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Teacher and Students Dialoguing through Feedback on EFL Students' Writings: A Transformative Experience

Thesis submitted in candidacy for the degree of Doctorate in English Linguistics and Didactics

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is entirely the result of my investigation and that due to reference or acknowledgement is made, whenever necessary, to the work of other researchers.

I am duly informed that any person practising plagiarism will be subject to disciplinary sanctions issued by university authorities under the rules and regulations in force.

Date

Signed

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my dear parents to whom I express all my heartfelt gratitude for their patience ,understanding and help.

I also dedicate this work to my beloved children, Ilyes- Anes ,Walid , Aksil and Sara

This work is also dedicated to my husband , Nabil, for his unconditional support and ongoing encouragements.

To my sisters and brother

To all my friends and colleagues who were always encouraging me, particularly Amina Bezzazi. I thank her for her care, understanding and solid friendship.

Finally, I would like particularly to dedicate this work to the souls of my grandparents.

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Abstract

Though both teachers and students agree that teacher written feedback is both helpful and desirable most research in L2 writing response reveals that teachers and students are respectively frustrated and disappointed regarding teacher written feedback. This is due to an impoverished dialogue where response is monologic, impersonal and a pure didactic discourse and where students are mere empty recipients of teacher written feedback .Informed by Freire' emancipatory education and Critical Pedagogy and Mezirow's Transformative Learning Theory, this study reflects the teacher-cum-researcher's an Exploratory practice journey of inquiry and reflection through dialoguing with ten students about her written feedback practices whereby students were invited to challenge and critique her feedback practices and the teacher to reflect on her practices. To explore this dialogue, quantitative and qualitative methods were used namely students' questionnaires (before and after revision), students' first and final drafts, students' interviews and teacher self-report narrative. The results of the study showed that dialoguing with the students gave the teacher the opportunity to live transformative experience stimulated by her consciousness- raising of her actual feedback practices as a result of listening to the students critiquing these practices and voicing their feedback preferences. This consciousness-raising led the teacher not only to reconsider her role as an authoritarian figure and learn to accept her students' active involvement in the process of giving and receiving feedback but also to review her written feedback practices. Besides, the results of the quantitative data revealed that students' multiple drafts embedded in this dialogue have improved their writing performance. Therefore, the critical impact this study calls for a dialogic pedagogy and active students' involvement in the construction of written feedback practices in particular in teaching/learning practices in general.

Key words: Exploratory Practice, teacher written feedback, emancipatory education, Transformative learning Theory, dialogue.

List of tables

Table 4.1: Research design and procedure……………………………………………...143
Table 4.2: Faigley and Witte's Taxonomy of Revisions (1994)…………………………157
Table 4.3: Coded features for written comments. (Adapted from Conrad and Goldstein 1999)……………………………………………………………………………160
Table 5.1: Students' general information………………………………………………166
Table5.2: Students 'responses on whether they like receiving teacher written feedback………………………………………………………………………………167
Table5.3: Students' evaluation of teacher written feedback in terms of usefulness………167
Table5.4: Amount of feedback read by students………………………………………...169
Table5.5: Students' responses on whether they received teacher written comments on their drafts…………………………………………………………………………169
Table5.6: Areas of writing that the teacher focused most on……………………………170
Table 5.7: Teacher written feedback's delivery techniques……………………………..171
Table 5.8: Students' evaluation of teacher written feedback in term of degree of clarity……………………………………………………………………………….…172
Table 5.9: Reasons for not understanding teacher written feedback…………………. …..173
Table: 5.10 Strategies used by students in case they do not understand teacher's Comments……………………………………………………………………………..174
Table5.11: Teacher written feedback and students' expectations…………………………176
Table5.12: Students' responses on whether they took teacher's comments into consideration while writing the final draft…………………………………………………177
Table 5.13: Students' consideration of teacher feedback……………………………..........178
Table5.14: Student's responses on whether they thought their draft was better…………...179
Table 5.15: Areas of writing the teacher should have most focused on…………………....180
Table5.16: Students' preferences of teacher written feedback's delivery technique………181
Table 5.17: Comparison of teacher written feedback comments with the amount of incorporated feedback into revisions……………………………………………………….192
Table5.18: The total of changes made by students in revision……………………………193

Table 5.19: Types of revisions made by students……………………………………………….195
Table 5.20: Comparison of the participants' frequency mistakes before and
after receiving teacher written feedback………………………………………………………...198
Table5. 21:Results representing the intended functions of the teachers' comments……...205
Table5.22: Formal characteristics of the teachers' comments…………………………….....207
Table5.23: Results representing the types of revisions asked by the teacher……………..209
Table6. 1: Examples of students' revision………………………………………………………227

List of figures

1. Figure 3.1 Allwright's diagram of thinking globally and acting locally…………115
2. Figure 3.2: Relationship between Exploratory Practice, Action Research and Reflective Practitioner………………………………………………………… 123
3. Figure 4.1Summary of the research design …………………………………….139

List of appendices:

Appendix1: Questionnaire to students before revision…………………………………..275
Appendix2: Questionnaire to students after revision……………………………………280
Appendix 3: Students' interview Transcripts……………………………………………283
Appendix4: Sample of students' drafts…………………………………………………..295
Appendix5: My self-report narrative ……………………………………………………305

Table of contents

Declaration ……………………………………………………………………………i

Dedication………..……………………………………………………………….....ii

Acknowledgement………………………………………………………………....iii

Abstract ……………………………………………………………….................iv

List of tables……………………………………………………………………...v

List of figures…………………………………………………………… ………vii

List of appendices ……………………………………………………………..viii

Table of contents………………………………………………………………...ix

Introduction

Statement of the problem ………………………………………………………..1

Aims and significance of the study……………………………………………....7

Research questions…………………………………………………….............10

Research techniques and methodology…………………………………………11

Structure of the study……………………………………………………………...13

PART ONE: Theoretical Considerations

Chapter One: Classroom Dialogue for Emancipatory and Transformative Learning and Teaching

Introduction

1.1 Defining dialogue ………………………………………………………………15

1.1.1Dialogue versus conversation…………………………………………………16

1.1.2Dialogue as a process of thinking together……………………………………17

1.2 Philosophical underpinnings……………………………………………………18

1.2.1 Bakhtinian philosophical orientation on dialogue……………………….......18

1.2.2 Freirean liberatory pedagogy ……………………………………………………..22

1.2.2.1 Banking versus problem-posing education………………………..22

1.2.2.2 Dialogue and critical consciousness raising………………………26

1.2.2.3 Teacher-student democratic relationships………………………...27

1.2.2.4 Dialogue and the co-construction of knowledge…………………31

1.2.3 Transformative Learning Theory………………………………………………33

1.2.3.1 Learning in transformative learning theory………………………..36

1.2.3.2 Establishing favorable conditions for fostering transformative Learning……………………………………………………………………..38

1.2.3.3 Critical reflection: the core of Transformative Learning Theory… 40

1.2.3.4 Narrative as a transformative power in teacher education ……….44

1..2.3.5 Dialogue as a means of transformation…………………………...49

1.3 Dialogue as a pedagogical and social practice: Understanding L2 classrooms………..50

1.3.1 Creating spaces for classroom dialogue …………………………………..57

1.3.2 Facilitating students' participation in dialogue …………………………...58

1.4 Inherent challenges……………………………………………………………………59

1.4.1 Challenging the old images of and attitudes towards students …………….60

1.4.2 Students' reluctance to engage in classroom dialogue ……………….62

1.4.3 Rethinking classroom power relationship …… ……………………..63

Conclusion

Chapter Two: Overview of Teacher Written Feedback Dialogue

Introduction

2.1 Major theoretical issues of teacher written feedback……………………………………66

2.1.1 Form-focused teacher written feedback …………………………………...67

2.1.2 Content focused teacher written feedback to writing ……………………69

2.1.3 Teacher written feedback in the social constructivist approach…………..71

2.2 Teacher written feedback: from a one-way message (monologue) to a two-way transformative process (dialogue)……………………………………………………...72

2.2.1 Teacher feedback as monologue…………………………………………....73

2.2.2 Teacher written feedback as dialogue……………………….……………..74

2.2.3 The role of feedback as a transformative process…………………………..77

2.3 Teacher written feedback underlying practices and philosophies………………………79

2.3.1 Describing teacher written feedback practices………………………………..79

2.3.1.1 Teacher written feedback's delivery techniques……………….............79

2.3.1.1.1 Direct correction……………………………………………………80

2.3.1.1.2 Minimal marking…………………………………………………...80

2.3.1.1.3 Rubrics……………………………………………………………...80

2.3.1.1.4 Teacher written comments: the core of the study…………...81

2.3.1.2 Feedback functions: Praise, criticism and suggestions……………...81

2.3.2 The interpersonal impact of teacher written feedback on students……...83

2.3.3 Appropriation in teacher written feedback………………………………85

2.3.4 Comparing teacher feedback practices with their feedback beliefs and actual feedback ……………………………………………………………..86

2.4 Students' perceptions towards teacher's feedback: adapting feedback to students' needs…………………………………………………………………………..… 92

2.4.1 Students' feedback preferences……………………………………….....92

2.4.2 Students' attitudes towards teacher written feedback……………………...95

2.5 The effect of teacher written feedback dialogue on EFL students and teachers………98

Conclusion

Chapter Three: Exploratory Practice as a Methodological Framework for the Study of Teacher Written Feedback Dialogue

Introduction

3.1 Defining Exploratory Practice (EP)……………………………… …………………104

3.2 Development of Exploratory Practice ……………………………………...........105

3.2.1 Academic origins of Exploratory Practice …………………………………105

3.2.2 Practical origins of Exploratory Practice ……………………………………106

3.3 Exploratory Practice as a rethought form of Practitioner Research……………………109

3.4 Learners as active practitioners in the process of understanding……………………....113

3.5 Cyclical view of Exploratory Practice…………………………………………………115

3.6 Aims of Exploratory Practice: What Exploratory Practice is intended for? ……….....116

3.7 Principles of Exploratory Practice…………………………………………………....118

3.8 Basic steps of Exploratory Practice…………………………………………………..119

3.9 Exploratory Practice and other approaches to Classroom Research…………………121

3.10 Exploratory Practice as a reflexive approach……………………………………....126

3.11 Exploratory Practice as a locally- relevant classroom enterprise……………………127

3.12 Relevance of Exploratory Practice to the situated context of my research study …...128

Conclusion

Part two: Empirical Study

Chapter Four: **Research Design and Procedure**

Introduction

4.1 Educational context: the writing curriculum ………………………………………..132

4.2 Procedure …………………………………………………………………………133

4.2.1 Identifying my puzzle……………………………………………………133

4.2.2 Sampling procedure ………………..135

4.2.2.1 My role as teacher and researcher……………………………………..135

4.2.2.2 Participating Students ………………………………………………137

4.3 Setting up the study ………………..138

4.4 Case study approach………………………………………………………………139

4.5 Mixed methods approach ……………………………………………………….....140

4.6 Description of the research tools ……………………………………………….....144

4.6.1 Writing assignment……………………………………………………….144

4.6.2 Questionnaires to students……………………………………………….145

4.6.3 Semi- structured interview ………...………………………………….....148

4.6.4 My self-report narrative………………………………………………….151

4.7 Methods of data analysis …………………………………………………….....153

4.7.1 Method used for analyzing the questionnaire data……………………....153

4.7.2Method used for analyzing the semi-structured data.................................154

4.7.3Method used for analyzing my self-report narrative data ………………..155

4.7.4 Method used for analyzing students' drafts……………………………...156

Conclusion

Chapter Five: Analysis and Presentation of the Results

Introduction

5.1Presentationof students' questionnaires data before and after revision ………………..165

5.1.1Presentation of the questionnaire data before revision …………………...166
5.1.2 Presentation of the questionnaire data after revision……..........................177

5.2 Presentation of the semi-structured interview data ……………………………………184

5.3 Presentation of the students' drafts data………………………………………………190

5.4 Presentation of my self-report narrative data…………………………………………..198

5.5 Presentation of my comments data…………………………………….................203

Conclusion

Chapter Six: Discussion: Dialogic Written Feedback and Transformative Experience

Introduction

6.1 RQ1: To what extent does teacher written feedback constitute a dialogue between my students and me?...212

6.1.1 Criticism towards my written feedback …………………………....213
6.1.2 Students' positive views of my written feedback…………………..215
6.1.3 Discovering my students' feedback preferences and needs………..216

6.2 RQ2: Does my feedback ethos align with my students' views about feedback ?...219

6.2.1 Comparing my feedback ethos with students' views about feedback………………………………………………………….219

6.3 RQ3: Do my feedback practices align with my students' feedback preferred practices?...220

6.3.1 Comparing my feedback practices with my students' preferred feedback practices……………………………………………………….220

6.3.1.1Comparing the type of written feedback I provided my students with and the type of feedback preferred by my students……………………………………………………….....221

6.3.1.2 Comparing my students' preferred feedback delivery methods with my actual written feedback delivery methods…….222

6.4 RQ4: Does written feedback dialogue improve students' writings?........................225

6.5 RQ5: To what extent does this feedback dialogue transform my feedback practices……………………………………………………………………..229

6.5.1 Reviewing my feedback practices: from teacher-based to student-based orientation ………………………………………………………………...230

6.6 RQ6: To what extent does this feedback dialogue transform my relationship with my students? ……………………………………………………...233

6.6.1 Reconciling teacher-student relationship: towards trust, dialogue and change ……………………………………………………………………233

Conclusion

Chapter Seven: Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations :Implementing Dialogue in the Classroom

Introduction

7.1 Strategies for more dialogic written feedback practices……………………………240

7.1.1 Reflecting on the feedback focus …………………………………………244

7.1.2 Reflecting on feedback delivery techniques……………………………..245

7.2 Pedagogical implications of EP as a new mode of classroom understanding………...245

7.3 Integrating Transformative Learning and Critical Pedagogy in higher education……246

Conclusion

Conclusion ……………………………………………………………………………..249

References……………………………………………………………………………....254

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the problem

Feedback to student writing has always been an essential factor in writing instruction be it in L1 or L2 teaching(EFL and L2 are used interchangeably). Teacher written feedback, regarded as the most viable and commonest form of response to student's writing, is increasingly employed in EFL classes as it provides a critical instructional opportunity for students. Undeniably, responding to student writing is a crucial component of the teaching-to-write process and learning-to-write process. As a pedagogical genre, teacher written feedback carries a heavy informational load which not only offers commentary on the form and content of a text to develop students' writing abilities but also consolidates their learning (Hyland and Hyland, 2006).

Though both teachers and students agree that teacher written feedback is both helpful and desirable (Ferris, 2003; Goldstein, 2004), it seems that most research (Semke, 1984; Cohen, 1987; Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Fathman and Whalley, 1990; Ferris et al, 1997, Ferris, 2003; Hyland, 2003; Chiang, 2004) reveals that teachers and students are constantly in tension regarding teacher written feedback. Both experience frustration as to how to handle written feedback. On the one hand, teachers can appropriate, overwhelm, control, discourage or mislead students through their feedback. On the other hand, students pay little attention to the feedback teachers give or claim that it is not clear and inconsistent. The result is that most of the time, the feedback students desire is markedly different from what they receive. This, accordingly, leads to a mismatch between the way teachers construct their written feedback and the type of feedback students expect.

These diverse expressions of dissatisfaction with written feedback, from both students and teachers, are all symptoms of impoverished dialogue between teachers and their students about feedback where response is regarded as impersonal and a pure didactic discourse, a mere interaction between a teacher and a text (Nicol, 2010; Goldstein, 2004) where students are considered as empty recipients, accepting teacher written feedback uncritically (Dirkx, 1998; Nicol, 2010).

Nevertheless, while the information in feedback is a key factor in learning to write, it is only effective if it engages with the writer and gives him or her a sense that this is a response to a person rather than a script (Hyland and Hyland, 2006 ; Goldstein, 2004).They need to be proactive agent in the feedback process. Without understanding how students react, perceive and respond to teacher feedback, teachers may run the risk of repeatedly giving feedback that is ineffective. As teachers give feedback on student writing, it is vital that student responses to the feedback are fed back to teachers so as to help them develop reflective and effective feedback practices (Lee, 2008).

A panel of researchers (Laurillard, 2002; Goldstein, 2004; Hyland and Hyland, 2006; Goldstein, 2006) argue that feedback is best conceptualized as a dialogical and contingent two-way process that involves coordinated teacher–student interaction as well as active learner engagement. This entails the involvement of both teacher and students in the social construction of the text in which the teacher supports students' draft with feedback (Hyland, K 1996; Hyland and Hyland, 2006). In keeping with this sociocultural perspective, writing is not a

product of the individual; rather it is socially constructed between teacher and student in their interactions over time. A teacher's response to any individual piece of writing is an ongoing exchange with the student writer, and both teacher and student have roles in the interactive process of knowledge construction. The role of the teacher is to read and respond to student texts, while students are readers of both their own texts and the comments of their teachers. This implies that teachers' comments are not simply the results of the teachers' evaluation, nor are they mere products to be consumed by student readers. Rather, they are one of the means by which communication is achieved or not, and by which knowledge is constructed or not (Murphy, 2000).

Hyland and Hyland (2006) argued that teachers and students strive to maintain a social harmony avoiding conflicts and establishing a sense of trust and cooperation. However, they argued that research on teacher written response has ignored how that feedback is framed to reach such harmony. It is clear that most past research on teachers' written feedback on students' work has examined quantitatively either the effect of teacher feedback on students' writings (Hyland, 2002, Liu, 2008) or the students writers' perception of teacher feedback (Cohen, 1987; Enginarlar, 2002). The dialogic nature of teacher written feedback has not been fully studied, yet many factors play an interactive role in how teachers comment, how students react to that commentary, and how students use such commentary in their revisions (Goldstein, 2004, 2006). This was confirmed by Goldstein (2006:188):"No study has looked at all of the factors that can influence

how teachers provide feedback and how students use this feedback and how these factors interact with each other."

Giving feedback is more than selecting a delivery technique or deciding the aspect of writing to focus on; feedback is embedded, as Hyland and Hyland (2006:13) put it, in "wider sociocultural beliefs and practices that selectively activate knowledge and prompt specific processes." This implies that every act of feedback is an expression of assumptions about participant relationship. Through feedback, teachers carry their beliefs about language, learning, writing and personal relationship. This will not only effect students' reaction to it and the extent to which they use it in their revision, but it will also effects the relationship with students as it can facilitate or undermine a student's writing development. In the same way, the way students respond and react to teacher written feedback is influenced by their beliefs, expectations and attitudes towards the feedback they receive. Whether they accept or reject teacher's comments depends heavily on their opinions and views on how these comments have been constructed (Hyland and Hyland, 2001; Goldstein, 2004). Therefore, this study is built on the tenet that it is through dialogue as a social enterprise between the teacher's beliefs about written feedback and students' reactions to that feedback that an adequate understanding of feedback dialogue can be achieved.

In the field of education, dialogue is now widely acknowledged to be an important tool to enhance language teaching and learning and ultimately improve the quality of life of the language classroom and in society. The concept of dialogue has been studied from different perspectives from Plato's commitment to inquiry passing

by Bakhtin's theory of dialogism and Bohm's approach to dialogue as an organizational interaction to Freire's conception of dialogue as a means of raising social consciousness, building differences and social change and Mezirow's view of dialogue as a means of achieving professional transformation and growth.

However, almost all agree that dialogue represents a process of reconciling differences, a means of promoting empathy and understanding, a mode of collaborative inquiry, a method of critically comparing and testing opinions and assumptions. To enter dialogue, one needs mutual trust, equality, mutual respect and the recognition that existing knowledge may change and new knowledge may develop

As Freire (1970) and later Bohm (1996) explained, people come from different cultural and social backgrounds and thus carry different basic opinions and assumptions which are deeply rooted in people's memories, and are defended whenever they are challenged. The problem arises, therefore, when such people meet for dialogue. Indeed, having different opinions, assumptions and interest may create frustration and conflicts. To avoid such frustration, Bohm (1996) suggests that people attempt to understand each one's point of view without imposing one's view. In a dialogue, there is no attempt to make one's particular view prevail.

This implies that teachers are no longer the most knowledgeable, who deposit knowledge directly into students' memory bank, who passively accept it. Instead, teachers should create a caring and supporting democratic classrooms where students are given the opportunities not only to reflect critically on their own

beliefs and opinions but also to challenge those of the teacher. The democratic classroom is not only a forum where students only share their experiences, but also a space for student social development. The role of democracy in the socialization has been accepted by many researchers mostly by Freire (1970) and Dewey (1980). Accordingly, effective education is the one which allows students and teachers to grow socially, intellectually and morally. The classroom is a tiny community of learners. It is the epicenter where the future citizens are developed. To develop students' citizenship, teachers must not only try to engage students in a process of challenging, reconsidering their realities in an open, democratic and engaging classroom environment, but also learn trust and mutual respect …etc

This implies that a classroom is not only a place where learning occurs but also a social encounter between the teacher and students who come to class with their own personal histories, different social backgrounds, different life experiences, different assumptions about ethical issues, interpersonal interactions, organizational processes, and the role of organizations in society mingled with the institutional policies, the societal goals and expectations (Hall, 2011).

Given this social classroom complexity, I believe that it is beneficial for teachers and students to engage in dialogue as a social experience in order to communicate their beliefs, opinions and attitudes as probing what learners believe may help teachers understand her learner's behavior, attitudes and reactions so that they expand ad revise their prior knowledge about language teaching and learning which will also in return lead to improvement of the classroom life (Allwright, 2000)

Aims and significance of the study:

This research, conducted in an EFL academic writing, examines the dynamic exchange between my feedback practices and construction and my learner's reactions towards that feedback so as to see how feedback allows for dialogue between my students and me of a kind that promotes thinking and reflection.

In the Algerian EFL writing context, there is usually no variation in teacher feedback technique. Through many discussion, preceding this study, with teachers at the university of Blida teaching the module of writing, I came to the conclusion that the product-approach has always dominated writing pedagogy; much teacher feedback on students' writings still focuses on word by word correction correcting every single mistake they find in their writings such as grammar, spelling, vocabulary, punctuation etc.., which is time-consuming. Unfortunately, teacher's great efforts are little valued, for students seldom reflect on the mistakes they make or how to avoid repeating them. Even more, teachers drowning students' writings with red pen tend to harm students' interest and motivation to write.

This practice has created a gap between teacher-written feedback and students' interests. The problem seems to lay in the nature of the feedback which focuses mainly on the mechanics of writing and overemphasizes students' negative points. Besides, students complain that they find teachers comments confusing and when they understand these comments, they do not know how to use them to revise/correct their writings. It seems such pedagogy is not successful and leaves students confused. Teachers also express their concern regarding the most effective way of giving feedback to improve students' writing.

This frustration might be explained by the fact that in most language classroom Algeria, teachers are still considered as the main source of knowledge whose task is to transmit textbook knowledge to students in a non-democratic way. Teachers hardly create a dialogic environment where both students and teachers participate or express their attitudes and reactions towards written feedback.

Indeed, one of the most crucial questions that have always puzzled me as an EFL writing teacher, over eight years devoted to the teaching of writing, is how best to respond to my students' writings. I invested much time and effort in responding to my students; however, these latter typically misinterpreted my written feedback and did not know how to incorporate it into revision. One of my concerns was to know what my students really think about my 'comments, if my written feedback helps my students improve their writing forward on subsequent drafts, if their understandings of my feedback match their expectations and how my comments make them feel about their writing, about themselves as writers and about myself.

I, therefore, conducted this study to understand the ongoing written exchange (dialogue) as a social enterprise that was taken place between my students and me, in a spirit of collegiality. This understanding would allow me to reconcile my feedback practices and philosophies with my students' feedback preferences and attitudes through the process of dialogue. To reach an adequate reconciliation, I had to consider both the factors that influence the way I read and respond to my students' writings, and to investigate the way my students interpret, react and use my commentary in revision.

What mostly imports is to allow our students to voice freely their feedback preferences, attitudes and reactions, to state their beliefs towards the kind of feedback they want to receive. In the same way, I have to reconsider my feedback practices and philosophies and to tailor these practices according to my students' feedback prefrences. This research is, therefore, motivated by the desire to improve teacher written feedback practices and possibly to improve life in the writing classroom and language classroom, in general. It was conducted within the English Department, of Blida University2, El-Affroun Pole,now named Lounici Ali. The study was undertaken in the middle of the second semester of the academic year 2012-2013 in which first year students were introduced to paragraph writing. In the first year, students receive 4 hours/a week of writing tuition and they have two semesters, a written exam at the end of each semester. By the end of the year, the students expected to have acquired the basic written skills to produce coherent and well-structured paragraphs, moving from sentence writing to paragraph writing. The objective of the first semester is to master different sentence types (simple, compound and complex sentences), content organization and mechanics while in the second semester, and students are required to write different types of paragraphs in different genres i.e. narration, description, exposition and argumentation. The types of tasks used for this purpose range for sentence structure tasks in the first semester to paragraph writing in the second semester. These take the form of classroom tasks and home assignments. In the next section, the research questions are presented.

Research questions

The present study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent does written feedback constitute a dialogue between my students and me?

2. Does my feedback ethos align with my students' views about feedback?

3. Do my feedback practices align with my students' preferred feedback practices?

4. Is this feedback dialogue likely to improve my students' writings?

5. To what extent does this feedback dialogue transform my feedback practices?

6. To what extent does this feedback dialogue transform my relationship with my students?

With this regard, I firmly hold that a closer examination of how I construct feedback and how students perceive teacher feedback can be beneficial for me and my students in a number of ways. First, encouraging dialogue with students offers them the opportunity to actively engage in the writing process, assigning the responsibility for the writing and revising process to the student. Second, creating opportunities for dialogue helps my students to consider writing as a social activity, highlighting the social nature of language use, and raising students' awareness of the reader/audience in their writing process. Third, encouraging students to think about and reflect on their writing in relation to my written feedback allows students to be more aware of their opinions and attitudes towards my written feedback and thus their understanding improves. Fourth, providing students an opportunity to express how my comments make them feel enables the

teacher to be more aware of how these comments effect students not only cognitively but also emotionally .In addition, an investigation of my students' responses to teacher written feedback can enhance my fundamental learning opportunities. Such an examination invites me to review and reflect on my ways of responding and to assess its effectiveness

Research methodology

In order to study the teacher written feedback dialogue, Exploratory Practice was adopted as a methodological base-line as its fits with the aim of this study. Allwright (2000) suggested Exploratory Practice as a new mode of classroom inquiry, which he developed in reaction to Action Research. In the late 1990's, Action Research was widely proposed and was adopted as the main vehicle for this new concept of classroom research (Wallace, 1998; Burns, 1999). However, Allwright realized that it was "thoroughly a misguided enterprise" (Allwright, 2003:118) as it did not in itself bring academic classroom researchers back into direct connection with teaching.

Following, Allwright(2003)I have adopted a critical-reflexive approach to this study, which had two-fold objectives. The first objective is to encourage both teachers and their students to become researchers of their own classrooms at the same time as they went on with their teaching and learning process. The second objective of this approach is to improve the quality of life of the language classroom. It would then be possible to see EP as a form of rethought practitioner research whose aim is to develop understanding of what goes on in the language

classroom, as opposed to focusing teachers' awareness on what they themselves do or think (as in Reflective Practice), or solving problems (as in Action Research), as will be discussed in chapter three.

The ethos that is co-constructed in and through Exploratory Practice work is tightly associated to the notions of collegiality and agency. Teachers and students work collectively and collegially to achieve mutual development.

In this study, dialogue is used as an education tool that can be used to facilitate learners to engage themselves in the process of learning and creation of meaning. Through dialogue, my students and I worked together, and learned how to think together in analyzing a shared classroom misunderstanding or creating new learned knowledge. To ensure the success of dialogue, participants should trust, respect and tolerate each other's' opinions, belief and assumptions. Besides, students are active creators of their knowledge rather than recipients of teachers' knowledge. By virtue of their capacity in information technology, youth cultural media, and political currents like those set in motion by globalization, students are differently knowledgeable about the range of new modes of communication and uses for education than the teachers. They can say a lot about the way they want to be taught and assessed. As long as we exclude students' voices and perspectives from our conversations about teaching and learning and how students need to improve, our efforts towards improving life in the classroom will be helpless.

Consequently, to have a wide and a clear picture of my students' feedback preferences, attitudes and reactions, on the one hand, and to be aware of my

feedback practices and philosophies, two kinds of dialogue were set up, a written and an oral one.

The written dialogue consisted of written exchange as a social enterprise between my students and me through multiple drafts writing, and questionnaire while oral dialogue consisted of interviewing each student about their feedback preferences and reactions. These tools will be explained in the chapter four.

Structure of the study

This study includes two parts: a theoretical and an empirical part. The theoretical part comprises three chapters. As this study examines the written dialogue that takes place between my students and me through my written feedback, I have devoted a chapter to examine the concept of dialogue as a powerful tool to achieve an adequate understanding of my puzzle. The second chapter reviews main theoretical issues related to teacher writing feedback while the third chapter describes Exploratory Practice, the methodological base line of this research. . Regarding the empirical part, it also includes four chapters. Chapter four sketches the research design and procedure based on EP's principles and steps. Chapter five presents the results brought about by the different research tools used in this study while chapter six discusses those results in relation to the research questions. The last chapter makes some pedagogical recommendations in the light of the findings yielded by the present study

PART ONE: THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION

CHAPTER ONE:

CLASSROOM DIALOGUE FOR EMANCIPATORY AND TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING AND TEACHING

Introduction

This study highlights the power of dialogue for achieving an understanding between the sometimes conflicting attitudes and beliefs that both teachers and students carry about teacher written feedback practices. In this respect, this study insists on the fact that it is through dialogue, as a social activity between the teacher's feedback practices and ethos and the students' reactions and attitudes towards that feedback. Through dialogue, students are given the opportunity to question, analyze, and reconsider the received feedback in the light of their feedback preferences, expectations and needs. Dialogue can serve as a catalyst for the teacher to reflect on her feedback practices so that an understanding of her written feedback can best be reached. I have used her/she as an unmarked form to refer to both female and male.

Within this perspective, this study is informed by dialogic pedagogy as conceptualized by three main philosophical approaches to dialogue namely Bakhtin's Dialogism, Freire's Liberatory Pedagogy and Mezirow's Transformative Learning Theory (1991), all emphasizing the merits of an interactive engagement between teacher and students in their shared pursuit of knowledge, understanding, challenging the contemporary educational practices and its location within authoritative discourse. Dialogue, therefore, constitutes a point of opportunity at which these three perspectives -philosophical /political, pedagogical and transformative- come together. From this angle, it is now widely assumed that the aim of teaching with and through dialogue serves democracy, promotes communication across difference, enables the active co-construction of

new knowledge/understandings and enhances transformative leaning. Freire(1970) emphasized the importance of dialogic pedagogy in valuing students as equal participants and facilitating the sharing of power and decision making in the classroom. Mezirow (1991) regarded dialogue as a means of personal/professional transformation and growth based on critical reflection. Last but not least, Bakhtin provided a sound foundation for the construction of a pedagogy that valued both dialogue and collaboration.

This chapter thus examines the concept of dialogue from these three perspectives. However, for the sake of clarity, a brief account of the origins of the dialogue process as well as the ways in which dialogue is currently evolving will be first considered. The concept of dialogue will be then studied from Freire, Bakhtin and Mezirow's perspectives. Finally, the pedagogical implications of dialogue practice will be described. In what follows, the concept of dialogue is defined and its historical development traced.

1.1Defining dialogue

The word dialogue comes from the Greek word "dialogos" whereby "logos" means "the word" and "dia" means "across" signifying " stream of meaning flowing among and through us and between us"(Bohm, 1996). The concept dialogue holds its origin in the Western view of education ever since Socrates. Socratic debate took the form of inquiry between individuals with opposing viewpoints based on asking and answering questions to stimulate critical thinking and illuminate ideas.

However, centuries later, within the changing of institutional and demographic conditions of teaching and learning, and within the changing of educational needs and aims of society, the conceptualization of dialogue needed to be revisited. The term was re-conceptualized from two main perspectives: philosophical/ political and pedagogical. Before discussing the concept of dialogue from these two perspectives, I shall examine some misconceptions often associated with this concept.

1.1.1. Dialogue versus conversation

For most people dialogue is defined as a mere conversation, discussion or debate between two people; however, the concept includes more than that. Given its shared heritage with words such as “percussion” or “concussion,” discussion implies a fragmentation or shattering. Bohm (1996) analyzed the word‘ discussion’ as resolving difficulties by breaking them down. He (1996:7) stated: “It (discussion) really means to break things up. It emphasized the idea of analysis, where there may be many points of view, and where everybody is presenting a different one—analyzing and breaking up”. On the contrary, dialogue aims to gain deeper understandings of each other and out of which a sense of increased harmony, fellowship and creativity can arise meaning through understanding (Arndt et al 2015). Another important point of contrast between dialogue and discussion is that the aim of discussion, as claimed by Bohm (1996) is to win. In dialogue; however, the purpose is not to convince or to win. Rather, in dialogue, a group of people come to explore the individual and collective assumptions, ideas, beliefs, and feelings that subtly control their interactions. It

provides an opportunity to participate in a process that displays communication successes and failures. As Bohm (1996:7) put it: " discussion is almost like a ping-pong game, where people are batting the ideas back and forth and the object of the game is to win or to get points for yourself….In a dialogue, there is no attempt to gain points, or to make your particular view prevails. It is something more of a common participation, in which we are not playing a game against each other, but with each other." This implies that dialogue is really aimed at going into the whole thought process and changing the way the thought process occurs collectively.

1.1.2 Dialogue as a process of thinking together

Unlike other forms of conversation such as debate and discussion, where the relationship of power prevails, dialogue is the only form of conversation where the participants think together to reach a mutual understanding. Thinking together involves listening deeply to other points of view, exploring new ideas and perspectives, probing for points of agreement, and bringing unexamined assumptions into the open. A common understanding that opens an acceptable path to action can emerge(Vella, 2002).

The notion that dialogue is a collective enterprise was first introduced by David Bohm in 1960's, the famed physicist, and extensively documented by Isaacs(1993, 1999). With this respect, Isaacs (1993:25) argued that "dialogue is a discipline of collective thinking and inquiry, a process for transforming the quality of conversation and, in particular the thinking that lies beneath it". He

initially defined dialogue as “a sustained collective inquiry into the processes, assumptions and certainties that compose everyday experience” (ibid).

This implies that thinking together is the result of the dialogic process which starts with the suspension of our underlying assumptions followed by deep inquiry into the assumptions of all the participants. Thinking together reaches a stage that Isaacs terms the “generative dialogue”. This is the phase of the dialogic process when the participants together reach new insights, co-create and eventually solve the problem with a much greater depth than the defensive form of conversation.

Isaac (1999 cited in Banathy and Jenlink (2008)) further argued that dialogue is the creative thinking together that can arise when authentic listening, respect for all participants, safety, peer relationships, suspending judgment, genuine inquiry, courageous speech, and discovering and disclosing assumptions , trustful relationship work together to lead conversations. It is an activity of curiosity, cooperation, creativity, discovery, and learning rather than persuasion, competition, fear, and conflict. While it may not produce consensus, dialogue can produce collective insight and judgment reflecting the thinking of the group as a whole. In the next section, the philosophical underpinnings of dialogue are examined starting with the Bakhtinian’s view

1.2 Philosophical underpinnings

1.2.1 Bakhtinian philosophical orientation on dialogue

The imminent early-twentieth century Russian scholar, Bakhtin offered a philosophical orientation on dialogue embodied in a methodological application

called 'dialogism'. This orientation is perceived as a challenge to contemporary educational practice and its location within authoritative discourse. Inherent within this dialogic philosophy is an emphasis on dialogue as an ongoing social process of meaning making that occurs between participants as subjects. With this regard, Bakhtin developed his theory as an antidote to monologism which he regarded as shutting down of dialogue and altered potential (Feilinezhad,Nesari and Shirkhani, 2015)

For Bakhtin, monologism prevails where absolute truth dominates which must be accepted without questions. This means monologic discourse denies the need for others to interpret rules, ideas, assumptions etc

Bakhtin was particularly sensitized to the threat of monologism because of his experiences in Stalinist Russia, regretting the loss of freedom. His stance was that it is through dialogue that creative opportunity for renewal and regeneration and the ability for individuals to rise against authoritative discourses are possible. The development of his own philosophy through secret dialogue with members of the Bakhtin Circle is testimony to his deep belief that, in spite of restriction, individuals will always seek ways of expressing their opinions through communicative struggle (Ball and Freedman, 2004)

Dialogue in the Bakhtinian view, therefore, goes far beyond the concrete situated verbal exchanges to encompass interaction of all kinds between people and their social, historical and physical contexts. It is through dialogic interactions that language is used and developed; and it is through dialogic interactions that the world is created and experienced with each person engaging in the ever flowing

current of life filled with and driven by other voices, other texts, other ways of being and doing. In other words, a fundamental dialogicality is omnipresent in human life: it is the way we relate to others, model our world and live our lives (McClure and Stewart, 2013).

Bakhtin argued that we use language to express our values, attitudes and ideologies. These ideologies, according to him, include ideas-system and assumptions which are always in people’s language. New understandings about ideologies, he assumed, are engendered as we interact in dialogue. Bakhtin also maintained that we form our ideologies from all our previous interactions as we act, react, and reflect with others.

Bakhtin’s work is very significant in understanding how verbal interactions shape language and thought. For him a word or an utterance is the main unit of meaning and is formed through a speaker's relation to otherness i.e. other people, others' words and others’ expressions. This utterance, he further explained, responds to previous utterances and at the same time expects future responses, agreement, sympathy and objection (Nystrand, 1997). This entails that utterances are therefore fundamentally dialogic as they are formed by multiple voices and contexts. The meaning found in any dialogue is unique to the speaker and listener based on their personal understanding of the world as influenced by their sociocultural background. This implies that dialogue involves more than a mere conversational exchange of ideas, but rather it is a struggle to create meaning which is fundamental to the way we think, react, interpret and understand.

When we interact with others, we do not only borrow words or phrases but also their point of views which would become integral part of our ideological framework. In other words, we shape and reshape our ideas and beliefs as we interact with others.

For Bakhtin dialogue is both external and internal. When we interact with others, we are also experiencing internal struggle to create meaning. In our internal conflicts, we struggle to decide what to do, we deliberate, and we ponder options. Dialogue does not involve, therefore, listening to others' opinions but also to accept confusions in our ideas, to adjust or reject previous patterns of thoughts and eventually embrace new ones.

In the context of L2 classroom, teachers came to their classes with a bulk of assumptions, beliefs which form their internal ideologies. These ideologies, as claimed by Ball and Freedman (2004), are shaped by authoritative discourse that effects a traditional approach to teaching students. Linked to this, Ball and Freedman (2004)maintained that most L2 teachers carry little thought to teaching students who are different from themselves, who have different learning backgrounds etc.

Accordingly, people, who regard themselves as authoritative, from dictators to teachers, hold monologic discourse and Schutz et al (2007) posited that most teachers endeavor to instill monologism in their classroom when they impose the questions they ask and the answers they expect. In this way, teachers impede dialogue by controlling classroom interaction and discussion.

In education emphasis should be placed on the ability of the teacher to allow voices to remain in play and characters to speak for themselves so that dialogue becomes an ongoing and deepening activity that strengthens personality development rather than being seen as an end in itself. The task of educators is, therefore, to explore the tensions between internally persuasive discourses (described as those voices without authority characterized by dialogues of exchange or challenge) and authorial discourses (an embodiment of monologism) interacting through dialogue. The next section examines the concept of dialogue as conceived by Freire.

1.2.2 Freirean liberatory pedagogy

Freire's book Pedagogy of the Oppressed, published in 1970, is both a philosophical and methodological attempt to increase awareness of and fight against oppression and authoritative discourse. This work had profound impact on teaching methods throughout the world, especially in Freire's home country of Brazil. These theories were renamed radical pedagogy and critical pedagogy, but most of the literature references Freire's theories as the impetus for radical forms of pedagogy. In what follows, Freire's core tenets, including: banking versus problem-posing education, dialogue and critical consciousness, democratic teacher-student relationships, and the co-construction of knowledge are discussed.

1.2.2.1 Banking versus problem-posing education

A great part of Freire's ideas is concentrated on the criticism of the traditional educational methods within a broad framework. With this regard, he averred that education always serves the political interests of the oppressors and impedes

others. Freire's charisma lies in his insistence that education can be used for liberation, just as it was for oppression. He argued that through liberatory education, people come to understand social systems of oppression and rise against it.

Freire (1970) asserted that education has become "an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor" (p.29). This implies that teachers who are considered as the most knowledgeable deposit knowledge directly into students' memory bank who are supposed to passively accept it since they are regarded as marginal, ignorant and resource-less. He explained it as follows: "The students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiqués and makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat. This is the "banking" concept of education, in which the scope of action allowed to the students, extends only as far as receiving, filing, and storing the deposits." (p.70)

Through this banking system of education, the teacher-students relationship is narrative whereby the teacher is the narrating subject while the students are the learning objects. Here the teacher's role is to fill students with the content of his narration that is disconnected from reality, while students' role is limited to memorization and repetition. Pedagogy of the Oppressed, Freire (1970:70) summarizes ten practices and attitudes of teachers in the banking system. They are described as follows:

1. The teacher teaches and the students are taught;
2. The teacher knows everything and the students know nothing

3. The teacher thinks and the students are thought about;

4. The teacher talks and the students listen—meekly;

5. The teacher disciplines and the students are discipline

6. The teacher chooses and enforces his choice, and the students comply;

7. The teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the action of the teacher

8. The teacher chooses the program content, and the student (who were not consulted) adapt to it;

9. The teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his or her own professional authority, which she and he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students;

10. The teacher is the Subject of the learning process, while the pupils are mere objects.

Freire, therefore, warned against this system of education which, as shown above, thwart students' development of "critical awareness and inhibits their capacity of "being transformers of the world" (1970:73). He further argued that the purpose of the 'banking education' model is to save the interests of the dominant group i.e.to condition students to accept the cultural, social, political status quo of the dominant culture.

However Freire suggested that the chief drive of education is to develop the social awareness and critical thinking skills of people. He considered education as a process of assistance to raising one's awareness. Believing that this purpose can

be achieved through problem posing education, Freire conceived it as an alternative to the banking model education.

Freire, therefore, argued for the total rejection of the banking system and suggested instead "the problem –posing education" which, in contrast, emphasizes the "essence of consciousness" and "teacher-students reconciliation" (Freire, 1970:79). The central concept in the educational model put forward by Freire is dialogue. Thus, he stated that "problem-posing education regards dialogue as indispensable to the act of cognition which unveils reality" (Freire 1970:83). He, moreover, emphasized that dialogue is not simply an educational technique, but a style of confrontation that is peculiar to humans and must be used by all humans. According to him, for the application of the problem posing education, it is necessary to discard the assumptions that teachers hold absolute knowledge and should be ready for a dialogue-based relation and thus for listening.

Freire conceived the problem-posing model as a libertarian educational work. According to him (1970) liberty involves people's thinking and actions which aim to transform the world in which they live.

Problem-posing education aims to foster student's skills of thinking critically or contemplating on the object of knowledge. When this aim is achieved, the student will start acquiring knowledge through a feeling of epistemological curiosity. It is not possible to acquire systematical knowledge without curiosity. In this respect, curiosity is an instrument of acquiring knowledge. Freire summarizes the process of acquiring knowledge as follows: "Knowledge emerges only through invention and re-invention, through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry

human beings pursue in the world, with the world, and with each other." (Freire, 1970: 73).

1.2.2.2 Dialogue and critical consciousness- raising

As discussed above, dialogue is at the heart of problem-posing education. Freire (1970:92) wrote that "without dialogue there is no communication, and without communication there can be no true education". He asserted that dialogical encounters could only lead to critical consciousness, that is, an awareness of the necessity to constantly unveil appearances designed to protect social, political and economic injustice which, he said serve as a foundation for action toward egalitarianism and democracy. He stated : "in problem-posing education, people develop their power to perceive critically the way they exist in the world with which and in which they find themselves; they come to see the world not as a static reality, but as a reality in process, in transformation." (op.cit p,83)

Freire argued critical consciousness rising requires questioning the status quo rather than taking it for granted. He encouraged students to constantly think critically about, analyze, and interpret their realities and that claimed "whereas banking education anesthetizes and inhibits creative power, problem-posing education involves a constant unveiling of reality. The former attempts to maintain the submersion of consciousness; the latter strives for the emergence of consciousness and critical intervention in reality" (Freire 1970:81)

1.2.2.3 Teacher-student democratic relationships

The strongest and most challenging revolutionary claims made by Freire concern teacher-students relationship in the banking system. Indeed, Freire vehemently argued that the social relationship between the teacher and the student, in the banking system, is not one of total equality; they are not on an equal footing. The teacher is still in a social position of authority where students are reduced to the state of slaves.

Most L2 classroom interactions are shaped by teacher's decisions, teacher's topic selection, and teacher's directing turn-taking in the classroom where students' interactions are limited to brief answers to teacher's questions (Wells and Arauz (2006) ; Hall, 2011). One plausible reason for this dominance is related to the fact that it corresponds to the teacher's and learners' social expectations of what a classroom should be, ensuring that the teacher controls the floor (Walsh, 2012)

This, incontestably, raises issues which are not merely pedagogic but also concern the distinction of power between participants of interaction in the language classroom and education more generally. These issues revolve around the relationship between teacher and students and control within the language classroom.

This kind of relationship widens the gap between teachers' intentions and student's interpretations. Relevant here is Allwright and Hanks's(2009:65) statement that "control can certainly make life of the controllers easier, but creates problems for the controlled and for the health of the system as a whole" .

The radical pedagogical concept, that Freire suggested, goes beyond the classroom boundaries to bring about significant change in the society as a whole. For Freire, therefore, education is a process of constant dialogue that allows people to acquire shared knowledge they can use to change society. The role of the teacher includes asking questions that help students recognize problems facing their community (problem posing), working with students to discover ideas or create symbols (representations) that explain their life experiences (codification), and encouraging analysis of prior experiences and of society as the basis for new academic understanding and social action. This dialogue maximizes student freedom by insuring that all students have an opportunity to participate and express their views, attitudes and opinions (Freire, 1970).As Freire (1970) put it education must start with reconciling the poles of the contradiction so that both are simultaneously teachers and students. Libertarian, progressive education adopt democratic learning environment where students may interact openly with each other and with the teacher as well. Such Democratic classroom is characterized by tolerance, cooperation, and participation where students acquire new knowledge through critical investigation, reflection and cooperation (Ahmad et al, 2014).

Therefore, it goes without saying that Freire revolutionized the teacher-student relationship. He stated that “through dialogue, the teacher of the students and the students of the teacher cease to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with students-teacher(…) the teacher is no longer merely the one who teaches, but one who is himself taught in dialogue with the students, who in their turn while being taught also teach” (1970:80).

Working towards social justice, building a caring apprenticeship style relationship between the teacher and the student, encouraging students to become self-reflective, and voicing their views and opinions are all consistent with the Islamic pedagogy (Memon and Ahmed, 2006; Miliani, 2012). However, because of the lack of fluid articulation of Islamic pedagogy, this latter is often misunderstood. Most Algerian university teachers, like their counterparts in Muslim countries, whose teaching methodologies are influenced to a large extent by their Islamic background, believe that this latter is based on memorization, knowledge transmission (Sabrin, 2010) and consider the teacher as the most knowledgeable and unchallengeable (Miliani 2012). However, the ways in which Quran was passed on from generation to generation reveal some similarities with western educational practices. With reference to the Quran and Sunnah, Sabrin (2010) and Miliani (2012) argued that Islamic pedagogy emphasizes teaching in a dialectical manner, provides students with in-depth knowledge, encourages their critical thinking and fosters a partnership relationship between the teacher and the student.

There is, therefore, an urgent need to redefine and reconsider the essence and purpose of Islamic pedagogy so that the practices it advocates can be explicitly interpreted and understood(Memon and Ahmed, 2006;Miliani, 2012).Educators thus need to seek to revisit the traditional teacher-student hierarchy and embrace a caring apprenticeship relationship between the teacher and the student. The teacher needs to be humble enough to be able to understand his position and its inherent power, and still open enough to be able to listen her student's voice. The

teacher must not abuse her position of authority to oppress the learner. To achieve this, Freire (1970:75) insisted that teachers "must be partners of the students in their relations with them."Further, Freire (1970:91)wrote that problem-posing education "cannot exist, however, in the absence of a profound love for the world and its people(…) Founding itself upon love, humility, and faith, dialogue becomes a horizontal relationship of which mutual trust between the dialoguers is a logical consequence".

Nevertheless, Freire added that the instructor and student, though sharing democratic social relations of education, are not on an equal footing. In fact, Freire's early call for a "horizontal" relationship received an overwhelming amount of debate over the teacher's role in a democratic classroom. In his later writings, Freire (1994) reviewed his notion of directivity and the teacher-student relationship. He explained: "Dialogue between teachers and students does not place them on the same footing professionally, but it does mark the democratic position between them" (Freire, 1994: 116-117).

The authority, which the educator enjoys, must not be allowed to degenerate into authoritarianism; teachers must recognize that "their fundamental objective is to fight alongside the people for the recovery of the people's stolen humanity", not to "win the people over" to their side (Freire, 1970: 95).

1.2.2.4 Dialogue and the co-construction of knowledge

In his writings, Freire insisted considerably on the process of knowledge construction and knowledge transmission. According to Freire, new knowledge is produced in the classroom from the interaction between students' and teachers' knowledge. "Knowledge," according to Freire (1970:94), "emerges only through invention and re-invention, through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopefully inquiry men pursue in the world, with the world, and with each other"

While traditional models of education conceive the transmission of knowledge from the knowledgeable to the know nothings. Subject to object in which an all-knowing teacher deposits knowledge into passive students, Freire consistently advocated pedagogies, curricula, and learning based in the students' 'reality.' He asserted, "The starting point for organizing the program content of education or political action must be the present, existential, concrete situation, reflecting the aspirations of the people" (op.cit p.84)

This idea has become a fundamental principle in critical pedagogy, of progressive education more generally. Education, accordingly, should be relevant, and should emanate from the experiences and interests of students.

Fundamentally, Freire recommended that all learning begin from students' experiential knowledge. He insisted that knowledge should be constructed conjointly between the teacher and the student. The teacher is no longer regarded as the most knowledgeable in that as the student learns from the teacher, the

teacher also learns from the student. In this respect, Freire (1970:80) he affirmed: “The teacher is no longer merely the-one-who-teaches, but one who is himself taught in dialogue with the students, who in turn while being taught also teach.” In this way, the problem-posing teachers continually refine their reflections with their students.

As far as the students are concerned, Freire noted that they are “no longer docile listeners” but “critical and co-investigators in dialogue with the teacher” (Freire 1970:81). In other words, in the problem solving concept, instead of imposing her ideas to students, the teacher presents the material to the students for their consideration, and re-considers her previous considerations as the students utter their own.

Education thus becomes a collective activity, a dialogue between participants rather than a 'top-down' one-way lecture from one person for the benefit of the other. In saying, this Freire did not intend to create conditions where learners' knowledge, feelings and understanding should go unchallenged or for the teacher to step back as a mere facilitator. Even though he is in a position of power and authority, he should not abuse that power and influence. Instead, the teacher should be humble enough and seek to empower the students, to liberate them and help them achieve their potential. Teacher-students and students-teacher are continually reflecting on themselves and the world, establishing "an authentic form of thought and action"(1970:65).

Freire’s revolutionary ideas have influenced the development of an innovative approach to teaching/learning known as Transformative Learning Theory as a powerful image of understanding adults learning. Indeed, like Freire’s emancipatory pedagogy, dialogue, critical reflection and self-reflection constitute the essence of this theory. The coming section provides a brief account of the main aims, processes and concepts underpinning this innovative theory.

1.2.3 Transformative Learning Theory

The concept transformative learning emerged in the 1970’s within the field of adult learning theory as a powerful conceptual framework for understanding of how adults learn. It was originally based on a research study of women returning to college after a long hiatus (Mezirow,2012). At that time, the theory was known as “perspective transformation”, and it was a stage-based, largely rational description of how these women experienced a transition in their lives. The stages began with the disorienting experience of going back to school, and included steps related to self-examination, critical reflection, feelings of alienation, relating to others sharing the same experience, exploring options, building self-confidence, acquiring new knowledge and skills, and reintegrating into society with revised perspectives.

However, Mezirow was criticized immediately, and continually during the decades that followed, about being “too rational” and “ignoring context.” It was almost twenty years later, he (1991) introduced transformative learning as a comprehensive theory of adult learning. Central to this theory is the process of

making meaning from our experiences through reflection, and critical self-reflection (Dirkx ,1998; Apte, 2009; Baumgartner, 2012).

Transformative learning theory was presented in (1990) and (1991) based on constructivist assumptions—where meaning is constructed by individuals in social contexts and is validated through communication and rooted in humanistic and Critical Social Theory.

Humanistic theory presupposes that humans are free and autonomous beings. The emphasis is on the self; the self has the potential for growth, development, and self-actualization, which, in turn contributes to the good of humanity in general. Constructivism describes learning as a process of creating meaning from experience; however, there are a variety of strands that make up this broad perspective, including a distinction between individual construction of meaning and social construction of meaning. The former focuses on learners developing perspectives that help them adapt to and understand experience; the latter is based on dialogue from which people learn the culturally shared ways of understanding the world.

The transformative process is shaped and bounded by a frame of reference. Mezirow (2012) defined frame of reference as meaning perspective- structures of assumptions and expectations that frame an individual's tacit points of view and influence their thinking, beliefs, and actions. This latter is composed of two dimensions: a habit of mind and a resulting point of view. Habits of mind are the broad, general, orienting perspectives that we use to interpret experience, which

usually operate below our level of awareness as they are accepted as truth unless considered through critical self-reflection. Mezirow (2012) identified six varieties of habits of mind: epistemic habits of mind are related to learning styles and sensory preferences; sociolinguistic perspectives involve cultural, social norms, customs and ideologies ; psychological perspectives include our self-concept, personality, emotional responses, and personal images and dreams; moral-ethical habits of mind incorporate our conscience and morality; philosophical habits of mind are based on religious doctrine or world view; and aesthetic habits of mind comprise our tastes and standards about beauty.

Each of the six perspectives is expressed as points of view, and each point of view encompasses clusters of meaning schemes; where a meaning scheme comprises knowledge, beliefs, value judgments, and feelings that constitute interpretations of experience which influence and shape a particular behavior orview. It is the revision of a frame of reference in concert with reflection on experience that is addressed by the theory of perspective transformation (Taylor, 2008; Cranton and Taylor and associates, 2012; Baumgartner, 2012; Khabanyane and Ramabenyane , 2014)

Meaning perspectives are often acquired unquestionably in the course of childhood through socialization and acculturation. These meaning perspectives provide us with an explanation of the happenings in our daily lives but at the same time they are a reflection of our cultural and psychological assumptions. When we encounter a new experience, our meaning perspectives act as a filter through which each new experience is interpreted and given meaning. As the new

experience is assimilated into these structures, it either reinforces the perspective or gradually widens its boundaries. However, when a radically different and incongruent experience cannot be assimilated into the meaning perspective, it is either rejected or the meaning perspective is transformed to accommodate the new experience. A transformed meaning perspective is the development of a new meaning structure (Mezirow, 2012). The next section examines the process of learning in transformative learning theory.

1.2.3.1 Learning in Transformative Learning Theory

Mezirow (2012) defined learning as the process of using a prior interpretation to construe a new or a revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience in order to guide future action. In addition, he identified four ways to learn. The first way is by elaborating on existing frames of reference. This is the most common sort of learning. It involves expanding on, complementing, and revising present systems of knowledge, where new information fits in with what we already believe. The second way is by learning new frames of reference. This might be done by coming across new ideas or perspectives, which can be added to existing frames of reference without disturbing underlying premises. The third way is by transforming points of view. This is done by considering a range of different points of view, 'trying them on' and changing beliefs or attitudes about a certain issue. These first three ways of learning happen at the level of the meaning schemes, or points of view. The fourth way in which learning occurs is through transforming a habit of mind. This is deeper learning and requires a questioning or challenging of underlying assumptions and premises on which our beliefs are

based, which causes a shift in the codes that makes up a meaning perspective and this will consequently disturb the related points of view (Mezirow, 2012). For transformation to occur we must learn to be open to other points of view, and go back and reconstruct what we know and how we know it:

"Transformation refers to a movement through time of reformulating reified structures of meaning by reconstructing dominant narratives(...)We transform frames of reference – our own and those of others – by becoming critically reflective of their assumptions and aware of their context – the source, nature, and consequences of taken-for-granted beliefs." (Mezirow, 2012:84)

In the educational realm, teachers often are required to modify their teaching to meets their students' expectations and needs or to parallel institutional beliefs. According to Hatherley (2011) teachers can go through three different levels of transformation learning (1) they can solely transform their points of view whilst not transforming their habits of mind nor modifying or creating new frames of reference; (2) they can transform their points of view and habits of mind, but not their frames of reference; and lastly, (3) they can refine or elaborate, or learn new frames of reference and thus engage in deep perspective transformation.

Hatherley (2011) clarified the often unclear distinction between learning through transforming one's point of view and not one's habit of mind and, learning through transforming one's point of view and one's habit of mind through the following example. If a teacher adopts a new teaching style or technology, but does not adopt the underlying philosophical premises of the new

teaching style or technology then this would be only a transformation of a point of view. However, if a teacher adopts a new teaching style or technology and the philosophical underlying premises then learning occurs through transforming one's habits of mind, which is deeper learning than just a transformation of a point of view. It is important to note that people can change their points of view by trying on another's point of view; however, one cannot try on someone else's habit of mind .Many of our frame of references can be distorted or incomplete since they are all, or almost all based on unreflective personal or cultural assimilation and the possibility of distorting these assumptions and premises makes reflection and critical discourse essential for validation of expressed ideas.

1.2.3.2 Establishing favorable conditions for fostering transformative learning

Most of the research on transformative learning focuses on the practice of fostering transformative learning and highlights Mezirow's major assumptions regarding creating a safe and an inclusive learning environment such as focusing on individual learner's needs, building on life experiences, creating a safe relationship with the learners (Snyder and Taylor ,2012)

Indeed, as clearly explained by Johnson and Santalucia (2010) not all teachers and students are willing and predisposed to engage in transformative learning. They may not want to challenge and reflect on their beliefs and consider alternative points of view. Therefore, a safe learning environment needs to be created to facilitate peoples' willingness to engage in transformative learning.

Like Freire, Mezirow emphasized the centrality of collaboration between teachers and students in evaluating the world in a reflexive manner. He believed that the educator's own philosophy and teaching approach can facilitate reflective thinking and meaningful change by reducing the polarity between the roles of the student and the educator and argued that the educator moves from being an expert, a controller to a co-learner, challenger, and facilitator. Other scholars (Guthrie,2004; Johnson and Santalucia ,2010; Hatherley,2011, McClure and Stewart ,2013)share the same view.

The journey of adapting and adopting transformative learning theory as a teaching practice as articulated by Taylor (2008) involves two inherent challenges for the educators who are intrigued by the possible advantages of the transformative learning process for their students. The first challenge is to integrate transformative theory into practice, and this involves moving away from a classroom environment that was grounded in instrumental learning characterized by the transmissionary mode of instruction, with the teachers telling students what they should learn a pedagogy that fosters reflection, dialogue, and action. The second challenge is to facilitate an environment where the student feels engaged in a more authentic relationship. Classroom authentic relationships are defined by the expectation of mutual respect and are developed by demonstrating a sense of care for learners and an ethic of care in the classroom.

Critical reflection, dialogue and teacher narrative inquiry are the main driving forces of transformative learning. At the core of the cognitive perspective of transformation, lies the process of critical reflection on assumptions and

beliefs.This critical reflection can be conducted through an individual or emancipatory approach and involves dialogue, narrative inquiry, and relationships with others.

1.2.3.3 Critical reflection: the core of transformative learning theory

Fundamental to Mezirow' transformative learning theory is the process of constructing meaning from one's experiences through critical reflection. As explained by Mezirow and Taylor (2009) critical reflection refers to the ability of questioning the truthfulness of deeply held beliefs based on pre-existing experiences. It is stimulated in reaction to awareness of conflicting ideas, feelings, actions which lead to transformation and change. During the process of transformative learning taken-for-granted frames of reference are transformed to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, and emotionally capable of change and reflection. Transformation theory focuses on how individuals learn to negotiate and act on our own purposes, beliefs, values, feelings and meanings to have larger control over our lives as socially responsible, clear-thinking decision makers; rather than accepting the purposes, values, feelings and meanings we have assimilated from others uncritically(Mezirow ,2012).

Mezirow (2012) identified three types of reflection: content reflection, process reflection and premise reflection. Content reflection considers the actual experience itself and creates learning within meaning schemes. Process reflection implies thinking about ways to deal with the experience through problem solving and creates learning new meaning schemes, and premise reflection aims to

examine socially constructed taken-for-granted assumptions and beliefs about the experience of the problem and why one comes to understand it in a particular way.

Moreover, he conceptualized critical reflection as a dichotomy between objective and subjective critical reflection on and of assumptions .Accordingly, objective critical reflection is usually task orientated, whereby one critically reflects on the validity of concepts, beliefs and actions on what happened and examines the assumptions that were comprised in how something happened. Subjective critical reflection, in contrast, is self-reflecting and involves critiquing one's assumptions embedded in taken-for-granted culturally system.

Furthermore, according to Brookfield (1995) critical reflection focuses on three interrelated processes : (1) the process by which adults question and then replace or reframe an assumption that up to that point has been uncritically accepted as representing commonsense wisdom (2) the process through which adults take alternative perspectives on previously taken-for-granted ideas, actions, forms of reasoning and ideologies (3)the process by which adults come to recognize the hegemonic aspects of dominant cultural values.

Indeed, as said earlier, transformative learning theory is based on the premise that the majority of individuals are not conscious of the origin of the meaningful structures that make up their worldview. Transformation occurs when these taken-for-granted assumptions are challenged. In this regard, Mezirow (2012) outlined three steps in transformative learning: (1) becoming critically aware of

assumptions and limitations; (2) changing habits of mind to be more inclusive (3) acting upon these new understandings. In other words, Mezirow explained that transformation occurs when individuals realize that their assumptions have constrained their understanding of the world and begin to experience a deep structural shift in the basic premises of thought, feelings, and actions.

The practice of transformative learning focuses on changing the ways in which students and teachers learn by engaging themselves in a conscious process of discovering the meaning of knowledge; the goal is to create more critically reflective and autonomous thinkers. Students are challenged and encouraged to evaluate the concepts and premises of their learning and not accept knowledge as a fact or truth without critical self-reflection on how what is being learned is meaningful for them. As articulated by Brookfield (1995) the biggest challenge facing teachers is the ability of become a reflective educator, stepping outside oneself. He vehemently argued that critical reflection is critical for “teachers’ survival”. He asserted that as long as teachers ignore their motives and intentions, misread how other perceive their actions, and hold uncritical stance towards their practices, teaching prompts pessimism, guilt and lethargy. Consequently, self-reflection is the foundation of reflective teaching. Teachers may reflect on their previous teaching/learning experiences andstudent evaluations, assessment in order to become aware of their assumptions and reveal aspects of their pedagogy that may need adjustment or strengthening.

In sum, to become critically reflective, teachers must review and reconsider his/her teaching through the following critical reflective lenses: (a)

autobiographies as learners and educators; (b) students' eyes; (c) colleagues' experiences; and (d) theoretical literature. Critical self-reflection of teaching practice and espousal of transformative learning theory underpins that teachers and learners bring to the classroom a wealth of lived experience, and a readiness to challenge their world view. Critically reflective teachers must therefore adhere to the process of transformational learning. This involves a commitment to questioning assumptions, beliefs, and values and being critically reflective of one's teaching/learning philosophy and practices (Dirkx, 1998; Guthrie, 2004;Hatherley, 2011; Taylor and Cranton, 2012; Brown, 2013).

A large number of educators (Clark and Rossiter, 2008,Clandinin and Huber, 2010; Hendry, 2010; Chan, 2012) adhered to these principles and argued that one of the key elements to success in teacher education is to make teaching a site for inquiry. They suggested narrative inquiry method, as a new way of knowing in teaching and learning, because of its nature of creating space for critical thinking and self-reflection which may result in substantial change and personal transformation that enables teachers to become active in constructing and reconstructing knowledge for their future practices. In the following section, the transformative power of narrative in teacher education is highlighted.

1.2.3.4Narrative as a transformative power in teacher education

Narrative inquiry has been regarded as a window into the process of transformative learning. It is an effective method for stimulating critical and reflective thinking. It is through the process of inquiry that teachers learn to be active agents in their own teaching and transform what is to be learned through the screen of their own experiences and current understandings (Clark and Rossiter, 2008;Clandinin and Huber, 2010; Hendry, 2010; Chan 2012). The idea of using narrative in teacher education was advocated by Connelly and Clandinin (2000). For them, narrative is the medium for reflection on personal practical knowledge and the objects of educational research. Narrative is more than telling and reading stories, but it serves particularly to depict theoften messy, uncertain, and unpredictable difficulties of teachers' work and classroom practices. In a nutshell, narrative is an approach to teacher education that helps teachers to construct knowledge for professional practices.

As Phillion (2005:6) cited in Chan (2012) noted, "a narrative approach to teacher education is based on the idea that we make meaning through reflection. Reflection leads to understanding, which can lead to action; in the case of teachers, reflection and understanding can be transformed into renewed and revitalized practice"

However, as explained by Golombek and Johnson (2011), for more than a century, teacher education has been characterized by the knowledge transmission model which is based on the notion that knowledge about teaching and learning is

transmitted to teachers by educational researchers. Though regarded as outsiders to classroom life, these researchers created generalized knowledge about what good teaching is and what good teachers should do and bestowed it on teachers. Accordingly, teachers were considered as objects of study rather than as professionals or agents of change. Teachers have been marginalized in that they were told what they should know and how they should use that knowledge.

In the early 1980s, critics of the knowledge transmission model (Knoblauch and Brannon, 1988; Connelly and Clandinin, 2000) argued that such a view of knowledge is decontextualized and ineffective as ethnographic and second-order investigations of teachers practicing in authentic classrooms have revealed teachers as constructing their own explanations of teaching and thus highlighted the fundamentally social nature of teaching and learning. Such views of knowledge implied that the processes of learning/teaching are socially negotiated and constructed through experiences and professional development came to be seen as a process of reshaping teachers' actual knowledge, beliefs, and practices rather than simply imposing new theories, methods, or materials on them (ibid).

Therefore, from that perspective it became necessary to gather descriptive accounts of how teachers come to know their knowledge, how they use that knowledge within the contexts where they teach, and how they make sense of and reconfigure their classroom practices in and over time. In line with these ideas is the research carried out by Connelly and Clandinin (2000). For them narrative inquiry has the potential to create a new sense of meaning and significance for

teachers' experiences and thus brings new meaning and significance to the work of teachers within their own professional landscapes.

Classroom dilemmas often serve as catalysts for inquiry. When teachers reflect on, describe, and analyze their classroom teaching practices, they confront their emotions, their moral beliefs, and the consequences of these practices on the students they teach. To make an experience educative, Golombek and Johnson (2011) argued that teachers should approach narrative inquiry as a set of attitudes not as prescriptive skills. These set of attitudes comprise open-mindedness (seeking alternatives), responsibility (recognizing consequences), and wholeheartedness (continual self-examination). This means that when teachers inquire into their teaching experience, they question their own assumptions as they unveil who they are, what they know and believe, and why they teach as they do. They realize the impact of their beliefs, knowledge, and experiences on what and how they teach. They recognize who their students are, what their students know, and what their students need to know. Through narrative inquiry, teachers question the assimilated and taken-for-granted definitions of what is and is not possible within their teaching contexts, whether their practices work ,for whom, in what ways, and why (Clandinin and Huber, 2010;Chan ,2012).

In sum through narrative, teachers frame and reframe the issues and problems which puzzle them in their professional worlds. As they engage in narrative inquiry, they become theorizers in their own right, and as theorizers, they look less for certain answers and more to rethink what they thought they already knew. Narrative inquiry, therefore, becomes a tool through which teachers actualize their

ways of knowing and growing that nourish and sustain their professional development throughout their careers. It is an exploration that is conducted by teachers through their own experiences and conveyed in their own language. Such inquiry is driven by teachers' inner desire to understand their teaching experiences and practices, to reconcile what is known with that which is implicit, to confirm and affirm, and to construct and reconstruct understandings of themselves as teachers and of their own teaching practices. What teachers decide to inquire about arises from their personalities, their emotions, their ethics, their contexts, and their overwhelming concern for their students (Hendry, 2010;Golombek and Johnson, 2011).

According to Golombek and Johnson (2011) teachers who inquire into their own experiences do not look for simple answers or quick solutions but theorize, as they step back from the hermeneutical processes in which they are usually involved, about their work. This process of stepping back, description, reflection, and analysis not only allows teachers to organize, articulate, and communicate what they know and believe about teaching but also clarify the tensions they experience in their teaching.

Teachers' stories , embodied in their narratives, not only reveal the knowledge, ideas, perspectives, understandings, and experiences that guide their teaching and the ways in which they make sense of and reconfigure their work ,but also they enable them to reflect on the struggles, tensions, and rewards of their lives as teachers and raise their consciousness of their perspectives, understandings, and experiences that guide their conceptions of teaching and their practice and that

simultaneously change how they make sense of new experiences. Ultimately, narrative inquiry enables teachers not only to make sense of their professional worlds but also to make significant and worthwhile change within themselves and in their teaching practices.

Therefore, as a powerful transformative tool, I engaged in a narrative inquiry to question, reinterpret and understand my inherent assumptions and beliefs underlying my written feedback practices and ethos. This allowed me to know the strengths and weaknesses of my written feedback practices and whether these latters matched with my students' feedback expectations and needs.

In addition to narrative inquiry, transformative learning theory advocate teachers to critically reflecting on or revising their basic, taken-for-granted teaching assumptions, practices and experiences through the process of dialogue. While narrative inquiry allows teachers to construct and reconstruct their understandings of themselves as teachers and of their own practices, dialogue allows them to assess the usefulness and appropriateness of those assumptions in their situated classroom contexts. Moreover, while narrative inquiry is a kind of conversation with the self, dialogue involves the participation of others, particularly students and the examination of alternative perspectives. Through the process of dialogue, the teacher's traditional role of teacher as being the only source of knowledge ceases where both the teacher and the student are partners in their reciprocal learning. The next section examines the concept of dialogue in the transformative learning pedagogy.

1.2.3.5 Dialogue as a means of transformation

Building on critical reflection hinges in engagement in the dialogue with the self and others .It is within the arena of dialogue that critical reflection plays out. While Freire (1970) conceived dialogue in connection with action and as a means of achieving social change, Mezirow (1991) conceived it as a means of personal transformation driven by critical reflection. Nevertheless both scholars agreed that it is through the practice of critical reflection, problem-posing, and dialogue that transformative learning is fostered (Dirkx 1998). Through dialogue, reflection and problem solving, learners develop conscious awareness of the ways in which structures within the society influence the way they think about themselves and about the world. Freire argued that praxis- moving back and forth in a critical way between reflecting and acting on the world- should foster freedom among learners by allowing them to reflect on the world and eventually change it. Likewise, Mezirow's concept of critical reflection involves analysis of a problem, discourse and reflective action. Common to both approaches is the adults becoming aware of their assumptions and beliefs and then transforming them into new perspectives of levels of consciousness (Lennard, 2010) .This implies that dialogue in transformative learning is liberating at personal and social level.

From Mezirow's perspective, the transformative learning process involves a special dialogue, that he called "critical reflective discourse" (Guthrie 2004, Gallegos and Wasserman, 2012). It is the catalyst through which transformation is developed and promoted. According to Mezirow, dialogue or the rational discourse is a means for testing the comprehensibility, truthfulness,

appropriateness or authenticity of one's assumptions Proponents of transformative learning theory considered dialogue as the medium in which critical reflection comes into action, where experiences are reflected on, assumptions are questioned and habit of mind transformed (Mezirow and Taylor 2009).

Dialogue requires respectful listening and openness to new perspectives. As Brookfield (2000:146cited in Brown 2013) rightly remarked "we need others to serve as critical mirrors who highlight our assumptions for us and reflect them back to us in unfamiliar, surprising, and disturbing ways." The aim of this dialogue is not to reach a shared understanding in the sense of consensus but rather a conscious understanding of one's own prejudices as well as how others construct their frames of reference. Dialogue, therefore, involves the purposeful evaluation of current knowledge, the examination of alternative perspectives, and the critical inquiry of assumptions (Guthrie, 2004; Brown, 2013). In the next section, the pedagogical role of dialogue is discussed.

1.3 Dialogue as a social and pedagogical practice: Understanding L2 classrooms

Drawing on the above discussion, it seems that a dialogic approach to language teaching and learning is of outmost importance as it gives learners opportunity to voice their needs, expectations and preferences, promotes reflective learning, and raise students' social consciousness.

It is evident that both Freire's challenging and revolutionary theory and Bakhtin's theory of dialogism influenced extensively the field of education. In fact, as discussed above, Freire's educational theory underpins four main educational principles which are: meaning centered-education, student-centered system of learning, reconstruction of one's views, and perspectives and partnerships relationship between teacher and students.

This implies that instead of filling students with deposits by the teacher, education becomes a process of dialogue in which teachers and students engage in mutual respectful learning and whereby students are given opportunities not only to reflect critically on their own perceptions, beliefs and opinions but also to challenge those of the teacher. In other words, creating a democratic space where everyone has an equal voice.

Many educationalists (Nystrand , 1997; Hall, 2000, Hirshy, 2002; Hall 2011) recognized the complex and diverse character of the language classroom. Classrooms are now widely recognized as social environments based on social relationships and social interactions whereby social expectations, institutional policies and governmental agencies beyond the classroom and the classroom relationships between teacher and students exercise a great impact on classroom practices and behaviors.

Teachers can no longer assume that their students are simply students, that they are tabula rasa, but rather they are like them, complex human beings who bring with them to the classroom their own personalities, beliefs, attitudes..etc and these influence the way they interact with teacher's teaching practices and philosophies.

Inevitably, these individual student attributes raise serious problems to the teacher as they mediate how students apprehend L2 classrooms and can ultimately lead to mismatch between learners' and teachers' perspective about classroom interaction and management which eventually generate conflicts, tensions and misunderstandings. Therefore, as discussed earlier, dialogue can be a good pedagogical practice which regards the teacher and her students are partners through which both discover their respective hidden values and ideas and explore how these latters affect their behaviors to ultimately construct new adequate ways of working and interacting in class.

Freire (1970) asserted that it is only through dialogue, reflection and intervention that true learning can be achieved in the classroom. From this perspective thus before exploring dialogue as a pedagogical practice, the social forces that are inherent in a language classroom need to be examined.

In this regard, Burden and William (1997) stated for most people education is carried out by a teacher who stands in front of a class and transmits information to learners who are willing and able to absorb it. This view, however, ignores the complexity of the learning process, the teacher' intentions and actions, the individual personalities of the learners, their culture and background, and the learning environment.

There is something fundamentally amiss about the way classroom interaction and management is run as the voice of learners about teaching and learning is silenced. It is, therefore, intriguing to see that while the social dynamics of the language classroom is fully acknowledged (Allwright, 1999) and despite the

theoretical dominance of communicative language teaching, task-based approach and learner-centeredness, ELT is still a system that mostly emphasizes the transmission of knowledge, and does not take into account the possibility of the learning/teaching process to emancipate (Freire, 1970; Bohm, 1996). Indeed, due to their "special status", teachers still orchestrate and control classroom interaction and communication. As clearly explained by Hall (2011), the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) exchange, whereby teacher leads the interaction in initiating the exchange and expects a response from the student, is the most frequently used mode of interaction in L2 classroom.

This approach becomes increasingly incompatible with the advent of the 21st century as the media, through which teachers teach, learn, and work become more complex and the students we teach are more and more diverse. Educators and educational researchers must thus seriously question the assumption that teachers know more than their learners about how they learn or what they need to learn and seriously challenges the traditional teacher-students relationship in and on education. It is high time teachers allowed students to participate both in the criticism of their teachers practices, methodologies and philosophies and in the reform of education in general.

With this respect, over the last decades some educators and educational researchers (Freire, 1970; Bhom, 1996; Nystrand ,1997;Cook- Sather, 2002; Wells and Arauz, 2006) asserted that in order to succeed in the process of teaching/ learning , trustful teacher-students relationships and communication are seen as key aspects, with dialogue as integral to the process. Regarding dialogue

as a social activity that promotes teacher-students relationship leads us to consider the social character of the language classroom.

In addition to the pedagogical role of the language classroom, Allwright and Bailey (1991); Hirschy (2002); Hall (2011) highlight the social complexity and density of the l2 language classroom, the complexity of the interactions within the classroom and the connection between the classroom and the wider social context.

This implies that a classroom is not only pedagogic but also a social encounter based on social relationships and social interactions between the teacher and students and the wider social context where both teacher and learners come to class with their own personal agendas, histories, different social backgrounds, different life experiences, different assumptions about ethical issues, interpersonal interactions, organizational processes, and the role of organizations in society mingled with institutional policies, societal goals and expectations (Hall ,2011).

To convey the socially complex and diverse nature of the language classroom, Breen (2001) metaphorically compared the language classroom to 'coral gardens' whereby each individual language classroom is unique. Each classroom, accordingly, develops its own specific social and pedagogic rules and cultures about its own ways of working and learning (Hall, 2011).

These social and pedagogic actions and practices are the outcomes of teacher's and learners' values. These values interact with each other within the classroom as both teacher and learner attempt to negotiate their classroom behaviors to reach a social harmony. Teacher's values comprise all aspect of ELT; this may, for

example, include language testing, language curriculum design, teacher written feedback.

Teachers are not the only source of values; learners also carry values and beliefs, which affect their life. As teachers, learners hold beliefs about themselves, the target language, language learning and teaching. However, learners' beliefs may lead to incompatibility with teacher's beliefs of what is desirable in the L2 classroom (Conrad and Goldstein, 1999).

This entails that the biggest challenge the teachers have to face is to make their teaching strategies more motivating and communicative through intertwining learner's socio-pedagogic needs. The issue at stake is not to find out a suitable method of teaching nor an adequate classroom management, but to discover language learners in their classes, their ages, their background, their objectives, their interest, their goals in language learning, their aptitude for language acquisition etc.

At this point, it is noteworthy to clarify the social needs of EFL learners. Hirschy (2002), Scott (2009) and Abu Ayyash (2011) claim that learners should be considered as members of a group in a classroom known as learning community. This claim calls for regarding the class as a whole-group unit, which necessitates the participation of each member, activation techniques and the success of the group. These social needs, accordingly, may broadly involve accepting the other, open-mindedness,

safe L2 practice, individual's self-esteem and success of both the individual learner and the group.

Given this social classroom complexity, it seems beneficial for teachers and students to engage in dialogue as a social experience in order to communicate their beliefs, opinions and attitudes such as probing what learners believe may help teachers understand their learner's behavior, attitudes and reactions so that they can expand ad revise their prior knowledge about language teaching and learning which will in return lead to improvement of the classroom life (Allwright ,2002).

To create such democratic classrooms where dialogue prevails, teachers, according to Freire (1970) must learn to listen to student voices. Listening enables teachers to discover what students are thinking, what concerns them, and what has meaning to them. In addition, the act of listening creates opportunities for human empowerment and mutual respect and encourages students to take risks and contribute to their social critiques of the classroom dialogue. In this way, students combine critical thinking with creative thinking .The rationale behind this is that society is always changing and knowledge is not neutral—it supports either the status quo or a potential new direction for society. People learn primarily from their experience; active citizens in a democratic society need to be critical and imaginative thinkers; and students learn to be active citizens by being active citizens.

From the above discussion, it follows that in dialogue, speech is used to create a common pool of meaning together. Speaking to the center of the circle means that people speak as a contribution to the whole – they are not engaged in creating, maintaining or examining interpersonal relationships amongst themselves. It is like a whole cloth, woven out of different strands (Jones, 2007).

1.3.1 Creating space for students' participation in dialogue

As the social aspects of classroom life are widely acknowledged whereby participants arrive to the classroom arena with certain beliefs, expectations and attitudes embedded in a large social and historical context, which influences heavily classroom practices, teachers need to consider their students as active creators of their knowledge rather than recipients of others' knowledge. More importantly, teachers themselves can improve their practice by listening closely to what students have to say about their learning. For this sake, they need to create spaces for classroom dialogue and facilitates students' participation in dialogue (Arndt et al, 2015).

From century-old constructivist approaches to education, we must retain the notion that students need to be authors of their own understanding and assessors of their own learning. With critical pedagogy, we must share a commitment to redistributing power not only within the classroom, between teacher and students, but in society at large.

Indeed, among the greatest challenges of teachers is to create a learning environment in which the students participate actively in their learning process. An effective way to promote active participation is through dialogue in the

classroom. Unfortunately, many students, trained by years of passive education and cowed by the fear of making mistakes, are extremely reluctant to enter into dialogue in the classroom. So, how do teachers get students to begin to actively engage in substantive dialogue? I argue that the essential pre-requisite for classroom dialogue is an atmosphere of trust.

Considering dialogue a reciprocal process entails a horizontal relationship of mutual trust between the teacher and her students (Freire, 1970). Within classroom practice this means both teacher and students are jointly responsible for learning.

1.3.2 Facilitating students' participation in dialogue

Facilitating students' participation in dialogue is not an easy task as there are, at least, three types of students: those who are eager to participate, those who are unwilling to participate and those who are somewhere in the middle (Rader and Summerville,2014).

For the first category i.e. those who love to participate, it is vital for the teacher to maintain this eagerness and give that particular student more opportunities to contribute. Most often, these students are considered as leaders among their peers and their enthusiasm can be nurtured so that they understand their greater civic and social responsibility inside and outside of the classroom. In small groups, this type of enthusiastic students will help to lead, direct and monitor the group discussion.

Unlike the enthusiastic students, there are those who participate occasionally in a timid way. These students need to be mentored, encouraged. They need to feel that their ideas are respected. These students' reluctance to participate is due to the feeling of insecurity or ill preparedness. Therefore, the teacher can use classroom guidelines to ensure that one student does not monopolize the classroom space so that less willing students will have opportunities to participate.

For other students who are reluctant to participate, the use of the small group or Think / Pair / Share format can ease their anxiety. Here teachers need to understand the reasons for students' reluctance. Hall (2011); Rader and Summerville (2014) figure out that this may be because they are shy, or because they are apathetic about the lesson or may be because of their particular learning style. Some students, for example, do not feel comfortable discussing material until they have had a chance to think about it, re-read their notes, etc. It may therefore be useful to devote some time to each class to discussing the course material from the previous lecture, partly to review, and partly to give these reflective students a chance to participate.

1.4 Inherent challenges to dialogue

Despite the numerous positive effects of dialogue on both teaching and learning, there are some difficulties and obstacles that are inherent in the inclusion of dialogue in the language classroom and which must be challenged.

Current thinking on dialogic teaching highlights the gap between mainstream practice and the growing recognition of the power of dialogue in the process of making meaning. One of the barriers to the implementation of dialogic teaching is

the dominance of the teacher's voice at the expense of students' own meaning-making voices. The power relationship between teachers and learners is another stumbling block to genuine dialogue in classroom settings. However, the most dangerous obstacle is the exclusion of students' voices and perspectives from classroom policy making. The next section calls for challenging the old images of and attitudes towards students.

1.4.1Challenging the old images of and attitudes towards students

The most serious difficulty at the implementation of dialogue in language classrooms is the prevailing negative beliefs and attitudes that most teachers hold towards their students. Unfortunately, these wrong beliefs reflect a basic lack of trust in students and have evolved to keep students under teacher control and in their place as rather passive recipients.

These dangerous images of and attitudes have helped to ensure students' exclusion from classroom policy-making and practice-shaping conversations. Students' passivity might be explained by the fact that since the beginning of their formal education students have been designated as tabula rasa, as commodities to be classified or empty accounts to be filled, not only are students not authorized as knowers, they are dehumanized, reduced to products (Freire, 1970).

These ideas on students' passivity have been forged by the subsequent development of behaviorist models of psychology which "plugged learners into bolted-down desks and lock-step curricula through which they were guided by the teacher-as-skilled-engineer" (Cook-Sather, 2002:04).

As a matter of fact, in one study, Miliani (2012) concluded that university Algerian teachers are influenced by the Islamic pedagogy. The results of this study showed that the participating teachers' assumptions and perceptions of themselves as teachers and their teaching methodologies are shaped to a large extent by their Islamic background. Most of them see themselves as the "cheick", the all-knowing and unchallengeable and indicate that memorization is at the basis of their teaching pedagogies. However, as explained before, Islamic pedagogy is not restricted to memorization and knowledge transmissions, but it emphasizes dialectical teaching/ learning, critical thinking, societal transformation and a caring relationship between the teacher and the student.

This implies that Islamic pedagogy is embedded in more progressive and humanistic conceptualizations of learners based on trust in their capacities (Miliani, 2012). Therefore, pedagogical practices of formal educations need to be challenged on the ground that they are based on a banking theory approach as they rarely manage to harness students' experiences, funds of knowledge and agency that learners bring to the class (Freire ,1970, Lipponen et al, 2010) and do little to develop critical thinking skills. Instead, there is an urgent need to develop pedagogical approaches that allow learners to make connections between formal and informal settings of learning and point the way for how educators might better understand and support student learning. As argued by Lipponen and al (2010) the bulk of knowledge that learners have developed in one situation should become resources in the other. This is likely to increase learners' agency and active engagement in learning that go beyond settings and contexts. It is in these

pedagogical settings that interaction and learning can become productive for learners and their lives, and not only inside the classroom but outside as well.

1.4.2 Students' reluctance to engage in classroom dialogue

Another important challenge for the implementation of dialogue in the classroom setting is students' unwillingness to take part to that dialogue.

It is not an easy task to get students to utter their opinions in class. As discussed by James (2001) and later by Gorlewski (2011) most students are affected by some inherited traditional beliefs and habits, which hinder their critical thinking and creativity. Indeed, traditional schooling has long taught them that teachers are endowed with the absolute information, and that their role is to listen, take notes and be ready to reproduce the notes in the examination (James ,2001).

This might explain why most of our students are reluctant to talk in class but always willing to obey rules and regulation. Almost all our students attend classes because they want to know what is on the examination, and then they expect the teacher to take an approach such that they have in their notes what will be on the exam. They will resist any attempts to engage in dialogue because it does not fit their understanding of the purpose of the class. They may even perceive the dialogical approach as threatening. Others might fear being challenged while those who participate might be perceived talkative and consequently might be criticized (ibid).

These students want to be liked by their peers and teacher and they may be reluctant to respond critically to comments by either. Students wish to receive

good grades and may feel that challenging the course director will be at their disadvantage. Worse, an individual's idea is seen as intimately linked to the person; any criticism of the idea is considered as a personal matter. Therefore, students resist engaging in critical discussions and most of the time resistance takes the form of silence (ibid). Therefore, it becomes imperative to challenge these traditional held views and instill democratic education where critical thinking and creativity are fostered allowing students from different backgrounds to express freely their opinions, views and critics about educational, political, social and economic issues.

1.4.3 Rethinking classroom power relationship

The greatest and delicate challenge that educators have to face today is to rethink their assumptions about who can and should be an authority on educational practice. This challenge is both exhilarating and difficult as it can lead to vulnerability on the part of the teachers and uncertainty on the part of students (Arndt et al, 2015). Indeed, in the educational process, teachers have always planned, organized and controlled the students' activity and consequently appeared in the position of leader. They represent the authoritative leadership style which means that the leader (teacher) is to take all the decisions about the organization of the group and the activities performed in the group. The leader has never shared with the students the overall plan of activities, nor the criteria for assessing individual or group performances. Her role is excising a strict control over the group's decision .As the result, it is difficult to challenge the underlying assumptions about the student-teacher relationship and the teacher's role as expert.

The underlying principles of a democratic classroom, which involves social responsibility, community, critical inquiry, authentic learning/teaching a relevant and creative curriculum help, enhance caring relationships between teachers and students. In turn, these relationships play a critical role in encouraging meaningful learning (Hanley, 1994).

Conclusion

This chapter has explained the concept of dialogue in education and set it within as the framework of this study. The concept has been examined from philosophical and pedagogical perspectives. The philosophical perspective has involved discussion of Bakhtinian's dialogism, Freireian's emancipatory pedagogy, and Mezirowian transformative learning theory. Dialogue has been defined respectively as an antidote to monologism, oppression and despotism, as a means to achieve social liberty and emancipation, through critical conscious-raising and the co-construction of knowledge and as a tool through which transformation is achieved. From a pedagogical perspective, dialogue was described as an indispensable tool to reconcile teachers' and students' contradictions and conflicts, develop critical thinking and encourage self-reflection to construct shared understanding. The complex social nature of the L2 classroom, whereby teacher and students bring their personal histories, different assumptions and experiences, was fully acknowledged, but the L2 classroom is still dominated by the teacher where transmission of knowledge is emphasized and student' voices ignored which can create misunderstandings and conflicts. The essence of dialogue, therefore, lies in giving students the opportunity to voice

their needs and expectations and to challenge those of the teacher. This implies that teachers should abandon their image of the controller and the most knowledgeable. As an educational tool, dialogue facilitates learners' engagement in the process of learning and creation of meaning. Through dialogue teacher and learners work together, think together to create new knowledge or reach shared understanding. This view of dialogue seems to embrace the aim of this study. Indeed, drawing on Bakhtinian, Mezirowian and Freirean's dialectal approach, I engaged in a dialogue with my students about my written feedback to their compositions. In this dialogue, students were expected to challenge my written feedback practices and ethos and voice their feedback preferences and needs. In addition, to understand my inherent beliefs and assumptions underlying my feedback practices and understand my transformation as a teacher, I engaged in a critical process of self-reflection through narrative. The aim was to find out whether my practices and ethos aligned with my students feedback expectations and preferences. From a transformative perspective, the dialogue between my students' feedback preferences/ expectations and my actual feedback practices and ethos , enabled me to question my uncritically assimilated, taken for granted assumptions, beliefs and perspectives about written feedback practices and ethos so that new or a revised interpretations are generated. This study is built on the tenet that it is through dialogue as a social enterprise and a collegial activity that an adequate understanding of the feedback dialogue is best achieved. The next section examines the nature teacher written feedback dialogue.

CHAPTER TWO:

OVERVIEW OF TEACHER WRITTEN FEEDBACK DIALOGUE

Introduction

Teacher written feedback on student writing has been considered as critical in improving and consolidating learning. Even though it requires a great deal of efforts and time to give written feedback, teachers seem to think that it is their responsibility as writing teachers. According to some researchers (Radecki and Swales, 1988;Enginarlar, 1993; Hyland and Hyland , 2006; Mahfoodh, 2011), students value teacher written feedback because they regard it as essential to their improvement as writers. Teacher written feedback carries heavy loaded information, providing the learner with commentaries on the form and content of a text. This information allows the learner to reject, modify or correct his/her writing (Hyland and Hyland ,2006).

According to Hedge (2000) teacher written feedback not only points out the strengths and weaknesses of students' writings but also assists students in monitoring their own progress and indicates the language areas to develop in subsequent writings. Teacher written feedback has received considerable interest from the different approaches that characterize second language writing.

In this section, teacher written feedback will be defined and main methodological issues related to teacher written feedback will be reviewed.

2.1 Major issues in teacher written feedback

Keh (1990:44) defines feedback as "the input from a reader to a writer with the effect of providing information to the writer for revision." Within the same line of thought, Hyland and Hyland (2006: 206) consider feedback as a pedagogical genre which "is designed to carry a heavy information load, offering commentary

on the form and content of a text to encourage students to develop their writing and consolidate their learning". Indeed, teacher written feedback involves all the reactions, information, response and comments students receive from the teacher on their writing performances with the aim of encouraging and consolidating writing. This statement reminds us of Vygotsky's concept of Zone of Proximal Development which stresses that learning is best achieved through the guidance and support of expert others. In this sense, teacher writer feedback provides students with the assistance and guidance of an expert thus giving students the opportunity to see how others respond to their writing and learn from their responses. This implies that teacher written feedback is not mere comments on students' papers, rather it is an interaction between the student and the teacher and which, as argued by Hyland and Hyland (2006: 206) "it is effective only if it engages with the writer and gives him or her a sense that it is a response to a person rather than a script". Therefore, feedback is a dialogue about teacher and students. The next sections examine how teacher written feedback has moved from error correction to a dialogue between teacher and students.

2.1.1 Form-focused teacher written feedback

Form-based feedback (or grammar correction) is one of the most commonly used methods. This type of feedback mainly focuses on students' grammatical knowledge and teachers give correction in grammatical features only. It is believed that, through feedback, L2 students come to be aware of what kind of grammatical errors they often make and they come to acquire grammar rules, which leads them not to make the same errors in future writings (Ferris, 2006).

Before the 1970s error correction and grammar teaching as reflected by theories of structural linguistics and behavioral psychology were very popular. At that time, the focus of language teaching was on how to best teach grammatical forms. Language proficiency became the primary element that determines the skill of composing, while the importance of discovering ideas and creating meaning was overlooked (Silva,1990).

With such a restricted view of composing, writing teachers are often distracted from responding to student writing, as their time is taken up primarily by identifying and correcting mechanical errors. Hence, the teacher's role in writing becomes limited to that of spotting of grammatical errors and reinforcing a set of grammatical rules. However, for many writing researchers (Zamel, 1983 ; Semke, 1984; Truscott,1996, Wen, 2013) feedback focuses on errors does nothing to help students in generating and exploring ideas in writing. This kind of response also pays no attention to reader-based discourse, let alone to the fundamental characteristics of the composing process revealed by research on both L l and L2 writers.

Indeed, there was disagreement among L2 writing researchers about whether teachers should correct students' errors. The strongest criticism against grammar correction was leveled by Truscott (1996) .According to Ferris (2006) Truscott made a rather radical conclusion that grammar correction by L2 teachers is ineffective and even harmful and should be abandoned right away. He presented three reasons to support this argument. First, previous studies that he reviewed did not offer any valid grounds for grammar correction and, though there are some

studies showing the positive effect of grammar correction, they are mostly due to learner's tendency to avoid using grammatical features they are poor at. After Truscott's article against form-focused feedback was published, a great deal of discussion and controversy was followed as to what the better approach is to the issues of accuracy and error correction in L2writing. There were several researchers who responded to Truscott's argument, in particular, Ferris (2006) claiming that Truscott's argument is hasty and overly strong requiring more in-depth studies before abolishing error correction.

However, several studies proved the benefits of grammar correction. For example, Fathman and Whalley (1990) found that all the students who had their errors corrected gained higher grammar scores than students who did not get feedback in the next writings.

Though grammatical errors are an evident problem to L2 writers, Hyland, K (1996) posits that teachers should not correct systematically every single error students make. Rather, teachers should comment all aspects of students' writing: structure, organization, style content and presentation. Error correction, accordingly, can be delayed to the final draft. Hyland's position corresponds, indeed, to the second type of feedback: the content-focused feedback

2.1.2 Content focused teacher written feedback to writing

The process writing approach has shifted the core of writing instruction away from students' final products toward their writing processes, which include prewriting, drafting, revising and editing stages. This approach focuses on content and encourages teachers to assist student writers with multiple drafts with

feedback and revisions during the process of writing. Unlike the product-oriented orientation, which regards composing as a product to be evaluated, the process-oriented approach is meaning oriented and considers writing as a complex developmental task. It pays more attention to how a discourse is created through the negotiation and discovery of meaning rather than to the production of error-free writing (Murry,1982; Hyland, K, 1996; Ur, 1996; Hyland and Hyland, 2006).

Language is a means to explore the writer's ideas. The editing of grammatical accuracy is postponed to the final stage. By offering feedback on both content and form, the process approach is more embracing, in that it helps students from the beginning stage of generating ideas to the final stage of refining the whole written product. The work of providing feedback to students will also become more demanding. The teacher has two roles to play. On the one hand, they may present themselves as helpful facilitators offering support and guidance; on the other hand, they may act as an authority imposing critical judgment on writing products. The patterns of feedback and responses given by the writing teacher depend very much on the teacher's conception of the composing process and her understanding of learner's errors. Product-oriented feedback is , therefore, mainly form-focused, emphasizing grammatical correctness while neglecting other aspects such as the discovery and construction of meaning in the writing process (Silva, 1990).

In the process approach, both teachers and learners are collaboratively involved in discovering what written language is and how a piece of writing is produced. Writing is viewed as a creative and purposeful activity of reflecting.

2.1.3 Teacher written feedback in the social constructivist approach

Teacher written feedback practices have been increasingly influenced by the social constructivist theory to writing which emphasizes the dialogic nature of writing. Vygotsky (1978), the father of social constructivism, asserted that learning occurs through dialogue .This dialogue takes place between teacher and student, between students, or even between text and reader. In this sense learning is both interactive as learners must interact with sources of ideas/knowledge in social settings and also must take an active part in reconstructing ideas/knowledge within their own minds.

The genre approach to writing, in which the constructivist theory of scaffolding learning is crucial, considers teacher written feedback as critical to students' development of writing skills. According to Hyland and Hyland (2006) teacher written feedback guides student's writers through the Zone of Proximal Development. It provides learners with opportunities to see how others react to their writings, and learn from those reactions through the process of draft-comments- revision – resubmission of draft.

From this perspective, teacher written feedback is also viewed as a social practice. According to Goldstein (2006) and Coffin and Hewings (2006) some social factors shape the relationship between teacher feedback and student revision.

It is important to stress that every act of feedback is influenced by the teachers' perceptions experiences. These latters not only influence what teachers choose to focus on but also the way they formulate their responses and the relationship they aim to set up with their students. In the same path, students' reaction to teacher

written feedback is also influenced by their beliefs, educational and cultural backgrounds.

When dealing with teacher feedback, one should be able to understand the dialogue that takes place between the teacher and he students through her written feedback provided to their writings. This understanding can bridge the gap between the way the teacher expresses feedback and her students' attitudes towards that feedback in order to reach a social harmony. It is through dialogue, as a social activity, between teacher and students that an adequate understanding of the feedback dialogue can be achieved.

2.2 Teacher written feedback: from a one-way message (monologue) to a two-way transformative process (dialogue)

Research on teacher written feedback has highlighted that most students are dissatisfied with the feedback they receive and that the main cause of these dissatisfactions stems from fractured dialogue. Despite the advent of communicative and student-centered approaches, the writing classroom is still dominated by the teacher, and this is translated through the feedback she gives to her students, which is essentially a monologue, i.e. a one-way message whereby students' voices are silenced. This section discusses the reconceptualization of written feedback from a monologue to a dialogue.

2.2.1 Teacher feedback as monologue

The teachers' desire to provide effective feedback is manifested by spending hours correcting student papers meticulously and commenting on them copiously ; however, in doing so they exert control over students (Knoblauch and Brannon, 1982; Straub, 1996). This control is essentially a monologue and can be explained by the fact that teachers consider themselves as the authorities, intellectually mature, rhetorically more experienced, and technically more expert than their novice writers. When teachers correct students' compositions they have an ideal text in mind against which they assess the success or failure of that piece of writing. Thus, teachers judge what the writing will be about and what form it will take by circling errors, underlining problem areas, and inserting corrections on the student's text.

However, imposing the teacher's agenda can be demotivating for students who may lose the desire to communicate their ideas or even to write. Knoblaugh and Brannon, (1982:159) stated, "We lose more than we gain by preempting their control and allowing our own Ideal Texts to dictate choices that properly belong to the writers."

Teachers need to change their traditional ways of responding and adopt a less directive but a more facilitative, collaborative, student-based response. This entails the recognition that even inexperienced students operate with a sense of logic and purpose that may not clearly be conveyed in the compositions but which guide their choices. It also involves bridging the gap between teachers' responses and students' intention. Furthermore, the emphasis on form that concerns most

teachers needs to shift to an emphasis on the student's ideas and communicative goals. This implies that responses should be open and reflective asking students to add certain information or consider certain text-based revision, offer explanations of other comments, simply make interpretations of the writing, recognize the integrity of the student as a learning writer and engage him in substantive revision. (Straub,1996).

2.2.2 Teacher written feedback as dialogue

In the 1980's An illuminating line of research about teacher written feedback questioned the way in which feedback process is conceptualized and the role of students in that process. The unidirectional and monologic nature of traditional teacher written feedback and student revision process was criticized and proved to be inadequate as students were not required to reconsider or critique the written feedback they received to revise their compositions. Instead they were compelled to accept their teacher suggestions and recommendations. There was no dialogue about the received feedback between teacher and students (Berzsenyi, 2001; Nicol, 2010; Carless and Yang, 2013; Carless, 2015). However, as Nicol (2009:1) rightly argued "No matter how much feedback the instructor delivers, students won't benefit unless they pay attention to it, process it and ultimately act on it."

Researchers in this area (Straub, 1996;Berzseni, 2001; Goldstein, 2004 ;Hyland and Hyland, 2006; Goldstein, 2006 ; Nicol, 2010) therefore, argued for an urgent need to theorize teacher written feedback as a dialogical and contingent two-way process that involves teacher–student interaction, active learner engagement and feedback provision in multiple drafts. More significantly, teacher written feedback

dialogue consists of students questioning, critiquing, articulating, and reconsidering their teacher written feedback before revising their drafts. The aim is to give students the opportunity to express their concern, confusion and frustration about the received feedback.

Dialogue was defined as a process whereby a knowledgeable person (e.g. teacher) interacts with and supports another person with less knowledge and understanding (a student) (Laurillard, 2002). This view draws on Vygotskian (1978) and socialconstructivist interpretations of learning by assuming that, to b euseful, feedback input coming from an external source must ultimately trigger internal dialogue in students' minds. Such dialogue would involve students in actively decoding, processing feedback information, internalizing it, comparing it against their own work, questioning its relevance and eventually making improvements in future work.

Dialogue is also a useful tool for reconciling the different and sometimes conflicting perceptions that teachers and students have of the feedback process. This implies that giving feedback is more than selecting a delivery technique or deciding on the aspect of writing to focus on. It is embedded, as Hyland and Hyland (2006:13) put it in "wider sociocultural beliefs and practices that selectively activate knowledge and prompt specific processes." This means that the way teachers construct their feedback is influenced by their experiences, backgrounds, beliefs and understanding of teaching and learning. Whether teachers focus on form or content, favor praise or criticism is influenced by their cultural background and educational experiences. Likewise, students' attitudes

and reactions towards teacher written feedback is influenced by their cultural backgrounds and learning experiences. Whether students accept or reject teacher's comments depends heavily on their opinions and views on how these comments should be constructed (Hyland and Hyland, 2006; Goldstein, 2004). Goldstein (2004) reported a case of misunderstanding between a student and her teacher. The student confessed that she ignored many of her teacher's comments when she felt too many revisions were required or when she did not understand how to revise in response to the comments while the teacher confessed she had a negative attitude towards the student because she believed that the student was simply lazy. As a result, the teacher frequently repeated the same comments draft to draft, and the student ignored these repeated comments. In the end, as she believed the student to be lazy, the teacher never discussed with the student why she was ignoring the comments and whether or not she was having any difficulty. To avoid such misunderstanding, Goldstein (2004) suggested teachers and students to communicate their feedback intents, attitudes, preferences and expectations. In this respect, she proposed a number of ways to make teacher feedback dialogical and sensitive to students' feedback needs and preferences. For example, students may be requested to attach a sheet of paper with their assignment in which they inform the teacher about whether they understood/ misunderstood, or liked/disliked the received feedback, or write autobiographies describing as possible the types of feedback they have received from previous teachers. Teachers can also devise questionnaires or interviews in which students are inquired about their opinions, attitudes, reactions and preferences. In case

students' feedback expectations and opinions do not correspond to the teacher's feedback practices and philosophies then students need to be encouraged to reflect on their own opinions and challenge those of the teacher. In this way, the gap between current and desired feedback is bridged by clarifying misunderstandings and identifying flaws in interpreting the received feedback.

Today, teachers are expected to foster learning -focused partnerships with their students and at the same time developing the reflective habits of mind that will help them to become independent and autonomous learners. This view leads us to reconsider the role of feedback dialogue as a transformative process whereby both teacher and students reconcile their misunderstandings.

2.2.3 Teacher written feedback as a transformative process

Inspired by Freire's Critical Pedagogy, the concept of feedback dialogue is embedded in a broader transformative process. Transformational theory has often been associated with the work of Freire (1970) and Mezirow (1991) .It reflects the desire of individuals to cope with the demands of the context they are evolving in and consists in articulating, revising and reflecting on past experiences to construe a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience, and enhancing present knowledge, skills and abilities in order to guide future action (Dirkx, 1998). Therefore, as said earlier, transformative learning, involves, consciousness raising and critical reflection (see chapter one)

Written feedback dialogue reflects this transformative process. Instead of regarding feedback as a mere transmission of information about a student's work, one should encourage dialogue between students and teachers as a form of self-

critique and reflection and on the fundamental aspects of the relationship between student and teacher. The notion of feedback dialogue does not only rest on the participation of learners in the process but their active involvement and commitment in challenging and questioning teachers' suggestions and knowledge as any dialogical process may be hindered by the domination of one view or person over another. A student and teacher may talk face to face about a piece of writing, but if the student is not oriented to reconsider the work in light of the teacher's comments, then dialogue has not occurred. In order to occur, teacher written feedback needs to be dynamic and contested: students have a right to challenge the received feedback. It is fundamental to students to actively engage with knowledge (feedback) rather than receive it through transmission, or what Freire (1970) describes as "bankable" approaches to teaching. Students must be given the opportunity to express themselves in voices that are genuinely their own if their participation in the feedback dialogue is to be effective (McArthur and Huxham, 2013).

This implies that in giving feedback as dialogue a teacher thus acts to escort the student through to new thoughts and understandings. In this sense the teacher acts not only as a knowledgeable companion without dictating the route, but also as a person engaged in the learning process. She needs to let students know that she too is open to learn from them. This is further enhanced when the teacher is open about the fact that she still has a lot to learn. The following section reviews teachers written feedback philosophies and practices.

2.3 Teacher written feedback underlying practices and philosophies

Though almost all writing researchers acknowledge the paramount power that teachers exercise over the delivery of feedback, there has been, to date, little research investigating teachers' conceptions beliefs, attitudes, and intentions of feedback construction. As argued by Ferris (2014) the teachers' voices have been the missing link in the research base. I shall first start by examining teacher written feedback practices. Next, I shall compare teacher feedback underlying philosophies and practices with students' feedback preferences and expectations.

2.3.1 Describing teacher written feedback practices

2.3.1.1 Teacher written feedback delivery techniques

Reviewing the pertinent literature on teacher written feedback to student writing, it seems that most L2 studies focused mainly on the areas covered by teacher written feedback and rarely on the ways teachers construct their feedback. However, there is evidence which suggests that the ways in which teachers construct their commentaries can affect students' ability to understand, process and use it (Ferris, 2003; Leki, 1990). To this effect, a wide range of techniques of providing teacher written feedback has been described in the literature. In the next section, the different types of teacher written feedback may take will be examined. These types include direct correction, minimal marking, rubrics and written comments.

2.3.1.1.1 Direct correction

Direct correction consists of directly correcting students' errors, but this technique as noted by Banu and Bruce (2011) is the least effective technique for providing feedback as students are not allowed to reflect on their errors.

2.3.1.1.2 Minimal marking

Minimal marking indicates the location of the error and eventually the type of errors by using symbols and codes. It is a form-based feedback technique. Unlike direct correction, this technique is more effective as it stimulates students' response and develops self-editing strategy (Hyland, K, 1996). Besides, it makes correction clearer and less threatening and helps students identify their mistakes. Corder (1981:66) also posited that "making a learner try to discover the right form could be often instructive to both learner and teacher'. This statement is further supported by Lalande (1982) who found that the students who used an error code in revising their compositions outperformed the students whose essays were directly corrected by the teacher. The only disadvantage of this technique, according to Hyland, K (1996), is that it is not always possible to categorize the problem, especially when it goes beyond the sentence level. Therefore, teachers tend to focus on a limited number of general areas (ibid)

2.3.1.1.3 Rubrics

Rubrics refer to a variety of commentary often accompanying it on final draft. Generally, rubrics take the form of cover sheets in which the teacher reports the correction codes that have been used to assess students' writings (Hyland,K, 1996).

2.3.1.1.4 Teacher written comments

Handwritten comments are the most common types of teacher written feedback. They are also the most expected and valued feedback form as this type of feedback is said to respond best regarded to students' compositions, state how successful those compositions were and how they can be improved rather than evaluate them (Hyland,F, 2003). In this respect, Ferris (2003:41) notes, "this type of feedback may represent the single biggest investment of time by instructors, and it is certainly clear that students highly value and appreciate it." Besides, Sommers (1982) argues that teacher written comments constitute a challenge for teachers in that they have not only to target students' points of weaknesses but also motivate them to revise and rewrite their work using the teacher's feedback.

Hyland, F, (2003) posits that to be effective, teachers need to consider students' needs, expectations and attitudes towards teacher feedback. He, thus explains that, "Some students want praise, others see it as condescending; some want a response to ideas, others demand to have all their errors marked; some use teacher commentary effectively, others ignore it altogether" (Hyland, F, 2003:180). The next section will examine students' attitudes towards teacher written feedback.

2.3.1.2 Feedback functions: Praise, criticism and suggestions

Teacher written feedback may have three functions, which are praise, criticism and suggestion. Hyland and Hyland (2001) define praise as an act which attributes credit to another for some characteristic, skill, etc., which is positively valued by the students. Criticism is defined as an expression of negative comments on a text. Suggestion involves an explicit recommendation for remediation or a relatively

clear plan for improvement, which is sometimes referred to as “constructive criticism.” The following two teacher’s comments cited in Hyland , F, (2003) illustrate the difference between criticism and suggestions

E.g.1: Try to express your ideas as simply as possible and give extra information

E.g2: There is no statement of intention in the essay-what is the purpose of your essay and how are you going to deal with it? You are not giving me any direction.

In the first example, the teacher gives a clear suggestion for revision while the second example, the comment is provided more powerfully as a criticism. In this case, the student, Hyland,F, (2003) argues that she finds the comments difficult to understand as there is no clear advice or guidance for revision. Therefore, students will, accordingly, either delete it or ignore it in their revision.

A number of studies (Chiang, 2004; Hyland, F, 1998; Ferris et al, 1997; Setrallah ,2012) also revealed that students encounter difficulties in understanding teacher feedback because the instructions are vague and not clear. For instance, in the previously examined study, Cohen (1987) found that 17 percent of the students replied that some of the teacher’s comments were not clear. Specifically, the feedback that was difficult to read involved vague and confusing statements. For example, these students indicated that the suggestion: “this could be clearer” was difficult to understand. The examined teacher feedback also included the use of arrows without explanation, allusion to transition without examples. For instance, the suggestion “needs transition” was also found vague and confusing by the students. Besides, these statements were delivered in the format of single words or short phrases. The results of the survey suggested that the teacher

feedback, as currently constructed, yielded limited impact on students than what the teacher hoped(Cohen, 1987). Indeed, as Ferris (2003:26) noted teacher comments involving "brief, cryptic questions or imperatives in the margins such as "Why?" "Relevance" or "Explain! May simply provide too little information to student writers."

Because of this, a panel of researchers (Hyland, F, 1998;Hyland, F, 2003; Ferris, 2003) insisted that teachers need to be careful in wording the comments they provide to students. In the coming section, a discussion of the interpersonal impact of teacher written feedback on students is provided.

2.3.2 The interpersonal effect of teacher written feedback on students:

In constructing their comments, teachers need to consider the interpersonal effect of positive and negative feedback (Hyland, F, 2003). Teacher feedback involves a delicate social interaction that can affect the relationship between teacher and students and thus influence instruction as well. Students' motivation and self-confidence may also be effected by the tone that is conveyed in the teachers' comments. Indeed, L2 students can be heartened by positive comments just as they can be demotivated by criticism (Leki, 1990; Hyland and Hyland, 2001; Hyland, F, 2003). Hyland (2003) posits that positive comments reinforce appropriate language behaviors and foster students' self-esteem. Therefore, teachers need to consider the impact of their comments on students and use various mitigation strategies i.e. combining criticism with praise (Hyland,F, 2003). Mitigation strategies decrease hostility toward the teacher which may be

an obstacle to effective learning and reduce the risk of devastating students as well (Hyland and Hyland, 2001; Hyland,F, 2003).

In this respect, Hyland and Hyland (2001) analyzed the written comments of two teachers in terms of three functions: praise, criticism, and suggestions and concluded that responding to student writing is a practice that carries potential threats and requires careful consideration

The results of their study suggest that the teachers were aware that the way feedback is written had the potential to construct the kind of relationship which can either enhance or undermine the student's writing development. They were aware that offering mitigation strategies- combining patterns of praise–criticism, criticism–suggestion, and praise–criticism–suggestion, and through the use of hedges, question forms, and personal attribution could foster effective teacher-student relationship and minimize the force of criticism and suggestions.

However, despite the great desire of teachers to construct their feedback effectively and positively, students noted some misunderstandings as their feedback preference varied significantly from one student to another. Some students liked positive comments while others simply discounted them as merely mitigation devices. Hyland and Hyland (2001) suggested to be specific and closely linked to actual text features rather than provide general praise and consider critically teacher own responses and look at the best ways of making them clear to students. Teachers should not only consider the interpersonal impact of written feedback on their students' writings but also the risk of appropriating students' ideas. The coming section deals with the issue of appropriation

2.3.3 Appropriation in teacher written feedback

In responding to students' writing, teachers may be confronted to the dilemma of 'under- responding' or over-responding' to texts, fearing the risk of appropriating students' writing (Tardy, 2006). Appropriation or text ownership has long been a sensitive issue in the field of teacher feedback on student writing. The term appropriation refers to the ways in which teachers appropriate students' writing by modifying the student writer's intended meaning (Goldstein, 2006; Tardy, 2006).

Hyland, F, (2003), Goldstein (2006),and Tardy (2006) argue that in responding to students' compositions, teachers have many purposes in mind. They make suggestions as to how the text should correspond closely to the experts' view of effective writing, propose alternative ways of expressing ideas or show how the readers may respond to the text.

As a result, students may feel obliged to closely follow teacher's directives even when students do not understand or do not agree with the type of feedback they have received (Hyland, F, 1998).

Leki (1990) and Goldstein (2004) suggest that teachers need to find ways of communicating that enable them to understand what students intend to accomplish with the text and thus avoid appropriation. In short, they need to distinguish between appropriation and helpful intervention (Goldstein, 2004).

Feedback that ignores student's intended meaning for a specific text and attempt either purposefully or accidentally to change this meaning is an instance of appropriation while feedback in which the teacher asks students what they want to

say and then helps students find the adequate language to express it is an example of helpful intervention (Goldstein, 2004).

To guard against this risk, Goldstein (2004) points out that teachers need to be aware of students' indented meaning, the audiences they are writing to and their point of views so that they can determine the types of information they need in order to effectively respond to their students' papers and thus avoid the risk of appropriating students' texts. Most importantly, to avoid problems of appropriation and the risk of appropriating students' ideas, teachers need to consider their students' feedback needs and preferences. The following section thus addresses the necessity to adapt one's feedback to students' needs.

2.3.4 Comparing teacher feedback practices with their feedback beliefs and actual feedback

Most research in EFL writing investigated students' feedback perceptions and preferences (Hyland, F, 1998; Conrad and Goldstein , 1999) but these were rarely compared to actual teacher feedback or teachers' self-assessments of that feedback (Ferris, 2014). It is surprising to see that despite their importance in evaluating the effectiveness of writing feedback, few studies have compared how teachers' self-assessments relate to their use of feedback.

Among the few studies that investigated the relationship between teachers' self-assessment, students' perception and actual feedback, four studies are frequently reported in the literature. These studies are Cohen and Cavalcanti's (1990) Montgomery and Baker's (2007), Brown, Harris, Harnett's (2012) ,Ferris' (2014).

Along with these lines, Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) explored teachers' self-assessment with student perceptions and actual written feedback in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and native language (L1) programs in both institute and university contexts. The results of their study show a strong correlation between teacher self-assessments and actual performance in the all examined writing categories (content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics), at least in the university EFL context. However, some discrepancies were also noted. In fact, while the teacher replies that she emphasized vocabulary accuracy; her students responded that they received no comments on vocabulary. Moreover, while some students said that the teacher focused mostly on content, the teacher did not mention any emphasis on content.

Later on, Montgomery and Baker (2007) replicated Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990)'s study by examining a much larger database of student perceptions, teacher self-assessments, and actual teacher feedback , fifteen writing teachers and ninety-eight students participated in their study.

The teachers and students were asked to complete a questionnaire similar to the one used in Cohen and Cavalcanti's study (1990) which requested to say how much of each type of feedback (ideas/content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics) they provided on students' compositions throughout the past semester. The teachers were asked to select a quantity for each type of feedback that represented an average of the feedback they gave across all of their students. The aim was to gain both an understanding of specific teacher performance and general teacher beliefs about feedback.

Students were also asked to evaluate their teacher's written feedback. Each question in the student questionnaire corresponded directly to similar questions on the teacher questionnaire.

Teachers' feedback on student compositions was also evaluated in order to compare this feedback to the answers obtained from the student and teacher questionnaires. Besides, all drafts of each composition were examined. Each occurrence of teacher feedback among all of these drafts was categorized as ideas and content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, or mechanics

The findings of this study confirmed the results of Cohen and Cavalcanti's study (1990). Specifically, they provided three main insights about teacher self-assessment, student perceptions, and actual teacher-written feedback. First, the results suggested that students felt that an adequate amount of feedback was being provided and most stated that they were satisfied with the amount of feedback given in each of the areas of feedback examined. Second, when teachers' self-assessments were compared with actual teacher feedback, it was evident that teachers did not provide the same amount of feedback to each student. It was observed that some students received more comments than on others. Surprisingly, these discrepancies in the number of comments did not relate to the quality of the student writing, nor to the students' levels of ability. The final significant insight of this study was that in general teachers gave a substantial amount of local feedback and relatively little global feedback throughout the drafts of the compositions.

Brown, Harris and Harnett (2012) examined the relationship between teachers' conceptions of feedback and the practices they associate with feedback. The results indicate that there were meaningful relationships between teachers' conceptions of feedback and the practices they associate with it. Specifically speaking, the study provided the following conclusions:

- The teachers expected students to use feedback to improve their work and develop autonomy, rather than in providing task-oriented information to students.
- Encouragement and praise represented minor aspects of conception of feedback.
- Teachers admitted that feedback requires student self- and peer interaction, especially around how work should be carried out.

Ferris also (2014) investigated teachers' practices and philosophies in order to find out whether the teachers participants' practices matched with their philosophies and whether they corresponded to the "best" practices' recommended by L2 experts . The findings indicate that participating teachers adopted multiple-draft syllabuses which provide students with several opportunities to receive feedback from different sources. They also reported using peer feedback and one-to-one writing conferences rather than relying on written teacher feedback alone; they also utilized various combinations of commentary and correction methods.

Concerning teacher's philosophies and attitudes toward response to students writing, the interview participants were able to articulate a range of values governing their response behaviors such as

- A desire to encourage students and build their confidence,
- The goal of helping students to take more responsibility for their own writing progress,
- A belief in individualizing instruction for students through text-specific feedback,
- Wanting feedback to be a "dialogue" or a "conversation" with students rather than a series of teacher directives,
- Their own belief in the central nature of response in the teaching of writing,
- The need to be clear in their own responses and to model clarity for student writers
- The struggle to prioritize what is most important when responding to a student text,
- The need to be "expedient" and wise in time management—being fair to oneself while still providing useful feedback to students.

Though most teachers appeared to practice what they preached for some others some discrepancies between their stated philosophies and responding practices were observed in the sample texts they provided. Broadly speaking, the teachers' observed commenting practices matched what they had said in the surveys and in the interviews in that they mixed feedback on content and on language; they used

both marginal and end notes; and they provided suggestions. However, in other instances, teacher responding behaviors did not match up with what they said they believed. For instance, some interview teachers claimed that they give priority to feedback on content; however, almost all of the texts provided by interview participants included feedback on grammar/errors. Another noted discrepancy was teachers' use of end notes. Many interview participants claimed that their endnotes included general suggestions for revision while the analysis of their marked texts revealed that most of the teachers wrote more or longer sentences in endnotes. Moreover, many teachers responded that they mainly used questioning techniques in their feedback, but when their commentaries were analyzed, it was found that they used more statements and imperatives.

On the whole, these studies show that in some cases teachers' feedback philosophies and conception match with their feedback practices; however, in some other cases some discrepancies are identified between teachers' written feedback beliefs and what they actually give to their students. Therefore, teachers' feedback philosophies, beliefs and attitudes are extremely important and worth investigating in order to better understand their pedagogical practice hence understanding the type and quality of feedback that they provide. Next, I shall discuss students' perceptions towards teacher's feedback.

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2.4 Students' perceptions towards teacher's feedback: adapting feedback to students' needs.

One paramount area of research concerning written responses to students writing is certainly that of investigating students' opinions and attitudes to different types of feedback on their writing. As said earlier, how to best respond to students' writing is the major concern of many EFL writing teachers and researchers. For example, Leki (1990:57-58) notes that 'Writing teachers and students alike do intuit that written responses can have a great effect on student writing and attitude toward writing… Written comments are time-consuming, but teachers continue to write comments on student papers because we sense that our comments help writers improve." Within the same vein, Ferris (2003:93) argues that investigating student' opinions and attitudes towards teacher written feedback "helps us to be aware of what our students may think and how they may react to our pedagogical practices". This awareness, she explains, may encourage teachers to listen more carefully to student to explain our own decisions to them, leading to a more collegial classroom community and to improve student motivation and confidence in their instructors.

2.4.1 Students' feedback preferences

Most researches responding to student writing focused on students' feedback preferences. These studies yielded helpful insights on what and how students would like their teachers to respond to their writings (Conrad and Goldstein, 1999; Enginarlar, 1993; Hyland, F, 1998; Montgomery and Baker, 2007).

These studies show that most students favor feedback on local issues. They expect their teacher to correct their errors and are frustrated if teachers do not (Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Hyland,F, 1998). This may explain why most teachers tend to provide so much feedback on grammar, even when there is an appeal to abandon error correction within the educational institution (Truscott, 1996; Montgomery and Baker, 2007). Other studies examined student's preferences towards direct error correction. Lee (2008) for example stated that students prefer direct error correction while Hyland and Hyland (2001) found that students are keen on receiving clues rather than corrections and recognized that it encouraged them to be more active in their use of feedback. Other studies also focused on positive and negative feedback (Hyland and Hyland, 2001; Hyland and Hyland, 2006) showed that learners value encouraging remarks but expect also to receive constructive criticism (Hyland ,F, 1998). Hyland and Hyland's study (2006) revealed that students can have extremely negative opinions on the use of praise. Their case-study showed that students can see positive comments not just as worthless, but as insincere and even condescending as they know positive comments serve no function beyond "removing the sting" from criticisms. Additionally, students may view the use of hedged comments and praise as signs of incompetence or the abandonment of authority on the part of the teacher (Hyland, F ,1998).

In sum, one may admit that responding to students' writing is a very complex and challenging endeavor. In fact, while most students carry positive views of written feedback, what students want from it and how they use it varies

considerably from one student to another. Some students want praise, others see it as condescending; some want direct corrective feedback, others prefer to receive clues.

Other studies (Cohen, 1987; Cohen and Cavalcanti ,1990) investigated the types of written feedback preferred by the students and the types of feedback provided by the teachers on students' writing. The first study was conducted by Cohen (1987) 217 students from New York State at University of Binghamton took part in the study. They were asked to complete a one page questionnaire eliciting three main areas namely the topics covered by the teacher written feedback, students' attitudes and preferences towards that feedback and the strategies used to handle the feedback received. Though the majority of students answered that they read almost all teachers' comments and attended to teacher feedback, the results reveal a mismatch between the areas covered by the teacher feedback and students' preferences. Indeed, while the teacher seems to focus mostly on grammar, students paid much attention on vocabulary, organization and content- areas neglected by the teacher feedback. Besides, most students claimed that the comments given by the teacher were formulated by single words and short phrases and were thus "not clear" and "confusing". Cohen (1987:66), therefore, concluded that "the activity of teacher feedback as currently constituted and realized may have more limited impact on the learners than teachers would desire."

Another revealing study examining students' view of teacher feedback was conducted by Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990). In this study, only nine EFL students at a college in Brazil took part in the experiment. Unlike earlier studies, Cohen and examined the relationship between the teacher written feedback and students' reactions towards that feedback. Similar to Cohen's survey (1987), a mismatch between the areas covered by the teacher written feedback and students preferences in that the majority of students preferred receiving feedback on content and organization whereas the teacher focused mainly on mechanics, vocabulary and grammar. This discrepancy between students' preferences and teachers' practices regarding feedback on writing underlies the frustration of teachers when giving feedback and the disappointment students when receiving feedback. What teachers practice and believe as effective feedback to students may not be perceived by students as useful

2.4.2 Students' attitudes towards teacher written feedback

In addition to understand what students want, another important line of research on teacher written feedback focuses on examining students' attitudes and opinions towards the written feedback they receive on their writings. Examining students' opinions about written feedback, as argued by Ferris (2003) helpsteachers to be aware of what their students may think and how they may react to their pedagogical practices.

Research investigating students' teacher written feedback reactions (Cohen, 1998; Radecki and Swales, 1988; Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Leki, 1991; Enginarlar, 1993;Hyland, F, 1998; Mahfoudh, 2011; Setrallah 2012) indicate that

students do have both positive and negative opinions about teacher written feedback.

In an earlier study investigating students' attitudes towards teacher written feedback, its scope and usefulness, Radecki and Swales(1988) identified three types of attitudes namely receptors(46%), semi –resistors(41%) and resistors (13%). The researchers, therefore, concluded that on the whole students appreciate teacher feedback; however, students want direct teacher correction of all the surface errors.

Replicating Radecki and Swales' study(1988) in Turkey, Enginarlar (1993) found the same results in that students hold strong positive feelings towards teacher written feedback. He also found that the students' orientations toward feedback reflected the divisions identified by Radecki and Swales notably (1) attention to linguistic errors; (2) guidance on compositional skills; and (3) overall evaluative comments on content and quality of writing.

More recently, Mahfoodh (2011) conducted a qualitative case study in Yemen investigating EFL students' affective reactions to and perceptions of their teachers' written feedback. The results revealed that the participating students expressed both positive and negative reactions towards teacher written feedback. Students' positive reactions, on the one hand, consisted of reading their drafts after getting written feedback from their teachers paying attention to the written feedback they received , appreciating their teachers praising their written texts, ideas, or their drafts and considering their teachers' written feedback helpful and useful for revisions and their future writings. The negative opinions, on the other

hand, stem from students' inability to understand written feedback and much of the red pen.

Similar results were obtained by Setrallah (2012) who conducted a study in the English department of University of Algiers 2. To examine the type of feedback provided by the teacher, the students' reactions towards that feedback and the extent to which they took it into account when revising. The results showed that students hold both positive and negative opinions about teacher written feedback. Concerning the positive opinions, students confessed that teacher written feedback helped them know their writing weaknesses and consolidate their achievements. The study also demonstrated that the subjects had different teacher written feedback expectations which were almost all met by their teacher and more interestingly that they favored form-oriented feedback teacher feedback focused more on form more than content because students made more linguistic mistakes.

As far as the students' negative opinions are concerned, the researcher classified them into three categories: filling students' drafts with red pen, difficulty to understand teachers' handwriting /symbols and inefficacy of feedback handling strategies.

The conclusions reached showed that though students faced certain difficulties when dealing with teacher written feedback, most of them seemed to have a highly positive perception of it. They gave it a great value. Nevertheless, students rejected teacher written feedback that was vague, not clear , confusing and does not match with their expectations and preferences (Hyland and Hyland, 2006;

Nicol, 2009;Nicol, 2010). This type of feedback can be characterized as monologic, unidirectional, whereby students are compelled to accept their teacher written feedback uncritically, as opposed to dialogical feedback, where students are encouraged to articulate their feedback misunderstandings and preferences. With this regard, the most valuable and effective form of feedback is now commonly considered to be that which is framed as a dialogue as this latter is said to lead to text improvement (Berzsenyi, 2001; Nicol, 2009; Bloxham and Campbell, 2010). The next section explores the effect of teacher written feedback dialogue on EFL students and teachers.

2.5 The effect of teacher written feedback dialogue on EFL students and teachers

Recent theoretical approaches into improving teacher written feedback practices are increasingly emphasizing the dialogical nature of the teacher written feedback and argue for an urgent need to recast students as active agents. Indeed, a growing number of researchers are questioning the efficiency of the traditional, unidirectional and one-way communication feedback embedded in a discourse where students have no access to. Hyland F, (1998) investigated students' reactions to and uses of teacher written feedback and argued for a dynamic dialogue between teacher and students about feedback to guard against miscommunication and misunderstanding.

To avoid miscommunication, teachers and students, she asserted, should communicate their aims and expectations about teacher feedbackto gain an awareness of the student's perspective and an understanding of what each

student brings to the course in terms of past experiences and expectations. Consequently, many empirical studies have espoused this contention and investigated ways of making teacher feedback dialogical and sensitive to learner feedback needs and preferences.

With the aim of developing her students' revision strategies, Berszenyi (2001) conducted a study in U.S.A to investigate the effectiveness of a revision method that she elaborated to allow her students reflect on their writings and think about responses to her feedback. This method that she called, "comment to comment", was devised after the students had finished writing the final draft. It consisted of students considering and replying responsively to each prompt in the received feedback. Students responded with discussion about their choices, justification for agreeing or disagreeing with her feedback. This was followed by an oral discussion about the grades and the evaluations. The analysis of the data allowed the generation of two broad themes: students' problems dealing with teacher written feedback and new approach to giving feedback. As far as the first theme is concerned, Berszenyi (2001)identified five problems which are: teacher's handwriting, students with low revision literacy, confusion with marginal / end comments, providing too directive comments, and students not elaborating. Concerning her new approach to giving feedback, she indicated five changes namely learning to phrase suggestions as questions, inviting students to disagree, dealing with mechanics, learning to convey suggestion clearly, and praise.

However, students reported less satisfaction with this revision method and criticized her for not requiring them to rewrite their drafts. As a result of this

critique, she included second draft which reinforces the importance of revision as an ongoing process since students could see improvements in the final draft as compared to the first draft.

Two years later, Perpignan (2003) carried out a study in Israel to investigate the written dialogue that took place between herself and a group of her students. For this purpose, she used a slightly different technique to elicit both the teacher and students' reactions and responses to receive feedback. Perpignan's technique, that she called matching game, was devised to observe the processes used by the teacher and the learners respectively in formulating and interpreting the feedback. The teacher's responses about her intentions were recorded verbally and retrospectively while students showed preferences for written responses. The collected data allowed the matching of these intentions and interpretations. Another activity, that she named, "Z activity" was meant to help student make the requests for feedback that would be most useful to them. The activity consisted of giving students an essay of unknown students with a number of feedback items. Students were asked to study each item and to indicate their preferences for feedback on their own compositions. Questionnaire and interview were used to for data collection. Four main conclusions were derived from this study. First, a large range of preferences was manifested for the feedback contents, types and intentions, but most students preferred feedback on organization. Second, it was also demonstrated that through the dialogue initiated by the feedback, it was possible to create better conditions for understanding. Third, a wide range of strategies were used by students for feedback revisions. Fourth, the manners of

dealing with the teacher as authority through the feedback tended to vary greatly among students.

In a study conducted in the U.K, Bloxham and Campbell (2010). The researchers used interactive cover sheets with nine first-year students as a means of increasing dialogue between teacher and students. These cover sheets were used to prompt dialogue between teacher and students regarding assessment tasks and feedback. They were attached to the front of a student's assignment, which involve students' questions about areas of their work on which they would like feedback,and teachers were required to provide feedback at answering these queries, but this did notstop teachers raising additional issues not identified by students. Data were collected in the form of their feedback questions and interviews with students and teachers. Although some students had difficulty formulating high-level conceptual questions, as most students asked superficial questions regarding mechanics and layout, the study reported some positive learning benefits. Instead of ignoring teacher written feedback, the process made the participating students think about their work. Their role shifted from passive to active learners who could take some responsibility for their interaction with the teacher. Also the teacher gained an understanding of the different processes students go through in order to produce an assignment and could target their feedback comments more effectively. Nevertheless, the researchers concluded that students might be more able to ask valuable questions if they had received some element of feedback first and then generate a more in-depth understanding of how their work matches with the teachers' intention.

Finally, a study conducted in Hong Kong by Carless(2006) investigated the perceptions of students and teachers of the assessment and feedback process in terms of discourse, power and emotion. The feedback used in this study involved responses to student assignments and covers written comments on drafts, and verbal dialogue prior to or after submission. suggested were grouped into five themes : students and teachers differing perceptions regarding ; using feedback for improvement; comprehensibility of feedback and criteria; judgments, power relations and bias; and emotions, grades and failure. Carless (2006), therefore, explicitly argued for the necessity to engage with students in a dialogue about assessment procedures and being more open to student questions. He warned against failure to find time for such dialogues which may engender negative consequences such as student dissatisfaction and underachievement.

Conclusion

In this chapter, teacher written feedback has been examined from a dialogical perspective. As a pedagogical tool, teacher written feedback contains heavy informational load which helps students consolidate their writings in promoting language accuracy, clarity of ideas and raising students' awareness of readers' expectations. However, the different studies reviewed in this chapter reveal that most EFL students often found it unclear and deficient in quality. These instances of dissatisfactions stem from a mismatch between students' feedback preferences and interests with the teacher's feedback practices as this type of feedback is essentially monologic and one- way communication whereby students are compelled to accept it uncritically. This implies that feedback is not a mere

adjunct to assessment but a social task between teacher and students whereby the teacher constructs feedback on the basis of her educational experiences and backgrounds and students' react / respond to that feedback on the basis of their learning experiences and opinions. This chapter has demonstrated that written feedback is best conceptualized as a dialogic, a two-way process as well as active students involvement. Through dialogue, students are encouraged to dispute, question, and challenge teachers' feedback practices. This implies that teachers need to move beyond the act of feedback itself and reflect on factors that influence feedback delivery and students' responses.

To explore the teacher written feedback dialogue, Exploratory Practice was used as a methodological framework for this study. The view of dialogue as a social and a collegial enterprise seems congruent with the principles of EP. These principles highlight the social aspects of teaching and learning and reflect the idea that understandings are collective as well as individual and stress the essential contribution of the learners in the process of understanding. First, I shall review EP in terms of origins, aims, principles and steps and compare it with other approaches to classroom research.

CHAPETR THREE :

EXPLORATORY PRACTICE AS A METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY OF THE TEACHER WRITTEN FEEDBACK DIALOGUE

Introduction

In order to examine the dialogue that took place between my students and me through my written feedback to their writings, the principles and practices of EP as a methodology of research have been used. The main lines of research are discussed in this chapter as well as the extent to which Exploratory Practice- the methodological base-line of this study can encourage dialogue within the language classroom.

3.1 Defining Exploratory Practice (EP)

The concept of Exploratory Practice (EP) was developed in Brazil through collaborative work at the Cultura Inglesa , Rio De Janeiro , involving Dick Allwright from the Linguistics Department at Lancaster University (England) and staff members at the Rio Cultura (principally Roza Lenzuen , the Manager of Teacher Training, Development and Research in Brazil (Allwright 2000).

Specifically, Exploratory Practice is the name Allwright (2000, 2002 and 2003) gave to a new mode of classroom investigations which provides both teachers and learners with a systematic framework to identify the areas of language teaching/ learning that they wish to understand using familiar classroom activities, rather than “academic” research techniques, as the investigative tools(Allwright and Lenzuen,1997).Understanding life in the classroom is the main challenge of both teachers and learners as this understanding will provide a “good foundation for helping teachers and learners make their time together both pleasant and productive (Allwright 2003). Allwright (2000) summarized

what Exploratory Practice involves and contributes to in the following statements

A-Practitioners (e.g. teachers and learners together are working to understand

a. What they want to understand, following their own agenda ;
b. Not necessarily in order to bring about change ,
c. Not primarily by changing;
d. But by using normal pedagogic practices as investigative tools;
e. In a way that does not lead to "burn-out", but that is indefinitely sustainable.

B-In order to contribute to :

f- Teaching and learning;

g- Professional development, both individual and collective.

The next section traces back the academic and practical origins of Exploratory P ractice.

3.2 Development of Exploratory Practice:

In this section , the academic and practical origins of Exploratory Practice will be presented as a new form of practitioner research as well as review the main slogan EP is based on "think globally, act locally, think locally".

3.2.1 Academic origins of Exploratory Practice

The academic origins of EP were first stated in the epilogue to Allwright's book with Kath y Bailey (1991). In this book, entitled Focus on the Language Classroom, Allwright presents classroom research as so demanding that teachers would not be able to apply it only if they had extra time. This book

outlines a set of principles. The most important one is the primacy of 'understanding'. This is a principle that has retained all its importance. By the centrality of understanding is meant that research should aim at the development of situational understanding (Hanks, 2015). This principle is in contrast with the primary aim of Action Research which is to bring practical solutions to practical problems (Nunan, 1989).

The second principle deals with the role given to researchers. In this epilogue, Allwright suggests that a researcher should be a consultant rather than research director. In assuming such role, the researcher should advise on the conduct of classroom investigations without controlling the research schedule. Allwright also insists on the role of learners as active participants in the overall investigations so that they would have their own research schedule, and follow their own interest in understanding life in the language classroom. The aim is to allow both teacher and learners make sense of the classroom language learning

In the last principle, Allwright advocates working with 'puzzles' rather than 'problems'. The aim is to avoid the negatively – loaded notion of a 'problem', and to widen the investigative research to areas that were in any practical sense problematic.

3.2.2 Practical origins of Exploratory Practice

The practical origins of EP can be traced back approximately at the same period as the academic ones were being published. The story of EP deals with how Allwright became dissatisfied at the beginning of 1990's with an overwhelming approach to research by teachers in their own classrooms.

However, his visit to Brazil caused him to put into question his previous assumptions about classroom research and move from academic to practitioner research. Indeed, as a specialist in classroom research, Allwright was invited, in mid – to late- 1980's to teach a practical course on classroom research, and to act as classroom research consultant to headquarters of the Rio De Janeiro Cultura Inglesa for two months. The aim of his visit was to teach them teaching classroom research skills.

At first, the course on classroom research techniques seemed an easy enterprise. Nonetheless, as the course progressed, Allwright realized that it was "thoroughly a misguided enterprise" (Allwright 2003:118). There were two main sources for this troubling awareness. The first source was the awareness that the project was heavily parasitic on the normal working lives of teachers, rather than helpful to them. Allwright's visit to teacher groups around Rio made him realize that it was hopelessly impractical to expect such classroom teachers become classroom researchers, given their jobs as part- time employees. Classroom research made heavy demands on teachers' time between and during classes.

The second source of worry came from the comments made by the teachers at the various meetings. These comments can be summarized as follows:

- Some teachers were already trying to understand their classroom practicesby using classroom activities (group discussion).
- These teachers claimed that such understanding was sufficient. To illustrate this point, Allwright reported the work of a teacher, who used group work

discussion to investigate students' inability to stay in English throughout the task. She simply discussed the matter as a topic for group discussion. The teacher was very astonished with how her students engaged seriously in the topic. She also noticed that they seemed to understand each other cognitively and affectively. To check it all the very next time she asked her students to get into groups to discuss something in English, they were trying much harder than before to stay in English. She concluded that what was a practical 'problem' to be solved, turned into an issue of understanding that resolved itself.

These teachers considered their learners as generators of understanding not merely consumers as they actively involved them into the whole enterprise of developing classroom understanding.

This ongoing work at the Cultura Inglesa De Janeiro resulted in the development ofa new form of classroom-based research exploratory practice – and its assimilation into the normal working and professional development practices of Rio Cultura teachers.

By reflecting on this fruitful experience, Allwright (2003) outlined the key features of Exploratory Practice which are summarized as follows:

The aim of EP is to prioritize the quality of life of our learning-teaching environment. Allwright's contact with Rio Cultura teachers gave him a totally and radically different perspective on the role of teachers. Before the experience, Allwright assumed the main objective of teachers was to become the best. By meeting teachers Rio, he realized that they should above all

enhance the quality of life in the language classroom. From this perspective, Allwright argued that EP should be more about life than about work.

 EP aims to develop teachers' understanding of the quality of learning-teaching life instead of simply looking for a sophisticated teaching technique. The notion 'quality of life' is delicate enough. According to Allwright the main function of EP would then be to develop that by finding classroom time for deliberate work for understanding by exploiting normal classroom activities.

EP recognizes the fundamental social nature of the cooperative search for understanding which involves both learner and teachers.

Allwright rejected Action Research, but he did not reject the concept of practitioner research in itself. Instead, in 2005, he asserted that he liked the critical idea that research about practice could perhaps be most sensibly carried out by practitioners themselves striving to understand their own practices. In what follows, we shall examine in what ways EP is a new form of Practitioner Research.

3.3 Exploratory Practice as a rethought form of Practitioner Research

Allwright developed Exploratory Practice as a new approach to practitioner research that aims to understand the quality of language classroom life in reaction to Action Research because of its technicist emphasis on practice. In an article, Alwright(1997) attempted to define practitioner research contrasting it with academic research and asserted that to be successful, practitioner

research should be a continuous pedagogic enterprise which should directly lead to local understandings. This local understanding, will in return, be incorporated into practice, and that may contribute to more global understandings, and thus to the development of theory. On the contrary, success in academic research depends on research projects that produce more or less irrefutable findings, that can be systematically related to the development of theory, and that may ultimately be applicable to practice.

This pessimistic view of Action Research pushed Allwright to rethink of a non-technicist view of practitioner research, a framework that addressed fundamental issues involved in the conception of practitioners investigating their own practices. It would then be possible to see EP as a form of rethought practitioner research involving five main principles (Allwright, 2005) . These principles are explained below:

1. **Practitioner Research is not an 'academic' research method:**

Here, Allwright (2005) explained that the concept practitioner research does not describe an academic/traditional research method. Rather it deals primarily with a relationship of identity between the people being investigated and the people doing the investigation.

2. **Practitioner research is a "first person plural" notion :**

Allwright(2005) further explained that this relationship of identity has an important influence on the methodology of any practitioner research investigation as it, ethically, requires a relationship of trust between the practitioners and a relationship of mutual collegiality. This entails that all

persons taking part in the practice have the right to develop their own understandings.

3. Practitioner research must be about the lives of the practitioners:

This means that practitioner research needs to go beyond the technical problems and consider people under investigation are living together in the practice. This view of practitioner research leads us to consider the notion of research as a supportive rather than as a parasitic activity in which improving the quality of life of the practitioners(i.e. improving the nature of the human relationship between teacher and learner in terms of interpersonal trust) matters more than solving technical problems.

4. Practitioner research must be about understanding:

The first enterprise undertaken by Allwright was to prioritize understanding over problem-solving. However, he soon realized that understanding was not enough in itself; it needed to be associated to an adequate objective which was the nature of life in the language classroom for teachers and learners. Therefore, the main purpose of EP is to improve the quality of life of teachers and students in the language classroom. In traditional academic research, understanding was "upwards" towards the highest levels of intellectual scientific understanding. This means that understanding was achieved by researchers who passed it down to who wanted to use it. In practice, however, such statement is not appropriate according to Allwright. Indeed, he argued that it is practically not useful because it is difficult to make accurate predictions about what will happen in real classrooms. He then advocated that

understanding should be "downwards". This means looking for deep human understandings rather than high-level scientific ones. This entails, understanding human relationship between teachers and students in real classroom settings which most of the time cannot be explained through words (Allwright, 2005)

5. Practitioner research must raise the issue of agency:

As EP emphasizes a relationship of identity between researcher and practitioner, practitioner research provides new vision of the relationship between those who understand, and those who try to use it. Instead of the traditional third-party research in which the researcher first gets an understanding by investigating others and then passes that understanding on to others, in practitioner research, teachers and learners attempt to understand their classroom settings without being forced to use any preconceived theory.

To summarize, one may say that Allwright's disillusionment with traditional and academic research led him to develop other propositions which in turn gave birth to Exploratory Practice as a new form of Practitioner Research. These propositions are as follows:

- Firstly, prioritize the quality of life in the language classroom
- Secondly, strive to develop understandings of the quality of language classroom life.
- Thirdly, working for understanding should be essentially a fundamentally social matter involving all practitioners, learners as well as teachers.

Indeed, Allwright believes that teachers and learners are far more suited than researchers to understand their teaching and learning settings and can do so by using simple pedagogical procedures as investigative tools.

At this stage, it is worth underlying that EP "put learners fully at center-stage, alongside teachers, as key developing practitioners in their own right" (Allwright and Hanks, 2009:1). This implies that in order to develop a general understanding of learning, learners also need to develop their own understanding as key practitioners of learning; and be encouraged to investigate their own puzzles about their own learning.

"Inclusive practitioner research"is therefore proposed by Allwright and associates to encourage teachers and learners to work together as co-practitioners.

3.4 Learners as active practitioners in the process of understanding

Within a similar vein, Allwright and Hanks (2009) provided a detailed view of the role of learners as key developing practitioners within their five propositions which are expressed in a single sentence as follows: "Learners are both unique individuals and social beings who are capable of taking learning seriously, of taking independent decisions ,and of developing as practitioners of learning (Allwright and Hanks, 2009:15). The section examines these five propositions.

1st proposition: Learners are unique individuals who learn and develop best in their own idiosyncratic ways. This first proposition entails that learners can best learn and develop as practitioners of learning only if their unique individuality is respected.

2nd proposition: Learners are social beings who learn and develop best in a mutually supportive environment. Being unique does not mean be in isolation or asocial rather they are also social beings evolving in a social environment with other learners.

3rd proposition: Learners are capable of taking learning seriously. This implies that teachers should hold positive opinions about their learners. In other words, they need to trust them and believe that they are willing to conform to what their teachers expect of them. If teachers do not take students' views seriously, it may be difficult for them to learn.

4th proposition: Learners are capable of independent decision-making. Taking learning seriously will thus allow learners to feel autonomous. Giving learners the opportunity to learn how to take their own personal decisions about what to learn, when to learn it, how to learn it, and so on.

5th proposition: Learners are capable of developing as practitioners of learning. It seems unrealistic to expect learners to be fully developed; however, following the above mentioned propositions, there is always room for their ability and maturity to develop towards taking their own learning seriously, and taking productive independent decisions about it. This discussion leads to

consider another major tenet of EP which is "think globally and act locally, think locally".

3.5 Cyclical view of Exploratory Practice

Allwright (2003) conceived of Exploratory Practice as a dynamic cyclical relationship between 'global' thinking, 'local' actions, and 'local 'thinking, In other words, EP is based on the tenet which says "think globally, act locally and think locally" (Allwright 2003:115). In this regard, we need some global principles for general guidance, but we need to see how to put them into practice. The diagram below represents this description:

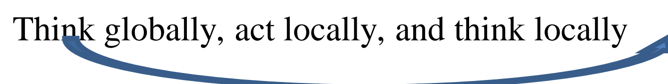

Figure 3.1 Allwright's diagram of thinking globally and acting locally

This diagram can be explained as follows

- By global thinking is meant context –free. Here we try to identify the fundamental principles which underlie what our language teaching research aims to achieve. For instance, the aforementioned propositions illustrate this global thinking.
- Then, in the light of those principles, we act locally, that is we work out the immediate implications of those principles in our local context.
- More principles are then expected to emerge from the local situations. Whether challenging the original principles or not, they at least contribute to the development of our global thinking, and let us approach any new setting with more self-confidence.

Since it is a cyclical process, a constant interplay between the three (i.e. thinking globally, acting locally, and thinking locally) is expected. In fact, as Allwright (2003) clearly explained, these principles are not context free but derived from the sum total of our experiences in particular contexts. In this respect, Allwright further clarified that new situations are approached by global principles, but, in reality, it is the actual 'practices', that are carried around most easily from situation to situation, and not our 'principles'. In this respect, Allwright claimed that the best 'baggage' that can be taken from situation to situation, is the cyclical interrelationship between the global and the local, in our thought and our action that tells a productive story. Thinking globally, acting locally and thinking locally have produced a set of principles and steps, but before examining them, the aims of EP need to be considered first.

3.6 Aims of Exploratory Practice: What Exploratory Practice is intended for?

Exploratory Practice is not to bring change in teacher's practices. Instead, it aims at offering a sustainable way of developing teachers' understandings within their practices, with a minimum of intrusion, and a maximum potential for practical and personal benefit. As stated earlier, trying out a proposed change, and finding out whether it improves the situation, is the purpose of Action Research, not of Exploratory Practice. Allwright (1992) identified seven aims of Exploratory Practice as follows:

- **Relevance:** teachers should bring research into their own teaching situation. The puzzle they explore needs to be relevant to themselves and to their leaners, regardless of what concerns academic researchers.
- **Reflection:** integrating research and pedagogy enhances reflection, by both teachers and learners. Reflection is seen as a motive force for development.
- **Continuity:** Exploratory practice should be regarded as a continuous enterprise, not something that a teacher will try once and then drop forever. Continuity should be encouraged.
- **Collegiality:** the aim of EP is to bring teachers together more and bring teachers closer to learners as well.
- **Learner Development:** EP also strives to help learners develop as learners. Ensuring that the questions asked are seen as relevant by learners as well as teachers, and that learners, like teachers, are invited to reflect on their experiences to reach learner development.
- **Teacher Development:** EP also contributes to teacher's own development, and to the more general professional development of the field.
- **Theory Building**: Finally yet importantly, the ultimate objective of EP is to build upon the articulated understandings of the people most closely involved, the teachers and the learners, working together to develop their own understandings of their own experiences.

In the coming section, the principles of EP are explained in detail

3.7 Principles of Exploratory Practice

Allwright (2002, 2003) identified seven principles to EP. They are defined below:

a. Put 'quality of life' first:

According to Allwright, the main aim of conducting EP is to improve the quality of life of both teachers and learners.

b. Work primarily to understand language classroom life:

Allwright (2002, and 2003) greatly insisted on this principle as being the key element in EP. Working to understand, not trying to solve the problem is at the core of Allwright's EP.

c. Involve everybody:

In this case, students will be involved not as objects of research, but as participants, and thus as co-researchers.

d. Work to bring people together:

EP stresses the importance of bringing participants together, in an atmosphere of collegiality. These participants may involve teachers, and learners.

e. Work for mutual development:

EP will be efficient if the teacher and students are involved for each other's development.

f. Integrate the work for understanding into classroom practice:

Research on classroom practice must not become scrounging on the life it is attempting to understand. For that reason, EP is totally integrated into practice.

This practice itself needs to be carried out in a way that the work for understanding would become a usual part of classroom practice. For example, giving learners an opportunity to discuss whatever is puzzling them through the standard pedagogic activities of the classroom such as role plays, class discussion etc.

g. Make the work a continuous enterprise:

EP needs to be seen as an indefinitely continuous enterprise, if only to reflect the fact that any language classroom is a dynamic social situation.

These principles are implemented in terms of steps which are described in the next section.

3.8 Basic steps of Exploratory Practice

In line with the above description of the principles of EP, Allwright (2000) identified six stages of EP.

1. Identifying the puzzle

The first step in EP entails identifying the puzzle in what is currently happening in a teaching/learning situation. The first major difference from Action Research is the choice of the term ‘puzzle’ rather than ‘problem’. EP works with “puzzles” to avoid the negative connotation of problem. This is not to mean that enhanced understanding may not lead to implementing change in practice Dar et al (2013). In EP not only teachers have their puzzles but learners may have their own puzzles which could be investigated by the whole class. At this stage, the teacher needs to acknowledge that the focus should be

on understanding the situation she sees problematic not necessarily to find a solution.

2. **Reflecting on the puzzle**

Reflecting involves puzzling about it. At this stage, the teacher sees how far he/she can go towards an adequate degree of understanding without taking any direct action. Teachers may work individually and/ or collectively, to develop understanding, not to propose solutions, at least not yet.

3. **Monitoring**

If the teacher does not reach an adequate understanding, monitoring to gather data will be adopted. Monitoring means gathering naturally occurring data For example, appointing a group member to observe, take notes, and report back. It is important that monitoring may bring enough understanding to the teacher's puzzle.

4. **Taking direct action to gather data**

If the understanding is still not adequate, the teacher can take action to generate relevant data by using standard pedagogic activities. For example, group members could interview each other about the puzzle. In the spirit of EP, using classroom language activities in order to generate data is highly advocated. The easiest example of a common classroom language activity is small-group discussion. In the course of discussion with students, not only teachers would enrich their understanding of the puzzle, but also students would understand themselves better. This group discussion may be videotaped,

or students may be asked to summarize their arguments on posters (Allwright 2000).

5. Considering outcomes so far, and deciding what to do next

This stage involves analyzing the data, and then deciding how it should be interpreted either through further small group discussion, or with poster presentations for plenary discussion. At this stage, the teacher ponders on the collected data and sees if she has collected the adequate data to decide whether to go back to stage 1 and reformulate the question or need help to develop a more adequate understanding.

6. Moving on

Once the teacher has reached an adequate level of understanding, the next stage would be to move on. At this stage, the teacher may either feel satisfied to have contributed to the improvement of quality of life of teaching and learning or may get upset about the uncovered problem.

7. Going public

This stage involves the teacher sharing her understanding of the teaching and learning situation with others, in the hope that they can benefit from them.

3.9 Exploratory Practice and other approaches to Classroom Research

As stated before, the main reason which led Allwright to develop Exploratory Practice as a new concept for classroom-based research is his disillusion towards Action Research and traditional approaches to classroom research.

Indeed, in the late 1990's Action Research was widely proposed and was adopted as the main vehicle for this new concept of classroom research (Wallace, 1998; Burns, 1999). However, Action Research did not in itself bring academic classroom researchers back into direct connection with teaching (Allwright, 1997). Accordingly, Action Research is based on some fallacies. Unlike EP, the aim of Action Research was to improve classroom teaching by isolating practical problems and solving one by one. This improvement was best achieved by the practitioners involved i.e. the teachers solving their classroom problems using sophisticated teaching techniques. Moreover, in Action Research, students' voices and identity were ignored in the classroom arena. This implies language teaching and learning could be reduced to a relatively unproblematic and asocial activity (Hall, 2000; Allwright, 2003).

On the basis of these misconceptions, Allwright developed EP as an alternative to Action Research and traditional classroom research

At the heart of EP is the idea of a teacher engaged in attempting to reach an understanding about what is going on in the classroom. Thus EP fits in between Reflective Practice and Action Research, being more action-oriented than the former and more understanding-oriented than the latter (Allwright, 1999, 2000). EP is linked to the notion of Action Research, being also a classroom-based mode of inquiry. However, it differs considerably from Action Research not only because EP regards pedagogical practices as fundamental research tools, but also in its use of teacher and learner 'puzzles' about classroom situations as a first step towards the understanding of the quality of language

classroom life as opposed to Action Research's use of standard academic research techniques in an attempt at directly solving practical classroom problems. Figure 3.2 below summarizes the main differences between Exploratory Practice, Action Research and Reflective Practice.

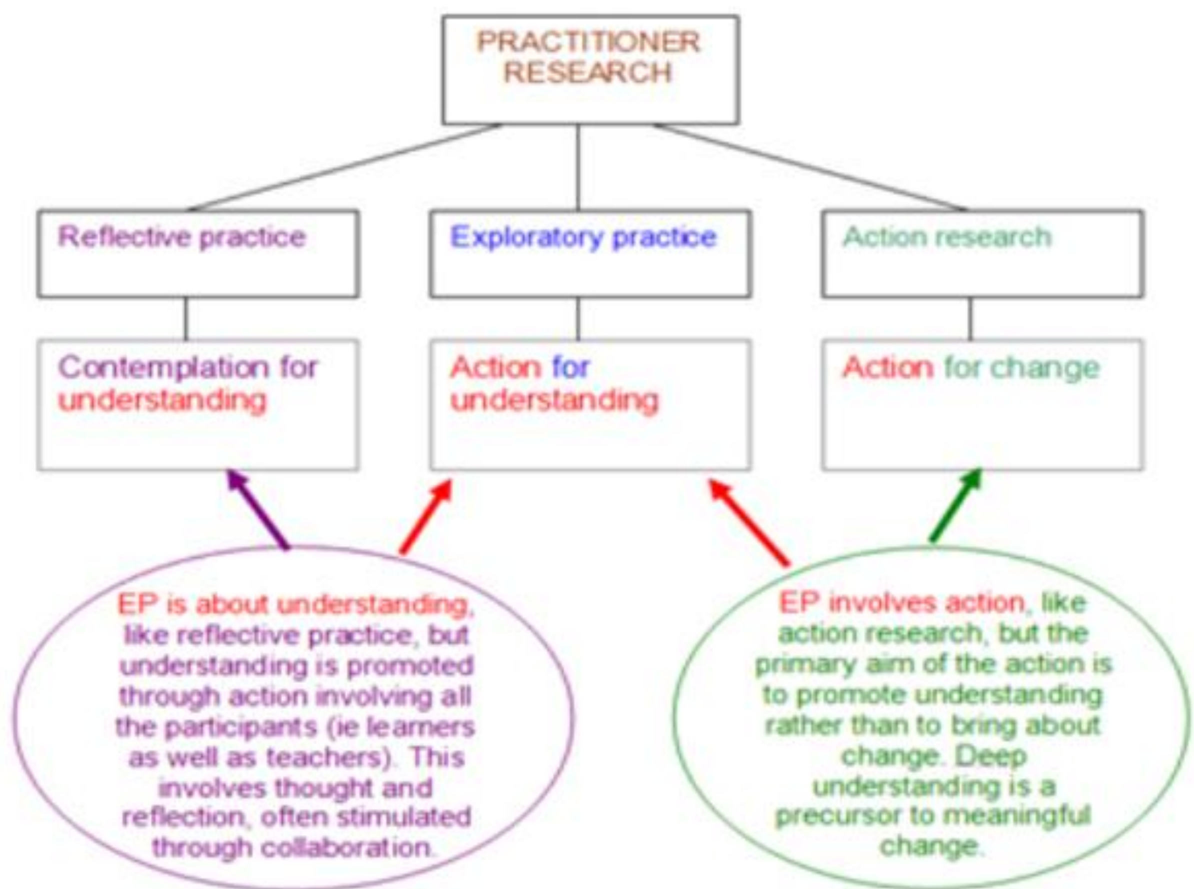

Figure 3.2: relationship between Exploratory Practice, Action Research and Reflective Practitioner

(http://www.prodait.org/approaches/exploratory/relate.php)

Figure 3.2 illustrates how each model deals with classroom research with regard to contemplation and action, understanding and change. In a proposal of Reflective Practice, contemplation for understanding prevails, and thus makes

it too reflective, lacking in action. In Action Research, action for change is the main concern without reaching adequate understanding of the issue/problem. In comparison with Reflective Practice and Action Research, the aim of Exploratory Practice is to be neither too reflective nor too action motivated. It aims to develop understanding about the issue /puzzle first through contemplation and then, if necessary, via action. In the end, action for change could be taken where necessary. In most cases, EP develops understanding either through contemplation or action for understanding.

Moreover, one of the advantages of the EP research model is that it occurs within the normal process of teaching and learning, with a minimum of extra work. In this way it is very different from other kinds of research, which are usually part of a research project, involving considerable amounts of extra work. Researchers have applied EP to different kinds of classroom research. Chuck (2004) investigated the reasons that impeded her 16 students to be autonomous. Edwards (2005) explored students' reluctance to participate in the classroom. Perpignan (2003) researched the effect of her written feedback to her students and their responses to it.

More importantly, unlike those approaches to classroom research, EP is regarded as a localized critical pedagogy. As said earlier, critical pedagogy is highly valued as it is principally concerned with criticizing current educational policies and subsequently transforms both education and society (Breunig, 2005; Hall, 2000). Stated differently, critical pedagogy fosters awareness of self and considers the classroom as both pedagogical and social encounter

where participants struggle for power and emancipation (Hall, 2000). Critical pedagogy offers theoretical positions from which teachers and learners develop their own agendas and strategies in their quest of understanding and empowerment within their local classroom setting. This implies that teachers and learners work together to develop their own critical local practices and understanding. With this regard, Hall (2000:14) argued "the classroom thus becomes the appropriate conceptual lens through which teachers and learners can establish successful critical pedagogy which empowers learners".

This is precisely what Exploratory Practice advocates. Specifically, EP is a research framework that helps teachers ensure that the language, lessons, and learning processes are both locally appropriate and desirable to learners through constant discussion, exploration, and on-going evaluation of the pedagogy within the pedagogical process itself by teachers and learners. In other words, Exploratory Practice involves a continuous, relevant, and sustainable exploration within existing pedagogy(Allwright and Lenzeun, 1997).Thus, teaching becomes a 'thinking activity' as teachers are empowered to work with learners within a critical perspective, producing different understandings of classroom events and their relation to wider society . Allwright developed EP as a reaction to some misconceptions on which traditional academic research was based. Hall (2000) summarized these misconceptions as follows:

1. Students' voice and identity are ignored in the classroom arena.
2. The view of teaching as a technical process prescribed by the experts and implemented by teachers.
3. Teachers are disempowered losing control of the classroom and thus became merely technicians.
4. Intrinsic power of teachers over learners due to their powerful control in the classroom.

On the basis of these misconceptions, Allwright developed a critical-reflexive approach to teaching-learning languages and to research, which has two-fold objectives. The first objective is to encourage both teachers and their learners to become researchers of their own classrooms at the same time as they went on with their teaching and learning process. The second objective is to improve the quality of life of the language classroom. The next section describes EP as a reflexive approach.

3.10 Exploratory Practice as a reflective approach

Another important characteristic of Exploratory Practice is its focus on reflexivity. Within Exploratory Practice, reflection is regarded as an integral part of the puzzling process, and as a key to developing understanding. Allwright (2000) emphasized the importance of reflection in the process of refining the initial puzzle and of analyzing and interpreting the data, and stresses the intellectual hard work usually involved. He, nevertheless, warned against coming to early conclusions and assuming all the data has been covered before it actually has been. Within a similar vein, Bezerra and Miller (2015)

argued that a reflexive approach increases a teacher's understandings of the quality of their personal professional lives and helps them develop more intense professional maturity.

Reflecting on the data in some way is seen as a central part of EP, and may lead to understanding, or it may lead to the need to collect more data for reflection in order to further improve understanding. 'Reflecting involves puzzling…to see how far you can go towards an adequate degree of understanding without actually taking any direct action (Allwright 2000: 10).

One crucial requirement of reflection is that it should be both unobtrusive and meaningful. To this end, therefore, practitioners should integrate the investigation into established classroom practices and involve learners in the reflective practice in a mutually-beneficial way. By situating the reflection within one's classroom, Crane argued (2015:2) "teachers can then discover and construct with their learners personally relevant, localized understandings about learning and teaching". The next section discusses EP as a locally-relevant classroom enterprise.

3.11 Exploratory Practice as a locally- relevant classroom enterprise

The originality of Exploratory Practice lies in its particular emphasis on reaching a localized classroom understanding. Allwright (2003: 121) suggests that through EP 'situated understandings' rather than generalized understandings are more likely to be the outcome, which makes it an attractive approach for classroom researchers seeking understanding about their own individual situations. EP does not prescribe any particular method or technique

for generating data, and the ways data are gathered are as varied as the classrooms they reflect because it involves using normal classroom activities, which differ from one class to another depending on the course, teaching and learning objectives.

EP has primarily been formulated as a set of global principles rather than as a set of practices. It means that teachers are free to develop their own practices (derived from the principles) to outfit their own particular circumstances. EP does not claim to offer ‘generalized understandings. Instead, Allwright (2003) suggested that in EP, it is the investigative procedures that may be of interest to others rather than any particular findings. Moreover, he stressed the importance of situated understandings when contemplating change. He argued that only a thoughtful effort to understand life in a particular classroom context will enable the teacher and the students to decide whether a practical change is necessary in that particular setting.

3.12 Relevance of Exploratory Practice to the situated context of my study

In any research, the selection of a research method depends on the nature of the research problem and the researcher’s ontology, epistemology and methodological assumptions. First, ontology refers to one’s assumption and perception about reality and truth. Second, epistemology is concerned with what people think about what knowledge is and what testifies it as such. The third assumption depends on the two previous ones (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

For my study, EP was used as a research methodology because I believe that EP's principles and practices are congruent with the aim of this study, which examines the dialogue initiated by my written feedback and students' reactions and attitudes to my written feedback. Feedback to student writing is viewed as a constant dialogue, which involves the participation of both teacher and students in their attempt to reach a mutual understanding of the text-writing process. This is in accordance with second and third principles of EP which make EP a social activity involving both teacher and learners working primarily to understand classroom life.

Exploratory Practice appealed to me because my chief concern to use an ethical research framework that could give me the opportunity to explore why my teacher feedback practices are not working so well at times and thus to increase my understanding of my writing classroom. Embarking on this type of research allowed me to know better my students, develop a closer relationship with them, and discover their feedback needs and attitudes.

Besides, Exploratory Practice encouraged students to take an active part in the study by expressing their feedback preferences and expectations. Exploratory Practice allowed both teacher and students to benefit from this experience. To reach my goal I had to consider both the factors that influenced the way I read and responded to my students' writings and to investigate the way my students interpreted, reacted and used my commentary in revision.

What mostly imported was to allow my students to voice freely their feedback preferences, attitudes and reactions and to state their beliefs towards the kind of

feedback they wanted to receive. In the same way, I was bound to reconsider my feedback practices and philosophies and to tailor them according to my students' needs.

However, despite the innovative insights, accessibility and proliferation, Exploratory Practice has its limitations. Specifically, two main criticisms were leveled against it. The first criticism is related to practitioners' fear that EP would follow the steps of Action Research and thus become a teacher-burden approach. The second one is a doubt that Exploratory Practice findings and understandings are not generalizable to other contexts. On this point, Burns (2005:246) wrote that Exploratory Practice "appears to follow fairly closely some of the major processes of action research, while at the same time apparently disallowing the status of research to teachers' investigative activities".

As stated before, Allwright explained that Exploratory Practice framework is based on global principles, like bringing people together and pursuing mutual development for teachers and learners…etc. At the same time, understandings and investigations are context-bound. This implies that thinking globally entails identifying fundamental EP's principles, while acting locally means in the light of those principles practitioners attempt to understand a particular puzzle in a particular classroom context. Though EP work is unlikely to yield generalizable understandings, I believe that the production of context-bound understandings would be helpful and beneficial to the immediate participants and would represent a significant achievement in itself.

Conclusion

In this chapter, Exploratory Practice has been described as a methodological base-line to explore the dialogue that took place between my students and me. Allwright developed Exploratory Practice as a new mode of classroom inquiry in reaction to Action Research. Contrary to Action Research, Exploratory Practice is a critical research framework which involves a constant, suitable and sustainable investigation within existing pedagogy. Teaching and learning become collegial and thinking activities as teachers work with learners within a critical perspective of producing understandings of classroom events. Exploratory Practice considers students are partners along with their teachers in the pursuit of understanding. Therefore, Exploratory Practice seems particularly akin to the account for the dialogue, as a social enterprise and in spirit of collegiality in order to understand my written feedback practices and my students' reactions towards that feedback. This quest of understanding was geared towards improving the quality of the life in my writing classroom that will enable more effective use of the feedback dialogue as a crucial element in the writing process. Through dialogue, my students and I worked together, and learned how to think together as they were treated as equal practitioners in this quest of understanding. To ensure the success of dialogue, I trusted, respected and tolerated my students' opinions, and assumptions. As long as we exclude students' voices and perspectives in the process of teaching and learning and how they need to improve, efforts towards improving life in the classroom will be helpless.

PART TWO:

EMPIRICAL STUDY

CHAPTER FOUR:

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

Introduction

This chapter deals with the research design and procedure of the study. It first describes the educational context in which the study was carried out and the students involved in the study. It outlines the procedure that was followed to gain an understanding of the dynamic dialogue between a group of my students and me through my written feedback and students' reactions and attitudes towards this feedback. This chapter also discusses the effectiveness of EP as a research methodology to promote a dialogue between teacher and students. It will start by identifying my puzzle and then will sketch the tools used to achieve the aforementioned understanding. This is followed by a discussion of the case study approach and the mixed methods design and a justification for using them in this research.

4.1 Educational context: the writing curriculum

The present research was conducted within the English Department, of Blida 2 University, El-Affroun Pole, now named Lounici Ali .The bachelor's degree offered by this department is a three-year undergraduate course (licence) of the LMD system. The writing course is taught during the first and second year of the English curriculum with a weekly allocation of 4 hours and a coefficient of 6 in each year. This is part of the fundamental unit that each student must acquire and counts for 2/3 of the whole writing course. The purpose of the first year writing course is to develop students' writing abilities at paragraph level. It is divided into two semesters. In the first semester students learn the characteristics of a good paragraph such as unity, coherence, correctness,

appropriate , the conventions of the written English , punctuation, capitalization and produce different types of sentences. In the second semester they are required to produce coherent and well-structured paragraph of a narrative, descriptive, cause-effect, comparison-contrast and argumentative type. The different tasks that first year students to accomplish in this course range from sentence structure activities to free paragraph writing. Students have to take two- end semester exams and two mid-term tests as part of their assessment.

4.2 Procedure

Since this study adopts EP as a research methodology the six steps of EP were followed. The process started with the identification of a classroom puzzle which involves understanding my feedback practices and students' reactions to that feedback. Then I moved back and forth between the processes of reflecting, monitoring, and taking direct action to generate data and considering the outcomes and deciding what to do next. If understanding was not achieved through interpreting the data, as the principle of EP stipulates, I would go back to the reflection stage and start the process again.

4.2.1 Identifying my puzzle:

Proponents of EP posit that the puzzle can be identified by the teacher, the students or both. In this study, the puzzle was identified by me, the teacher. Globally speaking, the puzzle involves understanding my feedback practices and my students' reactions towards that feedback.

With this respect, one of my ongoing questions as an EFL writing teacher concerns my written feedback practices. Indeed, while responding to my students' pieces of writing, my main concern has always been how best to respond to students' writing. I have always wanted to understand why most of my students do not take into consideration my feedback when rewriting their first drafts. Is it because my written feedback is not clear? Or is because it does not correspond to their expectations? If this is case, what are their feedback preferences and expectations? What are their opinions and attitudes towards the written feedback I give them? Do students' understandings of my feedback match my intentions? How can I deliver a written feedback that helps them improve their writing abilities and meet their expectations and preferences? Expectedly, when I shared my concerns with my colleagues, they all seemed to struggle with the same issue. I noticed in my writing classroom that most of my students do not understand or even misinterpret my written feedback. Some others do not always know how to incorporate it in their revisions as they still making the same mistakes which was clearly reflected in their second drafts. I became, therefore, puzzled with this issue and wanted to understand my students' feedback needs, preferences, attitudes and reactions.

Exploratory Practice recommends that such questions be formulated as puzzles or questions rather than problems as the motivation is on achieving understanding of my feedback practices and students' reactions towards that feedback. I have, therefore, formulated the research questions as follows:

1. To what extent does written feedback constitute a dialogue between my students and me?
2. Does my feedback ethos align with my students' views about feedback?
3. Do my feedback practices align with my students' feedback preferences?
4. Is this feedback dialogue likely to improve my students' writings?
5. To what extent does this feedback dialogue transform my feedback practices?
6. To what extent does this feedback dialogue transform my relationship with my students?

4.2.2 Sampling procedure

Based on the tenet that EP regards life in the language classroom as a social activity between teacher and students, both protagonists took part in the study. They are described below.

4.2.2.1 My role as a teacher and researcher:

In this EP based study, I had two roles – as the teacher and as the researcher. As the teacher of the writing class being investigated I was there to help my students develop their writing abilities whereas as a researcher I had two goals. The first goal was to gain a deeper understanding of my feedback practices while the second goal was to assess the extent to which EP helps me and my students achieve that situated understanding.

Therefore, being the teacher of the writing course at the University of Blida, I was participant observer in this study. One advantage of the teacher being a researcher is the previous knowledge of the class culture and the relationship

already established with students over the semester's work. This has formed a natural bridge between the research methodology and the pedagogy illustrating one of the main principle of EP, that of integrating the work for understanding into the life of the particular pedagogical and social circumstances. In addition, I enjoyed the advantage described by Kawulich(2005 :3) "Establishing rapport within a community and learning to act in such a way as to blend into the community so that its members will act naturally, then removing oneself from the setting or community to immerse oneself in the data to understand what is going on and be able to write about it."

However, Kawulich (2005) stressed that the participant should not hold any judgmental attitudes; instead they should be interested in learning more about others, being careful observers and good listeners, and being open to the unexpected in what is learned .

Indeed, the mechanism of EP in understanding classroom life is achieved by investigating and being researcher in the class. The teachers make question for themselves and for student about the way they teach, and the conditions of the student. In other words, classroom teachers are regarded as seekers of helpful understanding due to their close contact with both the puzzle and the students (Gieve and Miller, 2006).

Effectively, the participating students may have been disturbed by the knowledge that they are taking part in this research, but the relationship I had with my students may have yielded more valuable free responses.

4.2.2.2 Participating students

Ten first year university students took part in the study. They were selected randomly from a group of 40 students. These students were already familiar with the term ‘feedback’. This small number of students can be explained by the fact that most research investigating writing matters undertook small case studies as these latters have proven to be more effective (Zamel, 1983; Hyland, F, 1998; Hyland and Hyland, 2001).

The participants were given the choice between six general topics of general knowledge; two prompts illustrating a particular type of discourse which did not require a specific type of knowledge

The participating students were required to write a paragraph on these topics as part of their regular writing assignments, not as examination tasks. These students acted as active classroom practitioners, as Exploratory Practice considers both teachers and learners as equal practitioners in their localized classroom who work collectively and collegially.

Students are complex human beings who bring with them to the writing classroom their own individual personality and a bulk of beliefs and experience, expectations and attitudes about teacher written feedback which can influence their behavior and reactions towards it. This EP methodology gives them the opportunity to voice their expectations and reactions towards my written feedback. In the following section, the design of the study will be explained.

4.3 Setting up the study

The study took place over three weeks (from April – to May 2013). In the first week students wrote the first drafts. I corrected the drafts, reflected my written feedback and reported it on a narrative. In this narrative I questioned, described and analyzed my inherent assumptions, beliefs and opinions underlying my actual and past feedback practices.

In the second week, I handed the drafts back to students. The first questionnaire was then administered immediately after students had finished reading their drafts and my written feedback. The aim was to elicit their immediate reactions and responses towards the received feedback in introspect.

In the third week, students wrote the final draft and completed the second questionnaire. This questionnaire aimed (a) to find out whether students incorporated my feedback in their revision, the amount and the type of feedback, (b)the types of feedback they preferred to receive; (c) students' opinions on the impacts of receiving feedback on their final draft.

Students were also interviewed. It was conducted with each student after each had produced the second draft. The aim is to yield further comments on their responses to the questionnaire to have a broader perspective on students' opinions regarding various aspects of receiving feedback which could not be obtained through the questionnaire. Moreover, to gain an in depth understanding of my feedback practices and philosophies and my students' reaction and opinions towards those practices both introspective and

retrospective methods of data collection were used. Introspection is the process of reflecting on one' thoughts, feelings, opinions while undertaking the assigned task whereas retrospection is the process of collecting similar data sometime after the task had been completed (Nunan, 1989). The following diagram summarizes the different stages of the research design:

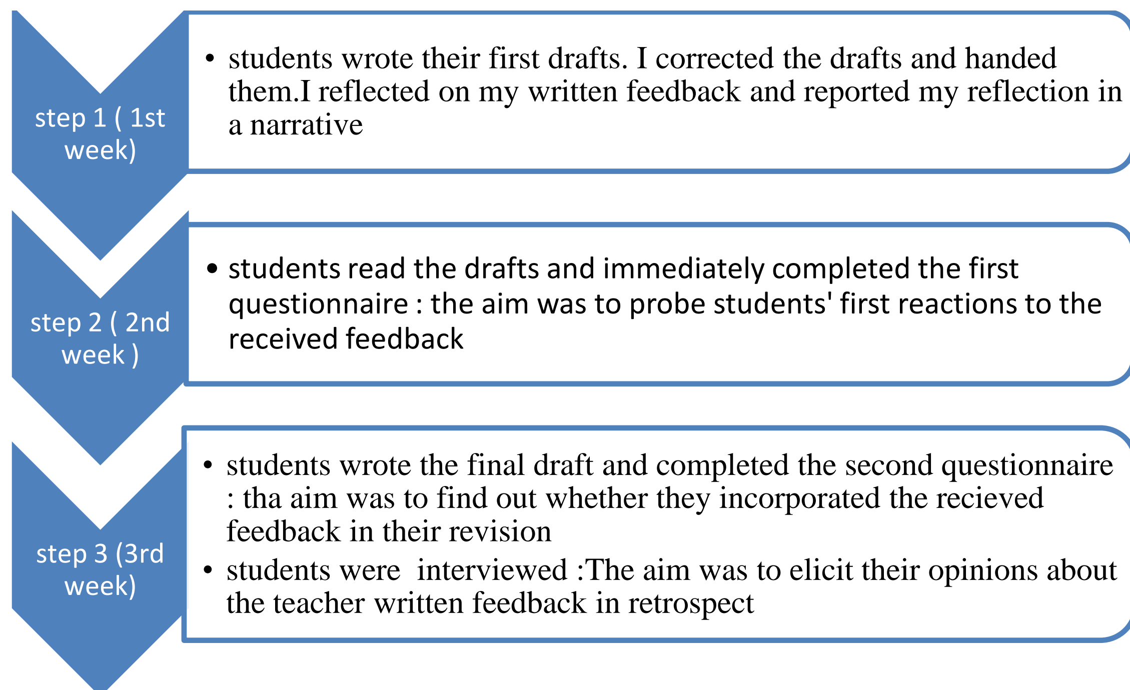

Figure4.1: Summary of the research design

4.4 Case study approach

The design of the current study is a case study. Case study is the most frequently used research approach in education. Unlike, experimental design in which the researcher controls, manipulates the variables and ignores the context surrounding the phenomenon under investigation, in case studies, the researcher investigates a phenomenon in its real-life contexts. The aim is to gain a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under study in its

natural contexts using multiple sources of information (Cohen et al 2007). To highlight the complexity of the phenomenon under study, the researcher employs quotes of the participants yielded from the interviews or other tools (Merriam, 1998, Hancock, 2006). Case studies are characterized by the sensitivity of the researcher. In this type of research as the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis, the relationship between the researcher and the participants is of outmost importance. Indeed, the researcher collects students' opinions and views of reality which allows him to interpret their actions and behaviors.

As the aim of this research is to gain an understanding of the dialogue as a social enterprise between my students and I about my feedback practices and my students' reactions towards these practices, in a spirit of collegiality, within Exploratory Practice framework, the case study approach seems to be appropriate for three main reasons. First, case study investigates the phenomena in their real-life contexts. Second, it is in accordance with the aims and principles of Exploratory Practice which encourages teachers and students to work collectively and collegially to achieve mutual development. It also allows an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon being investigated directly from the participants as co-researchers.

4.5 Mixed methods approach

Mixed methods approach is viewed as the third methodological approach and it is extensively used in the field of foreign language education. It combines elements of both quantitative and qualitative methods in the different steps of

the research process. It is used because the sole use of quantitative or qualitative method fails to elicit an adequate understanding of the complexities of the phenomenon under study; however, combining both approaches allows a better understanding of the research problem. While quantitative approach is used to quantify the problem by generating numerical data analyzed by statistical methods, qualitative approach aims to understand and interpret social phenomenon using non-statistical methods and generating non-numerical data. The mixed methods approach as stated by Creswell (2009:3) "resides in the middle of this continuum because it incorporates elements of both quantitative and qualitative approaches"

Therefore, in order to gain an in-depth understanding of my feedback practices and philosophies and my students' reaction, attitudes and pinions towards these practices, a mixed methods approach was adopted. This implies that both quantitative and qualitative approaches are associated to yield a comprehensive analysis of the intentions and interpretations of the exchange from both the teacher's and the learners' perspective, as well as of the dynamic nature of the dialogue. Specifically, both methods were used to help me understand the ways in which feedback was given and received.

Various ways of triangulating quantitative and qualitative methods in a mixed methods design are suggested, in the literature. In the present study, the quantitative method was used to analyze the close-ended questions of the questionnaire, my comments and the students' revisions of their drafts while the qualitative was used to analyze the students' semi-structured interview,

open-ended questions in the questionnaire and the teacher self-report narrative. Inductive content analysis (ICA) was used to allow the findings to emerge from the recurrent, prevailing or significant themes/categories inherent in raw data. The analysis of the qualitative data followed three main steps: coding, development of categories and allowing the generation of themes. (a) Coding: in this process, I first started by reading the data repeatedly and carefully to gain a general understanding of the written texts and interview transcripts. Working lines by lines, I broke the data into pieces. Then guided by the aim of the research, research questions and the review of literature, I gave labels to these pieces. Then text segments that contained meaning units were identified and a label for a new category into which the text segment is assigned is created. Text or data associated with category was given (Murray, 2009). 2) The second step of content analysis is the development of categories. This step involves organizing and ordering codes into categories. As Hyland (1996: 267) states, "categories are conceptual tools that help researchers to organize data to reveal its major themes and relationships in order to build theories and explanations about it". 3) Allowing the generation of themes. Once data are coded and categorized, the last step in the content analysis process is the refinement of these codes and categories into themes. The researcher makes sense of the identified categories. At this stage he/she needs to make inferences and reconstructs meaning drawn from the data (Nunan, 1989). In order to have a clear picture of the design of this research, table 4.1 below illustrates the way

each research tool was administered in the different phases of the study, with the method of analysis used for each.

Time	Phases of investigation	Data collection tools	Methods of data analysis
First week of April	Students writing their first draft	Writing task	Frequency count
	Teacher self-report narrative	Narrative	Content analysis
Second week of April	First draft returned to students	Writing task	Frequency count
	Completion of the first questionnaire	Questionnaire	Frequency count and content analysis
First week of May	Writing the final draft	Writing task	Frequency count
	Completion of the second questionnaire	Questionnaire	Frequency count and content analysis
	Students are interviewed	Semi-structured interview	Content analysis

Table 4.1: Research design and procedure

In the next section, a detailed examination of each research tool is provided

4.6 Description of the research tools

4.6.1 Writing task

The writing task involved a feedback/revision cycle, i.e. writing of a first draft, followed by teacher written feedback and then a revised version in response to that feedback. Revisions carried out to these drafts were also identified and categorized. The writing task was performed in the first April during a regular writing session. At the beginning of the session, students were asked to write a paragraph on one of the following topics: "Contrasting life in the city and the country side", "Negative effects of alcoholism" and "The advantages of studying abroad". After finishing to write their paragraph (first draft), I collected and corrected them at home. In the following week, I returned the drafts with my written feedback to the participating students. They were then requested to correct their drafts and submit the revised composition at the next class. A total of 20 drafts were studied and analyzed (i.e. 2 drafts done by each student).

Each composition ranged in length between 80 to120 words. It is important to stress that the aim of incorporating writing assignment in, this study, is three-fold. The first aim is to integrate the work for understanding into classroom practice (Exploratory Practice's 6th principle). The second aim is to find out whether students took into consideration the teacher written feedback in their revisions. The third aim is to investigate whether teacher feedback leads to writing improvement.

4.6.2 Questionnaires to students

The second research tool used to generate data for understanding is a questionnaire to students. Students had to complete two questionnaires, one before revision and one after revision. The first questionnaire was administered immediately after the students received their drafts with the teacher written feedback to probe students' first reactions and appreciations towards that feedback. The second questionnaire was administered after the students had revised their first drafts and written the final draft. The aim was to probe students' feedback attitudes and preferences in retrospect.

Both questionnaires included both open-ended and closed-ended questions. Open-ended questions were meant to give students the opportunity to reveal freely their personal views and opinions. These questions were expected to accurately reflect what students wanted to say or to add any information they thought important and that was not stated in the closed questions. Students' responses were reported verbatim for analysis and interpretation. Examples of these questions are described below:(see appendix1:questionnaire to students before revision, p.275)

Questions 5: Do you like receiving teacher written feedback on your paragraphs?

Yes   no

Please say why …………………………………………………

As for the listing questions, students were asked to choose one proposition among a set of propositions. Example of this type of question is given below:

Question 12: when you did not understand your teacher's comments was it because of:

A. The teacher used difficult language.

B. The teacher made unclear suggestions.

C. The teacher asked difficult questions.

D. The teachers' handwriting was difficult to read.

E. The teacher gave too much detail

The first students' questionnaire (before revision) contained 14 questions divided into four sections which are described below (See appendix1: questionnaire to students before revision, p 275)

A. General information questions (Q1-Q4):

The first section includes four questions to obtain general information about the participating students, their age, gender, the school stream most of them come from and the amount of time during which they write in English.

B. Questions investigating students' beliefs of teacher written feedback (Q5-Q7):

The aim of these questions is to probe students' beliefs, opinions of feedback and also their attitudes towards this feedback. Q5 asked students to say whether they liked receive written feedback from their teacher while Q6 investigated students' opinions and attitudes towards teacher written feedback. Q7 aimed to find out the amount of feedback students read.

C. Questions investigating the type of teacher written feedback given to students on the first draft (8-10):

The third section deals with questions on the drafts. It includes 3questions. The purpose of these questions is to examine the nature of teacher written feedback given to students. Q 8 aimed to find out whether the teacher wrote comments on students drafts. In Q9, students were asked to identify the areas of writing the teacher focused most while Q10 required students to indicate the techniques employed by the teacher in responding to their writings.

D. Questions investigating students' reactions to the received teacher written feedback on the first draft (Q11-Q14)

The aim of questions 11 - 14 is to elicit students' reactions towards the written feedback they received on their first drafts. In Q11, students were asked to say whether they found teacher's comments easy or difficult to understand. In case they found teacher's comments difficult to understand, Q 12provided six reasons which may explain that difficulty. Question 13 explored the strategies students adopted in case they did not understand teacher written feedback while Q14 instructed students to say whether those comments corresponded to their expectations.

On the other hand, the second questionnaire, given to students after receiving their final draft, involved 5 questions divided into two sections which are described below: (see appendix 2: questionnaire to students after revision, p. 280)

A. Questions investigating whether students incorporated teacher written feedback when writing the final draft (Q1-3)

Q1 requested students to say whether they took teacher's comments into consideration while writing the final draft and Q2 asked students to indicate the type of feedback they incorporated when they attended to their teacher feedback. Q3 instructed students to say whether they thought their final draft better than the first draft.

B. Questions investigating students' teacher written feedback preferences (Q4-Q6):

Q4 was meant to obtain information on the areas of writing students would prefer to receive, Q5 was included the methods students most preferred for teacher written feedback delivery. Q6 required students to say what they liked/disliked in my written feedback. The aim of including this open question is to give the opportunity students to express freely their opinions, attitudes and reactions towards the written feedback they received.

4.6.3 Semi -structured interview

While the questionnaire was designed to yield quantitative data for the study, the interview was conducted to obtain qualitative data. A major advantage of the interview is to reveal information that cannot be elicited through questionnaire (Seliger and Shohamy 1989). As Bell (1987:70) rightly remarks, "interview can yield rich information and can often put fleshes on the bones of questionnaire responses". Within the field of educational research, interview is regarded as a tool for eliciting knowledge with and between human beings. The

generated data is a reflection of the relationship and understanding between the interviewer and interviewee. It is described by Cohen et al. (2007) as a shift from seeing humans as manipulated subjects, towards considering them as central to the interaction that produces knowledge.

Three types of interview are discussed in the literature namely structured interview, semi structured interview and unstructured interview. The first type of interview is typically formal and includes mostly close-ended questions. The second type is a medium between the structured and unstructured interview. It involves several questions which help the research to define her/his area of research but which also allows the flexibility to pursue an idea. The third type of interview rarely takes place. It is relatively informal. The research expects to probe participants to gain the most rich and in depth understanding of the research problem possible (Nunan, 1989)

For this research sake, I made the decision to use a semi-structured interview for three main reasons: 1)to gain an in-depth understanding of students' feedback realities.2) to meet one of the main principles of Exploratory Practice which considers students as unique individuals and social beings who can contribute to the understanding of their classroom settings.3) to create a teacher-student dialogic interaction where students are given the opportunity to challenge the feedback they received over the semester, reflect on their feedback needs and utter their feedback preferences and attitudes with their own voice.

Being a human interaction implies that in an interview the subtleties and biases and complexities of such social interaction are brought into play; however, the rapport established with my students created a relaxed atmosphere of trust, respect and cooperation ,favorable conditions for a holding dialogue, in which students were encouraged to express freely their views , criticism and attitudes towards my feedback.

The students were interviewed with the following questions. Some of the questions were inspired from the second questionnaire while others were guided by the responses of the students as the interview proceeded. In addition, they were given the option to decide on what language they preferred to be interviewed, English, French or Arabic.

A .What are your attitudes towards the following:

4 Teacher written feedback?

5 The teacher?

6 The process of holding a written dialogue through feedback?

A. Do you think that teacher written feedback can improve your writing?

B. Are you satisfied with the kind of written feedback you receive in your writings?

C. What can the teacher do to improve your writing?

D. How do you want/think it should be given to you?

The aim of the interview questions was two-fold. The first aim was to elicit the participating students' feelings, attitudes, and opinions about the received

written feedback, the teacher as the giver of the feedback and the process of holding a dialogue about feedback. The second aim was to detect students' misunderstandings about the received feedback and how they thought these misunderstandings could be resolved. The interview was conducted in the classroom. Each interviewee was given 15 to 20 minutes to answer the questions. It is worth noting that once the interview had finished, the participating students were grouped again to share and exchange their feedback reactions, attitudes and preferences. This was done for two reasons. The first reason was to give students the feeling that they are in a democratic class which fosters teacher's and students' engagement in reaching an understanding of teacher written feedback practices. The second reason was to give students the opportunity to voice their feedback needs, expectations and preferences.

In this quest of understanding thus I was no longer viewed as the "most knowledgeable" or the "expert' who led conversations, but the one who listened, considered and respected my students' opinions and views. Similarly, students developed self-esteem and self-confidence as their voices were listened to and their attitudes and reactions taken into consideration.

4.6.4 My self-report narrative

I wrote my self-report narrative in introspect while I was responding to my students' writings in order to reflect on, question, describe and analyze my inherent assumptions, beliefs and opinions underlying my actual and past feedback practices. As a mode of thinking, Golombek and Johnson (2011) noted that narratives are insightful for depicting the richness of human

experiences. Accordingly, they not only help teacher to understand their experiences but also to reconcile the known with what is hidden, and to reconstruct understanding of themselves as teachers. As said earlier, narrative provides valuable data on how teachers come to know their knowledge, how they apply that knowledge within the contexts where they teach, and how they make sense of and reconfigure their classroom practices. When engaged in narrative inquiry, they not only question their own assumptions as they unveil who they are, what they know and believe, and why they teach as they do but also they realize the effect of their beliefs, knowledge, and experiences on what and how they teach (Golombek and Johnson, 2011; Clandinin and Huber,2010; Hendry, 2010; Chan, 2012).

In this respect, engaging in a narrative inquiry was propelled by my inner desire to make sense and understand my feedback experiences practices and ethos. Specifically, it was hoped that such inquiry would not only enable me to uncover why and how I respond to my students' writings but also to assess the impact of these practices on my students i.e. to find out whether my feedback practices and ethos aligned with my students' feedback expectations and preferences. Thus, this reflection was triggered by the following questions. The design and the formulation of these questions were inspired by the study conducted by Ferris (2013).

- **Questions investigating my feedback philosophy**

1. What is my philosophy or approach to responding to my students' writings?
2. How has this philosophy or approach been formed? Has it changed over time?
3. What do I think of my written feedback?
4. How do I think my students perceive the feedback I give them?
5. Why do I deliver feedback to students' compositions?
6. What effects does my feedback have on my students?

- **Questions investigating my feedback practices**

1. How frequently do I comment on students' writings?
2. What is my delivery mode for written feedback?
3. What aspects of writing do I most focus on? Why?
4. What form does my written commentary take? Statements or imperatives? Why?
5. Do I use long sentences, phrases or single words? Why?

4.7 Methods of data analysis:

For each research tool, a specific method of analysis was used.

4.7.1 Method used for analyzing the questionnaire data

For the analysis of the data drawn from the questionnaire, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. The quantitative method, on the one hand, was used to analyze students' responses to closed questions by doing a frequency count of all similar responses. Whenever there was an answer, either negative or positive, it was counted up as '1'. In the absence of a response it was counted up as '0'. The qualitative method, on the other hand, was used to

analyze students' responses to open-ended questions using content analysis. The responses were reported verbatim for analysis and interpretation.

To limit the number of tables, responses to questions (1, 2, 3, and 4) that investigated students' profiles were grouped in one table.

4.7.2 Method used for analyzing the semi-structured data

Though the interview yielded valuable data on the topic, one of the most challenging and critical aspect of qualitative interview data was its analysis and interpretation.

The analysis of a research interview involves making sense of a social encounter. It is a complex endeavor as the researcher needs to analyze the data without destroying the synergy of the whole as the Interview data analysis is typically interpretive. To this end, students' responses to interview questions were audio recorded and transcribed into written forms. I first synthesized students' statements to reveal possible similarities with a care of not distorting the data. Students' statements were rewritten on a sheet of paper .The inductive content analysis was used to allow the findings to emerge from the recurrent, prevailing and significant themes inherent in the raw data. Generated themes were developed by studying the transcripts repeatedly and how these fitted with developing themes (see page142). As the aim of the research is probing my students' reactions, attitudes and opinions towards my written feedback, each time I came across a segment including an idea related to it, I named it with a theme that reflected the meaning of the text segment. Then word files representing each category was created to copy and paste all the text

segments related to that theme i.e. all the quotes that support the theme from the data. It is important to highlight that in analyzing this data I did not impose personal will or preconceived ideas on the data but rather lets the data speak for itself.

4.7.3 Method used for analyzing my self-report narrative

The self-report narrative was used to provide data on my written feedback practices and philosophies. Like in analyzing the interview data, content analysis was the method used to analyze the data generated from the narrative. It also involved three steps: coding the data, developing categories and generating themes. Guided by the narrative questions, the aim of the study and the research questions, I read the narrative line by line to sort out relevant codes and categories. As said earlier, the aim of this narrative was to reflect on, question, describe and analyze my inherent assumptions, beliefs and opinions underlying my actual and past feedback practices. Purposely, it was hoped that such reflection would enable me to reveal why and how I respond to my students' writings but also to assess the impact of these practices on my students. My narrative was therefore summarized and interpreted in relation to relevant literature.

4.7.4 Method used for analyzing students' drafts

The analysis of students' first and final drafts allowed me to identify the relationship between my written comments and students' revisions. Students' revised drafts were examined to observe the influence of the first-draft comments on the students' revisions and assess whether the changes made in response to the teacher's feedback improved their paragraphs.

Specifically, the aim of this analysis was three-fold. The first aim was to find out the amount of received written feedback students incorporated in their revisions i.e. while writing the final draft. The second aim was to examine the types of changes students made in their revisions. The third aim was to examine the influence of the first-draft commentary on the students' revisions and assess whether the changes made in response to the teacher's feedback actually impacted the compositions.

To this end, each student's first and final drafts were compared and all the changes that the students made from draft to draft were coded following Faigley and Witte's Taxonomy of Revisions (1994) . As for the analysis of my comments, Conrad and Goldstein taxonomy was used. Both taxonomies are described below:

Faigley and Witte's Taxonomy of Revisions (1994)

1. Surface changes		2. Text-based changes	
A. Formal Changes	**B. Meaning preserving changes**	**A. Microstructure Changes**	**B. Macrostructure changes**
Spelling , tense And modality Abbreviation Punctuation Format	Addition Substitution Deletion Permutation Distribution Consolidation	Addition Substitution Deletion Permutation Distribution Consolidation	Addition Substitution Deletion Permutation Distribution Consolidation

Table 4.2: Faigley and Witte's Taxonomy of Revisions (1994)

Table 4.2 illustrates Faigley and Witte's Taxonomy of Revisions. Revisions are categorized in two main types namely surface changes and text-based changes. In the surface changes are included two sub-categories: formal changes and meaning preserving changes. Formal changes include teacher's comments on students' mistakes on spelling, tense and modality, abbreviation, punctuation and format while meaning-preserving changes include changes that preserve the overall meaning of the sentences. For example, substitution means using a synonym: a nice girl" can be revised into "a beautiful girl". The microstructure changes, the first category of text-based changes, rework the sentences and the paragraphs without changing the ideas developed without changing the overall text; in contrast, the macrostructure changes operate on

the whole text from changing the ideas developed in the text to deleting, combining, rearranging, sentences or paragraphs.

Thus, changes that do not bring or delete information are called surface changes whereas the changes that add new content or delete existing information are called text-based changes.

Under surface changes are two sub-categories namely formal changes and meaning-preserving changes. The first subcategory comprises revisions in spelling, tense, modality, abbreviation, punctuation and format while the second subcategory is divided addition deletion, substitution, permutation (rephrasing information), distribution, and consolidation. Surface changes do not change the overall meaning of the original text while in the second category; the text-based changes, the meaning of the text is changed.

Text- based changes, however, can be of small importance or have a significant impact on the whole text, hence the distinction between micro and macrostructure revisions. Microstructure changes, on the one hand, deal with minor changes affecting a group of sentences, paragraphs, or the entire text but do not alter the meaning of a text such as adding an example or reworking a sentence. Macrostructure changes, on the other hand, change the overall summary of the text, altering the direction or the gist of the idea. Both micro and macrostructures changes contain similar subcategories as those found in the surface change category. In the next section, Conrad and Goldstein's (1999) coded features for written comments are explained

Conrad and Goldstein's coded features for written comments (1999)

Category	Meaning
A. Intended function of the comment	1. Asking for information 2. Making a request. 3. Giving information 4. Praise 5. Criticism
B. Formal characteristics of the comments	1.Text specific comments included not included 2. Syntactic Form: Declarative Imperative. Questions 3.Semantic/Pragmatic Content 3.1 Declaratives Stating an opinion Necessity of revision Characterize the nature text Suggestion 3.2 Questions : yes/ no WH questions either /or 4 Directness: Direct Indirect 5 Hedges: Present Absent 6 Revision Strategy Included

	Not included **7 Delivery methods** **Direct corrective feedback** **Using symbols and codes**
C. Type of Revision Required	**1. Types of revision at sentence level** **i. Areas other than development** **Coherence/cohesion** **Paragraphing** **Purpose** **ii. Type one development** **Add Examples** **Add Facts** **Add Details** **iii. Type Two development** **State/Address Explicitly** **More Depth** **Explain/Analyze** **2. Types of revision at word level** **Grammar** **Mechanics** **vocabulary**

Table 4.3: Coded features for written comments. (Adapted from Conrad and Goldstein 1999)

The above model was adapted from Conrad and Goldstein's (1999) coded features for written comments. My written comments were analyzed in terms of three categories (the intended function of the comment, formal characteristics

of the comments and type of revision required). The next section describes each category in detail.

A. The intended function of the comment

1. **Asking for information:** One major purpose of the teachers' comments is to ask student writers for further information. E.g. can you explain what you mean by this word?

2. **Making a request:** Another intended aim of teacher's commentaries is making a request. E.g., "you need to develop further this idea."

3. **Giving information:** The third important goal of the teacher's written comments is to give information. Contrary to the previous category, the aim of the teacher is not to directly say to the reader what to do. Rather, the teacher is regarded, in this category, as an informed reader responding actively to the text. E.g. "I think this is a stereotype! Women are not less strong than men"

4. **Praise:** Teacher's comments were also analyzed in terms of praise. E.g. "your paragraph is well-structured"

5. **Criticism:**Criticism was also taken into consideration in analyzing teacher's comments. Example of a comment based on criticism is "bad ideas!

B. Formal characteristics of teachers' comments

This category involves six sub-categories. Initially, Conrad and Goldstein's (1999) model included six sub-categories which are text-specific comments, syntactic form, semantic content, directness, hedges and revision strategy

provided. However, as the absence of a category dealing with feedback delivery methods was noted, the latter was added. In what follows, each sub-category is described in detail (see table 4.3 above).

1. **Text specific comment** is concerned with whether teachers' comments are text-bound or not (e.g. you need to add an example to the first supporting idea).

2. **Syntactic form:** Conrad and Goldstein (1999) identified three syntactic forms: declarative, question and imperatives.

3. **Semantic/Pragmatic content**: Conrad and Goldstein (1999) further categorized declarative and questions into categories. Declaratives fall into four categories: stating an opinion, necessity of revision, characterize the nature text and suggestion. Questions fall into three categories namely yes/ no, WH-questions and either /or

4. **Directness** is divided into direct and indirect comments. In the direct comments, the intended function of the comment is clearly stated (e.g. you should support this argument") whereas in the indirect comments the intended function of the comment is implicit (e.g. on the negative effects of smoking. How does smoking negatively affect the health of people?"). This comment is indirect as it does not clearly state the teacher's intention that the student needs to revise this section by explaining the effects.

5. **Hedges** includes modals of politeness such as "I would suggest", "perhaps", "please". Comments without hedges, however, involve expressions such as "be careful!"

6. **Revision strategy provided**: it deals with the intended function of directive revision (e.g. your paragraph will be better if you add a concrete example to this supporting sentence") or suggested the kind of revision that might be used. In contrast, comment such as "elaborate!" or "develop more" do not contain specific strategy for revision.

7. Delivery methods comprise two techniques of feedback provision namely direct corrective feedback and using symbols or codes. In direct corrective feedback the teacher provides the correct form of the mistake above or near the linguistic error while in symbols and codes is the situation where an error is highlighted, but the correct form is not provided.

C. Type of revision required

For the sake of clarity, this category was divided into two sub-categories: types of revision at sentence level and revision at word level. On the one hand, types of revision at the sentence level comprise areas other than development, type one development; type two development and types of development at the surface level. Areas other than development involve coherence/cohesion, paragraphing and purpose. Type one development includes development through examples, facts, details, and illustrations and type two developments involve development through explanation, and explicitness. On the other hand, types of revision at word level deal with grammar, mechanics and vocabulary. It is worth mentioning that since this category was not included in Conrad and Goldstein's coded features for written comments, it was added for this sake of this research.

Conclusion

This chapter has highlighted the research design of this study and described the data analysis procedures. Since this study is based on Exploratory Practice as a research methodology, the puzzle was first identified and formulated into research questions. Then direct action was undertaken to understand the puzzle using both introspective and retrospective methods of data collection, in the different phases of the study, leading to quantitative and qualitative analysis. Thus to elicit teacher's feedback preferences and analysis and student's reactions, opinions and attitudes towards the received feedback, the research design was divided into three phases. The first phase consists of students writing their thirst drafts, which were after collected and corrected. In this phase, I wrote my self-report narrative probing my feedback past and current practices and philosophies both introspectively and retrospectively. In the second phase of study, the corrected drafts were returned to students for revisions. Once they had finished reading their drafts with my feedback, they completed the first questionnaire in order to express their first reactions to that feedback. In the third phase of investigation, students wrote their final drafts, completed the second questionnaire and were interviewed retrospectively. The aim was to probe students' feedback preferences and misunderstandings one week after they had received the written feedback. The next chapter presents the results obtained from the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data.

CHAPTER FIVE:

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

Introduction

In this chapter, the results obtained from the different research tools used in this study are presented. Exploratory Practice was used as a research methodology to understand the ongoing dialogue as a social enterprise between myself and ten of my students through and about my written feedback to their writings. This understanding will allow me to reconcile my feedback practices and philosophies with my students' feedback preferences and attitudes through the process of dialogue. To reach an adequate reconciliation, I ought to consider the factors that influenced the way I read and responded to my students' writings, as well as investigate the way my students interpreted, reacted and used my commentary in revision. To this end, the instruments used to explore my written feedback philosophies and practices are my own written feedback and self-report narrative while the tools used to examine students' feedback reactions, opinions and misunderstandings are two questionnaires (one before revision and the other after revision), an interviews and students' first and final drafts. In the following sections, the results of students' questionnaires are presented.

5.1 Presentation of students' questionnaires data before and after revision

To probe students' opinions and reactions towards the received feedback before and after revision, two types of questionnaires were devised. The first questionnaire was administered before the students revised their drafts in response to the received written feedback (i.e. immediately after their first drafts were returned to them). The aim was to capture their first reactions towards the

received written feedback. The second questionnaire was completed after revision. The aim of this questionnaire was to elicit students' feedback preferences and the amount of feedback they incorporated in their revisions. The results of both questionnaires are presented and analyzed below.

5.1.1 Presentation of the questionnaire data before revision

The questionnaire before revision contained 14 questions and divided into four sections. Responses are presented below

5.1.1.1 Students general information:

General information involved four questions investigating students' gender, age, school stream in secondary education, language proficiency and amount of time during which they write in English. The results of these four questions are displayed in table 5.1 below:

Sex		**Age**	**Secondary education**			**Writing frequency**		
Female	**Male**		**Human science**	**Natural science**	**Foreign Languages**	**Sometimes**	**Never**	**Always**
10	**0**	**19.66**	**1**	**1**	**8**	**6**	**0**	**4**

Table 5.1: Students' general information

The above table displays the characteristics of the students who took part in the study. It reveals that they are all females (10) with a mean age of 19.66 years. Most of them studied in the foreign language stream at secondary school. The table also shows that the majority sometimes write in English and thus possess basic writing abilities such as writing sentences in English.

5.1.1.2 Students' beliefs of teacher written feedback

This aim of this section is to elicit students' opinions (like/dislike) of teacher written feedback. It includes three questions (5,6and7). The result of each question is given below.

Response to question 5:

Q5: Do you like receiving teacher written feedback on your paragraphs?

This question requires students to say whether they like receiving written feedback from their teacher .The results are summarized below:

Total	Yes	No
10	10	0

Table5.2: **Students 'responses on whether they like receiving teacher written feedback.**

All the students (10 out of 10) liked receiving teacher feedback from their teachers.

Response to question 6:

Q6: What do you think about teacher written feedback?

Students were asked to evaluate teacher written feedback they received in terms of three categories: 'useful', 'sometimes useful', 'not useful'. The results are presented below:

Total	Useful	Sometimes useful	Not useful
10	8	2	0

Table5.3: **Students' evaluation of teacher written feedback in terms of usefulness.**

As illustrated above, the majority of students (i.e. 08out of 10) thought that teacher written feedback is useful. Only one student thought that it is sometimes useful. No one, however, found it was not useful.

As for the open part of Q6 “please, say why” which allowed students to add more information to their answers, most of them answered that teacher written feedback was useful because it helped them to improve their writing abilities. A sample of their responses appears below:

S1: “teacher written feedback is useful because it allows me to know my level in writing English”

S8: “teacher’ written feedback are helpful in improving my writing”

S6: “teacher written feedback is useful because it improves my writings”

As for the two students who replied that teacher written feedback was sometimes useful, they provided the following responses:

S5: “the majority of time I can understand and correct according to the feedback but sometimes they are not useful it means not easy to understand how to correct the incorrect sentences

S7:of course they are useful but sometimes I don’t ever and ever understand what she writes about my paragraph for instance when she corrects my paragraph and I correct it again in order to improve my writing I don’t understand where I put these ideas

Response to question7

Q7: How much of the received teacher feedback did you read?

The purpose of this question is to know the amount of feedback read by students. They were asked to say whether they read all, some or none of the teacher's comments.

Total	All teacher' comments	Some of the teachers' comments	Not read the comments
10	10	0	0

Table5.4: Amount of feedback read by students

In their response to question 7, all the students, who answered, reported that they read all of the teacher's comments. None of the students replied not reading any of their teachers' feedback.

5.1.1.3 Investigating the type of teacher written feedback given to students on the first draft

Response to question8:

Q8: Did your teacher write comments on your drafts?

This question refers to whether students received teacher written comments on their drafts. The results are shown in the following table:

Total	Yes	No
10	10	0

Table5.5: **Students' responses to whether they received teacher written comments on their drafts.**

As shown in the table above, all the students who took part in this study (10out of 10) answered that the teacher wrote comments on their drafts.

Response to question 9:

Q9: What areas of writing did you teacher focus most on?

This question required students to indicate the areas of writing the teacher focused most while giving feedback. They were given four areas of writing to choose from, but they could choose more than one item. The results are summarized in the following table:

Areas of writing	**Total**
A. Structure	**8**
B. Organization	**4**
C. Style	**1**
D. Content	**7**

Table5.6: Areas of writing that the teacher focused most on

As clearly shown in the above table, 08 students out of 10 received feedback on structure (grammar, punctuation, and spelling), 07 students had feedback on the content and 04 on organization. Only one student replied that the teacher focused on the style. The results show that I give equal focus to content and structure.

Response to question 10

Q10: which of the following methods did the teacher use to respond to your writings?

This question probes the teacher delivery techniques. With this regard, students were provided with 10 methods to choose from and they were allowed to select more than one method. The summary of the results is given in the following table:

Delivery methods	Total
A. Direct correction	9
B. Symbols and codes	1
C. Single words	5
D. Phrases	5
E. Complete sentences	3
F. Questions	4
G. Any type of feedback with a mark	0
H. Mark only	0
I. Praise	1
J. Criticism	0

Table 5.7: Teacher written feedback's delivery techniques.

Table 7 presents students' responses to the methods used by the teacher to respond to their writings. The results of students' responses indicate that the most frequently used method is direct correction (9 students out of 10). Phrases and single words are reported to be the second most used method to convey the

comments (5 out of 10) followed by questions (4 out of 10) . The results show that only 3 complete sentences were used and one praise (1 out of 10). Responding with any type of feedback with a mark and criticism is not selected by students, which indicates that I did not use these methods when responding to students' drafts.

5.1.1.4 Investigating students' reactions to the received teacher written feedback on the first draft

Response to question 11:

Q11: How did you find the teachers' comments?

The task of students, in this question, is to rate the comments they received from their teacher on their first draft in terms of difficulty. The answers are illustrated table5.8

Total	Easy to understand	Difficult to understand
10	6	4

Table 5.8: Students' evaluation of teacher written feedback in term of degree of clarity.

It can be concluded from that table above 6students out of 10 found the teacher written feedback clear while 4 students out of 10 found it difficult to understand. The reasons why these latters found it difficult to understand are explained in the coming question.

Response to question 12

Q12: when you did not understand your teacher's comments was it because of :

A. The teacher used difficult language.

B. The teacher made unclear suggestions.

C. The teacher asked difficult questions.

D. The teachers' handwriting was difficult to read.

E. The teacher gave too much detail

In this question, students were asked to give the reasons that rendered their teachers' feedback difficult to understand. Specifically, this question was addressed to the students who answered in question 11 that the teacher written comments were difficult to understand. Question 12 thus provided them with six propositions which might explain that difficulty. Their task was to tick the appropriate proposition(s). The results are shown below:

Causes	**Total**
A. The teacher used difficult language	**0**
B. The teacher made unclear suggestions	**1**
C. The teacher asked difficult questions	**0**
D. The teachers' handwriting was difficult to read.	**2**
E. The teacher gave too much detail	**01**
Total	**4**

Table5.9: Reasons for not understanding teacher written feedback.

It appears from the table above that among the 4 students who answered in question11 that the comments the teacher wrote on their drafts were difficult to

understand, two of them related that difficulty to the fact that teacher's handwriting was difficult to read, one student answered that the teacher made unclear suggestions, and the other replied that it contained too much detail. No answered that the teacher asked difficult questions.

Response to question 13:

Q13: Please, say what you do when you do not understand teacher written feedback

Question 13 aims to probe the strategies students use when they do not understand their teachers' comments. To this effect, they were given five strategies to choose from. They were asked to tick more than one answer.

Strategies	**Total**
A. Ask teachers for clarification	**4**
B. Ask explanation from classmates	**1**
C. Refer back to previous composition	**0**
D. Consult a grammar book	**0**
E. Consult an experienced person	**0**
F. Ignore it	**0**
Total	**5**

Table: 5.10 Strategies used by students in case they do not understand teacher's comments.

Among the four students who answered in question 13 that they did not understand the received feedback were required in question 14 to indicate the

strategy they used to understand the difficult comment. As clearly illustrated in table 5.10, among the five suggested strategies, 2 students asked their teacher for clarification, 1 of them looked for clarification from their classmates and one student referred back to previous. None, however, ignored the received comments. Moreover, in an open question related to question13, students were asked to give examples of their misunderstanding and the strategy they used to overcome it. Their responses are given below:

S2 “last time, I could not read the word “rewrite” so I asked my teacher to read it for me”,

S5 “I did not know the placement of the comment, I asked my teacher, she clarified it”

S7 “for example I wrote in my paragraph about contrasting life in the city and life in the country side “the city has noise of people and all means of transport. The country side is peaceful and it has a calm” the teacher commented “I see no relation here”. I did not understand the comment, so the teacher explained it to me.

S9 “my main difficulty is to read my teacher’s comment. For example, I could not read the word “irrelevant”, so I asked my friend who helped me to read it”

Response to question14

Q14: Did the teachers' comments on your written work correspond to your expectations?

In this question, students were requested to say whether the comments the teacher made on their compositions corresponded to what they expected. All students' responses are summed up in the following table:

Total	Yes	No
10	**6**	**4**

Table5.11: Teacher written feedback and students' expectations.

In the light of the above results, one may say that 06 students out of 10 found that the comments the teacher made on their writings correspond to their expectations while 04 students answered that the teacher's comments do not correspond to their expectations. With regard to the open question following this question, most students replied that since they knew they made mistakes, they thus expected the teacher to correct them. Here is a sample of their responses:

S2: "when teacher corrects my paragraph I find these comments are relevant to my mistakes"

S6: "because sometimes when I write my ideas I get confused, it turns out that the teacher comments on these ideas"

For the students who answered that they did not expect the teacher's comments, a sample of their statements is given below:

S8: "because if I knew where I was wrong I would not make mistake"

S10: "because if I knew already my mistakes I would not commit them

5.1.2 Presentation of the questionnaire data after revision

This questionnaire involved 5 questions divided into two sections. Students' responses are presented and analyzed below(see chapter four)

5.1.2.1 Investigating whether students incorporated teacher written feedback when writing the final draft

Response to question 1:

Q1: did you take into consideration your teacher's comments while writing the final draft?

The first close ended question requested students to say whether they took teacher's comments into consideration while writing the final draft. The results are summarized in the following table:

Total	Yes	No
10	9	1

Table5.12: Students' responses on whether they took teacher's comments into consideration while writing the final draft

Responses to question 1 indicate that almost all the students (9 out of 10) answered that they took the teachers' comments into consideration while writing the final draft. Only one student said that she did not take the teacher feedback into consideration.

Although responses to question13 indicated that most students seemed dissatisfied with the content of teacher written feedback, they all took teachers' comments into consideration while rewriting their draft. This again shows that students attach a paramount importance to teacher written feedback.

Response to question 2:

Q2: When rewriting your draft did you take into consideration?

A. All teacher's feedback

B. Only feedback on mechanics

C. Only feedback on vocabulary

D. Only feedback on grammar

E. Only feedback on content

F. Only feedback on organization

The aim of asking this question is to find out what type of feedback students incorporated when they attended to their teacher feedback. Here again, they were given six propositions to choose from. The table below summarizes students' responses:

Prepositions	Total
A. All teacher's feedback	**8**
B. Only feedback on mechanics	**0**
C. Only feedback on vocabulary	**0**
D. Only feedback on grammar	**1**
E. Only feedback on content	**1**
F. Only feedback on organization	**0**

Table 5.13: Students' consideration of teacher feedback.

When asked about what type of feedback students incorporated when they attended to teacher written feedback, almost all the students replied that they incorporated all the types of feedback as shown in table 5.13. Indeed, 8 students

of 10 used all teachers' feedback in their revision. This shows that the participants perceived all areas of feedback namely mechanics, vocabulary, grammar, content and organization, to be important and worth revising. Below are some of their statements to the open question that follows question 16:

S3: "yes I take into consideration my teacher's comments while writing the final draft because it is the best way to improve myself in writing"

S6: "the point of giving feedback is to correct our mistakes and to make them better in different ways, so logically I will take teacher's comments into consideration in order to improve them"

S9: "to learn from our mistakes and to never have the same comments again"

Response to question 3

Q3: Do you think that your final draft paragraph was better?

The second close question instructs students to say whether they think their final draft is better:

Total	**Yes**	**No**
10	**9**	**1**

Table5.14: Student's responses to whether they thought their draft was better.

Looking at the results above, it appears that the teacher's comments improved students' writings as almost all students (9 out of 10)replied that their final draft paragraph was better.

Concerning the open question related to this topic, students made the following comments:

S3: “because now and always when I am going to write I remember the teacher comments and start writing carefully more than I did before”

S6: “my final draft is better because before I write it I check my previous one and I noticed how I progressed in reformulating my ideas”

S10: “I think that my final draft is better because after taking teacher’s’ comments into consideration the paragraph is coherent and perfect

5.1.2.2Responses to students’ feedback preferences

Response to question 4

Q4: What areas of writing do you think the teacher should have more focused on?

Question 4 asks students to identify the writing areas they think the teacher should have focused on. A summary of students’ responses is provided below

Areas of writing	Total
A. Structure	8
B. Organization	4
C. Style	2
D. Content	4

Table 5.15: Areas of writing the teacher should have most focused on.

The results obtained from question 18 reveal that 6 students out of 10 replied that they preferred to receive feedback on structure, 4 of them answered that they wanted receiving feedback on organization and 4 other students wanted the teacher to focus on content .Only 2 students preferred to have feedback on style.

Response to question 5

Q5: How would you like to find your teacher's feedback on your paragraph?

The purpose of this question is to probe students' preferences for teachers' methods of providing feedback. Here again, they were given 11 propositions. The results are summarized in the following table:

Delivery methods	Total
A. Direct correction	8
B. Symbols and codes	0
C. Single words	2
D. Phrases	2
E. Complete sentences	5
F. Questions	2
G. Any type of feedback with a mark	0
H. Mark only	0
I. Praise	7
J. Criticism	3

Table5.16: **students' preferences of teacher written feedback's delivery technique**

The analysis of students' preferences of teacher written feedback's delivery techniques revealed that the most preferred method for feedback provision is direct correction as claimed by 8 students out of 10. Students' second favored method is praise as claimed by 7 students out of 10. The third preferred method is

complete sentences as shown by 5 students out of ten. Then comes criticism which is favored by 3 students. As for phrases, single words, and questions, for each method two students expressed their preferences. Receiving marks only without any kind of feedback is the least preferred method among the students. These results indicate that students consider direct correction as the most helpful method for improving their writing skills.

Response to question 6

Q6: What do like/dislike in your teacher written feedback?

Q6 aims to elicit students' positive and negative opinions about the received feedback. They were asked to provide their answer in the form of paragraph .Content analysis was used to allow the generation of the following categories. For the sake of clarity instances of students' statements illustrate each category.

A. students' positive opinions about the received feedback:

1. **Allow students enhance their linguistic abilities:**

S5: "feedback aide me **using simple language** and using **the suitable words structure"**

S6:"teacher feedback guide me to respect the **grammatical rules**"

2. **Help students correct their mistakes and avoid them in future compositions**

S1: "feedback is direct and let me know my mistakes in grammar, vocabulary .Then the comments of teacher help me to learn from my **mistakes** in order **to avoid them**."

S4: “teacher written feedback is very helpful in **writing paragraphs and essays in the future.”**

S6: “feedback **always** helps me to **correct my mistakes**”

S10:“I will **not repeat** my **mistakes** in the **future**”

3. Support students’ writing development in other modules.

S2: “teacher written feedback is very important to improve my paragraphs to best for the best and help me to **improve my level in other modules**”

S3:“teacher feedback is helping me a lot in the **writing module** and **other modules** when they ask us to write paragraphs, I always rely on my writing teacher feedback”

4. Improve students’ writing performance.

S1: “feedback helps me to write **coherent** and **clear** and **perfect passage without any fault.”**

S6: “teacher written feedback **improves** my **writing**; for example, it helps me to simple my ideas and makes them **coherent**”

S8: “I think teacher written feedback can help me to **improve** my **writing ability** because my paragraphs are better now and teacher makes less comments”

S9: “now I have more **logical ideas and coherent sentences**. To sum up all my teacher’s comments **improved** my **writing**”

B. Students' negative opinions about the received feedback

1. **Teacher's appropriating students' ideas**

S4: "I **dislike** in my teacher written feedback that she does not accept my ideas"

2. **Critics dealing with teacher's focus**

S8: "I **do not like** it when she focuses on punctuation and asks me to add detail"

S5: "when written feedback focuses on the content"

S7: "the teacher most **criticizes** the organization of ideas, sometimes **I do not like it"**

5.2 Presentation of the semi-structured interview data

A semi-structured interview was devised to probe more elaborate data on students' interpretation, preferences, expectations, and misunderstandings about the received feedback. Students were asked seven questions. ICA was conducted to interpret students' statements. First, students' responses were reconstructed on a separate sheet of paper to look at possible similar patterns. Then, the responses were converted into categories. The results of these questions together with some students' responses are presented below. The keys words, phrases and sentences which enabled the emergence of the themes are highlighted in bold (see Appendix 3: Students' Interview Transcripts, p.283)

A. **My feedback effects on students' revision in subsequent drafts in the long term.**

Examples from students' statements:

S2: "it allows me **know** my **mistakes** in order to **avoid it.**"

S3: "I mean I **learn** from my **mistakes**. Sometimes I **remember** the last comment and I try to correct the mistake before the teacher corrects it again"

S4: "when I begin to write I **remember** my teacher feedback in order to be more **specific, correct and clear**"

S6: "it is a kind of **training to write**"

B. **Students accepting my authority over their writings**

S1: "I like feedback because **teacher sees thing that I don't see**. It's according to vocabulary, grammar spelling mistakes because teacher has an **experience in writing"**

S6: "as beginner writers we need to learn more about writing and written feedback of **the teacher are the key to this**. Therefore, teacher feedback helps us to focus on our mistakes and correct them"

S9: "we are here to learn and the teachers is **qualified**, and we have to take into consideration her comments"

C. **Students' reluctance to engage in a dialogue**

S6: "you are the teacher, I **accep**t your feedback"

S8: "it is difficult to **put into question** your feedback"

S10: "you are the teacher you have the right to give us feedback as **you want**"

D. Instructional effect of feedback: improving and consolidating writing

S1: "I **acquire** new ideas and **respect grammatical rules**"

S3: "you **learn** how to use **suitable conjunctions**"

S4:"it **helps** me when I write not only **in writing** but also **in other modules such as punctuation and grammar"**

S8: "it enables me to **know** how to **express my ideas differently**"

S10: "I like it because it helps in other **modules**"

This is further reinforced by students' responses to question 20:

S2: "teacher written feedback is very important to **improve my paragraphs** to best for the best and help me to improve my level **in other modules**"

S3:"teacher feedback is helping me a lot in **the writing module** and other modules. I always **rely** on my writing teacher feedback"

E. Interpersonal aspects of feedback

S3: "it depends on the teacher. Sometimes the teacher uses **tough advice**/ **criticism** that will cause students **self-confidence** and some teachers give concise and precise advice in a gentle way"

S7: there is no **conflict** between the teacher and students if she does not give you feedback it means she does not **care** about you."

F. **Appropriation and ideas ownership**

G. **S2:** "sometimes the teacher does not understand what I was thinking about. For Example, last time I wrote those students have 'problems' with their studies the teacher **changes** it into 'difficulties'. I did not like it"

S4: "if the teacher is severe and **imposes her/his ideas**… sometimes I like the teacher correcting my ideas, other times I do not because I do not feel the same".

S6: well, sometimes the teacher **intervenes in my ideas**. I do not the teacher to **change** my ideas because I think in French and then I translate in English so when she changes the word the meaning changes"

S8: "trying to understand my comments without **imposing her ideas**"

S10: "sometimes she asks me **to change** a word, but I do not how to change"

H. **Students' expressing their opinions about teacher written feedback**

S4: "I feel that feedback **is not right** I give my **opinions** about that feedback"

S3: "it is debatable. Some students **like** talking about feedback others may not… because they may think it is not **interesting.** I advise them to accept teacher written feedback they will really **benefit** from it"

I. **Promoting dialogue as a way of clearing feedback problems**

S1:" **dialogue** is **helpful** to know our preferences so that the teacher takes them into consideration when giving feedback"

S3: "**to inform** the teacher about our **problems** in writing so that she **solves** them in future"

S4: “I need more **communication** with the teacher sometimes…… I want the teacher to **explain** to me my mistakes orally to check if I have improved my writing”

S5: “**talking about feedback** allows me to be **aware** of my **mistakes** in order to avoid them in the future.”

S6: “it is helpful to **understand** the **problems** between the teacher and students because if we do not talk about feedback we will not understand each other”

S7: “in this way teacher will take into consideration **students’ problems** in writing”

S8: “**talking about feedback** makes the job of the teacher easy; she will know what we expect from her”

S7: “in this way, teacher will **take into consideration** students’ **problems**”

S9: “to understand students’ problems”

J. Fostering a close relation between the teacher and students

S2: “I feel **satisfied** that the teacher listens to what I say”

S3: “I feel close to the teacher because she **listens** to my views about her feedback”

S5: “the **relationship** with the teacher **improves** because she accepts my opinions about her written feedback on my paragraph”

S10: “to set up **a close connection** between students and the teacher”

K. Students’ feedback misunderstandings

S2: “sometimes I find **difficult** to read this comment, I feel **frustrated**”

S5: “sometimes I **misunderstand** teacher’s comments

S7: "sometimes I **do not understand** handwriting"

L. Students' problems related to teacher written feedback

S1: "yes sometimes I think I work well and the teacher **fills my paragraph with comments that I do not expect."**

S4: "When it includes **too many details** and **a lot of correction**, I feel **demotivated"**

S5: "when the feedback is written in **disorder**. **When the correction is not written next to the mistak**e, I have to look for the correction to relate to the mistake"

S6: "when I see **the red pen** I automatically think that I did not do well"

S7: "I **did not know how to do correction."**

S8: "sometimes the teacher **does not transmit the feedback clearly.** Sometimes, she uses **ambiguous** and **vague** comments such as "irrelevant" "rewrite it" and I do not know how to deal with it"

M. Teacher written feedback focus preferences:

S2: "**specify how the sentence should be written and avoid the red pen"**

S3: "I want the teacher to **focus on content**…and **correct all my mistakes** because I have a lot of language problems"

S3:"teacher written feedback is enough but I need more feedback concerning **vocabulary** that I use. For example, I am using simple diction and I expect the teacher to give me **strong words**"

S4: "I want her to correct all my mistakes on grammar and vocabulary. I want to enrich my **linguistic knowledge**"

S5: “more importantly, I want the teacher to **show the correction beside the mistake and avoid the use of the red pen”**

S5: “as my level in English is low I want her to include everything such as **grammar, punctuation, mechanics and content**”

S7: “trying to understand students’ ideas **without imposing her ideas**. I want also the teacher to give me **strong ideas** and **avoid the use of the red pen**….. **Specify how the sentences should be written**…sometimes the comment is one word, so I need **constructive feedback** with complete **meaningful sentences**”

S8: “I want the teacher to **improve her handwriting”**

S9: “I want the teacher to provide **clear and direct comments**. For example, to **avoid using questions** in the comments and use sentences instead.”

5.3 Presentation of the students’ drafts data

The analysis of the students’ drafts was helpful evidence to explore the effect of the dialogue that took place between my students and me about my written feedback on students’ revision. Specifically, it aimed to examine whether giving the opportunity to reflect on, critique and reconsider my written feedback helped them produce better drafts. To this end, students’ revised drafts were studied to observe the influence of the first-draft comments on the students' revisions and assess whether the changes made in response to that feedback improved their paragraphs.

At the beginning of the study, by the beginning of April, the ten participating students were assigned as a classroom task to write a paragraph. They were given three topics, each topic illustrating a particular type of discourse. These topics are

"Contrasting life in the city and life in the country side", "The negative effects of alcoholism" or on "The advantages of studying abroad". Five students wrote a paragraph on the first topic; two students wrote on the second topic and three on the third topic. These compositions ranged in length between 80 to120 words. Once they had finished writing their drafts, I collected and corrected them at home. Within a period of one week, the corrected drafts were returned to students for revision. Students were asked to read the given feedback carefully and complete a questionnaire before revising their drafts. As already said the aim of this questionnaire was to probe students' first reactions to the received feedback in terms of interest, difficulty and expectations. They were then requested to correct their work and submit the revised compositions at the next class. A total of 20 drafts were studied and analyzed (i.e. 2 drafts done by each student). Samples of their drafts can be seen in Appendix 4: (sample of students' drafts, p. 295) . As said earlier, the aim of this analysis was three-fold. The first aim was to find out the amount of the received written feedback students incorporated in their revisions i.e. while writing the final draft. The second aim was to examine the types of changes students made in their revisions. The third aim was to find out the influence of my written feedback on students' revisions and assess whether the changes made in response to the teacher's feedback improved their drafts.

- **Amount of feedback incorporated into revision**

In this study, feedback incorporation is determined by the proportion of comments on the final drafts as compared to the preceding ones. Written feedback

is said to be taken into consideration and processed rather than overlooked by the participants when it produces actual changes and progress in the final drafts. Hence, students' consideration of teacher written feedback was determined by the number of times the comments occur in their final drafts as compared to first drafts. In order to identify the ratio of teacher written feedback in students' revisions, the total number of comments the teacher made on each student's draft were tallied with the total number of revisions students made in response to my comments. Then the percentage was calculated by dividing the total of comments to which the participating students responded by the total number of my comments. The results are shown below:

	Total
The total number of teacher's comments on students' first drafts	87
Amount of feedback incorporated into final drafts	76 /87
Number of comments that were ignored by students	11/87

Table 5.17: Comparison of teacher written feedback comments with the amount of incorporated feedback into final drafts.

An examination of the drafts reveals that a total of 87 comments were made, 76 of which were responded to and processed by the participants and 11 comments were ignored by them. On average, there were 8.7 teacher comments per

paragraph and 7.6 revised comment per paragraph. In other words, 87% of my written feedback was used in revised drafts and only 10% of those comments were overlooked. One may conclude that a considerable proportion of my written comments received on first drafts was taken into account by the students which may suggest that my written feedback exerted a significantly important influence on student's final drafts. However, the most revealing results are the types of changes students made. The next section will shed light on the types of changes students incorporated into their revisions.

- **Types of changes incorporated in revisions:**

Each student's first and final drafts were compared and all types of revisions were classified. The total results are shown below:

Types of changes	**Total**	**%**
Text-based changes	28	37
Surface changes	48	63
Total number of revisions	76	100

Table5.18: the total of changes made by students in revision

With reference to the above table, it seems that students made more surface changes than text-based changes. Out of 76 changes students made in their revisions, 48 (63%) were at the surface level while only 28 (37%) changes were text-based. For the sake of clarity, the following table provides further details on the types of revisions students incorporated

Types of changes	Total number
1. Text-based change (28/76)	
A. Macrostructure changes	
Deletion	**4**
Addition	**4**
Substitution	**0**
Permutation	**0**
Distribution	**0**
Consolidation	**0**
Total of macrostructure changes	**8/28**
A. Microstructure changes	
Deletion	**4**
Addition	**15**
Substitution	**00**
Permutation	**1**
Distribution	**0**
Consolidation	**0**
Total of microstructure changes	**20/28**

2. Surface changes (48/76)	
A. Formal changes	
Spelling	**2**
Tense , number and modality	**12**
Abbreviation	**0**
Punctuation	**9**
Format	**0**
Total number of formal changes	**23/48**
B. Meaning preserving changes	
Deletion	**3**
Addition	**6**
Substitution	**12**
Permutation	**3**
Distribution	**00**
Consolidation	**1**
Total number of meaning preserving changes	**25/48**

Table 5.19: types of revisions made by students

Table 5.19 presents students' revisions at both surface and text-based levels. At this stage, it should be mentioned, that all types of revisions were marked and coded using Faigley and Witte's Taxonomy of Revisions (1994). As already said

this taxonomy describes surface and text-based changes and includes a variety of revision categories for each type of change. On the one hand, surface changes do not alter the overall meaning of the text. They comprise revisions at grammar, spelling, mechanics and rephrasing information. On the other hand, text-based changes involve adding new content or deleting existing information which would have a significant impact on the whole text.

With reference to table 5.18 it is clear that students made more revisions at the surface level (63%) than on text-based one (37%). However, a closer examination of the kinds of revisions students made in response to teacher written feedback, it seems that additions (15 revisions) at the micro-text-based level ranked as the highest followed by tense , number , modality and substitution at the surface level (12 revisions in each category).

At the surface level, the results suggest that students made more revisions under the second category (meaning preserving changes) than of the first one (formal changes). Indeed, as the results above show that out of 48 revisions at the surface level, 23 formal changes were made while 25meaning preserving changes occurred.

Taking a closer look at the results, one may also notice that the revisions under the first category (formal changes) were mostly on tense, number and modality (12 revisions out of 23) followed by punctuation (9 revisions out of 23). Spelling changes were the less common revisions in this study (2 revisions out of 23). The results also indicate that there were no revisions on abbreviations and format

which may suggest that students did not receive feedback on these two subcategories.

Moreover, the results reveal that the most common type of revisions, under the second category (meaning preserving changes) is substitutions with 12 revisions followed by addition with 06 changes. Deletion and permutation are the less common types of revisions (3 revisions in each category). The least used type of revision is consolidation. Nevertheless, revisions on distributions were not coded which may also indicate that these subcategories were not included in the content of teacher written feedback.

As far as the text-based revisions are concerned, the results seem to suggest that students made more microstructure revisions (20 revisions out of 28) than macrostructure ones (8 revisions out of 28). At the microstructure level, students made 15 additions of information, 4 deletions of information and one permutation. At the macrostructure level, they made 4 additions of information and 3 deletions of information.

- **Whether students improved their writing after receiving my written feedback.**

As said above the second aim of analyzing student' drafts is to find out whether my written feedback helped students improve their writing. With this regard, progress was evaluated based on the comparison of mistakes frequency before and after receiving teacher written feedback. Specifically, overall improvement could be seen in the ways students incorporated better changes in their final draft following teacher's

comments. The table below presents a comparison of students' frequency of mistakes before and after receiving my written feedback.

	Before receiving feedback	**After receiving feedback**
Total	87	29

Table 5.20: comparison of the participants' frequency mistakes before and after receiving teacher written feedback

With reference to the table above, the results indicate that when writing the second draft i.e. after the teacher pointed out errors and offered suggestions for improving students' compositions, less written comments were provided compared to first drafts. Indeed, statistically speaking, in the first drafts (10 paragraphs), there were a total of 83 comments; however, after receiving my written feedback, the previously stated statistics changed dramatically and the number of comments in the final draft decreased to 29. This finding confirms the previous results that a significant proportion of my written comments that were received on the first draft were taken into consideration by the students. In other words, 90% of my comments were responded to and processed by students resulting in an overall paragraph improvement in subsequent drafts.

5.4 Presentation of my self-report narrative data

The analysis of my self-report narrative data proved to be valuable. It not only informed me about my actual feedback practices but also it revealed my inherent opinions and attitudes towards feedback. Few recent studies have looked closely at how response practices are implemented and how teachers' principles and

philosophies effect feedback construction. Indeed, little is known about how teachers respond to writing in the ways they do, and why they do it in that way (Brown, Harris, Harnett 2012, Ferris, 2014).

Through writing my narrative, my aim was to try to uncover why and how I respond to my students' writings, understand my feedback practices and assess the impact of my written response on my students (see appendix5: my self-report narrative, p. 305). This reflection allowed me to draw the following conclusions:

- **My opinions on written feedback:**

These were summarized as follows:

1. Teacher written feedback is of paramount importance as it shows students' writing strengths and weaknesses.
2. A strong belief in the usefulness of teacher written feedback dialogue in improving both the form and the content of students' compositions.
3. Teacher written feedback dialogue also improves teacher-students relationship
4. Students should be given the opportunity to question teacher written feedback and evaluate it against their expectations, preferences and interest.
5. Teachers should be aware of their students' feedback needs
6. Supply feedback on draft compositions to ensure revision.
7. Consider the interpersonal impact of feedback on students: Teacher written feedback should involve a mixture of positive and negative comments.

8. Few students would take my written feedback into consideration.

9. The majority of students accept teacher’s comments.

10. Teacher should correct all students’ writing mistakes

11. Teacher should indicate what to change and how to change.

12. Teacher should specify the type of revision

As far as the sources of these responses are concerned, the narrative revealed that they derive from three main sources namely through reading pertinent literature on teacher written feedback, my experience of writing teacher and inherited practices from my previous teachers.

In addition, the narrative indicates that my approach has changed through time. Indeed, when I started teaching writing, I observed that my students paid little attention to my commentary, which encouraged me to look for better ways to improve it.

One more interesting remark is that though I assume that students’ feedback needs should be taken into consideration while correcting their compositions, I realized that I exert a definite control over students’ writing. My comments indicate that I strive to correct every single error, highlighting problem areas using unclear terms, and injecting corrections on the student's text taking the risk of appropriating their ideas. In the next section, I reflect on my perceived feedback practices.

- **My perceived feedback practices**

With regard to the analysis of my comments on the various response mechanisms I used, the results are as follows:

My narrative showed that the process-oriented approach for the writing/ response/ revision is the method I used to teach writing. This approach, as said earlier, consists of providing feedback during the writing process which may explain why my students always receive feedback on their compositions. It was also indicates that I vary my comments according to the writer and the particular composition. I frequently indicate the existence of a problem and give its correct form. As for the mode of feedback delivery, I combine both marginal and end commentary. Moreover, I tend to give equal focus to different text characteristics in combination as the needs of the text/student dictate. In other words, my narrative revealed that I give equal emphasis to the content and the form of students' writing compositions. As far as the formal characteristics of my feedback, I often use a combination of statements, imperatives, and questions and sometimes I respond in single words and phrases.

With reference to the above findings, it seems that my philosophy is based on the belief that though responding to student writing is frustrating, difficult, and time-consuming and that most students may ignore it, it is both helpful and desirable in the hope that it encourages students to correct and revise their own work without teachers' prompting.

I strongly believe in the effectiveness of written feedback dialogue in improving both the content and form of students' writing compositions .Giving students the

possibility to engage into a dialogue about my written feedback not only allows them to critically reflect on their compositions, helps them be aware of their mistakes and thus avoid them in future writings but also improve my written feedback practices and enhance my relationship with them.

Moreover, it appears that I employ the process oriented approach which advocates feedback provision during the writing process to ensure revision. However, though I answered that I considered the interpersonal impact of feedback I rarely give positive comments on students' work.

Indeed, most L2 writing teachers express their deep concern of how to respond effectively to students' writings in order to help students revise their texts and use those comments in future compositions. In this respect, this study demonstrated that feedback is an expressions of teacher's beliefs about language, learning, writing and personal relationship.

Within similar vein, in one article, Goldstein (2004) argues that to best understand factors that affect teacher comments and how students use these comments in revision, teachers should carefully examine the content and the form of their commentary and see what is working and what is not so that if any changes are necessary, they will be made. Accordingly, teachers should reflect on their attitudes towards their students, particular types of writing and contents, and thus be aware of the effect of these attitudes on how and to what they are responding.

She further explains that teacher needs to consider whether they are commenting in a way that fit student's needs and writing difficulties and whether

they are doing justice to students' writings. In sum, teachers need to approach each class with the belief that students do not already know the philosophies underlying the way they respond, and that students may carry attitudes and expectations that differ from the ways in which they give feedback, and that even when we believe the aims and the formulations of their comments are explicit, students may not understand them and that even when they are clear, students still may not know how to revise in response to our comments.

She then advises to inform students about teacher commentary practices and their motivations teach them how to interpret them, and encourage revision using those comments

5.5 Presentation of my comments data

My written comments were analyzed in order to identify their linguistic and the pragmatic characteristics and to assess the influence of the first draft's comments on students' revisions. To this end, each student's written composition was first examined to identify all the separate written interventions I made. Any comment, underlining or correction made on the student first draft was considered as a written intervention. Each written intervention , whether it focused on ideas , content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, or mechanics was then categorized as a 'feedback point' and the total number of feedback points for each piece of writing was calculated.

It is worth recalling that 87 teacher comments were identified and each written comment was coded according to the categories described in Conrad and Goldstein's study (1999) (see chapter four). The categories were:

A. The intended meaning of the comment

1. Asking for information
2. Making a request
3. Giving information
4. Praise
5. Criticism

B. The formal characteristics of the comments

1. Text specific comments
2. Semantic/pragmatic Content
3. Syntactic forms
4. Directness
5. Hedging
6. Revision strategy
7. Delivery method

C. Type of revision required

1. Cohesion/ coherence
2. Type one development
3. Type two development

The results of each category are examined in separate tables below:

A. The intended meaning of the comment

A. The intended meaning of the comment	**Total**
1. **Asking for information**	**6**
2. **Making a request**	**5**
3. **Praise**	**0**
4. **Criticism**	**0**
Included	**11**
Not included	**76**
Total	**87**

Table 5.21: results representing the intended function of the teacher

Referring to table 5.21, it is clear that out of 87 comments only 11 conveyed the intended meaning of the teacher. 6 comments were intended to ask for information and 5 aimed to make a request.

B. Formal characteristics of the comment

B. Formal characteristics of the comments	Total number
1. Text specific comments	
Included	74/87
Not included	14/87
2. Syntactic forms	
Declaratives	5
Imperatives	3
Questions	7
3. Semantic/ pragmatic content	
3.1 Declaratives	
Stating an opinion	5
Need to do something	0
Characterize the nature text	0
Suggestions	0
3.2 Questions	
yes/ no	1
WH questions	6

either /or	0
4. Directness	
Direct	**76/87**
Indirect	**11/87**
5. Hedging	
Present	**0/87**
Absent	**87/87**
6. Revision strategy	
Included	**67/87**
Not included	**20/87**
7. Delivery methods	
Direct corrective feedback	**72/87**
Using symbols and codes	**00**

Table 5.22: Formal characteristics of the teachers' comments

It seems that most of my written comments (74 out of 87) were text-specific: they are directly related to that particular text and cannot be applied to any other text and also indicated the type of revision strategy (67 out of 87). As far as the syntactic form of the comments is concerned, the data suggest that seven questions (one yes/no question and six WH questions, five declaratives of necessity of revisions and three imperative comments are made. As for the

directness of my comments, the results indicate that most of the comments were indirectly stated i.e. the intended meaning of the writer were implicit. The results also suggest that most of my comments provided the corrected of the mistakes(72/87), and they were not hedged.

C. Type of revision required

C. Type of revision required	
1. Type of revision at sentence level	**Total**
i. Areas other than development	
Coherence/cohesion	**33**
Paragraphing	**0**
Purpose	**0**
ii. Type one development	
Add examples	**2**
Add facts	**0**
Add details	**4**
iii. Type two development	
State/Address Explicitly	**6**
More Depth	**0**
Explain/Analyze	**0**
Total number	**45/87**

2. Types of revision at word level	
Grammar	**21**
Mechanics	**9**
Vocabulary	**12**
Total number	**42/87**

Table5.23: Results representing the types of revisions asked by the teacher

Table 5.23 shows that I focused on both revisions at sentence and word level. Thus 45 interventions were made at sentence level and 42 were made at word level. Looking closely at the results, it seems that the most asked types of revisions were coherence and cohesion as illustrated by 33 comments out of 87, followed by comments on grammar (21), mechanics (09) and vocabulary (12). In response to the students' problems related to development, the table suggests that two types of development were addressed in my comments. The first type asked students to develop their drafts further by adding examples (2 comments) and details (4) comments while the second type of development required students to develop their drafts in a more explicit way (6comments).

Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to highlight the importance of dialogue in generating students' feedback reactions, attitudes, expectations and preferences. Indeed, with reference to the results of the questionnaire, semi-structured interview, and the students' drafts, it appears that the participating students carry strong positive beliefs and negative reactions about my written feedback. These results indicate that almost all the participants stated that they thought carefully about my written feedback and attended to and read their drafts after getting teacher written feedback. In case of misunderstanding, they never ignored my written feedback, rather they tried to cope somehow and attempted revisions even when they did not understand all my comments using a repertoire of strategies, and the most used strategy was to ask me for clarification. They also stated that they found my commentary useful and acknowledged its scaffolding nature as it not only allowed them to identify and correct their mistakes, but it helped them avoid repeating them in future compositions. They confessed that most of the time they took it into consideration when they rewriting their final drafts. Besides, students' strong favorable opinions about the importance of my written feedback were further reinforced by my comments. The results indicate that a highly significant proportion of my comments on the first draft was incorporated in the final draft. The results reveal also that most students' revisions closely followed the corrections or suggestions made on their first drafts. They show that most of the students express their satisfaction of holding a dialogue about written feedback as it enabled them to articulate any problem they face when dealing with

my written feedback. Though most students revealed that my written feedback is an important part of their writing process, they stated that with some types of written feedback they had negative attitudes like dislike, frustration and surprise because they did not understand my written feedback, my handwriting, full of red marks, and my failure to understand the their intentions in their texts. The next chapter discusses these findings in relation to the research questions formulated in the introduction.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION

DIALOGIC WRITTEN FEEDBACK AND TRANSFORMATIVE EXPERIENCE

Introduction

This chapter discusses the results presented in the previous chapter and providing answers to the research questions posed in the introduction. Specifically, it sketches the transformative experience journey manifested by consciousness-raising of my actual written feedback practices as a result of dialoguing with the students and listening to them critiquing these practices and voicing their feedback preferences. This allowed me to communicate with my students and understand their reactions and preferences. Indeed, these written feedback practices were not adequate and did not match with their preferences. This led me not only to reconsider my role as an authoritarian figure and learn to accept my students' active involvement in the process of giving and receiving feedback but also to review my written feedback practices. In the following sections, the four research questions formulated in the introduction will be discussed in the light of the findings and the literature in this field.

6.1 RQ1: To what extent does teacher written feedback constitute a dialogue between my students and me?

This study revealed that dialoguing with students about teacher written feedback practices and ethos and their reactions towards that feedback is beneficial. This results support earlier findings (Berszenyi, 2001; Perpignan, 2003; Bloxham and Campbell, 2010). Three main themes have emerged from the analysis of the quantitative and the qualitative data. These themes are: students' criticism towards my written feedback, students' positive views of my written feedback,

discovering my students' feedback preferences. Each theme is discussed separately, although there is a considerable overlap between them.

6.1.1 Students' criticism towards my written feedback

One of the aims of holding a dialogue with my students was to let my students articulate their concerns, confusion and misunderstandings towards my written feedback to their writings. The results show that while some students perceived that they could interpret my comments reasonably well, some others expressed, in some cases, dissatisfactions and misunderstandings towards the received feedback. In this respect, the results of both questionnaires, administered to students before revision and the semi-structured interview support Hyland, F's (1998), Conrad and Goldstein's (1999) and Goldstein's (2004) conclusions that despite the greatest desire of teachers to provide effective and positive feedback, students may misinterpret and misunderstand it which may create negative reactions such as confusion, frustration and surprise towards the received feedback.

Indeed, similar to the findings of earlier studies (Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Leki, 1991; Enginarlar, 1993; Hyland, 1998;Mahfoodh, 2011; Setrallah, 2012) the evidence suggest that the participating students' negative reactions are the result of students' misunderstandings of the received feedback, which they sometimes found vague , conveyed in unclear handwriting, included unclear suggestions , drowned students' compositions with red pen, and mostly transmitted in the format of single words or short phrases such as "irrelevant", "not clear", ..etc. Some participants found it difficult to relate comments to the targeted errors

because the teacher did not use lines or arrows to show which sentence the comment was related to.

Moreover the data suggest that in case of misunderstandings, students resorted to a specific strategy to overcome these obstacles and mostly used strategy is to ask a teacher for clarification or to ask a classmate for help(see (5.10, p 174)

Students' dissatisfaction with my written feedback was also manifested through the issue of text appropriation. As defined earlier, text appropriation deals with the ways in which the teacher appropriate students' words and inject hers, resulting in a new meaning which may cause students' frustration towards the received feedback. Indeed, the results indicate that most participating students felt frustrated and demotivated when I appropriated their ideas. With reference to their responses to the interview questions, they confessed that they did like me to hold authorship over their writings by providing feedback that requested changes that altered their initial intended meaning. As a result, because of the ranked nature of the relationship between the teacher and the students, they felt compelled to follow strictly my comments so that students' attention shift from 'what I want to say' to what 'I am asking them to do' which created their frustration and disappointment. The finding of this study is, therefore, consistent with Knoblaugh and Brannon's,(1982);Tardy's,(2006);Ferris's,(2007) conclusion that prioritizing teacher's meaning over students' can be demotivating for students. Accordingly, students may lose the desire to communicate their ideas or even to write. Knoblaugh and Brannon (198:159) stated, "We lose more than we gain by preempting control and allowing our own Ideal Texts to dictate choices that

properly belong to the writers". Therefore, many writing experts such as Goldstein (2004); Tardy(2006); Ferris(2007) warned teachers against text appropriation and acknowledge the authority of students as the authors.

6.1.2 Students' positive views of my written feedback

Despite these instances of dissatisfactions, the results of the questionnaire administered before revision and the interview reveal that the participating students expressed positive attitudes and beliefs towards my written feedback. This result confirms the findings of Cohen(1987), Cohen and Cavalcanti, (1990), Fathaman and Whalley, (1990) and later on by Hyland, F (1998);Brannon Baker and Montgomery (2007) ; Setrallah, (2012) that students overwhelmingly do have strong positive opinions about teacher written feedback even when they do not understand it completely. Most of the participating students responded that they highly valued my written feedback (see table 5.2, p.167 and table 5.3, p.167) and would certainly not be able to correct their mistakes without it.

Following Hyland and Hyland's statement (2006:206) that teacher written feedback "offers the assistance of an expert guiding the learner through the 'zone of proximal development' and providing opportunities for students to see how others respond to their work and to learn from these responses" my written feedback functioned as scaffolding as it was meant to correct and support students' writing development. Most of my students regarded me, as an expert reader, who supported their drafts with the necessary feedback knowledge of product requirements in arriving at as successful a final product as possible. Thus, the given written feedback not only helped them to identify their mistakes but also

contributed to the development of their writing abilities in the long term as they built upon what they learned in previous compositions to enhance subsequent writings. They learned to write by appropriating my comments as they engaged in writing and revising process.

In sum, most of the participating students revealed that my written feedback served three instructional functions. First, it provided them with information about the correctness of their response. Second, it provided corrective information on both local (i.e., spelling, grammar, and punctuation) and global issues (i.e., ideas, content, and organization) that they used to modify their performance. Third, they stored that information in short-term memory for immediate use and long-term memory for future uses. The feedback that students received drew students' attention to aspects of their writing that needed remediation, and by doing so; they learned how to improve their performance and gained in accuracy in both form and content of writing. This finding implies that when students receive feedback while they are writing, they are more inclined to use it to revise their drafts. They have an immediate opportunity to try out the teacher's suggestions in their writing, permitting a meaningful application of what they have learned from the feedback. .

6.1.3 Discovering my students' feedback preferences

Holding a dialogue with my students about my written feedback provided me insights into the crucial need of proper feedback as desired by my students. The results of the questionnaire after revision and students' responses to the semi-structured interview indicate that the participating students preferred a

comprehensive and direct feedback. The results show that students were particularly positive about receiving feedback on language issues, although they also wanted me to comment on content and ideas of their writing. Moreover, as they placed a high premium on accuracy in writing, they were eager to have all their errors pointed out and corrected as they believed that it helped them develop their writing abilities(see table 5.16 p,181).This finding challenges Semke's (1984), Truscott's (1996), Wen's (2013) results which show that written feedback concerning grammar has no positive effects on subsequent writings. However, it echoes the results of earlier studies (Fathman and Walley ,1990; Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994; Radecki and Swales ,1998; Ferris (2004) ; Ferris (2006) Hyland (2002) ; Hyland (2003) which demonstrate that EFL students are eager to receive written feedback on language matters and believe that they benefit from it . Likewise, Ferris (2004) noted that L2 students are aware of their linguistic limitations and thus favor feedback on word- or sentence- level accuracy. Moreover, as in Radecki and Swales (1994)'s study, the participating students regarded error correction as my responsibility and thus acknowledged my authoritative power over their writings as they expected me to provide written comments and corrections on their drafts; focusing on all aspects of writings , for developing their current and future writings . They also considered me as the sole source for providing these comments because they thought that I have the knowledge about grammar, about writing rules and conventions which implied that they students hold high estimation of my knowledge as their teacher.

Though grammatical errors are an evident problem to L2 writers, Ferris (2004); Ferris, 2006; Hyland, K (1996) posit that teachers should not correct systematically every single error students make and should rather focus on errors that hinder the overall meaning of the paragraph. In this study, it seems that the participating students held a mistaken belief that they had to produce error-free paragraphs as they expected me to correct all their errors. As a consequence, my existing error feedback practices should be revisited in view of helping students become more independent in editing and correcting their mistakes, especially that the results indicate that some participating students confessed that they felt frustrated and demotivated when they received feedback that contained too many details and when their drafts were drown with red pen.

In addition, similar to Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990); Lee (2008)findings, the results show that students' preferences and expectations for overt correction of errors derive from their previous instructional experiences and their low level of language accuracy. Lee (2008) explains that student preference for overt correction results of "the teacher-dominated approach to feedback" (p. 156) but also students' low level of language proficiency. Due to the lack of student-centered activities in the writing process, students have become more reliant on the teacher. They wanted to be told what to do rather than take initiative to direct their own learning. Rightly, some of the participating students declared that they preferred to have all the errors corrected because most of their present and previous teachers marked their writings in detail, responding to errors comprehensively, and therefore, become more and more dependent on the teacher

while others replied that this was easier and helpful for them to correct their mistakes; otherwise, they would not know how to do correction.

6.2 RQ2: Does my feedback ethos align with my students' views about feedback?

Another aim of undertaking this dialogic endeavor around written feedback with my students is to find out whether my feedback ethos aligns with my students' feedback views .The following section compares my feedback ethos with my students' views and attitudes towards that feedback

6.2.1 Comparing my feedback ethos with students' views about feedback

When my feedback ethos and my students' views and attitudes towards that feedback were compared, the data suggested that both my students and I acknowledged the usefulness of teacher written feedback in improving students' writings (see sections 5.4, p 198-202 and 6.1.2,p.215). In addition, the data show that both my students and I recognized the importance of teacher written feedback dialogue in improving the content and the form of students' writings and in enhancing teacher-student relationship. The results of my self-report narrative indicated that giving students the possibility to engage into a dialogue about teacher written feedback not only allowed them to critically reflect on their compositions , helped them be aware of their mistakes and thus avoided them in future writings but also enhanced my relationship with them.

However, the findings indicate that feedback is a social process that may be interpreted in different ways and what constitutes feedback may also be disputed.

In this regard, the results suggest that my students and I had different perceptions regarding the amount of received feedback students incorporated in writing their second draft. While I expressed that only few students would attend /read and incorporate my written feedback in their revision, the results suggest that the participating students incorporated a great deal of my written comments in their revised drafts which resulted in text improvement (see table 5.14, p.179 , table 5.17, p.192 and table 5.20, p.198).

6.3 RQ3: Do my feedback practices align with my students' preferred feedback practices?

Moreover, engaging in a dialogue with my students about my feedback practices enabled to see whether my feedback practices aligns with my students' preferred feedback practices. The following section compares my feedback practices with my students' preferred feedback practices

6.3.1 Comparing my feedback practices with my students' preferred feedback practices

When my feedback practices were compared with my students preferred practices, two kinds of mismatches were noted (a) a mismatch between the type of written feedback I provided my students with and the type o feedback preferred by my students and (b) a mismatch between the students' feedback delivery techniques preferences and the feedback delivery techniques I used. Each mismatch is explained below:

6.3.1.1 Comparing the type of written feedback I provided my students with and the type o feedback preferred by my students

From a close examination of the results, it appeared that while my written feedback focused on both content and language, the participating students wanted to receive more feedback on language accuracy. This result contradicts those of Cohen(1987) and Cohen and Calvacantin(1999) and supports those of Chen (2012). In Cohen's (1987) and Cohen and Calvacanti's (1999) studies, the participating students reported that they received feedback on grammar and mechanics while they would like to receive feedback addressing all aspects of writing. In contrast, in Chen's (2012) study most students received feedback on grammar, but they wanted teachers to address all aspects of writing.

Indeed, in table 5.6, p 170 students indicated that in responding to their writings, I focused both on content and language. This is also confirmed in my narrative where I revealed that that I gave equal emphasis on different text characteristics in combination as the needs of the text-students dictated. This means that I gave equal emphasis to the content and the form of the students' compositions. However, table 5.15,(p180) revealed that the most preferred type of feedback was structure as demonstrated by 8 students out of 10, followed by feedback on organization(5 students out 10). Content is ranked the third most preferred type of feedback (4 students out of 10). This result is also confirmed by students' responses to the interview questions where most of them replied that they wanted me to correct all their errors.

However, Zamel, (1985) demonstrated that L2 teachers focused mainly on students' language accuracy and surface errors, as opposed to addressing global issues such as ideas or organization, and support later studies by Cohen and Cavalcanti, (1990); Conrad and Glodstein, (1999); which recommended a balanced coverage in teacher written feedback, focusing on issues of content, structure, organization, and language. This study, therefore, is another illustration of teachers' focus shift from surface to global issues advocated by the process writing approach.

6.3.1.2 Comparing my students' preferred feedback delivery methods with my actual written feedback delivery methods

The results seem to suggest that the students preferred method of deliver technique matched with the method used for correcting their drafts. With reference to tables 5.7, (p.171) and 5.16,(p.181), direct correction is not only the most preferred method of students but also the most used delivery technique. Direct correction used in this study consisted of crossing out an unnecessary word, inserting a missing word, and writing the correct target form on student's paper. When the student revised her draft, she only needed to copy the teacher's direct correction in the final draft. This finding contradicts previous research findings in ESL writing context (Chen, 2012; Ferris, 2002, Leki, 2005) which demonstrated that most EFL teachers prefer either a mixture of direct and indirect feedback or indirect feedback. Direct feedback is less used feedback delivery method (Chen, 2012). The reason why I used direct feedback reflects my inherent belief that my students at a low level of L2 proficiency (first year university

students) may not have sufficient language knowledge to do self-correction. This finding is, therefore, consistent with Ferris's (1999) who suggests that that teachers use direct feedback when they feel the error is complex and beyond students' ability to solve it on their own.

However, when these results were analysed closely, it seems that students were not totally satisfied with the methods I used to respond to their written work, since the methods the students preferred are different from the ones I employed.

Although my students liked the feedback delivery mode I used to respond to their drafts, they did not like the forms which most of my comments were written in. because they said the comments they received on their drafts were in the forms of single words, phrases or questions whereas most of them said that responding in complete sentences was their most preferred form of feedback. This result confirms the students' responses to the semi-structured interview which indicate that most students preferred to receive straightforward, explicit and clear feedback. These findings seem to corroborate Straub's (1997) research results which showed that students preferred explicit, specific and elaborated comments that include explanations that guide revision. The more specific and elaborate, the more they liked the feedback.

Offering students the opportunity to articulate and communicate their concerns regarding teacher written feedback raised my awareness of their feedback expectations and preferences addressed in their final drafts. This ultimately enhanced teacher-student relationship. Encouraging the students to express their different views, expectations and preferences about feedback in an open

discussion allowed me to explore where and why there was a mismatch between these views. This result supports Freire's view about the strong relationship between the teacher and her students and his call for a genuine reconciliation between teacher and students where both enjoy egalitarian interactions and where mutual respect, deep reciprocity and humility prevail. This, has incontestably, contributed to improving the quality of life in the writing classroom as this is the major aim of Exploratory Practice, which is the methodological base-line of this study. As defined earlier, through its principles, EP seems akin to the dialogue described in this research.

As suggested by Ferris (2007), Hyland and Hyland (2003) and Goldstein (2004) through a full dialogue between teacher and students, the teacher can gain both an awareness of her student's feedback preferences in terms of focus and delivery modes and achieve an understanding of what each individual student brings to the writing course in terms of past experiences and expectations as well. Such dialogue would allow students to understand the philosophy underlying the construction of feedback and also to see that there are many different ways of giving feedback which may encourage students to try new strategies and to abandon the ones which were not effective .

As Ferris (2007) rightly suggests responding to students' writings should not be regarded as a tedious burden but a critical instructional opportunity for both teacher and student.' Providing feedback that addresses student's needs and expectations allows the instructor to make a personal investment in each student's progress and hence reinforce instruction given in class. As a result, constructing

comments in ways that communicate clearly and helpfully to the student can be a motivator as well as a critical instructional opportunity.

6.4 RQ4: Does written feedback dialogue improve students' writings?

The findings to this research question contradict the claim of some writing researchers (Zamel 1985, Truscott 1996) who questioned the effectiveness of teacher written feedback and wondered whether it led to text improvement, but they also support the findings of later researchers (Fathman and Whalley, 1990, Ferris, 2006; Gonzales, 2010, Chen, 2012) who argued that feedback provision in multiple-draft and process-oriented writing produces positive short-term and long-term effects on students' development of writing skills. Effectively, the findings provide an evidence that the written dialogue that took place between myself and my students and which consisted of draft- written comment- reflection on those comments- revision- resubmission of draft did help students improve their writings.

Similar to Ferris (2006) , Gonzales (2010) findings , the analysis of second drafts indicates that the students revised their work in response to the vast majority of the revisions contained in the feedback (see table 5.13, p178) and which resulted in text improvement. The results shown in table 5.20, (p 198) demonstrate that when writing the second draft (i.e. after students' errors were pointed out and comments were offered for improving their compositions), fewer comments were provided as compared to first drafts. Students showed better control of punctuation and committed fewer errors on agreement, article use, and substituting informal and inexact words with more formal and precise ones.

Statistically, in the first drafts (10 paragraphs), there was a total of 87 comments; however, after receiving written feedback, these statistics changed dramatically and the number of comments in the final draft dropped to 29.

The results obtained from students' responses to question 6 in the questionnaire after revision and the semi-structure interview corroborate these results since all the participating students firmly hold that the received comments on their paragraphs not only improved their immediate writings but also enhanced their subsequent compositions. They stated that written feedback helped them to develop their linguistic abilities to produce well-written and coherent paragraphs. The table below illustrates the aforementioned observations resulted from that dialogue. The changes are illustrated in bold.

Surface changes resulting from dialogue					
Formal Changes	**Examples**		**Meaning Preserving changes**	**Examples**	
	First draft	**Second draft**		**First draft**	**Second draft**
Spelling	Living their	Living **there**	Additions	- The second factor in which living, -these are the many negative effects	-The second factor which **makes** .. -these are the many negative effects of **alcoholism**
Tense, number , modality	has a good places, the other reason which make, in several reasons	Has **good places,** the other reason which **makes, for** many reasons	Deletions	For instance, **the city has noise of people** and all means of transport. The country side is peaceful and it has a calm	For instance, the city has all means of transport; however, in the country side there is no comfortable means of transport.
Punctuation	…..in conclusion. therefore	**In** conclusion**,** Therefore,	Substitution	- hospitality , -second way, -country side and city are contrast , superior	**-Medical facilities**, -second **factor**, -country side and the city are **different…**
			Permutation	Living in city will help you in finding transportation tools, -It has many population	In the city, **many means of transport are available**, **-many people live there**
			Consolidation	-For example, the city has all kinds of pollutions. However, the city has no pollution.	For example, the city has all kinds of pollutions**;** **however,** the city has no pollution.

Table6. 1: Examples of students revision resulting from the dialogue

Strictly following teacher's comments to revise the compositions was sought by most writing teachers who believe that good revisions result from feedback success and effectiveness (Hyland, F, 1998). As a consequence, after incorporating the received comments students produced explicit, clear and coherent paragraphs. For example, table 5.21, (p.205) the intended function of the given comments was in general asking for information or making requests and that the most frequently types of revisions were coherence and cohesion (see table 5.23, p.209). This might explain why most revisions the students made were text-based changes at microstructure level ,which consisted of adding more facts, examples and details for the sake of coherence and cohesion. As a result of incorporating the received written feedback, most students claimed that it helped them express clear, explicit ideas and thus produce more coherent and cohesive paragraphs.

In addition, draft analysis reveals that students experienced difficulties of appropriately expressing their intentions. As the result, students were requested to explain further their intentions by adding more content. As far as content is concerned, most revisions were, as said above, geared toward rendering the text more coherent and relevant by adding examples, facts, or details. Hence, more appropriate examples or clarifications were used to explain the writers' intentions with more precise words. Such revisions enhanced relevance, idea development, unity, and organization. Thus, the overall quality of the paragraphs was enhanced.

For example, in the first draft, **S6** wrote a composition on the differences between the city and the country side. Among the various differences, she stated that "life in the country side is difficult and hard". For the sake of clarity, the teacher's feedback asked her to further explain her idea. She then revised her paragraph by adding the following:

"Unlike life in the city, life in the country side is difficult and hard as there is no transport; people live in old houses far from school and hospitals"

In another paragraph, **S4** wrote about the advantages of studying abroad. Among the different advantages, she wrote that "they had all the conditions to enrich their knowledge". For the sake of explicitness, the teacher asked the student to elaborate more on those conditions. Following closely the teacher comment, she added the following:

"Among these conditions is that they have adequate materials for learning such as computers. Besides, they have access to library which contains many relevant books"

6.5 To what extent does this feedback dialogue transform my feedback practices?

Embarking on a quest for understanding my written feedback practices led me to live an enriching transformative experience through which I came to review my written feedback practices.

6.5.1 Reviewing my feedback practices: from teacher-based to student-based orientation

Dialoguing with the students enabled me to construct new knowledge regarding my written feedback practices on the basis of deep reflection on these practices and philosophies and the discovery of the students' reactions and attitudes towards that feedback. According to Bakhtin , while monologism denies the need for others to interpret rules, ideas and assumptions, new understandings about ideologies are engendered as people interact in dialogue. For Freire(1970) and Mezirow (2012), the process of transformation occurs through critical self-reflection, reflective dialogue, and reflective action. While critical self-reflection, a deliberate cognitive task, forms the heart of transformative learning, reflective dialogue and reflective action on experiences bring about perspective transformation (Dirkx, 1998; Guthrie,2004;Hatherly ,2013)

Through the process of reflecting and dialoguing with my students, the frame of reference of my feedback practices were challenged and questioned by the students. I came to understand that I was learning something new which was transforming me, as I was going through a process of making a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of my experience, with subsequent understanding, appreciation, and action (Mezirow, 2012).

I understood through dialoguing with my students that feedback misunderstandings were the results of miscommunication between what I addressed in my written feedback and students' needs, interests and preferences. It became evident that though my students valued my written feedback, some

mismatches existed between my practices and ethos and their feedback preferences, expectations and needs.

In fact, the results of my self-report narrative revealed that the feedback I gave to my students was controlling, directive, teacher-led such as circling errors, underlining problem areas, inserting corrections on the student's text. I sometimes used elliptical comments that told the students what was wrong and what must be changed and how. It seems that I was deciding myself what was important and how the drafts should be responded to. The students were, therefore, assigned the role of passive recipients and consumers of that feedback. Specifically, I declared, in that narrative, that the written feedback I gave to my students was of paramount importance as it helped them develop and consolidate their writings, and therefore students should accept it and incorporate it in their revision (see pages 199,200).

Straub (1996) argued that the way a teacher frames a comment determines how much control that comment exerts on the student writer. He further asserted that, the more comments a teacher makes on a written product, the more controlling he or she will likely be. The more a teacher attends on local issues, rearranges the sentences, and tries to lead students to produce a clean, formally correct piece of writing, the more likely she is to focus on specific changes and thus to exert more control over the students' writings.

My control over the students' writings was also perceived through text-appropriation. As said earlier, text appropriation occurs when a teacher takes over authorship of the student's paper by providing feedback that requests changes to achieve the teacher's purpose for the text (Tardy, 2006). Indeed, the analysis of

the responses to the semi- structured interview revealed that most participating students responded that I appropriated their ideas and because of the ranked nature of the relationship between the teacher and the students, most of the time they felt compelled to write what they believed I expected.

Confronted to my students' feedback expectations, reactions and needs, I became critically aware of the limitations of these inherent assumptions, beliefs and ethos underlying my feedback practices and refined and /or learned new frames of reference.

As said earlier, Brookfield (1995) stated that critical reflection focuses on there interrelated processes:

1. The process by which adults question and then replace or reframe an assumption that up to that point has been uncritically accepted as representing commonsense wisdom.

2. The process through which adults take alternative perspectives on previously taken-for-granted ideas, actions, forms of reasoning and ideologies.

3. The process by which adults come to recognize the hegemonic aspects of dominant cultural values.

Accordingly, this open dialogue allowed me to question what I considered as "good" writing feedback practices ; however, when these were challenged by my students , I subsequently changed and improved my actual feedback practices according to my students feedback preferences . I came to appreciate and understand that in order to reach my students I needed to modify the content and

the form of my comments. I was challenged to look deeper beyond my own needs and encouraged to examine my students 'needs.

I then became aware that most of my students wanted to receive comments on both content and form along with organizational aspects of writing in clear, complete sentences. They also asked me to avoid direct commands such as "rewrite" "reformulate" "not clear, change the word" etc.

More importantly, they wanted me to respect their ideas and to avoid text-appropriation. In sum, they wished to receive feedback which is understandable, specific, non-judgmental, strategic, hedged, restricting the number and type of comments and telling them how they might improve their subsequent writings. This questioning or critical self-reflection has led me to a revision of my values, beliefs, and assumptions as it should occur in transformative learning.

6.6 RQ6: To what extent does this feedback dialogue transform my relationship with my students?

In addition to reviewing my feedback practices, the feedback dialogue enabled me to reconsider my relationship with my students and to re-conceptualize the roles of teacher and students.

6.6.1 Reconciling teacher-student relationship: towards trust, dialogue and change

My quest to seek answers provided me with new insights about my own students, the diversity of their needs, expectations and preferences and my role of a teacher as a facilitator. Students were my partners in my quest of understanding. Treating students as partners in learning implies sharing control in egalitarian interaction.

They were encouraged to reconsider their work, not simply accepting my knowledge through feedback. I started to regard them as active participants whose ideas were of outmost importance as they raised my awareness of my own practices.

In this process of dialoguing I was no longer the holder of knowledge or truth, but I constructed and reconstructed meaning with my students. I not only taught but was also taught through dialoguing with them. My students were given the opportunity to voice their feedback preferences and expectations and develop critical thinking skills. They no longer simply received and accepted my written feedback; rather, they were involved in an active, critical process in which they questioned that feedback to determine whether it fits with their preferences and expectations.

The analysis of students' responses to the semi-structured interview revealed students' satisfaction of holding a dialogue with me on my written feedback testifying the positive complicity that emerged between them and me to reach feedback understanding. This, undeniably, enabled the development of a strong relationship of trust and cooperation which created a relaxed environment favorable for learning. They confessed that they felt comforted and relieved as their voices were heard and understood. Requesting feedback based on students interests and needs empowered them as the balance of responsibility for feedback shifted towards the students. They, therefore, realized that they could be partners of the dialogue process,

This implies that feedback dialogue was facilitated as my students and I entered in a trusting relationship in which there were ample opportunities for interaction. In this regard, Carless(2013) identified five features to dialogic feedback assessment which were all met in this study. These features are openness, transparency, reliability of judgment, honest feedback indicating strengths and weaknesses, good will, generosity of spirit from the feedback provider and the competence of others to provide useful feedback.

As students felt in a secured and a trustful atmosphere, they were willing to share with me not only their feedback preferences and needs but also their criticism towards my written feedback practices. To build such atmosphere, I listened carefully and attentively to their voices seeking to understand them and accept their critiques. Students needed to feel that their views were valued and taken into consideration, thereby taking risks of challenging my feedback practices and thus breaking the barriers of traditional teacher- student relationship exclusively controlled by the teacher.

Freire's concept of critical pedagogy is relevant to this context as it stressed student's involvement and engagement in the construction of knowledge. He argued that learning should emanate from students' experiential knowledge and thus be conjointly constructed with the teacher. In this view, the teacher is no longer the most knowledgeable.

In my writing class , I felt that mutual trust, respect and cooperation prevailed, and the class became a dialogue between myself and my students rather than a 'top-down' one-way lecture from one person for the benefit of the other.

According to Freire(1970) talking about feedback creates a democratic classroom where students are partners of understanding. This can foster a spirit of positive complicity, trust and respect as shown by the following student's response "This is the first time a teacher cares about our opinions, this makes us feel important and close to you"

As argued by Cook-Sather (2002:2) "Authorizing student perspectives can directly improve educational practice because when teachers listen to and learn from students, they can begin to see the world from those students' perspectives". Mezirow(2012) insisted on establishing favorable conditions for fostering transformative learning , focusing on individual learner's needs, building on life experiences, creating relationship of trust with the learners. Like Feire, Mezirow highlighted the existence of ideal conditions that may facilitate people's willingness to engage in transformative learning. He maintained that by creating a teacher-learner relationship based on trust and caring, teachers can promote a safe and supportive atmosphere, evoke critical reflection through dialogue, and initiate students to critically reflect on issue. Given the differential power dynamics between teacher and learners, teacher should reduce the polarity between the roles of the student and the educator and move from being an expert, a controller to a co-learner, challenger, and facilitator (Guthrie 2004, Johnson and Santalucia, 2010; Hatherley, 2011; Mezirow, 2012; McClure and Stewart, 2013).

At the beginning of this quest, the participating students were reserved, shy and reluctant to challenge my ideas orally face to face and articulate theirs. It is clear that their behavior was due to the fact they were rarely given the opportunity to

critique the teacher's teaching practices. It is not always easy for students to express themselves when they are first given the opportunity to do so.

The students' reluctance is due to their social expectations of the role of the teacher as a controller and holder of knowledge (Walsh, 2012, Milliani, 2012). In formal education, students' voices have always been silenced since they were considered as tabula rasa and also afraid of the negative responses from their teachers which might harm their relationship. But the democratic relationship between teacher and students does not deny the important role of the teacher in her authority in helping students develop their learning abilities.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the results presented in the preceding chapter. It has demonstrated how my written feedback practices have been transformed from monologic teacher-led feedback to dialogic student-based feedback, how my relationship with my students improved and the quality of the writing classroom was enhanced. Through dialoguing with my students I realized that my written feedback was not adequate as it exerted too much control over my students' writings.

Then when engaged in a dialogue, the students started timidly and gradually to question and challenge my feedback practices. They questioned the form and content of the feedback. This exchange raised my awareness of the type of feedback provided to my students and this encouraged me to review my actual feedback practices by subsequently tailoring them according to the students' preferences and expectations. More importantly, this dialogue encouraged me to

review my relationship with the students from passive recipients of written feedback to active participants in the construction of the feedback. What has emerged from this study is that if given the opportunity , students would articulate their learning and teaching preferences in a dialogic way which could subsequently improve their writing performance. The next chapter provides recommendations and suggestions on the basis of the findings of this study.

CHAPTER SEVEN :

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS: IMPLEMENTING DIALOGUE IN THE CLASSROOM

Introduction

The findings of this study highlight the critical aspect of dialogue as a social enterprise and a collegial process. They are embedded in an EP- based study which aimed at achieving teacher professional development and personal growth in relating to written feedback practices and teacher relationship with students and its impact on writing performance. This chapter calls for a dialogic pedagogy and active students' involvement in the construction of written feedback practices in particular in and teaching/ learning practices in general because of its transformative potential for both teachers and students. This study aims to encourage dialogue between students and teacher as a form of self-critique reflection and to embrace the role of feedback dialogue not simply as an adjunct to assessment but in a broader critical and transformative process. This implies fostering a relationship of trust, cooperation and respect between the teacher and her students and moving from monologic to dialogic practices which require active students' engagement with the feedback, rather than passive acceptance. Addressing these issues, this chapter provides some pertinent pedagogical implications to help EFL writing teachers understand students' feedback needs, attitudes and preferences and tailor their feedback practices accordingly and also to raise teachers' awareness of the philosophy underlying their feedback practices. Moreover, as this study has tried to demonstrate the effectiveness of EP, as a new mode of classroom inquiry, teachers are encouraged to implement it in order to understand their classroom settings and thus improve the quality of life of their

classrooms. Finally, this study calls for an urgent need to foster transformative learning and critical pedagogy in higher education.

This chapter is divided into three main sections: Section 7.1 presents some pedagogical recommendations for enhancing teacher written feedback dialogue. Section 7.2 focuses on pedagogical implications for using EP, as a model of classroom research and section 7.3 advises teachers to move away from a transmissionary mode of education and embrace a critical pedagogy based on dialogic inquiry.

7.1 strategies for more dialogical written feedback practices

This study encourages teachers to devote some time for discussion with their students on important feedback issues. The aim is to gain an adequate understanding of the student's perspective and an understanding of what each individual student brings with them to the course in terms of past experiences, feedback wants and expectations. Teachers need to approach each writing class with the expectation that (a) their students do not know the philosophies underlying feedback construction, (b) the students may have preferences and needs which may contradict the ways in which teachers provide feedback, (c) even when teachers believe the intentions of their written feedback are clear, students may not understand them, and may not know how to revise in response to teacher feedback.

One of the strategies for making teacher feedback more dialogical and also sensitive to learners' needs is to have students express preferences for the kinds of feedback they would like to receive when they hand in a writing assignment. Students can be requested to attach questions with their papers identifying areas in which they would like help, or the teacher may attach a sheet of paper to each student's writing assignment asking them to answer evaluative questions on the given feedback such as "Do these comments correspond to your expectations?" "Which type of feedback would you like to receive?" "What do you like/dislike in the received feedback?" "What questions do you have for me as reader?" Such ways ensure that students' comments initiate the dialogue that is continued by the teacher through the feedback.

Another strategy to make teacher written feedback relevant to students is that after having received their writing assignments, students might be asked to read the teacher feedback comments and then be divided into small groups to share and discuss the comments. In discussing feedback, students engage in reflection on the received feedback and articulate their feedback expectations and preferences. In this way students are empowered, feel that they have control over their writings and enjoy a learning relationship with their teacher.

To achieve feedback as dialogue, teachers need to let students know that they too are willing and open to learn through the relationship- a relationship that is undeniably between people who differ in experience, knowledge, power and authority. Genuine dialogue is not reached by ignoring these differences, but rather by acknowledging them. In sum, the essence of feedback lies in the way

students and teachers consider written feedback: Is it static, monologic which students are compelled to follow? Or is it dynamic that students must engage with and challenge?

To do so requires a commitment to feedback as dialogue on the part of both student and teacher. If feedback is not given in the spirit of dynamic and contestable knowledge, then there is little chance for dialogue. Students should be treated as partners which implies sharing control with them, in feedback as in other areas. This control dimension acknowledges that feedback includes emotional and moral matters rather than a simple transfer of knowledge because it can enhance or undermine self-esteem, generate trust or suspicion, and subvert hierarchies of power.

But an important condition to achieve written feedback dialogue is to ensure that students understand the aims and the intents of the teacher in giving feedback and communicate clearly about it.

One more strategy is to organize time discussion to educate students about teachers' feedback philosophy and practices, and more importantly teach them how to interpret these comments. Indeed, as demonstrated in this study, there exist discrepancies between teachers' feedback which may result in student's reluctance to use teacher written feedback in their revisions. To this end, teachers can explain to their students the aspect of writing that they mostly focus. For example, they may inform them whether they focused on form, content or both of them. They may also state the feedback delivery mode they prefer conveying their comments. They may explain all the symbols they use for responding to

their writing and indicate whether they will be correcting every error or be selective. Such mechanisms would result in effective communication between teacher and student, encouraging students to use their teachers' feedback in a thoughtful and critical way and allowing teachers to understand how their feedback is being used and the reasons why it is not used in order to most effectively help the students

Communication, however, should not move only from the teacher to the student as discussed above but more from the student to the teacher as well. In this regard, in order for teachers to respond as effectively as possible to students' writings and for students to be willing to using their teachers' commentary, teachers need to understand and acknowledge student feedback needs and preferences.

This allow the teachers tailor their feedback in ways that meets student's wants and expectations and thus avoid a mismatch between the feedback teachers provide and the feedback students would like to receive. Teachers should challenge the traditional legacies of teachers as sole authors of what students learn and the role of education as banking. Rather they have to listen closely to what students have to say about their feedback preferences and expectations and thus learn from them and improve their practices. In this sense, they begin to see the world from their students' perspectives. For example, students can write their autobiographies, detailing their past experiences as writers, including a complete description of the types of feedback they have received from previous teachers, what they did and did not like about this feedback, what type of feedback they preferred to receive and what they did after they received the feedback (Goldstein,

2004; Hyland and Hyland, 2006). Teachers can also use questionnaires or interviews to uncover students' feedback expectations and reactions. Through these instruments are given a chance to assess feedback in terms of the degree exhaustiveness, clarity and effectiveness. Combining student’s views and teachers' views about feedback would lead to an open dialogue between the two protagonists whereby teachers can accommodate their practices to the students ’demands.

Another strategy is to reflect on one's feedback practices, for example, (a) on the feedback focus, (b) on feedback delivery technique.

7.1.1 Reflecting on the feedback focus

Teachers should be warned against overwhelming student’ papers with too much error correction as correcting every single mistake may demotivate them. In this case, selective error feedback on several patterns of error is more beneficial than comprehensive error correction, as the latter is exhausting to both teachers and students. However, before responding to students’ writing, teachers should first listen to their students’ ideas, content, what they are trying to say what they are aiming to accomplish, what purpose their writing has, for whom they are writing, what are their difficulties6 (Goldstein 2004). In sum, while responding to students’ writings teachers should not only focus on the product but also consider what the student has revised, how and why.

7.1.2 Reflecting on feedback delivery techniques

Deciding what would be effective commentary implies determining the types of comments to provide to students. These should be text-specific, clearly written in an unambiguous language, focusing on a revision strategy, including praise and constructive criticism and avoiding text appropriation.

7.2 Pedagogical implications of Exploratory Practice as a new mode of classroom understanding

This study attests for the effectiveness of Exploratory Practice as a new mode of classroom understanding which puts emphasis on both students and teachers trying to achieve understanding, rather than trying to solve problems, in the learning and teaching of languages. EP aims to develop better understanding of teaching and learning without producing an extra burden of work and undertaking sustainable and long-term investigation. Finally, Exploratory Practice is concerned with improving people's quality of life.

Using Exploratory Practice as a methodological framework has allowed me to live a memorable-life experience towards the quest for understanding teacher written feedback practices from the students' perspective. In the light of this life-experience, one may provide the following pedagogical recommendations (a) work for mutual understanding of life in the language classroom, (b)Strive to improve the quality of life in the language classroom, (c)Teachers as initiators of practices rather than consumers of pre-determined methods, (d) Work with puzzles not with problems, (e)Integrate research into pedagogy.

7.3 Integrating Transformative Learning and Critical Pedagogy in higher education

The results of this study call for integrating transformative learning and Critical Pedagogy in the writing classrooms. The current education system in Algeria is still focused on test preparation and curricula based on standardization and high stakes testing. This situation fails to inspire critical and creative pedagogies.

Inherent to this traditional perspective the teacher is the expert to be learned from and obeyed and the students' role is that of acquiescence. The curriculum, as experienced by most students in universities, is taught by transmission and emphasizes memory over understanding and reproduction over problem-solving. These students rarely ask questions or think in a critical way.

In his article"Teaching in higher education institutions in Algeria: A clash of paedagogies?" Miliani (2012) clearly explains, that Algerian teachers, caught between Islamic traditional pedagogy and Western pedagogy, have developed a hybrid pedagogy mostly based on their Islamic pedagogical background, despite the efforts to keep up with modern teaching practices. Indeed, despite the various reforms put forward by the government, Algerian university teachers are influenced to a large extent by their Islamic education such as considering themselves as the "all-knowing cheick" and basing most of their teaching practices on memorization while in Western educational models, the teacher is the facilitator and teaching is based on problem-solving and critical thinking. In this apparent clash of pedagogy , there is the necessity to establish

a dialogue with the new pedagogical practices as teachers need to develop a balanced approach to opposing practices and theories and need to revisit their Islamic pedagogical practices in the view of adapting them to Western pedagogy (Miliani, 2012).

Therefore, informed by Freire's (1970) emancipatory Critical Pedagogy and Mezirow's (1990) Transformative Learning Theory, this study argues for an education that favors the practice of freedom, a liberatory , transformative and humanizing experience ,where students and teachers build meaningful, trustful and respectful relationship and which emphasizes the importance of disrupting taken-for-granted assumptions, the mutual construction and reconstruction of knowledge, the creation of safe spaces for strengthening student voice and agency and for challenging the conventional views of the relationship between student and teacher.

Such education, therefore, fosters an environment of inquiry with the goal of encouraging critical reflection and critical thinking. This practice enables both teachers and students become self-directed and active agents in their own teaching/learning contexts and gives rise to substantial change and personal transformation through questioning their own experiences, existing understandings and embracing alternative perspectives. This study, therefore, considers critical reflection as the basis for teacher and learner personal and professional development and growth as it allows these latters become aware of their tacit assumptions which frame their thinking and actions inside and outside the classroom.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided a set of recommendations on the basis of the results brought about by this study. Specifically, since the findings of this study suggest that teacher written feedback is best conceptualized as a dialogic, two- way process whereby students are active partners in the feedback process, challenging the teacher's suggestions and comments, the set of recommendations provided should allow teachers to abandon a monologic, teacher- control feedback and embrace dialogic , student-based feedback. To do so, teachers need to reconfigure the role of their students from mere passive recipients of their feedback practices and to acknowledge the great potential of their students in expressing their opinions, attitudes and preferences regarding written feedback in particular and learning /teaching processes in general. Moreover, as this study attests for the effectiveness of EP as mode of classroom research, this chapter recommends for both teachers and learners to work together in a spirit of collegiality to understand their classroom setting and thus improve the quality life of their classroom. The significance of EP lies in emphasizing collective understanding by considering teachers and students as equally important. Furthermore, informed by dialogic-based inquiry pedagogy, this study advocates teachers to embrace a reflective stance towards their teaching practices and move away from the centuries-old role of 'a sage on the stage' and become skillful facilitators of a collaborative and rigorous intellectual commitment.

CONCLUSION

This study has explored dialogue as a social enterprise in a spirit of collegiality. Specifically, the dialogue that took place between myself, the teacher, and a group of my students about my written feedback practices to their writings and their responses to it . This research aimed to bridge the gap between my feedback practices and underlying philosophies and my students' feedback preferences and expectations and thus bring answers to my questioning about the effectiveness of those practices. Indeed, I noticed in my writing classes that most of my students did not understand or even misinterpreted my written feedback; some others did not always know how to incorporate it in their revisions as they were still making the same mistakes in their second drafts.

Teacher's frustration and students' dissatisfaction with written feedback, described in the literature, are symptoms of impoverished dialogue between teachers and their students, where response is monologic- a one way communication and a mere adjunct to assessment.

Based on the belief that feedback is best conceptualized as a dialogical and contingent two-way process that involves coordinated teacher–student interaction as well as active learner engagement, I engaged in a dialogue with my students to understand their feedback needs, preferences, attitudes and reactions, and to see whether my feedback practices corresponded to their expectations. The aim was to deliver a written feedback that addressed their needs, preferences and expectations in a way that it became clear and understandable.

In this journey of quest for understanding this puzzle EP was used as a research methodology. As a new form of practitioner research, EP appealed to me because its main principles seemed congruent with the aim of this study. Precisely, EP emphasizes the notion of cooperation and active involvement of both teacher and learners, as partners, working together to develop their own critical local practices and understanding through constant discussion, exploration, and on-going evaluation of the existing pedagogy.

Moreover, to probe adequate understanding of my feedback practices and philosophies and my students' reactions, attitudes and opinions towards those practices, a mix of introspective retrospective methods was used, leading to quantitative and qualitative interpretation. Specifically, four research tools were used, namely: two students' questionnaires(one questionnaire probing introspectively students' first reactions towards the received feedback and a second one eliciting retrospectively students' feedback opinions and attitudes after revision) , a retrospective semi-structured interview carried out after revision to elicit students' feedback preferences and misunderstanding , a writing task based on drafts before and after receiving feedback, and my self- report narrative revealing my feedback opinions and philosophies.

Exploratory Practice, therefore, offered me as a teacher a suitable framework to engage in a constructive dialogue with my students on my feedback practices. Listening to my students challenging and critiquing my written feedback to their writings has transformed my vision of giving and receiving feedback from a one way to a two- way process. I was challenged to look deeper than my own needs

and aims and encouraged to examine the bigger picture of feedback practices from my students' perspectives.

This has, incontestably, enhanced the quality of life of my writing classroom. What started as a quest for understanding my feedback practices and my students' reactions towards those practices became a quest for fostering a relationship of trust , respect and a positive spirit of complicity between myself and my students where both were willing and open to learn from each other, though we displayed different roles of power experience, knowledge, and authority. Genuine dialogue, therefore, is not reached by ignoring these differences, but rather by acknowledging them.

Communicating about how my students perceived my feedback was beneficial for me and my students in a number of ways. In the first place, enhancing a positive dialogue between myself and my students offered students the opportunity to actively engage in the writing process, assigning the responsibility for the writing and revising process to them. Second, offering opportunities for dialogue helped the students to highlight the social nature of the process of giving and receiving feedback, and raising students' awareness of the teacher/audience in their writing process. Third, encouraging students to think about and reflect on their writing in relation to teacher written feedback allowed students to be more aware of their opinions and attitudes towards teacher written feedback and thus their understanding improved. Fourth, providing students with an opportunity to express how my comments made them feel enabled me in turn be more aware of

how these comments effected students not only cognitively but emotionally as well.

The knowledge gained from this powerful experience has implanted in me the desire to strive for continuous improvement, to engage in critical reflection of my feedback practices in particular and teaching practices in general and to continue on my journey to develop and grow as a teacher. I believe this study will encourage other teachers to embark with their students on a process of dialogue where both will be invited to reflect, question and challenge their classroom realities and learning/teaching practices with the aim to improve them and enhance the quality of life of their language classroom .Undeniably, this quest of understanding allowed me to live a transformative experience

I understood that giving feedback involves more than giving information about the strengths or weaknesses about a student's work, but it is also the relationship between the teacher and students where students are active constructors of feedback rather than passively accepting teacher's suggestions and instructions that matters.

This study is, however, not without limitations. The major limitation is that it did not explore the transformative effects the process of dialogue had on the participating students. Indeed, though they were active participants in the process of raising my awareness of my actual feedback practices, it did not explore how the process of challenging my feedback practices developed their critical thinking and reflection. Since it was the end of the year and examination time, the participating students the university for summer vacation. Nevertheless, sometime

after the study, I accidentally met with three of them who revealed, informally, that they lived with me an enriching and exciting experience. Another limitation is the small number of participants (10) in the study. Indeed among the 60 students who received the questionnaire, only 10 answered all the questions in the questionnaire.

Therefore for future research, this study suggests replicating the study with more participants. It also suggests research on learner development. It is critical to better understand more how learners manage their learning in terms of deciding what they want to achieve, how they reach their targets, and why. Learners' experiences deserve to be voiced, understood and shared because the teacher's duty is to provide more learning opportunities to students and focus less on their own teaching. More research needs to be undertaken to reconfigure the power dynamics in teaching/ learning practices , to challenge traditional modes of teaching/learning and to raise teacher' critical consciousness and self-reflection of the changing roles of the teacher-student relationship and the kind of actions and interactions needed to develop successful learning partnerships with students. It is important to identify and test innovative strategies to help teachers learn about the theoretical and procedural knowledge necessary for the successful implementation of dialogic teaching in classroom settings. Finally, research is needed to explore the relevance and significance of Freire's critical pedagogy and Mezirow's transformative learning in the current educational landscape of Algeria and to see aim is to see how these innovative theories promote critical, creative and reflective thinking among teachers and students.

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Appendix1: Questionnaire to students before revision

This questionnaire is intended to help me gain insight on teacher written feedback. You are kindly requested to answer this questionnaire as honestly as possible by choosing carefully the right answer. Put a tick in the right box:

A. General information:

1. Age: ……………..

2. Sex: F M

3. Secondary education : which stream do you come from
   Human science Natural science foreign language

4. How often do you write in English?
   Never sometimes always

B. Questions investigating students' beliefs of teacher written feedback

5. Do you like receiving teacher written feedback on your paragraphs?

Total	**Yes**	**No**

6. What do you think about the teacher written feedback?

Total	**Useful**	**Sometimes useful**	**Not useful**

Please say why ………………………………………………………........

…………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………

7. How much of the received teacher feedback did you read?

Total	**All teacher' comments**	**Some of the teachers' comments**	**Not read the comments**

Please, say why ……………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………
…………

C. Investigating the type of teacher written feedback given to students on the first draft

8. Did your teacher write comments on your drafts?

Yes no

9. What areas of writing did you teacher focus most on

Areas of writing	**Total**
A. Structure	
B. Organization	
C. Style	
D. Content	

10. Which of the following methods did the teacher use to respond to your writings?

Delivery methods	**Total**
A. Direct correction	
B. Symbols and codes	
C. Single words	
D. Phrases	
E. Complete sentences	
F. Suggestions	
G. Questions	
H. Any type of feedback with a mark	
I. Mark only	
J. Praise	

6. Investigating students' reactions to the received teacher written feedback on the first draft

11. How did you find the teachers' comments?

Total	**Easy to understand**	**Difficult to understand**

12. When you did not understand your teacher's comments was it because of :

Causes	Total
A. The teacher used difficult language.	
B. The teacher made unclear suggestions	
C. The teacher asked difficult questions	
D. The teachers' handwriting was difficult to read	
E. The teacher gave too much detail	
Total	

13. Please say what you do when you do not understand teacher written feedback?

Strategies	Total
A. Ask teachers for clarification	
B. Ask explanation from classmates	
C. Refer back to previous composition	
D. Consult a grammar book	
E. Consult an experienced person	
F. Ignore it	
Total	

Please, give an example of a misunderstanding and indicate a strategy you used to overcome it:

…………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………

14. Did the teachers' comments on your written work correspond to your expectations?

Total	**Yes**	**No**

Please, explain why and how?

…………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Appendix2: Questionnaire to students after revision

A. Investigating whether students incorporated teacher written feedback when writing the final draft

1. Did you take into consideration your teacher's comments while writing the final draft?

Total	Yes	No

2. When rewriting your draft did you take into consideration?

Propositions	Total
All teacher's feedback	
Only feedback on mechanics	
Only feedback on vocabulary	
Only feedback on grammar	
Only feedback on content	
Only feedback on organization	

Please say why:

……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………….

3. Did you think that your final draft paragraph was better?

Total	Yes	No

Please, say why…………………………………………………………..

B. responses to students' feedback preferences

4. What areas of writing do you think the teacher should have more focused on?

Areas of writing	Total
A. Structure	
B. Organization	
C. Style	
D. Content	

5. How would you like your to find teacher's feedback on your paragraph?

Delivery methods	Total
K. Direct correction	
L. Symbols and codes	
M. Single words	
N. Phrases	
O. Complete sentences	
P. Questions	
Q. Any type of feedback with a mark	

R. Mark only	
S. Praise	
T. Criticism	

6. What do you like/dislike in teacher written feedback?

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix 3: Students' interview transcripts

Students1:

T: I will ask you questions about teacher written feedback, so answer them honestly, please.

S: ok. Mrs.

T: what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: I like the feedback from my teacher.

T: how do you perceive teacher written feedback? Do you like receiving it from your teacher? Why?

S: yes, I like receiving teacher written feedback because teacher sees things I don't see. It is according to vocabulary, grammar and spelling mistakes because the teacher has an experience in teaching"

T: can you be more explicit?

S: well! I acquire new ideas and respect grammatical rules.

T: now, what are your attitudes towards your teacher?

S: humm

T: in other words, does teacher written feedback create conflict between the teacher and students?

S: no, it does not deteriorate the relationship between the teacher and the students

T: explain further

S: well, as far as she is fair. This depends on students' work.

T: what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback?

S: I have no clear problems with teacher written feedback. I accept as it is.

T: have not you ever felt that sometimes the teacher written feedback is not fair?

S: well, yes sometimes I think I work well and the teacher fills my paragraph with comments that I do not expect.

T: do these comments always correspond to your expectations?

S: not always, sometimes the teacher does not consider the content.

T: ok, now tell me what do you think teacher written feedback should include/ focus on?

S: I want the teacher to focus on content/ideas and on vocabulary, punctuation and grammar.

T: what else?

S: I want also the teacher to give me strong ideas and avoid the use of the red pen

T: do you think that teacher written feedback can help you improve your writing?

S: yes, a lot

T: how?

S: for example, if I compare my first draft with the second one, there is a great improvement. There are fewer mistakes in the second.

T: what do you think about the process of talking about your feedback preferences?

S: it is helpful to express our preferences so that the teacher takes them into consideration when giving feedback. Besides, I feel that the teacher cares about my opinions

T: thank you very much

Student 2:

T: I will ask you questions about teacher written feedback, so please answer them as frankly as possible

S: yes, Mrs.

T: what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: I like feedback because it is useful.

T: how do you perceive teacher written feedback? Do you like receiving it from your teacher? Why?

S: it allows me to know my mistakes in order to avoid them.

T: what are your attitudes towards the teacher?

S: we are here to learn. The teacher is qualified we have to take into consideration her comments.

T: what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback?

S: sometimes the teacher does not understand what I was thinking about.

T: can you give an example?

S: yes, hummm I remember last time I wrote that students have problems in their studies, the teacher changed into “difficulties” I did not like it”

T: what else?

S: sometimes I find difficult to read this comment, I feel frustrated.

T: so! What do you think teacher written feedback should include?

S: I did not understand the question

T: what do you think your teacher should focus on when correcting your paragraph?

S: everything!

T: what exactly?

S: correct all my mistakes

T: what else?

S: hum! Specify how the sentences should be written and avoid the red pen.

T: do you think that teacher written feedback can help you improve your writing?

S: yes, it does

T: how?

S: thanks to teacher written feedback, I know how to reformulate sentences

T: what do you think about the process of talking about your feedback?

S: it is interesting because we take experiences from the teacher

T: explain more

S: If I feel that feedback is not right I give my opinions about that feedback.In this way, the teacher knows what we want.

T: what else?

S: I feel satisfied that the teacher listens to what I say

T: thank you for your cooperation

Studenst3:

T: I will ask you questions about teacher written feedback to understand your reaction towards it

S: ok

T: what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: in general, I like teacher written feedback because it guides me except for the feedback concerning the length of the paragraph. I do not like to limited I want to express all my ideas.

T: how do you perceive teacher written feedback? Do you like receiving it from your teacher? Why?

S: yes, because I know my mistakes.

T: explain further

S: I mean I learn from my mistakes. Sometimes, I remember the last comment and I try to correct the mistake before the teacher corrects it again.

T: what are your attitudes towards the teacher?

S: it depends on the teacher. Sometimes the teacher uses tough advice /criticism that will cause students' self-confidence and some teachers give precise and concise advice in a gentle way.

T: what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback?

S: the only problem, as I said before, deals with the length of the paragraph. I write long paragraphs because I have a lot to say, so I do not want the teacher to limit the length my paragraph.

T: well! What do you think teacher written feedback should include?

S: well! Till I am satisfied with teacher written feedback

T: yes, but may be there some aspects you want your teacher to focus on!

S: yes, I need to have more feedback concerning vocabulary that I use. For example, I am using a simple primary school diction, I expect the teacher to give me stronger words such as synonyms.

T: what else?

S: I want the teacher to focus on content. I want her to understand my ideas, the point I want to give. I also want her to let me express my ideas in long paragraphs.

T: what else?

S: I want the teacher t correct all my mistakes because I have a lot of language problems

T: ok! Do you think that teacher written feedback can help you improve your writing?

S: yes it does

T: how? Can you give examples?

S: for example, before I used to write long sentences, but now I write short sentences

T: what else?

S: I learnt how to use suitable conjunctions

T: what do you think about the process of talking about your feedback preferences?

S: this is debatable some students like talking about feedback others may not

T: why?

S: maybe they think it is not interesting, but I advise them to do it because it will benefit them

T: how?

S: to know their problems in writing and solve them

T: what else?

S: I feel that my feedback preferences are understood. It is something good

T: thank you, indeed.

Student4:

T: I will ask you some questions on the teacher written feedback that you receive

S: ok

T: what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: I like teacher written feedback

T: how do you perceive it?

S: it is useful

T: explain more

S: when I begin to write I remember my teacher written feedback in order to be more specific, correct and clear

T: what are your attitudes towards the teacher?

S: I do not know

T: does the written feedback the teacher gives you deteriorate the relationship you have with her?

S: well! It depends

T: how?

T: do correction without imposing her ideas

T: is the case in this class

S: no, here we are free to write whatever we want

T: what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback.

S: when the teacher written feedback is long

T: could you be explicit

S: When it includes too many details and a lot of correction, I feel demotivated and if the teacher is so severe and imposes his ideas

T: hum, what else?

S: sometimes I like the teacher correcting my ideas, other times I do not because I do not feel the same.

T: what do you think teacher written feedback should include?

S: I need more communication with the teacher

T: explain further

S: sometimes I want the teacher to explain to me my mistakes orally to check if I have improved my writing

T: well this is interesting, what else?

S: I want to her to correct all my mistakes on grammar and vocabulary. I want to enrich my linguistic knowledge.

T: Do you think that teacher written feedback can help you improve your writing?

S: it helps me when I write not only in writing but also in other modules such as punctuation and grammar.

T: what do you think about the process of talking about your feedback preferences?

S: If the feedback is not right, I give my opinions about that feedback

T: what else?

S: I feel close to the teacher because she listens to my views about her feedback

T: ok thank you

Student5

S: good morning Mrs.

T: good morning, thank you for answering my questions

S: you are welcome

T: ok, what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: I like it

T: how do you perceive it?

S: it is helpful

T: please, tell me how?

S: it helps me to correct my mistakes

T: what are your attitudes towards the teacher?

S: hummm

T: what does the feedback you receive from the teacher make you feel about the teacher?

S: for example, if the teacher written feedback is too long and contains many details I feel that the teacher does not care about my feeling

T: how?

S: because if it is too long I get frustrated

T: ok, what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback.

S: when the feedback is written in disorder

T: explain

S: when the correction is not written next to the mistake, I have to look for the correction to relate to the mistake

T: so, what do you expect the teacher to include in the written feedback she gives?

S: as my level in English is low I want it to include everything such as grammar, punctuation, mechanics and content

T: what else

S: more importantly, I want the teacher to show the correction beside the mistake and avoid the use of the red pen.

T: do you think that teacher written feedback improves your writing?

S: yes, now I know how to write the four types of paragraphs studies in class.

T: what do you think of the process of holding a dialogue about feedback?

S: talking about feedback allows me to be aware of my mistakes in order to avoid them in the future.

T:ok! What else?

S: the relationship with the teacher improves because she accepts my opinions about her written feedback on my paragraph.

T: thank you.

Student 6:

T: what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: it is interesting

T: how do you perceive it?

S: it is a kind of training to practice writing, as beginning writers; we need to learn more about writing and writing feedback of the teacher is the key to this. Therefore, teacher feedback helps us to focus on our mistakes

T: what are your attitudes towards the teacher?

S: I do not really I understand what you mean

T: well, what do you think about your teacher?

S: I do not have any problem with the teacher, she is fair

T: have not you ever felt annoyed about her

S: well sometimes when she gives boring feedback I do not appreciate that

T: ok, so what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback?

S: you are the teacher, I accept your feedback

T: ok, does it always match with your expectations?

S: well, not always

T: can you be more explicit?

S: when I see the red I automatically think I did not do well.

T: what else?

S: well, sometimes the teacher intervenes in my ideas. I do not the teacher to change my ideas because I think in French and then I translate in English so when she changes the word the meaning changes.

T: how do you think it should be improved?

S: I want the teacher to focus on grammar and vocabulary without changing the meaning I want to convey.

T: now do you think teacher written feedback improves your writing?

S: yes, now I think automatically I can express my ideas freely thanks to feedback.

T: what do you think of the process of talking about feedback?

S: it is helpful to understand the problems between the teacher and students because if we do not talk about feedback we do not understand each other

T: ok, thanks

Student 7

T: I will ask you some questions about teacher written feedback

S: ok

T: what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: it is very useful

T: how do you perceive it?

S: it helps me a lot

T: in what way

S: I avoid repeating the same mistakes

T: what are your attitudes towards the teacher?

S: there is no conflict between the teacher and students if she does not give you feedback it means she does not care about you.

T: what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback?

S: I have no problems with the written feedback

T: you mean that you always agree with the given comments

S: well, not always

T: can you elaborate

S: well, I did not know how to do correction"

T: What else

S: sometimes, she keeps the ideas as they are but corrects only the grammatical mistakes

T: so you mean that you want the teacher to correct your ideas.

S: yes but also the structure

T: how do you think it should be improved?

S: specify how the sentences should be rewritten

T: could you explain more

S: sometimes the comment is one word, so I need constructive feedback with complete meaningful sentences.

T: ok, you think teacher written feedback improves your writing?

S: yes, what I start to write paragraphs I was writing like an essay I did not know the form of the paragraph. Now I know I write better paragraphs with almost no mistakes.

T: what do you think of the process of talking about feedback?

S: in this way teacher will take into consideration students' problems in writing

This is the first time a teacher cares about our opinions

T: thank you

Student8:

T: I will ask you some questions about teacher written feedback

S: ok

T: what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: I like receiving teacher written feedback

T: how do you perceive it?

S: it enables me to know how to express my ideas differently.

T: what are your attitudes towards the teacher?

S: well it……………..

T: what do you think about your teacher?

S: I do not like when she repeats the same mistakes.

T: what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback?

S: it is difficult for me to put into question your feedback

T: well, can you think of a particular comment you did not like?

S: sometimes the teacher does not transmit the feedback clearly"

T: what do you mean?

S: sometimes, she uses ambiguous and vague comments such as "irrelevant" "rewrite it" and I do not know how to deal with it

T: so, how do you think it should be improved?

S: I want her to us explicit words and tell me how to do correction

T: what else

S: trying to understand my comments without imposing her ideas.

T: do you think teacher written feedback improves your writing?

S: yes, it helps me in the exam I remember my mistakes and I avoid them.

T: what do you think of the process of talking about feedback?

S: talking about feedback makes the job of the teacher easy; she will know what we expect from her

T: thank you for your cooperation.

Student 9

T: I will ask you some questions about teacher written feedback

S: ok

T: what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: it like it

T: how do you perceive it?

S: I think it is helpful because it enabled me to improve my writing

T: how does it improve your writing?

S: it helps me to correct my mistakes

T: what are your attitudes towards the teacher?

S: we are her to learn and the teacher is qualified and we have to take into consideration her comments

T: what else?

S: she provides fair feedback depending on student's work

T: what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback?

S: I have no problems with teacher written feedback

T: really, so you mean that each time you receive it you understand

S: well, no, sometimes I do not understand the feedback she gives

T: explain more

S: sometimes I do not understand the words she uses

T: give examples

S: for example when she says, "rewrite this sentence" or "be direct" I do not know how to do it

T: how do you think it should be improved?

S: I want the teacher to provide clear and direct comments

T: how?

S: for example, to avoid using questions in the comments and use sentences instead.

T: what else

S: I want to her to write the correction next to the mistake

T: do you think teacher written feedback improves your writing?

S: yes, thanks to feedback I write paragraphs without few mistakes

T: what do you think of the process of talking about feedback?

S: to understand and improve students' problems

T: what else?

S: I really feel that my relationship with my teacher is better

T: why?

S: because she is attentive to what I say about her written feedback

T: thanks

Student10:

T: I will ask you some questions about teacher written feedback, so please answer them

S: ok

T: what are your attitudes towards teacher written feedback?

S: I find it very helpful

T: how do you perceive it?

S: I like it because it helps in other modules

T: how?

S: now I avoid repeating the same mistakes and I have better marks.

T: what are your attitudes towards the teacher?

S: I have good relationships with the teacher and teacher written feedback does not create any conflict between her and me.

T: what are the problems you face when dealing with teacher written feedback?

S: you are the teacher you have the right to give us feedback as you want

T: you mean you always agree with the received comments?

S: the only problem deals with the length of the paragraph. I write long paragraph because I have a lot to say, so I do not want the teacher to limit the length of my paragraph"

T: how do you think it should be improved?

S: well, I want her to let me explain myself.

T: what else

S: I want her to suggest synonyms next to the word she wants me to change and use explicit sentences.

T: do you think teacher written feedback improves your writing?

S: yes, because in the beginning I did not use punctuation clearly, but now that I take teacher written feedback into consideration I have less comments concerning punctuation.

T: what do you think of the process of talking about feedback?

S: talking about feedback set up close relationship between the teacher and students.

T: thank you for your cooperation. Do you want to add something

S: yes, this is the first time a teacher cares about our opinions; this makes us feel important and close to you

Appendix4: sample of students' drafts

Student4: draft 1

Topic 1: why do some students study abroad?

Many students prefer(s) studying abroad for

several reasons. First, they had all the conditions that

which conditions do you think are available abroad ??

let them want to learn and improve their knowledge.

& will enable them improve their level more in foreign countries

Therefore, the teachers is important to make their

are more experienced while abroad students will

students learn for instance if the teacher don't

have the opportunity to attend classes of more

examine all the homeworks that he/she gives

experienced, so there teachers were very severe

it to him. Indeed, the teacher should mark the

irrelevant

absences each time. Another reason why some is

that

student studying abroad because when for example

can enhance the value of student's degree

they finish their studies they did not find difficul

& find jobs easily once in their countries

to apply for job. All in all, studying abroad

plays major role in order to guarantee their future

students'

career.

Student4: draft 2

Correction of paragraph S4

Many students prefer studying abroad for several reasons. First, they had all the conditions that let them want to learn and improve their knowledge. One among the conditions is they have [adequate] the materials [for learning] such as the computers ~~the foreigners student studied by computer~~ [use]. They hold also library [access to, which contains] ~~every book you look for you find it easily~~ [many relevant books]. ~~Therefore~~ [Besides], the teachers in foreign ~~countries are more experienced~~. While abroad students will have the opportunity to attend classes [of experienced teachers]. Another reasons is that studying abroad can enhance the value of student's degree and they find job easily once in their countries. All in All, studying abroad plays major role in order to guarantee student's future career.

Students6: draft 1

Country side and city are ~~contrasting~~ in many ways. First, city is very Large. it ~~h has many population Located in the central of the city~~ Morover, city has many movement of people and cars that way caused many traffic and the most dangerous for that is the polution spred in all the city. Inaddition, city provied different services. In contrast the contry side is very calme and simple and few of people live thier. Besides, the life in the country side is difficult and hard. Finally, ~~the city and the countryside are~~ different complent.

student!

different

in there

many people live there

Besides, the air in the city is not clear as many cars eject smoke give off

Unlike life in the city

these are the main points of differences between the city and the county side.

in what ways life is hard?

Students6: draft2

Country side and city are different in many ways, First, city is very Large, in that many people live there. besides, the air in the city is not clean as many cars reject smothe. In contrast the country side is very calme and simple and few of people live their. Unlike life in the city. the life in the country is difficult and hard such as there is no transport, live in old houses, far from school and hospitals. Finally these are the main points of differences between the city and the country side.

Student8: draft1

Living in country side and living in city are two different life styles. First, life in city is noisy because of cars and crowded; whereas, life in country side is quite and peaceful. Moreover, factories smoke and cars pollute the air in the city; however, the air in the country side is fresh and clear. Unlike country side, city is more expensive. Finally, city provides many services and facilities of living despite that living in county side helps our environment to survive.

in many ways

people

life in

Please, rewrite this sentence!

Give examples

Student 8: draft2

Living in a country side and living in city are totally different in many ways. First, life in the city is noisy because of cars and crowded people; whereas living in country side is peaceful. Moreover, factories smoke pollute the air in the city; however, the air in the country side is fresh and clear. Unlike country side, city life is more expensive. Finally, city provides many services and facilties such as malls, theaters... etc while country side does not provide such ~~many~~ services.

Studen9: draft1

Though city & country sides are good places
~~people makin~~ to live in, they display many
difference.

people making a decision as to where
to live, either in a city or in countryside
meed to know that both the areas are
better in some ways and have disadvantages
in some other ways. First the air in the countryside is
fresh & clean the areas [illegible] away from the main populated
whereas in the region, and in the city all the works pressu[illegible]
city, it is polluted. survives, Moreover social life is very
sophisticated superior in the city countryside as compared to
the country side city, In addition people living in a city
can enjoy many facilities related to education,
technology, health, medical such as and much more
unlike the countryside. Finaly, the overall
standard of living is higher in cities as
compared to the countryside which is modest

which facilities?

where all
these facilities
are not available.

Student9: draft2

Though city and country sides are good places to live in, they display many differences. First, the air in the countryside is fresh and clean whereas in the city, it is polluted. Moreover, social life is very sophisticated in the countryside as compared to city. people living in a city can enjoy many facilities such as education, technology, helth, media and much more. unlike the countryside where all these facilities are not available. Finaly, the overall standard of living is higher in cities as compared to the countryside wich is modest.

Student 10: draft1

(for what?
to study)

There are several ~~ways~~ causes which encourage students ~~for studying~~ abroad including the new culture, ~~the~~ learning ~~the~~ new language, having interesting opportunities. ~~First and for most~~, studying abroad will give them a the opportunity to be esposed to a new culture because getting in contact with natives allow them to know their tradition and way of thinking. Secondly, ~~stu~~ dents like to ~~studying~~ abroad to learn a new language. Indeed ~~students~~ studying abroad ~~have~~ gives students the opportunities to practice ~~the~~ new language and use it. Last but not least, the other reason which makes students study abroad is the interesting opportunities to have a good experience not available in their country which experiences?

Students 10: draft 2

Correction of the paragraph

There are several causes which encourage students to study abroad including the new ~~language~~ culture, learning a new language having opportunities for great experiences. the most important cause, studying abroad will give them the opportunity to be exposed to a new cultur because getting in contact with natives allow them to know their traditions and way of thinking. Secondly, students like ~~to~~ studying abroad to learn a new language / In deed, studying abroad gives students the opportunity to ~~a~~ of practice a new language and better use it. Last but not least, the other reasons which makes students interested in studying abroad is the ~~o~~ several opportunities that give(s) them a chance to gain good experiences that are notavailable in their countries, as for green card.

Appendix5: My self-report narrative

As an EFL teacher who has been through ten years of teaching writing in English at university, I have found myself in a position of a certain stagnation regarding my feedback practices. While responding to my students' pieces of writing, my main concern was how best to respond to their writings. I dedicated many hours each semester to reading, commenting on, and grading student writing, and I wondered if the time I spent translated into improvements in their writing skills. For their part, students wanted constructive feedback on their writing and often expressed frustration when they found the comments on their papers to be mysterious, confusing, or simply too brief. I felt frustrated, discouraged and intrigued. I, therefore, wanted to understand why most of them did not take into consideration my feedback in their subsequent writings. Was it because my written feedback was not clear? Vague? Or was because it does not correspond to their expectations? If this is case, what are their feedback preferences and expectations? What are their opinions and attitudes towards the written feedback I give them? What do students really think about my comments? Do students' understandings of teacher feedback match my intentions? How can I deliver a written feedback that helps them improve their writing abilities? How can this feedback meet their expectations and preferences? Expectedly, when confessed to my colleagues about my concerns they all seemed to struggle with the same issue.

This questioning led me to plunge in my deeply rooted thoughts, assumptions, beliefs and opinions about my feedback routines and habits. The aim is to unveil, understand and make sense of what frame my feedback perceptions and knowledge and thus influence my feedback practices.

Though I regard responding to students' writing fundamental in developing students' writing abilities, it is the most challenging and difficult task I have had to do in all my teaching career. Students who study English as a foreign language must be provided with proper feedback to help them learn from their mistakes, to prevent them from repeating those mistakes, and to encourage them to use the language correctly.

Their written products are concrete proof of how they are progressing. Specifically, I firmly believe that feedback provision on multiple drafts writing is vital as it allows them to know their writing strengths and weaknesses and give them ideas about how to improve their subsequent academic work and learning. If a teacher does not supply her students' drafts with written feedback, then she is not enhancing their learning. Worst, she is letting them continue with their weaknesses. Rather, if feedback is given to students regarding their weaknesses, then they may correct their mistakes and avoid them in subsequent writings. This entails that feedback must serve a dual purpose that is to identify students' strengths and to diagnose their

writing needs. More significantly, it helps them reflect on what is wrong in their writings and eventually correct their mistakes or refer to them when needed in future writing.

I strive to provide comprehensive feedback emphasizing both form and content. I comment on both language structure matters and ideas. In order to develop their writing abilities, I focus mostly on their weaknesses and highlight every single error with a red pen. I rarely provide encouraging or supporting feedback and I rarely praise where they had succeeded. Most of the time, I provide corrective suggestions for weaker students, telling them what and how to change. As they are first year university students, I do believe that they do not have the sufficient knowledge to correct their mistakes by themselves; therefore, the feedback I provided them with show them how to correct their mistakes.

Because of lack of time, I sometimes respond in single words, but often I use a combination of statements, imperatives and questions. In addition, I sometimes provide that feedback either as comments in the margin next to the error or at the end of paragraph.

Since I did not receive any training in responding to my students' writings, I believe that I inherited these practices from reading some pertinent books on the issue, from my eight years of teaching experience and from my previous teachers.

Though I do believe that students should read, attend and incorporate the received feedback in view of improving their writing abilities, few students actually take it into consideration. For me, most of them may misinterpret it or misunderstand it; some others do not always know how to incorporate it in their revisions as they are still making the same mistakes which was clearly reflected in their subsequent writings.

I became, therefore, puzzled with this issue and wanted to understand my students' feedback needs, preferences, attitudes and reactions. Specifically, I wanted to know whether my feedback philosophies and beliefs corresponded to my students' expectations, how I can deliver a written feedback that address their needs preferences and expectations in a way that it becomes clear, understandable and educational.

Consequently, I decided to engage in a dialogue with them to unveil these misunderstandings and tension that exist between myself and my students. I strongly hold that dialoguing with my students about their feedback preferences and needs would improve students' writing compositions. Engage into a dialogue about my written feedback to their compositions not only allows them to critically reflect on their compositions, raise their awareness of their mistakes and thus avoid them in future writings but also improve my written feedback practices and enhance my relationship with them.

الملخص:

على الرغم من أن كلا من المعلمين (الأساتذة) و المتعلمين (الطلاب) يتفقون على أهمية ردود فعل الأساتذة(ملاحظاتهم أو تعليقاتهم)الخطية/المكتوبة كونها مفيدة و مرغوب فيها من الطرفين على حد السواء ،إلا أنها تكشف إحباطهم ومدى خيبتهم تجاهها و ذلك راجع إلى فقر أو ضعف حوارها من حيث الاستجابة ،إذ هو بمثابة خطاب مونولوجي و نقاش علمي بحت غير شخصي تجاه الطلبة المتلقين الذين ليس بحوزتهم أية ردود فعلية مكتوبة من قبل ملقنيهم(معلميهم)، وهذا ما أشار إليه كلا من "فرار" في ،"نظرية "التعليم التحرري والتربية(البيداغوجيا) النقدية

و "ميزرو" في "نظرية التعليم التحويلية" و تعكس هذه الدراسة رحلة المعلم الاستكشافية للتحقيق و التفكير من خلال الحوار مع عشرة طلاب حول هذه الردود الفعلية وممارستها ،بعد أن تم استدعاؤهم .للطعن فيها ونقدها إما في التفكير فيها أو طريقة ممارستها

ولتحقيق هذا الحوار، استخدمت الأساليب الكمية و النوعية المتمثلة في استبيانات الطلاب(قبل .و بعد المراجعة)، ومشاريعهم(مسوداتهم)الأولى و النهائية علاوة على مقابلاتهم و السرد الذاتي للمعلم و أظهرت(بينت) نتائج هذه الدراسة أن الحوار مع الطلبة أعطى للأستاذة الفرصة لعيش تجربة تحويلية محفزة مما أدى إلى رفع درجة وعيها من خلال ممارسات ردود الفعل الفعلية نتيجة الاستماع إلى نقد الطلاب لهذه الممارسات وما يفضلونه بدلا عنها. كما اقترنت درجة الوعي بتغير وجهة نظرها وطريقة عملها من دور تعليمي تلقيني مهيمن(طاغ) على أطوار المرحلة التعليمية إلى دور يقبل مشاركة ومحاورة الطلاب و قبول نشاطاتهم و استعراض ممارساتهم

.و ردود أفعالهم المكتوبة

ومن ثم تدعو هذه الدراسة إلى تفعيل الحوار بين الطلاب و ضرورة مشاركاتهم في بناء ردود فعلية "مكتوبة وتفعيل ممارساتهم لها لا سيما التعليمية منها أثناء هذه المرحلة"مرحلة التعلم بشكل عام

الكلمات المفتاحية(الدالة):الممارسة الاستكشافية،ملاحظات(ردود الفعل الفعلية)المعلم المكتوبة،التعليم .التحرري،نظرية التعليم التحويلية،الحوار الجاد الهادف