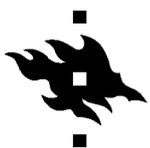


Investigating Revision Negotiation in L2 Writing Clinic
Sessions
A Qualitative Analysis of Teacher-Student Discourse

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<p>Englannin kielen valta-asema tieteellisenä kielenä näkyy enenevässä määrin myös maissa kuten Suomessa, jossa yhä useammilla tieteenoilla opiskelijat kirjoittavat opinnäytetyönsä englanniksi. Opiskelijoiden englannin kielen akateemisen kirjoitustaidon tueksi korkeakoulut järjestävät itse <i>Writing clinic</i> -palveluja, joissa englannin kielen ammattilainen avustaa sekä englannin että tieteellisen kirjoittamisen saralla. Palvelun keskiössä korostuu opiskelijan ja opettajan vuorovaikutus, jonka kuluessa opiskelijan tekstiin tehdään korjauksia. Palvelussa korostuu myös sen pedagoginen ulottuvuus: keskeisenä tavoitteena on edistää opiskelijoiden englannin kielen akateemista kirjoitustaitoa, ei niinkään keskittyä heidän tekstiensä sisältöihin.</p> <p>Tässä tutkimuksessa on tavoitteena tutkia opettajan ja opiskelijan välistä vuorovaikutusta <i>Writing clinic</i> -tapaamisissa, joissa opiskelija sisällön asiantuntijana ja opettaja englannin kielen ammattilaisena muokkaavat opiskelijan tekstiä. Tutkimuksessa tarkastellaan erityisesti vuorovaikutustilanteissa käytävää neuvottelua, joka johtaa tekstiin tehtäviin kielellisiin korjauksiin.</p> <p>Tutkimuksessa käytetty aineisto koostuu kolmesta suomalaisessa yliopistossa järjestetystä <i>Writing clinic</i> -tapaamisesta. Niiden aikana maisteriopiskelijat muokkaavat maisterintutkielmiensa johdantolukuja englannin kielen ammattilaisen avustuksella. Tapaamiset järjestettiin etäyhteydellä ja ne tallennettiin videomuotoon näytöntallennuksena, jossa näkyvät ruudulla tehdyt toiminnot, ja johon sisältyy myös opiskelijan ja opettajan välinen keskustelu. Tutkimuksen materiaalin muodostavat tapaamisten videot sekä niiden pohjalta tehdyt litteraatit. Tutkimuksessa analysoidaan diskurssianalyysejä käyttäen tavat, joilla opettaja ja opiskelija neuvottelevat korjauksista.</p> <p>Aineistosta nousee viisi erilaista neuvottelun muotoa. Yleisimmin esiintyvät neuvottelun muodot olivat <i>Opettajan kysymys – Opiskelijan vastaus</i> sekä <i>Opettajan ehdotus – Opiskelijan vastaus</i>. Harvemmin esiintyvät neuvottelun muodot olivat <i>Opiskelijan aloite – Opettajan reaktio</i>, <i>Opettajan kommentti – Opiskelijan reaktio</i> sekä <i>Opettajan korjaus – Opiskelijan reaktio</i>. Tulokset osoittavat, että opettajan rooli korjausneuvotteluissa oli dominoiva, ja opettajan vuorot keskustelussa määrittivät myös opiskelijoiden osallistumista. Lisäksi tulosten pohjalta käy ilmi, että onnistuneiden korjausten saavuttaminen edellytti sekä opettajan että opiskelijan aktiivista osallistumista keskusteluihin.</p>			
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1 Introduction

Since the early 20th century, English has covered ground as the global language within economic, political and social strata. English is, in fact, known for its strong status as a *lingua franca*; it functions as a common means of communication for people who come from diverse linguacultural backgrounds and who do not share the same first language (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 7). What is more, English has also become the *lingua franca* of the academic world and knowledge production. Its dominance is seen for example in the amount of research published in English and in the absence of other scientific languages (Lillis and Curry, 2010, p. 281). As a result of systematic socio-economic and political movements, higher education institutions have become more internationalized, and the academic *lingua franca* as a medium of instruction and publishing allows greater scholarly dialogue and mobility between different countries (Blommaert, 2010; Dafouz and Smit, 2014). The effects of such movements are also seen in countries such as Finland. In fact, the number of English-medium degree programs in Finland has experienced a tremendous increase over the past decades. Finnish universities and universities of applied sciences at the moment offer over 400 degree programs in English (The Finnish National Agency for Education, 2021), while in 2008, the number was 280 (Saarinen, 2012, p. 164).

Although the internationalization of higher education provides advantages, it also raises issues especially regarding the use of the academic *lingua franca*: mainly those of linguistic inequality between L1 and L2 students/scholars, as well as the diversity of English in the academic context. While students and scholars who have English as their second or foreign language (L2) outnumber those who participate in the internationalized higher education in English as their first language (L1) (Jenkins, 2014, p. 5), L2 students/scholars are expected to gain competence both in academic English and the demanding subject matters of their disciplinary fields (Hyland, 2004). These aspects, specifically in the context of university master's students, draw also the fundamental framework for the present study.

Master's students who write a thesis in English as their L2 often experience the need for additional assistance in academic writing in English. Many universities acknowledge the situation in which L2 students are (see Coleman, 2006), and offer academic writing courses along with collaborative writing clinics, in which students can participate in order to enhance their writing competence in academic English. As the subject matters are demanding at a higher educational level, what also raises questions around the process of writing a thesis is the

question of language regulation. Language regulation, according to Hynninen (2016, p. 30), refers to the practices and activities, in which language users intervene in their own and others' language use and thus "act as regulators of language and in the process (re)produce language norms." In this sense, in the context of writing clinic, teachers act as language regulators as they intervene in the students' writing processes. Such interventions are referred to as "literacy brokering" (Lillis and Curry, 2010, p. 87), which frames also the setting of the present study. With the term, Lillis and Curry (2010) refer to interventions in an academic writing by teachers, tutors, and other literacy brokers, who often are called upon the activity due to their high proficiency in the English language. Indeed, this study seeks to explore literacy brokering in an academic writing process in which the goal is to write a master's thesis. The aim is to study and analyze collaborative writing clinic sessions, in which a teacher as a language expert and a student as a content expert together discuss and negotiate language revisions in the student's draft. Instead of analyzing the impact of brokering on the final versions of the students' theses, this study focuses solely on inspecting the nature of teacher-student discourse in the writing clinic sessions, and how the revisions are negotiated during the sessions. The present study aims at answering the following question:

How are language revisions negotiated in the writing clinic sessions?

This thesis is divided into six chapters. Chapter 2 reviews previous literature around academic writing in higher education, the concept of writing conference as well as literacy brokering in order to lay a firm foundation for the focus and scope of the thesis. Chapter 3 presents detailed description of the data at hand as well as introduces the methodology used to answer the research question. The analysis will be carried out in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 discusses the findings in the light of the research question and considers the limitations of the study. Finally, Chapter 6 concludes the thesis by summarizing the main findings of the study as well as suggesting potential perspectives for future research.

2 Theoretical background

This chapter reviews relevant literature regarding academic writing as well as the growing status of English in academia with its effect of L2 writers, especially in the context of Finland. In addition to this, previous studies around conferencing as a medium of instruction are presented.

2.1 Academic writing in higher education

Writing is considered an essential part of higher education through which knowledge is organized, interpreted, and understood (Lea and Street, 1998, p. 158). In fact, as Lillis (2001, p. 20) argues, writing functions as “the means by which tutors can come to learn about the extent and nature of individual students’ understanding.” Furthermore, good academic writing is regarded as one of the main goals in completing higher education – it is continuously developed, and it has serious implications for assessment (Can and Walker, 2011, p. 509; Canagarajah, 2011, p. 402). However, naturally the assessment is not entirely based on linguistic competence as academic writing is twofold; in addition to demonstrating their knowledge of the disciplinary norms of the genre, students must also master the theoretical background, knowledge and methodology of their respective field of study (see Hyland, 2004).

Research around academic writing indicates that neither practices nor perceptions of good academic writing are homogeneous but rather at times even conflicting. Indeed, as Sword (2012, p. 11) argues “writing styles vary considerably according to content, purpose, and intended audience” and to some extent, what is perceived as good academic writing “will always remain a matter of individual talent and taste”. McCambridge (2018), for instance, conducted a study in which she examined author voice in student writing, drawing a conclusion that although the practices among the students’ use of voice varied, the assessors were nearly unanimous in giving higher grades to those who used their own voice less. Interestingly, McCambridge (2018) also found diverse preferences among the assessors; whereas some viewed author voice inspiring and effective, others considered it to weaken the reliability of an academic text. What then shapes the way of acquiring and preferring certain linguistic norms and conventions, according to Sword (2012), is highly based upon the discipline and field of study – as she argues “to enter an academic discipline is to *become* disciplined” (p. 12, original emphasis). Furthermore, she demonstrates that, although there are rigid rules determining the characteristics of good academic writing – some of which are more set in stone than others –,

and upon which the majority of scholars agree, there still exists “a massive gap between what most readers consider to be good academic writing and what academics typically produce and publish” (p. 4). In other words, instead of following the generic norms proposed in guidebooks, one imitates and thus follows the conventions and practices used in their respective discipline. After examining 500 research articles in ten different disciplinary fields, Sword (2012) found that there existed a mismatch between the guidebooks and the practices of using personal pronouns; while the guidebooks encouraged the use of personal pronouns, in fields such as history and anthropology, their use was avoided. In contrast, within other fields such as evolutionary biology and literacy studies, the use of personal pronouns was nearly unanimously favored. Sword does, however, acknowledge the varying practices of good academic writing – both in space and time (p. 173).

The questions of what counts as good and acceptable academic writing becomes also relevant in investigating the academic lingua franca, which is used in various different disciplinary fields, and also regulated by multiple different participants.

2.2 English in academia

As mentioned in the introduction, this day, academic English has become the dominant language of scientific and scholarly communication worldwide. This is seen in the growing number of international master’s and doctoral programs worldwide, the number of research articles published in English as well as the absence of other academic languages (Lillis and Curry, 2010, p. 281). Whereas a shared language enables greater scholarly dialogue and participation in global knowledge production, its challenges are numerous, too. Research around academic writing in English shows that the linguistic (dis)advantage position of L1 and L2 scholars continues to divide academics¹.

According to several studies, multilingual scholars face tremendous struggles in publishing in English as a second of a foreign language (Belcher, 2007; Curry and Lillis, 2010; Mur-Dueñas and Šinkūienė, 2018). Indeed, as Belcher (2007, p. 2) points out: “the quest for publication [itself] can be a trial for any author” and therefore gaining proficiency both in the subject matter as well as in a foreign language ultimately increases multilingual scholars’ efforts in writing a research paper. Since international, English-medium publications are typically

¹ Note that whereas native speakers might be of different varieties of English, the ideal is yet standard English, which is regarded to cover countries only from the inner circle, mainly Britain and North America (see Hartse and Kubota, 2014; Canagarajah, 2006; Kachru, 1995, 1997; Matsuda and Matsuda, 2010).

accorded a higher status compared to local publications in other languages, multilingual scholars are not only expected to master English, but they also experience a growing demand for producing more standard-like written English, which is regarded as a virtue of native speakers of English (henceforth NES) (Lillis and Curry, 2006, p. 4). Interestingly, however, according to a study conducted by Kuteeva and McGrath (2014), non-native speakers of English (henceforth NNES) did not perceive themselves as disadvantaged compared to NES.

The distinction between NESs and NNESs is nevertheless reflected in the practices of editing and proof-reading research papers as NESs are called upon the activity because of their high competence in English. In fact, in their study, Hartse and Kubota (2014) argue that scholars and journal editors intuitively lean on the judgement of NESs regarding linguistic correctness. Moreover, NNESs' texts are most often read and evaluated as to how well they meet the native speaker standard. In addition to this, standard written English – in a monolingual context – is considered one of the goals which L2 scholars are expected to attain (Hartse and Kubota, 2014, p. 73, 74). Investigating the writing processes of multilingual scholars in southern and eastern Europe, Lillis and Curry (2010, p. 96) report that while publishing in a foreign language is extremely laborious, many multilingual scholars also experience the need to have their texts proofread by a NES. In fact, such services as proof-reading, editing, translation and consultancy are a growing business which, especially among multilingual scholars, can turn out to be very costly (MoChridhe, 2019, p. 424).

Although Anglophone scholars are considered to hold a privileged position as NESs (Lillis and Curry, 2010, p. 1), Mur-Dueñas and Šinkūienė (2018, p. 3) argue that “it should not be assumed that native English speakers will effortlessly develop academic literary, writing and publishing skills and will succeed in getting their research published.” Indeed, from the opposite viewpoint, Hyland (2016), Ferguson et al. (2011) and Swales (2004), among many others, argue that the division between NES and NNES itself is problematic to begin with. Whereas Hyland (2016, p. 61) argues that “academic English is no one’s first language”, Swales (2004, p. 56) suggests that a more relevant distinction should be made between experienced and novice scholars. Ferguson et al. (2011, p. 42), on the other hand, highlight the focal role of intensive formal education which prepares for academic writing practices, while emphasizing that academic literacy is not an inherent skill of NESs. While acknowledging the challenges that multilingual scholars face upon writing, Hyland (2016, p. 61) stresses that these challenges do not necessarily “prevent them gaining acceptance for their work”. Drawing together the problematic set-up of NES versus NNES, and the primacy of language, he summarizes:

Assertions that EAL [English as an additional language] authors have greater difficulties in writing than their Native English counterparts are largely speculative – while self-reports tell us it is, we just don't know if it is the case or not. Writing for publication is a specialized competence which both Native and non-Native English speakers must acquire. (Hyland, 2016, p. 61)

In her study, Hynninen (2016, p. 59) highlights the importance of moving beyond the (dis)advantage dichotomy between L1 and L2 scholars' to investigating the language regulation in different disciplinary fields: who regulates acceptable academic English and how.

As multilingual students are reported to struggle in L2 writing, at times even with basic comprehension (Williams, 2004, p. 179), they are naturally in need of more intensive assistance concerning conventions and rhetoric of English and thus seek support and assistance in English-medium writing in multiple ways (Lillis and Curry, 2010; MoChridhe, 2019). As a result of this, several factors influence the text production process, especially of L2 writers. In academic discourse, these interventions in academic text production are referred to as *literacy brokering*, of which there are multiple types that in recent years have drawn researchers' attention. The concept will be further discussed below.

2.2.1 Literacy brokering

Interventions in text production are not at all unusual in educational and academic settings – on the contrary, teachers intervene continuously in students' writing in order to enhance learning, and academics intervene in scholarly writing through translating, proofreading, editing and reviewing on a regular basis. While interventions in academic text production play a vital role in determining the final product of the text, relatively little research has been conducted either on who intervenes or what the interventions encompass fundamentally (Lillis and Curry, 2010, p. 87; Lee, 2018, p. 42). Lillis and Curry (2010, p. 88) argue that in order to grasp the complexity of interventions better, instead of focusing on agency at different stages of writing, more relevant of a starting point is to examine the process as a whole. Such interventions are inevitable both among L1 and L2 writers. However, keeping to the scope of this study, focus will be narrowed to L2 writing processes.

Essential in investigating literacy brokering is, as briefly mentioned above, what the interventions themselves encompass. This, in turn, influences directly who does or is called upon the activity. Research around literacy brokering shows that the types of brokering can be categorized slightly differently, although the fundamental premise is the same; for instance,

whereas Lillis and Curry (2010) divide the concept into i) language and ii) academic, Perry (2009) outlines the categories based on the different areas of knowledge: those of i) genre ii) linguistic and iii) sociocultural. Nonetheless, a clear distinction exists between content and language brokering, the latter of which becomes particularly evident among L2 writers, especially when compared to L1 writers. Furthermore, the brokers comprise similar categories: namely language, academic and non-professional (Lillis and Curry, 2006, p. 29). The names of these already imply to which level of brokering they are bound. Lillis and Curry (2006, p. 15-17, 19) further report that whereas the types of brokering varied from sentence-level corrections to minor and major shifts in content and knowledge claims, the distribution of the different types of literacy brokering is highly dependent on the text type as well as the target publication. This is to say, if a research article was to be published in an English-medium international journal, rather than an English-medium national one, more language brokering would be included.

Several studies illustrate that regarding linguistic brokering, native speakers of English are intuitively trusted with language correctness (Che, 2013; Hartse and Kubota, 2014; Lillis and Curry, 2010; Zappa-Hollman and Duff, 2015). However, in her study, Hynninen (2016, p. 107) investigated academic spoken discourse in a university setting and found that, although NESs were present, the teacher's expertise in content matters allocated to them also the authority on the English language; instead of turning to the NESs, students leaned on the teacher with language issues although the teacher was a NNES. Similarly, Lee (2009, p. 45) found that when seeking assistance, international students leaned on peers who were able to provide help both in the content as well as the language, rather than turning to NESs for assistance. Furthermore, Lee (2009) reports that similar ethnicity and linguistic background were preferred over those of linguistic expertise.

2.2.2 Academic English in Finland

Research around the internationalization of higher education (henceforth HE) – especially within countries from the expanding circle – is most often related to a more general aspects of globalization, which in turn, encompasses the rapid change in international exchange of people, money, goods and services in the latter part of the 20th century (Hellstèn, 2017). Indeed, international knowledge production is distinctly affected by socio-political and economic imperatives, and HE institutions are strongly encouraged to engage more in international affairs for instance in scholarly mobility (Blommaert, 2010; Dafouz and Smit, 2014). In Finland, after

the country joined the EU in 1995, systematic reforms in HE have been put to practice regarding more globalized and thus competitive knowledge production and management (Ahola et al., 2014; Välimaa, 2012). Reforms have been put to practice, for instance, regarding the use of the academic lingua franca as a medium of instruction, in which the growing impact of English is seen (Mauranen, 2015, p. 33). Whereas the aim is still to increase transnational education, the concept does conflict with one of the corner stone principles of the Nordic countries – that is, education being a public good and thus free of charge, even for those participating in Finnish HE from other EU countries (Ahola et al. 2014, p. 48). Acknowledging the limited resources that Finland has, and the fact that most knowledge is produced outside the country, participating in international scientific and technological developments is considered crucial. A common language through which participation in the international academic circles can be gained therefore plays an important role.

Relatively little research around academic writing in English exists in the context of Finland. Lappalainen (2012, 2016) has studied academic writing in English in Finland in disciplines covering technical subject matters. In her research (2016), she argues that the potential challenges of academic English in Finland are twofold. First, language professionals instructing in fields such as engineering are considered somewhat unqualified for designing course content for a subject matter – and in some cases the level of education – they themselves are not qualified for² (Lappalainen, 2016; Stapp, 1998). However, the outsider perspective is also acknowledged to be beneficial as language professionals may solely pay attention to language, its structures and argumentation, rather than the content (Allison et al., 1998, p. 211). Second, students are reported to struggle not only with the conventions of academic writing, but also with the English language including issues such as punctuation, articles, tense and structuring (Lappalainen, 2016, p. 114-117). These two arguments by Lappalainen (2016) in a large part frame the setting for the present study, too, as it investigates L2 master's writing in the setting of a Finnish university. Although the aim of the present study is not to zoom into the details of the students' struggles with the academic lingua franca, the study focus reveals implicitly both of the potential challenges proposed by Lappalainen. Indeed, also in the present study, the teacher as a language professional lacks the expertise of the content of the students' writing, and, as revealed by the negotiation topics, linguistic issues such punctuation, article usage and structuring were frequently addressed in the students' writing by the teacher. As research around academic writing in English is relatively scarce in the context of Finnish higher

² This implies to language teachers, who have completed a master's level degree in humanities, while instructing doctoral candidates in a field of study outside their area of expertise (see Lappalainen, 2016, p. 109).

education, this study therefore also attempts to shed light on the reality of master's students who write their thesis in English as L2 and the linguistic struggles that they face in the process.

2.3 From feedback to talkback

As demonstrated above, good academic writing functions as an essential part of HE, upon which evaluation is often based. Hence the relevance of feedback becomes focal for the development and improvement of student writing. In an educational setting, Bound and Molloy (2013, p. 5) define feedback simply as “the making of comments of students’ work”. Furthermore, it is considered as a process in which students’ work is guided towards the required standards, and upon which students become aware of their shortcomings in their writing and are able to revise them accordingly (Bound and Molloy, 2013, p. 6).

By its nature, feedback is acknowledged to be a complex phenomenon, and multifaceted solutions are needed in order to grasp the functions and forms of its diversity (Chaudron, 1998). Several studies also report that students experience dissatisfaction with not being given proper guidelines for academic writing nor receiving enough useful feedback for improvement (Lillis, 2001, p. 102; Lea and Street, 1998, p. 159, 169). In their study, Bound and Molloy (2013, p. 5) investigated the problematic nature of feedback, and identified four problems of the concept – those of *perception*, *shared meaning*, *impact on learning* as well as *being judged*. As regards to the problems of impact on learning and being judged, they recognized the effects of too negative feedback which can overshadow the usefulness of the whole process. On the other hand, Hattie and Timperley (2007), although agreeing that not all feedback is perceived as useful, argue that feedback – both corrective and positive – functions as one of the most critical influences on student learning. In their research, Crossouard and Pryor (2009) suggest that receiving critical feedback via email instead of face-to-face might help students manage with negative emotions. However, several studies on the other hand indicate that while face-to-face feedback is preferred the most, it is offered the least (Robson et al., 2012, p. 58-59; Lillis, 2001, p. 132). In the same sense, the concept of feedback is also extremely interactive by nature; a comment must be made by one and received by another, and in addition to that, there needs to be common grounds of understanding as well as active participation of both parties in order for the feedback to be effective. In her research, Lillis (2001) introduces the notion of *talkback* in order to shed more light on the effectiveness of dialogue between a student and a tutor in achieving successful outcomes of improving student writing. The notion will be further discussed below.

Lillis (2001, p. 10) proposes *talkback* in contrast to feedback “as an attempt to construct an agenda aimed at opening up discussion and at foregrounding the student-writers’ interests and concerns.” Whereas she views feedback as treating a text as a finished product, talkback, on the other hand, is seen as a process – that is, “the making of the text” (p. 11). In other words, what is emphasized with the concept of talkback is the possibility of learning and revising a text for later evaluation. This, Lillis demonstrates, takes place in a student-tutor dialogue, which ultimately will enhance understanding and learning about writing. Bound and Molloy (2013, p. 2) also highlight the importance of students’ active participation in the process of feedback in order to achieve successful learning outcomes. Indeed, students’ active participation becomes particularly salient in talkback, for when a student’s text is accompanied by the student’s oral explanation of the text, it enables the tutor to grasp the intended meaning and adjust and allocate her revision suggestions (Lillis, 2001, p. 140-141). Moreover, Lillis argues that “[o]f course, just having the opportunity to be and talk with someone familiar with your disciplinary area, and who is also interested in what you are trying to say, can powerfully support individual efforts to make meaning.” (p. 141-142) In fact, Lillis (2001, p. 151) continues that while talkback allows the uncovering of grammatical errors in the students’ writing, it also enables a conventional discussion of what is specifically meant by grammatical errors in each situated incident. The spoken interaction between a student and tutor in which writing is discussed, Lillis refers to as conferencing (2001, p. 29).

2.3.1 The notion of writing conference

The writing conference is widely recognized as an effective and enriching learning method for both L1 and L2 writers (Ferris, 1995; Paulus, 1999; Straub, 1997; Yu 2020). Furthermore, although time-consuming to organize and conduct, its usefulness to enhance learning through meaningful discussions between a novice and an expert is widely acknowledged. Overall, the concept of writing conference is increasing in popularity within educational settings, and the fundamental principle of the writing conference is to help students to become better writers – not help them to write better papers (North, 1984). Research around writing conference in higher education is relatively scarce, and little focus has been paid to L2 writers (Goldstein and Conrad, 1990, p. 443; Williams, 2004, p. 176). However, keeping to the scope of this study, attention will be paid to the viewpoint of L2 writers in higher education. Whereas the viewpoints from which the concept of writing conference can be analyzed are numerous, what draws remarkable attention among scholars is its interactional nature. The interactional aspect

of the writing conference has been the dominant focus of the concept. This is to say, two decades ago, no research articles were published concerning the revisions themselves or further learning outcomes of the conferences. Only recently more attention has been paid to the actual effects of the writing conference (see Williams, 2004).

In fact, in their research, Young and Miller (2004, p. 533) argue that in addition to linguistic competences, in a writing conference, L2 students also acquire interactional competences both explicitly and implicitly. Regarding student input, Eckstein (2013) and Patthey-Chavez and Ferris (1997) argue that students with a higher proficiency level are more eager to ask questions, negotiate and discuss problems, whereas students with a lower proficiency level were more likely to be less active in interaction. However, Goldstein and Conrad (1990, p. 255) emphasize that “each student who participates in a conference brings to that conference a unique personality that may affect the ways in which that student behaves in the conference.” And therefore, they continue, “[writing conferences] do not necessarily result in student input” (p. 456). Although traditionally, and mainly also to date, conferences are teacher-directed and -dominated, students’ participation does play a crucial role in considering the effectiveness of conferencing for learning outcomes. Depending on the participants in a given session, the distribution of turns and their length may vary greatly. In their study, Goldstein and Conrad (1990, p. 448) identified six discourse structures that can manifest in a conference:

- (1) Teacher talks and student backchannels
- (2) Teacher questions and student answers
- (3) Teacher talks and student talks
- (4) Student talks and teacher backchannels
- (5) Student questions and teacher answers
- (6) A combination of the above

Several studies have also focused on teacher talk during conferences. As a language expert and institutionally authoritative interactant, the teacher is expected to have a greater control over the discussions, ask the questions and most of all, know the right answer. In her study, Ewert (2009) investigated teacher talk in L2 writing conferences and argued that the teacher’s behavior, as adjusted to individual students and their needs, ultimately affects the course of interactions. Comparing two teachers, she reported that one of them frequently asked questions of her students and thus invited them to talk more actively about their writing. The other teacher, in contrast, asked considerably fewer questions of his students and therefore student talk in his writing conferences remained minimal. Yu (2020) reported similar findings in her study. She

highlighted the importance of the question type regarding student talk; whereas open-ended questions encouraged students to participate more actively in the discussions, closed-questions (yes/no) instead resulted in remarkably less active student participation.

Although the majority of research around academic writing conferences comprise of its interactional nature, what is also of relevance is the matter of revisions: what gets revised and how. Norta (2020), for example, explored revisions regarding cohesions in academic writing clinic sessions. She reports that although the function of cohesion is considered crucial in academic writing, instances of cohesion were revised relatively little in the sessions of the data. Furthermore, she found that reference as type of cohesion appeared to be the most frequent type to be revised.

In order to shed more light on the salience of revisions, and their profound effects on subsequent drafts as well as learning outcomes, in the context of writing conferences, Williams (2004) conducted a study in which she investigated the impact of discussion on revisions in subsequent drafts. She reported that the content of discussion was naturally reflected upon revisions and revisions were more likely to occur if students had taken notes on the matter discussed. Furthermore, students heeded nearly every suggestion over grammatical and lexical issues. The rough distinction between language and content is thus seen also in revision suggestions.³ While research around writing conferencing in higher education has primarily focused on essays written for composition courses rather than, say, publishing a bachelor's or master's thesis (Lee and Casal, 2014), results in empirical research show that teachers and tutors are likely to intervene also in the content, or text-level, issues in addition to grammatical interventions on sentence level.

However, in regard to the writing conference, it is important to note that the practicalities of different writing conference settings can vary extensively. As Thonus (2016, p. 42) demonstrates in her study, from the level and type of an academic text to the actual organization of the conference meetings and their sites, writing centers take on various forms and function.

2.3.2 Negotiation

A central element in investigating teacher-student dialogue in a writing conference is the notion of negotiation, which also functions as a key concept in the present study. In order to explore

³ See the distinction also reflected upon literacy brokering in 2.2.1

student participation or teacher talk, for instance, attention can be paid to negotiation. The term negotiation refers to “certain tactics used in expert/novice pairs in order to solve communication problems, particularly in the area of conversational management in performed language functions” (Long, 1981, cited in Ewert, 2009, p. 252). In other words, negotiation is considered a type of discussion, which aims at overcoming communicational obstacles in reaching agreement as well as understanding. The nature of negotiation is reflected for example in the study conducted by Goldstein and Conrad (1990). Based on their findings, Goldstein and Conrad (1990, p. 448) identified two levels on which negotiation can occur — negotiation of meaning and negotiation of revision. Whereas the former refers to confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and clarification requests, the latter covers four ways in which revisions can be negotiated:

- (a) The student confirming the teacher’s suggestion of a need for revision or the use of a revision strategy (for example saying, “So you are suggesting that I should change the order of these”)
- (b) Either the teacher checking to see if the student had understood a discussion of revision options or a student checking (for example, the teacher saying, “So what strategies can you use to revise this?”)
- (c) The student checking, while the need for revision was being discussed, to see if it would be appropriate to revise in a certain way (for example, the student saying “What do you think if I added this example here?”)
- (d) The student stating that he or she did not understand either why a revision would be necessary or how to revise.

The study conducted by Goldstein and Conrad (1990) was used as a source of inspiration in the present study. The two negotiation levels identified shed light on the complex nature of negotiation between a teacher and a student in the setting of a writing conference and provides an adequate guideline for the investigation of negotiation in such a setting. While Goldstein and Conrad’s (1990) study was situated in a college composition course, the present study investigates the writing conference in a context where the text type is more demanding regarding the contents. As the participants possess different, yet complementing, areas of expertise in the present study, the nature of negotiation are expected to differ also from those of Goldstein and Conrad (1990). For this reason, the two levels of negotiation are not replicated in the present study but rather used as an inspiring starting point.

From the two levels of negotiation identified by Goldstein and Conrad (1990), negotiation of meaning has drawn remarkably more scholarly attention when compared to negotiation of revision. Ewert (2009, p. 256), for example, investigated negotiation and scaffolding in teacher talk in the writing conference, and outlined negotiation as “Comprehension/confirmation checks”, “Clarification requests” and “Revision (rhetoric) clarification”. Ewert’s distinction in categorization thus follows to some degree that of Goldstein and Conrad (1990), although she expanded her focus to include also negotiation over the rhetorical issues of writing.

The role of negotiation of meaning is considered focal in regarding to the successful revision outcomes of writing conference discussions. In fact, in his study, Merkel (2018, p. 23) found that in a writing conference, the oral verbalizing of intended meaning in content claims facilitates the overall revision process, as it allows clarification of the content for both the student and the language teacher. This becomes particularly salient in writing conferences, where the subject matters of the students’ writing are demanding by nature. As they are tied to a specific disciplinary field, they are out of the expertise of the teacher.

Although the divergent expertise in a writing conference setting shapes the relationship of the teacher and the student into a more egalitarian rather than hierarchical relation (Merkel 2018, p. 18), it is important to consider the unequal roles of power which the teacher and student possess. In fact, several studies indicate that language teachers are trusted with high authority regarding linguistic correctness and thus revision suggestions are received – and implemented – mostly without further questioning (see Robson-Pant, 2005; Li and Flowerdew, 2009). Furthermore, the unequal status in power between a student and a teacher can influence the student’s acceptance of the revision suggestions (Crossouard and Pryor, 2009). As Lillis (2001, p. 159) summarizes, “There are obvious tensions, arising [...] out of the power differential between student-writer and tutor [...] The student-writer will often be under considerable pressure to conform to the tutor’s comments and perspectives rather than negotiate her own position.” What is more, several studies demonstrate that upon disagreement – or lack of understanding – to a teacher-suggested revision, students may respond non-verbally by nodding, eye contact, or minimal backchannelling (Williams, 2004; Thonus, 2002). This factor is particularly relevant in the data analysis of the present study, since the students are master’s level students, and the teacher is responsible for teaching academic writing courses and a native speaker of English.

3 Data and method

This chapter presents the research design. First, a detailed description is provided of the participants in this study as well as the context in which the data was gathered. Second, the procedure of the study is outlined. Third, discourse analysis, which was used as a method of analysis in order to answer the research question, is introduced.

3.1 Data and participants

The data in this study is drawn from the University of Helsinki Language Regulation in Academia project⁴, which aims at investigating language regulation in academic settings. Originally, the data was gathered at a large multidisciplinary university in Finland, in which writing clinic sessions are held in order to enhance student learning around academic writing in English. Although the initial objective of the writing clinic is for the teacher and the student to meet face-to-face, due to the COVID-pandemic which was ongoing at the time of data collection, all of the sessions were conducted on an online platform. The writing clinic sessions analyzed in this study were audio- and screen-recorded, and the sessions covered collaborative work between a teacher and a student for improvement of the students' master's thesis. The sessions were held in Zoom and their lengths varied between 1 h 23 minutes and 1 h 40 minutes (see Table 1). The analysis of the present study was carried out by closely observing both the recordings as well as the careful transcriptions (see transcription key in Appendix 1). The transcriptions were produced by the project's research assistant.

The data consists of three recorded writing clinic sessions, in which three master's students discuss and collaboratively improve the introductory chapters of their master's theses with the help of their English teacher. Each of the students, although from varying backgrounds and disciplines, is writing their master's thesis in English as L2 and therefore lacks the privileged position of a NES. The teacher, on the other hand, is a native speaker of English, who has a degree in the humanities. Considering this, the teacher, while lacking competence in the subject matters, acts as a language professional. While selecting the data, two fundamental principles were considered: the L2 status of the students as well as the same focus of the sessions, that is, the introductory chapter of a master's thesis. In this manner, English academic writing among multilingual students can be analyzed consistently, whilst the multiple sessions,

⁴ <https://www2.helsinki.fi/fi/tutkimusryhmat/language-regulation-in-academia>

in turn, enable analysis of the potential variation of the manner of negotiations between students.

As the present study involves human participants, ethical considerations have been taken into account in order to protect the participants from any emotional or physical harm. First, to ensure the anonymity of the participants, they are referred to as Student 1 (S1), Student 2 (S2), and Student 3 (S3). The teacher, who is the same one in all three sessions, will be referred to as Teacher (T). Furthermore, Clinic 1, Clinic 2, and Clinic 3 will be used to refer to a specific session. The anonymity of the participants is also assured by applying the pronoun *they* to all the participants. Second, all direct identifiers to the topics and themes of the students' published theses have been removed or anonymized. The university in which the data was collected will not be mentioned either. In addition, a GDPR notice and a consent form for participants (see Appendix 2 and 3) were signed. The data was stored on a computer behind a password, and once the present study was completed, all data – that is, the recordings as well as the transcripts – were removed.

3.2 The context of the study

As reviewed earlier in this study (see 2.2), English-medium writing requires more extensive efforts for multilingual students, who are expected to gain mastery not only of their study content but also of a foreign language. In order to support students in the linguistic challenges they face while writing a thesis, dissertation or a scientific article, writing clinic sessions are arranged and offered – also as a part of an academic writing course – at the university studied. According to the university's website, students and faculty at this university are offered, and strongly encouraged, to partake in the writing clinic. The maximum per person is eight hours per academic year – each session lasting approximately one hour.

Furthermore, it is emphasized on the website of the university studied that the writing clinic aims not at editing or proof-reading students' texts but, instead, assisting the students to become better writers through identifying their strengths and weaknesses in academic writing, as well as helping them to develop their own proficiency in academic writing in English. The purpose of the writing clinic is therefore not to evaluate the students' theses as such but rather, through an interactional conversation, to help them to improve their papers for further assessment. As mentioned in 2.3.1, this is also considered one of the core principles of the writing conference (Lillis, 2001; North, 1984).

In the writing clinic sessions, the teacher as a language expert acts as the more dominant participant: they take the leading role in the discussions by determining the topics of discussion, for instance, and carry out all the revisions on the drafts. Although the students' role as subject matter expert is not of less importance, the authoritative role of the teacher in terms of institutional setting naturally assigns the more dominant role to the teacher. As they work on an online platform, this in practice means that the teacher, while sharing on their screen the draft written by the student, controls both the mouse and keyboard. This is contrary to the study conducted by Williams (2004) for instance in which the students took notes manually based on the teacher's comments. In the data of the current study, the teacher has marked color codes on the drafts beforehand in order to indicate the type of a revision needed. For example, the color blue refers to the need for a revision regarding punctuation. However, no revisions are made on the drafts beforehand but, instead, take place only during the sessions. The color code markings which are not addressed in the discussions will not be included in the analysis of this study. The drafts are revised using Track Changes on Word, which allows the revisions as well as the original text to remain in the draft. In this sense, the students are at liberty to choose whether they wish to include the revisions in the final version of their theses. Furthermore, the audio- and screen-recordings of the sessions which are analyzed in the present study, are also available for the students as a resource for later use.

3.3 The procedure of the study

The three writing clinic sessions are analyzed through close observation of the video-recordings as well as through careful reading of the transcripts. ATLAS.ti software, into which the transcript documents were downloaded, was used in order to code the transcripts. In this manner, the meanings and intentions of the participants were easier to identify. In addition to this, at times the teacher's activity on the draft took place beyond the discussion and was therefore noticeable when observing both the transcript and the screen activity.

The current study was executed as data-driven, meaning that attention was paid to factors and phenomena arising from the data rather than applying a ready-made categorization. The negotiation model proposed by Goldstein and Conrad (1990) was used as an inspiration as to what should be sought after when identifying revision negotiations. However, their categorization did not prove replicable to the present study. The categorization which emerged from my data, along with justifications for each negotiation type, is presented in 4.2.

The analysis began by identifying the brokering events. Varying in length from a couple seconds up to 15 minutes, a brokering event was defined to comprise of a segment of an intervention. As Lillis and Curry (2006, p. 29) point out, brokering can target sentence-level corrections as well as minor and major shifts in content and knowledge claims. Considering this, a brokering event can include more than one negotiation type and cover multiple revisions. A more extended explanation of how the brokering events were identified is presented in 4.1. Within each of the brokering events, then, the ways in which revisions were negotiated were identified through careful inspection of the interaction. The negotiation types were categorized applying discourse analysis. The method will be discussed more in depth in the following section.

3.4 Discourse analysis

As teacher-student discourse lies at the heart of the present study, and the purpose is to inspect how language is used to interact, discourse analysis (henceforth DA) will be applied as a method in order to analyze the data and answer the research question. While the spectrum of topics that can be studied by using DA is both wide and versatile, the various theoretical approaches to DA vary also based on specific research traditions (Alba-Juez, 2009, p. 6). For this reason, it is necessary to further clarify how DA is applied in the present study.

In its broad, general definition, scholars define DA as *the study of language in use* (Alba-Juez 2009, p. 10; Brown and Yule, 1983, p. 23). This concerns aspects of authentic and social situations of language use, which function as the cornerstone characteristics of DA. Considering these, Johnstone (2002, p. 2) specifies the definition as the study of language and its effects. The contemporary focus of DA, as argued by Alba-Juez (2009, p. 12), is to uncover language at its core appearance within human interaction which, in turn, comprises also of additional media other than language, such as gestures. Both written and spoken discourse are of interest to a discourse analyst; while discourse in newspapers, academia or advertising are commonly already in written format, also spoken interaction can be analyzed once it has been recorded and transcribed in written format.

Whether written or spoken, discourse analysts attempt to “shed light on how speakers/writers organize their discourse in order to indicate their semantic intention, as well as on how hearers/readers interpret what they hear, read or see” (Alba-Juez, 2009, p. 17). Therefore, the main goal of investigation is to describe linguistic forms and structures as a dynamic means of expressing intended meaning (Johnstone, 2002, p. 25). That is, what is meant

by what is uttered. Characteristic of DA — when compared to other methods of study — is, indeed, the ways which discourse analysts use to try to answer questions and not the questions themselves (Johnstone, 2002, p. 4).

Conversation analysis, in which the objective is to “uncover the often tacit reasoning procedures and sociolinguistic competences underlying the production and interpretation of talk in organized sequences of interaction” (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 12) was ruled out as a method, since the purpose of the present study is not to zoom into the sequential ordering of turns but, instead, grasp the recurring ways in which the participants — that is, the teacher and the student — negotiate revisions in this particular data set.

Teacher-student discourse, investigated in the present study, reflects the authentic interaction in a specific social context, which is relevant in applying DA. It is vital therefore to consider the social context in which the discourse takes place. The context relevance becomes apparent also in the setting of a writing clinic; first, both participants use spoken language in order to construct meaning, second, the participants possess divergent areas of expertise; the teacher is an expert on language while the student is an expert on content, and third, both participants are aware of the discourse context, and the discourse is therefore semi-planned. Regarding the types of spoken interaction, Cutting (2011, p. 156-157) identifies semi-planned discourse as events in which the participants are aware of the context of discussion, yet have not rehearsed their conversational turns beforehand. In this respect, the context of the writing clinic partly determines the spoken interaction regarding the discourse topics, for instance, and sets a frame for the qualitative analysis of the discourse. Semi-planned spoken discourse, as Cutting (2011) points out, can be ambiguous. In fact, Cutting (2011, p. 158-159) demonstrates that even the standard terminology of the features of spoken discourse differs to some degree among scholars. As the analysis of the current study is carried out as data-driven, the discourse features arise from the data. The research question posed therefore sets a frame for the categorization of the emerging features in the analysis process — namely, to answer the question *how*.

When applying DA, longer stretches of discourse are often divided into segments according to various criteria, after which particular characteristics of each segment are inspected more closely (Johnstone, 2002, p. 4). Considering spoken discourse, this becomes slightly easier as conversational turns of the participants naturally end one part and begin another one (2002, p. 73). In like manner, the teacher-student discourse analyzed in this study is also divided into smaller segments, in which the types of negotiation are inspected in detail. These segments, in the present study, are referred to as brokering events.

As mentioned earlier, discourse analysts attempt to describe how language is used to construct messages as well as negotiate meaning. In this, the essence of the approach is captured: rather than stating facts or confirming pre-formed hypothesis, the main purpose lies in investigating language use in a particular social context (Johnstone, 2002, p. 20). Therefore, *facts* are not sought after in this study either. Instead, as a qualitative method is applied, the main aim is to describe revision negotiation in the writing clinic sessions and outline the ways in which revisions are negotiated in the particular data set.

4 Analysis

In this chapter, the three writing clinic sessions are analyzed. The analysis begins by identifying brokering events. The analysis then goes on to examine the recurring types of revision negotiation. Finally, an analysis of each of the types is presented individually.

4.1 The identification of the brokering events

To begin the analysis of each writing clinic session, the teacher-student discourse was divided into smaller segments in order to inspect the recurring negotiation types more closely within each segment. The term “broker” refers to Lillis and Curry’s definition of a language reviser or another person who in some way intervenes in an academic text production process (2010, p. 87). A brokering event, in this study, therefore refers to an incident during a writing clinic session where revisions are made to the students’ drafts. Consequently, teacher-student discourse which does not result in revisions is not considered in this analysis. As the focus of this study is to analyze revision negotiation, closer attention is given to the negotiation(s) within each brokering event.

A vital notion in this study is the term *negotiation*. With the term, I refer to the teacher-student discussion which, in various ways, aims at reaching an agreement over revisions. In fact, what is important to consider is that negotiation can either follow a revision or be followed by a revision. Indeed, at times revisions were negotiated before they were carried out in the draft, while at other times negotiation was required after the implemented revisions due to dissatisfaction, for instance.

The length of each brokering event varies naturally depending on how much negotiation is needed in order to reach a successful (or unsuccessful) outcome. This is to say, a revision acceptance takes only a second, while a revision which requires multiple negotiation types can last for several minutes. Consider the two examples of a brokering event below.

- (1) T: this where..
S1: mhm
T: ..would need to have a comma because it’s a full stop up to there [[T revises]] and what comes afterwards is just extra information it’s not defining the levels
S1: yeah

Example 1 illustrates a brokering event in which the teacher, without inviting the student to participate, types a revision in S1's draft while providing a reasoning for the revision. S1 indicates agreement by backchannelling⁵ and the event is soon over. During this brokering event, one revision takes place: a comma is added into a sentence. Example 2, on the other hand, illustrates an event of a more complex nature.

- (2) T: are you comparing th- some result against another result
 S2: [S2 pauses] mm , well from my from what I'm getting is like I could compare like the [us⁶ 26:01-26:02](adjust the based) on this the [(noun)]
 T: oh okay so um , presents the results , of , a- oh god what would it be would it be the results comparing , [(noun)]
 S2: yeah to a reference , [S2's voice cuts off 26:07](like)..
 T: exactly [[T revises in the draft]]
 S2: ..[us 26:27-26:28] (-) (a reference from)
 T: comparing , the [(noun)] , compares or it could even be chapter 4 compares the results of the [(noun)] to f- to the reference data
 S2: yeah
 T: and discusses , okay so it could be [[T revises in the draft]] , compares the results under this , of the [(noun)] to , the collected data but that's actually that's the results of this isn't it yeah
 S2: mm
 T: to the reference data I guess is that what you
 S2: yeah
 T: the reference data, and discusses , its implications for future [(object)]
 S2: yeah

Here, the revision in itself comprises of a whole sentence which is added to S2's draft but multiple negotiation types also manifest in this single event. Indeed, the teacher begins the event by requesting clarification of the study contents in order to create a successful revision. While the teacher revises on the draft and suggests revisions, S2 participates not only by backchannelling but also by joining the revising (see S2's second turn, for instance). In this way, as a result of negotiation, the teacher and S2 collaboratively succeed in reaching a successful revision.

A variety of even longer and more complex negotiations occurred in the three writing clinic sessions. These examples are to demonstrate the varying nature of a brokering

⁵ Backchannelling refers to the use of words such as yeah and really, as well as sounds such as hmm and oh, which participants utter in order to indicate their active listening while another participant is speaking (Yule, 2014, p. 280).

⁶ In the transcription key, *us* refers to unclear speech (see Appendix 1).

event; in contrast, to a single revision, a brokering event can also comprise of multiple revisions as well as multiple negotiation types. In fact, while at times various types of negotiation were needed before reaching an outcome, other times an outcome was resolved through a single negotiation type. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that a brokering event can at times encompass a whole paragraph in the text being revised, yet other times a subordinate sentence, a single word or a character. A guiding principle in defining a brokering event was to draw a line between revisions that were not related to one another. In this sense, two revisions in a single sentence can result in one or two brokering events. Moreover, if a revision was returned to – that is, altered or deleted entirely – at a later point during the session, another brokering event was coded.

In each of the sessions, every brokering event followed a somewhat similar pattern. First, the teacher began the event by reading out loud a whole sentence, or a part of it, after which they either pointed to a need for a revision or asked a question from the student. Some brokering regarding grammatical issues, such as the deletion of a comma before the word *that*, the teacher revised on the draft without the student, while explaining the reason for doing so.

The students, then, after receiving the teacher's message, reacted according to their understanding and needs; if the teacher requested more clarity, the students explained more in depth, and upon a revision suggestion, the students expressed either agreement or uncertainty, for instance. Interestingly, however, upon the teacher's revisions, in which they did not invite the students to participate, a lot of the times the students reached by remaining silent. Though at times silence was interpreted as a reaction, often the later turn in the dialogue revealed whether the silence was meant to signal agreement or uncertainty. Consider Example 3 below.

- (3) T: I'll just put it here [[T starts revising in the draft]] recently , uuh or eve- yeah recently various if there's more than one , solutions , have been offered , yeah [[T stops revising]] is it minimize the human element or is it to minimize some thing yeah or is it to overcome something , yeah , to overcome..
- S2: to overcome the

In this, S2 follows the teacher's lead as they discuss a sentence, in which the purpose is to motivate S2's study. The teacher begins by typing a sentence while reading it out loud simultaneously. As the teacher stops typing, they utter the word *yeah* – with a rising intonation

–, which was frequently used by the teacher in order to invite the students to react. Since S2 remains silent, the teacher then goes on to provide alternatives. At this point, S2 joins the discussion by choosing a suitable alternative. Since S2 chooses one of the provided alternatives and does not comment on the previous revision afterwards, I interpreted it as an agreement to the teacher-initiated revision. However, remaining silent at times might have been due to the fact that the sessions were held on an online platform and overlapping turns might have caused misunderstanding and lack of clarity easily when not physically present in the same room.

Depending on the nature and level of the revision(s), more or less negotiation was needed in order to reach a successful outcome. Most often, the teacher requested a sufficient amount of information about the study content in order to be able revise or suggest a revision. The teacher did still invite the students to partake in the revising in various ways, such as providing alternatives from which the students could choose from or asking the students to initiate themselves. While the vast majority of brokering events ended with successful revisions, there were a few instances where a successful revision could not be reached, and the revision was left undone. An example of such a revision is given in Example 4, which, in fact, is the continuation of the negotiations in Example 3.

- (4) T: we'll come back to this yeah
S2: yeah
T: then whatever the problem is [[T types the word *problem* in square brackets to the draft]]
S2: yeah

In the example, the teacher types the word *problem* in square brackets and indicates that they should turn to this again at a later point. In fact, this revision was left undone since it required S2 to become more familiar with the relevant literature around their study topic.

A brokering event was usually ended by the teacher uttering words such *okay*, *good*, or *yeah*. If, however, none of the above was uttered, a brokering event was considered to end when, for example, another topic was raised or when the teacher started to read out loud the next sentence in the draft.

Table 1 below demonstrates the number of brokering events in each of the sessions compared to the session length. From the table we can observe that the longest session does not have the most brokering events but, in fact, the most brokering events are found in the shortest session. Indeed, as in Clinic 1, the teacher pointed to grammatical issues more frequently thus resulting

in more, yet short in length, brokering events when compared to the other clinics. The brokering events in Clinic 2, on the other hand, are fewest although the session is the longest. This, in turn, can be due to the fact that much of the clinic discussion was devoted to uncovering some basic academic conventions relating to the study aim, scope and motivation.

Table 1 The distribution of brokering events in the data

	Clinic 1	Clinic 2	Clinic 3
Session length	1 h 23 minutes	1 h 40 minutes	1 h 37 minutes
N	56	38	45

4.2 The emerging types of revision negotiation

In this section, I will introduce the five types of revision negotiation which were identified in the analysis of the three writing clinic sessions. Furthermore, I will provide clarification, along with examples, of how each type was distinguished from another, and what the titles of the types themselves refer to. As mentioned earlier, the analysis was executed as data-driven, meaning that focus was paid to phenomena arising from the data. Table 2, in which the emerging negotiation types are listed according to their overall frequency, illustrates the ways in which revisions were negotiated in the sessions along with the frequency of their appearance in the clinic sessions.

When identifying the emerging types of revision negotiation, the data was carefully studied inspecting the functions of the conversational turns of the participants. For instance, attention was paid to whether a question was formed and answered to, or a suggestion proposed and responded to. As demonstrated in Table 2, in identifying the negotiation types, two turns were considered to form a negotiation: an opening turn initiated by the teacher or the student, and a reactive turn that followed. Vital in identifying the negotiation types was to consider who does what: who initiates and who reacts. Indeed, as we can observe from Table 2, the approaches are mainly teacher-directed; with the exception of one negotiation type where the student is the initiating participant, the rest of the types are initiated by the teacher.

Table 2 The types of revision negotiation in the data

	Clinic 1	Clinic 2	Clinic 3	Total
I Teacher question – Student response	36	37	23	96
II Teacher suggestion – Student response	19	51	24	94
III Student initiation – Teacher reaction	6	4	12	22
IV Teacher statement – Student reaction	4	9	8	21
V Teacher revision – Student reaction	3	6	3	12

Table 2 indicates that the first two negotiation types manifest distinctly more frequently compared to the rest of the types. In fact, the first two negotiation types together cover 77.6% of all the negotiation that occurs in all of the three sessions. The three remaining types are, nevertheless, important in characterizing the nature of negotiations in the writing clinic sessions as a whole. The negotiation types, along with the variation that falls under each type, will be analyzed in more detail in the sections below. However, for now, I will introduce each of the types more generally, and demonstrate how they were ultimately outlined.

First, *Teacher question – Student response* refers to negotiations where the teacher poses a question and the student responds. This negotiation type is twofold; whereas a question was mostly posed as a request for more content information, the teacher also used questions as a pedagogical method in order to engage the student to partake in the revising process. Second, *Teacher suggestion – Student response* refers to negotiations where the teacher suggests a specific revision and waits to hear the students' response before carrying out the revision in the draft. In fact, if the student responded by agreement, a revision took place. If, however, the response was a hesitation or an opposition, instead of carrying out a successful revision, the discussion continued with further negotiation(s). The third, then, *Student initiation – Teacher reaction* refers to negotiations where the students engage in the negotiations by initiating a revision, and the manner in which the teacher reacts to it. The fourth type is *Teacher statement – Student reaction*. This refers to negotiations where the teacher, through a statement or a comment, indicates a need for a revision, and the manner of the student's reaction which follows. The last type, *Teacher revision – Student reaction* refers to negotiations where the teacher revises the student's draft, without inviting the student to participate, and the manner in which the student reacts to it. This, for example, refers to instances where whole new sentences are added to the students' drafts.

As mentioned above, two turns were considered to form a negotiation: an opening turn and a reactive turn that followed. Regarding the reactive turns, I have identified a difference

between *a response* and *a reaction*. Whereas a response is considered to be dependent on the opening turn, a reaction on the other hand is considered to be more independent of the opening turn. A response was identified in incidents where, for example, a student provides an answer to a question posed by the teacher, and a reaction was identified in incidents where the reacting participant can more freely adapt the manner of reaction. Next, a more extensive analysis of each of the negotiation types is presented.

4.2.1 Teacher question – Student response

This negotiation type manifests in two ways in the writing clinic sessions: first, where the teacher lacks the content knowledge and requests more information in order to adjust their revising, and second, where the teacher uses a question as a pedagogical tool in order to invite the students to participate in the revising process. I will first present the former, where the complementary expertise of the participants becomes salient in reaching successful revisions. I will then turn to present the latter, where questions are used as a pedagogical tool in teaching academic English.

As mentioned before, in the writing clinic sessions, the participants possess different expertise. That is, while the teacher as a native speaker of English with a degree in the humanities has expertise in academic writing in English, the students, in contrast, are more knowledgeable regarding the study contents. This counterbalance becomes vivid in this negotiation type, where the teacher asks a question and the student responds, as the vast majority of the questions deal with content matters. Out of all five negotiation types, *Teacher question – Student response* was the most frequent one to occur. The negotiation type was vital in considering the successful revision outcomes, too. Indeed, as the teacher was unaware of the study contents, requesting more clarity, for example, enabled them to coordinate their revision suggestions more accurately. Consider Example 5.

- (5) T: so is there more than one [(noun)]
S2: yeah but the the main one is the one that that suggests the [(modifier)] [(object)]
T: oh so you're so you need to include that here let's see

Here the teacher asks the student whether there is more than one [[noun]] considered in the study, and the student's response, in which they provide more information of the content, reveals to the teacher that a focal aspect of the study focus is not stated in the introduction at all. In this sense, as the student clarifies or explains the content more in depth, the teacher

becomes aware of the specifics and is able to present their revision suggestions. Consider Example 6 below from Clinic 1, in which the teacher asks for more information before pointing to an article usage issue.

- (6) T: [...] is there always a [(noun)] in this element
S1: yes the..
T: okay yeah
S1: yeah
T: but I mean w- have we talked about this [(noun)] earlier in the text
S1: no , no

In this extract, a revision is negotiated before it is carried out in the draft. In the beginning, the teacher asks for content clarity, after which they point out the grammatical rule of article usage. By asking the questions of content clarity first, the teacher is able to apply the grammatical rule without altering the content matter itself. The student, on the other hand, provides more clarity of the content and later, as the discussion goes on, agrees with a revision, which the teacher carries out later on in the draft.

The second function of this negotiation type was to enhance student learning around academic writing in English. In fact, instead of reasoning corrections over grammatical issues and carrying out the revisions independently, the teacher sometimes invited the students to participate in the revising process by asking them questions, which the teacher themselves knew the answer to. I will demonstrate this with examples below.

- (7) T: [...] do you remember instead of of even though you'll find it the better the better version for this because we've got two ofs in a row would be what
S1: for
T: yeah exactly [[T revises in the draft]]

In Example 7, the teacher begins by explaining why a revision should take place. They continue by posing a question, which the student answers correctly. Finally, the teacher types the revision in the draft. In addition to reasoning revisions through explanation, the teacher also uses body language such as gestures along with a question in order to demonstrate the semantic difference between two words. Consider Example 8 below.

- (8) T: [...] in [(modifier)] [(modifier)] [(noun)] structures , bring you down , the [(modifier)] [(noun)] are hard [[T knocks on the table]]
- S1: yeah
- T: yeah but it's not hard what wha- what is the actual word
- S1: difficult
- T: yeah so it has to be more , difficult [[T revises]]

However, as seen in Example 9, although the teacher offered the students an opportunity to participate in the revising by posing questions, they did not always assent to the alternatives proposed by the student.

- (9) T: can you think of another way of saying way
- S2: [S2 pauses] mmm [S2 pauses]
- T: it's good spoken english
- S2: methods
- T: huh
- S2: [S2 laughs] a- maybe like methods or em not methods
- T: aha or you could say approaches also
- S2: yeah approaches would be good

Here the student proposes *methods* as an alternative term for the word *way*. What is interesting here is that after the student's proposed alternative, the teacher suggests another one, perhaps the one they had in mind when posing the question in the first place. While the student agrees with the teacher-suggested revision, the teacher provides no further explanation why *methods* would have been less suitable of a revision than *approaches*.

Although this negotiation type was used as a pedagogical method in order to invite the students into the revising process, the vast majority of occurrences covered negotiation where the teacher requested more information about the study contents. In fact, out of 96 incidents, 82 concerned content clarification, while 14 that of a pedagogical method. Indeed, since the teacher was able to pose questions about the content, the answers which the students provided them enabled successful revisions. Consider Example 10 from Clinic 3.

- (10)T: [...] but this doesn't make any sense to me because , what kind of a- analysis of the [(object)]
 S3: uum ah it's [(modifier)] err [(modifier)] transform [S3 laughs] , um it's [(modifier)] , domain analyses , how could I explain it
 T: yeah but that's but but that's okay but that's , [(modifier)] domain analysis was that it
 S3: [(modifier)] domain analysis yeah
 T: yeah or it or it could be [(modifier)]
 S3: [(modifier)] analysis could also work [[T starts revising]]

In Example 10, the teacher expresses confusion regarding a sentence on S3's draft and poses a question in which they request more information about the *analysis*. The student, in turn, responds by explaining what the *analysis* is, although pondering how they might explain it better. Despite the student's brief explanation, the teacher is able to grasp the essential information that they need in order to reach a suitable revision. The analysis of the data in this study revealed a strong connection between *Teacher question – Student response* and *Teacher suggestion – Student response*, the latter of which will be analyzed in the following section. While these types were the two most frequent to manifest in all three clinic sessions, they were also most often found to manifest together. In other words, after the teacher had requested and received more content clarity, they were likely to suggest a revision. In contrast, if the student reacted to a teacher suggestion by hesitating or opposing, the student's reaction led the teacher to pose more questions in order to shed light on the content matters.

4.2.2 Teacher suggestion – Student response

This negotiation type refers to negotiations where the teacher suggests revisions and the manner in which the students respond to them. Depending on the student response – that is, if they agree – revisions are carried out during this negotiation type. If, however, the student response is hesitation or disagreement, revisions are carried out later on. Close in frequency with *Teacher question – Student response*, this type was the second most frequent type to occur in all three writing clinic sessions, and was found significantly more frequent than the other three negotiation types; altogether 94 occurrences of this negotiation type were identified. Furthermore, clear variation was found within the three sessions as this negotiation type in Clinic 2 was found to occur more than twice as much compared to Clinic 1 and Clinic 3. I will first present the *teacher suggestions*, after which I will present the *student responses*, and the variation that falls within them.

A teacher suggestion was identified when the teacher uttered the modal verb *would*, *should* or *could* in questions for the students. In addition to this, a suggestion was also identified when the teacher, in suggesting a revision, used a rising intonation towards the end of the suggested words. At times, the teacher uttered words such as *maybe* or *perhaps* in order to indicate a suggestion. Furthermore, a suggestion was also identified when the teacher posed a question, which suggested a revision. Particularly important in identifying this negotiation type was that first, instead of requesting more information about the content, the teacher initiated by suggesting a revision, and second, when suggesting a revision, the teacher waited for the students' reaction before making any revisions in the drafts.

In Example 11, the teacher suggests the revision *consists of*. By observing the audio-recording of the session, it can be identified that the teacher's turn functions as a suggestion, since they use a rising intonation on the suggested part: *consists of*. Furthermore, the student indicates agreement and finally, after hearing the student's response, the teacher carries out the revision in the draft.

- (11)T: it's a [(modifier)] [(object)] , using a [(modifier)] [(noun)] that , consists of
S1: yeah yeah maybe , uh [[T types in the revision]]

In Example 12, in contrast, the teacher uses the modal verb *could* in their suggestion, to which the student responds with agreement. After this, the teacher carries out the revision in the draft.

- (12)T: [...] and we could now use as well as cos this is just a continuation
S2: yeah [[T types in the revision]]

In Example 13, the teacher includes the word *maybe* as a part of the suggestion to indicate a suggestion. The teacher does, however, use rising intonation on the word *required*, similarly as in Example 11. This becomes particularly clear in the audio-recording. In like manner, as in Examples 11 and 12, the teacher types in the revision after hearing the student's response.

- (13)T: aha as its [(noun)] consistently has conventionally been most difficult , and , has required maybe
S3: yeah [[T types in the revision]]

At times, the teacher made a revision suggestion which was formed as a question. In Example 14, the teacher targets the word *possibly*, and asks the student whether they meant to write *potentially*. The student indicates agreement of the suggested revision by evaluating the teacher's suggestion as a more suitable alternative. Because of the teacher presents an

alternative word in the question, which gets revised in the draft as the student agrees with it, I have interpreted it to function more as a teacher suggestion rather than a teacher question (negotiation type I).

- (14)T: [...] for ah possibly I'm wondering do you mean potentially but it's okay
S3: uh potentially may be a better choice of wording

The identified manners in which the students responded to teacher-suggested revisions were those of agreement, hesitation and opposition. While the vast majority of the suggested revisions were agreed with, there were, however, instances where the students opposed or had hesitations regarding a revision suggestion. Out of the total 94 instances, 72 teacher-suggested revisions were agreed with, while 16 were responded by hesitation, and 6 opposed. I will now demonstrate how each of the responses were identified in the data.

As Examples 11, 12, and 13 above demonstrate, the students often indicated agreement by uttering the word *yeah*. Although *yeah* was used most frequently, the students also uttered words such as *yes*, *okay*, and *mm* in order to signal agreement. At times, the students added a comment to their response which confirmed their acceptance of the suggested revision. Consider Example 15 below.

- (15)T: [...] or you could say approaches also
S2: yeah approaches would be good

Another manner of student response was identified as hesitation, meaning that the students expressed uncertainty over a teacher-suggested revision. While hesitation as a response was at times difficult to identify, I paid attention to the larger context when carrying out the analysis. Similarly, as when identifying student hesitation regarding a teacher statement (see Example 27), attention was paid to the following turns within the particular brokering event. In other words, focus was zoomed into how the discussion evolved after the potential hesitation. Consider Example 16 from Clinic 1.

- (16)T: [...] a [(noun)] that , is created by combining [[rising intonation on the word *combining*]]
S1: mmh that is created um
T: it's a [(modifier)] [(noun)] , using a [(modifier)] [(noun)] that , consists of
S1: yeah yeah maybe , uh

Two different negotiation types are identified in Example 16. Whereas the first two turns are identified as a teacher-suggestion and student-hesitation, the latter two comprise of a teacher-suggestion and student-agreement (see Example 11). In the first two turns, the teacher suggests the word *combining* by a rising intonation at the suggested word in order to indicate a suggestion. The student, in turn, repeats the suggested part and mumbles as if evaluating the suggestion. What is crucial in identifying the response as hesitation are the following two turns, where the teacher suggests an alternative revision, to which the student then signals agreement. Since the student accepts the second revision suggestion, I have interpreted that to some degree they had hesitations regarding the first one.

- (17)T: oh s- could it be in order to include the [(modifier)] [(noun)] , the thesis will or focuses on only , the [(adjective)] [os 15:15-15:16](oh but)(--)..
- S3: I think I might have to rethink the whole..

In Example 17, the identified student-hesitation is slightly more transparent. The teacher begins by suggesting the verb *include* to clarify a sentence, in which a scoping statement of the thesis is presented. Instead of indicating agreement or opposition, the student responds by stating that they might have to rethink the whole structuring of the scoping statement. In this example, since the student shows neither agreement or opposition, their response is interpreted as hesitation. Indeed, although the student does not agree with the suggested revision, they do not oppose the suggestion either. In this sense, I have identified the response to function as a hesitation.

In addition to agreement and hesitation, the students also at times signaled opposition to the teacher-suggested revisions. Opposition was identified as a response where the students clearly indicated that the suggested revision would be incorrect. What was peculiar about this response, was that the students often continued their opposition with explanation or justification for their response. Consider Example 18 from Clinic 3.

- (18)T: that uh , does it prevent or does it [os 1:20:34](obvi)..
- S3: no no no what I mean to say is that if we have no control in an [(modifier)] [(noun)] , the [(noun)] are of [(modifier)] [(noun)] but here we are injecting the [(noun)] in such a way that although they are [(adjective)] they are not creating a [(modifier)] [(modifier)] [(object)] in the machine

In Example 18, the teacher suggests the word *prevent* as a revision in the form of a question, to which the student responds by uttering several times the word *no* along with an explanation

why the suggested word should be incorrect. In Example 19, on the other hand, the first two turns indicate an agreement of a suggested revision, while in the following turns we can see how the student opposes the other teacher-suggested revision. See Example 19 below.

- (19)T: okay , could it be each with each having or each with , its own..
S1: yeah
T: ..[(modifier)] [(noun)]
S1: well I no ne- they are not then like [(modifier)] [(noun)] cos the whole like I I guess I , when I wrote this I was approaching it from what I would do eh in the , in the program uh in the [(acronym)] program where I'd be implementing this and there I'd create..
T: aha [T laughs] yes of course

In Example 19, the teacher indicates understanding of the student's opposing response and explanation. The negotiation continued after the opposing response and finally a successful outcome was achieved.

4.2.3 Student initiation – Teacher reaction

As briefly touched upon above, the writing clinic sessions were highly teacher-directed in terms of the discussion topics and pace. Nonetheless, student initiation was also salient and, in fact, essential in characterizing the overall student participation in the writing clinic sessions. Next, I will demonstrate the ways in which the students indicated initiation and the manners in which the teacher reacted to them.

The students were identified to initiate in two distinct manners: first, where the students initiated by suggesting a revision independently as a result of previous negotiation(s) and second, where the students intervened in their own text without any previous negotiation related to the revision. I will first discuss the former type, while providing examples of such occurrences (Examples 20-23), after which I will present and discuss the latter, of which there was only a single occurrence (Example 24).

- (20)S1: I think it could be um just that consists of a [(object)], [(object)] and [(modifier)] [(object)] , [os 40:09-40:10](does that)..
T: aaah which means uh okay , [[T revises the draft]] yeah , cos once again you're thinking of your your your [(acronym)] software
S1: yes [S1 laughs]

Example 20 comprised of the concluding turns of a longer brokering event, in which multiple revisions as well as negotiations occurred. In this, a whole sentence was being revised due to a punctuation issue which, according to the teacher, needed to be addressed. The sentence itself comprised of multiple clauses and upon the punctuation correction, the sentence, according to the teacher, was still incorrect. After the student expressed hesitation regarding the teacher-suggested revision, they initiate by suggesting to leave out the problematic part of the sentence altogether. The teacher agrees with the suggestions and takes out the suggested part.

Example 21 below demonstrates, in a similar manner, how the student initiates a revision as a result of previous negotiations. The example is an extract of an extensive brokering event, in which the teacher has intervened in a scoping statement. Interestingly, early on in the event, the teacher states that the original sentence in the draft is adequate. Despite this, the teacher presents additional study material to the student and goes on to suggest alterations that are more “common” to academic writing. The intervention leads to multiple revisions as well as types of revision negotiation. Unlike Example 20, where the student-initiation concluded the brokering event, interesting in considering Example 21 is that the event goes on for several minutes after this extract and the student initiation places in the middle rather than at the end of the event.

- (21)S3: [...] we could potentially put here this thesis focuses on identifying , ..
T: identifying [T laughs]
S3: ..only the [(modifier)] [(modifier)] [S3 laughs] inductance or something something defining this..
T: oh yeah
S3: ..[(modifier)]
T: on identifying only [(modifier)].. [[T starts typing]]

Example 21 indicates that, after the student has initiated by suggesting the revision, the teacher reacts by signaling understanding and agreement, and finally types the revision on the draft. Overall, the teacher was fairly accepting of the revisions that the students initiated. There was, however, one instance where the teacher questioned a student-suggested revision at first but, after hearing the student’s reason for it, agreed with it. See Example 22 below.

- (22) S1: I think yeah you can just also then delete the method and just say the [(modifier)] [(modifier)] element [os 46:03](cos that's)..
- T: okay , w- w- why not put the method in
- S1: mm , well I guess that uh I would say that the it's the element type [[T revises]] that's being implemented not the..
- T: okay

All three students initiated in this way several times in their clinic sessions. The initiations of S3 were, however, the most remarkable, as they initiated 11 times in total, while S1 initiated 6 and S2 4 times. It became clear early on in Clinic 3 that S3 was nearly finished with their whole thesis and soon to graduate. In this sense, when compared to the other students, S3 possessed a privileged position in being fully familiar with the relevant literature, the study procedure and the final conclusions of their study. In addition to this, S3 also expressed personal interest in talking about the little details of language. In fact, the second manner of initiation, where the student initiated a revision without any previous negotiations related to the revision, was found in Clinic 3.

- (23) T: the [(noun)] [T pauses]
- S3: control of the speed or controlling the speed which one's more better here
- T: control of uh enables [[T revises]]

In Example 23, the teacher begins the brokering event by reading the beginning of a sentence out loud and then pausing, after which the student goes on to ask the most suitable form for a word in the sentence. In this, the student points to a matter which has not yet been discussed. The student initiates by providing two alternatives: *controlling*, which was originally in the draft and *control of*, which they suggested as an alternative. The teacher instantly confirms the alternative *control of* as the most suitable one. This type of negotiation, which the student initiated by asking a question regarding a revision was, however, the only such instance to occur the three clinics.

4.2.4 Teacher statement – Student reaction

In the writing clinic sessions, the teacher indicated the need for revisions not only through questions but also through statements. These teacher statements refer to opening turns of a negotiation where the teacher uses a statement or a comment in order to direct to or recommend

a revision. This is to say, instead of posing questions or suggesting specific revisions, the teacher at times stated comments which, in turn, led the students to react, according to their interpretation and understanding of the teacher statement, for example, by explaining, clarifying or suggesting a revision. In this negotiation type, the ultimate revision(s) followed the negotiation, or were carried out in the drafts during the negotiation. In Clinic 2, for instance, the teacher utters a statement regarding a sentence in the draft which leads the student to clarify the content. See Example 24 below.

- (24)T: but I'm not sure what this has to do with [(noun)] if I tell you the truth
S2: so the eem , the [(verb-ing)] the [(object)] can say if you're like whether you're in a [(modifier)] [(object)] the [(noun)] and [(noun)] gives like em information about your [(noun)] and your your [(noun)]like whether you're [(verb-ing)] or not

In Example 24, after the teacher expresses uncertainty over the content through an evaluative statement, the student reacts by clarifying the matter in more depth. In their explanation, the student provides crucial specifics on the matter at hand and the teacher receives information based on which they are later able to present revision suggestions. During this negotiation, however, no revision was carried out in the draft. In fact, if the student reacted to a teacher statement with a content clarification, most often more negotiation followed, and a revision was reached and carried out in the draft later on.

In addition to content explanation, the students often reacted to teacher statements also by suggesting revisions themselves. In this way, the revisions were carried out in the draft during the negotiation, since the teacher generally reacted positively to the students' revision suggestions. Consider Example 25 below.

- (25)T: [...] I can't think of any way around this because of the time constraint
S3: maybe just decreases
T: es exactly , well it's just [T laughs] yeah just reading my mind [...] [[T revises]]

In Example 25, the teacher indicates through a declarative statement that they are unable to come up with an alternative revision. This leads the student to react by suggesting a revision which the teacher agrees with and finally carried out in the draft. Similarly, also in Example 26, the teacher presents a directive statement regarding the need for a revision – without providing any revision suggestions – to which S2 reacts by suggesting a suitable revision themselves.

- (26) T: yeah so you need to think of what you're going to put in here instead yeah
 [...]⁷
 S2: yeah , I don't know to [(verb)] to [(verb)] like it's basically [(verb-ing)] out the best
 T: is used to [(verb)] [[T revises in the draft]] yes

Furthermore, two cases were found where the students' reaction to a teacher statement was hesitation. While hesitation as a reaction can be difficult to determine, I will demonstrate briefly how hesitation was identified in the data analysis. In order to distinguish different functions of turns from another, it was focal to consider to context of the occurrence. This is to say, when encountering a potential hesitation reaction, attention was paid to the entire brokering event in order to interpret the reaction most accurately, inspecting for instance the manner in which the teacher reacted to the student hesitation. Consider Example 27 below, in which I have interpreted the student reaction as a hesitation.

- (27) T: [(noun)] [(noun's)] countable so we need an article for it
 S1: [S2 sounds hesitant]⁸ mmh , mmh
 T: [qs 12:10-12:11](it is) , how many [(noun in plural)] are there
 S1: well , [S1 laughs]
 T: [qs 12:22](it it's not a)..
 S1: well um I guess he- here the [(noun)] is referring to all the [(modifier)] [(noun in plural)] of , steel [S1 laughs] so there are several uh different , like coefficients that need to be defined

In Example 27, the teacher targets, through a directive statement, an issue regarding article usage. I have interpreted the student's reactive turn, in which they backchannel slowly and for a long time, as a hesitation. In order to do that, the following turn was taken into consideration. Indeed, in the following turn, the teacher – instead of carrying out the revision regarding the correct article usage – poses a question requesting more content information. This reveals that also the teacher has interpreted the student's reaction as hesitation and continues the discussion through a different type of negotiation. In Example 27, the first two turns are categorized as *Teacher statement – Student reaction* and the following four turns as *Teacher question – Student response*. In fact, the particular brokering event in its entirety continued for nearly ten minutes, and multiple revisions as well as negotiation types were covered. Moreover, in like manner, if the students reacted to a teacher statement with a content clarification, no revision

⁷ Some of the turns in the middle were left out of Example 19 since they comprised of overlapping turns due to a weak internet connection.

⁸ S1 backchannels slowly and for long, as if thinking.

was carried out in the draft either when the students reacted with hesitation but, instead a revision was carried out later on.

4.2.5 Teacher revision – Student reaction

The final type of revision negotiation refers to negotiations in which the teacher revises in the students' drafts, without inviting the students into the revising process, and the reactions that the students provide to the revision(s). Although the teacher was the one who in all three sessions typed the revision in the drafts, this negotiation type covers incidents where the teacher, instead of asking a question or suggesting a revision, revises straight in the draft. To exemplify this negotiation type, consider Example 28 below from Clinic 2, where the teacher revises the student's draft.

- (28) T: and then you would say however so you have to give it yeah , then you describe this problem next , or you describe , the solution yeah
- S2: mm
- T: so you've got solution , 1 , [[T types in the draft]] cos see now you would be showing that you had actually looked because this is a problem if you don't know , what's out there then it doesn't look like you've gone very deeply into the taking a look at it
- S2: mm mm
- T: solution 1 and then you talk about solution 2 [T pauses] and they're not gonna be even close to yours yeah
- S2: yeah

In Example 28, the teacher and the student negotiate a sentence, which originally was missing in the draft and is now created. The sentence concerns motivating the study topic and, according to the teacher, is vital in considering the placing of the study in relation to previous research. The teacher therefore types a new sentence in the draft while explaining the reason for it. The student indicates agreement by backchannelling. What is important to consider here is that this negotiation type followed various other negotiation types, for instance *Teacher question – Student response*. In fact, in Example 28, before revising in the student's draft, the teacher had requested more information and clarity of the study content. In this example, the teacher's revision is successful, and the student is compliant with it. However, three incidents were found in the sessions where the student intervenes the teacher's revision by providing a suggestion. See Example 29 below from Clinic 3.

- (29)T: this e- if you [us 1:14:47](-) have it here we need then say this , this thesis [[T starts typing in the draft]] , uh , will exclude..
- S3: excludes
- T: yeah or excludes yeah excludes yeah , uh , excludes identification

Negotiating a scoping statement in Example 29, the teacher rephrases the sentence by changing an original passive voice into an active one. While the teacher has earlier provided a reason why such a revision should take place, the student reacts with compliance and intervenes in the revising process by suggesting the present tense for the *exclude*. In fact, the student utters the suggestion simultaneously as the teacher utters the words *will exclude* while typing them in the draft. The teacher, hearing the student's suggestion, removes their initial revision and replaces the student's suggestion in the draft.

As we can observe from Table 2, this negotiation type was the least frequent one to occur in the writing clinic sessions, and half of its occurrences were found in Clinic 2. In fact, as mentioned earlier, this negotiation type was most often found in incidents where whole new sentences were added to the students' drafts, or when initial sentences were reorganized for instance. It is important regarding this negotiation type that it follows previous negotiation in which the content is explained or clarified. The ultimate revision carried out in the draft during this negotiation type, as the name of the category implies.

5 Discussion

In this chapter, I will discuss the findings of the study in light of the research question. I begin the chapter by outlining the collaborative nature of the writing clinic, and how that becomes transparent in revision negotiations. I then move on to discuss the ways in which revisions were negotiated in the three writing clinic sessions.

5.1 The collaborative nature of revision negotiations

As noted in Chapter 2, one of the key aspects of a writing conference is its interactional nature as well as collaborative function considering student learning. While Lillis (2001) highlights the importance of having someone interested in your writing to talk to, an open discussion provides also an opportunity for shared meaning, thus enabling the effectiveness of feedback in achieving successful outcomes (Bound and Molloy, 2013). Considering this, the findings of this study suggest that successful revisions are reached by an active engagement of both participants in the discussions. This is clearly seen in the revision negotiations, of which only a handful remain unsolved by the end of the sessions.

In discussing the results of the analysis, it is important to note that the three sessions varied slightly in length; there was a 17-minute difference between the shortest and the longest session. What makes the three sessions comparable, however, is that they all covered discussion over an introductory chapter of the students' master's theses, which in all, encompass a maximum of two pages. Another important thing to note is that the stage of the students' writing process naturally impacts the level of negotiation during the session. This is to say that S3 who, for instance, was to submit their thesis soon after the writing clinic session, was familiar with the procedure of their whole thesis, whilst S1 remained uncertain over some specifics of their study as they were to submit their thesis in six months' time.

Although the writing clinic sessions were held on an online platform, and therefore the participants were limited solely to spoken interaction in sending messages, apart from Clinic 1 in which the participants had their cameras on, the revision negotiations in the sessions were by no means less interactive. The results indicate that in revision negotiations, the two participants contributed equally much in terms of conversational turns; as observed in Table 2, whether the teacher started by asking a question, making a statement or posing a suggestion, the students reacted to all these turns one way or another. Importantly, silence was

also considered a reactive turn. In addition to this, the students backchannelled frequently during the teacher's longer turns.

When investigating teacher-student (spoken) discourse, what is also of high relevance are the roles which the participants take on and how those roles impact the course of interaction (Cutting, 2011, p. 165). Two crucial roles are taken into consideration in this study while investigating revision negotiation; first, the roles of teacher and student, and second, the roles of language expert and content expert. Whereas the former refers to different status in authority and thus affects the overall course of the interaction, the latter, on the other hand, comprises of a more equal status. Indeed, as the participants possessed divergent areas of expertise, these roles were therefore complementary rather than hierarchical.

As a language teacher, the teacher was responsible for the leading role in conducting the overall writing clinic session as well as the linguistic issues that, according to their expertise, needed to be revised in the students' drafts. The authoritative role led the teacher to determine the pace and topic of each negotiation. The teacher began and ended, for instance, each of the brokering events. In addition to this, while the teacher at times prolonged some events, they also cut some of the events short. In this sense, the teacher therefore acted as a crucial player considering also the students' participation; as Yu (2020) and Ewert (2009) argued in their studies, teacher talk has a significant impact on the course of interaction within a teacher-student dialogue. Similar findings are also found in the present analysis. In fact, while the teacher targeted matters which in their opinion needed to be addressed, they also determined how a specific matter was to be addressed. This was visible particularly in the ways in which the revisions were negotiated, that is, did the teacher request more information of the content or did they, for example, invite the students to participate in the revising process by presenting revision alternatives.

As a language expert, the teacher was responsible for addressing issues in the drafts which to them seemed problematic considering the English language as well as basic conventions of academic writing. To ground the reasons for the revision, the teacher explained thoroughly grammatical rules of English which pointed to the prescriptive norms of English. Interestingly, at times the teacher based their views on their native gut, while at times they provided revision alternatives either from the North-American or British varieties of English. This stance is reported also in previous studies; whereas Jenkins (2014) reports that university staff mostly tends to view these two aforementioned varieties as the most acceptable in academia, Hartse and Kubota (2014) report that native speaker intuition is much trusted in proof-reading academic texts. In addition, in the writing clinic sessions, the teacher also

grounded reasoning for language issues regarding academic conventions based on their experience in teaching academic writing in English. They demonstrated, for example, how (technical) academic writing tends to be positive in tone and concise. Furthermore, they also differentiated specific disciplinary fields from another in terms of linguistic conventions; while the teacher targeted a word choice in S3's draft, they claimed that that specific word choice would be a convention appropriately used in another field of study. This finding echoes with the findings in Hynninen (2016, p. 117), where she found that in an academic context, in addition to prescriptive norms of English, teachers also grounded their "correctness" in their professional expertise in a given disciplinary field.

Whereas at times the teacher was able to revise independently issues such as the correction of a spelling mistake, or a misused pronoun, at other times they needed the student as a content expert to join the process by requesting more content information or explanation for example in order to get on with the revising of the problematic parts. The analysis revealed that this is when the students' role as content experts became focal with regard to successful outcomes. Indeed, at times the teacher detected linguistic errors – such as a spelling mistake – in the draft which they could not resolve due to the lack of content knowledge. In fact, previous studies report that the lack of content knowledge at times prevents also professional editors from carrying out linguistic revisions (see Hayes, 2004). Comparatively, in the setting of a writing clinic, the teacher is able to receive instant feedback, confirmation and clarification from the student, and is thus able to adjust revision through negotiation what would otherwise remain perhaps unaddressed altogether.

The roles of the students comprised of those of student and content expert. First, as students, the students possessed a less authoritative role compared to the teacher, and second, as content experts, the students were more knowledgeable about the contents and therefore responsible for the correctness of the content claims. This in practice means that during the writing clinic sessions, the student was the more passive participant as regards to discussion pace as well as topics. The students participated mostly by backchannelling, as the teacher led the discussions. The students' participation, in this sense, as also mentioned earlier, depended on the teacher's activities. What increased the students' passive engagement was that the students rarely asked anything from the teacher in the negotiations but, instead, participated only by listening and observing closely the teacher's activity.

The roles became apparent throughout the sessions and affected the overall course of the interactions. In fact, the expert roles became particularly salient in the revision

negotiations. The chapter will next turn to discuss the manners in which the revisions were negotiated.

5.2 The prevailing negotiation types

In the three writing clinic sessions analyzed, five types of negotiation were identified. The results of the analysis reveal that the most dominant negotiation type was *Teacher question – Student response*. The occurrence of the type was salient considering all the negotiation types since 96 of such occurrences were found out of the total 245. In fact, the salience of such a negotiation type is not entirely surprising when the participants' divergent areas of expertise are considered. As the results show, the vast majority of cases were identified to function as a method for uncovering more information about the study contents. Indeed, in Clinic 3, the teacher states aptly that the contents of students' theses are like "Hebrew" to them. Although the teacher was familiar with technical writing from years of teaching experience, along with their personal interest, the study specifics remained unknown to them. The lack of content knowledge thus prevented them from revising problematic parts independently and, in this sense, it was crucial for both participants to contribute to the discussions in order to achieve successful revision outcomes.

This, in turn, led the students to clarify and explain their study contents more in depth in order to provide more information of the scope, purpose and central terminology of their study, for instance. In this, the stage of the students' writing process became perceptible; as content experts, the students were responsible for providing content related information in the revision negotiations, and the more they had studied their study contents by the time of the writing clinic session, the more capable they were to provide answers to the questions posed by the teacher. In the analysis, the stage of thesis writing became clear in Clinic 3. When compared to S1 and S2, S3 was nearly finished with the writing process and, therefore, they were familiar with the procedure and ultimate results of their entire study. Comparatively, while S1 was uncertain of some of their study specifics by the time of the writing clinic, S2 was also, by the time of the writing clinic, still reviewing previous research for their study. Overall, however, each of the students were able to provide relevant content information to the teacher, and only a few unresolved revisions were due to the students' lack of content knowledge.

The category *Teacher question – Student response* was used also as a pedagogical tool to teach about the English language. The results indicate that the teacher used this method relatively scarcely; they applied the type three times in Clinic 1, twice in Clinic 2, and only

once in Clinic 3. In fact, as the teacher used this method to introduce revisions, which they were able to carry out without the students' assistance, they most often carried out these types of revisions in the students' drafts independently without inviting the students to participate in the revising process. This might have been due to the fact that, although the teacher had marked color codes in the drafts over issues which needed to be addressed, they might not have planned any further how they would target the problematic parts during the sessions. In this sense, the application of the negotiation type as a pedagogical tool might have been spontaneous, at least to some degree. The results show that the students, in turn, could answer the questions regarding correct English usage for the most part.

The second most frequent negotiation type, which in fact is almost as frequent as *Teacher question – Student response*, is *Teacher suggestion – Student response*, of which there were 94 identified incidents. Interestingly, the analysis revealed that while these two types were found to manifest remarkably more in the writing clinic sessions, they were also found to manifest together, that is, in relation to one another. In discussing this negotiation type, it is essential to consider the variation of the occurrence of the type in the three sessions. As the results show, this negotiation type appears twice as frequently in Clinic 2 than in Clinic 1 and Clinic 3 combined. This might have been due to the fact that the teacher intervened frequently in grammatical issues in S2's draft, which they did most often by suggesting an alternative wording. Nonetheless, due to the significant frequency of this negotiation type, even still it is the second most frequent negotiation type in all of the three sessions.

The prevalence of this negotiation type underlines the nature of the writing clinic at its core; participants with complementary areas of expertise revise the students' master's thesis together through an open discussion. Indeed, as the student was the more knowledgeable participant content wise, instead of revising independently, the teacher hedged their revisions by presenting them as suggestions. This, in turn, gave the students the room to evaluate whether the teacher's revision suggestions would be suitable in terms of content correctness before making any revisions in the draft. The results of the analysis indicate that the most common manner to respond to a teacher-suggested revision, was student agreement. In fact, while the students agreed a total of 72 times to suggested revisions, 16 instances were coded as hesitation and 6 as opposition. These results, and the fact that the two most frequent negotiation types were found to manifest together, suggest that the teacher was able to present successful revision suggestions as a result of previous negotiations.

As mentioned above, the negotiation type was often code together with *Teacher question – Student response*. Most often, however, *Teacher suggestion – Student response* was found to manifest after *Teacher question – Student response*, which suggests that through receiving more content information, the teacher was able to suggest suitable revisions. Consequently, when the students responded to a teacher suggested revision with hesitation or opposition, it led the teacher to request more content information. The high rate of agreement of the suggested revisions sheds light on the activities which the teacher as a language reviser carries out in the students' drafts. Indeed, the number of agreed revision suggestions (72) is remarkably high considering that the teacher is solely responsible for them. The students, in turn, initiate 22 revisions combined. It is important to note that the scope of the present study is to uncover revision negotiation in the writing clinic sessions rather than inspecting the ultimate outcomes in the students' published theses. Considering this, it is vital to acknowledge that the students might have heeded the teacher's suggestions during the discussions, while knowing that they would be able to reject the suggestions afterwards for the final version of their theses. Indeed, exploring the students' published theses with regard to the ultimate agreement of revisions carried out during the writing clinic sessions would make an interesting angle for future research.

The two most frequent negotiation types correspond in a large part to the findings in Merkel (2018), where he found that divergent areas of expertise were complementary in writing conference discussions in achieving successful revision outcomes. In fact, Merkel reports that the teacher has to lean on the student's expertise before they can suggest any revisions on the student's text. He further argues that the lack of content knowledge leads the teacher to suggest inadequate revisions. This is clearly seen also in the results of the present study, as the students signaled hesitation and opposition upon multiple revision suggestions proposed by the teacher.

The negotiation types which were found to manifest less frequently were those of *Student initiation – Teacher reaction*, *Teacher statement – Student reaction* as well as *Teacher revision – Student reaction*. Although there was a significant difference in frequency with these types compared to the above-discussed types, their role in characterizing the processes of the revision negotiations within each of the session is, however, of high relevance.

The results regarding student initiation in this study coincide to some degree with Eckstein (2013) and Patthey-Chavez and Ferris (1997), for instance, as they report in their studies that L2 students, who possessed a higher proficiency level in English, were more

interactive in the writing conference discussions and, furthermore, in asking questions. Although the level of the students' L2 proficiency was not considered as a factor in the negotiations in the present study, the teacher did compliment specifically S3's academic writing upon multiple occasion during Clinic 3. In fact, the teacher began their session by stating that they thought that S3's text was "wonderful". The results of this study indicate that out of the three students, S3 was in fact the most active in initiating revisions themselves and posing questions to the teacher, too. Although S3 expressed their personal interest in discussing the small details of language, it should be taken into consideration that S3 was nearly finished with their thesis and thus more capable in discussing their work compared to S1 and S2. The findings of Eckstein (2013) and Patthey-Chavez and Ferris (1997) could, however, partly explain the considerably more active participation of S3. Furthermore, Goldstein and Conrad (1990) point out that the students' personality naturally has an effect on their participation in the writing conference discussions. Though the initiative participation of S3 was distinct from the other two students, it is important to consider that the teacher's activities also affected the students' participation, as mentioned earlier, and the overall student initiation in the three sessions was not very substantial.

The category *Teacher statement – Student reaction* was also found as a type of revision negotiation. In authentic spoken discourse, the participants interpret each other's conversational turns to react accordingly. They make sense of the context which sets the frame for the conversation and interpret the turn according to their understanding of the situation. This was also visible in the *Teacher statement – Student reaction* negotiation type. Indeed, both participants were aware of the fact that in a writing clinic session, the aim is revising a piece of an academic text. As the teacher had prepared color codes in the drafts beforehand, the matters they had marked were likely to be revised. Instead of asking a question or posing a suggestion, the teacher at times indicated the need for a revision through a statement or comment. One factor that might have influenced this type of negotiation was that the lack of content knowledge might have prevented the teacher from revising independently or suggesting a specific revision. At times, the teacher might have struggled with also requesting specific content information and therefore stated a comment which the students then reacted to. The students, in turn, interpreted the teacher's statements as requests for more content information or an invitation to join the revising process.

Finally, the category *Teacher revision – Student reaction* was the negotiation type to occur most rarely in the data. This is not entirely surprising, since the type itself comprised of revision activity in which the teacher wrote or reorganized whole sentences in the students'

drafts. This was done mainly due to the absence of a relevant sentence altogether, or a need for a reorganizing due to a problematic grammatical issue. In the data, only 12 instances of such negotiation were found, half of which were in Clinic 2. In Clinic 2, the teacher more often targeted certain conventions of academic writing which were missing from S2's draft. These included a thesis overview, thesis motivation and a scoping statement, for example. As the teacher possessed the role of language expert, it is important to emphasize that this expertise included also expertise in academic writing, specifically within technical disciplines. Interestingly, in Clinic 1, S1 stated that since relevant literature published in their disciplinary field is written by NNEs, their poor and incorrect linguistic conventions get passed to the students and their writing. While Gnutzmann and Rabe (2014) report in their study that students within the field of mechanical engineering were not worried about the correctness of their writing, since the general audience as well as journal editors were NNEs, in the present study the teacher stressed the importance of writing concisely within a specific disciplinary field, following the prescriptive norms of the English language. The teacher often demonstrated and motivated their stance by presenting additional guidelines, which were originally prepared for students participating in an academic writing course. Overall, the students agreed with the teacher's independent revisions and, furthermore, joined the revising by suggesting revisions also themselves. One instance was coded, however, where the student opposed a revision due to a shift in semantic meaning in the content. These results suggest that in general the students' original introductory chapters included the majority of the academic conventions which the teacher called for. Furthermore, the teacher's addition of whole sentence was relatively minimal given all the interventions in the three writing clinic sessions.

In sum, the five categories that were identified characterize the revision negotiations of the writing clinic sessions in this particular data set. As the analysis was carried out as data-driven, the categorization arose from the incidents in the data. It is important to acknowledge that another method of analysis, applying a ready-made categorization for example, might have provided diverse results to some degree in the same data set. Furthermore, a larger sample size of the writing clinic sessions might have also resulted in slightly different frequencies of the identified negotiation types. However, by applying discourse analysis as a method allowed capturing the prevailing incidents in the revision negotiations most accurately in this specific data set.

6 Conclusion

This study has attempted to shed light on the academic writing of L2 master's students, and the interventions that take place during their thesis writing processes. More precisely, the purpose has been to uncover the collaborative writing clinic sessions where the introductory chapters of master's students' theses are revised. As L2 students seek – and are offered – additional support in writing in English as their L2, it becomes central to consider who intervenes in their writing and how. The collaborative writing clinics enable an open discussion around the writing, and as the revisions are carried out on the texts during the sessions, it becomes possible to explore how the revisions are ultimately reached and carried out. In this sense, the present study aimed at investigating how the revisions were negotiated in the writing clinic sessions. The data comprised of three audio- and screen-recorded writing clinic sessions in which three master's students and their English teacher discussed revisions in the students' thesis drafts on an online platform. The data was gathered from a large multidisciplinary university in Finland, where English is used as L2 for the vast majority of the students.

The analysis was carried out by observing the audio- and video-recordings as well as the careful transcripts of the writing clinic sessions. Furthermore, the analysis was carried out by applying discourse analysis as a method. The analysis zoomed into the instances of the teacher-student discourse where revisions were made in the students' drafts. More precisely, focus was paid to the manners which were used in order to negotiate the revisions. Overall, five negotiation types were identified to manifest in the revision negotiations:

I Teacher question – Student response

II Teacher suggestion – Student response

III Student initiation – Teacher reaction

IV Teacher statement – Student reaction

V Teacher revision – Student reaction

The results of the study revealed that two of the identified negotiation types were the most dominant ones in the writing clinic sessions: namely *Teacher question – Student response* and *Teacher suggestion – Student response*. As the identified negotiation types themselves imply, there existed a strong teacher-directed approach in the writing clinic sessions, the two most frequent negotiation types also affirm that the revision processes were highly teacher dominated. What is more, the revisions themselves were, too, mostly done by the teacher. What

is notable in considering the teacher's active role in the sessions, is that they could have not reached the successful revisions without the students' active participation as content experts. Indeed, the most frequent negotiation type, *Teacher question – Student response*, covered negotiations in which, for the vast majority, the teacher requested more content information. This negotiation type was found to function as a focal stage in achieving successful revision outcomes. As the participants possessed divergent, yet complementary, areas of expertise, the active engagement of both participants in the discussions was considered central. It is therefore argued in this study, that an open discussion provides opportunities and ultimately enables the uncovering of the successful revisions both regarding content and language correctness.

While the focus of the present study has enlightened the processes of the thesis writing of L2 students in terms of literacy brokering, and explored the manners in which revisions were negotiated, the study has not considered the ultimate effects of the negotiations or the revisions themselves. In this sense, it would be interesting to widen the scope and explore the nature of revisions themselves more extensively. Furthermore, a comparison of the revision negotiations and the final revision outcomes of the students' published theses would provide a fascinating angle in studying the effects of the writing clinic discussions. In order to understand the teacher dominance of the discussions more, it would also be of convenience to include the teacher's personal account in the analysis. These viewpoints are, however, left for inspiration for future research.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Transcription key:

,	Short pause in speech
-	False start or interruption
..	Interrupted turn, turn continues
(-)	Unintelligible word
(--)	Unintelligible segment
(word)	Unclear word or segment
<i>word</i>	Non-English word or segment
<u>word</u>	Emphasis
[comment]	Transcriber comment
[[comment]]	Analyst comment
[(word)]	Anonymized word
[os]	Overlapping speech
[qs]	Quiet speech
[us]	Unclear speech



**PRIVACY POLICY/NOTICE
FOR SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH
EU General Data Protection Regulation
Art. 12–14
Date: 25 Oct 2019**

**Information about personal data processing in the University of Helsinki
research project *Language Regulation in Academia***

The research project *Language Regulation in Academia* involves the processing of personal data. The purpose of this notice is to provide information on the personal data that is processed, the source of the data and how the data is used in the study. For more information on the rights of data subjects and how you can affect the processing of your personal data, please see the end of this notice.

1. Data Controller

University of Helsinki
Address: P.O. Box 3 (Fabianinkatu 33), 00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

2. Contact person and principal investigator

Contact person in matters concerning the project:

Name: Researchers in the *Language Regulation in Academia* project Anna Solin, Niina Hynninen and Hanna-Mari Pienimäki
Faculty/department/unit: Faculty of Arts / Department of Languages
Address: P.O. Box 24 (Unioninkatu 40), 00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

Principal investigator: see above

3. Contact details of the Data Protection Officer

The Data Protection Officer of the University of Helsinki is Lotta Ylä-Sulkava. You can reach her at tietosuoja@helsinki.fi.

4. Description of the study and the purposes of processing personal data

The personal data are processed for the purposes of the *Language Regulation in Academia* research project, and potentially in other research projects related to language studies. The *Language Regulation in Academia* research project is concerned with, in particular, language perceptions, text production processes, as well as who intervenes in language

use in the university context, what forms this intervention takes, and what kind of language use is construed as acceptable.

5. Who is carrying out the research?

The research is conducted in the University of Helsinki, Faculty of Arts, Department of Languages. Researchers from other universities may participate in the research, and research data that includes personal data may be disclosed to them for purposes of conducting the research.

6. Personal data included in the research data

The following types of direct and indirect identifiers concerning the study participants are collected in the project (not all information listed below are collected from all study participants):

Direct identifiers: name, contact information, voice, photo / video image, work history.

Indirect identifiers: language skills, work samples, selected research publications and possible other texts related to research or academic work, perceptions and views expressed by study participants.

7. Sources of personal data

The personal data are collected in the following ways (not all methods concern all study participants):

Interviews, observation, audio recording, video recording, photographing, collection of different versions of selected documents from study participants and from public and semi-public sources (e.g. intranet of the study participant's organisation, research publication platforms, public websites and social media), email communication.

In addition, upon agreement, supplementary research data owned by other academic institutions may be disclosed to the project. These data may be collected, for instance, in the following ways:

In addition to the methods listed above, collection of different versions of student texts and teaching materials as well as any other materials produced to support teaching from study participants and from public and semi-public sources (e.g. e-thesis archives).

8. Sensitive personal data

No data considered as special category data under Article 9 of the General Data Protection Regulation will be processed in the study.

9. Duration of processing

The researchers mentioned in section 2, as well as other members of the project and researchers to whom data have been disclosed may continue to process the personal data for their research purposes also after the project has ended and also in other research related to language studies. The personal data will be processed until the *Language Regulation in Academia* project as well as other studies which use personal information collected in this project have ended. After this, the information is archived as explained in sections 11 and 15.

If personal data collected in this research project are disclosed to another research project, the purposes of this other project determine how personal data are processed in it, and research participants will be informed according to the General Data Protection Regulation.

10. Lawful basis of processing

Personal data is processed on the following basis, which is based on Article 6(1) of the General Data Protection Regulation:

performance of a task carried out in the public interest or in the exercise of official authority vested in the controller:

- scientific or historical research purposes or statistical purposes
- archiving of research materials or cultural heritage materials

participant's consent

compliance with a legal obligation to which the controller is subject

legitimate interests pursued by the controller or by a third party

description of the legitimate interest:

If processing is based on the consent of the participant, the participant has the right to withdraw their consent at any time. The withdrawal of consent does not affect the lawfulness of processing based on consent before its withdrawal.

11. Recipients of the personal data

In the course of the research project, the personal data may be used by the project researchers and research assistants. At their discretion, the project researchers may also use research data that includes personal data (e.g. audio recordings) for teaching purposes, provided that the possibility for identification is minimised so that the people in the teaching situation cannot recognise the participants by using means that they are likely to have at their disposal. In addition, thesis/dissertation writers may process personal data collected in the project if this is necessary for the purposes of their study.

Academic collaborators may take part in the research project and be disclosed research data owned by the University of Helsinki that include personal data as described in this

privacy notice. The disclosure of personal data for this purpose is based on enabling scientific research with the collaborators and processing the data for research purposes.

In addition, personal data processed in this project may later be processed in other projects related to language studies and they may also be disclosed to another data controller for the purposes of linguistic research, for instance through the Finnish Social Science Data Archive or The Language Bank of Finland (however with the University of Helsinki as the disclosing part).

Under an obligation of confidentiality, personal data may be transferred to companies providing transcription services. The companies function as data handlers for the University of Helsinki.

12. Transfer of personal data to countries outside the EU/European Economic Area

No personal data will be transferred to recipients outside the European Economic Area.

13. Automated decisions

No automated decisions with significant effects on the participants are made in the study.

14. Safeguards to protect the personal data

The personal data are processed and stored in such a way that only persons who need the data for research purposes can access them.

Personal data processed in IT systems:

- username password logging access control encryption
 other: *(please specify)*

How data in physical format (e.g. paper) is protected: storage in lockable cabinets in lockable rooms

Processing of direct identifiers:

- The data is collected without direct identifiers
 Direct identifiers will be removed in the analysis phase
 The material to be analysed includes direct identifiers. Reason: The data analysis is only possible with direct identifiers.

15. Retention of personal data after the completion of the study

- The research material will be deleted
 The research material will be archived:
 without identifiers with identifiers

Where will the material be archived and for how long: With permission from the study participants, those parts of the data that can be anonymized will be archived permanently in the Finnish Social Science Data Archive, The Language Bank of Finland or similar archiving service.

16. Your rights as a data subject, and exceptions to these rights

The contact person in matters concerning the rights of the participant are the persons mentioned in section 2 of this notice.

Rights of data subjects

According to the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), data subjects have the right

- of access to their data
- to rectification of their data
- to the erasure of their data and to be forgotten
- to restrict the processing of their data
- to data portability
- to object to the processing of their data
- not to be subject to a decision based solely on automated processing.

Not all of these rights can be exercised in all situations, depending on factors such as the basis for the processing of personal data.

For more information on the rights of data subjects in different situations, please see the Data Protection Ombudsman's website: <https://tietosuoja.fi/en/what-rights-do-data-subjects-have-in-different-situations>

Exceptions to data subject rights

Under the General Data Protection Regulation and the Finnish Data Protection Act, certain exceptions to the rights of data subjects can be made when personal data is processed in scientific research and fulfilling the rights would render impossible or seriously impair the achievement of the objectives of the processing (in this case, scientific research).

The necessity of exceptions to the rights of data subjects will always be assessed on a case by case basis.

Right to lodge a complaint

You have the right to lodge a complaint with the Data Protection Ombudsman's Office if you think your personal data has been processed in violation of applicable data protection laws.

Contact details:

Data Protection Ombudsman's Office (Tietosuojavaal tuutetun toimisto)
Address: Ratapihantie 9, 6th floor, 00520 Helsinki

Postal address: B.O. Box 800, 00521 Helsinki

Tel. (switchboard): 029 56 66700

Fax: 029 56 66735

E-mail: tietosuoja(at)om.fi

Appendix 3

Consent form for participants in project research

Project name: Language Regulation in Academia

Researchers: Anna Solin (PI), Niina Hynninen and Hanna-Mari Pienimäki, University of Helsinki

The following text explains the aims of the project and what kind of data will be collected. Please read the text carefully in order to decide whether you are willing to participate. The researchers will be happy to answer any questions you may have.

I. The aims of the project

The project focuses on different mechanisms of language regulation, i.e. different ways in which language use is monitored and intervened in. The studies explore institutional directives and guidelines such as language policy documents as well as situated practices of regulation as they are enacted in the everyday work of different academic actors (e.g. researchers, administrators, language revisers, teachers and communication specialists). The aim of the project is to provide a broad picture of mechanisms of language regulation in academia.

II. Data collection and participation

Project researchers will collect textual data which has relevance for language regulation, observe and document writing processes and observe/record discussions during writing processes. They will also make use of observations made during fieldwork. Researchers will interview different members of academic communities, who will be asked to describe practices of language regulation which impact their work. The approach is ethnographic, which means that some participants will be asked to engage with the project on a long-term basis. These participants' experiences and practices will be examined more closely.

Participation in the research is voluntary and participants are free to withdraw at any time.

III. Anonymity and data processing

The texts and audio recordings will be processed for analysis and stored electronically. Interview data will be audio or video recorded, transcribed and translated where necessary. Passages from the transcripts and texts may be used in scholarly publications and presentations, as well as for outreach and teaching purposes. Your identity as an informant will be protected: any identifying information will be anonymised as far as possible when data is used in publications and for the other above-mentioned purposes. The data will be used within the Language Regulation in Academia project (eventually including our collaborators and Master's students) and stored for possible further use by project researchers. With your permission, the anonymised data may be archived for further use after the completion of the project.

IV. Participant's permission

I have read the consent form and understand the conditions of participation. I have had the opportunity to discuss the consent form with the researchers. Any questions I have about this research have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to this contract by signing this form and agree to participate in the research with the following conditions.

I consent to the research use of the data in which I am involved.

YES

NO

I agree to the archiving of the collected data for further use after the completion of this project.

YES

NO

Signature _____

Date

Name _____

If you have any further questions about this study, please contact:

Anna Solin, project director
Department of Languages
P.O. Box 24 (Unioninkatu 40 B)
FI-00014 University of Helsinki