in this study is the fact that the participants were not usually asked to revise the papers they submitted in class. It is surprising to see that only three participants underwent the process of writing, getting feedback, and revising more than once, given that process approaches involving multiple drafts are widely implemented in ESL and writing classrooms, especially in the U.S. Leki (2006) described this situation as "unfortunate, even illogical, that so much effort on the part of the students and their advisors goes into revising the thesis or dissertation...after years spent not reworking course

papers" (p. 280). She also found that some participants developed strategies to cope with the lack of feedback "such as paying close attention to what feedback there was or comparing the feedback to class notes" (p. 282). From these observations, it becomes apparent that part of graduate students' socialization into an academic community is achieved by developing literacy practices from being engaged in coursework. Furthermore, these practices are often cultivated in order to overcome seemingly adverse circumstances: a relative lack of feedback from professors, implicit expectations in communities, and few opportunities to revise work. Additionally, the characteristics of the L2 graduate writer population include the "disparity" (Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008, p. 42) between their disciplinary knowledge and their language and writing ability in L2. The fact that L2 writers might "apply literate strategies from their native language as they write in English" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 40) adds to the complications of learning disciplinary writing. Considering that some learners are successful despite these unfavorable conditions, exploring all available information as well as teacher commentary, which students get on a particular piece of writing for their disciplines, can undoubtedly further our understanding of multilingual writers' disciplinary enculturation.

In addition to Leki's (2006) study on actual graduate feedback, research on thesis supervisors' perceptions about feedback suggests that supervisors perceive the need to provide thesis writers with written feedback on content such as gaps in theoretical backgrounds and critical synthesis of the established literature. For instance, Bitchener, Basturkmen, and East (2010) conducted research specifically on thesis writing across three disciplines through supervisors' self-reports. Like Leki (2006), the researchers investigated feedback in comprehensive terms since they looked at feedback in relation to not only "linguistic accuracy and appropriateness" but also "content knowledge, genre knowledge, rhetorical structure and

organization, and argument development" (p. 83). In addition, supervisors' awareness of the need for feedback on ways of structuring content and linguistic accuracy was reflected in the self-reported data. The researchers pointed out that at the thesis writing stage, students' learning processes are heavily reliant on feedback. This is a stark contrast to the undergraduate level where explicit instruction plays a central role. The findings from research on the dissertation writing stage do seem to pertain to doctoral studies in general, including the initial years of doctoral studies, which have received relatively little attention in the field of L2 feedback. The current dissertation is designed to provide empirical evidence that this insight is also valid in the coursework stage in a doctoral program.

Feedback as a social practice. More recent studies on graduate feedback (e.g., Castello et al., 2013; Kumar & Stracke, 2007) reveal the social nature of feedback and its critical role in developing a social identity as a member of graduate communities. As an example, Castello et al. (2013) conducted a study of Ph.D. students' research writing through an interpretive lens that emphasized the socially situated nature of writing regulation. Five second- and third-year doctoral students participated in this study. Over three months, the researchers collected drafts of their research articles, written feedback from peers and tutors, and students' diaries. The researchers also interviewed the students at the end of the data collection period. The data was collected within a seminar framework that was provided as scaffolding to support the students' research writing for publication. Although the feedback here was limited to written feedback and oral interactions in class, the researchers pointed out two effective ways to handle contradictions that students faced in the process of writing were "to redefine the output and consider the text as a tool to think" (p. 443). Among the factors which brought about this change in conceptualization was feedback from peers and tutors, although the authors did not particularly

highlight this. Still, the fact that they did not cover interactions that occurred outside of class that might have affected the writing practices shows how the present dissertation can contribute to knowledge about graduate feedback.

When diverting our attention from the effectiveness of specific feedback to writers who work on a piece of writing for a particular purpose, it appears that each line of feedback is woven into every step of revision, and all the feedback information comes into play together in writing the piece. The bulk of research has focused on one source of feedback while paying little attention to individual writers and particular contexts. Thus, it seems that the research mentioned previously tried to separate aspects of revision which are inextricably woven together. In making this observation, I do not mean to suggest that I do not appreciate the contributions of the previous research on effectiveness of feedback—rather, I intend to stress that doing more contextualized analysis and extended reflection can lead to fuller accounts of situated revision practices. Achieving a full picture of what feedback means over several sources and from different people is the purpose of this research.

Reconceptualization of Feedback

The present research puts together multiple sources of feedback on a piece of writing, writers' juggling of the information and demands depending on contexts, and the relationship of revision practices and the socialization process. In order to do this, it is necessary to reconceptualize feedback.

Reciprocal Relationship at the Center

Drawing upon the earlier discussion of the conceptual frameworks, it is useful to bring situated learning, second language socialization, and the concept of appropriation to our understanding of feedback. An expanded perspective that takes into account the situated and

interactive nature of literacy practices is particularly relevant to exploring the research questions of the current dissertation. In revising a piece, multilingual students learn how to write as they appropriate comments from writing teachers, content teachers, tutors at the writing center, or peers. It is this reciprocal relationship between teacher and student that provides support for exploring learners' processes of negotiating comments as well as the effectiveness of feedback. Examining one aspect of a reciprocal relationship without scrutinizing the other is bound to yield a limited understanding of a phenomenon (Lee & Schallert, 2008b; Murphy, 2000). From a sociocultural perspective, Lee and Schallert (2008b) recognized the reciprocal relationship between teacher and student in the revision process and made a detailed statement that investigating only teachers' responses on student writing and not seriously considering student reactions to teacher comments and their comprehension of the feedback will result in incomplete depictions of the feedback phenomenon. Thus, the current dissertation brings the reciprocal relationship between the feedback provider and the writer into sharper focus to address this problem, with the writers' negotiation at the center of the exploration.

Texts as Interwoven Voices

To better understand feedback, it is critical to see how Tardy (2006) describes students' cyclical processes of revising in response to feedback. Tardy reviewed notions of appropriation and feedback by drawing from her case study which explored how teachers and multilingual graduate students may appropriate one another's texts. In this work, feedback and revision practices are seen as "the interactions of learner and teacher voices in student writing" (p. 60), and she recognized the dialogic nature of appropriation in revision. Texts themselves, as the product of student writing, revision, and feedback, exist as "interwoven voices and discourses" (Tardy, 2006, p. 62) in that writers respond to previous utterances and draw responses from others, as Bakhtin (1986) suggested in his theory of language as dialogic. Along this line, Tardy

(2006) conceptualized feedback on writing as "a part of writers' intertextual and 'intermental' (Ivanič, 1998) encounters, having the power to shape—and be shaped by—writers in unique ways" (p. 63). Building upon this argument, this dissertation is designed to create knowledge by seeking empirical evidence of Tardy's theoretical notions of interwoven voices and the dialogic nature of appropriation and in turn producing a more nuanced understanding of these conceptualizations.

Feedback as a Form of Academic Socialization

In addition to a conceptualization of feedback as appropriation, a consideration of possible linkages between feedback and socialization would contribute to a more thorough understanding of feedback. The whole interactional process through which writers work on a piece of writing, get feedback, and revise the draft recursively is indeed both part of language socialization and what facilitates academic socialization. Students interact with teachers, tutors at the writing center, or people who have had similar academic writing experiences in the past. In addition to being more capable than student writers in one way or another, these individuals are members of the academic community to which the student writers want to belong. As Reid (1994) aptly put it, the teacher who gives feedback is a "cultural informant" (p. 275) who can offer possible reactions from the academic community. That is, when teachers provide feedback, they can serve as representatives of the academic community who show the community's values (Leki, 2006). Writers develop academic literacy and are gradually socialized into academic written discourses by engaging in disciplinary reading and addressing community insiders' responses to their writing. The studies on multilingual graduate students highlight the importance of "students' individual encounters and relationship with faculty, advisors, and peers" (Leki, 2006, p. 282). Thus, it is imperative to point out that written feedback is not merely advice from a teacher that exists in a vacuum but also "one form of socioacademic interaction" (Leki, 2006, p.

282). Importantly, routine encounters with members of an academic community are integral to socialization.

Writers as Individual Social Beings with Agency, Situated in Discourses

As mentioned above, the research presented here aims to investigate not only teacher written feedback but also other sources of feedback. At the center of these interactions are individual writers' decisions, which are shaped by contexts and who they are. First, to fully understand the negotiation practices employed during the revision process, it is necessary to consider writers as individuals from various backgrounds instead of stereotyping and essentializing multilingual writers on the basis of their cultural, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds (Goldstein, 2010; Hyland, 2003; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010a, b). Multilingual writers do not simply accept the feedback they are given. Some feedback influences revision more than others, and writers differ in the ways they use the feedback they are given (Goldstein, 2010; Hyland, 1998, 2003). The specific requirements and implicit expectations of a given academic setting can affect learners' ways of approaching, defining, and making sense of feedback, particularly with regard to learners' past experiences and cultural backgrounds. Multilingual writers might understand comments and devise strategies for addressing issues raised in comments differently than mainstream writers; furthermore, there may be considerable variation in the methods of responding to feedback employed within the larger population of multilingual writers. They might address a specific piece of feedback in different ways, such as accepting, rejecting, or appropriating it. For example, Goldstein (2010) provided examples of how two students' responses to teacher feedback can be different. While one of her students, Marigrace, accepted the teacher's feedback without questioning it, the other, Tranh, simply removed the text in question, possibly due to time constraints. Acknowledging how much students' responses to teacher comments can vary, Goldstein (2010) suggests that teachers look

at “each student as an individual” (p. 86) and bear in mind that how they respond is affected by various individual factors in and beyond the classroom.

Now that we recognize the importance of paying attention to individual writers, it is necessary to take a step further by exploring what it means to be an individual writer. Gee (2006) viewed an individual as “the meeting points of many, sometimes conflicting, discourses” (p. 31). This conception is especially relevant to multilingual students, who, as Kramsch (2009) aptly put it, are not “empty receptacle[s]” (p. 28), but already have their L1 and are engaged in L1 communities. For example, graduate students who come to the U.S. to study are subject to many discourses, but they can also draw from those discourses to define themselves. One might be a woman from Asian heritage, a graduate student, or a teacher in her home country. Once students enter the classroom of a disciplinary course in a TESOL program, they need to acquire another discourse: being graduate students who are ultimately to become either researchers or second language literacy experts. When they revise texts, they might find themselves confused because their discourses might be in conflict with each other, and they know that they should adapt or shift their practices and repertoires depending on the settings in which they are engaged at the moment.

As Pennycook (2001) suggests, it is important to see learners as “extremely complex social beings with a multitude of fluctuating, at times conflicting, needs and desires,” contrary to the view of a “generic, ahistorical, stick figure” (p. 603). His special attention to students who come to a specific education context as “part of a complex world that they brought to the classroom” (p. 128) is especially worth noting. In his discussion of Canagarajah’s (1993) work, Pennycook (2001) stated that Canagarajah’s students were not simply defined by “cultural Tamil-ness” (p. 128). The basic descriptive phrase “a Tamil Lankan” was likewise insufficient to

describe the teacher, Canagarajah, who instead characterized himself as “a young (in [his] early 30s), male, ‘progressive,’ Christian, culturally Westernized, middle class, native Tamil, bilingual, director of English language teaching at the university” (Canagarajah, 1993, p. 620).

Following this reasoning, this dissertation sees each participant as an individual social being with his/her own packages of values and discourses, rather than one who absorbs all the feedback provided without agency. In other words, individuals responding to feedback on their texts are held to be complex social beings embedded in multi-layered contexts. Upon receiving feedback that conflicts with their established writing practices, multilingual writers have to make some sort of choices. So the question becomes, “How do multilingual writers make these important decisions?”

Feedback as Appropriation

Writing and revising a piece for a particular academic community needs to be regarded as a process which grows out of the interactions among professors, learners, and texts under asymmetrical power relationships. At this point, it is necessary to clarify that the current dissertation invokes the concept of power disparities not in the service of the notion that multilingual writers must emulate the dominant literacies of mainstream students, but rather to explore potential means through which they can subvert and appropriate those literacies as they agentively negotiate their academic identities.

The notion of appropriation has been an object of attention, often taking the form of concern in earlier years, over a long period of time in research on composition in L1 and L2. Appropriation means different things among scholars. During the 1980s, one of the concerns that writing teachers had about their feedback practices was the fear that they would take ownership of their students’ work by imposing their own voices on it. Reid (1994) effectively showed how worried contemporary writing teachers were in her article about myths of appropriation. Reid

(1994) cited several quotes about appropriation which define the concept in terms of students' intentions or purpose in writing. That is, when the teachers say they would like to avoid text appropriation, they mean that they do not want to constrain student texts or suppress the students' authorial intentions by insisting on revisions rooted in their own intentions and voice. Against this belief of many practitioners at that time, Reid (1994) argues that teachers should be aware of their roles as "surrogate audiences" (p. 282) who would provide possible responses from the social community, instead of employing a "hands-off approach" (p. 273) in the writing classroom. Traditionally, appropriation is something teachers fear because they assume that their goodwill may alter student writers' intentions and in turn "tak[e] away ownership of, or appropriat[e], students' writing" (Tardy, 2006, p. 60).

However, what is worth noting in the earlier discussion of appropriation is who is being constructed as an appropriator of texts: it is teachers who might appropriate student texts, and it is teachers who are concerned about the issue. Scholars hardly discussed how learners respond to and appropriate teacher comments and how learners and teachers can appropriate one another's voices through feedback. In this sense, the traditional view consists of "monologic or unidirectional definitions of appropriation" (Tardy, 2006, p. 62). Tardy (2006) rightly recognized that this unidirectional definition of appropriation may not be sufficient to understand the true nature of negotiations of feedback in academic settings because it does not pay attention to learner agency. Her significant recognition compels us to rethink what is going on when student writers get feedback and revise their drafts.

Dialogic Nature of Feedback

Writers approach the same types of issues in various ways. For example, when writers are advised to be more logical, each writer may have different ideas about what type of support, or how much of that support, will be necessary to make their writing more logical. Alternately, one

might address this issue by simply deleting the paragraph in question. Even when they accept advice from others, students have agency in that they are the ones who decide to integrate the outside voice into their writing. Moving beyond teacher-centric conceptions of appropriation and gleaning instances within the established scholarship in which learners reject, accept, or appropriate feedback is surely a step to rethinking writers' agency, and this is integral to understanding multilingual writers' negotiation of feedback.

It is enlightening to refer to Prior (1998) and Tardy (2006), who recognized the roles of writer agency and ownership in responding to feedback and the dialogic nature of interactions between learner and teacher through feedback and written revision. Prior (1998) observed how Moira, a participant, resisted, accommodated, and transformed the voice of her advisor, West, in her writing. Drawing on Bakhtin's (1981) notion of internal persuasiveness as "half-ours and half someone else's" (p. 345), Prior illustrated how some feedback from the mentor became internally persuasive to her. Tardy (2006) acknowledged the usefulness of this concept by exploring how students can appropriate teacher feedback and illustrating how students and teachers "may appropriate one another's text" (p. 60). Interactions between two opposing concepts, internally persuasive and authoritative discourses, as Tardy (2006) and Prior (1998) conceptualized, are where disciplinary enculturation seems to take place for writers.

Prior (1998) discovered that Moira had agency even when she accepted the advisor's feedback. Although Moira wrote in her L1, Prior's (1998) research informs the current dissertation because it demonstrated how graduate students can negotiate and appropriate teacher feedback. Prior's research also demonstrated how dialogic feedback and revision can be in academic writing. Tardy (2006) revealed that L2 writers gained enough confidence to reject "feedback that was not internally persuasive" as their participation in the discipline grew deeper

(p. 72). Hence, considering student-writers' agency as part of the dialogical nature of the revision process is essential to examining how multilingual students respond to and negotiate the various voices they encounter through feedback in writing.

In summary, I have touched on the theoretical underpinnings and frameworks to be used to understand the nature of feedback and to analyze data, along with the previous literature in the field of L2 writing and academic socialization in higher education. Based on this groundwork, I have discussed what it means to be a multilingual writer and how feedback can be conceptualized.

Summarizing Propositions

Based on the literature review discussed in this chapter, I would like to summarize seven propositions which have been translated into the process of analyzing and interpreting the data collected.

- Each graduate class that the participants take is considered a CoP with its own values and ways of writing under unequal power relationships. With varying degrees of investment, multilingual writers as individuals with agency can accommodate, reject, or appropriate dominant literacies in their own way.
- Feedback in this dissertation includes not only written feedback from the professor in class but also interactions revolving around the target paper with other members of the academic community in and beyond the classroom, such as peers and writing center tutors.
- Getting feedback and revising are situated social processes. Multilingual graduate writers shift practices and their growing repertoire depending on settings, and they

control the degree to which they accept, reject, or appropriate the feedback they receive across contexts.

- The process of getting feedback, negotiating demands, and revising is one of the ways in which multilingual graduate writers are socialized into the way of thinking, behaving, and writing in the academic communities to which they seek to belong. It is also the space where situated learning takes place. This process is dialogic and interactive in nature, and the text students produce is a manifestation of interwoven voices.
- Student writers can belong to multiple CoPs at once.
- Academic enculturation is not a smooth one-way assimilation but is contested, situated, and multidirectional, involving identity construction and epistemology. The outcomes of second language socialization are not the exact reproduction of L1 dominant literacies, but hybrids.

Based on the propositions mentioned above, what I want to explore in the current research is the feedback graduate writers receive in their initial years of doctoral education and what the roles of graduate feedback are, as shown in Figure 1 below.

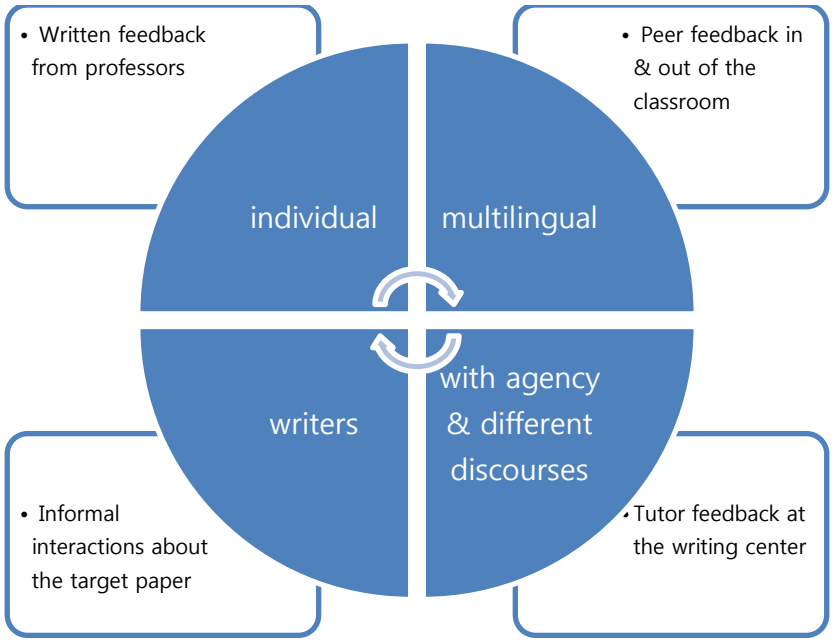


Figure 1. Multiple sources of feedback and individual writers at the center.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Overview of the Chapter

This chapter offers a detailed description of the methodology employed in this dissertation. The main aim of this research is to explore multilingual graduate writers' ways of using feedback to address challenges in meeting writing demands. Eventually, the research presented here leads to a sophisticated understanding of the role of feedback in how students learn academic writing. As mentioned earlier, the research questions that directed this dissertation were:

(1) What feedback do multilingual graduate students receive on writing in and beyond classrooms, and how do they perceive the feedback?

(2) How do multilingual graduate students negotiate multiple sources of feedback such as written and verbal feedback or casual interactions?

(3) In what ways have multilingual doctoral students perceived they have transformed in their academic socialization?

(a) How did the perception of their academic writing develop?

(b) How did the perception of their writing strategies develop?

(c) How did the perception of their behaviors and attitudes develop?

(d) How did the perception of their engagement with knowledge and academic expectations develop?

(e) How did the perception of their research agenda develop?

This chapter starts with a discussion of the underlying epistemological perspectives which guided the overall methodological decisions in this research. A description of the research questions, the context, and the participants follow to situate this study. Then I explain each step

through which the project was carried out, from data collection through data analysis. The chapter concludes with ethical considerations and issues of trustworthiness.

Research Paradigm and the Role of the Researcher

Epistemological Positioning

A social constructionist perspective informs the current dissertation. Operating on the concept that knowledge is socially constructed, not discovered, these perspectives hold that "there is no single right answer" and people collaborate with each other "to create knowledge" (Rigg, 1993. p. 71), in contrast to positivistic epistemologies centered on the notion of objective truth. This process of creating knowledge is not fixed, but fluid and dynamic. The social constructionist perspective is reflected in numerous aspects of this dissertation. First of all, I saw the information obtained from the participants as having the potential to shape the follow-up procedures of the research and to enrich the concepts I explored. Likewise, I viewed interviews as open spaces where both the researcher and the participants co-constructed knowledge, instead of the conceptualization of a researcher as an all-knowing individual obtaining information unidirectionally from a passive participant. Secondly, emerging themes and issues shaped the coding systems and analytical tools. Coded themes were developed recursively, and I did not employ a pre-existing coding scheme. Third, I devoted a fair amount of text to depicting the type of assignments participants were required to perform, the expectations participants thought they were exposed to, how they interpreted the given assignments, and the progression of literacy practices in each class. Social constructionists encourage "participants to voice their own perceptions of the issues" in their in-depth qualitative interviews (Flowerdew, 2005, p. 70). I tried to be an active listener and achieve detailed understandings of what the multilingual writers expressed during interviews, and I encouraged participants to "voice" their own thinking. For instance, although I had pre-determined interview questions, I let the interviews run their courses

when the participants seemed to be more interested in other aspects or if they wanted to talk further about a topic I did not expect to arise. Unexpected occurrences during the initial interviews also shaped the follow-up interviews by suggesting further areas of inquiry. I was more interested in depicting the personal and specific than in setting up rigid principles or generalizations. In sum, the researcher and the participants co-constructed knowledge by collectively tracing participants' evolving perceptions, as shown in the interviews and the student essays.

Qualitative Case Study Research

Specifically in the field of second language writing, Casanave (1995), Hyland (1998), Prior (1995), and Lee and Schallert (2008a) have shown the value of naturalistic contextualized inquiry to see the complex and situated nature of each classroom context (Prior, 1995), and these researchers have employed a qualitative approach to provide a more comprehensive description of the academic enculturation process, as discussed earlier. Considering that the research questions of this project entail the exploration of individuals' situated negotiations of feedback and its influence on academic socialization processes, adopting a qualitative approach was clearly a must.

Among the different approaches in the broader category of qualitative inquiry, a case study approach is suitable for this dissertation for several reasons. As Yin (2009) contended, case study research can be appropriate when a researcher explores "a contemporary set of events over which the investigator has little or no control" (p. 13) to answer *how* or *why* questions which require "extensive and in-depth description of some social phenomenon" (p. 4). Because a case study approach conceives of meaning as inherently contextual, the understandings it produces are inextricably related with "contextual conditions" (Yin, 2009, p. 18). This feature is also tied to another feature of the case study method: multiple sources of data to explore the object of

inquiry. Multiple data sources are used to enhance the persuasiveness of the findings and decrease the possibility of misinterpretation on the researcher's part. Thus, the present research questions can be better answered through a case study in that they demand an understanding of negotiation processes in their entirety, writing as it is embedded in particular contexts, and the reciprocal relationship between students and professors, all of which necessitate multiple sources of evidence. When I decided to look at multiple sources of feedback on a particular piece of writing, rather than one type of feedback across many pieces of student writing, it became necessary to consider students' socialization processes within particular CoPs. For this reason, it became clear that a case study approach can yield the types of data necessary to explore these issues. The fact that I have "clearly identifiable cases with boundaries" (Creswell, 2007, p. 74), i.e., doctoral-course CoPs in a graduate program in English, further led me to pursue a case study approach rather than other qualitative approaches such as narrative inquiry. Additionally, the case study design was appropriate to this study because it can help researchers to understand the complexity of a phenomenon, taking various factors and contexts into account (Johnson, 1992; Zhu, 2005).

This dissertation aims to explore multilingual writers in an academic setting as a CoP. In case study research, "the case for study has boundaries, often bounded by time and place" (Creswell, 2007, p. 244). The propositions discussed at the end of Chapter 2 led me to define the cases for this study as the different doctoral courses, CoPs. These cases are bound systems in that they are bounded by time (a semester), a discipline, and a place situated within a particular doctoral program in an English department. Therefore, this research examines multilingual doctoral students who went through a bounded system of a course CoP, worked on a writing task,

and interacted with feedback on that task in that system. This theoretical standpoint shaped how I selected and defined cases, the actual objects of inquiry, in this project.

Three classes in a doctoral English program were defined as cases in this research within which multilingual doctoral students went through writing processes to complete particular literacy projects and receive feedback on their writing. Within those systems, four multilingual writers were recruited. In addition to a characteristic of longitudinal design where a large amount of data is collected from a limited number of participants, a practical rationale existed for recruiting only four participants for this study. At the time of data collection, there were not many multilingual doctoral students who were enrolled in the chosen doctoral courses in the target program. Figure 2 illustrates how each participant was situated in relation to the three cases of this study.

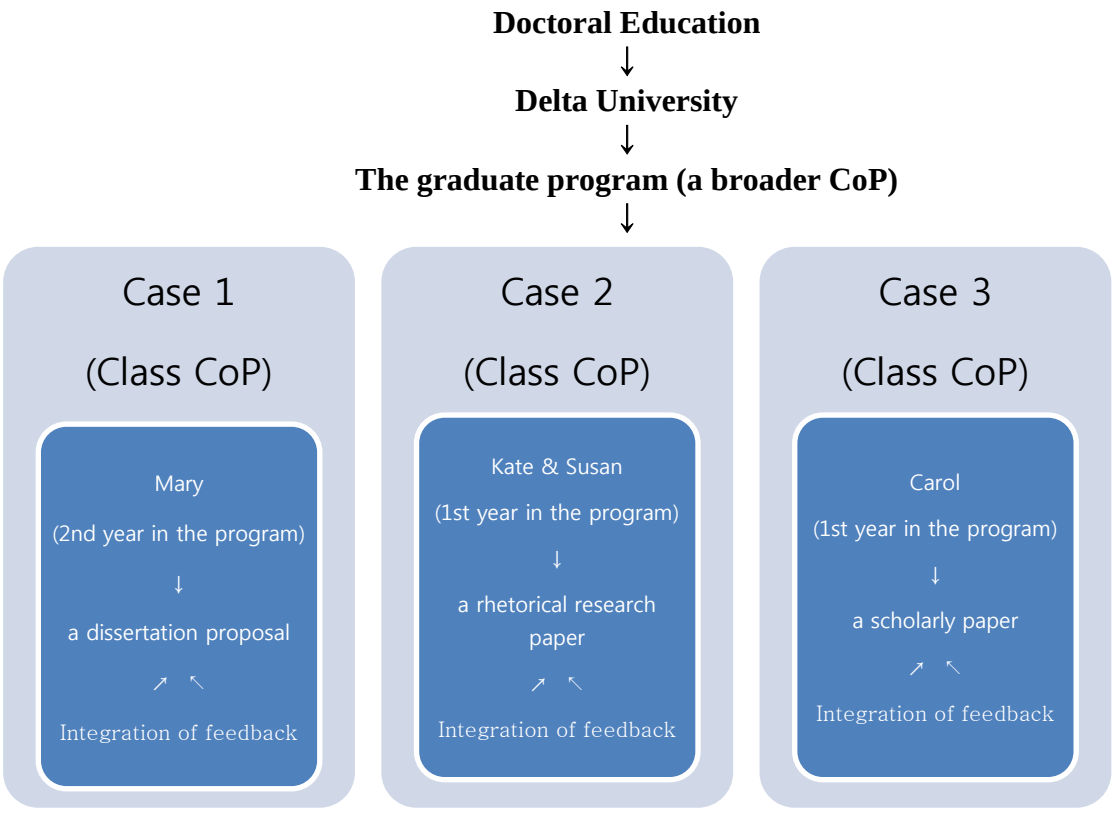


Figure 2. Four participants within three cases.

Reflexivity and the Role of the Researcher

Along with epistemological positioning and the rationale for a qualitative case study approach, it is necessary to admit that researchers are not objective and explicitly state my researcher positionality. If I am a member of the group being studied, I need to directly acknowledge this and furthermore actively use my insider perspective in order to fully represent the target population, rather than considering my affiliation as a hindrance to objectivity in research. Admitting "the value-laden nature of the study" (Cresswell, 2007, p. 18) allows researchers to present themselves clearly in a study so that readers can see how interpretations are constructed. Thus, I used the values and positions shaped by my own personal experiences as a multilingual writer, as my participants are, when necessary. Further, my identity as an English language learner from South Korea, a former EFL teacher, and a composition teacher in the U.S. necessarily influenced the way in which I understood and interpreted the data collected. I adopted multiple roles in the process of carrying out this research: a peer who had more experiences with academic writing in the setting where the participants were, an observer, and a colleague, let alone a researcher.

Reflection on My Negotiation during This Dissertating Journey

As I used my own experiences as one of the analytical tools in the current dissertation, it is necessary for me to reflect on my own negotiation practices during this dissertating journey. Further, I include an in-depth account in this section as I am reflexively applying my own method of investigating feedback negotiation processes to my journey. I started learning English as a foreign language during my middle school years, mainly in classroom settings in South Korea. My first language is Korean, and my primary goal for learning English was to obtain scores high enough to enter my target university. I majored in English language and literature for my undergraduate degree and English linguistics for my Master's degree in South Korea. After I

completed my Master's degree and worked as an English teacher at several private language institutes for about 10 years, I came to the U.S. to pursue an advanced degree in English. It was partly because I felt something was missing at that time—as an EFL teacher, I wanted to learn more practical knowledge about teaching English as an additional language. In addition, I wanted to further develop my theoretical knowledge. As a learner of the English language, I struggled to acquire context-sensitive receptive and productive skills in social and academic settings. These issues brought me to the U.S. to study more about language learning and teaching.

First, I studied TESOL for a post-master's advanced certificate in the U.S. During these studies, I was exposed to the American style of graduate-level academic writing. I produced different types of academic writing, such as a critical review of an academic article assigned by my professor based on certain criteria, as well as an empirical research paper in which I collected and analyzed data and reported the findings after my professor helped us perform a genre analysis of a professional research article. Additionally, I wrote a literature review paper and created a syllabus for a specific class based on what we learned in class, among other genres. When I worked on papers, I mainly relied on feedback from the writing center tutors. I hardly met my professors for feedback—at the time, I was not aware that students could visit their professors for advice.

However, in the second semester of the TESOL program, I took a course titled Research Practice in Academic Writing and English Language Learners, which marked a turning point in my academic writing career and my academic socialization process. The professor who taught this class spent a great deal of her time giving comments on our papers and encouraged us to write as many drafts as possible. More importantly, she allowed us to send drafts to her via email and gave us extremely detailed feedback on content, organization, grammar, and even proper

citation on each draft that we sent to her. I wrote two papers for this class. I wrote many drafts for each of these papers and received thorough feedback, some of which was fairly brutal. I had never written multiple drafts for a piece of writing before taking this class, but those painful processes of revision led me to learn how to write an English academic paper and what the academic community expects from graduate students' writing.

After graduating the TESOL program and working as an ESL teacher, I entered a doctoral program in Pennsylvania. After coursework, I worked as a tutor at the writing center and taught undergraduate college writing. From these teaching and learning experiences, I constructed my identities as an English language learner, a non-native English teacher, a multilingual graduate student, and a composition teacher. The struggles I went through and the privileges I had as a multilingual graduate student led me to become interested in the topic of second language writing and the role of feedback at the graduate level.

After my doctoral coursework, I discussed my intended topic with one of the professors who specialized in second language writing and academic socialization. Until I drafted my dissertation proposal, the majority of my energy and attention was spent on shaping my topic. I had to narrow it down while finding a happy medium between my idea and my adviser's idea so that both of us could agree on a topic we felt was worth researching. When my adviser at that time had to step down because she moved to another university, I contacted another faculty member who specializes in second language literacy, among other areas. I wrote a message via email to ask him to be a chair of my dissertation committee:

> As you guessed, I'm willing to adapt my study to make it more current in the field. I'm glad that I can discuss issues of interest to both of us. I think it important to find (or shape??) a topic that both of us feel enthusiastic about. My topic for now is in

> embryonic stage and clearly open to be shaped by new lines of thinking and discussions and the resulting knowledge. (Personal communication, April 28, 2010)

My dissertation topic gradually took shape as we exchanged many long email messages over the summer. With the three questions below as a starting point, the process of shaping my topic resumed, this time more drastically since I constantly considered my new adviser's research interests and perspectives about second language literacy and research:

> What is your research question?
>
> How would you study this question?
>
> What is the significance of this question to researchers in the field? (Personal communication, April 18, 2010)

My answer to the first question then was:

> How are Korean graduate students who have established-discourses from their formal school in their home country socialized into written academic discourse across context in the United States?
>
> What writing practices do they do in and outside the classroom?
>
> How do they appropriate their discourses in the process of participating in the new academic discourse in the United States?
>
> What effects do various writing contexts have on the participants' negotiating discourses?
>
> How do their literacies play out as they understand and perform writing demands in the academic setting? (Personal communication, August 19, 2010)

What influenced the process of shaping these research questions were my personal interests, the broad range of sources that I read in relation to my topic area, the published articles and books

that my adviser wrote, and the books that he recommended to me. In the meantime, I attended many academic events on and off campus and interacted with peers in the program. But in this nascent stage, my adviser's comments had the most significant impact on my research questions and the research design. Among his comments was the need for me to drastically narrow my topic down because the questions above included home literacy, academic literacy, and public literacy. Simply put, they were too broad. And I noticed that he found one aspect of my questions particularly interesting, which was "literacy beyond the classroom" (Personal communication, August, 19, 2010). After numerous exchanges of messages, one of the important pieces of advice from him was that I had to consider "a concrete example of what negotiating multiliteracy really means" (Personal communication, September 13, 2010). That was when I decided to bring the idea of "multiple sources of feedback" to the forefront of my study, which was indeed what my adviser suggested and what I realized was in fact my main interest. Along with this main focus, I also changed the target population from Korean students to multilingual students and limited my methodological framework to make it manageable. The result of our negotiation was the revised research questions as shown below:

> 1. What kind of feedback do they receive in and beyond classroom on a writing task in a disciplinary course, and how do they respond to those multiple sources of feedback?
> 2. How do multilingual graduate students negotiate their literacies when they develop/ revise their papers based on feedback?
> 3. How do literacy practices related to feedback influence the participants' academic socialization process?
> 4. How do literacy practices related to feedback influence their second language learning in performance? (Personal communication, October 22, 2010)

In the process of writing the first three chapters of my dissertation, several sources of feedback came into play, as shown above. But the feedback that was most substantial and meaningful in terms of the overall design of my research and my way of engaging the established literature to present my arguments came from the three-chapter defense. The three members of my dissertation committee come from different backgrounds with different specializations. Thus, through their feedback, my dissertation has been shaped and enriched once again by insights from different disciplines including applied linguistics, composition, TESOL/teacher education, and writing center studies. The figure below summarizes the feedback network I was involved in while I worked on my dissertation.

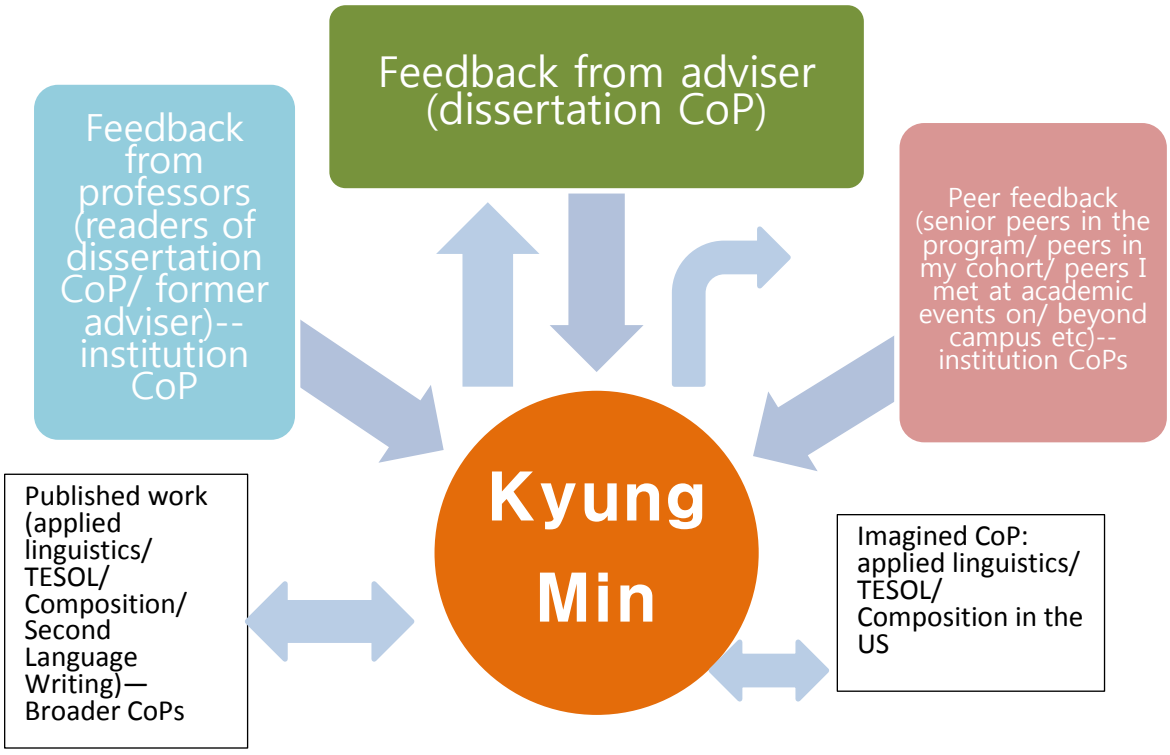


Figure 3. Multiple sources of feedback I engaged.

Throughout the process of working on my dissertation, I was engaged in constant negotiation as a peripheral participant in broader CoPs of various kinds, and my identity as a researcher was

being constructed. It has not only been a process of learning academic writing and conducting research but also an overall academic socialization process. The next section details the specifics of the research design and the rationale for each methodological decision.

Research Context and Participants

This study was conducted at Delta University (pseudonym), a mid-Atlantic university in the U.S. where English is used for communication and there is a doctoral program in English studies. According to the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, this institution is classified as a doctoral/research university. Approximately 2,300 students are enrolled in the graduate school, 530of which are students in the College of Humanities and Social Sciences (as of 2013). For this study, I contacted every professor who taught doctoral courses in the target semester in the English department. The participants were purposively chosen in that I selected them from larger populations of students enrolled in three classes taught by the professors who decided to participate in this study.

After three classes were chosen, "purposive sampling" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 156), one of the characteristic features of qualitative inquiry, was used because the research questions of this study required me to hand pick people with particular traits. The criteria for selecting participants included: (1) multilingual students who were enrolled in the three doctoral courses chosen, (2) multilingual students who completed their undergraduate education in their home countries, and (3) students whose first language was not English. These strict criteria gave me a relatively small number of participants in this study. Table 1 provides participant demographics, followed by participant descriptions and the target writing task in each case.

Table 1

Overview of Participants

Pseudonyms	Mary	Carol	Kate	Susan
Program	English	English	English	English
Gender	Female	Female	Female	Female
Age	Early 40s	Early 40s	Late 30s	Late 30s
First language	Arabic	Korean	Hebrew	Arabic
Education	BA in English Education (home country) MA in English teaching as a foreign language (home country) A training program (the US)	BA in English language & Literature (home country) MA in TESOL (the US) PhD in English (home country)	BA in English and literature (home country) MA in literature (home country) Exchange student (the US)	BA, MA (home country)
Nationality	North Africa	East Asia	Western Asia	North Africa
Length of time spent in the US (at the time of data collection)	1 and a half years	2 years	1 year	1 year
Professional experience	Taught English at a high school in home country	Taught English at college level in home country	Taught English at a high school in home country	Taught English at college level in home country
Plan after graduation	Teach at the college level in the U.S.	Teach at college level in home country	Not sure yet about the type of work, but planning to go back to home country	Not sure yet

In what follows, I provide a brief biographical sketch of each participant within each case in order to contextualize their experiences with negotiating feedback during their doctoral studies. Detailed descriptions of literacy trajectories in the three cases will be provided in Chapter 5.

Case 1: Participant Mary

The target class titled Qualitative Research was a required course designed to help doctoral students acclimate themselves to the dissertation writing process. This class was to be taken during the last semester of coursework at Delta University. Thus, the structure of this

course was arranged to get the students through the process of generating and drafting their dissertation proposal. At the end of the semester, the students in this class were required to submit a dissertation proposal that included "[contextualization of] the study, theoretical perspectives grounding the study, methodological approaches, participants, data sources, data collection procedures, data analysis and interpretation tools, references, and appendices" (course syllabus A). One participant, Mary, was recruited from this case.

Mary had 19 years of teaching experiences in her home country. Before she joined the program at Delta University (pseudonym), she was already very active academically at conferences as an English teacher. She had been learning English as a foreign language since elementary school. Until her high school years, her English education was basically focused on testing students' abilities with reading and grammar. She did not have an English class in which English was the primary language of instruction until she went to college. She majored in English education for her bachelor's degree in her home country. Although she had some opportunities to communicate in English with her English-major friends, she communicated in her first language outside of school settings. When she was in college, she "had all [her] classes in English," during which "[she and her friends] were code switching between English and [her first language]" (Interview 1). But Mary remarked, "outside that circle, [she] couldn't speak English" (Interview 1). She "didn't write papers because that wasn't very much the norm in college there" and "started writing papers when [she] started having native speaker teachers" (Interview 1). That was when she started receiving feedback on her writing. She added that the English-speaking teachers encouraged her to express her "ideas, opinions, and beliefs." The experiences with feedback that occurred while she was working on her Master's degree stood out in her mind. She had made two short visits to the United States: The first was for a one-month

training program and the other was for attending a one-week international conference. Mary's professional development began when she enrolled in a nine-month training program for overseas teaching of English. Next, she completed her Master's degree in teaching English as a foreign language in her home country. Despite the relatively short length of time she spent in English-speaking contexts, she had chances to be exposed to academic environments similar to the ones in the U.S. Then she joined the Composition and TESOL program at Delta University in the U.S. to pursue a doctoral degree.

Case 2: Participants Kate and Susan

The second case of this study was titled Advanced Seminar in Literacy. As a final assignment, students were required to do rhetorical research on a topic related to the question, "In what ways does creative writing borrow from and/or contribute to your area of study?" (Course syllabus C). Students were required to make their papers appropriate for presentation or publication according to the length and the formal requirements of particular venues that the professor provided. Students were not asked to submit earlier drafts for professor written feedback in this case. From the second case, two students were recruited: Kate and Susan. They started the program at the same time and were enrolled in the target class in their second semester. When they had meetings, usually conducted voluntarily for their collaborative project, they spoke Arabic and English with each other.

Kate comes from a country in the Middle East. At the time of the interview, she was in her second semester in the program. Before joining the program, she visited America once for a month as an exchange student. She majored in English and literature in college and received her Master's degree in literature in her country. She also has two certificates for teacher training courses, specifically for teaching English in high school. Despite the relatively short length of

her previous stay in the U.S., she said that she felt the cultures and academic atmospheres of her country are very similar to those in the U.S.

Susan, the other participant in this case, started learning English at high school. English is a third language for both Kate and Susan. She pursued English as her undergraduate major and literature as her graduate major in her home country in North Africa. She has come to the U.S. for a Ph.D. Before she joined the doctoral program, she attended an English language institute as an ESL student for one and a half years in the U.S.

Case 3: Participant Carol

The third case was a course entitled Language and Social Contexts which was open for both doctoral and masters students. Within the class framework, students were required to write a "scholarly paper" for the final task (Course syllabus B). The paper was to be created by substantially revising an "informative paper" written earlier in the semester. The professor particularly requested them to narrow down their ideas by choosing one or two aspects of the earlier paper "in order to clearly connect [their] investigation to the scholars and theorists whose work [they] have read during the semester for support" (Course syllabus B). One student, Carol, participated in the current research from this case.

Carol is from a country in northeast Asia where she completed her bachelor's degree in English language and literature and a doctoral degree in the same major, specializing in applied linguistics with an emphasis on corpus linguistics. For her Master's degree in TESOL, she had been in the U.S. for about three years. After her graduate years in the U.S., she went back to her country and taught English at the college level for several years. She earned a Ph.D. in her country. Then she came to the U.S. again to pursue her second Ph.D. At the time of data collection for this study, Carol was taking three doctoral courses in her second semester.

The three courses were taught by three full-time faculty members in the program respectively. It is safe to say that all of them are full members of their academic communities, and they have different research interests and specializations.

Research Design Overview

In an effort to decrease the likelihood of misinterpreting data (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008) and to "increase construct validity" (Yin, 2009, p. 42) in the case studies, I collected multiple sources of data to investigate the research questions. First of all, interviews were conducted with student participants, tracing the revision processes they employed to complete assignments for the classes chosen. Along with in-depth face-to-face interviews, email correspondences with the researcher were collected for follow-up inquiries, if necessary. The professors of the three classes were interviewed about which type of feedback they gave to their students and how they perceived the participants' socialization process. The interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed. Over one semester, observations of the courses were made, and written artifacts were collected. Among them were student papers, drafts with feedback from peers, professors, and tutors, course syllabi, handouts, and online or email entries with others about the target papers, if any. Another important source of data was the researcher's journal I kept throughout the semester. Here, I reflected on my interactions with the participants, what happened in class, what happened to the participants, and what I thought about the observations. The information needed for this study in relation to the research questions and data-collection methods is shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Overview of the information needed

Research questions	Information needed	Data collection methods
(1) What feedback do multilingual graduate students receive on writing in and beyond classrooms, and how do they perceive the feedback?	• Comments from the professors, peers, or tutors at the writing center, conversations with professors or peers about the classroom assignments under study • The feedback the participants said they received during the target semester and in the past • The feedback the professors of the participants said they provided • The feedback the researcher observed in class • The participants' perceptions about the feedback they received	• Written feedback on the target papers • Class observations of oral feedback in class and researcher's journal • Audio-recorded interviews with the participants and the professors
(2) How do multilingual graduate students negotiate multiple sources of feedback?	• Their perceptions about their revision • The participants' revision • Feedback from draft to draft	• Audio-recorded interviews with the participants • The participants' drafts
(3) In what ways have multilingual doctoral students perceived they have transformed in their academic socialization? (a) How did the perception of their academic writing develop? (b) How did the perception of their writing strategies develop? (c) How did the perception of their behaviors and attitudes develop? (d) How did the perception of their engagement with knowledge and academic expectations develop? (e) How did the perception of their research agenda develop?	• The participants' perceptions of their enculturation processes • The changes that the participants stated happened • The changes that were demonstrated in their written products	• Audio-recorded interviews with the participants and the professors • The participants' drafts • Class observations, researcher's journal

Data Collection Procedures

Detailed procedures were as follows:

1. After getting IRB approval, I contacted professors who taught doctoral courses in the target semester to explain my research and encourage them to participate in my study. In each individual meeting with professors who agreed to participate, I asked them to provide a general description of their feedback practices. Three professors gave me their permission to collect data in their classes.
2. After securing permission from the professors, I visited the three classes to present my research project and to encourage multilingual students to participate in the study. I contacted the students who showed interest in this project individually by either emailing them or meeting them in person. The participants were asked to share their drafts of course papers, feedback they received on them, and interactions with others regarding the papers.
3. After recruiting the participants, I sat in on their classes throughout the semester so that I could observe what happened in class and the literacy practices they were involved with within the class frameworks where they wrote and revised their assignments. During this period, three data collection measures were conducted essentially at the same time: 1) multiple face-to-face interviews with the participants; 2) observations of the three classes; and 3) reflective writing journals, as Table 3 indicates.
4. After the semester, I interviewed the students and their professors individually in order to ask learning outcomes.

In sum, Figure 4 below illustrates the data collection procedure.

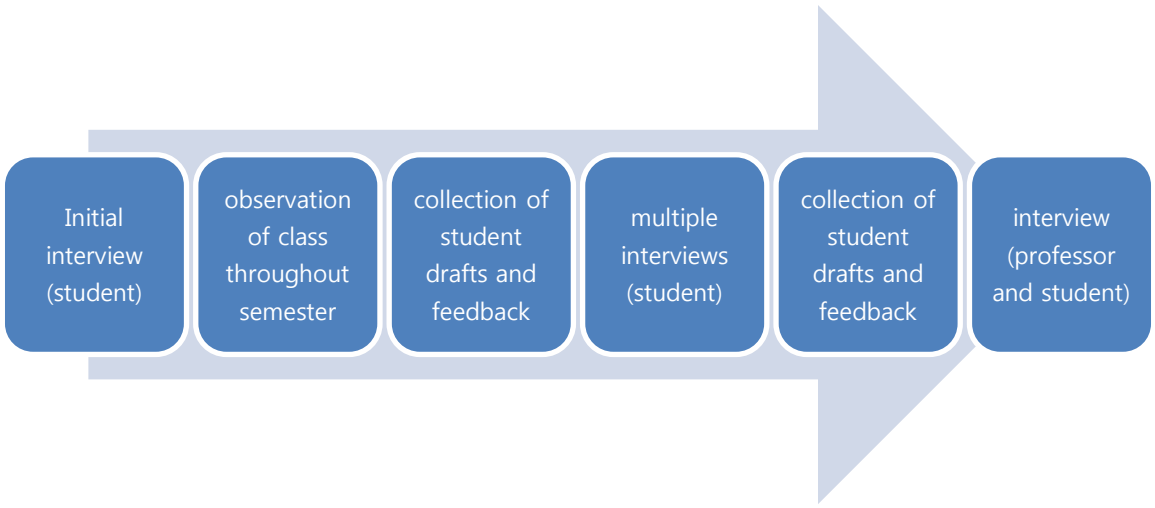


Figure 4. Overview of data collection procedure.

All student names, course titles, and professors' names were replaced by pseudonyms on the written documents collected. Every identifier such as real names of students and professors on the transcripts was also replaced by pseudonyms.

Methodological Challenges

It is necessary to point out that certain aspects of my initial plan for data collection were modified as the study progressed. Originally, I planned to select two contrasting courses regarding feedback practices based on initial interviews with professors: 1) a feedback-rich class in which students received preliminary feedback on multiple drafts as well as final comments on submitted assignments from the professor, and 2) a feedback-poor class in which students hardly received preliminary feedback from the professor and typically composed only one draft for assignments. As Yin (2009) rightly explained, selecting contrasting cases can make the resulting findings more powerful than those from a single case, although researchers do not pursue "a direct replication" (p. 61) in this design. That is, I had planned to contact the professors who provided the types and amounts of feedback that were expected to generate the data most

conducive to what I intended to investigate. Then, in each of these course frameworks, at least two student participants were to be recruited.

However, it turned out that it was not feasible to recruit more than one participant from a feedback-rich classroom because there was only one student who was eligible for this study in the selected class. Moreover, it was unclear which class was feedback-rich and which was feedback-poor when types of feedback other than written professor feedback were taken into account. I ended up trying to contact as many professors who taught doctoral courses in the target semester as I could, and three professors participated in this study. One of the three courses can be described as a feedback-rich environment because students received preliminary feedback on drafts as well as final comments on submitted assignments from the professor via a multiple-draft CoP. While the other two professors did not provide preliminary written feedback at the earlier stages of writing, they provided rich oral feedback before students submitted their papers by collaboratively developing task criteria with students through discussion. Thus, I did not stick to finding contrasting courses but ended up with three courses from which I recruited participants. Another unexpected development was the fact that two participants from a class, Kate and Susan, decided to work together for their final papers in the middle of the semester and obtained their professor's permission to do so, even though this went against his original syllabus design. Also, one student who showed interest in this study dropped out because she decided to work with her friend for the target paper, and her partner did not want to participate in this study. The next section provides the rationales for the decisions made about the data collection methods used in the current dissertation and describes the collection measures.

Data Collection Methods

The primary sources of data for this study were interviews, student drafts of the target papers with professor and peer feedback, and classroom observations. Interviews made it

possible to get information about participants' knowledge, values, preferences, attitudes, and beliefs (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011) which were needed for this study. In-depth interviews were also well-suited to eliciting individuals' perceptions of experiences (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Marshall & Rossman, 2006). While interviewing provided me with the participants' perceptions of what they did, the analysis of their drafts and the written feedback they received gave me access to what they actually did. The other sources—the researcher's reflective journals and class written artifacts such as handouts and syllabi—served as supplemental information to increase the credibility and trustworthiness of this study. An overall summary of data collection tools appears below in Table 3.

Table 3

Data collection

Interviews	Observations	Written Artifacts
• Interviews with the student participants were conducted at least three times over the semester (1) Before the assignments began but after the professor explained the assignments (2) While the participants were conceptualizing how they would begin the papers and while they were revising their drafts—For this stage, several brief interviews were scheduled depending on the writing processes of the participants (3) After they submitted their assignments • Interviews with the professors were conducted after the semester	• Observed the three classes once a week (2.5 hours) throughout the semester • Observed what happened in class and to the participants and what literacy practices the participants were involved with in class • Wrote up my thoughts and reflections on what I observed at least once a week	• Every draft of the final paper • Drafts with written feedback from the professor and peers • Handouts • Syllabi

Individual Interviews

While many studies employ think-aloud as a data collection method to access what is going on in learners' minds when they write, I instead interviewed the participants to explore why they made particular decisions due to possible problems with think-aloud protocol analysis (Smagorinsky, 1994). Think-aloud is "problematic, particularly with second language learners, because it imposes an additional cognitive load on the learners which may distort the processes investigated" (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010b, p. 168). In fact, Sachs and Polio's (2007) revision study provides evidence of this limitation of think-aloud protocols, although doing so was not their main concern. They found that students who were not asked to verbalize their thinking during revision outperformed those who had to do think-alouds. To avoid this problem, I conducted a retrospective interview: 1) before the writing process began (as students were conceptualizing their approaches to the assignments); 2) shortly after participants had commenced the writing and revision process; 3) after they had received feedback from the professor. The interviews were semi-structured (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). The early interviews were designed to elicit general literacy practices, while later interviews were geared toward illuminating how they interpreted the writing task and how they negotiated different sources of feedback they received toward the end (See Appendix B).

After the interviews were conducted, email correspondences or casual conversations were arranged with the participants' permission in the event that the interviews had confusing segments that needed to be clarified through follow-up inquiries. Interviews with each participant were conducted at least three times during the semester to answer the research questions. Especially for the third research question, which was about socialization processes, changes, and influences, it was essential to interview the participants at at least two different times as the semester progressed. The third research question also required me to move between

different data sources since it concerned processes and interactions. However, in-depth interviewing was considered the primary data source. Moreover, the contextually-bound case study approach adopted in this dissertation required that the interviews take place in relation to the events regarding writing processes that were happening in the system in which the participants were working. This is one of the reasons why I observed three classes over the semester and decided when to interview students depending on what I had witnessed. When students started conceptualizing the course assignments and when they submitted papers, several brief and informal interviews were arranged. For instance, I asked for an interview right after the participants got feedback from the professor on their first draft and revised the draft. I conducted a second interview right after they had a peer-review session in class. Finally, I conducted a third interview right after they visited the writing center with a draft.

In addition to student interviews, I also interviewed the professors of the three classes in order to understand the reciprocal relationship between teachers and students in the revision process discussed in Chapter 2. Considering my ambition to conduct a case study which involves the whole writing process, understanding perceptions of both the professor and the students is critical because the students do not work in an empty vacuum. Single interviews with the professors of the target classes were conducted after students turned in their papers. The professors were asked about what feedback they gave to the participants, how they thought the students addressed their suggestions, and how they perceived the participants' socialization into the academic setting (See Appendix C).

Another aspect of the interviews that needs to be mentioned is the languages they were conducted in. All of the participants used English during interviews except for Carol, whose first language is Korean. During the entire process of transcribing, coding, and analyzing her

interview data, I worked with her original comments in Korean. When reporting her interview excerpts in this dissertation, an English translation of her words is offered, along with Korean equivalents. The accuracy of my English translation was confirmed by my colleague, an independent researcher, in South Korea.

Student Drafts and Written Feedback

The second primary source of data for this study was students' written pieces. Based on the professors' descriptions of the assignments in class and the syllabi, I chose target writing assignments in each class. The participants were asked to share drafts of the assignments with me as well as the feedback they received on them from the professor, peers, or tutors at the writing center. Additionally, when they had other informal interactions regarding the target writing assignments, they were also asked to share the interactions with the researcher. The analysis of the drafts was both qualitative and quantitative. Along with student writing and feedback, class documents such as syllabi and handouts were also collected for this study as an additional contextual information source. All the identifiers on the documents were replaced by pseudonyms, and grades were deleted.

Classroom Observations

Data were also gathered through class observations which started before the participants began to work on the target classroom assignments and ended when the participants turned in essays. Given the importance of social contexts and the situated nature of writing, classroom observations were indispensable for this dissertation. Literacy events, interactions, and any aspect that I felt was related to the target writing assignment was noted. More importantly, I decided when and how often to interview the participants, even very briefly and informally, depending on what happened in classes in regards to the target writing assignment. Without

firsthand awareness of what was occurring in class, it would have been impossible for me to predict optimal times for scheduling interviews with the participants.

Researcher's Reflective Journals

In addition to class observation, the researcher's reflective journals served as one of the supplemental sources of data. At least once a week, I kept a reflective journal containing my thoughts, observations, and reflections on my interactions with the participants, what happened in class, and what happened to the participants in and beyond class. This way, I was able to ensure that I would have an additional running record of data that I could go back and consult to see what I was thinking and observing.

In brief, as the interview timeline and the summary table below indicate, 17 sessions of interviews were conducted and 596 pages of written documents from all the data sources were collected for this dissertation.

Table 4

Interview timeline (17 sessions in total: 8 hours and 5 minutes)

Date	Mary	Carol	Kate and Susan
March 7th	Interview 1		
April 3th		Interview 1	
April 6th	Interview 2		Interview 1 (Susan)
April 12th		Interview 2	
April 13th			Interview 1 (Kate)
April 24th		Interview 3	
April 26th	Interview 3		
April 26th	Interview 4		Interview 2 (Kate)
April 30th			Interview 2 (Susan)
May 9th			Professor interview
May 22nd		Interview 4	
May 24th		Professor interview	
May 30th	Professor interview		
June 15th	Interview 5		
June 19th			Interview 3 (Kate)

Table 5

Summary of data collected

Written texts (student writing, written feedback, interview transcripts, journals)	596 pages in total
Interviews	17 sessions in total
Feedback identified (documents, interview transcripts, journals)	442 pieces in total
Stated changes identified (interview transcripts)	90 in total

In order to understand what values and frequencies mean in the coded analysis in the current study, it is important to clarify the frame of counting. Because I was looking at the integration of feedback in various contexts, the counting of instances of feedback in this research was done within several different frames: (1) participants' conversations about feedback, (2) the written feedback they received on their writing, and (3) the oral feedback I observed in class. In terms of feedback types, once I prepared the 596 written texts—including student writing with written feedback, interview transcripts, and observation journals—I identified 442 instances in total that can be considered as feedback. These 442 identified comments were coded into different categories based on the coding system for *Feedback Types*, which will be discussed in the next section. Thus, when I say 17% of feedback addressed academic writing, it means that 74 (17%) cases out of 442 were categorized into the code *Academic writing*.

Similarly, in terms of *Stated Changes*, I was interested in students' perceptions of their own development as doctoral students and academic writers. Thus, the frame of counting was what they said during interviews. First, I looked through all the interview transcripts to identify any mention of an idea that expressed a change or learning outcome. As can be seen in Table 5, 90 units were identified in relation to *Stated Changes*. In other words, the participants mentioned something related to learning outcomes or development 90 times in total during interviews. These 90 statements, then, were coded into different categories based on the coding system for

Stated Changes, which will be detailed later. Therefore, when the results show that *stated changes in research agenda* covers 12% (as you can see in Table 12 in Chapter 4), it means the participants mentioned changes in research agenda 11 times (out of 90) during the interviews.

Data Analysis

Taking a step back, it is important to describe how I prepared the data, generated initial coding systems, increased the reliability of the coding systems, and analyzed the data in the present research. I employed inductive analysis (Bryman & Burgess, 1994), which was designed for qualitative data. This is a repeated process through which researchers constantly refer to the data collected and reshape their analysis and interpretation. Also, I followed many qualitative researchers in using Strauss and Corbin's (1998) open, axial, and selective coding strategies. First, all of the data from each case were closely investigated and compared multiple times, not necessarily in a sequential manner, so that I could find emerging concepts tied to the research questions. Then in axial coding, I uncovered the interrelationships between categories and found overarching categories. Through recursive and ongoing analysis of all the data, selective coding allowed me to develop themes to reveal how categories were related with each other. The data from each case were analyzed to discover emerging categories and themes respectively within the system from which the data was produced. Finally, the analytical focus was diverted from individual cases to the entirety of the data set.

Also, qualitative content analysis was implemented to analyze the textual data collected such as interview transcripts, in order to better understand and provide thick description of the target phenomenon. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) defined qualitative content analysis as "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (p. 1278), which is believed to overcome the possible weakness of qualitative approaches. Thus, in order to

achieve “qualitative data reduction and sense-making” (Patton, 2002, p. 453), two separate coding systems were developed for the types of feedback that students received and changes that the participants perceived happened. This approach ultimately aims to “identify core consistencies and meanings” (Patton, 2002, p. 453). The coding systems allowed me to look across the three units of this case study based on frequencies and timed contours so that I was able to qualitatively characterize the landscape of feedback practices as well as quantitative explanations. As Bloomberg and Volpe (2008) pointed out, the inclusion of quantitative components, such as tallies and frequencies, in a qualitative study can serve as a supplement to qualitative data.

Data Preparation and Initial Coding: Two Coding Systems

Before analysis, all the interview data were transcribed line by line, transformed into written texts, and printed out. All of the hand-written feedback on the drafts was typed, transformed into Word documents, and organized by participant in digital and print forms. First, I read transcribed interviews, student drafts with written feedback, and journals multiple times, with the following questions in mind: (1) What types of feedback did the participants receive throughout the semester? and (2) what changes happened to their writing and socialization in that period? More specifically, I looked for the following:

A. What feedback did students receive on the documents?
B. What feedback did students say they received during interviews?
C. What feedback given in class was noted in the researcher’s observational journals?
D. What changes did students say happened during interviews?

As I read through all the instances of feedback on the participants’ texts, researcher’s journals, and interview transcripts, I color-coded units of recurring themes with highlighters on

the data. First, I created initial categories for the types of feedback. To create initial codes, I considered three main aspects of feedback:

A. The mode through which feedback was provided (written or oral)
B. The person who provided feedback (professor or peer)
C. The intention of feedback (e.g., about assignment expectations)

The subcategory of professor feedback in aspect B included not only professors who were teaching the target classes in the program but also other professors at Delta University and other professors in the field who worked elsewhere. I categorized all these scholars as professors since they were full members of diverse CoPs in that they have expertise and their feedback reflected their accumulated knowledge in their fields over the years. Tutors at the writing center were considered peers because the population of tutors at the research site was peer tutors and included both undergraduate and graduate students. As there were far more undergraduate tutors than graduate tutors at the writing center, it was likely that the participants received feedback from undergraduate tutors. Even when they got feedback from graduate tutors, they were not necessarily from the same discipline as the participants. Thus, feedback from writing center tutors was identified as peer feedback in the coding systems for this study.

When I developed the initial coding scheme, I started with an expanded number of categories. Through repeated readings, I tightened the categories by collapsing several categories into one or dividing one category into subcategories. Secondly, I developed an initial coding for stated changes over time. Especially at this stage, the interview transcripts were analyzed to see what changes the participants said happened to them and in what aspects, which was why I labeled this series of codes *stated changes*.

The unit of analysis was not linguistic categories, but individual themes that expressed an idea about feedback or learning outcomes, which could be a paragraph, a sentence, or a single word. During this initial coding process, I sat with data from all the participants side by side, went through each statement made in the interviews and each piece of feedback provided, and marked where I got them from so that I could trace back to the location later. As I went through this process with the data, I identified similar statements and salient features, grouped them together, and gave a name to a group of items tentatively until I had 27 categories for *feedback type* and 7 for *stated changes*. Through multiple readings in a cyclical manner, I revised the category systems. For instance, at first I had two separate categories for stated outcomes: for general academic writing and discipline-specific writing. However, it was not long before I realized that many aspects of the writing in these two categories were actually overlapping and impossible to separate. As an example, an instance in which a student said he/she became more aware of the need for clarification and being more specific could be classified as both general academic writing and discipline-specific writing. Thus, I collapsed these two codes into one, *changes in academic writing*, and instead divided it into three subcategories in terms of the aspects of writing: 1) changes in ways to present argument, audience awareness, ways of writing, 2) changes in organization, using sources, or academic vocabulary, and 3) changes in research agenda[2].

Reliability of Coding Systems

To increase the inter-rater reliability of the coding systems and to make them more accurate and comprehensive, I asked one of my colleagues who was a doctoral student to take part in the process of validating the system. We had two intensive sessions for this purpose. First,

[2] For more information about the coding system and examples, refer to Table 8 and the following description of the coding system.

I explained to him the names and definitions of the codes and gave examples of each. Then we had a training session with some of the examples from the actual data set for practice. In this training session, we discussed how to assign codes, and I answered his questions about the coding process and the codes themselves. After the training session, I provided him with randomly selected data which consisted of 20% of the full data set and contained all the categories. We coded the entries independently with no discussion of the two coding systems during the actual coding. I asked him to make a decision even when he got confused and to put his second choice in parentheses so that I could figure out the reasons for the confusion and redefine the systems. After we coded the data independently, we compared his coding to mine. We looked at all the places where he and I disagreed and thought about, from a content point of view, why we disagreed. We reached an agreement level of 80% and a 72.8%, for *stated changes* and for *feedback type*, respectively.

Upon pondering places where disagreements and confusions occurred, I identified some repeated pairs of codes that were confusing because they were hard to differentiate from one another and other pairs of codes that needed clearer definitions. For the former, I decided to collapse the subdivisions of the category *interaction with content* and to relocate the code of comments on *disciplinary knowledge* from under *academic writing* to under *interaction with content*. For the latter, I added more specifications to each code: *using sources* under *academic writing*, *linguistic accuracy/style*, and *deletion, addition, movement of phrases*.

With the revised coding systems, I had a second validation session with the same independent coder with whom I worked at the first validation session. I included filler examples to code alongside the target codes to be verified. Ultimately, the revised coding schemes led to a higher percentage of agreement as indicated in Table 6 below. Another statistical measure of

inter-rater agreement, Cohen's Kappa, also clearly shows this increased rate of agreement. For the Kappa, a result of 0.6 and above is usually considered an acceptable level of agreement (Landis & Koch, 1977). The levels for the current study are far higher than the acceptable level.

Table 6

Inter-rater agreement measures

Statistics	Coding system for *feedback type*	Coding system for *stated changes*
Percentage of agreement	83.8%	90.5%
Cohen's Kappa	.799 (Valid cases: 80, Missing cases: 0)	.887 (Valid cases: 21, Missing cases: 0)

This whole process of assessing the coding and redefining the systems made it possible to conduct "the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278).

Analysis with the Validated Coding Systems

After testing the coding schemes on a sample of texts, I started coding the full data set with the systems. First, I created code books for the two coding systems: *feedback types* and *stated change*. The code books include all the codes with the name of each code, verbal descriptions and specifications that help recognize the code, and examples from the coded texts. Throughout the whole process of coding the statements from the interviews and all the feedback provided on the collected documents, I referred to these code books.

Ethical Considerations

When researchers conduct a study, especially qualitative research which involves deep engagement on the part of participants, preventing ethical problems is critical. Because doing this research would be impossible without the help of the participants, it is truly the researcher's

responsibility to make every possible effort to protect participants' privacy and confidentiality in all the phases of collecting, analyzing, and disseminating data and to increase the trustworthiness of the study through the measures that will be discussed in the next section. Especially when personal data is involved, as in this research project, ethical considerations becomes a matter of the utmost importance (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Participants were explicitly informed both in written form and orally about the nature and purpose of this study and what they were expected to do for this project before they signed the consent forms (See Appendix A). They were notified that participation in this study was voluntary, that they could withdraw at any time, and that all the data collected would be destroyed if they elected to do so. Any identifier such as their names and grades were removed from the written artifacts and the transcripts. I used pseudonyms for all the names on the written documents and the interview transcripts, and the real names connected to their pseudonyms were kept in a secure space, which only I had access to. In addition to their names, the raw data including field notes, audio recordings, their writing samples, and interview textual data were only accessed by me.

Issues of Trustworthiness

In acknowledging the influence of researchers' prior experiences and knowledge and seeing participants as co-constructors of knowledge, I do not mean to suggest that researchers do not need to be involved in rigorous data collection and analysis procedures. On the contrary, to gain credibility and transferability, qualitative researchers have to increase the rigor of their studies. First of all, to represent complex, multifaceted, and multiple realities accurately, one single method based on observations may not suffice. Qualitative studies are valued for their ability to elicit "rich descriptions of the social world" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 16), which can be secured through detailed interviewing and observation. This acknowledgement is significant because enriched description is essential to enhance the trustworthiness of qualitative

research. “Thick description” (Atkinson & Delamont, 2008, p. 289; Creswell, 2007, p. 204) based on multiple sources of data is essential to increase a qualitative study’s “transferability” as well (Creswell, 2007, p. 209). That is, it should be noted that readers can decide whether they can transfer the knowledge from a research study to their contexts only when rich descriptions about the settings and participants are provided. Using “multiple sources of evidence” (Yin, 2009, p. 42) is one of the tactics researchers can use to counteract the alleged inability of case studies to develop “a sufficiently operational set of measures” (Yin, 2009, p. 41). Further, Creswell (2007) asserted that the researcher can go back to participants to gain their perspectives on the findings, and even encouraged the researcher to ask the participants “to examine rough drafts of the researcher’s work and to provide alternative language” (p. 208). This is an action designed to improve the credibility of qualitative research as well as to ensure thick description in qualitative research. In sum, I as a researcher enhanced the trustworthiness of this qualitative inquiry by collecting multiple sources of data, providing thick description, and conducting member-checking and extensive observations.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I detailed the research methodology, the role of the researcher, data-collection methods, and issues of ethicality and trustworthiness which have been determined by the nature of the research questions. A case study approach was employed in this dissertation to explore how multilingual writers respond and negotiate different sources of feedback at the doctoral level and how academic writing is related to second language socialization. To access the participants’ perceptions of what they do with the target writing, interviews and interactional data from casual conversations were collected. To examine what they actually do with their work, writing samples with comments, class observations, researcher journals, and written artifacts such as handouts and syllabi were also collected.

Chapters 4 and 5 report the results of this study. In order to deliver a *big picture* view of graduate feedback, findings from all the cases are described in Chapter 4. Then, against the backdrop of this large picture of graduate feedback practices, I present in Chapter 5three case studies individually to allow for more in-depth understandings of each case. Finally, Chapter 6 brings together the insights from Chapters 4 and 5 to discuss what they mean to researchers and practitioners. Pedagogical implications and recommendations follow this engagement with disciplinary knowledge.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS FROM CODED CONTENT ANALYSIS ACROSS CASES

Introduction

This chapter provides descriptions of the results from the coded content analysis of the interviews, written feedback on participants' documents, oral feedback observed in class, and interactions regarding the target papers, in and beyond the classroom. First, it reports the two sets of coding systems that were developed for analyzing feedback experiences (*types of feedback)* and perceived outcomes of academic socialization (*stated outcomes)*. Then, the frequencies and percentages of each category in the current data set are presented, followed by a description of the core tendencies and characteristics across cases and then moving to the comparison of the three cases to make cross-case comparisons where applicable. Based on the frequencies, I delineate what I can see across cases, what is being done frequently, what is being done infrequently, and what the patterns might reveal. Relevant interview excerpts and examples of feedback are also presented for discussion.

Two Coding Schemes

Every category of the two coding systems is presented with names, specifications, and examples in the subsequent text. All the names are pseudonyms.

Types of Feedback

Through multiple readings, I identified types of feedback from multiple data sources: written feedback on the documents, oral feedback in and out of the class, conversations about the target paper outside the class, and the feedback that students said they had received in the past. Then, all the types of feedback identified were divided into 10 categories. First, the definitions of each code and relevant examples from the data are offered.

Table 7

Coding System for Feedback Types

Code name	Description		Examples
1. Positive or negative appraisal	Evaluative comments with reasons for strengths or weaknesses		"Folks—Much better with the online application than with the theoretical set-up for the course and paper. Please see my comments in the margins" (Written feedback, Professor C)
2. Positive comments and approval	Comments to encourage students to keep up the good work or approve what they are doing.		"√" (written feedback, Professor A) "Good statement" (Written feedback, Professor C)
3. Interaction with content	3.1	General interaction with content	"but on p2 you say this is not the goal!" (Written feedback, Professor C)
	3.2	Disciplinary interaction with content	"This is what Dressman & Wilder (2008) discuss in P. Bourdieu & Literacy education edited bk"(Written feedback, Professor A)
4. Academic writing	4.1	Comments on good academic writing	"You can also organize your literature review to reflect studies that focused on these technologies" (Written feedback, Professor A).
	4.2	Comments on using sources appropriately or a documentation error	"This must be in your references…" (Written feedback, Professor C)
5. Mechanics/ paragraphing	Comments on mechanics or paragraphing		"Begin the paragraph here" (Written feedback, Professor A)
6. Linguistic accuracy/ style	Comments on linguistic accuracy in general, personal writing styles, or changes of text to improve linguistic accuracy		"definition" → "definitions" (Written feedback, Professor C)
7. Assignment/ genre expectations	Comments on the expectations professors have on a particular assignment or genre at the moment		"This usually goes right before the chapter summary" (Written feedback, Professor A)
8. Indirect feedback	Underlines or circles without any verbal comments		
9. Deletion, addition, movement of phrases	Changes of text due to unidentified reasons		Phrase deleted: "~~second language beyond the traditional way of teaching L2~~" (Peer feedback, Kate)
10. Beyond the target assignment/ class	Comments that are not directly connected to the target assignment		"My overall comment is for you to get in touch with your dissertation chair to share with him/her your final version completed for me to begin your draft of the 3 chapters." (Written feedback, Professor A)

Each of these categories is explained in more detail below.

Code 1. Positive or negative appraisal. *Positive or negative appraisal* is defined as statements which include evaluative comments with reasons for strengths or weakness. The following samples of feedback are examples of this category:

> • Your intro is very strong, and the examples used in the text are very helpful in making your points (you don't provide an example of a higher-status person speaking deferentially to a lower-status person though.) (Written feedback, Professor B)
>
> • Excellent definition, discussions of methods anchored in published work (Written feedback, Professor A)

Code 2. Positive comments and approval. *Positive comments and approval* involves instances in which professors encourage students to keep up the good work or approve what students are doing or plan to do. Providing a grade also falls under this category. It needs to be noted that this category is different from *Positive or negative appraisal* because this type of response does not come with specific reasons. Examples include, "Nice work on this essay!" (Written feedback, Professor B). Unlike ambiguous markings such as underlines and circles on student drafts which were categorized under Code 8, check marks ("√") on student texts were considered part of this category since professors used them as positive responses to what students did.

Code 3. Interaction with content. *Interaction with content* is characterized as statements through which a professor or peer responds to the contents of student work. Content here includes a research agenda such as research paradigms, theoretical frameworks, or research designs. This category is divided into two subcategories: *General interaction with content* (Code 3.1) and *Disciplinary interaction with content* (Code 3.2). Code 3.1 is defined as a statement that

is a response to content itself or intended to provide recommendations on content. Equally important, this category also includes requests for clarification, more information, or elaboration. Asking a student to be more specific and explicit falls under Code 3.1 as well. The following examples were categorized as Code 3.1:

- It can also be a memo (Written feedback, Professor C)
- How do you know this? (Written feedback, Professor C)
- What paradigmatic influence does Feenberg use to build his own critical theory? (Written feedback, Professor A)

On the other hand, Code 3.2 deals with comments on disciplinary knowledge by offering readings or models, identifying the significance of a study in the field, or talking about filling a gap in the existing knowledge. Among the examples is the following instance of feedback received from a professor, as reported by Mary during an interview:

> She gave some feedback on my paper…I need to focus more on the relation to study here and then on the last one, how this will be like adding to the field or trying to bridge the gap in the field, in the literature (Mary, interview 5).

Code 4. Academic writing. *Academic writing* is divided into two subcategories: Codes 4.1 and 4.2. Code 4.1 was assigned to comments regarding what good academic writing should look like, how to construct, present, and clarify academic arguments, organization, or audience awareness. If a feedback provider does not address any concrete aspect of form such as organization, academic vocabulary, or audience, it becomes an issue of content, which is Code 3. In this sense, *Academic writing* can be more restrictive than *Interaction with content* because it is defined by form. The following example illustrates this feature:

[You] need to present sensible arguments that readers can follow (Oral feedback in class, Professor C)

In contrast, Code 4.2 deals with feedback specifically on using sources appropriately. It also includes comments encouraging students to incorporate sources in their texts. Among the examples are:

• Ugh! Read the original source (Written feedback, Professor C)

• Check APA style. You only capitalize the first word (Written feedback, Professor A)

Code 5. Mechanics/ paragraphing. *Mechanics/ paragraphing* is concerned with comments on mechanics or paragraphing, as the name implies. For instance, when a professor inserted a comma in a draft, it was categorized as Code 5. Alternately, when a participant said in an interview that she went to the writing center and most of the feedback she got was on mechanics, I put the comment under the category of *Mechanics/ paragraphing*.

Code 6. Linguistic accuracy/style. The sixth category for the types of feedback is *Linguistic accuracy/style*. This is defined as feedback on linguistic accuracy in general or personal writing styles, including appropriateness, error correction, or surface-level editing. Besides, when one added, changed, deleted, or moved part of a word, words, or a phrase to improve linguistic accuracy, I labeled it as Code 6. For instance, Professor C crossed out the "s" at the end of the word "papers" in Kate and Susan's paper. This feedback was categorized under Code 6 because he did this to address a grammatical error in the paper.

Code 7. Assignment/Genre expectations. *Assignment/ genre expectations* refers to comments on the expectations a professor had for an assignment or genre that students were working on at that moment. For instance, Professor C wrote "Okay—but the summary should deal with the stated subject of the book" on Kate's short journal assignment. Because I think he

expected a summary as part of the journal and explained his concept of a summary to Kate by writing this comment, I labeled this piece of feedback as *Assignment/genre expectations*. Moreover, in Professor B's and C's classes, I observed that they conducted discussions to develop the criteria for the target task of each class and then negotiated the developed criteria with the class members. For example, one of the criteria for the target paper was "to make sure you talk about the contribution to the field in the paper." I put this statement under Code 7 because it specifically illustrated a requirement of the target paper.

Code 8. Indirect feedback. *Indirect feedback* refers to underlines or circles on the texts collected without any verbal comments.

Code 9. Deletion, addition, movement of phrases without identified reasons. Code 9 needs to be differentiated from the category of *Linguistic accuracy/ style*. In contrast to Code 6, this category was assigned when either a professor or peer asked students to delete, add, or move something from a text or when the professor or peer actually deleted, added, or moved words or phrases due to unidentified reasons. There were instances in which sentences were crossed out by a peer without a written reason. These occurrences were categorized under Code 9.

Code 10. Beyond the target assignment/class. *Beyond the target assignment/class* is defined as comments that are not directly connected to the target assignment but rather to being a doctoral student in general or ways to develop a project beyond class. When the final paper of the semester was a dissertation proposal and a comment dealt with developing future work, the comment was given this code. Another example was seen in a session of Mary's class when I observed that one of the students mentioned her writing group experience. This student said they met once a week, wrote for two hours, took a break, and talked about where they were in the

writing group. Then the professor encouraged students to form a group of this kind. I classified this as oral feedback under Code 10.

Stated Outcomes

This is the second coding system for the current research. I divided aspects of academic socialization into several different categories for an in-depth understanding of what the participants perceived to happen over the course of the semester. First of all, it is necessary to point out that there is a basic distinction between *textual* and *non-textual* in this coding system. Since I collected textual data including students' drafts at different stages of revision, I could in some cases match the perceived changes that participants expressed to concrete evidence of changes in their written documents, such as when they altered their research questions or organizational structures. I designated such instances *textual*. When a participant merely referenced a perceived outcome that was not evinced in her revisions or related to an aspect of academic socialization beyond written texts, this was designated *non-textual*. Thus, when a participant said her research design changed, it could be put under either Code 1.3 (*Stated change in research agenda*) or 5 (*Stated change in research agenda for the future*). If the change happened in the earlier part of the semester and could be traced in later drafts, it would become 1.3, while changes which she intended to address in the future or beyond the class framework would be assigned Code 5.

Table 8

Coding System for Stated Changes

Code name	Description		Examples
1. Changes in academic writing (Textual)	1.1	Stated changes in ways to present arguments, audience awareness, ways of writing	"So I need to put this here, it's not just 'this design is not gonna do so and so.' But I have to refer to my research design and everything." (Mary, interview 3)
	1.2	Stated changes in organization, using sources, or academic vocabulary	"Maybe I should have paraphrased it, supported it from my experiences, instead of just putting Wikipedia as a source." (Kate, interview 3)
	1.3	Stated changes in research agenda	"You see, one thing that I've noticed in here, like toward the end, she has this honorific use in real social contexts and she has some examples in a section in the final paper ..I saw that Yeah, she just, there's one here. OK, yeah, she does have a couple in here. She did take this out, I think, of the final paper." (Professor B, interview)
2. Changes in strategies (Non textual)	Stated changes in writing strategies		"I'm not focusing much now on myself as a second language person especially when I'm writing and for my dissertation specifically, I'm trying to focus more on the ideas and conceptualizations and everything. And then especially in the first draft and then I start improving that in the later drafts. But in the first draft I don't pay attention to this." (Mary, interview 5)
3. Changes in attitudes (Non textual)	Stated changes in attitude toward something		"I become more motivated to continue because this is like what I want and it has to be finished in short time." (Kate, interview3)
4. Changes in behaviors (Non textual)	Stated changes in any aspects of behaviors		"I think last semester was my first time that I talked about an assignment with others in advance. It was because the assignment was too challenging and I was not sure whether or not I was on the right track." (Carol, interview 1)
5. Changes in research agenda (Non textual)	Stated changes in research agenda for the future		"This is like simplified version of what I'm having in my mind for the dissertation. So these comments will help me later on when I plan my dissertation." (Kate, interview 3)
6. Changes in engagement with knowledge base and expectations (Not textual)	Stated change in relation to academic literacy socialization		"But I think that she had an opportunity to build up, build onto the body of knowledge that she already had, and I think that most everybody did that." (Professor B, interview)
7. Change in	Stated change in second		"My language started to develop again" (Mary,

second language ability	language development	interview 5)

In the sections that follow, I offer more details for each category.

Code 1. Stated changes in academic writing (Textual). Code 1 is characterized as a statement regarding academic writing. Code 1.1 includes a statement in which the participants explicitly address aspects of good academic writing. It also includes instances i a feedback provider implies that some changes are necessary in terms of the quality of writing. These changes include ways of presenting and supporting academic arguments and writing style. Also, when the participants mentioned that they became aware of the audience and the need for clarification, it was coded as 1.1. The following examples were labeled as 1.1:

> • So these are the two things that I learned from the feedback, I mean, this clarification came specifically from this last semester from the professor's feedback and my adviser's feedback.…Now I think these are the two important things I need to work on or they will be very helpful in my writing. (Mary, interview 5)
>
> • I used to write emails like, you know, the computer language, short things, 'r' instead of 'are.' At the beginning, I used these. Then I realized ok I'm now in an academia. I have to change my way of writing, so I have to write full, correct words like full sentences, like more formal. Well, I remember once in a class. The professor said ok, I'm not writing in this computer short forms of emails. I'm writing formal things. I said ok this could be a role model for writing. So I just emulated him on writing like full words, not like short words that we use in computer language. It's like, from there I took it. (Kate, interview 3)

Code 1.2 is defined as a statement that deals with organizational issues, using sources, or academic vocabulary. The following example was categorized as Code 1.2: "Another thing that,

I know that it's not good, 'as cited in another source' we have to go to the source itself" (Kate, interview 3). Code 1.3 deals with the perceived changes in the content of a paper or research agenda such as methodology that occurred during the period of data collection. The following example belongs to this category:

> then I told her that actually sampling here is somehow changed when I started working on my chapter 3 because here I start with only purposeful, but actually ended up having two methods of sampling: cluster sampling for the survey, and then purposeful sampling for the interviews, and I explained to her what I mean by each. And she liked that, and she wanted me to even in my draft. I'm gonna submit to her of the proposal. She wanted me to put both of them, so I'm gonna do that (Mary, interview 3)

This unit of statements was categorized as 1.3 because an aspect of Mary's research methodology, sampling strategies, had been changed. Mary said on April 26 that she would change her draft accordingly, and I was indeed able to see this change in her final draft that she submitted one week later.

Code 2. Stated changes in strategies (Non textual). Code 2 is defined as a statement which indicates the participants' writing strategies have changed over a period of time. The following quote from the first interview with Susan
demonstrated that her writing strategy had changed:

> Because, you know, in my first semester, I think I did these mistakes. I was talking to everybody about my paper. …I confused myself because, you know, people have different opinions... So, this semester I filtered this discussion. I choose only one or two students in my cohort or my friends, who's not necessarily to be in a cohort, but

> they understand me, and they understand what I want, and I understand their comments. (Susan, interview 1)

Code 3. Changes in attitudes (Non textual). As the name of this category indicates, Code 3 was assigned to a statement which expressed a change in the participants' attitude toward something. For instance, Kate said in her last interview after the semester, "My attitudes change towards my writing, my courses, my professors, even with my relationship with my cohort. It's totally different now. We understand more …we're here for purpose. This is good. If you have a goal in our life, we have to reach it" (Kate, interview 3).

Code 4. Changes in behaviors (non textual). Code 4 refers to statements that imply a change in any aspect of behavior. This category includes cases in which a change in attitude resulted in a change of behavior in some way, such as ways of communicating with others or becoming more active in reading or attending academic conferences. The following response from Kate demonstrated that her behaviors had changed:

> At the beginning, I used to be shy to ask teachers about readings and stuff like this. It's like readings, or I feel that ok I'll annoy them if I send him an email or asking about different issues. But later I realize that this is the way to communicate with teachers. …I'm not shy any more to ask teachers for help, for even consulting what I'm doing. So this is like a thing that is changed. So I'm not any more shy of asking about anything that has to do with my studies. (Kate, interview 3)

Code 5. Stated changes in research agenda (Non textual). As discussed earlier, this category was differentiated from Code 1.3 in that it includes changes in research agenda that will be implemented in the future and thus cannot be traced on student drafts. The examples in this category range from more general perceptions of research to specific changes in aspects of

research: research design, methodology, paradigms, frameworks, or future directions of research. This characteristic is shown in the following statements: “So on page 8, when we talked here about the purposeful sample, she wanted me to discuss this more and I told her I’m gonna add and discuss more in my three chapters” (Mary, interview 3) and “So basically this course helped me a lot to focus” (Kate, interview 3). The first example from Mary’s interview was coded as 5 because the three chapters here refer to the complete chapters of her dissertation which will be written in the future, not the dissertation proposal which she submitted for this class. She intended to reflect on and implement her professor’s feedback in the future when she works on her dissertation chapters.

Code 6. Engagement with knowledge base and expectations (Non textual). This category is a stated change in relation to students’ engagement with knowledge base and academic expectations. It is different from Code 4 in that it deals with more abstract aspects of being a doctoral student. Among the examples are students who became more familiar with academic contexts, more competent academically, more comfortable with disciplinary knowledge such as theories in the field, or more capable of figuring out academic expectations. The following statements display these characteristics:

> The second thing, in terms of learning, I think I’m now more comfortable with theories than I was at the beginning because when I started my PhD, I didn’t know much about theories. (Mary, interview 5)

This example indicates that Mary recognized there has been a development in her disciplinary knowledge of her field. Also, when a professor noticed that a participant developed the ability to anchor his/her arguments in the existing body of knowledge, it was coded as 6.

Code 7. Stated changes in second language ability. This type of statement was about the participants' perceived changes in their second language ability. In all of these cases, the statement refers to English as an additional language. One example is, "My [second] language started to develop again" (Mary, interview 5).

The results of the coded content analysis are presented in the next sections. I first discuss which types of feedback actually appeared in the doctoral courses and the changes the participants perceived to take place and then shift the focus of discussion away from commonalities among cases to particular cases. Toward the end of each discussion, I describe the contours of feedback provided over time and changes within the four-month semester to establish the timeline of literacy events in three cases.

Types of Feedback at the Doctoral Level

Using the coding system for types of feedback mentioned above, the frequencies and percentages of the feedback that the participants received throughout the semester are presented in this section. Qualitative analysis of interviews is also provided to explore how participants perceived and defined this feedback.

All Participants

Characteristics of doctoral feedback. Figure 5 and Table 9 summarize the participants' overall experiences with feedback by presenting frequencies and percentages of each category.

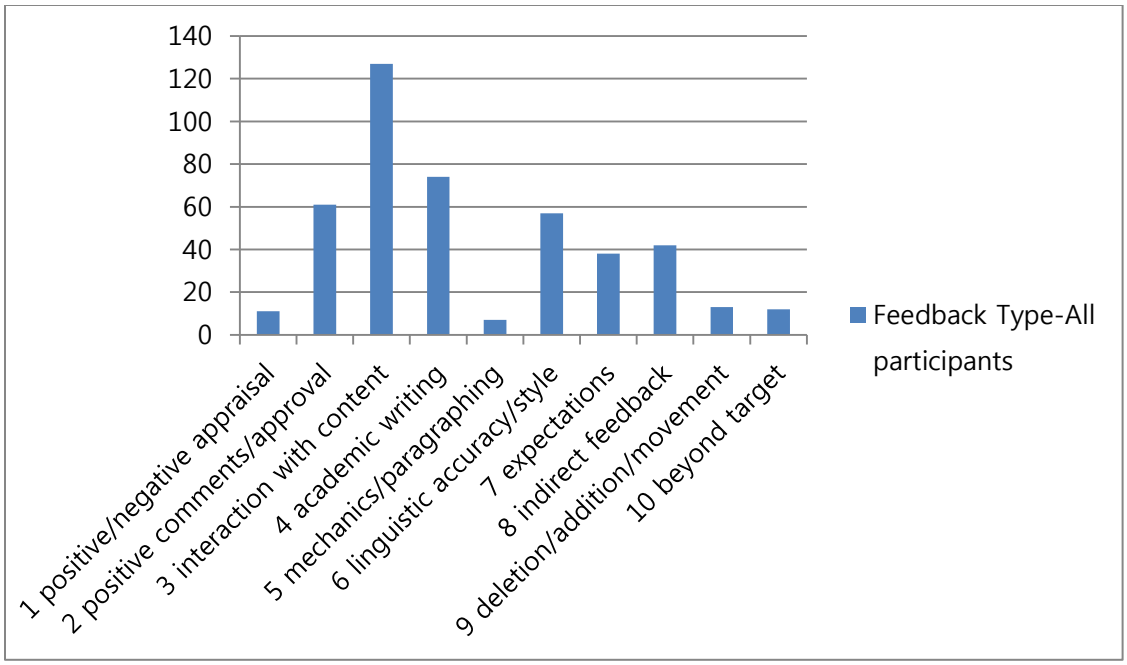


Figure 5. Types of Feedback for all the participants.

Table 9

The Frequency and Percentage of Feedback Types for All Participants

Code		Frequency (442)	% (100)
3	**Interaction with content**	**127**	**29%**
4	**Academic writing**	**74**	**17%**
2	**Positive comments and approval**	**61**	**14%**
6	Linguistic accuracy/ Style	57	13%
8	Indirect feedback	42	9%
7	Assignment/Genre expectations on the target assignments	38	9%
9	Deletion, addition, movement of phrases without identified reasons	13	3%
10	Beyond the target assignment/class	12	3%
1	Positive or negative appraisal	11	2%
5	Mechanics/ paragraphing	7	1%

The most prevalent category in the data was *Interaction with content* (29%). Put simply, the largest proportion of the feedback the participants received was intended to engage with the content of their work, including discipline-specific knowledge. The second most frequent

category was *Academic writing* (17%). When Codes 3 and 4 are combined, the rate becomes 46%, meaning that approximately half of the total amount of feedback consisted of responses to the content of students' writing, including recommendations on content such as research agendas, clarification requests, asking students to be more specific and explicit, or offering advice about what good academic disciplinary writing should look like. It is of note that this result is consistent with Susan's perception about the difference in feedback between second/foreign language and graduate courses. Susan recalled:

> For [ESL students], the kind of feedback was kind of grammatical mistakes, punctuation, not about organizations and thesis statement, and conclusion, abstract. …It's more about the style and grammar. …The graduate courses were documentation, for example, the abstract, the introduction, and conclusion. It's more about content. …They were all about the ideas, the content, the organization, the critical thinking. For example, when asking questions, how do I approach these questions, how do I analyze them. That was the main concern of the graduate teachers. (Interview 1)

Thus, Susan's observation that feedback at doctoral level is mainly concerned with global issues such as content and organization while feedback in language courses is more about surface-level issues was reaffirmed the by the results of the study. Susan found the emphasis on global issues in graduate-level feedback to be helpful.

The third most prevalent category was *Positive comments and approval* of what students were doing. Participants demonstrated tendencies to highly value positive feedback from professors and consciously attempted to reinforce those aspects of their writing that professors approved or complemented. As such, this result provides empirical evidence for the notion that certain types of feedback practices can only exist in the reciprocal interactions between

professors and student writers. Additionally, one professor actually felt the participants' dependence on his approval. Professor C "was kind of surprised how dependent [Kate] was upon [his] giving her approval" (Interview). This indicated that some professors might not realize how powerful positive feedback can be. Reciprocal relationships in feedback practices entail some forms of interactions through which contextual negotiation of writing demands occurs. For instance, a prominent characteristic in Kate and Susan's case occurred when during a conference at the beginning of April, the professor approved Kate and Susan's idea to collaborate for their final papers:

> And when [Kate] and [Susan] approached me about collaborating, I told them that I'm perfectly comfortable with collaboration and that I believe that every professional should learn how to do that. But the difficulty comes in grading because I've seen collaborations where one person has done 90% of the work and the other person10% and then they both get an A. That is unfair, and so I told [them] that they needed to tell me how they wanted me to paper-grade, and I would review that. If I had difficulty with it or disagreed with it, then you would need to meet me and talk about it (Interview, Professor C).

After this decision had been made, the professor provided them with individualized criteria that they had to meet for their final collaboration paper.

On the other hand, it is interesting that feedback on *Linguistic accuracy/style* amounts to only 13% of the total feedback. Additionally, out of 57 pieces of feedback on *Linguistic accuracy and style*, 54 pieces of feedback were provided in written form by professors and peers. And 3 comments came orally from peers: one was from writing center tutors, and the other two comments were on personal stylistic preferences. Thus, practically every instance of feedback

intended to improve linguistic accuracy, including the ones to correct surface errors, was provided in written form. The distribution of different types of feedback proves that graduate feedback is not only about improving the linguistic accuracy of student writing but also about socializing graduate students, who are newcomers in the academic community, into CoPs and their valued literacy practices.

Indeed, 72% of the feedback addressed ways of writing and thinking as members of academic communities, rather than fixing errors and making judgments about the correctness or incorrectness of written constructions: *Interaction with content* (29%), *Academic writing* (17%), *Positive comments and approval* (14%), *Assignment and genre expectations* (9%), and *Beyond the target class* (3%). Thus, feedback allows graduate students to experience what is valued and expected, thereby enabling them to learn how to present arguments in academically appropriate ways, which can vary from discipline to discipline. In other words, feedback can serve as a tool that mediates academic socialization.

It is also necessary to point out from a pedagogical perspective that participants received very little *Positive or negative appraisal.* Based on these results, the rate is as low as 2%. This suggests that students received a limited amount of explicit feedback on their strengths and weaknesses. Considering that being aware of strengths and weaknesses of their writing seems to be significant, this might do a disservice to students. In fact, the type of feedback that Susan and Carol felt was very useful and had a sustainable effect on their writing was feedback that pointed out explicitly what their strengths and weaknesses were. Carol and Susan said:

> 그 포맷을 만드셔서 정확하게 루브릭을 바탕으로 어느 부분에 대한 장점과 단점이 논해진 상태기 때문에, 카테고리화되 있잖아요. 그렇기 때문에 장점과 단점을 분명하게 볼 수가 있었거든요. 그래서 지난 학기를 지나서 이번 학기에 왔을 때는 항상 아, 내가 이런 부분이 약하다는 걸 생각을 하고 반영하려고 노력하긴 하죠 (Carol, Interview 1)

> A professor from last semester created a rubric for different aspects of writing such as organization, the quality of arguments, and language. He provided verbal comments for each category and kind of categorized my strengths and weaknesses so that I was able to clearly see how my writing was. After that experience, I try to address those comments when I write this semester. (Carol, Interview 1)
>
> Let me talk about two papers: one of them is for Dr. Z. and the other one is for Dr. N. The one for Dr. Z. I like his comments because he gave us a rubric which for me is a new experience. …The idea of rubric just gives me I know directly where to go…Dr. N used a rubric in a different way. Whenever there is a mistake in a paragraph, he gives explanations for those weaknesses. (Susan, Interview 1)

What Carol and Susan explained suggests that students can benefit when professors frame their feedback in terms of general aspects of academic writing rather than particular statements students have made within a given assignment. In other words, "you need to work on developing ideas" might be more helpful than "you need to add more support to this sentence." Thus, professors need to be more explicit about what students did well and what they need to work on.

Having established the breakdown of the feedback types received, it is important to note that the nature of feedback received from professors was greatly different from that received from peers, as shown in Figure 6:

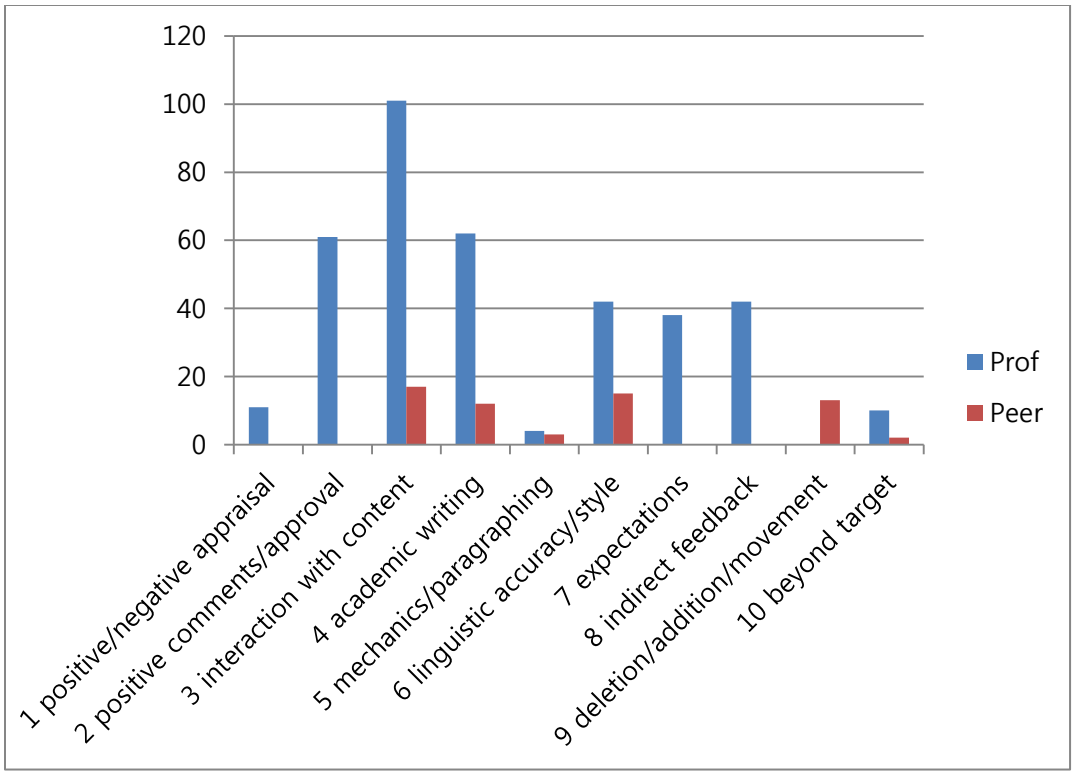


Figure 6. Professor vs. peer feedback (all participants).

Figure 6 indicates that professors and peers comment on different aspects with different focuses and frequency, and there are far fewer comments from peers. Out of 442 comments, only 54 comments came from peers. The type of feedback peers offered most was regarding *Interaction with content* (17), followed by *Linguistic accuracy* (15). This means that peers were more comfortable providing feedback on content and linguistic accuracy. Moreover, four categories did not appear at all in peer feedback: *Positive comments/approval*, *Expectations*, *Positive or negative appraisal*, and *Indirect feedback*. In other words, peers did not comment on what was expected for a particular assignment and what their peers did well or poorly. To a certain extent, professors are the ones who set goals and expectations for a specific task and know better about the expectations in academic communities. Additionally, students may not be sure what their strengths and weaknesses are, or they may not simply choose not to provide this feedback for some reason. Thus, if professors do not provide feedback of these types, it is not difficult to

imagine how challenging it would be for students to figure out whether or not they are on the right track with addressing the audience's expectations appropriately and to determine what they can do to reinforce their strengths and compensate for their weaknesses. Also, it seems that a certain amount of expertise and power is necessary to address strengths and weaknesses of writing. It is highly likely that professors have much more of this expertise, power, and professional experience than peers. Another possible explanation could be the dynamics in the interactions among students with diverse backgrounds and different concepts of good academic writing.

Perceptions about and definitions of feedback. Taking a step further from describing the core tendencies in feedback practices, I present the participants' perceptions of feedback to examine the role it played in their writing and revising processes. Generally speaking, all the participants felt very positive about feedback, specifically professor feedback. Additionally, they were confident about its helpfulness not only to subsequent revisions but also, surprisingly enough, beyond the class and the paper in question. They appreciated not only positive feedback on their writing but also negative feedback because of its benefits to their future writing. According to Kate, "I like to have comments on the negative sides of my papers: How to improve, how to make the positive aspects even stronger for future papers" (Interview 1). This research demonstrated that feedback from professors can be valuable, constructive, and effective.

> • For the feedback from my professors it helped a lot because if I got something from one professor, this will help me in another course, in writing another paper for another professor. So always feedback is a good thing to have from teachers. Even from peer review from friends reading a paper … It's always helpful from different people. And I learned a lot actually from the writing center. (Kate, Interview 3)

• I learned a lot, and I started thinking of more ideas, more specifics. (Mary, Interview 4)

Some professors and their feedback, they are very detailed and they draw your attention to every single point you need to reconsider or think about it again (Mary, Interview 5)

More significantly, what Kate said reveals that students face more than one voice, and they process feedback from multiple directions across assignments and courses. It is also critical to see how feedback became more helpful in Mary's case:

> Although at the beginning of the semester, the feedback was not very much relevant to what I'm doing because we didn't have this much understanding of each other, as the semester progresses, we talked more. So the feedback became very helpful. Very helpful, I mean, I'm gonna use a lot of this feedback as I'm putting together not just my proposal for her class, but mainly for the 3 chapters because it's very interesting. (Mary, Interview 4)

This quote shows that feedback is not simply unidirectional communication between professor and student writer, as one might expect given the existing power relationship between the two parties. Rather, it is dialogic and reciprocal. When students start feeling that comments are "relevant" to their agenda and they achieve some level of reciprocal "understanding" with their professors, the helpfulness of feedback can be maximized.

However, Susan mentioned a type of feedback that was not helpful to her:

> I didn't know what is going on in the paper because the comments were very general. You know, I didn't even know how to rewrite it again. Apart from the other papers, the feedback was just, "You did good. You need to revise this." In what way? Revision

means everything for me. It means grammar. It means style. It means content. (Interview 1)

This participant became frustrated because she was not able to figure out which aspects of her paper could be revised and in what way. For her, getting her paper back with an A was insufficient for her development as a writer.

In addition to the dialogic nature of feedback, it is also worth noting from the quotes above that feedback can trigger a thinking process which is integral for learning to take place. The effect of a piece of feedback provided in one assignment does not seem to be limited to that assignment. This was demonstrated when Kate strategically applied advice about one paper to a paper for another course. The quotes above illustrate that feedback can be a starting point for a flow of ideas and allow writers to pay attention to aspects which were previously overlooked. A notable example is written feedback from reviewers of a journal that Mary found quite constructive:

> When I submitted this paper to publication, I got extensive feedback like 3 pages of feedback from the reviewers. They rejected it, but they told me, "If you work on these points, you can resubmit it as a new manuscript." Of course, I don't have time to do that now, but what I'm telling you is that this feedback is really eye-opening because when I was reading it, it was like, yeah, that makes sense. (Mary, interview 5)

Another important observation is that feedback serves as a tool for co-construction of knowledge, negotiation, and learning how to present arguments academically. I found an interesting instance when, unlike other occurrences in which feedback had an immediate impact upon subsequent drafts, it took some time to address the issue raised by feedback. More significantly, this line of feedback had a noticeably sustainable effect on the student's future

writing in a positive way. The following reflections show how Mary learned the importance of "being clear and specific" in academic writing. Mary and her professor had different assumptions regarding "being critical" at the beginning of the semester:

> • I told her by critical I mean being able to make critical decisions about what to use, what not to use, how to use it, how maybe to tweak the technology to suit the students and things like that. So these are critical decisions, critical thinking decisions. So this is why… the whole theoretical framework is called critical theory of technology. (Mary, Interview 3)
>
> • I assume when I talk about critical theory in composition and TESOL, I assume that everybody knows I'm talking about Paulo Freire's and it's all about empowerment and power relations and issues like that. So that's what I assumed that she understood it as. She's talking about this Feenburg's technology, critical theory in technology. And the way that author or researcher uses critical theory is totally different. And that needed to be clearly stated from the beginning when we started having that conversation, and that wasn't done until later. …maybe I wasn't clear enough, or maybe I assume too much. (Professor A, Interview)

As shown above, Mary and her professor had different assumptions about what Mary meant by critical theory in her drafts at the beginning of the semester. In fact, the feedback on this issue came up several times in different modes throughout the semester, which caused some tension between the professor and Mary. These different notions of "critical" can be traced back to their asserted memberships within academic communities. Mary drew upon critical theory of technology in the field of using technology in education, while Professor A saw the term from the TESOL field. This led to a situation where Mary got frustrated because she felt the professor

did not understand her theoretical framework. Conversely, the professor felt Mary was resistant to her suggestion due to Mary's lack of effort to address her feedback. They eventually came to understand each other's expectations for the theoretical framework portion of Mary's proposal assignment by conversing during an individual conference with the written feedback in front of them. This specific situation clearly demonstrates how both Professor A and Mary negotiated tension. Mary chose to explain her theoretical framework more explicitly in her proposal. She could have changed her theoretical framework, which in turn would have caused her to make a radical change to her dissertation research project. However, Mary's goal at that time did not seem to reconceptualize her research itself, partly because she already received positive responses from her prospective advisor; she also might not have wanted to spend too much energy and time reconfiguring her research. Although Professor A did not seem convinced of Mary's use of critical theory of technology, she advised Mary to state clearly and explicitly what Mary meant by "critical." Thus, it seems that some types of feedback take longer to process than others depending on what the feedback addresses, the writer's goal at the moment, and the amount of negation involved. That is, longer processing time and repeated feedback in different forms may be needed in order for some feedback to become "internally persuasive," in Bakhtin's (1981) terminology.

In short, the empirical evidence in the present study reveals that the feedback the doctoral students receive is not limited to linguistic aspects of academic writing. It also serves as a space where a new line of thinking occurs, and members of academic communities interact with each other and construct knowledge together.

Three Cases: Cross-case Comparisons

Three individual cases are presented together in this section: (1) Mary, (2) Carol, and (3) Kate and Susan. Unlike the previous section, I put the three cases side-by-side in order to discuss

the differences and similarities between the participants' comments across the cases. As seen in Table 10, one of the observations that is immediately apparent is a lack of uniformity among students' feedback experiences, which contradicts the belief that doctoral students would have uniform feedback experiences. The data shows how diverse the feedback types are, even in the same program, and that students do not really have the same experiences. To begin with, there is a noticeable difference in the amount of feedback itself across the three cases. For instance, Carol received about a fifth of the amount of feedback Mary was given. Mary was provided with the largest amount of feedback among the cases. Carol and Mary are extreme cases; one with a lot of feedback (248) and the other with little feedback (44).

Table 10

Frequency Distribution of Feedback Types Appeared in Three Cases

Code	Name	Mary		Carol		Kate Susan	
1	Positive or negative appraisal	4		3		3	
2	Positive comments and approval	38		7		16	
3	3.1 General interaction with content	76	(92)	9	(9)	22	(26)
	3.2 Disciplinary interaction with content	16		0		4	
4	4.1 Academic writing	18	(28)	8	(10)	19	(36)
	4.2 Academic writing	10		2		17	
5	Mechanics/ paragraphing	1		2		4	
6	Linguistic accuracy/ Style	16		3		38	
7	Assignment/Genre expectations on the target assignments	15		10		14	
8	Indirect feedback	42		0		0	
9	Deletion, addition, movement of phrases without identified reasons	0		0		13	
10	Beyond the target assignment/class	12		0		0	
Total	[442 in total—all participants]	248		44		150	

Two codes, *Interaction with content* and *Academic writing,* were the most frequently occurring feedback types across the cases. *Expectations*, *Academic writing,* and *Interaction with content* were provided often. One of the notable phenomena that this cross-case comparison enables me to look at is the similarities in the amount of feedback on *Expectations*. Despite the significant difference in the amount across cases, all the participants received a similar amount of feedback on *Expectations*. This adds evidence to the idea that, generally speaking, professors try to actively engage students with feedback intended to clarify guidelines and conventions, and this is in addition to the provision of task descriptions on the syllabus. Hence, it is legitimate to argue that a central function of graduate feedback is to help students figure out and meet academic expectations.

Strategies for providing this feedback, however, might be varied, and this observation will be detailed in Chapter 5. One professor provided written feedback along with oral explanations in class. Another arranged a discussion session in class to develop criteria for the assignment. The third distributed a detailed description of the final paper and encouraged students to discuss the requirements of the paper. That is, even when the participants were offered feedback of similar types in a similar amount, the mode of delivery and the level of expected engagement and negotiation varied. This again suggests that feedback experiences are very individualized, contextualized, and situated at the doctoral level.

In contrast, there are feedback types that did not appear; *Indirect feedback*, *Deletion, addition, movement of phrases without identified reasons*, *Beyond the target assignmen*t. These categories of feedback were not offered in general. Mary was the only one who got feedback *beyond the target assignment/class*. The other categories in which all the participants received a similar amount of feedback are *Positive or negative appraisal* and *Mechanics and paragraphing*.

All rarely received feedback on these areas. This is another similarity that arises from the cross-case comparison. Kate and Susan were the only ones who received *Deletion/Addition/Movement*. A possible explanation for this could be that they worked together for the final paper. That is, they shared equal level of ownership of the written product to the point where each student was able to delete, add, or move phrases even without providing reasons. In a sense, their focus was more on "revising" the draft itself than on "offering" feedback to their partner.

Thus far, the results from the analysis using the coding system for *types of feedback* and interviews have been described to examine the role of graduate feedback. The next section discusses the possible learning outcomes in the participants' socialization processes.

Stated Outcomes at the Doctoral Level

The coding system for *stated outcomes* has been developed from the interview data. Qualitative content analysis was conducted to uncover the changes the participants believed happened throughout their educational experience in the program. This section is organized in such a way that the analysis of the data from all participants is presented, followed by the description of three cases side-by-side to reveal an overall picture of the possible outcomes of academic socialization and then compare the differences, if any, between the three cases.

Before elaborating on the results regarding *stated changes*, it is important to acknowledge that looking at both *types of feedback* and *stated changes* generates a very interesting picture. It appears that the more feedback the participants received, the more changes they mentioned, as noted in Table 11. However, it cannot be said there is a statistical positive correlation between the amount of feedback given and the stated change at this point.

Table 11

Frequency Distribution of Feedback and Stated Outcomes in Three Cases

	Mary	Kate and Susan	Carol
Feedback	248	150	44
Stated outcomes	45	30	15

It seems reasonable to say that comments can trigger a thinking process that otherwise would not have been set in motion. As Kate recognized, "Actually the [professor] comments reminded me of other things that I didn't pay attention in the first time" (Kate, Interview 3). She actually felt her professor's feedback "enlighten[ed]" her (Kate, Interview 3). She in turn stated, "Ok. I should start thinking about this direction too when I talk about this topic" (Kate, Interview 3). It is more likely that students who engage more feedback go through more changes as their education progresses. This in itself is worth noting since the more feedback they received (regardless of the type and perceived quality), the more frequently they mentioned positive changes. The following section reports the findings regarding learning outcomes.

All Participants: Sustainable Effects of Feedback

First, it is necessary to mention that one of the common patterns of behavior across the three units was that students reflected on their lifestyles as doctoral students as well as on their writing abilities. All the participants took the feedback from the previous semester seriously to the point where they used some important aspect of feedback as a guideline for their current studies. That is, when participants processed feedback on their current drafts, they also saw it as advice on how they could improve their writing in the future. Certainly the effect of professor feedback on academic writing in the previous semesters lasted well beyond the semesters during which it was originally given and turned out to have a sustained effect on the writing practices and strategies they used afterwards. For example, Susan printed out the comments she received

from the previous semesters and “put [them] on the wall and [she was] trying to follow this. It becomes like a guideline for [her] other papers” (Susan, Interview 1).

Figure 7 and Table 12 display the frequencies and percentages of the changes that the participants reported. Figure 7 summarizes the aspects the participants felt they had developed based on the interview data.

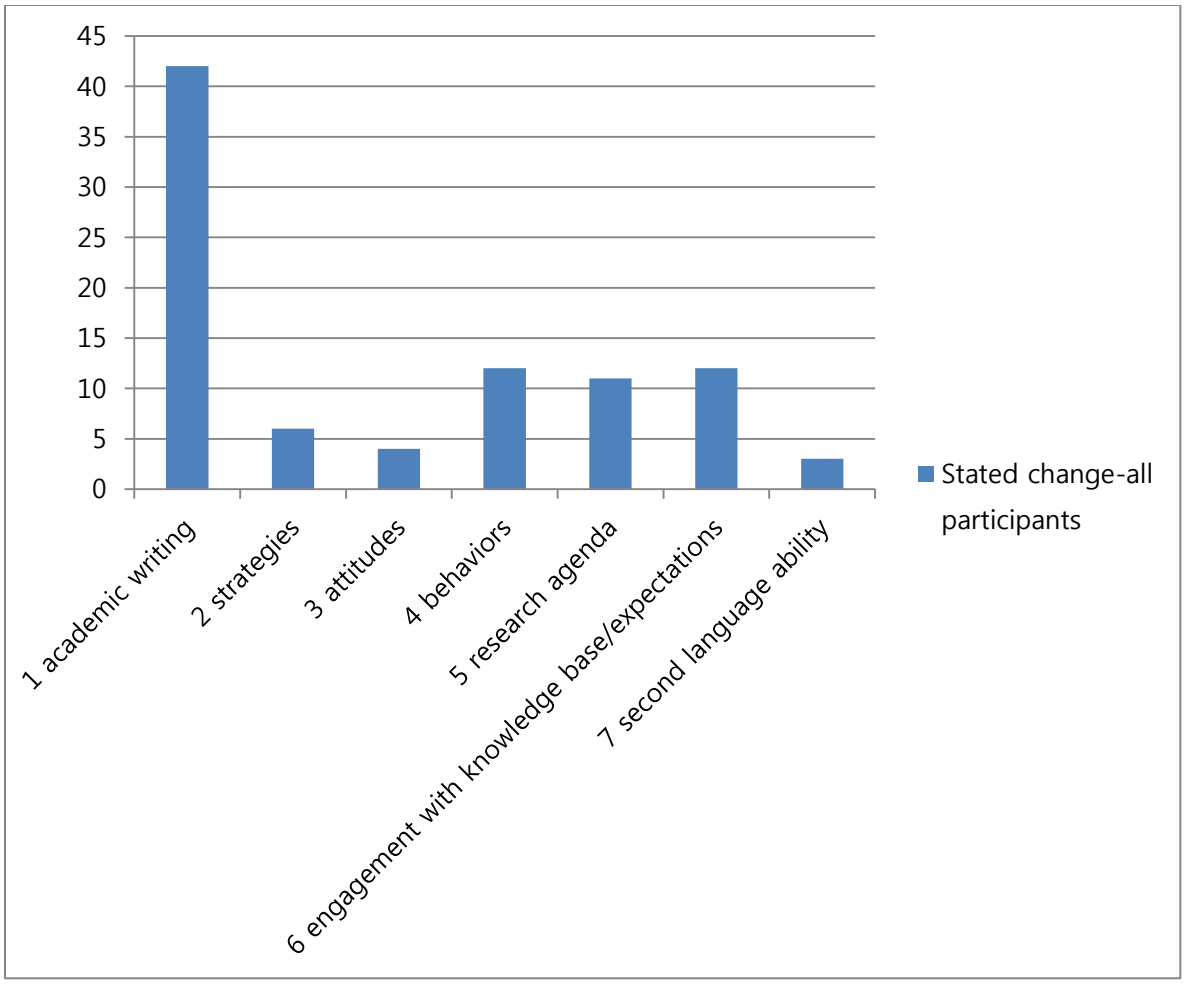


Figure 7. *Stated Changes*—all participants.

Table 12

Frequency and Percentage of Stated Changes—All Participants

Code		Sub category	Frequency (90)	% (100)
1. Stated changes in academic Writing (Textual)	42 (**47%**)	1.1	22	24%
		1.2.	16	18%
		1.3.	4	5%
2. Stated changes in strategies			6	7%
3. Stated changes in attitudes			4	5%
4. Stated changes in behaviors			12	13%
5. Stated changes in research agenda (Non textual)			11	12%
6. Stated changes in engagement with knowledge base and expectations			12	13%
7. Stated changes in second language ability			3	3%

Most comments fell under the categories of contents and academic writing, as discussed in the previous section, and, most noticeably, this trend seems to be reflected in what participants perceived to have changed. The most frequently occurring outcome category was changes in *Academic writing*, which covers as much as 47% of the data. The statements in this category reveal that the participants felt their academic writing developed in various aspects, including attaining disciplinary knowledge, engaging with this knowledge, and developing a research agenda. Students became aware that the types of writing they were expected to produce in the U.S. were different from those in their home countries. This awareness allowed students to shape their thinking and writing to meet the demands of the field. For instance, Kate stated, “Now I have to think back and write in this direction since many journals demand this type of writing” (Interview 3). Taking this finding a step further, all the participants mentioned in one way or another that their arguments should be grounded in an established theoretical base. Mary realized that she needed to draw “support…from the literature” (Mary, Interview 3) in academic writing,

and Susan also argued that students should try not to "say anything if you don't have what supports your argument" (Susan, Interview 2). When Mary's interviews at different times were juxtaposed, it is easy to recognize how her process of learning academic writing unfolded. For example, the following two quotes demonstrated the progression in her understanding of how to clarify an argument:

> • When she [the professor] started here highlighting "power" and "status," when she were highlighting "power" and put somewhere else the comment … on critical theory and how she's seeing critical theory and how I'm seeing it. And she told me that whenever you, especially the first time you introduce critical theory in your 3 chapters, make sure you explicitly say what you mean by that... So that was something very important. (Mary, Interview 4)
>
> • How to clarify my ideas and to be explicit about what I want to say because I still remember the problem I had with the professor on critical theory. …Other difference bases sometimes I assume too much or assume because my readers know what I may be talking about, so I don't have to clarify this, but I realize that, no. In academic writing, I have to say all no matter what my readers might know because not all my readers will be on the same page. So I have to be clear, so this is one of the best things I learned over time here in the program and from the feedback I got that I need to clarify. (Mary, Interview 5)

The first quote references the feedback Mary received on a short essay assignment submitted on April 9. By processing the written feedback from the professor, she started becoming aware that her concept of "being clear and explicit" was insufficient to meet her professor's expectations for academic writing. As a matter of fact, this issue came up several times in written feedback from

the professor, specifically on several pieces of her essays that she turned in during the first half of the semester. The second quote above was what Mary said after the semester ended. She reflected on her writing experiences, which allowed her to realize the importance of clarifying her arguments enough for readers to understand. This example indicates that graduate students might not be able to acquire some aspects of academic writing immediately or by simply being given instructions in abstract terms. Rather, a sense of what constitutes "clear" explanations in an academic context can be acquired through producing actual writing, receiving feedback on the writing, and engaging with the feedback. In this regard, some learning can happen by performance. Mary successfully, if not easily and naturally, learned this ability by reflecting and engaging with the feedback actively throughout the semester. The fact that she mentioned this theme several times in her interviews means she reflected on this issue many times. Indeed, she did not just reflect on how to address this issue. She prioritized the issues to address in relation to her current goal. Once she came to understand her professor's feedback, Mary had several options. She could have altered her theoretical framework, a critical theory of technology, to match the professor's understanding of critical theory. Instead, she chose to stick with her theoretical framework and make it more acceptable in the instructor's view by establishing what she meant by "critical." In choosing the latter option, Mary selected the aspects of her writing to change and determined which changes were most urgent. Essentially Mary appropriated expectations that her professor expressed through feedback. Perhaps this event will linger long in her memory and so will the learning.

Another aspect worth noting is the possible reasons for the claimed changes in academic writing. At first I was going to trace which instance of feedback led to which perceived change. However, it was not long before I realized that this was practically impossible. Oftentimes, it was

hard to identify specific reasons for changes. Changes which were abstract and multifaceted in nature (essentially all changes except for those related to spelling or other sentence-level concerns) seemed to be triggered by several factors, which were also abstract themselves. Nonetheless, according to the interviews with the participants, about eight instances of change could be attributed to written professor feedback; four to what a professor said in class; one to models of a relevant genre; one to oral peer feedback; and one to a scholarly event in the department. Another three cases of changes seemed to have happened because of the general literacy practices developed during the previous semester. Recalling a moment when she asked her collaborator, Kate, whether she had a quote to support an argument on their draft, Susan actually said, "This is I think what we learned from Dr. Z's class last semester" (Susan, Interview 2). Furthermore, it needs to be noted that Code 1.2 (*Stated changes in organization, using sources, or academic vocabulary*) covers as much as 18% of all the changes that happened, which means that organization and citing practices were so prominent among aspects of academic writing that I had to create a subcategory for these aspects.

Secondly, change in *Academic writing* was followed by the categories of changes in *Behaviors* and *Engagement with knowledge base and expectations* at 13% each. Comments of this type can lead to a change in how to approach a task. Kate said after the semester, "[the professor] reminded me, from his comments, he reminded me to do other readings, other additions for the paper, and this will increase the amount of readings, the amount of writing, more ideas to write about" (Kate, Interview 3). The comments that her group received on their final paper allowed them to shape their ways of defining a writing task and developing their work beyond the class.

The statements coded as *Engagement with knowledge base and expectations* demonstrated that the participants developed the ability to build onto the body of knowledge they had, to relate a variety of topics with their established knowledge, and to guess the expectations in a class or in the academic field. This strongly suggests that socialization is a primarily function of feedback, particularly at the doctoral level. In fact, Carol said what she learned in her first semester in the program became her background knowledge in the second semester, which in turn helped her get accustomed to academic contexts and made it easier to figure out the various expectations she would encounter therein. This echoes her professor's reflection on Carol's socialization:

> I did see that there was a change from the earlier part of the semester to the later part of the semester with regard to her ability to talk about a variety of different linguistic terms and practices and kind of combine them and talk about them in relation to some of the other texts and some of the other presentations (Professor B, Interview).

Through their many experiences of engaging feedback and addressing the writing demands of their target classes, students came to realize that different academic settings involve different expectations:

> When I started, I felt that OK, it's not a big deal. It's similar to the proposal I did for my Master's thesis, but then I realized 'no.' At PhD, it's a different story because the sections are different, the organization, and actually the discipline because my Masters was in TESOL, but this is composition. So the discipline is different. The requirements are different. The organization, the sections, and the use of a theory and paradigm and all this was all new to me. (Mary, Interview 5)

This realization can allow learners to become more flexible and open-minded so that they can shape their established writing practices and assumed expectations across contexts, thereby ultimately broadening their academic repertoire.

It is interesting to see that most participants felt that their course papers could be reconfigured for purposes and audiences outside of class. Mary, Kate, and Susan constantly considered the possibility of developing their papers beyond class either for conference presentations or publications. This goal, which was also influenced by their perceptions of "being doctoral students," appears to have had a great impact on their ways of approaching feedback, negotiating different sources of feedback, and their level of engagement in seeking various interactions about their work outside the classroom. This again raised the participants' awareness of the academic expectations beyond their institution. It raised their perception of feedback, even the feedback provided indirectly and subtly in a nontraditional way or directed to their peers. In particular, Kate, Mary, and Susan were observed seeking feedback from various channels (a consultation process which their professors may not have been aware of): scholars in the field, a professor in the program who was not teaching the target course, tutors at the writing center, and peers. This helps explain how students construct themselves as future researchers and adjust their behaviors accordingly. Indeed, Mary revised and submitted some of her course papers to academic journals for publication.

Of the 90 mentioned changes, only three instances were about *Second language ability*, which was about 3% of the total. Further, Carol never mentioned her improved second language ability. It is not certain whether the period of observation was too short for them to notice their second language development or whether their second language ability did not significantly improve within that time period. Perhaps their second language ability improved, but they simply

did not pay attention to the linguistic aspects due to other major concerns. Another possible explanation can be that second language development is so closely intertwined with academic writing development that it is practically impossible to separate these two constructs. The participants were not taking a language course, but a doctoral course in which English, a second language to them, was necessary to function in the academic contexts and deepen disciplinary knowledge, rather than merely functioning as an object of learning. This can further make it problematic to think of academic writing and second language development separately at this level.

Following this line of reasoning, the fact that the participants did not put second language learning at the forefront of their reflections does not necessarily mean that it is not important. Rather, it might mean that this academic community requires a higher level of second language ability than the settings where language itself is the sole emphasis of instruction. If this is the case, given that the participants were very much concerned about their development in academic writing, it is hard to conclude that second language development is not noticeable. Considered as a whole, Figure 7 above shows that the participants perceived changes in not only their academic writing but also other aspects such as behaviors or strategies. Thus, the possible outcomes of academic socialization entail more than learning about writing conventions.

Three Cases: Cross-case Comparisons

The figure and table below show the frequencies and percentages of *stated changes* without merging the three cases to uncover the differences and similarities across the cases.

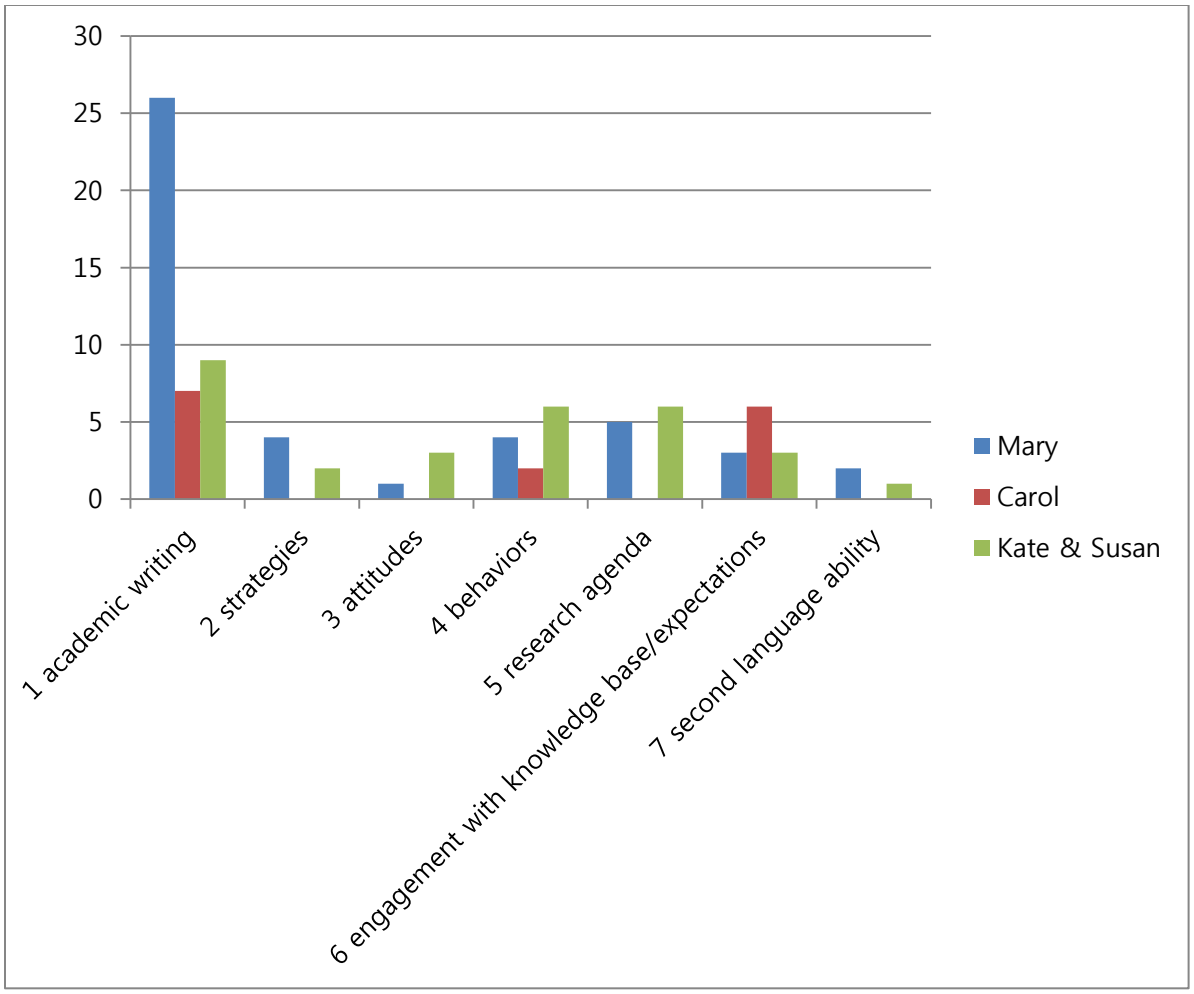


Figure 8. *Stated Changes*—three cases.

Table 13

Frequency of Stated Changes in Three Cases

		All participants	Mary	Carol	Kate & Susan
Code		Frequency (90)	(45)	(15)	(30)
1. Stated changes in academic writing (textual)	1.1	22	15	2	5
	1.2	16	9	3	4
	1.3	4	2	2	0
2. Stated changes in strategies		6	4	0	2
3. Stated changes in attitudes		4	1	0	3
4. Stated changes in behaviors		12	4	2	6
5. Stated changes in research agenda (Non textual)		11	5	0	6
6. Stated changes in engagement with knowledge base and expectations		12	3	6	3
7. Stated changes in second language ability		3	2	0	1

In all three cases, the most frequent category was *changes in academic writing* despite the variations across the cases: Mary with 58%, Carol with 47%, and Kate and Susan with 30% when the subcategories were put together. This is systematic with the previous results about all cases. All the participants stated that changes in three categories, *Academic writing*, *Behaviors*, and *Engagement with knowledge base and expectations*, occurred despite the fluctuations in the frequencies across the cases. This clearly shows that not only did academic writing develop throughout the semester but also their behaviors changed, and they were socialized into the academic communities to which they sought to fully belong. This empirical data supports previous findings (Casanave, 2008; Duff & Talmy, 2011; Morita, 2004) that L2 writers are academically socialized into CoPs by engaging themselves in academic literacy practices.

As seen in Figure 8 and Table 13, however, three cases display different distributions of the top categories within *stated changes*. In Mary's case, the second most frequent category was *changes in research agenda*. In Carol and her professor's interviews, the second most prevalent category was *Engagement with knowledge base and expectations*. This suggests that Carol

developed more theoretical knowledge in the field, became more familiar with disciplinary knowledge, and developed her ability to build arguments on her existing body of knowledge to a greater extent than she had in the previous semesters. What Carol and her professor said in their individual interviews confirmed this because they were aware of what Carol became capable of toward the end of the semester. In contrast, Kate and Susan's case reveals that *academic writing* was followed by two categories: *changes in behaviors* and *research agenda*. Thus, the analysis of the doctoral students' perceptions of what happened suggests that, by engaging themselves in various literacy practices inside and outside of the classroom, the students went through changes in academic writing, behaviors as doctoral students, ways of thinking, attitudes, and research agendas. Moreover, it is clear that they perceived these changes as positive for their future development as researchers and scholars.

Now that I have addressed the types of feedback the participants were offered and the changes they perceived to have happened, I shift the focus of the discussion toward a more dynamic component of feedback types and changes.

Timed Contours and a Holistic View of Feedback and Stated Outcomes

In addition to categorizing the types of feedback and stated changes, I incorporated time-division into the analysis. That is, I recorded which types of feedback were provided in which month and which changes the participants perceived in which month, from January to June. Further, when the participants said that some change happened prior to the start of data collection, I recorded them as *previous semesters* in the timed contours. In this section, I present verbal descriptions of the contours: specifically, what types of feedback are most likely to be given at particular times during the semester and the reasons behind these patterns of distribution. Put simply, I report here where there are peaks, how they play out according to a time frame, and why that is. Figure 9 demonstrates that different types of feedback display different contours,

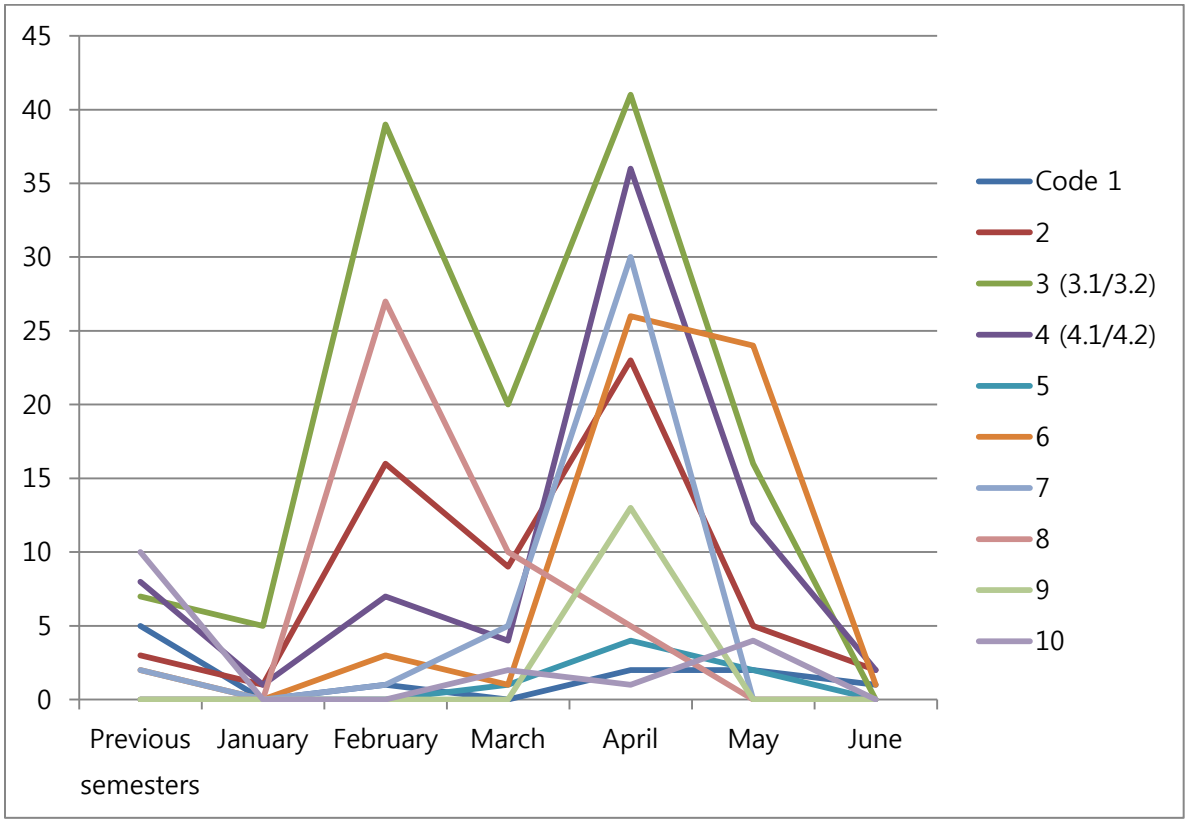
meaning that feedback was different with regard to its nature and when it was provided. At the same time, and equally interesting, the contours nonetheless illustrate that there is a tendency for feedback to appear most in February and April. Table 14 shows what literacy events occurred in each class framework in relation to time throughout the semester.

Table 14

Timeline of Literacy Events in Three Cases

	Mary	Carol	Kate & Susan
January	• **Short write-up 1**		• Topic of the paper decided • **Note cards (reading response)**
February	• **Short write-up 2** • **Short write-up 3** • **Short write-up 4** • **Short write-up 5** • **Peer written feedback** provided on write-up 5 • **Short write-up 6** • **1st individual conference** with professor		
March	• **Short write-up 7** • Interview 1 with Mary	**Paper #1** returned	• **Note cards (reading response)**
April	• **Short write-up 8** • **Short write-up 9** • Interview 2 with Mary • **Proposal draft** • **Short write-up 10** • **2nd individual conference** with prof • Interview 3 & 4 with Mary • **Final proposal** submitted	• **Description of the target paper distributed & discussed in class** • Interview 1 with Carol • **Individual conference** with professor • Interview 2 with Carol • Carol's presentation on a topic related to target paper in class (PPT) • **Visited writing center** • **Peer-feedback** session in class • Interview 3 with	• Interview 1 with Susan • Decided to collaborate for target paper • **Conference** with professor • Interview 1 with Kate • **Conference** with professor • Exchanged multiple **drafts** of target paper with each other (**peer feedback**) • Interview 2 with Kate • **Developed criteria** for the target paper in class through discussion • Interview 2 with

		Carol	Susan
May	Interview with professor	• **Final paper** submitted • Interview 4 with Carol • Interview with professor	• Interview with professor • Interview 3 with Kate • **Final paper** submitted
June	Interview 5 with Mary		



Code 1	Positive/negative appraisal	Code 6	Linguistic accuracy & style
Code 2	Positive comments & approval	Code 7	Assignment/genre expectations
Code 3	Interaction with content	Code 8	Indirect feedback
Code 4	Academic disciplinary writing	Code 9	Deletion/addition/movement (w/o reasons)
Code 5	Mechanics & paragraphing	Code 10	Beyond the target assignment/class

Figure 9. Timed contours of *Feedback Types.*

It is worth noting that different timing patterns emerged for the different feedback types. In general, Codes 3 (*Interaction with content*) and 2 (*Positive comments and approval*) increased in February, dropped back in March and then came back again in April, whereas Codes 7 (*Assignment/ genre expectations*) and 4 (*Academic writing*) only peaked in April. They were low

from previous semesters to March and then peaked in April. And Code 6 (*Linguistic accuracy/ style*) is interesting as well in that it peaked later on: April and May. As stated in the previous section, feedback related to linguistic accuracy and corrective feedback tends to be provided in written form. Also Figure 9 suggests that this type of feedback tends to be offered at later stages of writing or on the final graded version of a paper.

There were not equal amounts of feedback across the timeline. When the timeline of literacy events is juxtaposed with the timed contours of feedback types, it is evident that the feedback occurred in response to particular stages of assignments and whether the professor required students to submit drafts for feedback in the middle of the semester. For instance, as many as six types of feedback peaked in April: Code 3 (*Interaction with content*), Code 4 (*Academic writing*), Code 7 (*Assignment/genre expectations*), Code 6 (*Linguistic accuracy/style*), Code 2 (*Positive comments and approval*), and Code 9 (*Deletion, addition, movement without identified reasons*). When it comes to literacy events in three classes, as noted in Table 14, it is conspicuous that literacy events involving writing proliferated throughout the month of April in all three cases. In Mary's class, students were required to submit three short essays and a preliminary draft of a dissertation proposal before they had an individual conference with the professor. The students in this class were offered various types of written feedback on their short essays and proposal drafts as well as oral feedback during the conferences with the professor. Kate and Susan's course mirrored this productivity in literacy events despite a different sequence of assignments and course events. At the beginning of April, Kate and Susan decided to collaborate on the final paper with their professor's approval. Subsequently, they had individual conferences with their professor twice and exchanged their drafts for peer feedback at least four times throughout April. The professor also arranged a session to negotiate criteria for the final

assignment through class discussion. Carol was engaged in various types of literacy events in April although she hardly received any written feedback on her drafts. She had a brief individual conference with her professor, participated in a peer-feedback session in class, delivered an oral presentation about a topic closely related to her final paper topic, and visited the writing center with her draft. Moreover, a one-page description of the target paper was distributed in class, followed by a lively question-and-answer session about the final paper.

Thus, in each case April was the month when literacy events involving a writing component were concentrated, in spite of the apparent variations across the nature of literacy events in three classes. The final papers for the three classes were due either at the end of April or the beginning of May. Of note is the fact that all the participants started working on their final papers in one way or another from the beginning of the semester, and thus they were on alert for any cues related to their final tasks throughout the semester. In a sense, even when students are committed to working on assignments, they may not make much progress with their academic socialization if they do not have opportunities to engage in actual academic writing, as was the case for participants during January, February, and March.

Another piece of evidence for the importance of "doing" writing and receiving feedback is that there was another peak in February, which was relatively earlier in the semester. This is interesting because it indicates the contours of writing in a course. On the whole, far fewer literacy events involving a writing component took place in February than in April. However, in Mary's class, five short essays were turned in for professor feedback, and one individual conference with a professor was arranged for oral feedback in Mary's class. Considering that reading, lectures, and discussions of materials generally took place more in the earlier part of the semester in three cases, literacy events, especially writing and getting feedback, can boost

academic interactions, which might not be accomplished through reading and discussions alone. April was by far the most productive month in terms of interactions about writing tasks between professors and students. This is evidenced by the fact that the timed contours of *stated changes* in Figure 10 shows a peak only in April.

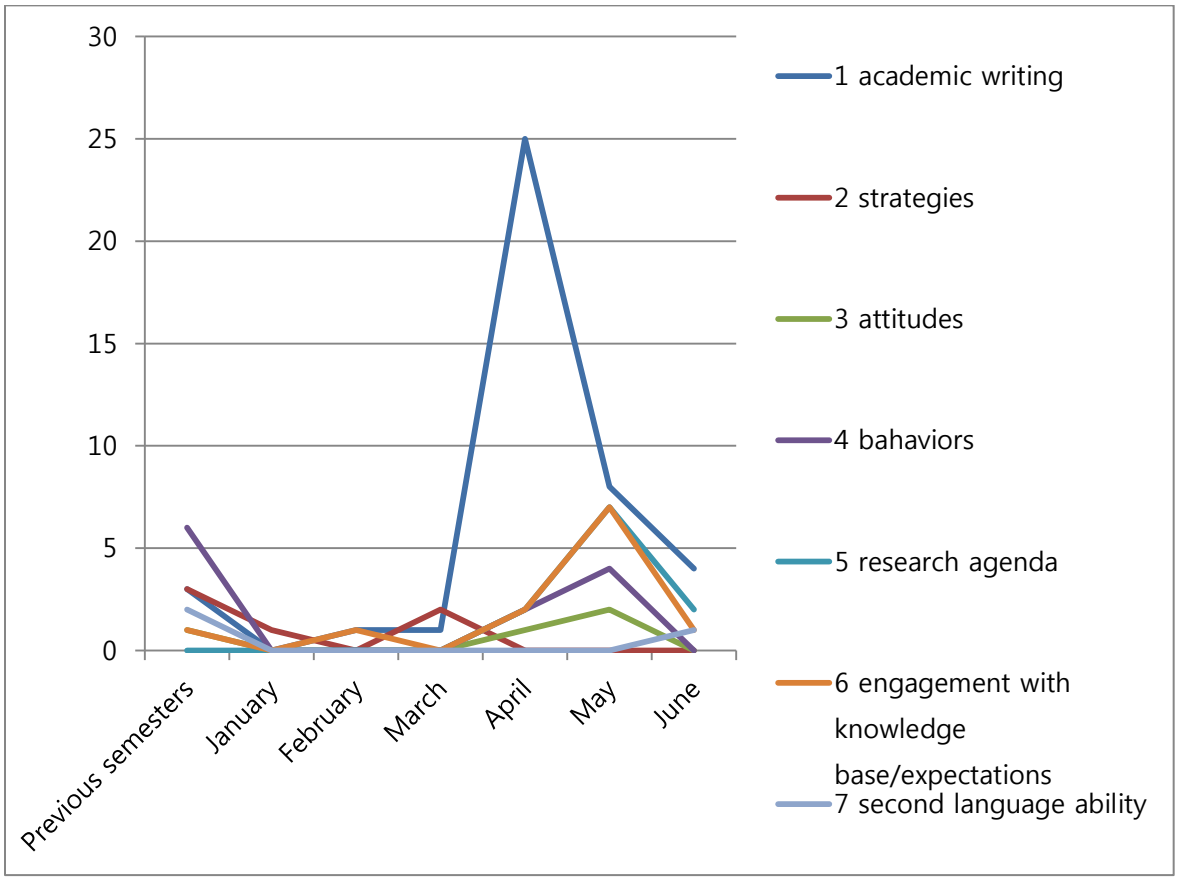


Figure 10. Timed contour of *Stated Changes.*

It is interesting that Code 1 (*changes in academic writing*) peaked in April with a very high number. April was when a considerable amount of interaction triggered by various forms of feedback and literacy events took place. More importantly, the end of the semester was when the multiple sources of feedback offered in the earlier semester attained a cumulative effect. This supports the contention that some aspects of changes of academic socialization can take more time and repeated instances of feedback in order to take effect: Mary's interview, for example,

plainly indicates that learning how to incorporate others' voices in one's own writing may take longer than other aspects:

> I became more comfortable over time using quotes. I knew how to do it, but it's just, because I never used to do it before. It took me a while to get used to that. I need to incorporate quotes. So these are the two things that I learned from the feedback, I mean, this clarification came specifically from this last semester from the professor's feedback and my adviser's feedback. But the quote thing has been running for a while. (Interview 5)

In particular, learning when and how to quote others' voices without silencing her own voice seemed to take more time and repeated practice with actual textual production than learning the technical conventions of APA or MLA documentation. It seems that changes in academic writing happened while students were working on their papers and involved in various forms of interactions. Codes 6 (*Engagement with knowledge base and expectations*), 4 (*Changes in behaviors*), and 3 (*Changes in attitudes*) peaked in May. May was the month when all the participants got their papers back; one participant received a large amount of written feedback and the other two received few general written comments. After they got their papers back, all of them reflected very seriously on the experiences and the feedback they received. I observed them reflect on their weaknesses as writers and on their strategies, thereby allowing them to reinforce some aspects and to shape others. With their grades in hand, they also were able to make assumptions about their writing and socialization in general, even drawing conclusions about the aspects that were not directly commented on. Nonetheless, as these are their assumptions, they will shape their literacy practices once again during the next semester.

Chapter Summary

In the present study, inquiry was extended to include types of feedback other than corrective feedback. The overall findings suggest that feedback at the doctoral level is not intended simply to "fix" rhetorical problems or "correct" linguistic errors. The fact that, at the doctoral level, the types of feedback that address global concerns beyond linguistic accuracy outnumbered corrective feedback suggests that the scope of second language feedback scholarship needs to be extended to include the contextualized and situated natures of graduate feedback. More broadly, there is a need to reconceptualize the nature of graduate feedback in order to place primary emphasis on the connection between feedback practices and academic socialization.

I started this research with assumptions that multilingual writers in the same program would have similar feedback experiences, which would have at least similar impact on their writing practices and writing development. And I expected that I might somehow be able to trace which feedback leads to which changes in the participants' documents and behaviors. However, what I found instead was that, despite studying in the same institutional environments, individual students went through unique feedback experiences. This undoubtedly presents a far more complicated picture of how writers engage feedback as academic interaction and how some feedback requires more time, effort, and repetition than others in order to have an effect. Once I started analyzing the data, it was not long before I realized that the nature of changes and process of academic socialization is so complex and multifaceted that it is practically impossible to establish one-on-one relationships between specific instances of feedback and particular textual changes or reported effects. To be specific, the results from this research suggest that feedback practices at the doctoral level need to be understood more as contextualized social practices with the following characteristics.

Feedback as a Situated and Dialogic Social Practice

As seen in the types and frequencies of feedback in various forms and modes, feedback practices are deeply embedded in class structures, class objectives, writers' ways of approaching writing tasks and feedback, and professors' expectations both as representatives of a broader academic community and as individuals. The nature and goals of feedback depend on the progression of each course, stages of revision, and the nature of an assignment. Feedback is very contextualized and serves as an extension of dialogue with students as newcomers in their CoPs. In this sense, doctoral level education is different from other levels of education.

Revision as Performance

After several attempts to "be specific and clear," students became aware of the need to clarify their points and positions in discipline-specific ways and, in turn, obtained a sense of how explicit they can and should be to meet the standards of professional academic writing. That is, simply explaining what good academic writing should be may not be sufficient for them to indeed internalize the characteristics of academic writing. Making educated guesses about what would constitute better ways of writing and revising texts in response to relevant feedback can be seen as performance in this sense. Thus, learning academic writing involves performance: learning by doing. Consequently, feedback can provide student writers with valuable opportunities to have individual encounters with experts and full members of the CoPs, which can trigger them to "do" academic writing, rather than "learn" about academic writing.

Feedback as a Trigger of a Thinking Process

It is suggested that feedback can initiate a thinking process in several ways which might not be set in motion by reading and listening to lectures alone (Park, 2013). First, it can help students become aware of new directions and possibilities for their research agendas and writing

practices that they would have not considered otherwise. Comments may also allow students to reappraise whether their existing habits and methods of writing are suitable for their current context or even suggest drastic new directions for their writing practices. In this case, the students might shape their practices more actively when repeated feedback on the same issue is provided. Further, feedback can confirm what students are doing well, which leads them to reinforce their established practices.

Feedback as Space for Co-construction of Knowledge and Negotiation: A Tool that Mediates Academic Socialization

This study provides empirical evidence that the academic socialization process entails not only learning linguistics aspects of academic writing but also acquiring how to present and clarify arguments, how to use sources in discipline-specific ways, and how clear is "clear enough" in academic writing. Attitudes and behaviors have also been observed to change during the semester. Interactions through feedback and revision are a space where newcomers and full members of CoPs construct knowledge together, and negotiations of writing practices and ways of thinking and behaving take place. Given that a large body of research on L2 feedback, as discussed in Chapter 2, deals with corrective feedback, the fact that other types of feedback were actually provided far more often at the doctoral level than corrective feedback points to the need to extend L2 feedback scholarship to reconceptualize the nature of feedback. In sum, the empirical evidence in the current research allows me to define graduate feedback as "a space for co-construction of knowledge and negotiation and, in turn, a tool that mediates academic socialization."

Equally interesting, the aspects that the feedback addressed throughout the semester mirror the changes that the participants perceive to have happened. It is certain that interactions

about writing with professors, scholars, and peers as well as textual interactions through reading are closely intertwined with what students would become capable of doing after they are socialized into academic CoPs. Thus, graduate students become aware of specific audience settings and that different settings require different demands for writing.

CHAPTER 5

THREE CASE STUDIES

Introduction

The previous chapter synthesized the results from the qualitative content analysis of feedback in relation to stated outcomes of academic socialization and established core tendencies in all of the cases as well as differences and similarities across the three cases. It concluded with a reconceptualization of feedback practices at the doctoral level on the basis of the findings. With the discussion in the previous chapter as background, this chapter extends the discussion by reporting each case separately. This chapter aims to provide rich and individualized descriptions of the feedback practices each participant was involved in by concentrating on the themes that emerged from analysis. In doing so, I explicate how learners' agency and literacy practices played out in the networks of feedback they created and how the participants became more capable writers through their socialization into the graduate program. Each case exemplifies a distinct pattern of feedback practices at the doctoral level: (1) Mary in a professor feedback-rich environment, (2) Kate and Susan in a collaborative, peer feedback-rich environment, and (3) Carol in a professor feedback-limited environment. For Mary's case, I discuss how she appropriated feedback and the factors that affected this negotiation process. Kate and Susan's case is outlined in terms of the ways in which they collaborated for the final paper and negotiated their voices in the process. Finally, I present Carol's case, which is focused on how she negotiated literacy demands and dealt with a relative lack of feedback in her class.

Mary: Appropriation of Feedback in a Professor Feedback-Rich Environment

As detailed in Chapter 3, the final paper in Mary's course was a dissertation proposal. Each component of the proposal was required to be written up and submitted separately as a separate one- to two-page paper throughout the semester. The students submitted 10 essays, each

of which was intended to be embedded in their final dissertation proposals. Additionally, students were to research the literature relevant to their dissertation topics and to submit annotated bibliographies several times throughout the semester with written reflections on the relevance of each source to their topics. When they turned in their write-ups, the professor provided abundant written feedback on them, had a conference with each student, and had the students revise and resubmit them. Thus, among the three cases, this classroom offered the richest feedback environment, especially in terms of professor feedback. It is necessary to point out that at the beginning of the semester, Mary had a relatively good idea of what she wanted to research for her dissertation, specifically her research questions and methodology, because she had conducted a pilot study prior to the semester. When Mary worked on each essay, she went through the following revision cycle, though it was not entirely sequential.

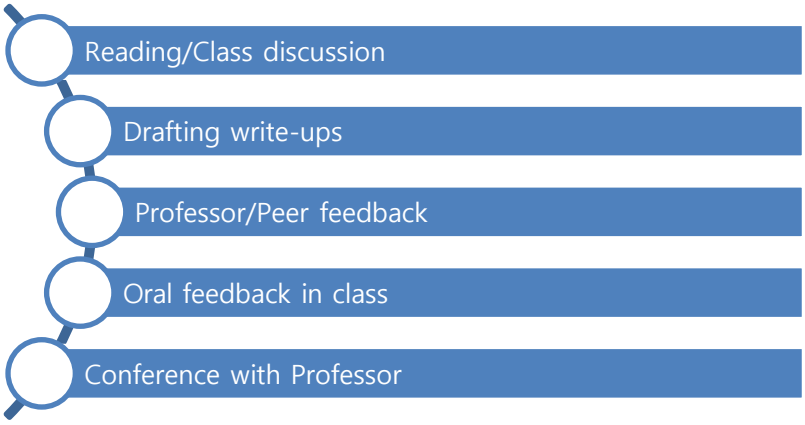


Figure 11. Mary's process.

Against this backdrop, the results of the content analysis of this case are reported in the next section.

Professor vs. Peer Feedback

As far as feedback providers are concerned, Mary received 241 pieces of professor feedback and 7 pieces of peer feedback.

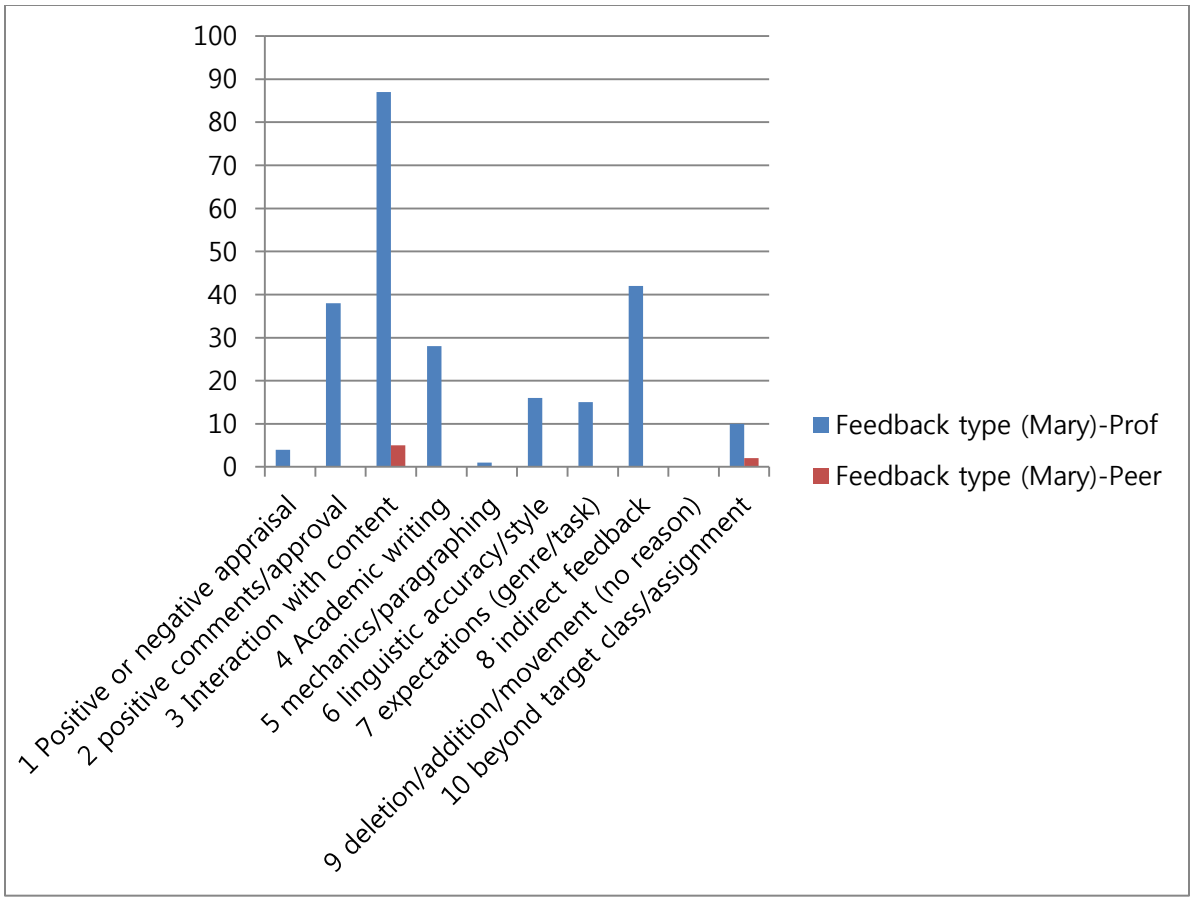


Figure 12. Professor vs. peer feedback—Mary.

It is noteworthy that Mary received a very small amount of feedback from peers, compared to professor feedback, which includes feedback from scholars outside the program. Out of 248 pieces of feedback, only 3% was peer feedback. This can be attributed to the fact that only one peer-feedback session was implemented due to time constraints, and the assignment, a dissertation proposal, was basically an individual project which required less interaction with peers than a group project. Moreover, Mary did not seem to be that enthusiastic about getting peer feedback, at least on the target paper, since she rarely initiated conversations about it with peers and rarely mentioned peer feedback throughout multiple interviews. This suggests that her attitudes and beliefs shaped the feedback network she created. The feedback types that Mary received from peers were *Interaction with content* and *Beyond the target*, and all of them came

from her classmates in class. Further, Mary was the only one who received feedback from peers in the category of *Beyond the target assignment/class*.

Stated Changes: Outcomes of Academic Socialization

An additional concern of the current study was investigating whether the participants perceived changes in any aspect of their academic lives and, if so, what changes they believed happened. Figure 13 and Table 15 summarize Mary's interview regarding this aspect.

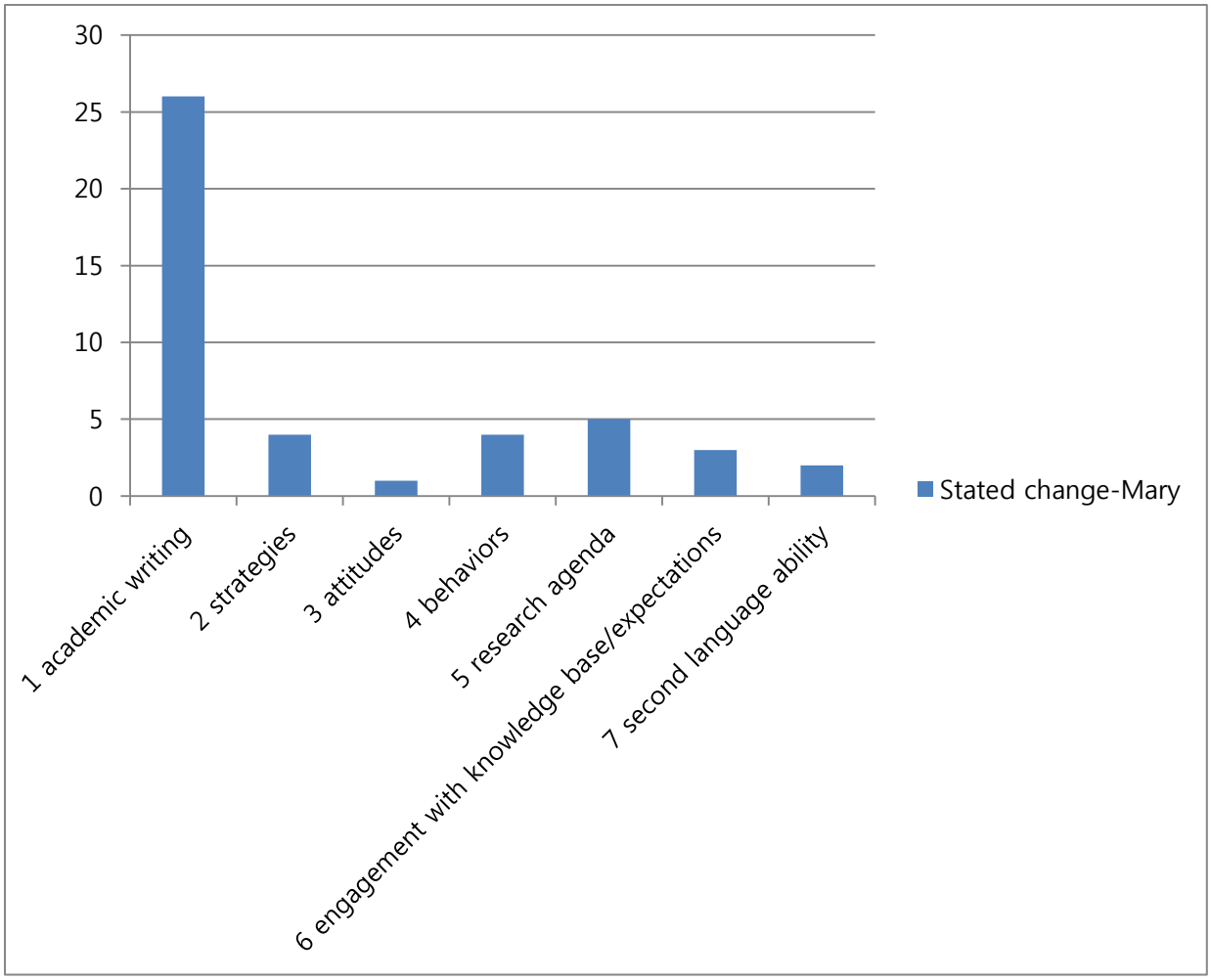


Figure 13. *Stated Changes*—Mary.

Table 15

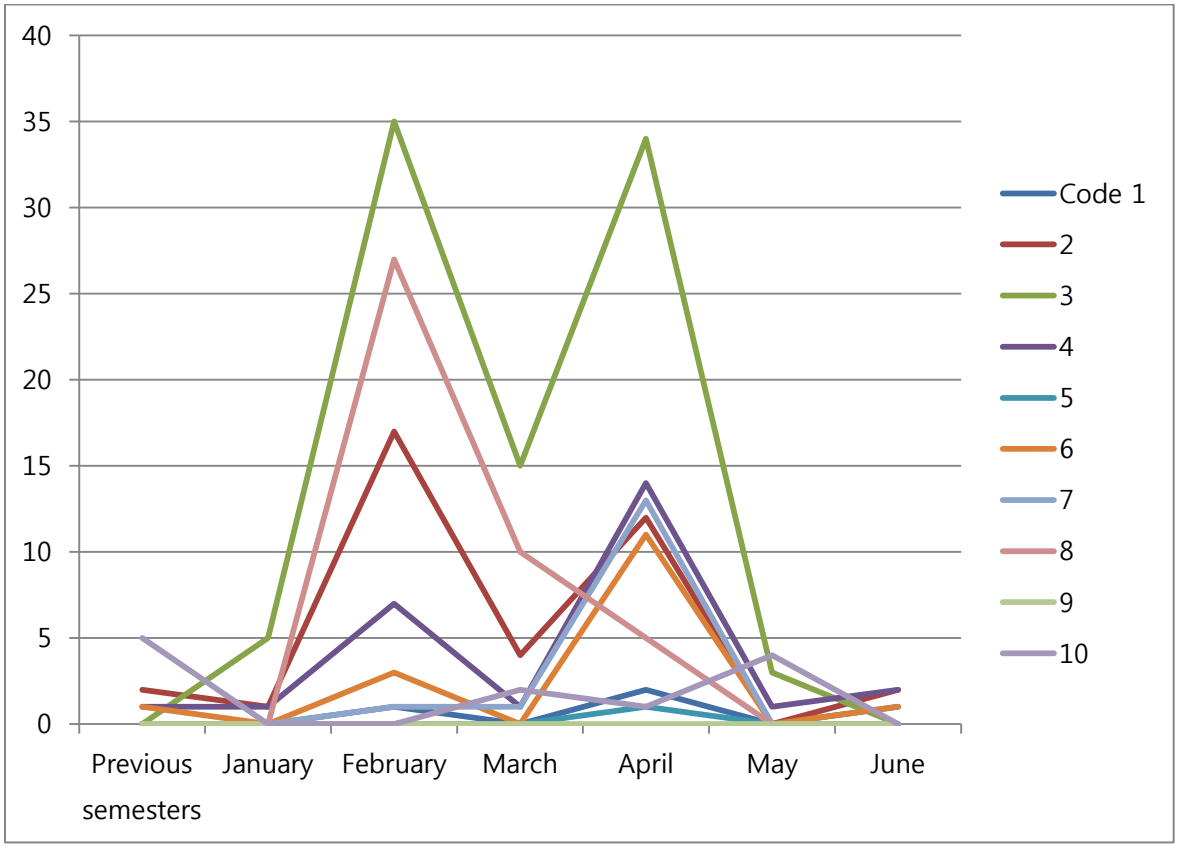
Frequency and Percentage of Stated Changes—Mary

Code		Sub category	Frequency (45 in total)	100 %
1. Stated changes in **academic writing** (Textual)	26 (**58%**)	1.1	15	33 %
		1.2.	9	20 %
		1.3.	2	5 %
2. Stated changes in strategies			4	9 %
3. Stated changes in attitudes			1	2 %
4. Stated changes in behaviors			4	9 %
5. Stated changes in research agenda (Not textual)			5	11 %
6. Stated changes in engagement with knowledge base and expectations			3	7 %
7. Stated changes in second language ability			2	4 %

First of all, the complete list of *stated outcomes* above shows that Mary was aware that she changed in various aspects, including academic writing, to varying degrees. The previously discussed tendency of doctoral level feedback to focus on concerns beyond sentence level writing can be found once again in these results. When the subcategories of *Changes in academic writing* are combined, the majority of the changes (26 of 45 [58%]) was concerned with *Academic writing*, specifically how to present arguments, how to clarify her points, ways of writing, audience awareness, organization, use of sources, academic vocabulary, and her research agenda for the proposal assignment. The category that attracted the least attention in Mary's case was changes in *attitudes*. This means that Mary did not think that much had changed in relation to her attitudes since she joined the program. Unlike other participants, she was very active academically even before she started coursework by attending and presenting at conferences and publishing her work. The next section unpacks the characteristics of feedback and the outcomes of socialization in Mary's case based on timed contours and qualitative data.

Timed Contours and a Holistic View of Feedback and Individual Qualitative Data: Multidirectionality of Academic Socialization

Figure 14 demonstrates the contour of each type of feedback over time[3].



Code 1	Positive or negative appraisal	Code 6	Linguistic accuracy & style
Code 2	Positive comments & approval	Code 7	Assignment/genre expectations
Code 3	Interaction with content	Code 8	Indirect feedback
Code 4	Academic writing	Code 9	Deletion/addition/movement (w/o reasons)
Code 5	Mechanics & paragraphing	Code 10	Beyond the target assignment/class

Figure 14. Types of Feedback Mary received (Total: 248).

One of the important characteristics of the timed contours of feedback was the peaks in two months, February and April, which were fairly productive. More significantly, this productivity was in accordance with the months when the greatest amount of writing was submitted for feedback, as can be seen in Table 14. Particularly, three categories peaked in February:

[3] See Table 14 in Chapter 4 for the timeline of literacy events in class

Interaction with content, *Indirect feedback*, and *Positive comments and approval*. The high frequency of these categories in February shows that feedback on these aspects was provided most often in the relatively early parts of both the semester and the writing process. Feedback intended to *interact with content* was offered a little more frequently in February than in April. But as seen in Figure 16, in general, the category of *Interaction with content* was provided a lot in both February and April. Although *Positive comments and approval* were provided a little more often in February than April, this code also appeared with similar frequency in February and April. Considering that these two months were rich in written feedback on students' texts, there is little doubt that feedback in the category of *Interaction with content* and *Positive comments and approval* were consistently provided whenever the professor wrote comments on the texts Mary wrote.

In contrast, there were three types of categories—*Academic writing*, *Assignment/genre expectations on the target assignments*, and *Linguistic accuracy/style*—that were more concentrated in April, which encompassed the latter part of the semester and later stages of revision. In other words, the professor tended to provide students with these three types of feedback during relatively late stages of performing writing tasks. Codes 5 (*Mechanics/paragraphing*) and 1 (*Positive or negative appraisal*) were observed to be offered in a very small amount throughout the semester. As might be expected, feedback *Beyond the target assignment/class* (Code 10) was given at the end of the semester.

In view of this, it is somewhat surprising to see that February was a largely inactive period (in general) as far as *stated changes* are concerned, as seen in Figure 15.

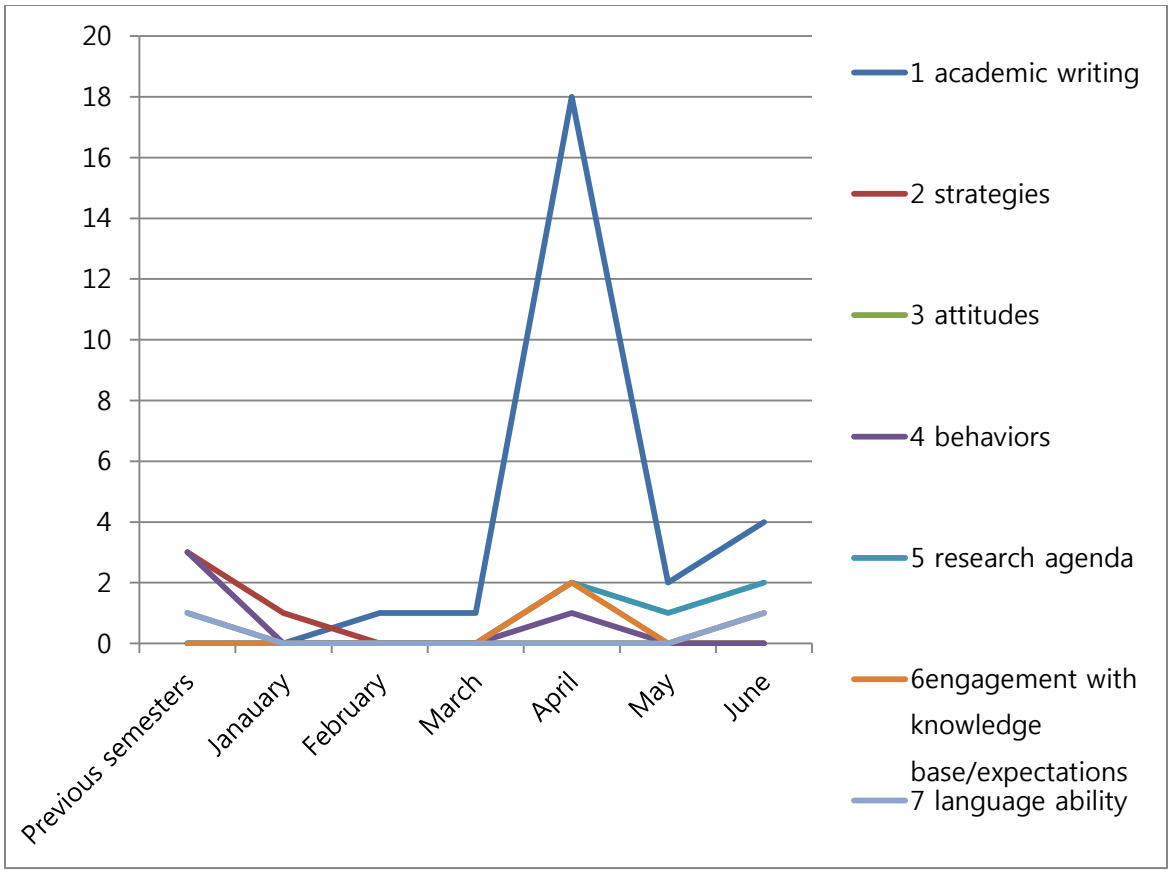


Figure 15. Timed contour of S*tated Changes*—Mary.

While some types of feedback can have an immediate impact on writing and the process of academic socialization, others take time to be processed by students. For instance, Mary perceived that her writing strategies changed in the previous semesters and did not mention changes in strategies throughout and after the target semester. In June, she claimed three aspects had changed: *Academic writing*, *Research agenda*, and *Second language ability*. Feedback on some aspects of academic socialization—such as writing strategies—tends to be understood quickly. Other, more abstract aspects—such as *Research agenda* or *Academic writing*—tend to sink in gradually and build toward a cumulative effect. Hence, they tend to be reported at the end of a particular period of socialization such as an individual course. Having established the

contours and perceived effects of the feedback that Mary received, I focus on the themes that emerged from the qualitative analysis of Mary's case in the next section.

Not only her professor but also other full members of CoPs: "Now I have the whole. all the pieces of the puzzle together." Mary engaged with a lot of feedback from her professor in class, but not all of the interaction affected her as a writer. Her perceived changes were the result of the professor feedback to a certain extent. However, this change cannot be attributed to feedback from the class professor alone. Instead, Mary's perceived changes were the product of a combination of this line of feedback and various other forms of interaction. Mary recalled the feedback from her course professor, Dr. A:

> The very first question here, "How would you lead into this section of Chapter 2?" That was an amazing question…. So when I started thinking about where to put that in Chapter 2, I thought this would come earlier here. And when I got this feedback from Dr. A, it just make sense to me. …And then I lead from that to my theoretical framework which is critical theory of technology. So this would be like smooth flow of ideas. So when she asked this question, it just, you know, came together with what I discussed with Dr. E. and what I have read. So it was like, now I have the whole, all the pieces of the puzzle together. So I'll start with this and then this will lead to this, and this will lead to this, which answers her question here. So it was like, now I have a better outline of Chapter 2. We even discussed this much in our meeting. (Mary, Interview 4)

When Mary was asked the question she mentioned above, it prompted her to seriously consider how to organize Chapters 2 and 3 of her dissertation and what would constitute appropriate content for each subsection, especially with regard to her theoretical framework and research

paradigm. This quote specifically illustrates that some changes may not happen in isolation. Before she received this feedback, she reflected on the written feedback on her earlier assignments from the course professor, read published materials and dissertations, discussed her work with another professor, Dr. E, and wondered how to organize relevant theories, make connections between them, and address gaps in the field in her chapters. In addition to her course professor and Professor E in the program, the authors of the articles she read were also full members of the academic communities with which Mary aligned herself. In other words, Mary was not exposed to one single academic interaction. Rather, she engaged with "the network of feedback" from multiple sources initiated at different points. And Professor A's feedback brought "all the pieces of the puzzle together" (Mary, interview 4). Mary's mind clicked as the pieces slid into place. It was this network of feedback that led to development in Mary's writing. One particular piece of feedback may catalyze a sudden insight as to how various seemingly disparate principles and practices are related. In Mary's case, the professor's written question caused her jumbled thoughts to cohere into a discernable order. Thus, when timely feedback was offered on the issues that students consider important at the moment, the positive effect of the feedback seems to be maximized. Further, if the students are involved in multiple sources of interaction regarding the issues, just as Mary was deeply engaged in the organizational issue through meeting with a professor, reading, and pondering all the information she had, the constructive effect might be more noticeable.

Not only full members but also peripheral members: "Her points actually made me think on this track." Interaction with full members of CoPs provided Mary with significant opportunities to be exposed to the ways of thinking and structuring written academic discourses valued by the community, as shown in the previous section. However, professors were not the

only ones who facilitated Mary's socialization process. At the beginning of April, when Mary was absorbed in figuring out the features of a dissertation and the dissertation proposal genre, the professor arranged a presentation in class about the dissertating process of a senior doctoral student in the program. The following interview excerpt reflects how this peer presentation influenced Mary:

> Mary: I liked the presentation. It confirmed a lot of what I'm doing already. Something like using tables, for example, putting things together because I already did that in my proposal and my adviser liked this. But 2 things actually she mentioned…. And the second thing when she mentioned that dissertations, reading other dissertations…. So her points actually made me think on this track, so I started locating dissertations. I started reading now Chapter 3 in these dissertations to see what are the common features among all these things and to see how they're weaving things together, how they are organizing. And it's very interesting because I read like 3 or 4 so far just Chapter 3. I'm not reading everything. But just Chapter 3 and just see the headline, the headings, and some of the ways of putting information, the order of headings. It's dramatically different from one to the other. They are the same headings more or less, but in different order. So it started giving me ideas, and actually today I was like adding to my outline of Chapter 3 because I started giving ideas already, oh, I'm missing this, no, I need to mention this. So her presentation was very helpful because I started looking at dissertations and out of these.
>
> Researcher: After her presentation?
>
> Mary: Yes. I never thought I would read these. I first thought that I'd read some dissertations only very close or very much about my topic. But first of all, there is

> nothing about my topic. That's one. And the second, I thought no, maybe I need to broaden my search. I started from Delta University and then went to ProQuest for other universities. I got some very good stuff from especially M University. They have wonderful stuff coming out from there. So I think this will be what I'll be doing this weekend. I'll be looking at more dissertations. I'll look more at Chapter 3 in these dissertations and see how people are putting things together before I start writing mine. …And I already started getting some ideas from reading maybe like 3 or 4 Chapter 3s, and not every single word. Just skimming and scanning. It's nothing in detail. So I'm very excited about that. (Interview 2)

First of all, it is evident that Mary reinforced her conviction in the efficacy of her current practices because her peer's presentation "confirmed a lot of what [she was] doing already." Moreover, she became aware of how searching for models with broader relevance to her research topic and skimming the genre specifics can be helpful. Additionally, she shaped an aspect of her behavior based on this academic interaction with a peer who had accrued more experience in the program. This instance specifically illustrates a situation in which feedback can trigger an immediate change in behavior when provided at the right time. Mary perceived the relevance of this presentation to her own work to be very high, which bolstered her belief in her potential to fulfill her goal. Equally significant, this interview transcript indeed helps explain that not only professors but also peers, who are not yet full members in the CoP, can facilitate the academic socialization process, which confirms that academic socialization is not a one-way assimilation (Duff, 2007b; Duff & Talmy, 2011). On the contrary, academic socialization involves dynamic interactions from different agents such as professors, senior peers, friends, and professionals in the broader academic communities.

Legitimate Peripheral Participation through the Feedback Network Mary Created: Interplay among the Multiple CoPs with Mary at the Center

In light of the relationship between academic writing and the socialization process discussed above, it is crucial to look into Mary's interactions with others regarding her research agenda. Figure 16 summarizes her patterns of interaction with others.

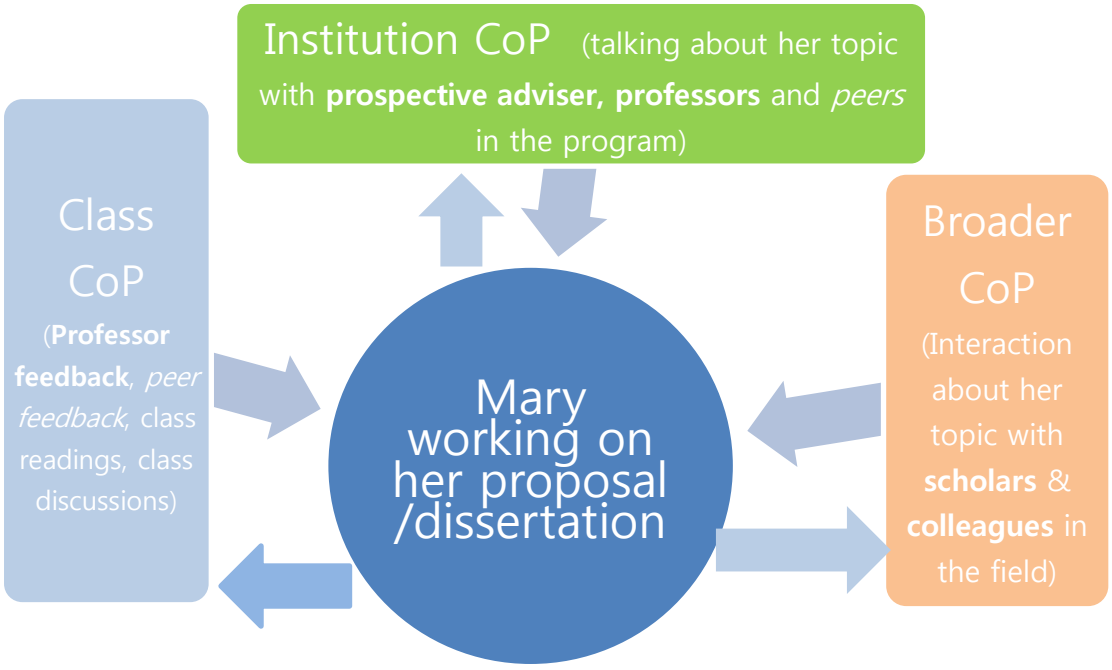


Figure 16. The class CoP and interaction with members of multiple CoPs—Mary.
Note. Full members of a CoP in bold and newcomers or peripheral members of a CoP in italic.

One of the issues of interest in Figure 16 is the interplay among the multiple CoPs with Mary at the center. She was the one who regulated this network of interaction in that all the interactions were initiated by herself except the class CoP. Mary did not confine her attention to the boundary of the class, and it seems that she developed the network that shaped the research methodology, specifically the survey design, of her dissertation project, albeit in an inadvertent manner. The interview excerpt below illustrates how she interacted with scholars in the field whom she did not know in person:

> So I contacted actually S. S and she referred me to T. And they told me it's published in Composition Studies, but in a website linked to the Composition Studies, so when I went to that website, I was amazed. I have the actual survey page by page and the sections and then choices, the options, everything and the data with numbers. It's like 50% answered so and so. Like each choice ... the percentages and the frequency count. It was amazing. So especially that this study has two sections that are very much relevant to my study. So when I asked T, actually it was just Monday, this last Monday, I asked her if I can use some of these questions, especially in the demographic section. Because they have been in the academy for years, so something, for example, like positions, I was always thinking about tenure track, non-tenure track, associate professor, and assistant professor, and that's it. I found the whole list of positions on their survey. It was like, wow, I never thought of that. So I asked them if I can use some questions and these, and they allowed me to use them with proper citations, and I said yes, sure. This will be very good for me. So I included these as my sources for constructing my survey in my 3 chapters... (Interview 3)

Although the change in her survey design triggered by this interaction was not addressed in her proposal paper for the class, her thinking about the specifics of the methodology was ongoing. While Mary was not yet a full member and was not interacting to publish at that point, the similarities between her ways of networking with others and those of full members allow us to postulate that she was involved in legitimate peripheral participation through her feedback network. This network was created as she established multiple memberships (Wenger, 1998) in several CoPs. This observation provides additional empirical support for the notion of "a complex intersection" of "interlinking communities of practice" (Duff, 2007a, p. 316). In turn,

Mary's feedback practices provide strong empirical support for the multidirectionality of the socialization process.

Appropriation of Feedback and Factors Influencing the Negotiation of Feedback

In keeping with Mary's penchant for active engagement with feedback, she even derived meaning from indirect feedback. The second most frequent feedback in Mary's case is *Indirect feedback* as shown in Table 10. Most of the *Indirect feedback* Mary was given consisted of underlines and circles. Interestingly, the interview and documents indicate that Mary responded to *Indirect feedback* actively regardless of the fact that this type of feedback did not include verbal comments. She interpreted some as a positive response from her professor to what she did. This interpretation was supported by similar feedback provided by the same professor:

> All that checks here, this means that she likes these, and, interestingly enough, these are coming from the many write-ups I already submitted to her earlier. So because she gave me feedback on them, and I interpreted her feedback as I was putting together these. (Mary, Interview 3)

On top of the fact that positive comments gave her more confidence, as Kumar and Stracke (2007) pointed out in their study on feedback on a draft of a thesis, it seems that positive comments do something more. Mary's perception of indirect feedback obviously shows how the professor's acceptance or approval can shape students' writing and how students can engage themselves with the feedback given. And the moment when the "interwoven voices" (Tardy, 2006, p. 62) become the author's voice and the author internalizes the voices initiated by other members of any relevant CoPs can be understood as both a part of academic socialization and a trigger for academic socialization, as Prior (1998) and Tardy (2006) conceptualized.

However, not all voices initiated by others became internalized. Indeed, not all teachers' or peers' voices were ultimately incorporated into Mary's written products. She processed some

pieces of feedback but not others. Two of the factors influencing the degree to which she engaged feedback seem to be the extent to which she perceived a professor cared about her learning, an affective factor, and how relevant the feedback was to her goals for her papers at the moment:

> Researcher: You mean you're more comfortable with the professors who give more detailed feedback?
>
> Mary: Yes. Because this gives me impression that this is somebody who cares about my learning, who reads my papers carefully, who gives extensive feedback. … I always expect professors at a PhD level when they give feedback, they tell me, "ok, this is good for publication. This is good for a conference, or OK, this is good as a term paper, but just forget about it later or whatever." So if the professor doesn't even give me something like that on the feedback, maybe, yeah, I'm not gonna use the feedback to redraft the paper. But I can use the feedback either in my future writing, or at least I know what to do now with this paper. Is it good to be sent to publication? Or should I just make it a conference presentation? Or just forget about it... So when the professor doesn't care about these things, with PhD students specifically, I feel like they're not very interested in my learning, in my professional development. (Interview 5)

Crucially, this interview reveals that, in Mary's case, her perceptions of what made feedback useful or not and, by extension, whether or not some voices could achieve internal persuasiveness, in Bakhtin's (1981) terminology, were largely shaped by her attitudes toward being a doctoral student, publishing in academic communities, course assignments as future publishing possibilities, and overall learning. She assumed that the professor who provided "detailed feedback" cared about her learning and her work, and she valued this professor's

feedback more, which undoubtedly would increase the chance of her registering the feedback. This is significant in that there is a strong possibility that the amount of feedback itself, regardless of the type and quality, can help students realize that their work is valuable and deserves attention. This motivates students to reflect on their writing processes more and initiate more academic conversations with other academics who are available. Pedagogically, this implies that teachers should get their students to realize that they actually care about the students' work and learning and make sure to create various feedback opportunities, whether it is from their peers or other senior members in a community.

Another factor which shapes appropriation of feedback can be discussed with an example from the data. If feedback deals with an issue which a student writer perceives to be irrelevant to her current agenda, it may not produce a noticeable effect. Although Mary engaged much of the feedback she was given by the professor to varying degrees, the professor felt that there was "resistance" (Professor A, Interview) regarding the research questions of her dissertation. Mary's research questions themselves have "not changed," the professor perceived, while they may have been "reordered" (Interview). In other words, the degree of change was not as drastic as what the professor had advised. The professor wanted Mary to do something more than simply reorder her research questions. As mentioned earlier, Mary had conducted her pilot study for the research before she started this course, and thus she was fairly certain of what she would do in relation to her dissertation, and she had received a positive response to her pilot study from another professor in the program. Therefore, it is not difficult to guess that Mary's attention was more focused on how to go about the research, instead of what to investigate. Strictly speaking, it does not appear that she was willing to reshape her research questions at that time. In terms of her research itself, she was more concerned about the research methodology

and specific procedures for each stage of the research. In terms of her dissertation proposal, she was more concerned about how to organize her draft and what types of contents would be expected for each section. This was why Mary appropriated feedback the way she did. The fact that her stated "A-ha moment" (Interview 4) triggered by feedback was about these two aspects further supports the idea that there is a close relationship between the level of engagement with feedback and the learner's goal and willingness to reconfigure her research at the moment the feedback is received.

Mary's situation was an exemplary case in that her revision after processing the feedback, even check marks without verbal comments, can be seen as a manifestation of "interwoven voices" (Tardy, 2006, p. 62). In summary, the current case reveals that several factors were underlying Mary's appropriation of feedback offered and her degree of processing the feedback. This brings my attention to the dynamic interaction among the factors.

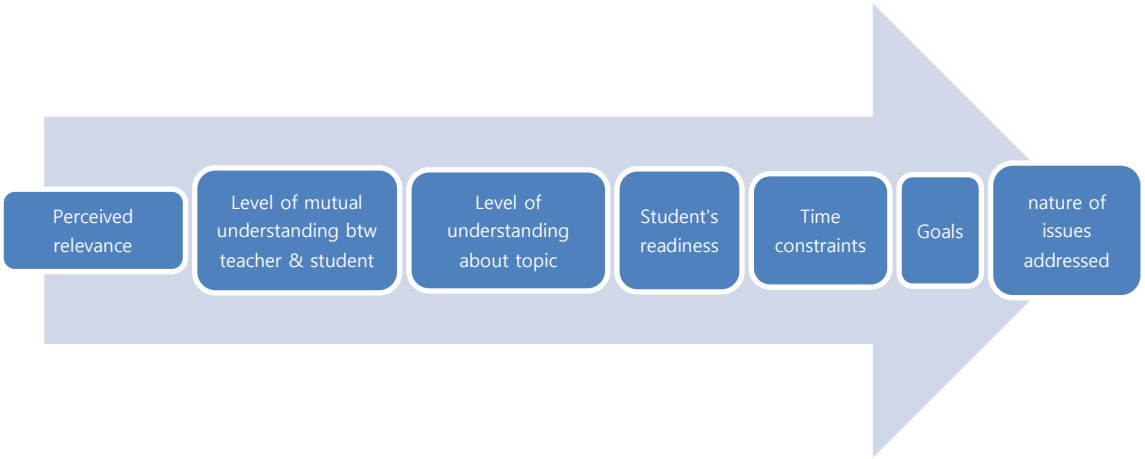


Figure 17. Factors affecting the level of engagement of feedback.

For example, regarding the factor *Student's readiness*, students may or may not be ready to actually process certain types of feedback. As discussed earlier, some types of feedback such as comments to ask for clarity or elaboration may need more time and repeated encounters and performances. If students receive feedback of this type for the first time, they might not be able

to perform the requested or required revisions. But after meaningful interactions and multiple performances, they may be prepared for addressing the feedback. Some factors may remain dormant when a student registers and processes a particular piece of feedback at a particular time only to cohere into a comprehensible principle at a later time. The level of activeness of each factor may also vary across contexts.

Concluding Remarks

Among the three cases, Mary's case was by far the richest, for two reasons. First, Mary received the greatest amount of professor feedback and mentioned that she made the most changes within the data set for the present research. However, it is not clear if this trend was also reflected in the magnitude of the actual changes. Second, Mary obtained feedback from a larger variety of sources than the other three participants. The findings from the analysis highlight several insights into feedback experiences of a graduate writer. First, they reveal that performing writing tasks with subsequent feedback from the professor can lead to more perceived learning outcomes which might not be accomplished with reading and direct instructions alone. Additionally, these outcomes include the agenda that the participant figured out throughout this semester and wanted to address later beyond the class. Second, a student writer benefits from different sources of feedback, and some types of feedback tend to be offered earlier in the writing process, while others are more common toward the end. Third and most significantly, the results of this case study indicate the close relationship of dynamic interactions through feedback networks and academic socialization, thereby revealing the multidirectional nature of the socialization process. Finally, this case study highlights the complex interplay of relationships between diverse factors that affect the participant's appropriation of feedback. The next section turns to another case study.

Kate and Susan: Collaboration and Negotiation of Voices in a Peer Feedback-Rich Environment

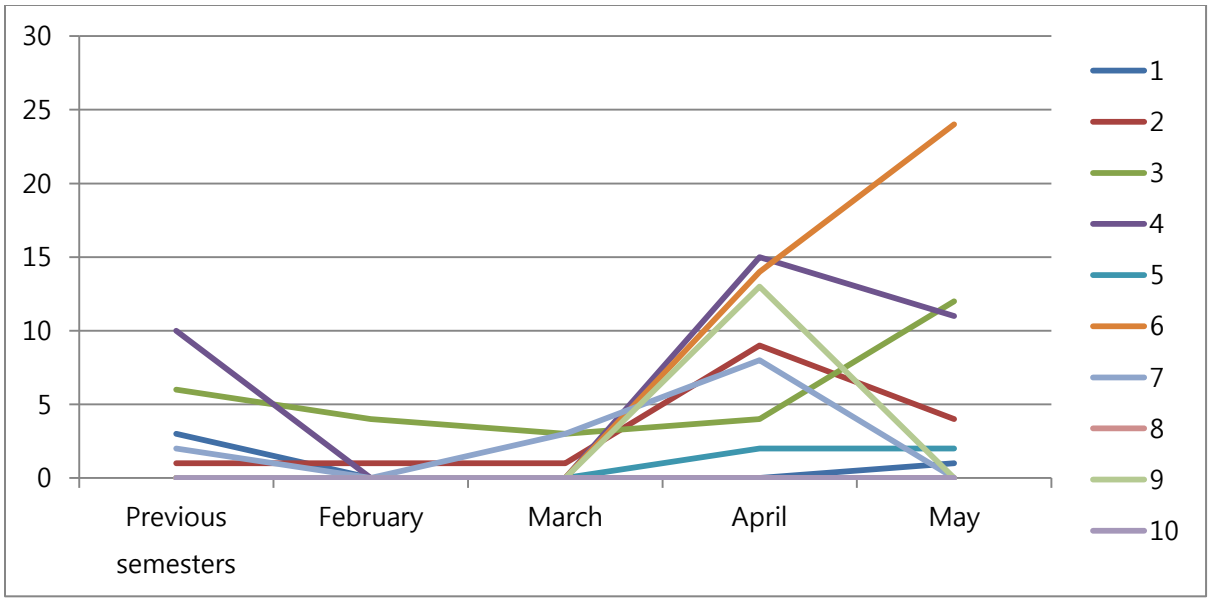
Unlike Mary's case, no preliminary feedback on drafts was offered, and students were not required to submit drafts before they turned in their final papers. The participants started working on their final papers for this course independently by developing different topics. Susan focused on creative writing in ESL, and Kate was interested in connecting creative writing to technology. The most unique feature of this case came from the participants' decision to work together for the final paper. The professor approved their idea of collaboration at the beginning of April during a conference with them.

When I had started collecting data from this class, I had assumed that it was a feedback-poor environment because I was aware that the professor did not provide written feedback on earlier drafts in any conventional sense. However, it turns out that Kate and Susan received as many as 150 pieces of feedback on the final paper in somewhat unconventional ways. Their active engagement with oral feedback from the professor and peer feedback demonstrates that, in fact, multiple sources of feedback were involved in the framework of this class as well. However, these multiple sources of interaction display different structures from those of Mary's case, as will be detailed later.

Timed Contours and a Holistic View of Feedback and Individual Qualitative Data

With the timeline of literacy events in this class[4] in mind, I summarize what the following figure indicates in this section.

[4] See Table 14 in Chapter 4



Code 1	Positive/negative appraisal	Code 6	Linguistic accuracy & style
Code 2	Positive comments & approval	Code 7	Assignment/genre expectations
Code 3	Interaction with content	Code 8	Indirect feedback
Code 4	Academic disciplinary writing	Code 9	Deletion/addition/movement (w/o reasons)
Code 5	Mechanics & paragraphing	Code 10	Beyond the target assignment/class

Figure 18. Timed contour of *Feedback Types* Kate and Susan received (Total: 150).

Almost all feedback on the final paper regarding *Linguistic accuracy* was provided in written mode after the semester. The professor provided written comments on *Linguistic accuracy* on a final draft of the final paper, along with a grade. A small percentage of peer feedback on *Linguistic accuracy* was offered mainly in April when the participants made major revisions on the collaborative paper. Before the final comments on the target paper, the professor's comments focused primarily on *Interaction with content* and *Academic writing*. Although written professor feedback was very rare in this case, several types of feedback peaked in April: Code 4 (*Academic writing*), Code 9 (*Deletion, addition, movement of phrases without identified reasons*), Code 2 (*Positive comments and approval*), and Code 7 (*Assignment/genre expectations on the target assignment*). A unique contour is shown in Code 3, *Interaction with content*, because this type of feedback was provided consistently throughout the semester until April and increased in May.

This means that the final comments from the professor include feedback to *Interact with content* as well as to improve *Linguistic accuracy*, even after the semester. But Kate and Susan said that they would use the feedback in the future when they work on other writing tasks for other classes as they did this semester with the feedback offered in the past.

Figure 19 is helpful for a solid understanding of the connection between the feedback offered and the perceived outcomes of academic socialization.

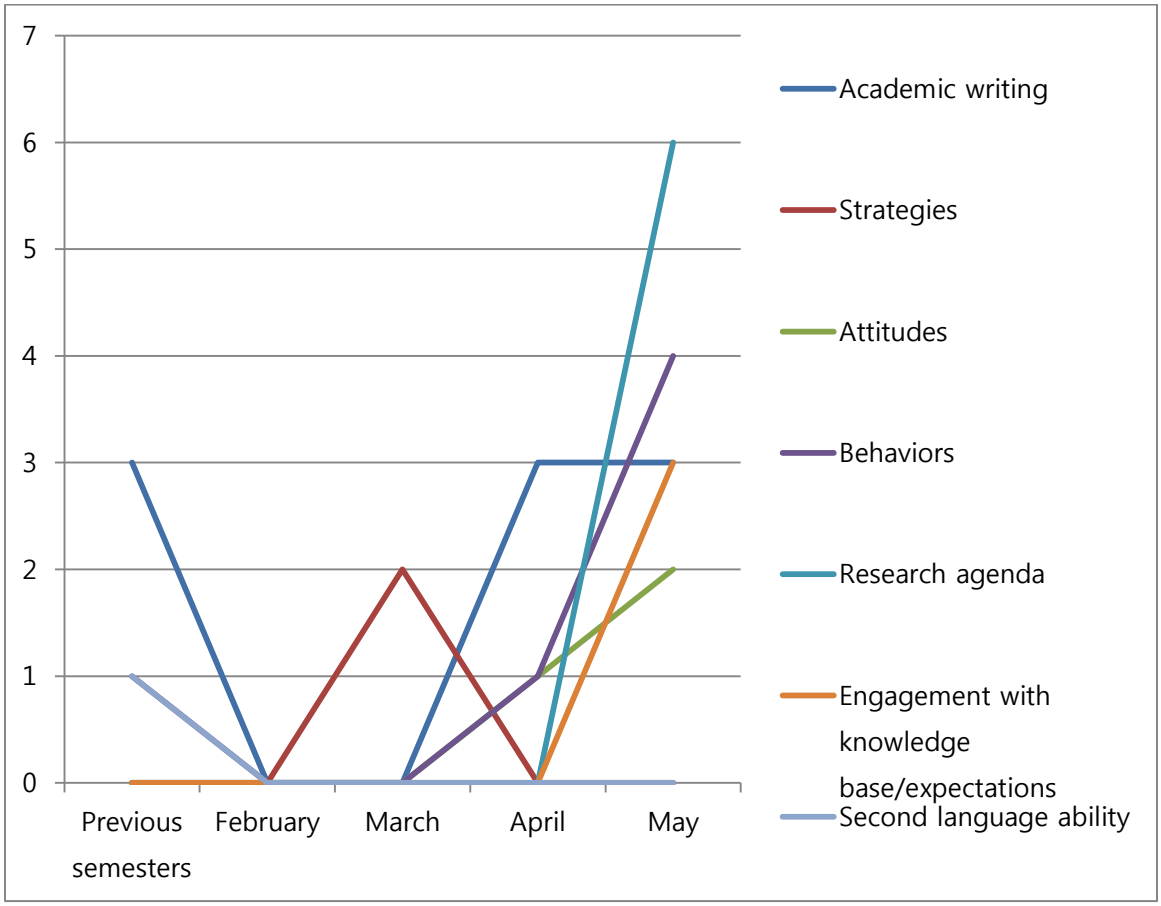


Figure 19. Stated Changes-Kate and Susan (Total: 30).

The contour of *stated changes* echoes that of *feedback types* in the sense that April and May were the most productive months in both contours. This establishes empirical evidence that learning outcomes can certainly be influenced by academic interactions, including written and oral feedback from different sources, at least at the doctoral level of education. It is also

necessary to note that changes in *Research agenda* and *Behaviors* peaked in May. In Kate and Susan's case, changes in *Research agenda* showed the highest frequency in May. When Kate was asked to describe the changes she perceived after she had completed two semesters in the doctoral program, the first answer she provided was:

> Of course, I'm different [from who I was when I started the program]. Now I know what I'm doing. Now I have a focused topic to work on. It's not like at the beginning. I read different things about my interests, but now I have more focuses. …This is like a big, huge change. (Interview 3)

Among the behavioral changes Kate mentioned was a change in her ways of participating in class discussions and communicating with professors:

> I'm still working on it. I came from a community where you have to jump in ask. So this is like the thing I took from the culture there. …In my culture, it's not tennis: it's my turn, it's your turn. It's nothing like this. We have to jump in. It's not like waiting for the other person to finish and stuff like this. This is what we have. It's [like playing] football. …In Dr. Z's class, I just kept jumping in his words and then "Can I ask a question?" No.. OK. I was waiting for him to finish. When I started to do this, I just shut up and sat there. But it depends. I learned when it's my time to jump in. It's not like, ok, everything I have to jump in. I have to take my time. I have to listen to the other person. This is also change. I started controlling myself not to jump in although I do it sometimes. …Taking role models. From other professors, from teachers, from students. …I'm still learning. (Interview 3)

This interview quote illustrates for certain that learning how to behave, specifically how to participate in academic discussions in a particular CoP involves emulation as well as direct

instructions. She tended not to take turns in a conversation in the past, but now she wants to become a member of a community in which people do not simply jump in without listening to what others say. As she agreed, it was not easy to get used to this pattern of communication. However, she made vigorous efforts to shape her ways of expressing her opinions by following the role models she wanted to emulate.

In terms of her ways of communicating via email with faculty members, she reflected on a class in which she was enrolled in her first semester. The professor helped her realize that she should not write "in this computer short forms of emails" and "[she is] writing formal things" (Kate, Interview 3). After this incident, she tried to "emulate" the professor, and the professor's way of writing became "a role model for writing" for her (Kate, Interview 3). Not only did she emulate her professor's ways of behaving as a member of a CoP, but "different people" (Kate, Interview 3) such as other students, who are peripheral members or newcomers in the program, also served as role models for her.

Another example of changes in *Behaviors* is a change in her "speech style and even in her writing to a certain extent" (Professor C, Interview), shifts that her professor observed as well. Also, the professor said that "as the semester progressed" he recognized a change in her way of addressing him and the level of "directness" she used when she approached and discussed concerns with him, which had caused a little tension at the beginning of the semester (Professor C, Interview). Thus, processes of learning and becoming members of particular CoPs take place as novices interact with other members of those communities who are not limited to full members, as Kate did with "role models," such as "professors," "teachers," and "students" (Kate, Interview 3).

As displayed in Figure 19, the third highest categories in May were changes in *Academic writing* and *Engagement with knowledge base and expectations*, which means that Kate and Susan perceived changes in relation to their engagement with the knowledge base in their CoPs and their academic writing. They became aware of different expectations across contexts and CoPs: "I'm developing. I'm working on my writing, working on different aspects because there's like a gap between what I was doing for my Master's and then here" (Kate, Interview 1). Taking this line of analysis a step further, they became more familiar with academic expectations at the doctoral level and more competent with disciplinary knowledge than they had been. Susan learned more about creative writing and ESL pedagogy, and Kate about using technology to teach English as an additional language. Kate explained:

> I have to think about the format of the paper. I have to think about what is acceptable and what is not acceptable according to journals. So I have to think of all these aspects while writing a paper because every paper is a potential for publication, so I have to look what they have, what they need, and what they ask for in order to write a good paper. (Interview 3)

This quote plainly reveals that she constantly strained to figure out expectations in the field and CoPs to which she wanted to belong, and this effort was a direct result of her way of approaching assignments because she saw "every paper" as having "potential for publication." During her last interview, she reflected on the development of her academic writing ability, including linguistic aspects:

> It developed a lot…From a linguistic perspective, I started using research terms, using more statements, more academic language. I started to avoid these informal words that I used to use because spoken language is totally different from the written ones. So I

> have to think linguistically. I have to improve writing, and I have to think, OK, this word doesn't suit a research paper, academic level, so I have to use a replacement for this word. (Interview 3)

Based on the observation that she tried to understand "what is acceptable" to publish her papers, it can be said that the constructs of academic socialization and academic writing are inextricably intertwined. In addition to demonstrating robustness of findings and thorough awareness of disciplinary knowledge and arguments, papers of publishable quality surely demonstrate a high degree of linguistic precision as well. This is one of the reasons why it is practically impossible to discuss academic writing development without considering the process of becoming a member of the communities for which students write.

Another change perceived was in *Strategies*. One example was Susan's strategy for getting peer feedback. Susan thinks very highly of peer feedback and group work. Nevertheless, she acknowledged that too many different voices from peers may do a disservice to her, which happened in her first semester. Susan recalled:

> In my first semester, I think, I made these mistakes. I was talking to everybody about my paper. …I confused myself, you know. People have different opinions. …So this semester, I filtered this discussion. I choose only one or two students in my cohort or my friends, who's not necessarily to be in a cohort, but understand me. They understand what I want, and I understand their comments. I negotiate my papers with it. And of course, I prefer to go to the professors. (Interview 1)

In fact, after she had that problem, she changed her strategy for getting peer feedback. She started relying on only one or two friends who, she believed, understood her as a writer and her work. She realized that in order for feedback to be effective, a certain level of understanding of

the writer and the content would be necessary, and sometimes it might be difficult to reconcile conflicting pieces of advice. The next section details the themes that emerged from the data of this unit.

Multidirectionality of Academic Socialization

A prominent characteristic in Kate and Susan's case was their negotiation practices with their professor on the one hand and with each other as collaborators on the other. A lot of negotiations were going on throughout the whole process of working on the final collaborative paper, from choosing a topic to developing individualized criteria for the paper. At first, Kate and Susan started working on their final papers independently based on the guidelines specified on the syllabus. Kate had developed her rough outline of the paper with a broad, technology-related topic in mind, while Susan had already written a 10-page draft for her final paper focusing on teaching creative writing in ESL classrooms.

Reciprocal influence and dynamic interaction. First, negotiation with the professor regarding a potential topic for Kate's final paper was observed in January. Students in this class were required to submit their responses to each class reading. On one of Kate's responses, the professor wrote, "Good," and "This topic is worthy of your exploration." Kate recalled that this was exactly when she found a topic that interested both her and the professor and decided her topic for the final paper. She added:

> I was trying to find even in my readings to find something related to technology. So I just tried to here insert technology to see how it goes and it went well because if he liked it, then it's a new thing. This is like a spark to make me sure of what I'm gonna write about. It's like, OK, now I got a green light. This is acceptable. (Interview 2)

Before Kate received the feedback above from the professor, she strained to find a connection between exploring what she was interested in and determining a topic that her professor would find interesting and would therefore be acceptable for the final paper. She pursued this connection throughout her response assignments in several ways. She said, "When I read the books that are assigned for the course, I searched for any kind of technology, any kind of mentioning between creative writing and technology" (Interview 1). The professor noticed that Kate "has a very strong background in technology," and when she was "seeking approval" of what she wanted to do, he "liked the work that she was doing" because he thought that "it's new especially in ESL contexts" (Professor C, Interview). That was why he "gave her a lot of encouragement" (Professor C, Interview). When Kate received a positive response from the professor on her short response about use of technology in creative writing, she selected it as her topic. This whole process of negotiation indicates how reciprocal literacy practices can be. The dynamics of her personal interests and the professor's acceptance factored into her decision-making process.

The participants' negotiation practices were observed in a more dynamic way when it came to their collaboration. In the interviews, Kate and Susan both stated that they have very positive attitudes toward collaborating with peers and conversing with them about assignments. They actively sought opportunities to have informal conversations about their papers with peers beyond class, and they ultimately wanted to turn individual assignments into collaborative ones with their professor's approval. The idea of collaboration occurred to Kate and Susan after they thought they had finalized their topics. This idea came from another course in which Susan was enrolled. After Susan happened to talk about the growing use of technology and its importance in

that class, she came to realize the possibility of connecting creative writing in ESL classrooms with technology.

The very inception of the idea of connecting Susan's topic with Kate's topic demonstrates how multidirectional literacy practices are. Susan and Kate thought across different CoPs, the target class and another class taught by another professor. Upon their agreeing to collaborate with the professor's permission, Kate added her sections about technology to Susan's first draft. Since the inception of the idea, there were several different channels through which Kate and Susan guessed what the professor was thinking about their agenda and what he may accept: a discussion session in class about the theme of the final paper, written feedback from the professor, and individual conferences. Here, Kate and Susan were exposed to multiple voices such as each classmate in the discussion session and the professor. Although the two individual conferences with the professor were very brief, lasting approximately 5 minutes for each session, it was during these meetings that the professor approved Kate and Susan's request to collaborate on the final paper and the topic of the paper. In the first individual conference, Susan and Kate felt that "he liked [their idea of collaboration] a lot" (Kate, Interview 2). In the second conference, they talked about their plans for the paper and showed him some of its components, including the website with activities that they planned to include in their paper. And they felt that "he [was] very motivated, very enthusiastic" about the idea of developing a website with activities (Kate, Interview 1). And they noticed that the professor particularly liked a specific section of the paper, which made them "work more on [that] part" (Kate, Interview 2). Apart from the fact that the professor's permission laid out a general direction for their writing, it also served as a trigger to resolve tension between them regarding two possibilities for completing the target assignment. For instance, Kate and Susan had different opinions about what content

should be included in the activities they developed for this paper. After they noticed that the professor liked one of the options, their negotiation ran smoothly with both parties satisfied.

It is noteworthy that the participants heavily relied on the professor's approval of what they were doing. Thus, they were perhaps less independent than other participants in this study as far as developing their paper was concerned. In fact, the professor recalled, "[Kate] has a lot of questions. And in particular, she would ask for my approval more than she would ask for information" (Interview). Nonetheless, they did exhibit agency by initiating a conversation with the professor to request that they be allowed to work collaboratively on the final assignment. Thus, I became very curious as to how the professor responded to the participants' ideas. Indeed, it is interesting to see how dialogic the nature of interactions between student and professor was. Not only does the professor influence learners' literacy practices, but the opposite scenario is also true: students can also influence their professor (Prior, 1998). This precisely shows that becoming a member of a specific CoP is not a one-way assimilation, but bidirectional or multidirectional, as Duff (2007a), Duff and Tamly (2011), Haneda (2006), and Morita (2004) argued. The teaching philosophy of the professor of this course allowed him to be especially open to negotiation. For instance, when he discussed the process of developing criteria for an assignment in class, he said:

> If the students don't volunteer that (an aspect of writing) as part of the criteria, I usually say, "here's one that I would put up here." And then we discuss it. I always leave room in using this method of response so that if a majority of people don't get it or don't want it, I erase it. I don't use it because the paper is what they perceive to be, but also to an extent because I'm a participant in the making of meaning what I perceive it to be, too. (Professor C, Interview)

A list of criteria for the target assignment was developed in class through discussion. His active effort to shape his teaching based on students' needs was also shown when he agreed with the participants' idea of collaboration as mentioned. He provided custom-tailored requirements for them and adhered to the agreed criteria when he graded their paper.

When concluding this section, though, it is necessary to point out that negotiation can occur in different forms. When I make a direct comparison with Mary, Kate and Susan's negotiation illustrates a different picture. It seems that Kate and Susan were able to influence the professor in terms of how the target assignment was completed, but they were still largely dependent on the professor's guidance in terms of the content that should be included. In contrast, Mary actively negotiated more substantial aspects of her writing—the research approach and the definition of a key term, "critical," in her theoretical framework. Considered collectively, Susan and Kate's process of negotiating the terms of the assignment and its grading criteria as well as different sources of interactions they engaged throughout the process provides empirical support for the notion that the academic socialization process is indeed far from one-way assimilation (Duff, 2007b), as discussed in Chapter 2.

Feedback network: Agency and self-positioning. Evidence from the data supports the multidirectionality of the socialization process (Duff, 2007b; Duff & Talmy, 2011). Unlike an example in which Susan immediately understood the comment she received on a single occasion, thereby showing that negotiations can occur smoothly, there was another instance where it took her time to understand and process the comments that were gradually offered from her feedback network. When she reflected the feedback offered in the previous semester, she said:

> [Dr. N] marked the paragraphs where I have some weaknesses. At the beginning, I had a problem in the organization. To be honest with you, when he first told me that I have

> some organizational problem, I didn't know what he means by organizational problem. I had to go to the writing center. I had to ask many people what it means, organizational problem. Everybody interprets things differently. Then I went to his office directly, taking my paper with me. Please, Professor, tell me what you mean by organizational problem. He said that sometimes I jump from one topic to another in the same paper. This is a kind of organization. He told me that if you want to write about something, stick to that one. You have to have a thesis statement, and you have to follow your thesis statement along your paper til the end. So this feedback helped me to write other papers. (Interview 1)

When she received comments on an organizational aspect of her writing, at first she was not able to understand what they meant. Nevertheless, or because of that, she was engaged in this feedback by initiating conversations with a tutor at the writing center and "many people" (Susan, Interview 1) in the program. Yet, she still did not understand the professor's point. Through a face-to-face conversation with the professor, she finally understood his intention, which led her to "internalize" the fundamental concept of the feedback—the need to stay focused on the topic established in the thesis—and later apply it to other writing tasks. Despite the fact that this feedback took longer to process, the resulting negotiation of her concept of good academic writing seems to have had a profound effect on her writing practices. Still, this did not automatically happen. Surely, this positive outcome came from the feedback. But what if she had simply disregarded the comment because she did not understand it? What if she had not gone to the writing center? What if she had not knocked on the door of her professor's office? Nothing would have happened. As such, the crucial question becomes, what made her initiate this series of interactions in the first place? Her realization of an issue in her writing through feedback and

subsequent internalization of a strategy for improving her writing happened only after she committed to this line of interaction. This sequence of events establishes her agency and her perception of herself as a future researcher. When more and more concrete encounters with others like this occur, the academic socialization process is facilitated. This self-positioning is one of the grounds for the argument that developing academic writing should be understood in relation to academic socialization, which is a main function of feedback.

Kate and Susan recognized the connection between feedback and academic writing development, with feedback defined here as "not only the comments that [Kate] got from the professors, and … from the writing center, …[but also] from [her] friends" (Kate, Interview 1). The feedback from the writing center served as "another eye to see" papers for Kate (Kate, Interview1). On top of the peer feedback and oral feedback, it is notable that both Kate and Susan talked about what they learned regarding academic writing in the previous semester. More importantly, it is enlightening to see how they engaged and applied these previously learned lessons to the new writing contexts in the target semester. They drew on professor feedback from the past, despite the absence of written feedback from the professor in the earlier part of the semester and the writing process. Or they might have turned to feedback from the past because they did not receive very much feedback from one of their professors in the target semester. Kate was confident that her writing had improved because she noticed a difference in her writing between the beginning and end of the semester and attributed the improvement to "learning from following comments" and "learning from [her] mistakes, not only one particular course, but also for other courses" (Kate, Interview 1).

It is observed that students' perception of learning plays a significant role in shaping their academic life and, in turn, what they become capable of. Kate and Susan were actively

engaged in scholarly events on campus such as dissertation defenses and workshops led by peers. They furthermore organized workshops themselves. This active involvement in the academic culture of their university appears to have been motivated by their perception of learning. Kate indeed said in her interview that participating in scholarly events is "a way of learning" because thinking of taking classes as the only way of learning is "a mistake" (Interview 1). She added:

> If I want to know what's going on in the department, if I want to know how to do this and that, I have to participate. I have to be in every place. Last semester, I started attending, for example, dissertation defenses because I was in the process of finding an advisor and topics (Interview 1).

Kate positioned herself as a novice member in a particular CoP, instead of a student who absorbed knowledge that teachers transmitted to students in the classroom. Again, this clearly corroborates the participatory nature of doing graduate-level work and the close link between academic literacies and shaping ways of behaving and values in academia (Casanave & Li, 2008).

The starting point of Kate's active involvement in academic discourses seems to be when she defined her papers as having "potential for publication" (Interview 3) or conference presentations beyond class. To Kate and Susan, writing course assignments is not simply for getting an A in class, but for beginning working beyond class to publish or present at scholarly events in the future. Throughout their interviews, it was very easy to spot instances when Kate and Susan pushed their writing beyond class, including Kate's repeated attempts to make a connection between an assignment and her future dissertation. Even before they decided to collaborate for a final paper, they agreed that they planned "to have a workshop later on and send [their collaborative paper] to conferences and journals" (Kate, Interview 1) and "would love to publish this paper" (Susan, Interview 1). When Kate explained why professor feedback was

helpful, the importance of how to approach a task became more noticeable. The professor commented on the collaborative paper at the end of the semester. One of the written comments on their final paper was “Much better with the online application than with the theoretical set-up for the course and paper.” In response to this comment, Kate said:

> He wrote here that he liked the online application more than theoretical. So we know that we have to work on the theoretical. We have to do more readings, more literature review on the topic itself from different perspectives from creative writing, from poetry, from technology, rather than the application. …With his comments, he added to my knowledge more. It’s like, OK, go to this direction, or go to that direction, and write more about it to complete my ideas in this paper. This is good. To have comments. (Interview 3)

The participants’ perspective that their course paper could become a future publication also influenced their level of engagement with this feedback and their ways of using it. Even when feedback was offered on their final paper after the semester, they did not simply forget about it. Instead, the feedback had an enduring effect on their future writing practices and the actual revision of the collaborative paper. Kate and Susan’s experiences suggest that students’ efforts to initiate academic interactions generate feedback networks and develop habits of active engagement in academic culture rooted in their agency and their developing perception of themselves and learning itself. Therefore, from a pedagogical perspective, if teachers help learners define course assignments beyond class and position learners as participants in various CoPs, such as the institution and the broader academic field, they can prompt learners to truly engage the feedback they are given, even if they receive it after the semester is over. In the

following section, I detail the participants' negotiation practices during collaboration by using examples.

Agency Meets Collaborative Writing

Even before Kate and Susan started working on the target paper, both of them acknowledged that they had different strengths and weaknesses in terms of writing. They believed that these differences would do more good than harm in the long run because they knew each other well and they could learn from each other. During the earlier stages of collaboration, they met for discussion face-to-face and sometimes through Skype. At the later stages, they exchanged drafts multiple times, repeatedly revising in response to comments they made to each other using the "track changes" and "comment" functions of Microsoft Word. First, after they agreed on the possible sections for the paper, they divided the work to write a first draft. Sometimes they commented on the draft so that the partner could revise while other times they inserted, deleted, or moved some words or phrases directly on the drafts. They exchanged about 10 Microsoft Word files during the revision process, sometimes with substantial revisions and other times with minor editing.

Negotiation of intricacies of ownership: Regulating strategies to comment. Despite their positive attitudes toward collaboration, the success of their collaboration on the final paper, and their established habit of providing feedback on each other's papers, both of them realized that working on the same paper presented distinct challenges. Although they were able to save time and energy by dividing the work load, they realized that they also had to spend a significant amount of time filling each other in on the details of what they did and negotiating a variety of aspects of their writing through discussion. Also, their collaboration process occasionally became tense because it involved intense discussion and negotiation stemming from the

tremendous amount of energy and time they put into their paper, which they agreed needed to be really good because they were originally supposed to write their final papers individually. In this sense, they felt that taking equal ownership over one piece of writing meant that "you have to negotiate about every sentence" (Susan, Interview 2).

Most of the time, their negotiations were not about simply deeming something right or wrong. Rather, their disagreements during the revision process arose from their different writing styles and perceptions of good academic writing. One of them may have preferred using "first, second, and third" to develop their argument whereas the other would prefer not using them. Alternately, one may have preferred less direct language ("may" and "might") while the other preferred assertive terms like "can" and "will." Moreover, they had different writing styles, different opinions about the extent to which they should incorporate direct quotes or paraphrases, and different attitudes toward the appropriate level of expressing their voices in the text. Susan tended to write creatively, in the style of a narrative and was not willing to generalize in making an argument, while Kate tended to be direct and straightforward in her sentences. This difference seemed to stem from their perceptions of academic papers and specifically the target paper expected in this particular class. In light of these frequent differences of opinion, each change suggested by either Susan or Kate was negotiated: "sometimes [it] changes" and "sometimes it stays" (Kate, Interview 3).

Partly because Kate and Susan were different as writers yet had equal ownership over the target paper, it is crucial to understand some deeper and more interesting dynamics and power relations between them. To illustrate, the following sentences were written and revised by Susan. Oddly, Kate did not comment on these sentences, even though she was less likely to use a narrative style because Kate thought it was "her [Susan's] voice" (Kate, Interview 3).

(Earlier Draft) When those powerful feelings emerge, it becomes very difficult to control them or shut that voice up. There must be motivators from those feelings to move on and on, and when those motivators work out, the poetry is produced whether it is in tranquil place or in a bus station.

(Final Draft) When those powerful feelings emerge, it becomes very difficult to control or shut them down because there must be motivators that urge them to move on to produce poetry, whether in a serene place or a bustling bus station.

The fact that Kate did not ask Susan to revise these sentences does not necessarily mean that no negotiation took place. Kate "regulated" her commenting strategies in order to negotiate the intricacies of ownership over the writing. To be specific, when she noticed something that did not conform to her concept of good writing or her definition of the task at hand, she did one of the following: chose not to comment on it, directly asked Susan to change it, expressed her opinions about it indirectly so that her partner would change it, or changed some text by herself. This also appears to be the case with Susan. Thus, delicate negotiations took place over a variety of aspects of the collaborative writing process: definitions of the task and good academic writing, expectations, language, and strategies for commenting on each other's writing.

Voices weave together into a shared text. In addition to the subtle forms of negotiation mentioned above, there were many instances of more obvious negotiations:

(Earlier Draft) In digital age, poetry promotes better understanding of meanings and involves students in dramatic explorations of poems in a variety of ways that include visual images, videos, and sounds. (Writing Sample)

(Final Draft) In digital age, poetry promotes better understanding of meanings and involves students in dramatic explorations of poems in a variety of ways that include

> visual images, videos, and sounds. Electronic-poetry, according to Funkhouser (2007), therefore, "connects mind (vision) and machine by way of finger's tips, voice, and everything in between; discrepantly engages and links various pre-and post-industrial worlds" (p. 3). (Writing Sample, emphasis added)

At the earlier stage of revision, Kate wrote the first sentence above. In responding to this sentence, Susan commented, "Is there a quote that supports this argument?" (Written peer feedback). The sentence citing Funkhouser was also written by Kate, but it had been placed toward the end of the paper in the earlier draft. To this, Susan commented, "This is an excellent quote that can be placed above" (Written peer feedback). In the final draft, the Funkhouser sentence was moved to right after "…videos, and sounds." That is, they agreed on the idea that they needed to support their argument by citing someone, which was accomplished by moving a sentence. Moreover, the very idea of strengthening arguments through source citation came from the feedback they received in a previous semester of the program.

There were also paragraphs in which the partners' voices wove together into a shared voice through negotiation. Susan added three sentences in an earlier draft as seen below, along with providing a written comment, "I add this to support the argument":

> (Earlier Draft) Students cannot be left alone without any guidance especially in the field of creative writing. Bishop (1990) points out "student writers expect to receive some help learning how to discover alternative ways of seeing" (p.62). Green (2000, as cited in Kenny, 2010) notes that creative writing teachers can inspire students to imagine the world through different eyes. (Writing Sample, emphasis added)
>
> (Final Draft) Students cannot be left alone without any guidance especially in the field of creative writing. Bishop (1990) points out "student writers expect to receive some

> help learning how to discover alternative ways of seeing" (p.62). Kenny (2010) adds that creative writing teachers can inspire students to imagine the world through different eyes. (Writing Sample, emphasis added)

Later, Kate and Susan kept the first part of this paragraph intact while Kate changed "notes" into "adds" and removed "as cited in Kenny." Here, they became aware of the tendency of writers in academic communities to avoid discussing work referenced in a secondary source without reading the original work. Thus, their revision has been shaped by their perception of good citation practices which, in turn, had been shaped by their writing experiences during the previous semester. Susan recalled that the comment she received in her first semester made her strive for more support for their argument from the literature, which in turn informed her give feedback on their earlier draft. In this respect, the final draft is a manifestation of "interwoven voices" (Tardy, 2006, p. 62) from different sources. They took a step forward in their efforts to internalize their understanding of the feedback they got and apply it to their work. Arguably, this is a concrete example of how academic socialization takes place, as Prior (1998) and Tardy (2006) conceptualized.

Multiple sources of feedback merge. There was another instance in which multiple sources of feedback came into play during collaboration. Regarding the research questions they wrote in the introduction of their draft, Susan commented, "Too many research questions. Are they all answered at the end?" (Susan, Written feedback). As with Susan's feedback about source citation, her comments about research questions stemmed from feedback experiences from a previous semester. In her first interview, she said:

> For example, [a professor] told me that your research questions don't go with the conclusion. I didn't think of that, you know. So it was so clear for me. I think, oh my

> god, yes. I revised the paper, and I still remember that I removed that second question because I discovered that I put these questions and only one study that answers these questions and the requirement of the paper was to find 10 studies to answer that question. (Interview 1)

She was advised to be careful with research questions when writing a paper in her first semester. That is, her professor advised that research questions posed for a study be answered in the study based on evidence and support. She processed this piece of advice and gave the same feedback to her partner in her second semester. Thus, it is clear that her notion of a research paper in relation to research questions had been shaped by the feedback she was given in the previous semester. After Kate and Susan shared this opinion, they revised their introductory paragraph because they "had this negotiation that [they didn't] need these questions" (Susan, Interview 2). The revision of their research questions proceeded as follows:

> (Draft 1) The argument of this paper is that to get better as a creative writing teacher and student, one has to go beyond the traditional way of literacy to cope with the digital age. Combing creative writing and technology, therefore, raises the following questions:
>
> (1) How does utilizing technology affect creative writing in L2 classroom?
>
> (2) How does an online workshop support creative writing within the digital age?
>
> (3) How does blending creative writing and technology promote L2 literacy?
>
> (4) Has technology affected how we approach reading literary texts and writing creatively about them? (Writing Sample)
>
> (Draft 2) The argument of this paper is that to be a better creative writing teacher and student-writer, one has to go beyond the traditional way of literacy to cope with

development of the digital age. Combining creative writing and technology, therefore, raises the following question: How do utilizing technological tools affect and support creative writing of poetry writing? (Writing Sample)

(Final Draft) The argument of this paper, therefore, is that to acquire better creative writing skills, one has to go beyond the traditional way of literacy to cope with the development of the digital age and to examine the effects of using online workshops to facilitate poetry writing. (Writing Sample)

As seen in Draft 1, originally they had four research questions. In Draft 2, they agreed to limit their focus to questions that were relevant and actually answered in their paper, effectively reducing the number of research questions to just one. It is observed that they revised their research question once again and incorporated it into the rest of the paragraph in the final draft. This example provides a concrete manifestation of how feedback can have an enduring effect on academic writing and how a source of feedback (professor feedback from the previous semester in this case) can inform and be reinforced by another source of feedback, peer feedback in the target semester. Consequently, Kate and Susan's negotiation of their research questions demonstrates the way in which different sources of feedback merge together in their collaborative written product.

Concluding Remarks

In sum, Kate and Susan engaged with multiple sources of feedback offered at different points, as did the other participants. Yet their interactions occurred in a different pattern because they mainly relied on peers, including each other, and feedback from the previous semester. Their collaboration was characterized by equal ownership and as such increased the degree of interwoven voices in the text through negotiation. Negotiations during this prolific collaboration were manifested not only as resistance to change in texts but also in the use of diversified

strategies for commenting on each other's writing and revision of a shared draft. Without a doubt, the participants exhibited their agency by agreeing on aspects of writing and by selecting which feedback they would apply to their writing, to what extent they would apply it, and which aspects *they* would accept among those which they expected the *professor* to accept. The next section reports the results of Carol's case.

Carol: Negotiating Resources and Literacy Practices

The third case was situated within a doctoral course which was open to Master's degree students. One student in this class, Carol, participated in this study. Among the three courses, this CoP offered the smallest amount of feedback. This led me to define this class as a limited-feedback environment. Of all the participants, Carol received the least feedback both from professors and peers. This relative scarcity can be partly attributable to the way the class was designed. Students were not required to submit drafts for the target paper and thus did not receive any professor feedback on earlier drafts. Carol received only 3 pieces of written feedback from the professor on the target paper at the end of the semester. But she was involved in a total of 44 instances of interaction about this assignment, which were coded into different types of oral and written feedback from peers as well as the professor. Therefore, even when a student hardly receives any written feedback, it appears that interactions about writing take place in various forms. Carol's case furthermore indicates that students may derive extensive benefits from feedback even when a comparatively small amount of total feedback is offered.

The final writing assignment for this class was a scholarly paper related to sociolinguistics[5]. The professor distributed a one-page assignment description and spent about an hour of class time discussing the task requirements in detail one month before the paper was due. Carol visited her professor to get feedback on her target assignment and had a brief individual

[5] See Case 3: Participant Carol in Chapter 3 for the requirements of the final paper

conference. She did an oral presentation using PowerPoint on a topic closely related to the topic of her final paper. The professor led a discussion of primary traits of the target paper and arranged a peer-feedback session in class one week before the due date. Although there was a peer-feedback session in class for the target paper, Carol did not seem to be that enthusiastic about getting peer feedback. She actually said that she preferred teacher feedback even though she occasionally found peer feedback helpful. During the peer feedback session, she had a 3-minute conversation with her professor after she finished the session with her partner. Carol had another brief individual conference with the professor and visited the writing center with her draft once for this paper. Hence, in Carol's case, the feedback she got in the middle of the semester came predominantly from oral discussions in class and from individual conferences with the professor rather than direct written feedback.

Types of Feedback: Expectations in Academic Communities and Feedback as a Mediator for Academic Socialization

Before discussing the emergent themes from this case, I describe the feedback Carol was engaged in and the learning outcomes she perceived in order to establish an overall picture of her case. Figure 20 summarizes the feedback Carol received.

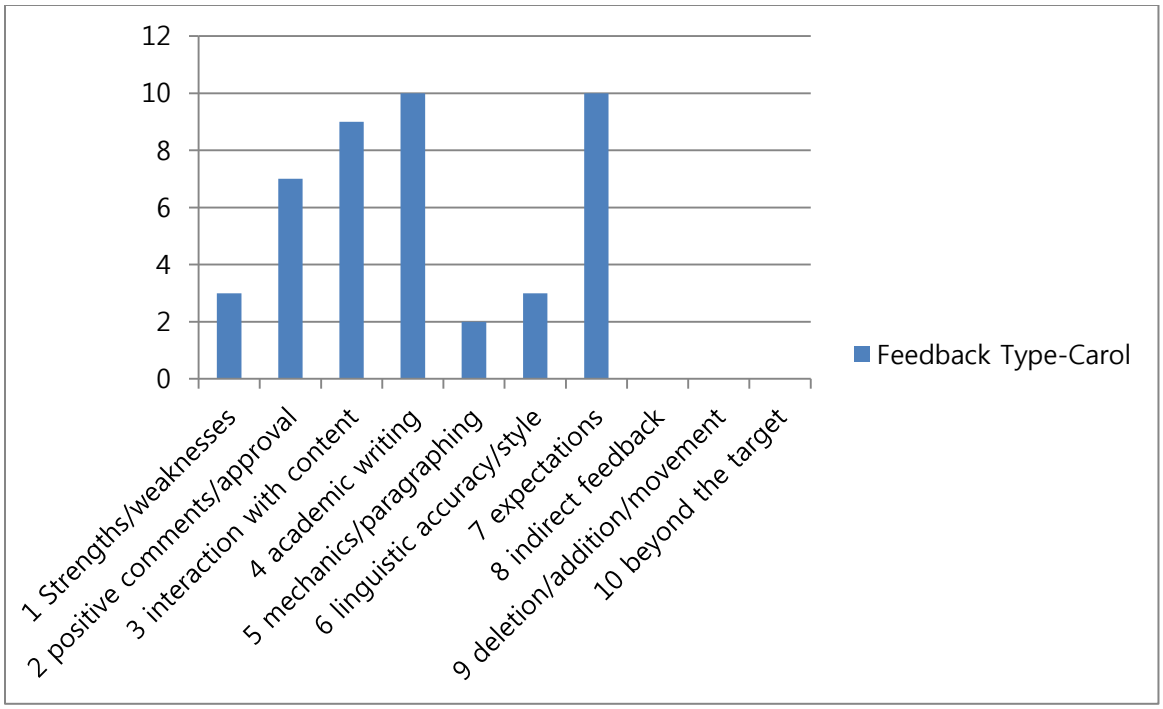


Figure 20. Types of Feedback—Carol (Total: 44).

The three most frequent categories in Carol's case were *Assignment/genre expectations on the target assignment* (23%), *Academic writing* (23%), and *Interaction with content* (20%). These were followed by *Positive comments and approval* (16%), *Positive or negative appraisal* (7%), *Linguistic accuracy and style* (7%), and *Mechanics and paragraphing* (4%). Based on the frequency, she did not receive any feedback on *Disciplinary knowledge* (Code 3.2), *Indirect feedback* (Code 8), and *Beyond the target assignment/class* (Code 10). Also, no parts of her drafts were added, deleted, or moved by her professor or peers. Carol received only three pieces of feedback on *Linguistic accuracy* (7%): one from the writing center, another from her first semester in the program about general linguistic aspects of her writing, and a third which her professor claimed to have provided on Carol's writing during our interview. Interestingly enough, all three pieces of feedback on linguistic aspects that Carol received were not provided directly on the target paper. Thus, it can be said that she hardly got any corrective feedback, at least as far

as written comments on the target paper were concerned. In terms of peer feedback, the intention of the feedback was relatively varied because three types appeared: *Academic disciplinary writing*, *Mechanics/paragraphing*, and *Linguistic accuracy/style*. Most of the feedback she was provided was concerned with *Assignment expectations*, *Academic writing*, *Interaction with content*, and *Positive comments or approval* on what she was doing. Again, this corroborates the findings from the other cases in this research that feedback is tied to specific ways of writing in the academic community in which she sought to become a full member. Thus, the result provides additional support for the notion that mediating academic socialization is one of the main roles of feedback at the doctoral level.

One of the noticeable features in Carol's case was her differential investment in each of the multiple sources of feedback and interactions about her writing. In contrast to Mary's active engagement with scholars in the field or senior members of the institutional CoP and Kate and Susan's reliance on peer interactions, Carol did not seem to be passionate about getting peer feedback on her writing. While she valued feedback from the writing center and actually visited the writing center several times throughout the semester, she reported that the issues addressed there were limited to fixing grammar and mechanics. While she was taking the class, figuring out her professor's expectations was the most significant concern for her, as will be discussed in detail later. Equally interesting, other unique characteristic of this case is that, unlike the other participants, neither the professor nor the participant seemed to care much about being active beyond the class. At least, they rarely mentioned the possibility of developing course papers to publish or present at conferences in their interviews, resulting in zero instances of feedback coded in category 10 (*Beyond target*), as shown in Figure 20. As I reflect on my casual conversations with Carol, it seems that she was vaguely aware that she will need to publish her

work in the distant future as part of her professional career. Nevertheless, at the time of the data collection, she had obviously set goals for an immediate and upcoming writing task for class.

Stated Outcomes

Figure 21 summarizes what Carol mentioned about the aspects that she believed had changed since she joined the program.

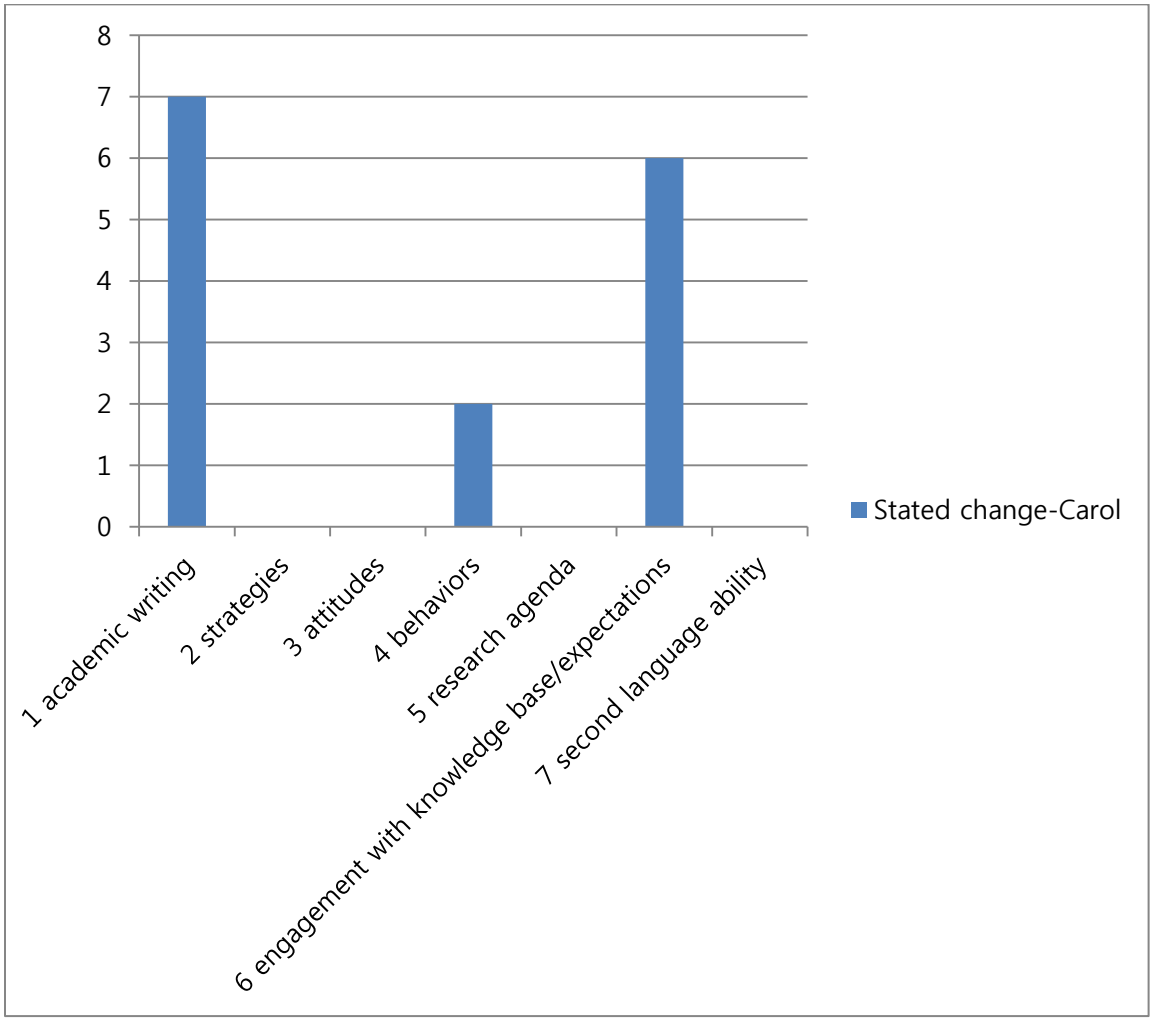


Figure 21. *Stated Changes*—Carol (Total: 15).

Above all, it is noticeable that she believed only three aspects had changed: *Academic writing*, *Engagement with knowledge base and expectations*, and *Behaviors*. When changes that her professor perceived are put together with Carol's observed changes, *Academic writing* occupied

the highest percentage in her data (47%). It is worth noting that even though Carol received only 10 instances of feedback on academic writing, as compared to Mary's 28 and Kate and Susan's 36, her perceived change in academic writing was quite high.

From unfamiliarity to background knowledge. When the three subcategories of *Academic writing* were considered separately, *Engagement with knowledge base and expectations* occupies the highest percentage (40%), as shown in Figure 21. In reflecting the effects of feedback, Carol considered all of her academic experiences in the program, not simply those that occurred during the target semester. Additionally, she perceived that the disciplinary knowledge and ways of writing and reading she experienced in her first semester became background knowledge, which helped her become more familiar with literacy practices and adjust to new contexts in her second semester. When I asked what she meant by "getting used to contexts," she commented:

> 예를 들면, TESOL 이라는 거는 제가 이미 익숙한 context 인데 비해서, writing 쪽은 따로 막 어떻게 가르치느냐에 관련된 게 아니고, 여기는 rhetorical 한 것을 같이 취급을 하다 보니까, 제가 거기에 관련해서 익숙하지 않다 보니까, 전혀 background knowledge 도 없고, 거기에 관해서 어떤 역사를 지니고 있으며, 어떤 scholarly works 가 지금까지 쭉 전해지고, 현재 trend 는 뭔지를 모르는…
>
> For instance, I'm not familiar with the field of composition which doesn't focus much on the act of teaching itself while I'm familiar with the field of TESOL. It also involves rhetoric, which I'm not that used to. I didn't have background knowledge in relation to composition and rhetoric. I didn't know about its history, major scholarly works, and current trends... (Interview 4)

Also, the feedback on her work from the previous semester made her realize what her strengths and weaknesses were. Carol continued, "There are a lot of connections and similarities between

the papers I wrote. Moreover, I reflect on what professors commented on my writing and try to apply them to my future writing." Further, she said she kept the weaknesses previously mentioned by professors in mind whenever she worked on new literacy tasks. Her professor noticed that, although her observation was limited to the targeted semester, Carol's ability developed over time. The professor said, "[Her] ability to talk about a variety of different linguistic terms and practices and combine them and talk about them in relation to some of the other texts and some of the other presentations [has increased]" (Interview). The professor also pointed out that Carol "had an opportunity to build up, build onto the body of knowledge that she already had" (Professor B, Interview). Changes in *Engagement with knowledge base and expectations* were followed by the category of *Behaviors*. One of the changes in Carol's behaviors can be seen in the following interview:

> Carol: Writing center 를 찾아가는 경우도 첫 번째 것이 있었고. 두 번 째 케이스는 고민을 하고 앉아서 거기서 이야길 하는 경우, 근데 그건 별로 도움이 안 되더라고요. 제가 생각하는 방향하고 전혀 다른 방향으로 가려는데, 결국 그게 아닌데도, 걔는 그걸 얘기를 계속 하고, 계속 강조를 하니까.
>
> Researcher: 내 생각과 다르다고 의견을 피력했나요?
>
> Carol: 아니요. 저는 항상 듣는 편이에요. 그리고 그게 내 생각과 좀 다르고 그러면, 그냥 제가 그냥 버려요. 제가 버리는 거지. 어필하는 편은 아니에요. 원래 저는 그런 편인데, 지난 학기를 여기서 겪고 이번 학기를 넘어오니까, 그렇게 해서는 교수님들이 원하는 학생의 올바른 태도상? 이 아니더라고. 그래서 말하기 시작하는 거고. 저는 원래 클래스에서 말을 하거나, 발표를 하지는 거의 않는 편이에요. 그게 쓸데없다고 생각하는 편이에요, 사실. 쓸데없지는 않지만. 그래도 필요 없는데 시간도 많이 낭비되잖아요.
>
> Carol: When I visited the writing center for one of my papers, I sat with a tutor, discussing about it. But I don't think it was helpful because the tutor talked about the

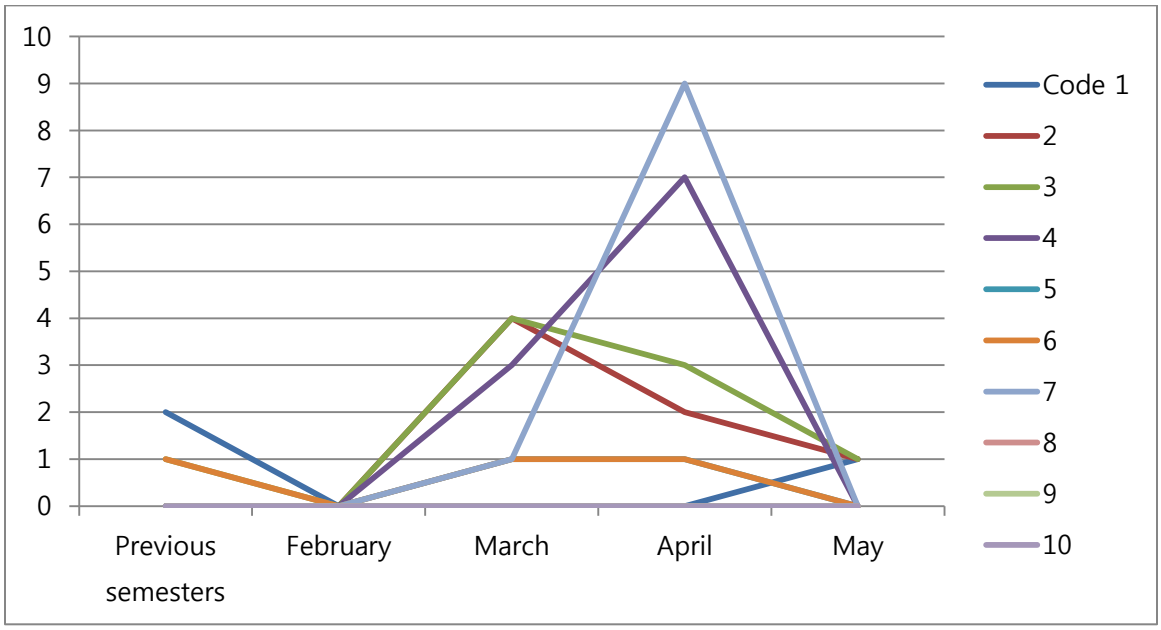
> paper in a way that didn't conform to the direction I was thinking. Although the point was not that in the end, the tutor kept talking about it and even emphasized it.
>
> Researcher: Did you say that you had a different idea?
>
> Carol: No. I usually listen to others at the moment and then throw it away later when I have a different opinion from theirs. I throw things away. I'm not accustomed to arguing against others' opinions. That's who I was and sort of who I am. But after I went through my first semester here in the program, I realized that my way of behaving was not what the professors here want and expect from us. That's why I started speaking. Originally I was not the type of person who spoke in class. I tend to consider this somewhat useless. In fact, it's not always useless, though. But it can be a waste of time because we may waste on unnecessary things. (Interview 1)

In her first semester, Carol behaved the same way as she had in her home country; she neither jumped in to discussions much nor made many counter arguments, which does not mean that she did not work hard. Both in her home country and here in the U.S., she was known as a hard worker who easily stayed up all night to study. The implications of the interview excerpt are about her method of engaging with feedback. She previously preferred to keep her thoughts and intentions private, even to the point of passively receiving feedback that she knew she would ultimately ignore, as seen in the writing center anecdote. However, she eventually realized that she was expected to engage with interaction in more active ways and would moreover benefit from doing so. Her first semester experiences caused her to realize that her previous approach did not work in her present context. Consequently, she negotiated her way of interacting with others in academic settings such as class discussions and sessions with tutors at the writing center.

Imagination as a form of belonging. Apart from changes in these three aspects, no changes were observed in *Strategies*, *Attitudes*, *Research agenda*, and *Second language ability*, indicating that she did not discern any development in these areas. The fact that she did not mention a change in her research agenda may be due to her lack of attention to a research agenda beyond class, such as her dissertation topic or research topics for future publications. This apparent lack of a larger agenda was curious in light of the fact that Carol had already identified an area of interest for her dissertation when she joined the program. In this regard, she remarked that "the purpose of taking this class is not to write my dissertation. Rather, I think of it as a stage to get me through the coursework and to the next stage" (Carol, Interview 1). She planned to go back to her country as soon as possible, and she knew that only the publications produced within three years are counted and valued in her country. This is one reason why she wanted to take publishing seriously later, and perhaps wait until after she finished her coursework. As Wenger (1998) stated, imagination is an important form of belonging to a community. Carol's perspectives about publishing illustrate how her belonging to an imagined CoP, in this case the English education field in her country, plays out in her literacy practices. Therefore, she negotiated her priorities considering the exigencies and academic atmosphere of the academic CoP in her country. Overall, it needs to be pointed out that the number of perceived changes was the lowest among the three cases. She surely went through the academic socialization process, actually succeeded in the target course, and perceived that her academic writing and knowledge improved. However, the magnitude of perceived changes during the target semester was relatively small, compared to the other participants. The next section presents themes that emerged from both individual timed contours and qualitative data to establish a more in-depth understanding of Carol's perceptions.

A Holistic View of Feedback with Timed Contours and Academic Socialization: Carol's Negotiation Practices and Interwoven Voices in Texts

First of all, it is necessary to get a general picture of what the timed contours of feedback practices and stated changes look like in relation to each other[6].



Code 1	Positive/negative appraisal	Code 6	Linguistic accuracy & style
Code 2	Positive comments & approval	Code 7	Assignment/genre expectations
Code 3	Interaction with content	Code 8	Indirect feedback
Code 4	Academic disciplinary writing	Code 9	Deletion/addition/movement (w/o reasons)
Code 5	Mechanics & paragraphing	Code 10	Beyond the target assignment/class

Figure 22. Timed contour of *Feedback Types* Carol received.

Firstly, it is immediately clear that April is when Carol encountered the most prolific resources in that several types of feedback peaked this month. Particularly, feedback related to *Assignment and genre expectations* and *Academic writing* were offered frequently in April. It is also interesting to see that two types peaked in March: *Positive comments and approval* and *Interaction with content*. Thus, these two types of feedback were offered at the beginning stage of working on a writing task, while feedback on expectations for the specific task and academic

[6] See Table 14 in Chapter 4 for the timeline of literacy events in class

writing was provided at relatively later stages of revision. It should also be noted that feedback on *Linguistic accuracy and style* was given far less often than feedback directly relevant to socializing students into written academic discourses such as *Genre or task expectations* and *Academic writing*, which can vary across disciplines. In terms of feedback coded as *Interaction with content*, it peaked in March and took a downward turn throughout April and May. That is, at earlier stages of writing the final paper, Carol had more interactions focused on content and later focused more on how to present her content according to academic conventions.

When the contour of feedback types and stated changes are juxtaposed, a more interesting picture emerges.

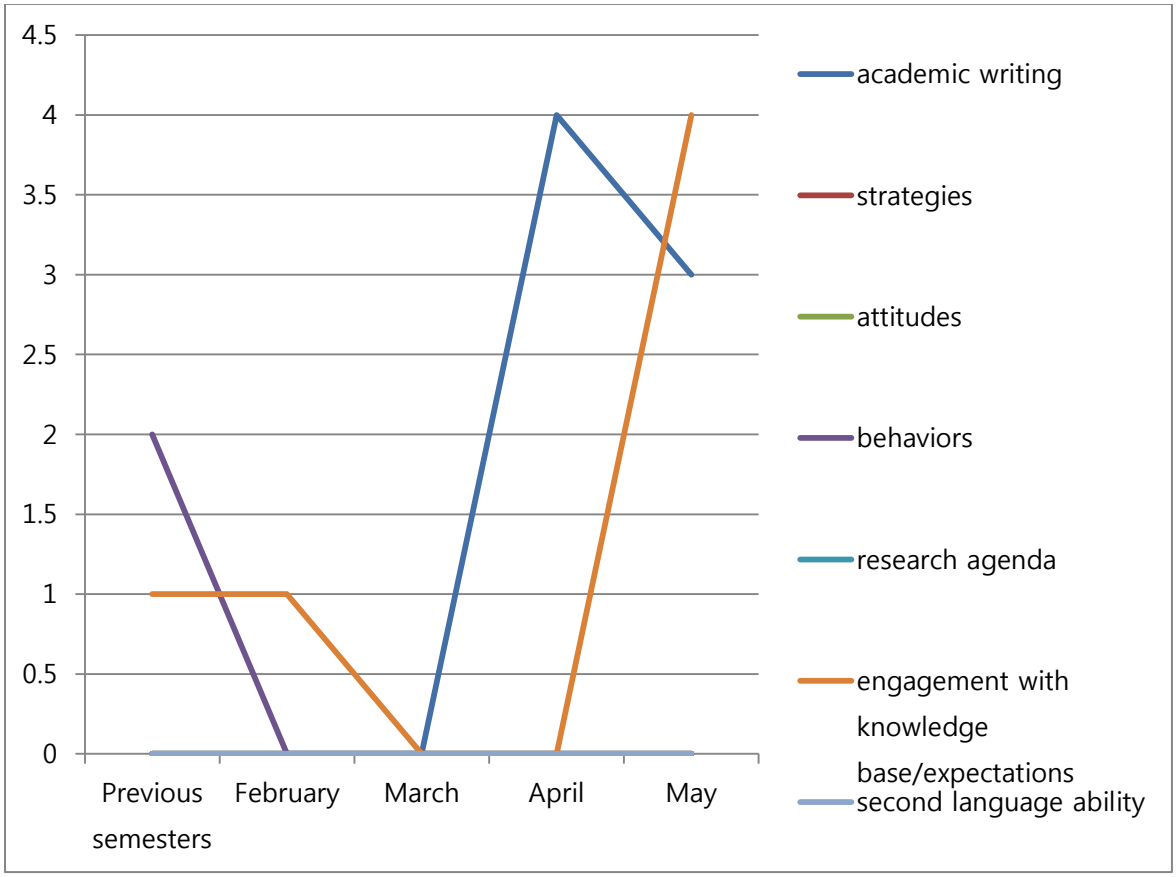


Figure 23. Timed contour of *Stated Changes* (Carol).

Although the total number of observed changes was very small compared to the other participants, Carol's timed contour of changes also reflects the overall tendency of the contour of feedback types. The contour dropped when the semester began in February and peaked in April. This indicates that she perceived more changes to have happened when she received more feedback than when she was hardly involved in academic interactions. To illustrate, in terms of *Academic writing*, she received the highest number of instances of feedback on her academic writing, as seen in Figure 22. The timed contour of *Stated changes* also shows that she recognized many changes in her academic writing. Thus, it is reasonable to say that there is a very close relationship between the types and amount of feedback provided and the extent of changes that students felt happened. This tendency is systematic across the three cases in this research.

Start early and revise more. Against the overview of feedback practices based on the timed contours as a background, I present the writing process Carol went through based on interviews, observations, and her drafts. She started working on the final paper very early in the semester and revised it multiple times. She usually tried to start working on papers early since she assumed she "need[s] more time than English-speaking students" (Interview 4). Carol's negotiation practices can be seen in her process of choosing a topic for the final paper, which was about the Korean honorific system and its use in social contexts. To begin with, she started working on the assignment very early in the semester and was constantly on the lookout for information relevant to the task, even when it was only remotely relevant. In fact, among the final papers for all of her classes, this paper was the first task that she began to work on because she thought she "lack[ed] background knowledge" (Interview 3) about sociolinguistics. When she shaped her topic for the target paper, she had several factors in mind:

Carol: 처음에 들어갈 때 벌써 그게 final 까지 갈 수 있다고 생각을 해서, 그냥 저희 책에서 이야기하는 그냥 막연하게 language variable 에 대해 이야기 하는 거 보다 많이 학회에서 언급되고 있는 (웃음) politeness 에 관해서 하는 게 자료가 많을 거라고 생각했어요. 솔직히. 그리고 sociolinguistic 쪽의 책들을 찾아보니까 저도 백그라운드가 없으니까 Journal of politeness 라는 게 따로 나와 있을 정도로 분야가 되게 깊이가 있더라고요. 그래서 너무 방대하게 보는 것 보다는 우리나라 언어의 특성상 honorific 이라는 게 있잖아요. 그러니까 그런 특성을 부각시키면 괜찮겠다 라고 생각했죠.

Researcher: 처음에 선생님이 구할 수 있는 자료를 먼저 생각하셨다는 건가요?

Carol: 그게 첫 번째고요. 두 번째는 제가 잘 알고 있는 왜냐하면 이게 제 전공분야는 아니기 때문에 그냥 제가 알고 있는 곳에서 하는 게 편하다고 생각해요.

Carol: Even at the beginning of the class, I assumed that the first assignment can be a starting point of the final assignment. I guessed that there would be a lot of research conducted on politeness as I noticed that people mentioned this topic more often than language variables at conferences. And to be honest, when I was searching for materials related to sociolinguistics, I noticed that the area of politeness is quite established to a point where there is *Journal of Politeness* out there. Moreover, our language has a sophisticated honorific system. So I think it would be better for me to focus on this specific aspect of our language than to approach sociolinguistics in a broad sense.

Researcher: Do you mean that you considered resources available to you in the field first?

Carol: That’s what I did first. And secondly, I considered what I know relatively a lot because this field is new to me and I don’t have a solid knowledge base about this area. (Interview 1)

The factors she took into account include: the topics frequently dealt with in the field of sociolinguistics, how much published research on particular topics was available, how much she knew about the topic, whether or not a topic was discussed in class at some point, and what her first language is like in relation to sociolinguistics. Consequently, Carol tried to search for reading materials in the field before she finalized her paper topic. Indeed, whether she was able to find relevant academic articles or books in the field was one of her main concerns when she shaped her topic. She was the one who made this factor a top priority. To be sure, this tactic stems from her concept of good academic writing and more specifically the notion that academic arguments need to be supported strongly and build upon established knowledge. That is, she negotiated her topic depending on the resources and knowledge available to her at the moment. Given that she considered knowledge bases in the field and class discussions very seriously, her thinking was fine-tuned to meet the expectations of these CoPs, which may be why her process of choosing a topic can also be understood as an academic socialization process. This interpretation becomes little more complicated, however, when one considers that Carol belonged to academic CoPs in the U.S. at the moment, yet she ultimately aspired to be a member of other distinct CoPs: academic fields and institutions in her home country. Therefore, she constantly negotiated expectations across different communities, let alone the resources available.

Deciphering expectations across CoPs: "Am I on the right track?" First of all, Carol focused on several aspects during her process of revising her final paper: professors' expectations, "clarity," "coherence," "word choice," "appropriate references," "connections between sections," "overall flow," and "effectiveness of conclusion" (Carol, Interview 3). Many factors were observed to factor into her revision. Carol felt that one of the most challenging

aspects of graduate school was figuring out professors' expectations. Indeed, this issue was mentioned most frequently in her interviews. She stated:

> 사전에 이야기해 본 것은 지난 학기가 처음이었던 것 같아요. 왜냐하면 너무 어렵고, 제가 지금 잘 가고 있는지 whether I'm on the right track 그걸 잘 모르니까.
>
> I think I talked about my paper with others before I turned it in last semester. And it was my first time to do that. It was because the writing assignment was too hard and I was not sure whether I [was] on the right track. (Interview 1)

She added that she visited the writing center to obtain additional feedback on this paper. Interestingly enough, she chose to work with a particular tutor who was a graduate student in a TESOL program. After she joined the program, she soon realized that the expectations for the quality of work in the doctoral program were different from those in her Master's study. This realization led her to change her behavior because she started seeking feedback on her writing from doctoral students. She made particular efforts to solicit feedback from a senior peer in the program who had learned from her professor in the past. This was why she worked with the graduate tutor at the writing center. She explained that she wanted to discuss her paper with that tutor because she assumed that the tutor was familiar with what she was expected to do. She continued:

> Content 에 focus 를 두고, Teachers' expectation 에 가장 focus 를 두고 있는 거죠. 왜냐하면 제가 아무리 제 방향이 맞다고 해도 교수님이 원하는 방향이 그 쪽이 아니고, 그리고 여기서 같은 경우는 항상 inductive 하니까. Approach 자체가 스스로 발견을 하려니 그게 너무 어렵고.
>
> [At doctoral level] the focus is on content and teachers' expectations. Regardless of the direction I think appropriate, important is what the professor wants us to do. Besides,

> inductive approach to learning is prevalent here. I should inductively figure out how the system works here to learn, which is too challenging for me. (Interview 1)

It was not long before she recognized that, unlike language programs in which students and the teacher tend to focus on "grammatical features or organization" (Carol, Interview 1) and "whether or not your argument is logical" (Carol, Interview 4), doctoral CoPs require students to focus on content and meet the instructor's expectations in order to succeed academically. Not only were the content and knowledge bases different from her previous educational experiences, but the way of learning was also different. Moreover, she admitted with certainty that simply acknowledging the difference would not be sufficient. She would need to modify her established behaviors and practices. This is where her frustrations came from. On the other hand, this frustration allowed her to become flexible enough to negotiate her behavior so that she could be socialized into the academic community.

It is worth noticing that students still have to figure out expectations across contexts, even after they have experiences of adjusting themselves quite successfully in seemingly similar academic communities. To be specific, Carol was successfully socialized into academic cultures in the U.S. during her years of Master's-level study. Her professor actually said in the interview:

> Professor: She seemed to have good grasp on the type of writing that was expected of her. She did not demonstrate some things that I might not be surprised to find in writing from Asian students. For instance, I know in many Asian cultures, there's a tendency to put all the supporting evidence first, with the topic sentence at the end. But she did not have that problem. I mean she had her topic sentences at the beginning with supporting evidence… I didn't notice that she had really significant difficulties in writing an academic paper in an American classroom. And it could be that she's been

> in the program long enough to have learned the style. I think she started last fall, right? …She did have some experience prior to being in my classroom. I think too, I'm not positive whether or not she got, like, a Master's degree in this country.
>
> Researcher: Yeah, she did.
>
> Professor: She did? OK. I think that probably that experience has kind of allowed her to develop her academic writing skills, more than people, say, who come straight here from their country. There were some students in that class who did not have very strong writing skills and it wasn't so much their command of English as their understanding of how to put together documents, and how to provide supporting examples, and how to follow a format. (Interview)

Even though the professor was not sure whether Carol had academic experiences in the U.S., she suspected that Carol must have been familiar with ways of writing and behaving in "an American classroom." This assumption came from the professor's observation that Carol had the abilities to "put together documents, provide supporting examples, and follow a format." Therefore, it seems quite reasonable to say that Carol had been socialized into her Master's CoPs effectively. Nonetheless, the most prominent issue in the multiple interviews with Carol was the perceived challenge of deciphering her professor's expectations for particular writing tasks. For instance, when she worked on a first draft of her writing assignment for this course early in the semester, she realized during a peer review session that her initial assumptions about what she was expected to do for this particular assignment were wrong. Carol realized that she "included more citations than her professor had expected the students to do" and that "the professor had expected her to explain the context" of her topic (Interview 1). This led to substantial revision.

To some degree, Carol's process of acclimating to the customs of doctoral-level study was similar to those of the other participants in this study in that she also made rigorous efforts to figure out expectations. But unlike the other participants, her attention seemed to be limited to immediate CoPs such as courses at the time of data collection. In other words, she considered the expectations of different CoPs, her course CoPs in the U.S. and her imagined CoPs in her country, more seriously than Mary, Kate, and Susan. Nevertheless, her efforts to understand and fulfill expectations signify that expectations, ways of fulfilling those expectations, and ways of using literacy are unique to particular academic communities, even though academic communities appear similar from an outsider's points of view. By engaging in different genres of academic discourse with different purposes and requirements, Carol negotiated her concept of good academic writing, prioritized her agenda, and shaped her presumed expectations for each writing task.

Addressing lack of professor feedback: Interplay of professor expectation and Carol's notion of good writing. After Carol chose a topic and wrote her draft, the factor that influenced her revisions most strongly was what her professor accepted and liked. To figure this out, she reflected on the feedback she was given on another assignment from the professor and initiated a conversation with the professor by setting up an individual conference. When she received guidelines for the final assignment and discussed the criteria in class, she took notes, underlined key phrases, and read them carefully at home multiple times. Furthermore, when she was not certain about some aspects of literacy tasks, she "asked the person sitting next to [her] in class and professors" (Interview 1), rather than guessing on her own. It is noticeable that the professor's written feedback was not one of these factors because she was not provided with written feedback on her preliminary drafts of the final paper. If she had been offered written

feedback, she would have processed it to the fullest extent possible. As Leki (2006) rightly explained in her empirical study, “Some students …devised their own means for dealing with lack of feedback, such as paying close attention to what feedback there was or comparing the feedback to class notes,” which was exactly what Carol did.

Still, in the sense that the professor’s response affects the direction of her revision, the final draft is a manifestation of “interwoven voices” (Tardy, 2006, p. 62). For instance, on the day when the professor distributed the description of the target assignment and led a discussion on it, Carol said in the interview that she noticed the professor mentioned feminism in relation to sociolinguistics:

> 저희가 책에서 이 sociolinguistics 말고 feminism 에 관련 된 걸 이야기 했었거든요. 그렇기 때문에, 여기에도 있는데, 남자, 여자, 그러니까 성별에 관련된 이슈를 언급하면 교수님이 좋아하지 않을까 하는 생각을 솔직히 좀 하거든요. 그리고 분명히 이 honorific 이나 존댓말을 쓰는데도 여성과 남성의 차이는 분명히 있다고 생각을 하는데, 문제는 이 자료가 있는지. 자료가 이미 연구된 게 있는지. 제가 지금 그게 고민이라서. 오늘은 집에 가면 목요일 날 제출해야 하는 paper 를 끝내고, 그것부터 찾아보려고요. 그래서 일단 자료를 모아서 있으면 집어넣고, 그렇지 않으면 못 쓰는 거죠.
>
> We have discussed something related to feminism in class. So, to be honest, I assume that if I mention gender issues the professor would like it. And I think that there are clearly differences in the use of honorifics between male and female. The problem is whether I can find resources, research that was conducted. That’s what I’m thinking. So when I go home today, I’ll search for materials about this as soon as I finish my paper for another class that’s due on Thursday. After that, if I can find some sources, I’ll integrate them into my paper. If not, I don’t think I will write about this. (Interview 1)

Carol said that this led her to consider integrating the differences between male and female use of honorifics in her outline of the paper. Nonetheless, it is evident that the teacher's preference was not the only factor to affect her negotiation process. She was willing to drop the gender-related aspect of the topic if she could not find a solid knowledge base in published resources, which she was not sure she would be able to do that time. This decision was affected by her notion of good academic writing since she believed that she had to support her argument by building her opinion upon what other researchers said. Thus, this example demonstrates that multiple factors come into play at once for even a single rhetorical decision. Also, her negotiations were especially likely to happen smoothly when the professor's feedback conformed to her beliefs and learning goals or when she understood feedback without difficulty. An example of this type of negotiation can be found in Carol's word choice. In her first draft, she used "social structure" and was not certain whether the word "structure" was appropriate in the paper or not. After she noticed that "social norm" was on the list of the terms that the professor provided in class, she changed "structure" to "norm" in her final draft.

Appropriation of feedback through positioning differently across contexts. However, there is one interesting counterexample in which Carol negotiated the degree of acceptance and resistance when she was not quite sure if she understood points being suggested or if the points provided through feedback were not consistent with her thinking and agenda. She explained:

> 저는 빨리 버려요. 시간낭비라고 생각해요. 그거는 제가 Scholar 입장에서 봤을 때, 제가 independent work 을 할 때는 제 맘대로 해도 된다고 생각해요. 근데, 지금은 목적이 틀리다고 생각해요. 일단 졸업하는 게 목적이면 빨리 졸업하는 방향으로 포커스를 두는 게 저의 의도입니다. 빨리 버려요….왜냐하면, 전 제가 가르칠 때 입장도 생각하거든요. 저는, 예를 들어서, 학생을 가르친다거나, comment 를 줄 때 직접적인 comment 를 안 주는 편이에요. 학생 상처 받을까봐. 근데 직접적으로 얘기하지 않으면 애들이 못 알아듣더라고요.

간접적으로 이야기하면, 제가 아까 이야기 하는 그게 그런 의미에요, 항상 못 알아듣잖아요. …그렇기 때문에 상대방의 교수님도 제가 지금 학생 입장이니까 그렇다고 생각해요. 그리고 지금은 그 사람이 지금 학회에서 나랑 conference 로 자기의 perspective 를 이야기하는 그런 입장이 아니라 내가 그 사람 학생입장이기 때문에 저의 입장을 표현할 필요는 없다고 생각해요. 중요한 point 인데, 시간이 아깝다 이렇게 생각해요. 내가 일단 유명한 작가가 되고 나면 내 맘대로 하는 거야 뭐 상관없지만.

I tend to quickly throw away what I want to do and follow what professors suggest. If not, it can be a waste of time. If I do an independent work as a scholar, I think I can do whatever I want. But I have a different goal now from that situation. I would try to graduate quickly. I think that this tendency also comes from a teacher's perspective. I taught in my country, and I, as a teacher, can see things from a teacher's perspective. For example, when I provide comments to my students, I tend not to comment directly on their work because I don't want to hurt their feelings. But the funny thing is if I don't mention something directly, they might not understand my point. …Now, I am a student here. I guess my professors would feel the same way. Besides, I'm not in a situation where I meet the professors at a conference to discuss ideas. I'm their student. So I believe I don't need to express my position although I find it important. It would be a waste of time. Once I become a well-known scholar in the future, I will be more likely to do things in my way. (Interview 1)

Interesting power relations with implications for Carol's self-positioning emerged from this situation. She differentiated her teacher identity from her student identity. She differentiated her hypothetical future persona as a successful and established scholar capable of interacting on equal footing with other scholars from her current position as a newcomer or peripheral participant in academic communities. In doing so, she positioned herself differently across

contexts. She might choose to argue against other people's arguments or accept others' arguments. When these "others" are professors who teach her, the dynamics of the power relationship drastically shape her strategy for responding to comments. Thus, her appropriation of feedback was regulated by her positioning in relation to power dynamics and her desire to complete her coursework as quickly and easily as possible. She set herself as a student when she took a doctoral course, which, in turn, restricted the range of actions she would take. If she positioned herself as an independent researcher, not a student, she might have expanded the range of options in light of the positions she could occupy in broader CoPs. At the center of this practice is her agency as an autonomous learner and a future researcher. Carol's interview comments revealed that she was making conscious use of a strategy to navigate coursework smoothly and proceed to the next stage of her goals for doctoral study. She has agency in the negotiation of her strategies across contexts and power relations in that she was the one who selected the degree of acceptance or resistance and regulated the range of options she would take depending on positioning across contexts.

Bilateral negotiation. Not only did Carol's professor influence students' writing, but students also influenced the professor. For example, the professor required students to use sources published "within the past five years" for the final paper as she specified in the assignment guidelines distributed on April 3. On April 10, Carol had a brief individual conference with the professor before class, and this issue of sources happened to come up during their conversation. Carol mentioned in her second interview that she had a source that she wanted to use for her paper, yet it was more than five years old. Since she thought it was a seminal work, she asked the professor if she could use it in the paper. During class on that day, the professor mentioned that she had a conversation with Carol before class. Then the professor

asked students if they wanted to expand the range of sources to include ones published up to ten years ago. Through a brief discussion, it was agreed that sources published within the last ten years were acceptable. The professor implied that several students contacted her regarding this issue and that she thought it over. She also added that if anyone needed to use a source older than ten years, they had to talk to her about it. Carol's interview and the class observation confirmed that the professor indeed negotiated her original requirements through interaction with her students. This undoubtedly demonstrates that, though students are peripheral participants in CoPs, they can influence a professor, a full member of CoPs. Thus, bilateral negotiation did happen in this course framework. This provides additional empirical evidence for Duff and Talmy (2011) and Duff's (2007b) arguments concerning the multidirectional nature of the socialization process.

Concluding Remarks

Upon receiving relatively little written feedback in this course framework, Carol employed a wide range of strategies to interpret the professor's expectations for the target paper and academic writing in general. Despite the small amount of traditional feedback, she was engaged in multiple sources of feedback with different patterns and in different amounts. Accordingly, she negotiated her concept of good writing, strategies, and her degree of acceptance and resistance to particular instances of feedback by considering her current goals, various factors, exigencies, and the imagined CoPs she wants to belong to in the future. She was fully aware that the CoPs she was part of were distinct from each other, and that they have different expectations and ways of using writing. The fact that she envisioned herself more as a member of academic communities in her country than the communities in the U.S. seems to have affected her approach to writing tasks and learning in general.

Chapter Summary

Describing three individual case studies, this chapter summarized tables and figures of *types of feedback* and *stated changes* with timed contours in relation to the literacy events that happened. To further understand the specifics of each participant's experiences, this chapter reports their voices and how their negotiation practices were manifested based on interviews, documents and observations. To conclude this chapter, it appears that several trends clearly emerge from the analysis. First, the findings reveal that the main function of graduate feedback is socializing students into academic CoPs and that graduate feedback can also be a manifestation of the academic socialization process. This result is intertwined with the finding from the previous chapter that graduate feedback is highly situated across contexts. More significantly, the three case studies in this chapter provide strong support for the multidirectionality of the academic socialization process from a theoretical perspective and the benefits of different sources of feedback from a pedagogical perspective. Second, the timed contours specifically demonstrate that there is a clear connection between the amount and type of feedback and the changes the participants perceived to have happened; this correlation was observed quite consistently across the three cases.

The three case studies in this chapter illustrate that the participants claim agency when constantly negotiating their concepts of academic writing, resources, and strategies across contexts and multiple layers of expectations, even though they are often under unequal power relationships. The descriptions of the ways in which the participants were positioned across contexts certainly help to explain their appropriation of literacy practices. They have agency even when they think they try to emulate full members of the CoPs they seek to belong to in that they evaluate dynamic power relationships and select and regulate writing strategies, their behaviors, and sometimes the degree to which they accept or resist what they are advised to do.

Additionally, multiple voices from multiple sources of interaction merge in their written output. Crucially, the process through which students address these different voices is the academic socialization process.

There are, however, differences as well as similarities across the three cases. The sources of feedback varied from scholars in the field to peers, while all the participants were involved in, and even initiated, multiple sources of interaction. The participants made great efforts to determine expectations for immediate contexts such as courses, institutions, or dissertation CoPs, as well as the field in general. In the next chapter, I discuss the meaning of the findings from the current research and revisit the conceptual frameworks to discuss what these findings mean. To conclude this dissertation, I propose an effective way to provide feedback at the doctoral level while addressing the limitations of this study and suggesting future directions for this line of research.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CALLS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

I started this study with the hope that empirical research on multilingual graduate students' feedback practices would lead to a more sophisticated understanding of how feedback on graduate writing can be characterized and what it means to learn academic writing in graduate education, especially during the initial years of doctoral studies. While research on the dissertation writing stage and the mentoring relationship in this process has been well documented, many questions still remain regarding multilingual graduate students' feedback network in the nascent years of doctoral education. This population deserves more attention since most doctoral students begin their graduate coursework through participation (Casanave & Li, 2008), when they might realize their resources (including language) are not sufficient to participate in the community, even as peripheral members (Simpson & Matsuda, 2008). The research questions that frame this dissertation included:

(1) What feedback do multilingual graduate students receive on writing in and beyond classrooms, and how do they perceive this feedback?

(2) How do multilingual graduate students negotiate multiple sources of feedback?

(3) In what ways have multilingual doctoral students perceived they have transformed in their academic socialization?

(a) How did the perception of their academic writing develop?

(b) How did the perception of their writing strategies develop?

(c) How did the perception of their behaviors and attitudes develop?

(d) How did the perception of their engagement with knowledge and academic expectations develop?

(e) How did the perception of their research agenda develop?

Due to the highly contextualized nature of these research questions, I employed a qualitative case study approach (Yin, 2009). In order to understand feedback practices, I drew upon the conceptual frameworks that view "learning as legitimate peripheral participation in communities of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 31) and socialization as "the process by which novices or newcomers in a community or culture gain communicative competence, membership, and legitimacy in the group" (Duff, 2007b, p. 310), as detailed in Chapter 2. Specifically, feedback in this study included academic interactions on literacy tasks both in written and oral modes from professors and peers, and it was operationalized as a social and dialogic space where students interact with other members of communities and negotiate their knowledge (Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Tardy, 2006). Another primary assumption in this research is that the process of learning academic writing inherently entails the development of a social identity as a future researcher (Castello, Inesta, & Corcelles, 2013; Kumar & Stracke, 2007). Data from interviews with the students and their teachers, their papers with written comments, and observations of oral feedback in every class session were analyzed through coded content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). In this chapter, I discuss what this dissertation means by summarizing the main findings of my research, revisiting the established literature to show its contribution to the body of knowledge on graduate feedback practices, and making pedagogical suggestions. The last section addresses the limitations of this study and includes a future research agenda.

Summary of Findings

This section describes the main findings of my research by individually answering the research questions.

Research Question 1: What Feedback Do Multilingual Graduate Students Receive on Writing in and beyond Classrooms, and How Do They Perceive This Feedback?

On the whole, the results reveal that graduate feedback is largely concerned with content and academic writing. First, the highest frequency of feedback—with 127 instances being recorded (29%)—was *Interaction with content*. Examples of this type of feedback include: "How do you know this?" and "What paradigmatic influence does F. use to build his own critical theory?" Professors and peers responded to the content of student writing or provided recommendations for the content. The feedback ranged from personal opinions about the students' examples to recommendations on research paradigms or methodologies. One of the core tendencies in professor feedback was that the professors requested clarification, more information, or elaboration of the information in the drafts. This type of feedback was repeated across all three courses. Indeed, it seems that being academically specific enough was a major concern in graduate writing, regardless of the differences between classes. A professor interview conducted after the target semester was complete also reinforced this observation:

> There are gaps, you know, they make a statement, then they don't explain it, then they get on to the next statement. So the big breakdown for me, for all of my doctoral students really, the ones who have trouble, is moving from a general statement to a specific example or detail, then back to a general statement. (Professor C, Interview)

As the professor himself pointed out, he observed many of his graduate students who struggled with this aspect of academic writing.

Secondly, feedback on *Academic writing* was the second most prevalent category, totaling 17%. In short, comments on what good academic writing would look like in terms of organization, ways of constructing arguments, or audience awareness was the second most

common type of feedback. Another major issue addressed in this category involved citing practices, including both technical knowledge on documenting sources and appropriate ways to incorporate others' voices without silencing the author's own voice or place in the text. Interviews revealed that it can take longer for knowledge about academic voice to be processed and acquired than knowledge about documenting sources. It should be noted that the *Interaction with content* category covers 29% of the feedback and *Academic writing* covers 17%, as shown in Table 9. When these two codes are put together (46%), almost half of the feedback involved *Interaction with content* and *Academic writing*.

The third most frequent category of feedback (14%) dealt with comments that encouraged learners to keep up the good work or approve of what they were (or would be) doing. This category also included check marks in student drafts without the professors providing specific reasons. This type of feedback was followed by feedback on sentence-level errors or style of writing (13%), its main purpose being to improve linguistic accuracy. While Mary's professor focused mainly on how to shape students' research relating to content and did not specifically mention correctness of student writing, the other two professors in this study appeared to consider linguistic correctness as part of academic writing at this level. Kate and Susan's professor said that he was "fussy about" grammatical correctness, even though he did not "let it affect the grade unless the criteria the class developed specifically says grammatical correctness" (Professor C, Interview). Carol's professor said she provided three types of feedback: "sentence level editing," "ask[ing] questions" to address coherence or organizational patterns, and "a comment that interacts with [students'] text" (Professor B, Interview).

Next, 9% of feedback attempted to help students understand the *Expectations of a particular genre or task*. *Indirect feedback* (also 9%) was also present, defined as underlines and

circles offered without verbal explanations. There were also instances (3%) when professors or peers asked the writer to delete, add, or move something from a text, or when they simply did it themselves. This was typically done from a content-based point of view. The least common feedback types included comments on what writers can do with their papers *Beyond class* (3%), on students' strengths and weaknesses as writers coded as *Positive or negative appraisal* (2%), and on *Mechanics and paragraphing* (1%). Interestingly (in a pedagogical sense), two participants highly valued the feedback on their strengths and weaknesses according to their interviews. However, there was a mismatch between the small amount of this type of feedback students received and their desire to receive more of it. Additionally, the degree to which students felt their professors cared about their writing and learning substantially affected the level of engagement of feedback offered by the professors.

Research Question 2: How Do They Negotiate Multiple Sources of Feedback?

Many comments on these students' papers involved reciprocal relationships between professor and writer (57% in total): *Positive comments or approval* (14%), comments to *Interact with content* (29%), feedback on *Positive or negative appraisal* (2%), feedback related to *Assignment and genre expectations* (9%), and feedback *Beyond the target class* (3%). This clearly shows that feedback can only exist within the interaction of these two parties. Thus, learning occurs through interaction, and feedback on writing is a dialogic space where teachers and students can construct and negotiate knowledge together. Even when learners did not make any subsequent revisions, which some might see as no interaction, these professors considered each student's possible response and their characteristics as a learner when they offered their feedback. Professors shape their own practices as well. They might tone down the rhetoric and the language they use in class or in written feedback. Thus, the findings of this study provide empirical evidence on the dialogic nature of feedback (Tardy, 2006) and the bidirectionality of

learners' responses to academic interaction by demonstrating how full members may respond to newcomers.

Multilingual students' negotiation practices can be better understood when we see the participants as new or peripheral members of the different communities they belong to and the resulting diverse participation patterns in academic conversation. As Wenger (1998) theorized, learners can participate in multiple CoPs at the same time, which is corroborated by the results of this dissertation. Specifically, the feedback networks that each of the participants developed, as shown in Figures 24-27, illustrate how diverse the network can be. Each of the participants in this study initiated different interactions with different members in different CoPs, depending on their values and goals. Thus, students with agency are the ones who shape their own feedback network, whether consciously or unconsciously, since they position themselves in relation to certain CoPs and initiate, accept, or resist interactions in unique ways.

All participants in this study exercised their agency, even when it seemed that they accepted others' advice immediately. Certainly, the resulting academic interactions could have been quite different. In fact, these students did not simply accept. They prioritized things to address. For some, they initiated active conversations by asking a scholar (whom they did not know in person) for feedback via email, as Mary did. For others, they simply left the text in question intact, a passive form of resistance. Additionally, student writers did not simply accept others' voices. They selected and decided the level of engagement, and they engaged feedback on some aspects more easily and willingly than others. Student writers can still resist some teacher feedback, even when they value professor feedback more highly than peer feedback. For instance, Mary made changes in her paper in terms of research design, such as the sampling procedure and the organization of her proposal, but she resisted making a drastic change to her

research questions and conceptual frameworks. That is, she was the one who decided which aspects to address and to what extent, which clearly demonstrates how she used agency when generating and revising her dissertation proposal paper. This whole process of exercising agency is empirical evidence for appropriation of feedback (Tardy, 2006) on the part of learners. While empirical evidence exists to substantiate the nature of feedback negotiation, more support is needed, and the pattern of negotiation is poorly understood. As discussed in Chapter 2, it is necessary to pay more attention to how *students* appropriate feedback, rather than being concerned about *teachers*' appropriation of student voices. This can be connected to the argument that the outcome of socialization is not the exact reproduction of the discourse of a target community (Duff, 2007b). In part, this is both why and because communities are not fixed but evolving constantly. Looking closely at how learners' agency plays out, even as newcomers or peripheral members, allows us to see "the incomplete or partial appropriation of the L2" (Duff, 2007b, p. 311). Learners' discourses are shaped, not dictated in a rigid way, by the discourses and expectations of a target community. The hybridity of the socialization process and the mutuality of socialization outcomes are partly grounded in this dynamic between learner agency and diverse, overlapping CoPs.

Research Question 3: In what ways have multilingual doctoral students perceived they have transformed in their academic socialization?

(a) How did the perception of their academic writing develop?

(b) How did the perception of their writing strategies develop?

(c) How did the perception of their behaviors and attitudes develop?

(d) How did the perception of their engagement with knowledge and academic expectations develop?

(e) How did the perception of their research agenda develop?

Through coded content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005), 90 instances were identified in which the participants mentioned learning outcomes in the interviews. A coding system was developed for *stated changes*. The findings suggest that these students perceived changes in not only academic writing but also different aspects of academic socialization, such as the development of their attitudes and behaviors. Equally significant, the trend in *stated changes* is consistent with the trend in the *feedback* provided. This certainly demonstrates the direct impact of feedback provided in both amount and nature on learning outcomes. By juxtaposing the amount of feedback in each course framework and the frequency at which the participants mentioned changes in their behavior or academic writing, an interesting argument can be made.

Table 16

Frequency Distribution of Feedback and Stated Outcomes in Three Cases

	Mary	Kate and Susan	Carol
Feedback	248	150	44
Stated outcomes	45	30	15

It seems that the more feedback they received, the more they perceived that changes had occurred. Thus, this dissertation provides empirical evidence that a multitude of feedback types certainly generates learners' motivation to change, a socialization process from peripheral to full membership in a particular CoP.

In the process of socialization, the role of feedback was central, especially when students figure out academic expectations and shape their practices accordingly. About 72% of the feedback in Table 9 is directly related to the ways of writing within a certain academic community: *Interaction with content* (29%), *Academic writing* (17%), *Positive comments and approval* (14%), *Assignment and genre expectations* (9%), and *Beyond the target class* (3%). It

is also significant that, regardless of the variations across units, a similar amount of feedback was offered on expectations for a specific genre or task within the three course frameworks: Mary (15), Carol (10), and Kate and Susan (14). Feedback-poor environments had as many comments on genre and task expectations as feedback-rich environments. That is, every professor in this study tried to make sure their students understood what they were expected to do. Based on multiple interviews with the student participants, it is clear that all of them made extensive efforts to figure out the expectations, which they found quite challenging. Thus, one of the primary functions of graduate feedback is to help students address academic expectations, which is essential to the academic socialization process.

Another noticeable way that feedback influences the socialization process can be seen when we view the writing tasks the participants were required to complete as "legitimate apprenticeship genre[s]" (Carter et al., 2007, p. 294), which can ultimately help them expand their genre repertoires. Mary completed her dissertation proposal for her final project, Kate and Susan's rhetorical research was supposed to be "appropriate for presentation or publication" (syllabus C), and Carol's scholarly paper was supposed to "clearly connect [students'] investigation to the scholars and theorists" (syllabus B). All of these writing tasks are simple versions of authentic genres that legitimate members of academic communities perform. And the professors explicitly told students to build their work upon the established body of knowledge in a specific field. Academic conversations through feedback in various forms revolved around these "legitimate apprenticeship genres" which proved to facilitate academic socialization (Carter et al., 2007), as detailed in Chapter 2. By envisioning themselves as working on the same genres as full members and by processing academic interactions through feedback, graduate writers were more likely to define themselves as future researchers, as legitimate members of

future CoPs. In contrast to Carter et al. (2007), where the dynamic and interactive nature of the connection between performing an apprenticeship genre and growing participation in a discipline remains unnoticed, this research reveals how the participants accepted, resisted, and appropriated the demands and literacy practices of the target community to varying degrees. Thus, the course frameworks, with routine academic encounters in diverse forms of feedback, offered a platform on which the participants were able to build their knowledge and appropriate their literacy practices, thereby eventually developing their social identities as researchers. Pedagogically speaking, these professors tried to make sure their students experienced legitimate apprenticeship genres in the discipline, rather than simply getting them to learn *about* academic writing conventions out of context.

In sum, the results of this empirical qualitative research provide a broad conceptualization of what feedback is and how it works. As the summary of the findings described above illustrates, this study adds to the literature on L2 feedback by providing empirical evidence that feedback needs to be conceptualized as a highly situated social practice which mediates academic socialization because it allows students to learn ways of writing and thinking in CoPs. While sentiment is growing to recognize the situated and social nature of feedback, relatively little empirical evidence exists to support this theoretical concept. The results corroborate and extend the limited empirical evidence to date by showing that graduate feedback addresses professional enculturation in a broad sense. They further illustrate that this insight is valid for oral and other nontraditional modes of feedback, for feedback provided before dissertation stages in doctoral education, and for other written feedback. More importantly, this study demonstrates that students indeed benefit from multiple sources of feedback. The next section addresses what the findings of this study mean in a disciplinary context and what they

mean for the instruction of multilingual graduate students by discussing the themes that emerged during analysis.

Emergent Themes

Looking holistically across the answers to my research questions, four themes emerged, which are each intertwined with the others.

Theme 1: Doctoral Feedback as a Situated Social Practice

An image of feedback on graduate writing as merely a tool to improve linguistic accuracy is contradicted by the evidence from this study. Graduate feedback is highly contextualized (Prior, 1995; Tardy, 2006) within course structures, the nature and progression of tasks, the stages of revision, attitudes and goals towards learning, expectations in academic communities, and the work professors accept. Learners as individuals go through unique feedback experiences, evaluate advice quite differently, and initiate and develope their network of feedback in a variety of ways, both in terms of amount and type. This, in turn, presents a far more complicated picture of how the writers engage feedback as academic interaction and how some feedback can be addressed with more effort and time than others. This also provides firm evidence that effective graduate feedback cannot be one-size-fits-all. It is imperative to find out what students' needs are in order to alter instruction to each person. It would be tempting, surely, to assume that a group of graduate students, perhaps under the label of multilingual graduate writers, experience the same, or even similar, types of feedback and that successful feedback is straightforward. Yes, this might seem like we can concoct one best solution for every student. Unfortunately, however, the analysis of the feedback data in this dissertation demonstrates that this is never the case, as shown in Chapter 4. This seemingly appealing concept of a one-size-fits-all strategy simply does not exist, no matter how convincing it may sound. Students and their contexts do, in fact, matter.

My research suggests that several factors influence the level of student engagement: (1) the aspects of academic writing feedback deals with, (2) whether or not feedback is concerned with learners' current goals, (3) the degree to which the professor cares about writers' work and learning, and (4) the amount of time writers have to address the feedback given. It is worth noting that each factor includes individual differences and that the extent to which each factor plays in writing processes varies from writer to writer and from context to context. This is one place where the highly contextualized nature of feedback practices comes from. Further, the dynamics of these relationships undoubtedly play out in a variety of ways, largely depending on CoPs. Further, considering the ever-changing nature of academic communities (Canagarajah, 2002) and considerable variation among writers, it is not surprising to see how diverse and situated feedback practices can be. Looking at the patterns of each participant's belonging to different communities can also explain the essential role of feedback practices, which are detailed in the next section.

Theme 2: The Graduate Feedback Network as a Form of Academic Socialization

These results demonstrate that feedback not only addresses linguistic accuracy but also mediates academic socialization into given communities. The results clearly show how students learn and become better writers and legitimate members of their CoPs. Particularly, findings from the coded analysis for *stated changes* reveal that outcomes of socialization involve not only academic writing but also behaviors, attitudes, and research agendas. Moreover, the participants recognized these outcomes. However, socialization does not always take place easily and quickly. Learning to write may not come through one source of interaction; it may take longer for some aspects of academic writing to be internalized than others, and some aspects need more time, feedback, and revision than others. Feedback and efforts to address it one way or another is

categorized as “various interactional routines and activities” (Duff & Tamly, 2011, p. 105), which are fundamental to socialization into a CoP. For instance, when students are advised to be “more explicit,” they might not fully understand the level of explicitness and the aspects about which they have to be explicit, which, of course, vary across disciplines and contexts. In Mary’s case, internal persuasiveness as “half-ours and half someone else’s” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 345) in terms of the feedback on her theoretical framework was achieved after being confused and frustrated at the beginning, reflecting on the issue raised, and having conversations with the professor. This process involved negotiation from both parties, Mary and the professor in this case, and this is certainly where academic socialization seems to take place. Thus, the moments of frustration before understanding and shaping each other’s understanding of a certain agenda might not be a negative experience in the long term. Rather, it can be seen as a springboard for learning that will result in expedited academic socialization.

As Mary experienced, students might start doubting the level of explicitness in their writing from their professor’s comments. When students read published articles or pieces written by their colleagues—who received comments from professors—they may have a better idea of how to tackle their own feedback, even though this input was not specifically directed toward them. These students take risks by revising their own writing based on the assumption they made. If the resulting revision does not work, further feedback from another source (such as the writing center) may guide them toward more rounds of revision. The need to take risks and perform writing can explain why some aspects of academic writing are addressed several times in different forms.

When students revise their drafts, they perform writing, appropriate feedback (Tardy, 2006), and instill the values of the community they internalized, including the concept of good

writing. The notion of good writing itself varies across disciplines and contexts. In this sense, the resulting text is a product of "interwoven voices" (Tardy, 2006, p. 62). Over time, students become more comfortable with figuring out expectations, and the knowledge that was new to them at the beginning becomes background knowledge. They apply all this information to their newly-presented literacy tasks. Then there comes a time when they feel their writing changes and, in fact, develops as they perceive it, as shown in the interview data of this study. They can now easily label themselves as members of certain CoPs, whether they use this term or not, such as when Mary identified herself as a composition teacher and a scholar in the field of education technology.

As Duff and Kobayashi (2010) noted, "learning and social experience go hand in hand and are part of a process of internalization, performance, and personal transformation through mutual engagements with others" (p. 92). Consequently, feedback must be understood as a form of academic socialization—it enables students to learn ways of writing and presenting academic arguments in specific disciplines.

Theme 3: The Benefits of the Feedback Network: The Multidirectionality of Academic Socialization and Multiple Memberships in CoPs

When I conceptualized feedback as a form of academic socialization, what stood out most was the observation that all participants were involved in multiple and different types and sources of feedback with varying degrees of engagement. There was also feedback that the professor was simply not aware of, particularly in Mary's and Kate and Susan's case. Arguably, this research illustrates that all three cases—including Carol's case in which the smallest amount of teacher written feedback was offered—contained a lot of feedback on target assignments. Carol was involved in 44 commentaries. Of these, 20 included written feedback, and 20 included

oral feedback. Only 3 were provided in written mode on her paper for the target assignment by her professor. Interestingly, Carol received other written commentaries (17) mainly from the past semester and tried to apply them to her writing whenever she worked on writing tasks. Furthermore, these students sought feedback outside the classroom, even from their previous semesters, depending on how they positioned themselves with different CoPs (Duff, 2007a; Duff & Tamly, 2011). This was where the writing center came in and peers were involved. In this sense, the findings presented here yield interesting pictures of both students who receive feedback in so-called conventional ways and those who receive feedback in somewhat unconventional ways. Clearly, both situations produce richer insights into multilingual writers' feedback networks at the doctoral level.

When feedback was provided, it caused the participants to start to consider either revising or reinforcing their literacy practices. When feedback was minor or absent and they believed the writing task was challenging, it also initiated the participants' active efforts to search for feedback and engage academic interactions running around in various overlapping communities. For instance, Carol started talking about her assignment with others during revision in her first semester in the program because "it was too challenging and [she] was not sure whether [she] was on the right track or not" (Interview 1).

Writers can learn how they present their arguments, situate themselves in writing, and build their arguments on what others have said by engaging various forms of feedback with various intentions. These intentions, however, are not limited to student writers' interactions with their professors, as shown in Figures 24-27. A list of multiple sources of feedback across all three cases include faculty feedback, peer feedback, feedback from the writing center, interactions at guest presentations in class, conferences, academic events on campus, or via email

with scholars in the field, and the values of these students' imagined CoPs. This lengthy list reiterates that students engage in multiple sources of feedback, although the pattern of interaction and the level of commitment to each source may vary. These points emphasize the centrality of the participants' asserted memberships of multiple, interlocking communities. Although they belonged to the same program and institution, these students positioned themselves differently in various communities, which influenced the types of feedback sources each participant relied on.

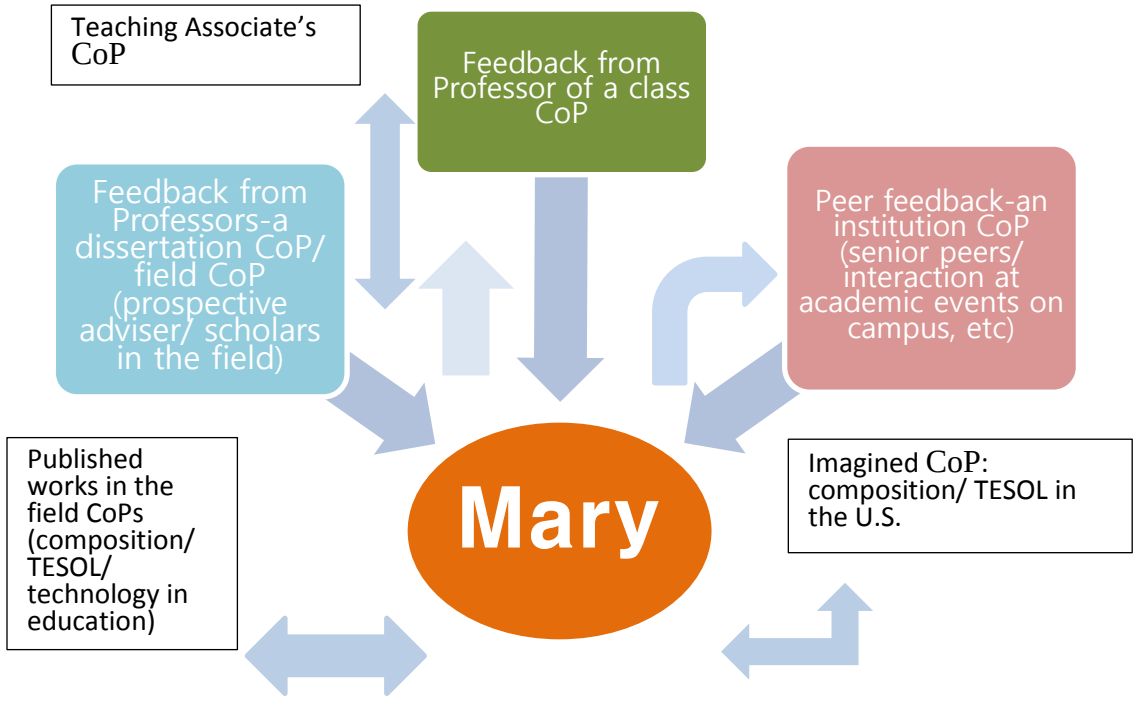


Figure 24. Multiple sources of feedback Mary engaged.

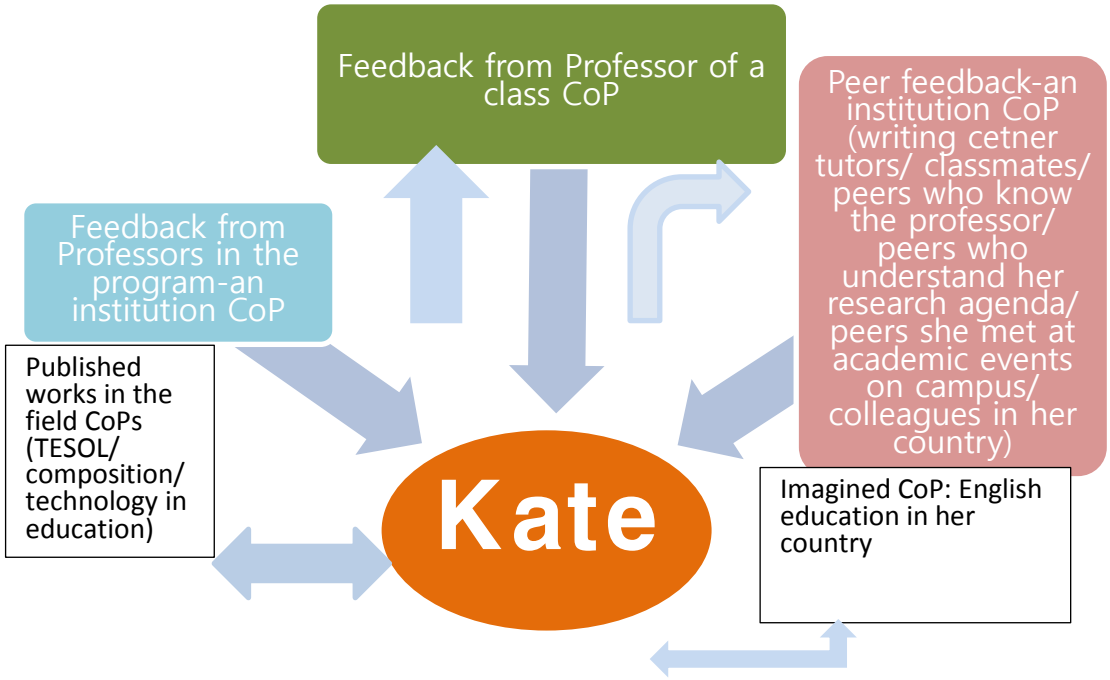


Figure 25. Multiple sources of feedback Kate engaged.

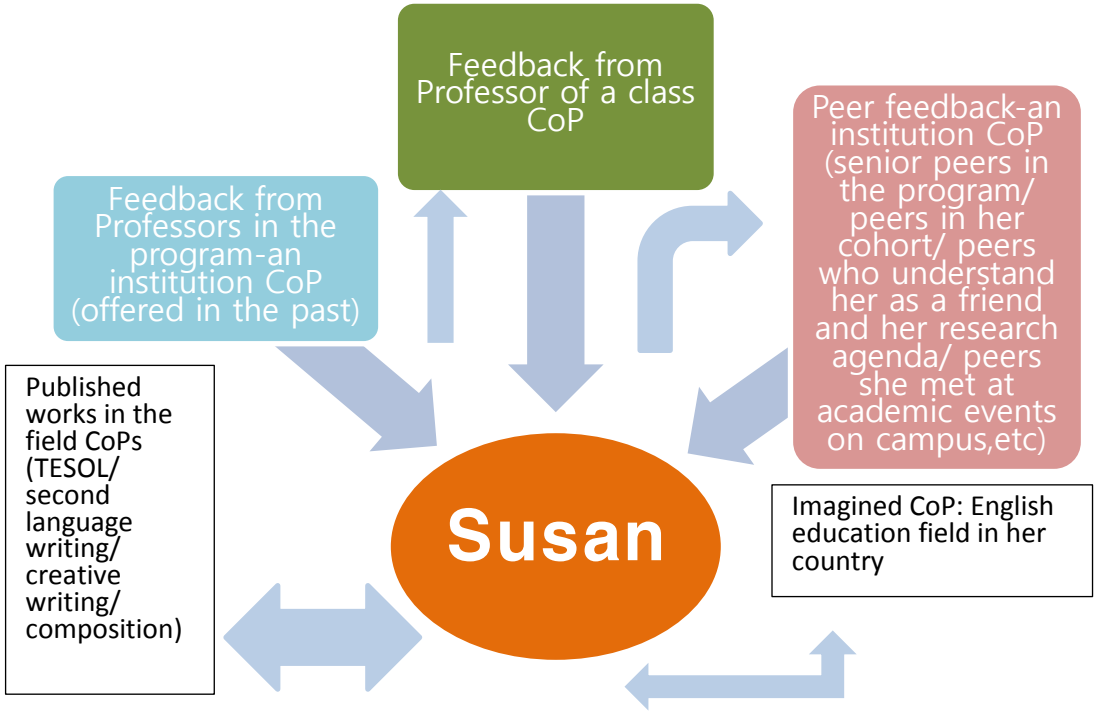


Figure 26. Multiple sources of feedback Susan engaged.

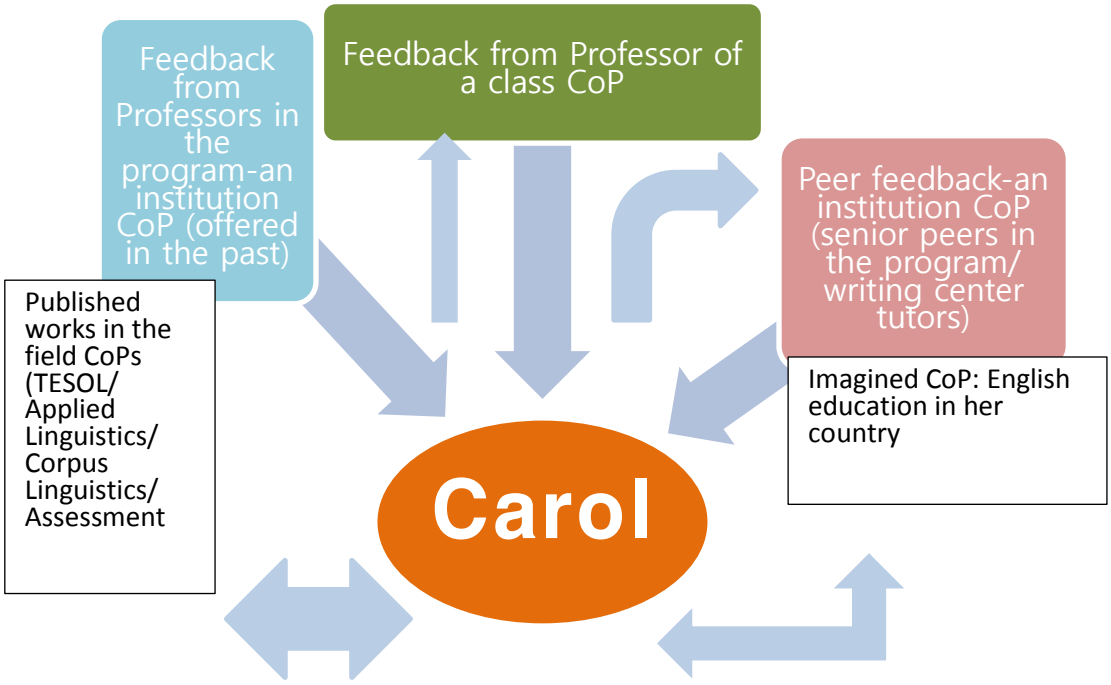


Figure 27. Multiple sources of feedback Carol engaged.

For instance, Mary had conversations about her research with a professor in the program who taught her in the past, with two scholars via email and at a conference, as well as with her current professor. It is not a one-to-one relationship between student and course professor. It is a one-to-many relationship. Here, the "many" also includes peripheral members of a CoP. For instance, there was a time when Mary reinforced her practices after she attended a presentation in class by a senior peer in the program as a guest speaker. Susan and Kate were more likely to initiate conversations with peers in the program, either through informal conversations or through academic events in the program, than with scholars outside the program. And all the participants relied on published works to figure out expectations and use as models for their writing. These findings highlight the participants' position in a wide range of "interlinking communities of practice" (Duff, 2007b, p. 316). Thus, CoPs influence the ways in which these students define and approach a writing task and regulate their strategies in negotiating the demands. Whereas the

students in this study were similar to each other in that they participated in a feedback network, they were different from each other in that the structure of participation was *not entirely determined* by the outer framework they were in, such as course and institution structures. Rather, the structure of their participation was *shaped* by a combination of these outer frameworks and personal factors such as agency or goals. Moreover, the data here shows that full members were affected by these newcomers as well, or they at least shaped their practices according to the students they taught and the contexts they were in. For instance, Kate and Susan's professor actively negotiated an evaluation criterion based on class discussion, and the professor even allowed Kate and Susan to collaborate for their final paper (against his original plan). Thus, this study provides firm empirical evidence for the multidirectionality of socialization (Duff, 2007b; Duff & Talmy, 2011).

Given that student writers benefit from various networks of feedback, which can be shaped largely by their asserted membership in several communities, it has again been confirmed that developing graduate literacies does entail more socialization than writing exercise. Pedagogically, this means that teachers try to help students become aware of what the members of a particular community do and the genres in which they typically write, rather than simply teaching them the rules and conventions of academic writing. Thus, this study adds an extra dimension to our understanding of feedback—not only do teachers and students but also other members, even peripheral members of a community, play roles in enculturation to a varying degree. Becoming a legitimate member in a community can be conceptualized as a process that grows out of the network of interactions between students, teachers, peers, and scholars in the community. Taken together, this clearly corroborates previous theoretical developments by providing empirical evidence for how "interwoven voices" (Tardy, 2006, p. 62) through multiple

layers of feedback manifest themselves and how these manifestations facilitate the academic socialization process.

In a pedagogical sense, this result also enables me to strongly argue that professors need to raise students' awareness of the resources available to students in and beyond the classroom and encourage them to actively seek out those resources. These findings extend what is currently known about graduate feedback phenomena by generating a more comprehensive picture of the ways in which the network of feedback plays out in connection with the academic socialization process through the in-depth analysis of feedback and student response within the course framework.

Theme 4: The Unique Nature of Doctoral Level Education

One of the core tendencies from the findings above included the distinct nature of doctoral level education in terms of feedback practices. All the participants perceived the goal of taking classes and completing literacy tasks as not merely getting As but also as involving promising opportunities for developing their writing projects beyond class. In turn, this perception led them to initiate academic interactions through various resources using their membership, however tenuous at first, in multiple communities and to reflect on and engage the feedback they received. This is in sharp contrast to undergraduate education, as documented in research with undergraduate students (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Ferris, 2006, 2010; Sachs & Polio, 2007; Sheen, 2010). Therefore, the current study allows me to argue that the nature of doctoral level education is quite different from any other type of education. As the Council of Graduate Schools' (2010) Ph.D. Completion Project clearly shows, mentoring and advising (65%) was one of the predominant factors affecting Ph.D. completion, along with other factors such as financial

support (80%) and family support (57%), rather than direct and explicit instruction. The unique nature of doctoral level education is also attributable to the professionalism that students attempt and are expected to achieve and the importance of academic texts for professional communities. In the end, researchers are defined by what they write, not by what they do. These findings are a meaningful step toward connecting insights from research to teaching practices in local contexts, which is detailed in the next section.

Recommendation: Proposing a Postmethod Approach to Feedback on Writing for Doctoral Students

I now turn to a rather different direction in terms of pedagogy and teachers' roles before I discuss what these findings mean for practitioners. The argument that students and contexts matter and that no single best method in any condition exists lays the foundation to highlight the importance of teachers' roles. They are the ones who create frameworks in which student writers produce language and work with feedback. They need to design class frameworks that generate multiple levels of feedback, what I would call *a feedback-rich environment*. And teachers must ensure students can be involved in different types of feedback. For feedback to be effective in a particular context, the appropriate condition and ways to provide feedback needs to be evaluated, reflected on, and implemented. This is where the debate over feedback becomes complicated and variations in the local classrooms surface. Ortega (2012) acknowledged the critical role of teachers in feedback phenomena: "Teachers are main actors in the provision of error correction, in writing as orally, and they make their choices in the social context of the classroom rather than in a social vacuum" (p. 411). Although this statement was directed toward error correction, it is certainly valid for feedback in general. Simply listing all the variables discussed in Chapter 2 illustrates how contextualized feedback practices can be and the importance of teachers'

decisions in the classroom. Thus, any pedagogy insensitive to local contexts and individual variations may not be able to maximize the effectiveness of feedback. These methods are insensitive to local contexts and students as individuals; they distort the nature of learning, which entails socio-cultural, personal, and communal participation practices; and they marginalize local knowledge and disempower teachers (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

The growing awareness of teachers' significant roles with respect to feedback enhances the argument for a context-sensitive approach to graduate feedback. This line of reasoning has directly informed my recommendation of a postmethod approach to feedback through my commitment to pedagogy that centers on customizing practices based on the needs of students in local contexts. This starts with a principle of multiple levels of feedback built into educational design. As Kumaravadivelu (1992) stated:

> We cannot prepare teachers to tackle so many unpredictable needs, wants and situations; we can only help them develop a capacity to generate varied and situation-specific ideas within a general framework that makes sense in terms of current pedagogical and theoretical knowledge. (p. 41)

In search of an approach for graduate feedback, I have drawn on a postmethod pedagogy by Kumaravadivelu (1992, 1994, 2001, 2006). As early as 1990, Prabhu declared in his article in *TESOL Quarterly* that there is no best method. Aligned with arguments against and skepticism toward the notion of method in the second/foreign language teaching profession (Allwright, 1991; Nunan, 1989), Kumaravadivelu developed a postmethod framework that provides operating principles. Based on these principles, teachers can construct an actual postmethod pedagogy for their own classrooms.

The postmethod framework (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2006) is operated by three principles that guide aspects of language teaching: particularity, practicality, and possibility. First, postmethod pedagogy should "be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 538). Ultimately, this parameter of particularity ensures that pedagogy is responsive to multiple layers of local contexts and the people involved in learning. Second, the parameter of practicality challenges a dichotomy between theory and practice. In this approach, teachers as professionals interacting with a knowledge base generated by experts make informed decisions rather than simply following the methods suggested by researchers. Finally, the third parameter, possibility, is concerned with empowering students by raising awareness of the sociopolitical surroundings which shape the experiences students bring with them into the classroom.

Teachers need to understand all the methods available and decide the right or optimal option for their own classrooms. I suggest *the postmethod approach to feedback*, especially at the doctoral level, as discussed in this dissertation. This approach is based on particular assumptions about feedback practices within graduate education. First, I consider feedback to be contextualized social practices and graduate education to be different from other levels of education, as supported by the empirical evidence in the previous section. Based on these assumptions, I propose that teachers consider the following procedures when they offer feedback to students:

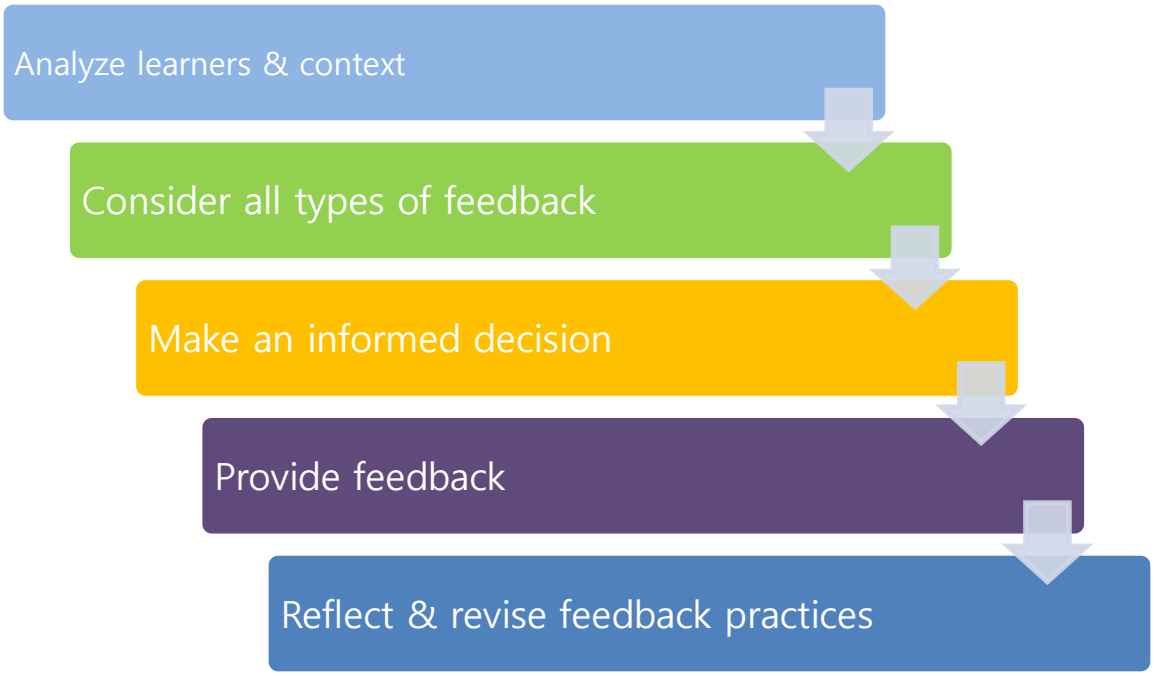


Figure 28. The postmethod approach to feedback.

First and foremost, teachers must critically analyze their students and the contexts they are in, considering learning contexts, student needs, desired learning outcomes, writing task objectives, the nature of a task, stages of revision, and the level and readiness of students. This can be done through the observation of practices, the evaluation of their outcomes, and the identification of problems. Then, teachers need to be aware of the possible feedback forms and purposes from the theories of feedback and from their teaching experiences. There are a range of feedback types teachers can choose from in both this dissertation[7] and previous research[8]: feedback on aspects of academic writing or content and/or focused, unfocused, direct, indirect, recast, reformulated, or repeated feedback. Also, when addressing linguistic errors, teachers can research possible and frequent error types (e.g., Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p. 97). More significantly, teachers must consider non-traditional sources of feedback beyond class in multiple

[7] For a full list of the feedback types identified in this research, see Table 7 in Chapter 4

[8] For a comprehensive list of the feedback types in the feedback literature, see Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Bitchener et al., 2010; Leki, 2006

levels, such as academic interactions initiated through active participation in various CoPs. In order for students to take full advantage of their learning potential and boost learner autonomy, teachers need to help them realize they can seek out resources beyond class for feedback, such as writing centers, learning communities, and libraries. This is consistent with the findings of this study; students indeed benefit from multiple sources of feedback.

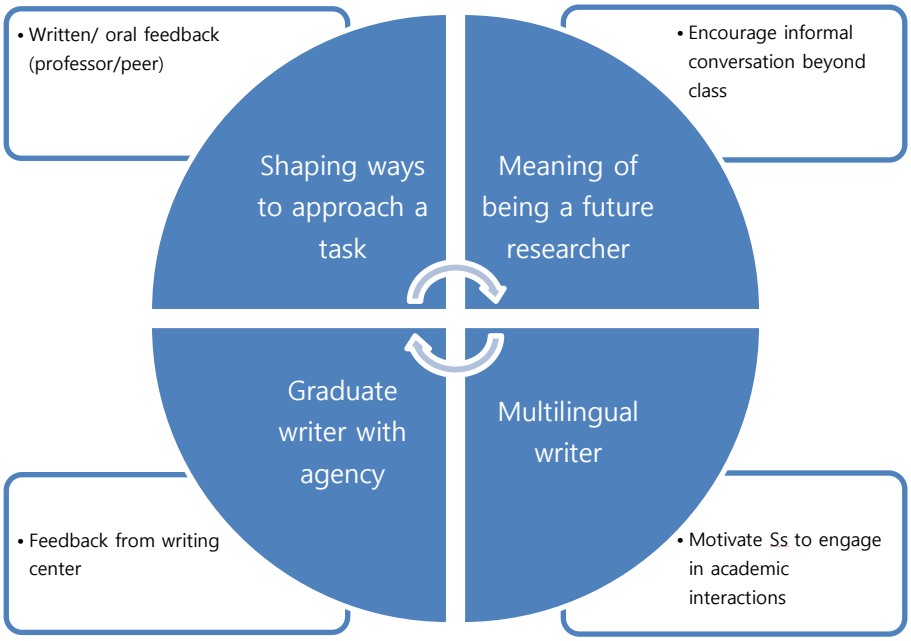


Figure 29. Multiple sources of feedback with individual writers at the center.

This should be accompanied by teachers' active efforts to help their students understand what it means to be researchers, thereby shaping how they approach and define literacy tasks and motivating them to engage in academic interactions. For instance, teachers may encourage students to search for feedback on certain aspects of their rough draft from the writing center or senior peers for extra points.

Next, teachers must decide the right condition for feedback, the timing of providing that feedback, and the design of the overall course to generate various opportunities for feedback, rather than simply following the methods suggested by researchers. As discussed earlier, the

findings of this study reveal that the more feedback students receive, the more change they perceive. In other words, feedback itself generates revision, regardless of the type and quality of feedback. Equally interesting, there is a coincidence between the timing and the feedback provided. This can easily be translated into the design of courses. That is, teachers should make sure students are situated within a framework that provides rich feedback, whether that is peer feedback, faculty feedback, or other types of feedback. One example of a feedback-rich environment would be a series of formal to informal meeting frameworks—such as a notebook or brainstorming meeting, or a web conference with a student leader—that are built into class. This can allow students to provide multiple opportunities for feedback, even without labeling the practices as feedback. Creating a feedback-rich environment can also mean that teachers help students shape their perceptions about a task so they are motivated enough to initiate academic interactions beyond the classroom.

All of these procedures can lead teachers as professionals to make informed decisions on a specific type of feedback in a specific classroom through evaluation, reflection, and problem solving using the three parameters suggested by Kumaravadivelu (1992, 1994, 2001, 2006): particularity, practicality, and possibility. Moreover, after implementing the feedback of their choice, postmethod teachers must reflect again on what works and what does not work in local contexts, which will, in turn, allow them to revise their feedback practices. This is an informed decision model with teachers as professionals. Essentially, I argue not that teachers should marginalize the knowledge generated by experts, but that teachers with agency and capacity should evaluate local situations, generate ideas, and infuse them into their practices using all three operating principles by Kumaravadivelu (1992, 1994, 2001, 2006). In the next section, I

summarize my pedagogical recommendations on feedback practices for doctoral program faculty based on the results of my study.

Pedagogical Recommendations for Doctoral Program Faculty

- Provide as much feedback as possible since the more feedback the participants received (regardless of the type and perceived quality), the more frequently they mentioned positive changes.

- Learning may not happen in isolation. Some learning outcomes are the product of a combination of feedback from multiple academic interactions at different points throughout the semester.

- Help students become aware of the benefits of various forms of interaction beyond class and design a course in such a way that they have opportunities to be exposed to dynamic interactions. Academic socialization involves dynamic interactions from different agents such as professors, senior peers, friends, and professionals in broader academic communities.

- Raise students' awareness of the resources available to students in and beyond the classroom and explicitly encourage them to actively seek out those resources.

- Be aware that some types of feedback such as comments to ask for clarity or elaboration may take longer to process than others. Usually, the end of the semester is when multiple sources of feedback provided earlier in the semester attain a cumulative effect.

- Be aware that repeated instances of feedback in different forms may be needed in order for that feedback to take effect. Feedback on some aspects of academic socialization—such as writing strategies—tends to be understood quickly. Other, more abstract

aspects—such as research agenda or academic writing—tend to sink in gradually and build toward a cumulative effect.

- The extent to which students perceive a professor cares about their learning seems to affect the degree to which they engage feedback. Students may assume that the professor who provides detailed feedback cares about their learning and their work, which leads them to value this professor's feedback more.

- Make sure students experience legitimate apprenticeship genres in their discipline. Working on authentic genres can offer a platform on which they can build their disciplinary knowledge and negotiate their literacy practices, ultimately constructing their social identities as researchers.

- Learning when and how to quote others' words without losing students' own voices appears to take more time and repeated practice with actual text production than learning the technical conventions of APA or MLA documentation.

- Students might not be able to acquire some aspects of academic writing immediately or by simply being given explicit instructions in abstract terms. Rather, these skills are acquired through producing actual writing, receiving feedback on that writing, and engaging with the feedback.

- Help students know that the types of writing they are expected to produce will vary across disciplines and settings. This awareness enables them to become more flexible so they can shape their thinking and writing to meet the demands of particular contexts, thereby expanding their academic repertoire.

- Provide positive comments on what students are doing since they highly value positive feedback from professors.
- Help students become aware that their course papers could be reconfigured for purposes and audiences outside of class. This awareness influences the ways they approach feedback and their level of engagement in initiating various interactions about their work outside the classroom.
- Help students construct their professional identities as future researchers.
- Provide explicit feedback on students' strengths and weaknesses as writers. Students will benefit when professors frame their feedback in terms of general aspects of academic writing.
- Students appreciate not only positive feedback on their writing but also negative feedback because of its benefits to their future writing.
- Keep in mind that students reflect very seriously on their academic writing experiences and the feedback they received after semester grades have been offered.

In the next section, I conclude this dissertation with future research directions and what I learned from this study.

Limitations of the Study and Future Research Agenda

Considering the increasing number of multilingual graduate students, there will undoubtedly be more research on graduate feedback. Although it allowed me to conduct a highly contextualized, in-depth study investigating concrete instances of feedback phenomena, the small number of participants at a single university made it difficult to generate an exhaustive taxonomy

of graduate feedback. Using the types of feedback categories and the relevant issues identified in this dissertation study, a quantitative investigation of feedback in higher education using survey methods across disciplines and universities would surely advance knowledge about the landscape of graduate feedback. One of the interesting findings from this study included the fact that students who received more feedback tended to feel more development occurred. Although my data appears systematic and consistent within the three units of this research, more statistical data is clearly crucial to support these arguments. In continuation of postmethod pedagogy, it would also be worthwhile to look at the decision-making process of those providing feedback to examine ways of promoting informed decision-making. This will lead to a refined understanding of how informed decision-making works and what it can mean in our classrooms. More significantly, a follow-up study with the same participants will help me better understand feedback and negotiation practices. Since one of the purposes of the current study was to theorize feedback at the doctoral level, it would be worthwhile to research where they are now and how the participants conceptualize feedback depending on their roles—such as a dissertator or a teacher—now that they have finished their coursework or program.

Concluding Remarks

The uncertainties and frustrations that the participants felt reminded me of my own first years at a graduate school in the U.S. When I began this research, the questions came down to what happens when all the feedback on writing is combined, what multilingual writers do, and how it is related to academic writing development (Figure 30).

Figure 30. What I originally thought.

Through a qualitative content analysis of multiple sources of data, I came to the conclusion that feedback on graduate writing mediates socialization into academic communities and that graduate feedback is defined as situated social practices in academic communities. The figure above shows different types of feedback students can encounter at the surface level. But the findings of this dissertation enable us to see a bigger and more complicated picture of the academic interaction manifested as feedback since each line of feedback is part of the academic discourse and culture in specific CoPs. In addition, we need to see the various patterns of belonging to CoPs that are behind feedback. Thus, the present research enables me to define graduate feedback as a space for co-construction of knowledge and negotiation and a mediator for academic socialization.

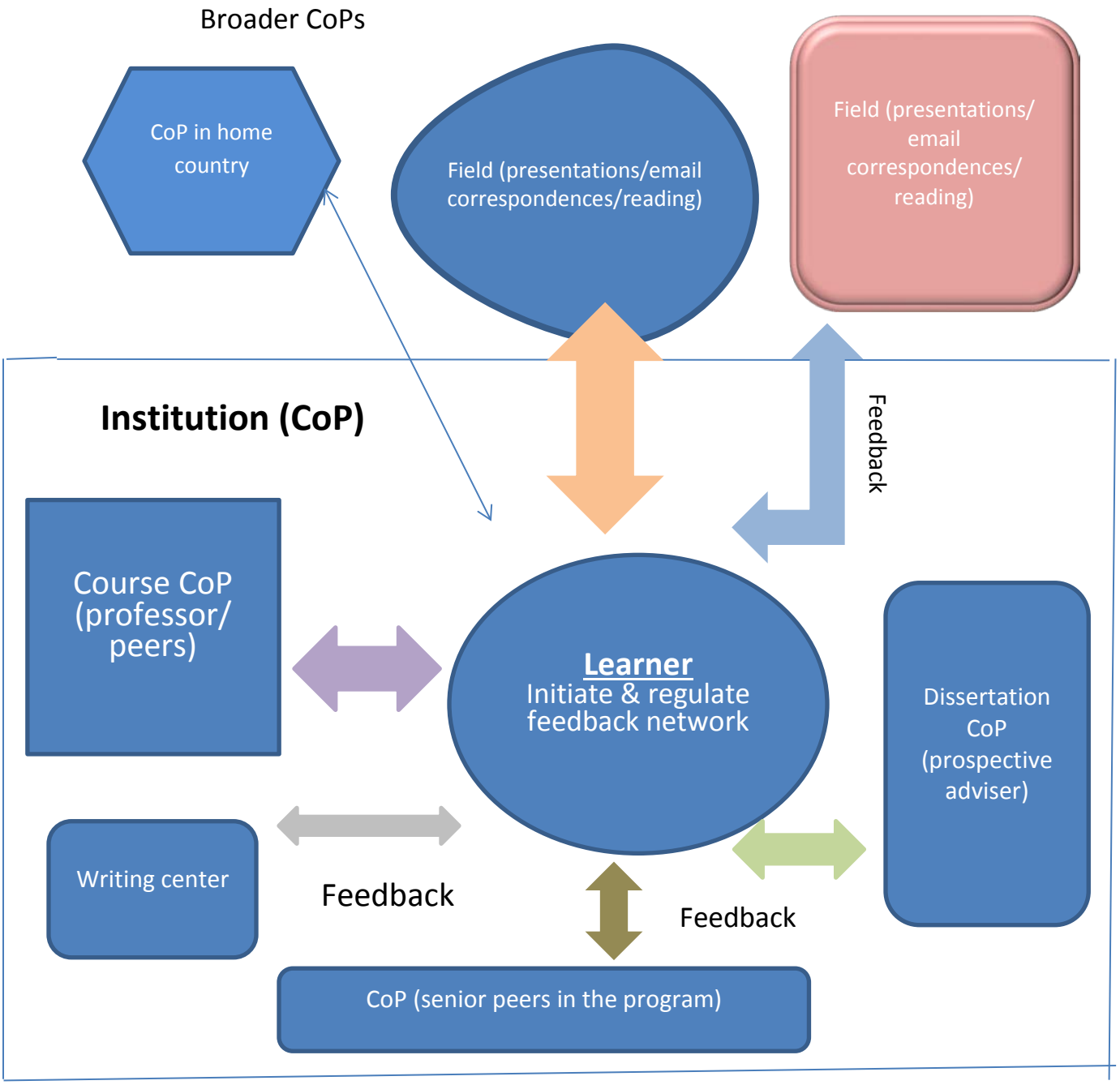


Figure 31. What I learned: Academic interaction manifested as feedback.

What was most noticeable was the direction of the arrows in Figures 30 and 31. In Figure 30, I thought academic interaction through feedback was unidirectional, with learners at the center. However, it soon became clear that it is bidirectional, as Duff (2007a, b) aptly theorized about academic enculturation processes in general, although the shape and density of arrows vary.

Surely, these arrows come in different forms, including swirls or twists as learners' membership evolves and gains more legitimacy in a specific CoP. This research also illustrates that students benefit from multiple sources of feedback in and beyond class, and, more importantly, that learning academic writing always includes socialization.

In sum, while there are core tendencies with respect to graduate feedback, all three units of this study differ in the amount, nature, and types of feedback they received depending on literacy events, especially concerning writing-related components; individual students' revision strategies, partly determined by course requirements; and the academic atmospheres in the program overall. The conceptualization of feedback as situated social practices points to a need for an approach to feedback that responds to local learning contexts and individual variations. I suggest the postmethod approach to feedback on graduate writing. Therefore, this study moves the knowledge of academic writing forward by situating empirical evidence of the nature of graduate feedback and learning outcomes within current efforts to understand graduate writing, especially during the initial years of doctoral education. Conducting this study has been a personally fulfilling experience for me—exploring the questions which stemmed from my own and my friends' experiences was incredibly rewarding. I am genuinely hopeful that the refined understanding of graduate feedback phenomena as a result of this study will indeed benefit both multilingual graduate students and their teachers.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent Form

You are invited to participate in this research study. The following information is provided in order to help you to make an informed decision whether or not to participate. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask. You are eligible to participate because you are an international doctoral student in Composition and TESOL (C&T) program at Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP).

The purpose of this study is to explore how multilingual students respond to different sources of feedback on writing assignments at the graduate level in the United States. Participation in this study will require your permission for me to use your drafts of classroom assignments in the C&T program and feedback you received on those papers from your professor, peers, or tutors at the writing center. The data can also include online or email entries about the target papers if you have any interactions about the assignments under study. All of the identifiers including the names and course titles will be replaced by pseudonyms on the written documents collected. The grades that you got on your papers will be deleted. You will also be asked to interview at least three times which will last about 60 minutes or less: (1) before the assignments begin but after the professor explains them, (2) While you are revising your drafts, and (3) after you submit your papers. For the stage (2), you will be asked to do brief and informal interviews about your revision more than once. Your professors will be interviewed briefly once about what feedback they gave to you and what they think about your socialization process after you submit your assignments. The interviews will be recorded and transcribed. Every name will be replaced by pseudonyms on the transcripts, thus you will not be identified in any publications or presentation at a conference that result from this research.

The information from this study may help you better understand the process of your acquisition of academic literacy.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without adversely affecting your relationship with the investigators or IUP. Your decision will not result in any loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you choose to participate, you may withdraw at any time by emailing or calling me. Upon receiving your request, I will destroy all the information pertaining to you. If you choose to participate, your information will be held in strict confidential and will have no bearing on your academic standing in current or future courses, nor on services you receive from IUP. The information obtained in the study may be published in scientific journals or presented at scientific meetings but your identity will be kept strictly confidential.

If you would like further information about this project or if you have questions you may speak to me personally by e-mailing me (gnvp@iup.edu), or calling me (917-371-2358 cell phone).

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This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM:

I have read and understand the information on the form and I consent to volunteer to be a subject in this study. I consent to have my drafts of writing assignments for a class and feedback I received used for research purposes. I also consent to interview for this research project. I am aware that the researcher will interview with my professor about the feedback they gave to me and my socialization process. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

Name (PLEASE PRINT) _____

Signature_____

Date:

Phone number where you can be reached _____

Email address _____

Best days and times to reach you _____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

Date:

Investigator's Signature_____

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Appendix B
Sample Interview Questions: Students

- Interview (1) (before the participants started working on the assignments under study)

1. How many years have you been here in the United States?
2. Could you tell me about your educational background?
3. How many years have you studied English in your country? What was the English learning like?
4. Have you ever received any feedback on your writing in the past? If yes, can you tell me about it? (in your home country and here in the U.S.)
5. Do you try to talk about your writing assignments with others such as professors, writing center tutors, or peers? If yes, can you tell me about your experiences? If not, can you tell me how you write a paper?
6. What strategies do you use to understand a writing task for courses?
7. When you write a classroom assignment in a graduate program, what do you think is the most challenging and important?
8. Do you think there are any differences in writing between for language class or writing class and writing for graduate courses? If yes, can you tell me how they differ?
9. What communities do you belong to at the moment? Do you think you belong to the academic community of C&T and the field? (Regarding the way you write, think, read, and behave)
10. How do you label yourself?
11. What expectations do you think your professor have for this assignment?
12. What adjectives come to your mind when you think about feedback? Can you tell me an example of each one?
13. What adjectives come to your mind when you think about academic writing? Can you tell me a little more about each one?
14. What do you think about the feedback you were given in this class (the target class)? Can you tell me about the most helpful one and confusing or not-that helpful one?
15. What is you plan about writing this final paper for class? (timeline…)

- Interview (2) (while the participants were working on their drafts)

1. What do you think you are required to do in this assignment?
2. Have you had any experiences of this genre in the past? If yes, can you tell me about it?
3. Is there any confusion in understanding the task? If yes, what did/do you do to interpret this assignment?
4. Did you plan ahead about what to write? Did you have an outline of this paper before you started writing? Can you share what you are going to write for this assignment with me?
5. What is your revising plan?
6. Did you get any feedback or advice about this assignment or your draft? If yes, what were they?
7. How did you address the issues that emerged from the feedback or advice you were given?

- Brief revision interviews (3)

1. What adjectives come to your mind when you think about the feedback given on this assignment? Can you tell me more about each?
2. What feedback did you get on the assignment? (Feedback from prof, peers, or writing center tutor, or others?) What do you think about the feedback you were given overall?
3. Have you talked about this assignment and your writing with others? If so, can you tell me more about that?
4. What revision did you make in this draft? (for each feedback—I can ask this specifically about each piece of feedback, referring to their drafts with feedback in front of me) And can you tell me why you did that way?

- Interview (4) (after the participants submitted their papers and got them back from the professor)

1. What changes (in any aspect—e.g., your ability, your perceptions, your attitudes, your self-perceptions…) do you think happened during revision of this paper?
2. Did you get feedback after you turned in your paper? If yes, what were they? What do you think about them?
3. In what way do you think will the feedback influence your future writing?
4. Are there any differences in your understanding of this assignment between when you started writing this and now? If yes, can you tell me about them?
5. How do you think you negotiated feedback you were given on this paper? (feedback including written prof feedback, peer feedback, informal oral conversation about the target paper in class, …)
6. Do you think you learned the ways of writing, thinking, and behaving in the C&T program and the field in general? Do you think you are now a member of this academic community? If you think the learning took place, can you tell me how? In what way do you think the learning process is related to the writing process you went through for this class?
7. What do you think about feedback and your learning academic writing and its relationship with each other (in general)?
8. Do you think writing and revision for graduate courses is related to improving second language learning when you reflect on the writing process of this paper and academic writing for graduate courses in general? If yes, can you tell me about it?

Appendix C
Sample Interview Questions: Professors

1. What feedback did you provide each participant with on the classroom assignments?
2. How do you think each participant addressed your feedback?
3. What do you think about the socialization process of each participant?