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Investigating How Generation 1.5 Students Notice and Understand Direct Written Corrective Feedback (WCF)

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INVESTIGATING HOW GENERATION 1.5 STUDENTS NOTICE AND UNDERSTAND
DIRECT WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (WCF)

Thesis

by

MELISSA BUSTAMANTE

Submitted to Texas A&M International University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

May 2023

Major Subject: English

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ABSTRACT

Investigating How Generation 1.5 Students Notice and Understand Direct Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) (May 2023)

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Chair of Committee: Dr. Charlene Kay Summers

The following research focuses on an underrepresented and understudied population in academia, Generation 1.5. Generation 1.5 encompasses a group of individuals who neither fit the categories of first-generation nor second-generation students and often feel caught between two cultures, the American culture and their family's native culture (Serventy and Allen 1; Goldschmidt and Miller 11). These individuals are neither fully proficient in their L1 or L2 and consequently, share characteristics of L1 and traditional L2 writers (Singhal 2; Ferris 311). This research study examines how university Generation 1.5 students notice and understand direct Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) on treatable and untreatable errors as measured per their responses in Reflection Essays. The researcher of the present study found that Generation 1.5 students struggled to demonstrate noticing and understanding of treatable and untreatable writing errors despite receiving direct WCF. The researcher of the present study hypothesizes that this occurrence can be linked to their lower proficiency in reading and Academic English. However, the students were more likely to demonstrate noticing and understanding of untreatable writing errors rather than treatable writing errors. The researcher of the present study theorizes that the students' lack of noticing and understanding of treatable writing errors can be attributed to their lack of formal grammar training due to not being placed in specialized ESL classes in their K-12 education. Based on the findings, the researcher suggests that writing instructors that serve this

population should consider administering their feedback by means of audio rather than writing due to their higher proficiency in listening. Lastly, the researcher of the present study adamantly argues for a more inclusive definition of Generation 1.5 as some of the most commonly accepted definitions place a criterion based on birthplace. Leaving provisions pertaining to birthplace would be detrimental as it would exclude individuals such as the ones represented in this study even though they demonstrate key characteristics of Generation 1.5 students such as being ear learners. Overall, the researcher of the present study argues for more research to be conducted pertaining to Generation 1.5 and the processing of WCF.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate my thesis to my grandparents, Mr. and Mrs. Amador and Alicia Flores and Mr. and Mrs. Alfonso and Hilda Bustamante, who have always emphasized the value of an education ever since I was a child. I hold their advice about education close to me to this day, and I hope to pass their advice along to my future students. While my grandfathers are not physically present to witness my research endeavor, their impact on me lives on as I dedicate myself to being a lifelong learner and aspire to make my family proud.

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1. INTRODUCTION

In Americo Paredes's novel, *George Washington Gomez: A Mexicotexan Novel*, the protagonist, Guálinto/George, struggles to find his identity as he is immersed in the Mexican culture at home and the American culture at school. While Guálinto/George is a fictional character, he exemplifies the real-life experiences and adversity of Generation 1.5 students who often feel conflicted between two cultures as they navigate their way through the American school system and society overall. Generation 1.5 students are a real and growing population of students who are unique in terms of their identity and their learning process, especially when it comes to writing. Characteristics of Generation 1.5 students often include speaking a non-English language at home while receiving their education in English and having limited proficiencies in their L1 and L2 (Eckstein and Ferris 138; Singhal 1-2). Although this is a growing population, Generation 1.5 remains an understudied and underrepresented population of students in research and academia. The goal of this research study is to explore how this overlooked population of students articulate their noticing and understanding of direct Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) on treatable and untreatable writing errors.

Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) is one of the most common techniques that writing instructors utilize in the classroom (Van Beuningen et al. 1). WCF can consist of providing feedback specifically or collectively on grammatical, structural, or content-based errors in students' writing; additionally, WCF can be administered in a direct, indirect, focused, or unfocused manner (Bitchner 857; Karim and Nassaji 521). The existing research pertaining to Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) focuses on whether feedback in general leads to appropriate

This thesis follows the model of *Journal of Second Language Writing*.

revisions and which kind of feedback leads to more revisions in the students' subsequent writing tasks (Truscott 327; Ferris and Roberts 387; Kang and Han 9). However, the majority of participants in the early studies pertaining to WCF were monolingual, and it was not until recently that researchers began to investigate the relationship between WCF and other demographics of students such as L2 learners. However, the existing research tends to not distinguish Generation 1.5 students from L1, L2, or ESL populations; the lack of research on Generation 1.5 students and their relationship to WCF leaves writing educators unsure of how to approach providing feedback to this population and leaves this unique and growing population of students at a disadvantage when compared to their peers. This research study aims to investigate how Generation 1.5 college students understand and notice direct WCF on treatable and untreatable errors as measured per their written verbalizations in their Reflection Essays. This study found that Generation 1.5 students struggle to articulate their noticing and understanding of feedback on treatable and untreatable errors despite receiving explicit feedback and being prompted by the researcher's questions. Thus, the researcher of the current study calls for further research and for writing instructors to consider administering feedback via other methods such as verbal.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Defining L1, L2, and ESL

In order to fully understand and establish how Generation 1.5 will be defined in this study, it is crucial to understand the definitions of L1, L2, and ESL. According to Cathy Fleischer's article on The National Council of English Teachers website, L1 is defined as a student's first language and is often referred to as "mother tongue" or "home language;" L2 is defined as Second Language or "an additional language that a student learns" aside from L1. Additionally, she explains that ESL, which is an acronym for English as a Second Language, refers to an "overarching term" used to classify students whose second language is English (Fleischer). As explained in Fleischer's definition of ESL, it is a broad term that groups learners of the English language into one category without taking into account the student's level of proficiency in English, years lived in the United States, or the cultural and social factors that may affect the student's ability to learn English. Moreover, even the labeling of ESL may exclude students who may not have a full grasp of the English language and are exposed to a second language. Thus, the term Generation 1.5 was created to define a group of students who are usually but not always excluded from ESL labeling in the K-12 education system and experience a cultural in-betweenness.

2.2 Origin of Generation 1.5

The term "Generation 1.5" was first used by the scholars Ruben Rumbaut and Kenji Ima to "describe the complex social position of Southeast Asian refugees adapting to life in the U.S during the 1970s and 1980s" (as qtd. in Roberge et al. 4). Rumbaut and Ima distinguished Generation 1.5 students from first-generation and second-generation students because these students were born in Southeast Asia but obtained their education in the United States (24). Elizabeth Serventy and Bill Allen explain that the original cohort of Generation 1.5 students

were “neither part of the first generation in an immigrant-receiving country, nor part of the second generation of children born in that country” (1). Similar to Rumbaut’s and Ima’s definition of Generation 1.5, Mark Roberge et al define the term “Generation 1.5” in their book *Generation 1.5 in College Composition: Teaching Academic Writing to U.S Educated Learners of ESL* as:

English language learners who arrive at the United States at an early age, obtain much or all of their education in U.S. K-12 settings, and arrive in college with various language and literacy patterns that don’t fit the traditional ‘institutionally constructed’ profiles of Developmental Writing, College ESL, or Freshman composition (3).

These scholars’ definitions of Generation 1.5 coincide as they emphasize that this population of students in the United States education system are not born in the United States.

2.3 Complexities of the Generation 1.5 Definition

Many scholars’ definitions of Generation 1.5 have strayed from Rumbaut’s and Ima’s original definition as they have varying criteria for what constitutes a Generation 1.5 student. As a result of the varying, and at times conflicting, criteria and definitions of Generation 1.5, Generation 1.5 students can be found in a multitude of settings ranging from elementary, universities, ESL classes, honors courses, to standard composition courses (Schwartz 42). Defining Generation 1.5 is tumultuous because scholars do not agree on a set standard of criteria. Some scholars argue age, birthplace, ESL classification, and other factors are necessary for classifying Generation 1.5 (Doolan and Miller 1; Case et al. 85; Ferris and Hedgcock 34). What was once a term reserved to describe Southeast Asian refugee students has now been extended to different demographics of students with some scholars arguing for a broader or narrower

definition. The following section will discuss the various definition of Generation 1.5 and describe how the present study defines Generation 1.5.

While there are conflicts pertaining to defining Generation 1.5, scholars have created criteria in order to narrow and identify this distinct population of students. For instance, Stephen Doolan and Robert Miller have developed their own definition and set criteria for classifying Generation 1.5 based on empirical research. Their criteria for classifying Generation 1.5 are the following: “(a) have been in the U.S. educational system for more than 4 years, (b) regularly speak a language other than English at home, (c) have relatively strong English speaking and listening skills, and (d) are younger than 25 years old” (Doolan and Miller 1). They found that the criteria listed above were the most frequent criteria found in the definitions of Generation 1.5 scholars. Their definition strays from Rumbaut’s, Ima’s, and Roberge et. al’s definition as Doolan and Miller have an age requirement and do not specify the birthplace or birth country of the individual. Doolan’s and Miller’s definition of Generation 1.5 is not universal as other scholars have varying criteria.

Similar to Doolan and Miller, Dana Ferris and John Hedgcock have developed their own definition of Generation 1.5 students. According to them, Generation 1.5 learners must meet the following standards:

- a) Their parents were newly arrived immigrants; b) the primary language spoken in their home was not English; c) all or nearly all of their education was largely or exclusively in the [second language] context (and delivered in the L2); and d) some of their educational experience, at least in the early years, was influenced by their [English language learner] status (34).

Their criteria for Generation 1.5 differs from Doolan's and Miller's as they specify the immigration status of Generation 1.5's parents, do not specify the number of years of education in English and emphasize the ELL labeling. The different criteria for Generation 1.5 makes classifying this population a complex and daunting task.

Another characteristic found in Generation 1.5 scholarship is that these students received most of their education in the United States. The importance of Generation 1.5 students' education is emphasized by Eckstein and Ferris who describe Generation 1.5 as "a subgroup of L2 writers for whom English is an L2 and whose primary educational experiences were influenced by their language learner status" (138). Similarly, Meena Singhal asserts that Generation 1.5's educational needs are different from recent immigrants and international students because they have received most of their education in the United States (1). Dana Ferris et al.'s definition of Generation 1.5 also emphasizes how this population of students received the majority of their education in the United States (310). On the contrary, Rod Case et al. only require one year of education in the United States to be considered Generation 1.5 in their study (85). Case et al.'s study is an outlier as the majority of the discourse surrounding Generation 1.5 requires for the pupil to have received the majority or multiple years of education in the United States; thus, his definition demonstrates how the criteria for Generation 1.5 differs vastly in the field. Nonetheless, receiving the majority of their education in the United States does not guarantee that this population is fully proficient in English, which affects the way in which they process (i.e notice and understand) WCF.

Moreover, some scholars have argued that Generation 1.5 should not be constrained by the location of a person's birth. A leading scholar in WCF and Generation 1.5 students, Dana Ferris et al., define Generation 1.5 as "U.S.-educated children of first-generation immigrants, who may

be either U.S.-born or who arrived at an early age” (310). Similarly, in her article “Academic Writing and Generation 1.5: Pedagogical Goals and Instructional Issues in the College Composition Classroom,” Meena Singhal states that Generation 1.5 students could be individuals who immigrated to the United States at an early age or could be individuals who were born in the United States but whose home language was not English (1). Ferris’s and Singhal’s definitions are similar as both are flexible in regard to the birthplace criteria. Both scholars’ definitions of Generation 1.5 deviate from Rumbaut’s and Ima’s definition that claimed Generation 1.5 students must be born outside of the United States. For the present study, the birthplace of the individual will not be a determining factor in whether an individual will be considered Generation 1.5. The scholar of this study believes the defining characteristic of Generation 1.5 is that they were educated in the United States, specifically in English, but their home language was a language other than English; thus, the birthplace of the individual does not necessarily influence either one of those factors.

There have been mixed findings from scholars concerning whether ESL identification and accommodations in K-12 education should impact the classification of Generation 1.5 students. Dana Ferris et al. argue that Generation 1.5 students may have never been placed in specialized ESL classes, and may show disdain towards ESL labeling (311). However, Singhal claims that Generation 1.5 students are likely to be placed in ESL college writing classes, regardless of whether they were classified as ESL in K-12, because they exhibit grammar errors that are similar to traditional ESL students and do not have a firm understanding of Academic English (3). She argues that teachers need to differentiate between ESL and Generation 1.5 students because it affects how they understand written corrective feedback (Singhal 4). Because Generation 1.5 students do not have an extensive repertoire of grammar knowledge compared to

the traditional ESL pupil who took ESL classes, Singhal claims that they are likely to struggle in understanding feedback, regardless if it is written or oral, on grammar errors (3). In this study, ESL classification in K-12 education will not determine whether a student is Generation 1.5. While the researcher of the present study agrees that ESL classification does affect the students' relationship with writing, it does not determine whether a student is Generation 1.5 in the present study.

2.4 Expansion of Generation 1.5 and Criticism

Scholars, such as Roberge, argue that the term Generation 1.5 should be extended to include other subsections of the ESL population such as “in migrant,” “parachute,” and “transitional” (as cited in Singhal 1). “In-migrant” refers to a subsection of the ESL population that move to the United States from United States territories; parachute students are students who reside with non-immediate family members in order to obtain their K-12 education; “transitionals” are students who migrate back and forth from the United States (as cited Singhal 1). The extension of the definition of Generation 1.5 to other ESL subpopulations has led to scholars referring to this population interchangeably with terms such as “U.S.-educated language minority students,” “long-term resident L2 learners,” and/or “resident ESL students” (De Kleine and Lawton 12). The expansion of the definition of Generation 1.5 draws criticism from scholars (Ortmeier-Hooper 411). While scholars advocate for a more inclusive definition of Generation 1.5, scholars criticize the expansion of the definition because they feel it diminishes its meaning. In the present study, any student who met the criteria set forth by the scholar was classified as Generation 1.5, regardless if they fell into any of the other subcategories mentioned above.

Scholars question the use of the label Generation 1.5 because it impacts how the students perceive themselves. Christina Ortmeier-Hooper cautions that labels such as Generation 1.5 and

ESL are problematic for educators as well as students (390). She argues against the use of such labels as they influence how students perceive themselves and their own academic, specifically writing, capabilities (Ortmeier-Hooper 391). One Generation 1.5 student in Ortmeier-Hooper's study tried to use the label in an attempt to gain leeway in terms of grading in his composition course (397). The present study acknowledges that labeling and classification of students can impact their identity as a student and as a writer. To address this issue, the participants in the study were not told whether they were considered Generation 1.5. Additionally, the professor teaching the course was not made aware of which students in the class were Generation 1.5 to avoid any unconscious bias.

Furthermore, scholars criticize the label Generation 1.5 because they believe the term has lost meaning due to its expanding criteria. Gwen Schwartz brings up valid concerns over the classification of Generation 1.5 students as she argues that the label Generation 1.5 "is over used, and its meaning has become diluted so that it no longer serves to be very useful in identifying, describing, and placing such students" (40). Additionally, Ortmeier-Hooper found that the four students she interviewed were Generation 1.5 by Rumbaut's and Ima's original definition; however, she found that their experience in her composition course varied immensely (411). The disparity in their responses despite all of them meeting the criteria of Generation 1.5 led her to criticize the validity of the term (Ortmeier-Hooper 411). Similarly, Schwartz arrives at the conclusion that the label Generation 1.5 does not "accurately reflect the diversity of such students' experiences" (41). The scholar of the present study acknowledges the possible negative implications of the expanding definition of Generation 1.5. However, the present study will have specific criteria for identifying Generation 1.5 students which will be derived from the existing discourse surrounding Generation 1.5. As Ferris et al. asserts, "it is necessary to define and

understand who the learners are and how their backgrounds might impact their writing development, their attitudes, and their understanding of WCF” (311). The scholar of the current study finds it necessary to identify and distinguish Generation 1.5 students because it yields valuable pedagogical information regarding how this population notices and understands WCF.

2.5 Present Study's Definition of Generation 1.5

Upon doing extensive research concerning Generation 1.5 and its various definitions/criteria, the scholar of the present study has synthesized multiple definitions to accurately identify Generation 1.5 students. Similar to the previous scholars mentioned, the definition of Generation 1.5 strays from Rumbaut's and Ima's original definition. In this study, the amount of education obtained in the United States in terms of years plays a factor in determining whether a student is to be considered part of the Generation 1.5 population. The study diverges from Doolan's criteria of having a minimum of four years of education in the United States. The researcher of the present study made this decision because of the plethora of other scholars who describe Generation 1.5 students as having obtained the majority of their K-12 education in the United States. The researcher of the present study decided that six years is half of the required K-12 education and would reflect the criteria of having obtained the majority of their education in a United States context.

Another criterion for Generation 1.5 in the present study is that the participant must have experienced a non-English language at home. The decision to make this a criterion in the present study is influenced by the frequency of this condition amongst scholars' definitions of Generation 1.5. The age of the participant and the birthplace of the participant (i.e. country) is not a factor into whether the participant is classified as Generation 1.5 in the current study. The scholar has decided to not include age as a criterion as various scholars such as Dana Ferris do

not take age into consideration in their definition of Generation 1.5; the scholar of the present study believes that the Generation 1.5 experience is not limited to only a certain age range as pupils. While the original definition of Generation 1.5 included criteria concerning the birthplace of an individual, the scholar of the present study opted not to because experiencing a language other than English at home is not limited to only those who are born in another country. Any of the previously mentioned subpopulations of ESL that meet the characteristics listed above are considered Generation 1.5.

In sum, the criteria for Generation 1.5 in this study are the following:

- have at least six or more years of education in the United States
- Raised in a non-English speaking household.

2.6 Generation 1.5's Writing

Scholars have argued that there is not enough data to support claims that Generation 1.5 students' have distinct writing patterns from L2 learners (Doolan, "Comparing Patterns of Error" 2). In Doolan's study "Comparing Patterns of Error in Generation 1.5, L1, and L2 First-Year Composition Writing," he found that Generation 1.5, L1, and L2 students' writing did not vary significantly in terms of quality (1). In future studies conducted by Doolan, he also did not find differences in the writing patterns of developmental L2 students and Generation 1.5 students ("A Language-Related Comparison" 103). It is important to note that Doolan recognized and cautioned that his findings may have been atypical and that there could be differences in writing errors between populations that his research did not focus on; ultimately, he concluded that more research needed to be done before coming to a definite conclusion ("A Language-Related Comparison" 110). However, Singhal explains that Generation 1.5 students' English are not on par with "native speakers in reading and writing skills" (2). One may assume that the two

populations, Generation 1.5 and native speakers, may have similar relationships with English as they both have obtained their K-12 education in the United States. However, since their home language is one that is not English, it distinguishes their identity and writing from native speakers.

Scholars have made mixed claims pertaining to the similarities and differences between Generation 1.5 students' and traditional L2 students' writing. Eckstein explains that Generation 1.5 students "exhibit characteristics in their writing that are commonly associated with L2 learners, such as grammar errors, overly simple sentence structure, conversational writing, and somewhat limited academic vocabulary" (363). On the contrary, Ferris et al. explains that Generation 1.5's writing development and understanding of WCF differs from the ESL population because of background variables concerning their education and relationship with L1 (311). In regards to L1, Generation 1.5 students may not be fully or partially fluent in their parents' L1, and the scholars briefly refer to these students' relationship with L1 as "complicated" (Ferris et al. 311). Because of their limited relationship with their parents' L1 and complicated relationship with their own L1, Generation 1.5 students are less likely to experience L1 interference, unlike traditional ESL students who frequently encounter L1 interference (Ferris et al. 311). Essentially, research highlights similarities between Generation 1.5 and L1 students as her collaborated research found that Generation 1.5 students and L1 students produced similar writing errors (Eckstein and Ferris 137); however, Ferris recognizes that the populations differed "in linguistic accuracy, lexical diversity, and language-related anxiety" (137). Despite the conflicting scholarship surrounding identifying comparable populations to Generation 1.5 students, this population in and of itself is unique as they experience prolonged exposure to two languages that they are neither fully proficient in.

Scholars hypothesize that Generation 1.5 students struggle with grammar because of their lack of formal grammar training which results from them not being in specialized ESL classes. For instance, several studies have found that Generation 1.5 students struggle with verb errors, Stephen Doolan and Donald Miller conducted a study in order to investigate the writing errors between Generation 1.5, L1, and L2 students (1). They reported that Generation 1.5 writers made statistically significant more writing errors compared to the L1 writers in the error categories of “verb errors, prepositional phrase errors, word form errors, and total identified errors” (Doolan and Miller 1). Their findings corroborate with other Generation 1.5 researchers, such as Ferris, who have found that the population struggles with verbs (Doolan and Miller 11). Part of the reason behind the discrepancy between the populations may be attributed to the fact that Generation 1.5 have received a minimum amount of grammar instruction (Singhal 2). Similarly, Ferris et al. add that Generation 1.5 struggles in terms of their grammar because of their lack of formal grammar education (311). Singhal claims that Generation 1.5 students “are not familiar with parts of speech while ESL students are because of their experience in ESL courses and with grammar texts” (3). The lack of classification leads to them not receiving additional support, specifically when it comes to grammar. As research has shown that this population has demonstrated issues with grammar, it is critical to evaluate how Generation 1.5 interacts with WCF as this is the main technique writing instructors implement to correct grammar errors in their writing. The present study examines how Generation 1.5 students notice and possibly understand the WCF provided to them on treatable grammatical errors. Understanding how this population processes WCF on treatable errors such as verb tense and subject-verb agreement can help guide educators on how to provide more efficient feedback on frequently made errors by this population.

2.7 Generation 1.5 and Proficiency

Additionally, scholars discuss how the Generation 1.5 population of students struggle in terms of their proficiency in English and their L1 regardless of receiving most, if not all, of their education in the United States because their home language is not English. The Generation 1.5 population grapples between two cultures and languages, leaving them incapable of fully identifying with either culture (their native culture or American culture) and unable to be fully proficient in either language. Singhal mentions that Generation 1.5 students are on a spectrum in terms of their proficiency in their parents' L1; some Generation 1.5 students may be highly proficient in their parents' L1 while others may not demonstrate basic proficiency (2). In fact, Singhal refers to Generation 1.5 as "dual nonnative speakers" as they are not fully proficient in their L1 or L2 (1). Because this population struggles to fully grasp the English language, they face additional adversity in university composition courses. Likewise, Mayra Goldschmidt and Christine Miller explain that Generation 1.5 students navigate life between two different cultures (12). At home, these students practice their native culture and speak their native language; meanwhile, at school, these same students adopt and partially assimilate to the American culture and learn the English language (Goldschmidt and Miller 11). Similar to Goldschmidt's and Miller's assertions about Generation 1.5, the National Council of English Teachers explains that the "designation of 1.5 describes the students' feelings of being culturally between first-and second-generation immigrants; they are often fluent in spoken English but may still be working to command aspects of written English, especially academic writing" (Fleischer). Essentially, this population is not fully immersed in their native or parents' culture nor the American culture. In turn, they do not have a full grasp of their native language or English as language and culture are intertwined.

While Generation 1.5 students may be verbally proficient in English, they struggle writing in English. Grant Eckstein supports this claim as he explains that “Generation 1.5 students can appear in most ways to be highly fluent in English and yet still display some unique language gaps in writing” (374). Generation 1.5’s limited proficiency in standard English is evident as research has shown that this population makes writing errors common to Native English learners and new L2 learners (Ferris 311). The hybrid of errors indicates that this population of students has an exclusive experience, when compared to monolingual or traditional ESL students, with writing and therefore processing WCF. Because the students are not fully proficient in English, they struggle in university writing classes despite completing their education in the American schooling system. This leaves universities, especially college composition professors, with the difficult task of how to approach teaching this population. Thus, the matter of Generation 1.5’s relationship with language is further complicated when taking into consideration Academic English.

Moreover, multiple scholars have come to the consensus that Generation 1.5 students encounter a higher degree of difficulty with Academic English compared to monolingual and traditional L2 students. Singhal explains Academic English “is in essence a variety or a register of English used in professional books and characterized by specific linguistic features associated with academic disciplines” (3-4). As the discourse reveals, Generation 1.5 grapples with standard and academic English. Academic English poses a bigger problem for Generation 1.5 pupils compared to the standard student because their relationship with standard English is skewed. Lacina and Griffith explain that Generation 1.5 students “face distinct literacy challenges because they have less experience with academic reading and writing” (27). Despite receiving the majority, if not all, of their academic education in a United States context, Generation 1.5 students face additional challenges with Academic English. For instance, while Generation 1.5 have experienced exposure to fictional texts in

high school, they are not familiar with academic texts regardless if they were mainstreamed or in ESL classes (Singhal 2). Thus, Generation 1.5 students' struggle in university level composition courses may be attributed to the lack of exposure to academic texts throughout their K-12 education and limited proficiency in standard English. Because the students are not fully proficient in their L1 or standard English, they experience this additional difficulty with Academic English found in university contexts (Singhal 1). The present study analyzes how Generation 1.5 students notice and understand feedback given to them on untreatable and treatable errors in the university setting where Academic English is used.

Additionally, scholars have come to a consensus that Generation 1.5 students are ear learners. Ferris et al. asserts that Generation 1.5 students are likely to make revisions to their writing based on what "sounds right" to them rather than grammar instruction from textbooks or lectures which leads them to be classified as ear learners (Ferris et al. 311). Coinciding with Ferris's research, Reid explains that Generation 1.5 students' writing errors can primarily be contributed to the fact that they are ear learners (as cited in Ferris et al. 311). Reid hypothesizes that Generation 1.5's writing errors may stem from issues related to transfer and "from a pattern of language development primarily informed by informal speaking and listening exposure—resulting in the term: 'ear learners'" (qtd Doolan and Miller 3). Because Generation 1.5 students learned English informally, they are more likely to be ear learners rather than eye learners (as cited in Ferris et al. 311). Singhal further solidifies this notion in her research as she also explores how Generation 1.5 students tend to learn the English language by mode of listening (2). She also explains that Generation 1.5 students are able to communicate extremely well orally (2). She hypothesizes that they are able to excel orally because they "learned English by listening and speaking it" (2). Similarly, Eckstein also asserts that Generation 1.5 students' fluency in speaking is higher than

their “grammar knowledge and written English” (363). Because Generation 1.5 students are ear learners, it is important to evaluate the relationship this population of students have with feedback because it is administered through means of writing, which they may not be as proficient in.

2.8 Treatable Errors and Untreatable Errors

Dana Ferris first refers to the classification and distinction between treatable and untreatable writing errors in her essay “The Case for Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes: A Response to Truscott” (6). She developed the system of classifying treatable and untreatable errors by conducting a “detailed error analysis” of her ESL students’ essays (Ferris, “The Case for Grammar” 6). She defines “treatable errors” as errors that “‘occur in a patterned, rule-governed way,” and untreatable errors as errors that “there is no handbook or set of rules students can consult to avoid or fix those types of errors” (Ferris, “The Case for Grammar” 6). She explains that “subject-verb agreement, run-ons, and comma splices, missing articles, verb form errors” are all examples of treatable errors (Ferris, “The Case for Grammar” 6). On the contrary, untreatable errors include “a wide variety of lexical errors and problems with sentence structure, including missing words, unnecessary words, and word order problems” (“The Case for Grammar” 6). This study utilizes Ferris’s system for classifying treatable and untreatable errors when analyzing the students’ written responses.

Furthermore, Ferris continued to conduct research pertaining to treatable and untreatable errors in ESL students’ writing with her colleague Barrie Roberts. Ferris and Roberts studied 72 university ESL students and focused their study on investigating ESL students’ ability to make corrections in relation to different methods of WCF (161). They categorized the students’ errors as treatable or untreatable and found that regardless of the kind of feedback the students

received, the subjects were more likely “to edit their treatable errors (verbs, articles, noun endings) rather than their untreatable errors (word choice and sentence structure)” (Ferris and Roberts 176). Additionally, they ranked the students’ writing errors from greatest to least in terms of frequency: verbs, sentence structure, word choice, noun endings, and articles (Ferris and Roberts 176). While Ferris’s and Roberts’s research also pertained to treatable and untreatable errors, the current study investigates a different demographic, Generation 1.5 students. Additionally, this study examines how Generation 1.5 students understand direct WCF on treatable and untreatable errors as measured by their written verbalization.

2.9 Direct Written Corrective Feedback (WCF)

There are various kinds of WCF such as direct and indirect. Direct WCF tells the students that there is an error in their writing and provides them with the correction (Karim and Nassaji 521). Ferris and Roberts explain that direct WCF involves the “teacher providing the correct form for the student writer; if the student revises the text, s/he needs only to transcribe the correction into the final version” (163). Similarly, Ji Kim explains that direct feedback entails of providing the student with explicit corrections which may manifest as “crossing out an unnecessary word or phrase, inserting an omitted word, offering a correct form, and/or providing metalinguistic explanation” (111-112). Direct feedback is like spell check because they both indicate that there is an error and offer a solution. Direct WCF could also include metalinguistic information to the writer, which entails providing comments surrounding the essence of the error (Pourdana et al. 4). Scholars define metalinguistic feedback as “providing learners with some form of explicit comment about the nature of the errors they have made” (as cited in Bakri 243). Essentially, metalinguistic feedback provides the writer with an explanation for the correction.

On the other hand, indirect WCF indicates that there is an error in the writing but does not give the actual correction to the student (Karim and Nassaji 521). Ferris and Roberts elaborate on indirect WCF as they explain that “indirect feedback occurs when the teacher indicates in some way that an error exists but does not provide the correction, thus letting the writer know that there is a problem but leaving it to the student to solve it” (163). Evidence indicates that “indirect feedback is sufficient for advanced learners in both composition and language learning classes” (Bitchner 857). By indicating that there is an error in the students’ writing but not providing the exact corrections, teachers are helping to bring attention to a skill the student is weak in and encourages students to develop self-editing and revision skills. However, this kind of feedback is only helpful for intermediate and advanced ELL students because they have already begun to gauge an understanding of the grammatical rules and expectations of English writing. The researcher of the present study opted to have the instructor of the courses implement direct WCF on treatable and untreatable errors as existing research on Generation 1.5 students has indicated that they struggle with Academic English; additionally, the researcher of the present study hypothesized that indirect WCF would not be sufficient for Generation 1.5 students to make the appropriate corrections and did not want to negatively impact the students’ performance in the course by providing indirect WCF.

Furthermore, indirect WCF is not suitable for low proficient writers who do not have the background knowledge to make corrections on their own and will not help students understand untreatable errors. As Evans et al. point out, “students at lower proficiency levels may lack the linguistic awareness to correct the errors that teachers identify in their writing” (449-450). In John Bitchner’s meta-analysis of the research studies surrounding WCF, he found that “direct feedback is more helpful for lower proficiency learners with a more limited linguistic repertoire”

(857). Similarly, researcher Rod Ellis finds that “direct feedback is more useful for beginners, who still need explicit guidance to extend their linguistic repertoire, while indirect feedback is sufficient for advanced learners, who have the capacity to discern errors for themselves” (qtd. in Kang and Han 2). Based on the existing research regarding proficiency and WCF, the researcher of this study decided direct metalinguistic WCF was best suited for Generation 1.5 as they most likely do not have the linguistic repertoire to revise on their own.

In regards to direct and indirect WCF and treatable and untreatable errors, there are conflicting claims amongst scholars surrounding which kind of feedback is best to administer depending on the type of error. Ferris argues that ESL teachers should use a mixture of “strategy training and direct WCF” when providing feedback on untreatable errors (“Error feedback in L2 writing classes” 166). She also found that teachers were more likely to provide indirect WCF on treatable errors and direct WCF on untreatable errors (Ferris, “Error feedback in L2 writing classes” 166). Similarly, Brown asserts in his research, “treatable error category lends itself to an indirect approach because students can reference straightforward rules to self-correct, while untreatable idiosyncratic errors require students to use acquired knowledge to make corrections” (863). The present study employs direct metalinguistic WCF regardless if the error is treatable or untreatable as Generation 1.5 struggles with proficiency and fully grasping the Academic English registrar. While the researcher of the present study acknowledges that there is a hesitancy amongst scholars when providing solely direct WCF to L2 students because of the fear that students may become overly dependent on teacher’s feedback and may feel overwhelmed by the amount of feedback, the demographics of the test subjects led the researcher to make the decision to provide only direct WCF. As previously mentioned, Generation 1.5 is less likely than ESL students to have received additional grammar instruction; thus, they will lack the proper

linguistic background knowledge to fully understand indirect WCF on both treatable and untreatable errors.

2.10 Noticing

Richard Schmidt developed the Noticing Hypothesis which explains the connection between learning and attention in second language acquisition (Dolgunsöz 1). Dolgunsöz explains that the noticing hypothesis is based on the premise that “people learn things they pay attention to and do not learn much about things they do not attend to” (1). In other words, for learning to occur, an individual must notice and give attention to the concept. According to Schmidt, noticing is “the most basic sense of being aware of something” (722). Kim asserts that “noticing is interpreted as the surface level of conscious perception” and Qi and Lapkin define noticing as “the awareness of a stimulus via short-term memory” in which the stimulus is anything that provokes a person’s attention (language output and input) (113; 279). Similar to Qi and Lapkin, Mufanti discusses how noticing and attention are related. He explains that noticing and attention are similar in the sense that they both require awareness (21). He notes that awareness associated with noticing facilitates the learning of language (1332). Mufanti defined noticing as “the process of attending consciously to linguistic features in the input” and noticing strategies as “the way students notice a mismatch or gap between some aspects of language (i.e grammar and content) they produce in essays and the error correction they receive in the form of written corrective feedback” (1332). WCF allows for students, especially Generation 1.5 students who are neither fully proficient in their L1 or L2, to learn language. However, in order for WCF to be a vehicle of language learning, the student receiving the feedback must notice the error and the feedback provided to them.

Scholars discuss the phenomenon of “noticing the gap” in relation to WCF. For instance, Mufanti explains:

Noticing is a device that facilitates the students to analyze the errors on their own based on the feedback they receive. It encourages them to be aware of the gaps and mismatches that exist in their own writing and to reinforce their own strategies, i.e. comparison, connections, analysis, assumptions, inquiry, and so forth to resolve the problems they encounter (27).

As Mufanti explains, students need to give heed to errors that are being identified by the WCF. Students receiving WCF need to acknowledge that there is a gap between what they wrote, which is incorrect or can be improved upon to some capacity, versus the appropriate correction. It is imperative to study how students notice and understand WCF because it is only through noticing that gap between what they have produced in their draft and the appropriate correction that they are able to maximize the benefits of WCF.

Furthermore, scholars have discussed how there are different levels of noticing pertaining to Written Corrective Feedback. Qi and Lapkin make a distinction between substantive and perfunctory noticing (291). They explain that a student demonstrates substantive noticing when he or she is able to “provide reason” for the error; on the other hand, they explain that perfunctory noticing occurs when a student is only able to notice the error but is not able to provide an explanation for the error (Qi and Lapkin 291). The scholars found that when the students substantively noticed the WCF in their think out loud protocols, they were less likely to make the same kind of error in future writing tasks (Qi and Lapkin 295). Felix Ramón further elaborates on the different kinds of noticing of WCF in his research. Inspired by Qi’s and Lapkin’s definitions, he explains that perfunctory noticing consists of detecting “the difference or gap between their own production and target language without giving any reasoning” while

substantive noticing consists of “noticing and understanding through the provision of reasons” (Ramón 157). He elaborates on substantive noticing and explains that students will reflect on their own “language use consciously to deepen their awareness of the relationship among form, meaning and function” (Ramón 157). Ramón asserts that substantive noticing encourages the student to reflect on their language and “deepens their awareness of the relationship among form, meaning and function” (157). Regardless of the type of notice, the very act of detecting a gap between the student’s writing and correction is crucial to processing WCF and is often overlooked by researchers.

Nonetheless, research studies have found that noticing positively impacts L2 students writing. Qi and Lapkin conducted a case study with two ESL Mandarin adults in order to investigate the importance of noticing in second language acquisition (277). They found that substantive noticing is correlated to improvement in L2 writing quality (Qi and Lapkin 277). Without noticing, students are unable to reach deeper cognitive processes such as understanding. A student must notice that there is a discrepancy between the writing they produced in their draft and the correction identified by the WCF. It is only once the student notices this discrepancy that they can attempt to revise their writing errors. However, it is also important to note that Qi and Lapkin also found that the participants who had lower proficiencies struggled in noticing the gap compared to their highly-proficient peers (295). Therefore, noticing is impacted by an individual’s proficiency. As Generation 1.5 students have a complicated relationship with English and proficiency, it is necessary to investigate how this population notices feedback as it may differ from the traditional L2 student.

Many scholars and educators dismiss the importance of noticing as they assume that students automatically notice the gap because they received feedback, especially when it is direct WCF

(Kim 113). Mufanti explains that writing instructors assume that administering WCF on errors will lead to noticing and eventually corrections (19); similarly, Storch and Wigglesworth describe how educators assume that WCF will lead to students noticing their errors and eventually producing accurate revisions (303). However, the study of how students notice WCF should not be dismissed because the way in which a student processes WCF influences their learning and consequently their uptake. Han explains that the purpose of corrective feedback is “to draw students’ attention to gaps between the target language (TL) input and their interlanguage output when in fact, a lot of times, students fail to notice or misinterpret the corrective intent of the teacher” (582). In other words, writing instructors provide feedback to L2 students in hopes that it will alert the student of errors in their writing; however, a basic level of attention and/or noticing needs to be demonstrated by the student before they can compare the error(s) in their draft to the actual correction needed. Additionally, students may notice that there is a gap between the writing they produced and the appropriate correction but misunderstand the WCF, which leads to an ineffective correction. Santos et al. argue that “the processing of feedback can engage learners in actions with potential learning effects, such as noticing” (133). Hence, noticing is a crucial step in processing written corrective feedback, and the present study does not dismiss this level of processing in the students’ reflection responses.

Often overlooked, noticing is important to research because it is a necessary step in order for corrective feedback to have a positive impact on students’ writing and second language acquisition. Researchers have contested if WCF can aid monolingual students in language acquisition and L2 students in language acquisition (Han 582). However, as Santos et al. explain, there has been a shift in the research pertaining to WCF. Instead of focusing on how WCF impacts students’ writing accuracy, researchers are focusing on how WCF can help students

acquire language (131). The importance of noticing in second language acquisition is supported by scholars such as Ellis who explained that without noticing, the acquisition of language is not possible (as cited in Qi and Lapkin 278). Similarly, Hanaoka and Izumi explain that noticing is the determining factor in L2 development (333). As English is typically Generation 1.5 students' second language, it is necessary to investigate how they process WCF as it can lead to significant pedagogical findings for writing instructors.

It is necessary to investigate how students notice WCF because it is a prerequisite for uptake, which is the primary reason why educators administer corrective feedback. Maria Santos et al. measured noticing and uptake of direct and indirect WCF in middle school L2 students (131). They defined uptake "as both the type and the number of accurate revisions incorporated in the participants' revised versions of their original text" (Santos et al. 138). Essentially, uptake is the student's ability to apply the correction suggested by the feedback. Santos et al. found that noticing led to an increase in uptake in the students' writing (131). The present study does not measure uptake, or the lack thereof, in future drafts. However, it is necessary to comprehend that uptake cannot occur without noticing or understanding. As Santos et al. explain, that "positive effects have been found to result from the learner's engagement in deeper processing than just noticing differences between their own writing and the feedback they receive on it at the level of simple detection" (134). As the purpose of the writing instructors' feedback is uptake, it is necessary to investigate how understudied populations such as Generation 1.5 learners process feedback. While the present study does not measure uptake, the researcher thought it necessary to discuss uptake as it highlights the importance of noticing.

2.11 Understanding

While noticing is impactful and necessary for second language acquisition, one cannot dismiss the importance of understanding WCF. Understanding is the “higher level of awareness which allows for experiencing insight, recognizing patterns or rules, and making generalizations across instances” (Schmidt 722). Kim explains that understanding is different from noticing as it requires “a deeper level of conscious processing” (113). Further, Santos et al. explains that “noticing with understanding has more positive effects than noticing without understanding or noticing for no articulated reason” (Santos et al. 138). Similarly, Simard et al. explains “noticing alone does not imply that learners will be able to modify their language system without understanding (i.e. experiencing insights from) the corrective feedback provided to them” (236). Essentially, noticing the feedback or error does not guarantee that the learner understood correctly. As the scholar Han found in her study, students misunderstood their professor’s WCF, which resulted in the persistence of the writing error (592). The students in her study noticed the WCF; however, the students’ L1 interfered with their processing and understanding of the WCF (Han 591). As Generation 1.5 students struggle with their proficiency in their L1 and English, it is necessary to investigate if they too experience L1 interference. Overall, noticing WCF is not substantial enough to create progression in students’ writing (Han 592). Noticing needs to be supplemented with understanding in order for students to maximize the benefits of WCF.

2.12 Existing Research on WCF and Understanding

Research has been conducted pertaining to how L2 populations, such as traditional ESL students, understand WCF. For instance, Simard et al. conducted an experiment that investigated how ESL high school students understood WCF (233). They conducted a study on forty-nine ESL high school students whose first language was French (233). The students were provided

with direct and indirect WCF over the course of a four-month period on narrative and informative essays and were given open-ended questionnaires after each time they received feedback (233). The students reported feeling confused when receiving indirect WCF, which, in turn, led to less verbalization when compared to receiving direct WCF (248). They concluded that direct WCF does not always lead to understanding as the students still made errors and struggled to explain their errors in their verbalizations (248). The scholars claim that WCF improves second language development only if the writer is able to correctly understand the linguistic information behind the corrections (233). While this research is valuable, it may not be generalizable to Generation 1.5; thus, this research study aims to evaluate the dynamic between Generation 1.5 college students and WCF.

Additionally, there has been scholarship done surrounding understanding WCF and low proficiency L2 students. For example, Yao Zheng et al. conducted a case study to investigate how two low proficient Chinese students engaged with WCF (301). They operationalized student engagement by measuring students' behavior, cognitive and emotional responses to WCF (Zheng et al. 305). When measuring their cognitive responses to WCF, the scholars asked questions regarding the students understanding of WCF (Zheng et al. 311). They found that one of the test subjects, Yan, resorted to outside sources, such as asking a friend for help and consulting a grammar book, in order to understand her professor's WCF (Zheng et al. 311). In the interview, the test subject responded that she did not make corrections based on the indirect WCF provided by the teacher because she did not understand it (Zheng et al. 311). However, the student was able to verbalize explanations for her professor's direct WCF (Zheng et al. 312). The scholars claim that her ability to explain the WCF demonstrated "immediate processing of the WCF at the level of understanding" (Zheng et al. 312). The second student in the study, Min, did not

understand indirect WCF pertaining to word choice errors (Zheng et al. 314). Similar to Yan, Min was able to verbalize explanations for errors, such as verb errors and incorrect noun endings, when she received direct WCF (Zheng et al. 314). The scholars asserted that her ability to provide metalinguistic explanations for the errors demonstrated understanding (Zheng et al. 314). Based on the findings of this study, students tend to articulate understanding of errors when they are provided with direct WCF.

However, scholars have also found that understanding does not necessarily translate into appropriate revisions. For instance, Ji Hyun Kim conducted a study in order to investigate how Korean EFL students understood WCF (113). The students were given direct WCF by their professor and were asked to verbally reflect on their understanding of the feedback (Kim 113). Then, the students were later asked to revise the essays they received the feedback on (Kim 116). Kim found that direct WCF did not yield understanding on all errors by L2 students, and he concluded that the quality of understanding influenced the uptake reflected in revision (122). So, while understanding is valuable in terms of WCF, it does not necessarily guarantee that the student will make appropriate revisions.

Nevertheless, investigating how Generation 1.5 students understand WCF is significant because comprehension plays an essential factor in whether feedback leads to improvement in the students' writing. Simard et al. argues "that in order for WCF to lead to L2 improvement, it has to be understood by learners" and describes understanding as an "internal variable" that determines whether any kind of WCF leads to improvement in students writing (233;235). Similarly, Price et al. assert, "feedback can only be effective when the learner understands the feedback and is willing and able to act on it" (279). While the majority of research pertaining to WCF focuses on whether students apply corrections, studies have found that applying WCF to

future drafts is not equivalent to the students' understanding of the feedback, which in turn leads to no long-term improvement in the students' writing development. For instance, Hyland found in her 1998 case study that ESL students apply their teachers' WCF regardless if they understood the reasoning behind their error (263; 272). Simard et al. arrive at a similar conclusion as they state that "a learner's response to feedback does not automatically imply that the comment or correction provided by the teacher was understood" (236). Thus, the current study will add valuable data to the ongoing discourse as the focus of the study will be on how students understand direct WCF specifically on treatable and untreatable errors rather than if they apply corrections. The students' responses in their reflection essays will indicate which aspects of the feedback they understood and which aspects were confusing and hindered their ability to understand the feedback.

Scholars recognize that there is not enough research regarding how L2 learners process WCF (Kim 109). The present research study intends to contribute to limited yet necessary discourse surrounding how L2 students, with an emphasis on Generation 1.5 students, process WCF. It is crucial to investigate how L2 students process WCF because it affects the students' ability to make revisions, which is the goal of WCF. While there is a plethora of vital research done pertaining to which type of feedback leads to revision, educators and scholars also need to know about the cognitive process connected to WCF. Students can make revisions based on the feedback they are given but that does not guarantee that they understood the reason behind the feedback and the error; thus, without understanding, they are prone to make the same writing errors in future writing tasks. Part of the reason why there is a lack of research on the processing of WCF is because it is difficult to "measure internal cognitive processes" (Wigglesworth and Storch 305). While it is difficult to measure cognitive processes such as understanding and

noticing, the present study will use Reflection Essays to gauge how the students processed the WCF.

2.13 Reflection

In Kathleen Blake Yancey's book *Reflection In The Writing Classroom*, she explains that there are various types of reflections (126). For Yancey, reflection is "the process by which we know what we have accomplished and by which we articulate accomplishment" (6). She explains that reflections provide a space for students to review and evaluate their past writing as well as set new goals for themselves (6). As explained in her book, there are different types of reflections: reflection-in-action, constructive reflection, and reflection-in-presentation (13-14). Reflection-in-action "includes those processes of review and revision and hypothesizing within a composing event including all activities that go into a final text," and reflection-in-presentation, which is typically found in portfolios, includes "the process of articulating the relationships between and among the multiple variables of writing and the writer in a specific context for a specific audience, and the associated texts" (13;14). While Yancey defines several types of reflection, the focus for this research study is reflection-in-action and reflection-in-presentation because it allows the researcher to evaluate how the students process feedback during the drafting process and towards the completion of the composition course.

Moreover, Yancey explicates the relationship between reflections and understanding. Reflections are a critical component of learning because "articulating what we have learned for ourselves is a key process in that learning" (7). Being able to correctly write about what one has learned suggests that one has understood the concept. As Yancey states, "we learn to understand ourselves through explaining ourselves to others. To do this, we rely on a reflection that involves a checking against, a confirming, and a balancing of self with others" (11). Following this line of

logic, the researcher of the present study determined the students' noticing and understanding based on their ability to describe what they learned about the error based on the feedback provided to them.

Additionally, reflections allow the student to revisit their writing process with a different perspective. Yancey argues that reflections, specifically reflection in action, are valuable because they "enable us to make sense" (Yancey 187). When one thoroughly reflects, one is able to better understand his/her/their own writing. According to Yancey, when students write about their writing process and experience after completing a writing task, they discover what they learned and what they understood (200). It is upon reflection that students are able to assess their own knowledge of writing and their own writing process. In writing about the feedback, the students will demonstrate noticing as they must have experienced a basic level of attention to address the feedback. Being able to provide a correct written explanation about the error and the feedback demonstrates that the student experienced understanding.

Previous research has been done using Reflections, which in turn is written verbalization, to learn about students' writing processes. For instance, Yang investigated college students' experiences with self-editing and peer reviews through reflection journals (1203). The students engaged in "reflection in action" as the students wrote about their experience writing through the learning process (Yang 1203). This study differs significantly from Yang's as it will focus on how students understand WCF on treatable and untreatable errors and focuses on a different demographic. However, Yang's study and the current study are similar as they both are using reflection as a way to record students' written verbalization to learn about students' writing process and experience with writing.

3 METHODS

3.1 Research Question:

(1) How do Generation 1.5 students verbalize noticing and understanding of treatable and untreatable writing errors when provided with direct WCF?

3.2 Hypothesis:

The researcher of the present study hypothesizes that Generation 1.5 students are more likely to demonstrate an understanding of treatable errors rather than untreatable errors. The researcher believes this will be the case because treatable errors are more manageable to comprehend when compared to untreatable errors. Additionally, the researcher of the present study foresees Generation 1.5 students being able to demonstrate a high frequency of noticing on treatable and untreatable errors because the feedback is direct.

3.3 Methods:

The research study consisted of four parts: demographic surveys, proficiency tests, administration of direct WCF on the first and third drafts of each of the three major essays (Genre Analysis, Visual Rhetoric Essay, and Rhetorical Analysis), and the researcher's analysis of Reflection Essays. The survey was used to gather demographics and to determine who meets the criteria for inclusion in the study. The English proficiency exam was administered to the students who qualified to be part of this study. The data from the proficiency exam helped the researcher gauge a better understanding of the Generation 1.5 students in the study and helps to check for external factors which may have impacted the results of the study. Then, the Reflection Essays were used to evaluate the students' understanding of the WCF on treatable and untreatable errors per their written verbalization.

The present study took place in a classroom setting rather than a laboratory. As Kim discusses in his research, the majority of studies that are conducted pertaining to WCF are done in laboratory settings that focus on particular kinds of errors (114). While controlled laboratory studies add value to the field, they are not reflective of the real environment that educators and students face in a real-world context as educators give feedback on a variety of errors when administering feedback; thus, the generalizability of such laboratory studies is limited. The present study, similar to Kim's study, investigated how students understand WCF in Freshman Composition courses.

First, the students took a survey in order to determine whether they fell into the category of Generation 1.5 and to gather additional demographic information about each student. The surveys were given to the participants after all consent forms had been filled out on the first day of class. The present study used a modified version of Doolan's survey to identify Generation 1.5 students. The survey asked questions regarding the students' first language, location of their K-12 education (the United States or other country), if they were fluent in their parent's/guardian's first language, and whether they classified themselves as a first-generation, second-generation, or Generation 1.5 college students (definitions of each were provided in the survey). Additional questions were supplemented to the questionnaire. For instance, the students were provided with a commonly accepted definition of Generation 1.5 and were asked if they identified as Generation 1.5 based on the definition. The inclusion of this additional question was influenced by the discourse surrounding the issues brought up by Ortmeier-Hooper pertaining to the expansion of the original definition. Furthermore, the students were asked to self-report if they were in ESL classes or labeled as ESL (this question was added to Doolan's existing demographic survey concerning Generation 1.5). However, in the analysis of the data, the ESL

classification will be noted. Based on the results of the survey, only students who were classified as Generation 1.5 were included in the results of the study (survey questions can be found in Appendix A).

The next stage of the study consisted of administering the WCF on drafts during the writing process. The students were given direct WCF on the first and third drafts of each of their major essays (Genre Analysis, Visual Rhetoric Essay, and Rhetorical Analysis). The direct WCF was provided to the students through the online platform TurnItIn by their professor. The researcher requested the professor of the courses to administer direct metalinguistic WCF to the students. As previously mentioned, this decision was influenced by Generation 1.5 students limited proficiency in Academic English. The students had access to the feedback as the professor published it and were able to refer to the feedback as they wrote each of their Reflection Essays.

The students wrote four Reflection Essays, one after each third draft of each major essay and one overall reflection essay at the end of the course. Reflection Essays are built into the course syllabus and are a part of the First-Year Writing Program syllabus. The researcher of the present study decided to use Reflection Essays to measure noticing and understanding because they allowed for the researcher to directly hear from the students. Yancey discusses the importance of the role of students in developing and modifying writing curriculum. Yancey argues that students should be “regarded as a crucial, informed, authoritative source, and some might say as the primary source” (7). With this in mind, Yancey argues that reflections serve as a platform for educators and researchers to learn from students (7). The present study applied Yancey’s logic to WCF research. In order to make advancements in WCF discourse, scholars must directly research students, preferably in a natural setting, as they are the ones who receive

the feedback. The present study used reflections as a method to record students' noticing and understanding of WCF because reflections by nature allow for students to engage in metacognitive thinking about their writing process.

For the purpose of the study, extra questions were added to the existing Reflection Essay prompt to gauge how students noticed and understood WCF on treatable and untreatable errors throughout the course of the semester (the Reflection Essay questions can be found in Appendix B). Inspired by Simard, the present study asks the participants questions about the feedback that they received on their essays. While Simard et al.'s research provided insightful data, their research focused on treatable errors, grammar and orthographical rules (238). The present study was interested in investigating how Generation 1.5 understands and notices feedback on treatable and untreatable errors. The students were asked questions based on the most frequent treatable and untreatable error that occurred in their writing. As previously mentioned, treatable writing errors tend to be grammatical errors such as a missing article or incorrect verb tense, and untreatable writing errors are lexical errors such as sentence structure and word choice (Ferris and Roberts 6). For instance, errors pertaining to content and analysis will be classified as untreatable errors as there is no standard way to revise these errors. On the other hand, errors concerning commas and MLA formatting will be classified as treatable errors as these issues can be revised by referring to handbooks/sets of rules.

Further, the present study employed stimulated recall. Similar to Mackey's experiment on noticing, the current study used stimulated recall in the Reflection-In-Action essays. Stimulated recall is "a technique used to collect learners' introspections about the learning process" (As cited in Saunders 416). Stimulated recall was evident in this study as reflection questions urged students to focus on particular writing errors. The professor who decided to take part in the study

was provided with a list of questions based on the treatable and untreatable writing errors that this study examined. The professor was advised to provide two questions to the students for Reflection Essays 1 through 3: one based on his/her/their most prevalent treatable writing error and his/her/their most prevalent untreatable writing error. The students were asked to explain why the error was needed and what made the feedback easy or difficult to understand. However, in their portfolio reflection essay, stimulated recall was not employed as the students were not given specific questions based on their errors; instead, the students were able to pick any three errors that they received feedback on and were asked to explain why the correction was needed and what made the feedback easy or difficult to understand.

Reflections were used in this study to examine how Generation 1.5 students verbalize their noticing and understanding of written corrective feedback on treatable and untreatable errors. The student's ability to articulate written responses to questions in their reflection essays pertaining to WCF demonstrated to what degree they noticed and understood the feedback. The researcher of the current study determined whether the student noticed, understood, misunderstood, or did not acknowledge specific treatable and untreatable error comments by analyzing the students' Reflection Essays. Prior to looking at the writing sample, the researcher developed and defined the terms listed above. However, the researcher of the study also employed saturation. Saturation can be defined as 'the point in coding when you find that no new codes occur in the data. There are mounting instances of the same codes, but no new ones', and "the point at which 'additional data do not lead to any new emergent themes'" (as cited in Saunders 1894). The researcher of the present study opted to employ saturation as she wanted to create any new codes in the instance that an unforeseen trend was found in the students' Reflection essay. Moreover, In Vivo coding will be the approach the researcher will use to

analyze the reflection essays. In Vivo coding “is a form of qualitative data analysis that places emphasis on the actual spoken words of the participants” (Manning 1). This method of coding will be used because “it helps to highlight how participants from a particular culture or microculture use specific words or phrases in their interactions that might not otherwise be understood when using other forms of coding” (Manning 1). As this study will investigate how Generation 1.5 understand direct WCF on treatable and untreatable errors, In Vivo coding is best suited to analyze the students’ writing in their Reflection Essays because the research focuses on a distinct population, Generation 1.5, and examines how they are able to articulate noticing and understanding through their writing.

The researcher of the current study disagrees with other scholar’s methods pertaining to measuring and coding understanding and noticing. For instance, Kim did not measure noticing; they justified this decision because the students were given direct WCF (116). Researchers should not fall into the misconception that students notice the gap in their writing simply because the feedback they receive is explicit. Therefore, this study will measure noticing regardless of the direct WCF provided to them. Additionally, Kim measured understanding regardless of whether or not the students’ explanations were correct (Kim 116). In the present study, in order for a student to demonstrate understanding, they must be able to accurately articulate their explanation for the error; otherwise, it would be considered misunderstanding. The students’ attempt to explain the error, regardless if it is correct or incorrect, reflects that the student noticed the feedback and the error at a perfunctory level. Thus, in the present study, misunderstanding will be a category when analyzing the students’ writing and noticing will not be assumed to occur because direct WCF is provided.

The current study defines noticing as the students' ability to acknowledge the error in their written reflection. As previously mentioned, there are different types of noticing: perfunctory and substantive. Perfunctory noticing, which is a basic level of awareness that there is a difference between what the writer produced and the appropriate correction, was simply referred to as noticing in this study. For instance, if the student was able to acknowledge and show a basic level of awareness of the error, their response will be categorized as noticing. For further clarification, if the student acknowledges a treatable error such as verb endings and states that they will no longer repeat the error but offer no explanation, it will be classified as noticing. In the example, the student is demonstrating a basic awareness of the feedback and error. However, the student is not specifically explaining why the correction is needed nor how to fix the error.

Then, understanding will be measured by the students' ability to write an explanation for the errors being asked. Demonstration of substantive noticing, which refers to a type of noticing in which one can articulate a correct explanation, will be classified as understanding. As Storch and Wigglesworth argue, substantive noticing should be taken as a sign that students understood why WCF was needed/administered (304). The explanation for why the correction is needed must be correct. An example of understanding may appear like the following: "I needed to switch a comma to a period because I have two separate sentences. Keeping the comma would lead to a Run on." The ability to explain why the correction was needed demonstrates that the student understood the correction. If the student provides an explanation for why the correction is needed but is incorrect, the researcher will classify that students' response as Misunderstood. The student's ability to articulate an explanation even though it is incorrect demonstrates a basic level of perfunctory noticing. For example, if a student explains that a comma splice needs to be corrected because it sounds wrong, it is categorized as misunderstood as the student was not able

to correctly explain why the correction was needed. The student addressed the error (demonstrates noticing) but falls short of reaching understanding because his/her/their explanation is incorrect. Lastly, there is the category of Not Acknowledge. In this instance, the student did not acknowledge the error or the feedback that was asked.

3.4 Recruitment

The students that participated in this study attend a Hispanic serving university in South Texas. Regarding the university's demographics for 2022, 97% of the student population is from Texas, while 3% of the student population are from out of the state or country ("TAMIU's Spring Enrollment"). Further, according to demographic data from 2020, ninety six percent of the undergraduate students at the university identify as Hispanic (Moody). Additionally, the average age for an undergraduate is twenty-one (Moody). Further, the students in this study were enrolled in a summer English 1301 course and fall English 1301 course taught by the same professor. The summer session of 1301 spanned for five weeks, and the students meet with their professor four days out of the week. The fall section of 1301 spanned for sixteen weeks, and the students met with their professor three times a week for fifty-five minutes. The data from these two samples will be analyzed separately and as a whole due to the small sample sizes.

3.5 Demographic Survey and Proficiency Exam

Once the study was granted approval from the Institutional Board of Review (IRB), the investigator gave an overview of the study to the 1301 students during class time¹. Participation for the study was optional, and no extra credit was given to the students who decided to take part in the study. Additionally, the students were given the option to withdraw from the study at any point. After all the necessary documentation such as consent forms were signed and completed,

¹ It is important to note that the following steps were taken with Summer and Fall sections.

the students who chose to participate in the study were given the demographic survey (see Appendix A). The students were given the directions to read the questions carefully and to answer to the best of their abilities. The demographic survey for the study was administered online using the Blackboard survey tool and was untimed. The students were able to revisit questions if they chose to do so.

After the students completed the demographic survey, they were asked to take the EF Set Proficiency exam. The students were provided with the link to the survey and were given headphones for the auditory section of the test. The EF Set is divided into two sections: Reading and Listening. The students were given fifteen minutes to answer ten questions regarding reading comprehension and ten questions regarding listening comprehension. Once the students completed the proficiency test, the data was collected.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Demographic Results

The total number of students in the current study is ten (N=10). Out of the four students in the summer portion of the study, one participant was a female and the other three were males. Out of the six students in the fall portion of the study, three were female and three were male. Students who volunteered to be part of the study and did not complete the necessary Reflection Essays, dropped from the course, were under the age of eighteen, or did not meet this study's definition of Generation 1.5 were excluded from the results.

As mentioned previously, the researcher of the current study added a question to Doolan's Generation 1.5 demographic study (see Methods). The question provided the participants with Roberge et. al's definition of Generation 1.5 and asked them whether they identified as such². Out of the four students in the summer portion of the study, one student (Student E) self-identified as Generation 1.5. In the fall portion of the study, two out of the six students (Student DD and Student GG) self-identified as Generation 1.5 based on Roberge et. al's definition. In sum, three out of the ten or 30% of the students in the entire study self-identified as Generation 1.5 based on the original definition, while most, seven out of ten or 70% did not identify as Generation 1.5. In terms of self-reporting English being their second language (ESL), three out of the four or 75% of the students in the summer portion indicated they considered themselves ESL. In the fall portion of the study, one out of the six or 16.7 % of the students identified as ESL. In total, four out of the ten subjects or 40% of test subjects self-reported as ESL.

² "Generation 1.5" is defined as "English language learners who arrive at the United States at an early age, obtain much or all of their education in U.S. K-12 settings, and arrive in college with various language and literacy patterns that don't fit the traditional 'institutionally constructed' profiles of Developmental Writing, College ESL, or Freshman composition".

In terms of their education, two out of the four students (50%) in the summer portion of the study reported they were in ESL classes at some point in their K-12 education, and one student reported not knowing if he was in ESL classes. In the fall section of the study, one student reported being placed in ESL classes in their K-12 education, and another student reported not knowing if they were in ESL classes. Overall, 30% of the students in this study reported being in ESL classes in their K-12 education. Additionally, all of the students in the summer and fall portion of the study reported receiving ten or more years of their K-12 education in the United States. So, 100% of students in the study received the majority of their K-12 education in the United States. Two out of the four students (50%) in the summer portion and one out of the six (16.7%) students in the fall section of the study reported that this was not their first time taking English 1301. So, 70% of students in the study were taking the course and exposed to the material for the first time.

Upon analysis of the data and as iterated in the methods section previously, the researcher of the current study has adopted another definition of Generation 1.5 by synthesizing other scholars' definitions and criteria for Generation 1.5. The present study set the criteria for Generation 1.5 as: have at least six or more years of education in the United States and coming from a non-English speaking household. Based on this researcher's definition of Generation 1.5, ten students (N=10), four from the summer portion and six from the fall portion meet the qualifications of this population.

4.2 Proficiency Data

The EF Set provides a composite proficiency score and an individual proficiency score for the students' reading and listening skills. If the test taker falls in between 1% to 60%, they are considered to have beginner proficiency ("EF Set Score"). If the test taker falls between the

range of 61% and 85%, they are considered intermediate, and if the test taker falls between the range of 86% and 100%, they are considered advanced (“EF Set Score”).

Generation 1.5 students (N=4) in the summer portion of the study averaged 91 on their overall proficiency score. They averaged a 99 on the listening component and an 83 on the reading component. According to the EF Set score chart, all of the Generation 1.5 students in the summer portion of the study are considered to be advanced in terms of their overall proficiency score. In terms of their reading score, two are considered intermediate, and two are considered advanced. In terms of their listening score, all of the Generation 1.5 students are considered advanced.

The overall proficiency average of Generation 1.5 students in the fall portion (N=6) of the study was 89.3. They averaged a 91 on the listening component and an 87 on the reading component. According to the EF Set Guidelines, two out of the six students are considered intermediate, and four out of six are considered advanced in terms of their reading score. Similarly, two students are considered intermediate and four students advanced in terms of their listening score. It is important to note that it was not the same two students who earned an intermediate level in the reading and listening components. In their overall proficiency score, two Generation 1.5 students are considered intermediate, and the other four are considered advanced.

The average overall proficiency score of all the Generation 1.5 students in the study (N=10) is 90. They averaged an 85.4 in the reading component and a 94.2 in the listening component (see Table 1).

Table 1

Averages for Proficiency Data

Averages for Proficiency Data	
Average on Reading Component	85.4
Average on Listening Component	94.2
Overall Average	90

*4.3 Ratios of Noticing, Understanding, Misunderstanding in Reflection Essay 1***Summer Students**

In terms of the treatable errors in Reflection Essay 1, two (50%) Generation 1.5 did not address the feedback regarding treatable errors; one student (25%) demonstrated noticing, and one (25%) did not submit a Reflection Essay at all. Regarding the untreatable errors, two students demonstrated understanding (50%); one did not address the feedback (25%), and the one (the same) student (25%) did not submit a Reflection Essay. Additionally, three out of the four Generation 1.5 students (75%) in the summer portion addressed feedback on errors that the researcher did not ask.

Fall Students

In regards to the treatable errors in Reflection Essay 1, five out of the six Generation 1.5 students (83%) did not address the feedback. Only one Generation 1.5 student from the fall session (16.7%) demonstrated noticing. Pertaining to the untreatable errors, one student (16.7%) demonstrated misunderstanding; three (60%) did not acknowledge the feedback, and two (33%)

demonstrated perfunctory noticing. Out of the six students, four (66.7%) of them addressed feedback on errors that were not asked of them.

Overall, 70% of Generation 1.5 students did not acknowledge nor address the treatable errors asked of them, and 20% of Generation 1.5 students in the study demonstrated perfunctory noticing (see table 2). Regarding untreatable errors, 20% of the students demonstrated understanding, 10% misunderstanding; 40% of them did not address the feedback, and 20% of them demonstrated perfunctory noticing (see table 3).³

Table 2

Treatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 1

Treatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 1	
Not Acknowledged	70%
Noticed	20%

³ The missing 10% reflects the student who did not submit a Reflection Essay

Table 3

Untreatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 1

Untreatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 1	
Not Acknowledged	40%
Noticed	20%
Understood	20%
Misunderstood	10%

*4.4 Ratios of Noticing, Understanding, Misunderstanding in Reflection Essay 2***Fall Students**

Two out of the six Generation 1.5 students (33.3%) demonstrated understanding on treatable errors. Two out of the six students (33.3%) demonstrated misunderstanding of the feedback on treatable errors, and one out of the six students (16.7%) did not address the treatable error feedback. It is important to note that one out of the six Generation 1.5 students (16.7%) in the study did not turn in a reflection essay.

Pertaining to the untreatable errors, in the fall, three out of the six Generation 1.5 students (50%) did not address the feedback asked of them; two out of the six Generation 1.5 students (33.3%) demonstrated misunderstanding, and the same student as noted prior did not turn in the reflection essay. However, three out of the six Generation 1.5 students (50%) addressed feedback that was not asked of them.

Summer Students

Two out of the four students (50%) demonstrated understanding, while the other two did not address the feedback on treatable errors. In terms of the untreatable errors, two (50%) demonstrated perfunctory noticing, while the other two (50%) demonstrated understanding. Out of the four students in the summer portion, two (50%) explored feedback on errors that were not asked of them by the researcher.

With the summer and fall subjects combined, in regards to the treatable errors, 40% of the students demonstrated understanding; 30% did not address the feedback; 20% demonstrated misunderstanding, and 10% did not turn in the Reflection Essay (see table 4). Pertaining to the untreatable errors, 20% demonstrated understanding; 20% demonstrated perfunctory noticing; 20% demonstrated misunderstanding; 30% of students did not address the feedback asked of them, and 10% did not turn in Reflection Essay 2 (see table 5)⁴.

Table 4

Treatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 2

Treatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 2	
Not Acknowledged	30%
Understood	40%
Misunderstood	20%

⁴ The missing 10% reflects the student who did not submit a Reflection Essay

Table 5

Untreatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 2

Untreatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 2	
Not Acknowledged	30%
Noticed	20%
Understood	20%
Misunderstood	20%

*4.5 Ratios of Noticing, Understanding, Misunderstanding in Reflection Essay 3***Summer Students**

In the summer portion, two Generation 1.5 students (50%) demonstrated understanding; one Generation 1.5 student (25%) demonstrated misunderstanding, and one (25%) did not address the feedback regarding treatable errors. On the untreatable errors, all four Generation 1.5 students demonstrated understanding in their Reflection. Additionally, one out of the four students (25%) explored feedback on an error that was not asked of them.

Fall Students

On the treatable errors, one Generation 1.5 student (16.7%) demonstrated understanding; four (66.7%) did not address the feedback, and one (16.7%) demonstrated misunderstanding. On the untreatable errors, two (33.3%) demonstrated understanding; three (50%) did not address the feedback, and one (16.7%) demonstrated misunderstanding. Four out of the six (66.7%) students explored feedback on errors that were not asked of them.

In sum, 30% of students demonstrated understanding; 20% demonstrated misunderstanding, and 50% of students did not address the feedback regarding treatable errors (see table 6). On untreatable errors, 60% of students demonstrated understanding; 30 did not address feedback; and 10% of students demonstrated misunderstanding (see table 7).

Table 6

Treatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 3

Treatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 3	
Not Acknowledged	50%
Understood	30%
Misunderstood	20%

Table 7

Untreatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 3

Untreatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essay 3	
Not Acknowledged	30%
Understood	60%
Misunderstood	10%

4.6 Composite Averages of Treatable and Untreatable Writing Errors in Reflection-In-Action

The researcher calculated the averages of the students' noticing, understanding, misunderstandings, and not acknowledging responses for the Reflection in Action essays (Reflection Essays 1 through 3). The researcher found that on average, 53.7% of students did not acknowledge the feedback asked of them, 7.4% demonstrated noticing, 24.8% demonstrated

understanding and 14.1% demonstrated misunderstanding of treatable writing errors (see table 8). On the other hand, on average, 35.9% did not acknowledge the feedback asked of them, 14.8% demonstrated noticing, 34.9% demonstrated understanding, and 14.4% demonstrated misunderstanding of untreatable writing errors (see table 9).

There was a 17.8% difference in average in the not acknowledge category with Generation 1.5 students being more likely to not address treatable writing error feedback (see table 10). Then, there was a 7.8% difference in the noticing category with students more likely to notice feedback on untreatable writing errors (see table 10). There was a 10.1% difference among the understanding demonstrated between the treatable and untreatable writing errors with Generation 1.5 students being more likely to demonstrate understanding of untreatable writing errors (see table 10). There was a slight difference, .3%, between the average in the misunderstanding category (see table 10).

Table 8

Averages of Treatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essays 1-3

Averages of Treatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essays 1-3	
Not Acknowledged	53.7%
Noticed	7.4%
Understood	24.8%
Misunderstood	14.1%

Table 9

Averages of Untreatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essays 1-3

Averages of Untreatable Writing Errors for Reflection Essays 1-3	
Not Acknowledged	35.9%
Noticed	14.8%
Understood	34.9%
Misunderstood	14.4%

Table 10

Differences in Averages between Treatable and Untreatable Writing Errors

Differences in Averages between Treatable and Untreatable Writing Errors	
Not Acknowledge	17.8%
Noticed	7.4%
Understood	10.1%
Misunderstood	.3%

4.7 Ratios of Noticing, Understanding, Misunderstanding in Portfolio Reflection

In the final Reflection Essay of the semester, the students were not asked to focus on particular feedback, and they were given the liberty to discuss feedback on any error.

Summer Students

Student A discussed three instances of feedback. Out of the three instances of feedback, two were about untreatable errors. On the untreatable errors, Student A demonstrated noticing in one instance and understanding in the other instance (see fig. 2). In the one treatable error

addressed, the student demonstrated understanding (see fig. 1). Student C discussed eight instances of feedback. Three instances of feedback were on treatable errors. He demonstrated understanding on two of the treatable errors feedback and demonstrated misunderstanding on the feedback regarding on the treatable errors (see fig. 1). Of the five untreatable errors addressed, he demonstrated understanding in two instances (40%), noticing in two instances (40%) and misunderstanding in one instance (20%) (see fig. 2). Student D acknowledged seven different comments. Out of the seven comments, two of them were treatable errors, and he demonstrated noticing in both instances (28.6%) (see fig. 1). Five out of the seven comments pertained to feedback on untreatable errors. Out of the five untreatable error comments, he demonstrated noticing in three instances (60%) and understanding in two instances (28.6%) (see fig. 2). Student E only addressed one comment, and it was pertaining to feedback on an untreatable error. On the one error he addressed, he demonstrated understanding (see fig. 2).

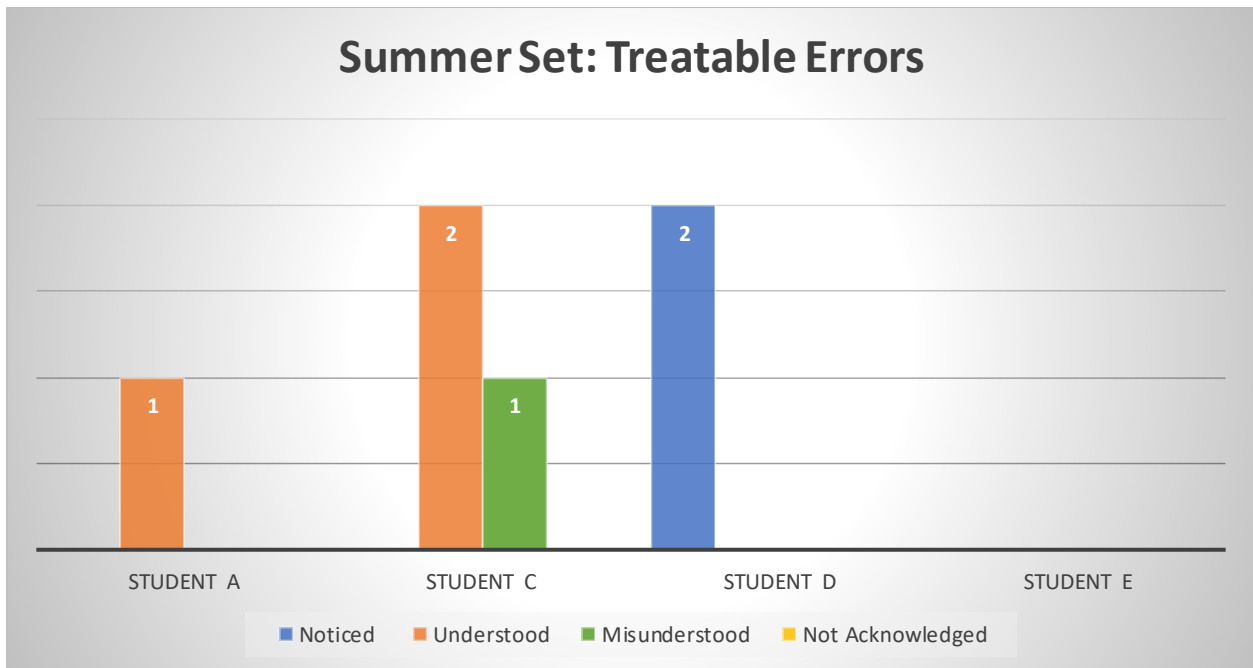


Fig. 1

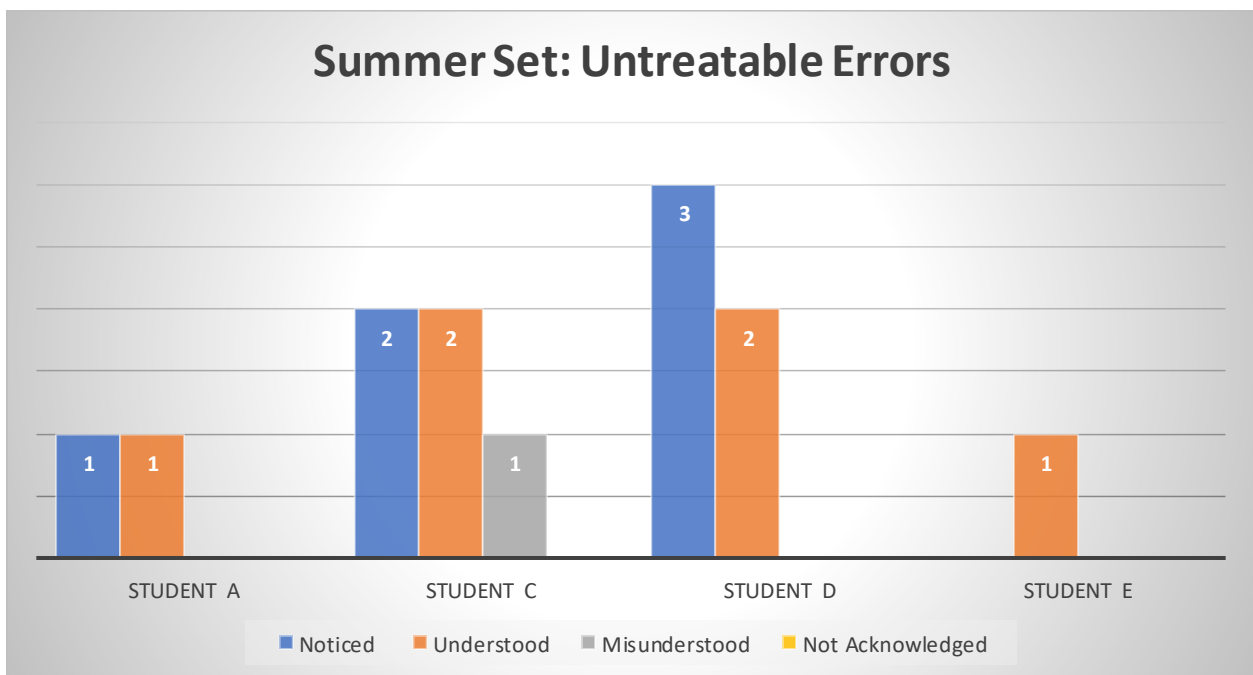
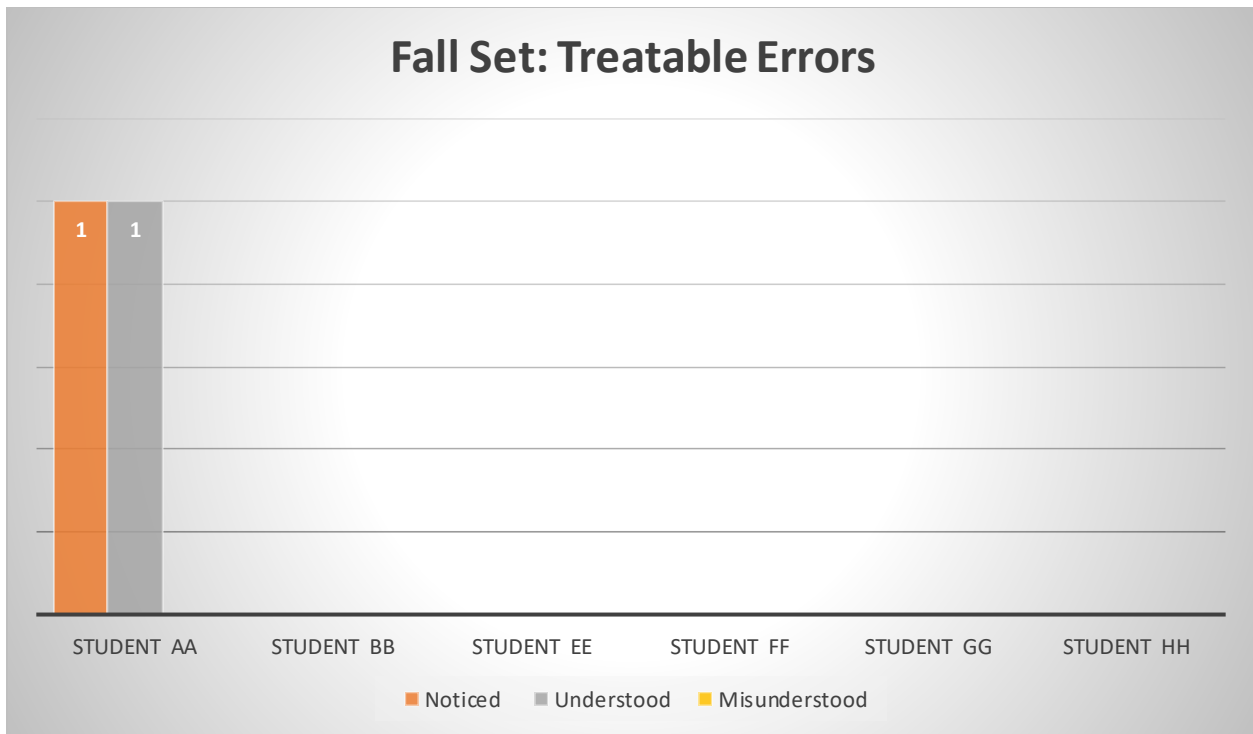
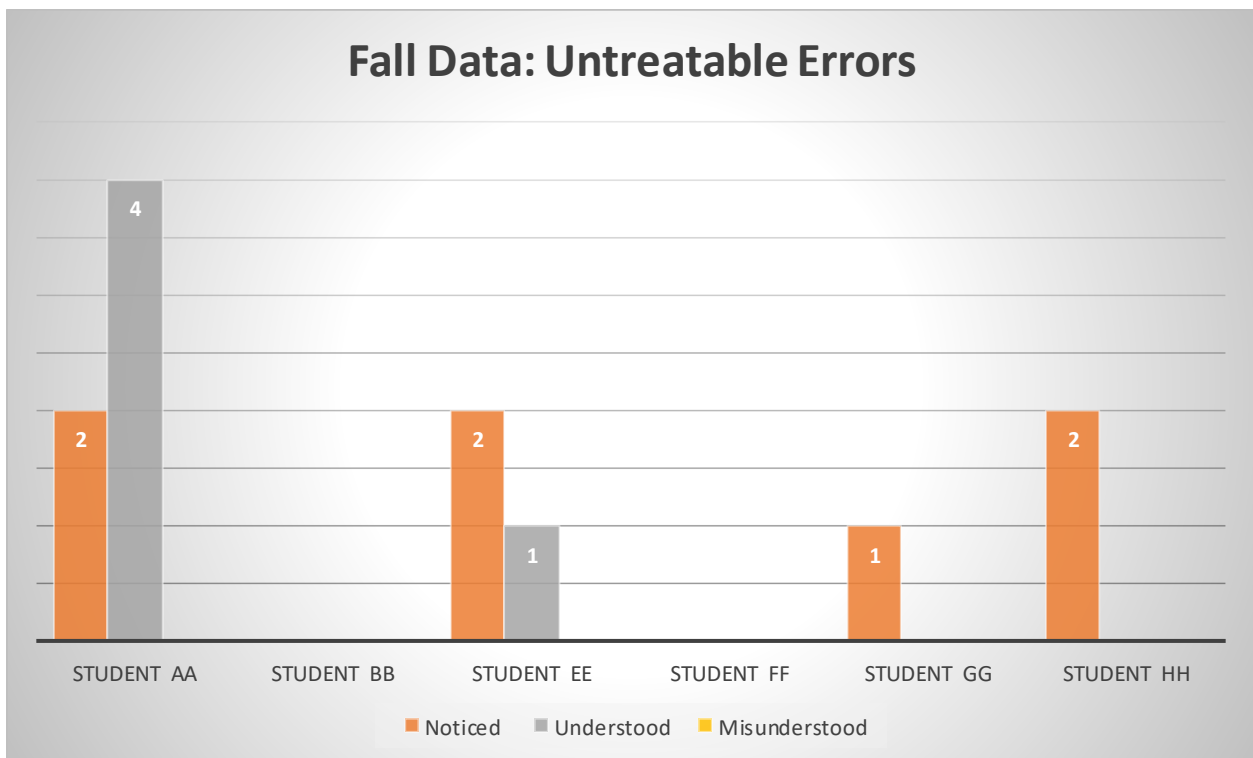


Fig. 2

Fall Students

Student AA explored eight different comments on her final reflection. Out of the eight comments, two were about treatable errors. In one instance (12.5%) she demonstrated understanding, and the other she demonstrated noticing (see fig. 3). Of the six untreatable errors, she demonstrated understanding in four instances (66.7%) and noticing in two instances (33.3%) (see fig. 4). Student BB did not specifically address feedback on a treatable or untreatable error. Instead, she made a broad statement about feedback in general. Since the student did not address a treatable or untreatable error, it was classified as noticing, understanding etc. Student EE decided to address feedback on three errors, and all of them were untreatable errors. She demonstrated understanding in one instance (33%) and noticing in the other two instances (66%) (see fig. 4). Student FF did not address any feedback, and Student GG addressed feedback on one error. The error Student GG decided to address was untreatable, and he demonstrated noticing (see fig. 4). Student HH discussed two different untreatable errors and demonstrated noticing in both instances (see fig. 4).

**Fig. 3****Fig. 4**

5. ANALYSIS

5.1 Explaining the Demographics

The researcher of the current study hypothesizes that the majority of the students in the study did not consider themselves Generation 1.5 because they were born in the United States. Part of Roberge et. al's definition of Generation 1.5 states that the person must have arrived to the United States at an early age. However, the majority of participants in the study reported being born in the United States. For instance, in the summer portion of the current study, all of the students self-reported that they were born in the United States; because they did not meet this criterion, the researcher believes they did not consider themselves Generation 1.5. It is crucial to also keep in mind the location in which the study took place, a border town in South Texas. The majority of the students were born in the United States but were raised in a household that regularly spoke a language other than English. Including a criterion based on the place of birth excludes students such as the ones that participated in this study, even though they meet the other criteria of Generation 1.5 students and demonstrated key characteristics of the population such as being ear learners. The concept of speaking a non-English language at home while obtaining the majority of their K-12 education in the United States seems to be the defining criterion for the population, not the birthplace. To have a criterion based on the place of birth conforms to the assumption that if one is born in the United States, he/she/they must predominately speak English and his/her/their first language is English. The correlation between being born in the United States and predominately speaking English is not applicable, especially in a border town.

In addition, part of the reason why the students may have opted to not self-identify as Generation 1.5 even if they met the criteria provided in the question is because of the stigmas associated with labeling. Students who have been mainstreamed at any point in the K-12 system

show a higher reluctance to identify as an English language learner (Ortmeier-Hooper 392). For instance, one student in Ortmeier-Hooper's study did not identify as ESL even though he did acknowledge that English was his second language (397). She states that "the institutional markers of ESL, ESOL ELL are often rejected by 'Generation 1.5' students who wish to move beyond the status of English language learner and to leave those markers behind mainstream classes, particularly upon arriving at large universities" (Ortmeier-Hooper 410). Similar to some of the subjects in Ortmeier-Hooper's study, students in the present study may have felt the stigma associated with titles such as Generation 1.5 and may have chosen to not self-identify for these reasons. Further, students may have not self-identified as Generation 1.5 because the notion of speaking a language other than English at home while obtaining one's education in the United States is not a novel concept as the majority of residents in the border town experience this. The location of this study highlights the need for fluidity when it comes to establishing a definition for Generation 1.5.

The researcher of the present study suggests that the test subjects' high proficiency scores can be attributed to the following reasons: Generation 1.5 students are ear learners; the proficiency test measured the students' proficiency in standard English rather than academic English; the summer sample of the study may have skewed the data. First, a plausible explanation for the high proficiency can be traced to the notion that this population of students are ear learners and excel auditorily and verbally (Ferris et al. 311; Singhal 2-3). As seen in the results, all of the Generation 1.5 students in the study were considered advanced in the listening component of the proficiency test. Alternatively, the EF Set may have measured the student's proficiency in conversational English, which Generation 1.5 students have been known to be proficient in since they learned English informally (Doolan and Miller 3; Singhal 2; Eckstein

374). Next, the high proficiency of the students could also be partially explained because part of this study was conducted over the course of the summer. Students who usually enroll in summer courses tend to be high-achieving students which could have in turn skewed the results.

Additionally, because students in the summer meet every day from Monday through Thursday, their engagement with the material is more intensive and consistent. They may have not been taking multiple classes simultaneously, leaving them more time to focus on the assignments for the summer course. However, there were only four test subjects in the summer cohort and the test subjects in the fall also demonstrated high proficiency results. Even though the participants demonstrated high proficiency scores, they struggled to demonstrate understanding and noticing of treatable and untreatable writing errors.

The following paragraph explores possible hypotheses for why Generation 1.5 students struggled to articulate understanding and noticing of treatable and untreatable writing errors. As mentioned, the students were asked about their most prevalent treatable and untreatable writing errors. This suggests that these were writing errors that the students struggled with and thus it would be difficult for them to articulate understanding and noticing. Additionally, Reflection-in-Action essays are written as a companion to the major essays. So, this means that as the students write their major essay, they are asked to reflect on their writing. These are freshman college students and for some, this was their first time being exposed to college rigor. The idea of multitasking may have been overwhelming and they neglected their reflection to focus on the major essay. Moreover, Generation 1.5 students struggle with academic English, and metalinguistic information is a form of academic English. The students were essentially asked to reflect upon academic English and asked to articulate that reflection in an academic manner.

Their limited proficiency in this type of English may have impacted them and led to the low frequency of noticing and understanding.

However, it is important to note that the Generation 1.5 students in the study were more likely to articulate verbalizations for untreatable writing errors rather than treatable writing errors, which contradicts the researcher's original hypothesis. The students' tendency to elaborate on untreatable writing errors could be attributed to the fact that the in-class lessons, activities, and homework activities focused more on untreatable writing errors such as topic sentences, thesis statements, organization rather than treatable writing errors. Because the students had lessons and essentially explanations for these kinds of errors, they were more likely to demonstrate understanding.

An alternative explanation for why students did not articulate noticing and understanding of treatable writing errors is that these students are not familiar with grammar due to their lack of placement in ESL classes throughout their K-12 education. As mentioned in the results portion, only three students reported being in ESL classes at one point in their K-12 education. Because Generation 1.5 students are not likely to be placed in ESL classes, they have a weaker understanding of treatable writing errors. As Singhal explains:

For the most part, Generation 1.5 students are not familiar with parts of speech while ESL students are because of their experience in ESL courses and with grammar texts.

This becomes important when providing oral or written feedback as many students may not fully understand the kinds of revisions they are being asked to make (3).

The students may have not been able to understand the metalinguistic information pertaining to treatable writing errors because of the lack of supplemental grammar support in their K-12 education. The scholars Su Li and Pengjing Li concluded in their research that "when the

treatable errors go beyond the students' present Zone Proximal Development, they become untreatable ones" (43). Since the majority of students were not in ESL classes, they did not have the linguistic repertoire to understand and notice the gap in their writing, leading treatable writing errors to become untreatable ones.

The tendency to not address treatable writing errors and their feedback was emphasized by the results in the Portfolio Reflection. When Generation 1.5 students were not prompted by the researcher's question to focus on particular feedback or errors, the students often did not address treatable writing errors. However, it is important to keep in mind that Portfolio Reflections are part of their Final Exam, and students may have been overwhelmed with finals in other courses and neglected this assignment. Further, the students may have focused on revision, another portion of their portfolio, and left their reflection towards the last minute. However, it is possible that the students were able to make revisions based on the feedback given to them by the professor but simply were unable to articulate their noticing and or understanding of the feedback through their writing.

Furthermore, the phenomenon of highly proficient students struggling to articulate understanding and noticing is evident in WCF discourse. For instance, Restu Mufanti conducted research on high proficiency students' noticing strategies. Based on his interviews with the students, he concluded that high proficiency students actively attempt to understand the WCF, try to avoid making the same errors after receiving feedback, and rely on previously learned information as they try to make corrections (23). However, even highly proficient students struggle to identify content errors, such as topic sentences, based on indirect WCF (Mufanti 26). As Mufanti's study demonstrated, even highly proficient L2 students struggle to notice and revise content errors when given indirect feedback (26). In the current study, the majority of

Generation 1.5 students were considered highly proficient, yet the Generation 1.5 students in the fall and summer portions of the study struggled to articulate their understanding and to demonstrate noticing of direct WCF when they were not prompted by the researcher's questions. Similar to Simard et al., this study found that direct WCF does not guarantee that students will articulate understanding or noticing of errors (248). The results from this study also show that high proficiency does not assure that students will understand or even demonstrate a basic level of noticing on the direct feedback that is given to them.

In another study, Mufanti investigated the noticing strategies of low proficient students when provided with indirect WCF pertaining to content and grammar errors (1332). Through interviews and analyzing the students' drafts, Mufanti found that low proficiency students struggled to notice errors on indirect WCF, avoided making corrections, and resorted to using simpler words and sentence structures rather than making the appropriate correction (1332). One of the students in his study noticed that there was an error based on the indirect WCF but did not know how to revise it (Mufanti 1333). The student attempted to revise the sentence by rephrasing the whole sentence (Mufanti 1333). In the present study, highly proficient Generation 1.5 students struggled to articulate their noticing of feedback on treatable and untreatable errors. Likewise, often, when the students attempted to demonstrate their understanding of feedback on an error assigned to them, they deviated from the assigned error. For instance, Student E, with a proficiency of 92 on the EF set, explains that he is going to discuss a comment pertaining to breaking up the paragraph but proceeds to address a comment pertaining to evidence. He explains that "the correction was needed because my evidence for the third paragraph did not include anything from the subreddit itself. It was easy to understand because it was direct and told me what I should have done instead of merely what I did not do." Since the explanation and

the error do not align, misunderstanding is being demonstrated. However, the student's explanation for the error he addressed reveals that he needed feedback to direct him to make the appropriate revision. It can be inferred that without direct instruction, the student would have not been able to make the revision. Unsolicited by the researcher, Student E discussed a comment pertaining to the content of the conclusion, which is considered to be an untreatable error. Student E demonstrates noticing as he is unable to explain the need for revision in the conclusion. He states he is "still confused in how I am supposed to answer these questions without interrupting the flow of my paper" after receiving the feedback and requesting further examples in the feedback. Similar to Mufanti's low proficient student, Student E demonstrates in his reflection that he does not know how to go about making the appropriate correction even with direct feedback.

A pattern that was detected among the writing samples was that the students tended to address feedback on an error that they were not asked. In Reflection Essay 1, seven out of the ten students or 70% demonstrated noticing or understanding of errors that were not asked (three in the summer and four in the fall). In Reflection Essay 2, five out of the ten students or 50% of the students demonstrated noticing or understanding of errors that were not asked (two in the summer and three in the fall). In Reflection Essay 3, five out of the ten students, or 50% of students demonstrated noticing or understanding of errors that were not asked (one in the summer and four in the fall). For instance, in the first Reflection Essay, Student AA was asked to address the untreatable error of "Reveal not Summarize" and the treatable error of "Use of word That." The student did not address the treatable error. However, the student did write about two other comments that were given to her. The student demonstrates noticing of feedback given to her pertaining to the use of the pronoun you. She acknowledges this error without being

explicitly asked to acknowledge it by the researcher. However, she is unable to articulate an explanation for why she should not use the pronoun you in her writing. She simply states “I realized my mistake...I will not do it again.”

One possible explanation for the trend outlined above is that the students did not know how to articulate written explanations for the error the researcher asked of them. However, they wanted to demonstrate that they could explain the reasoning behind errors that they felt familiar with or had a better understanding of. This may have also occurred because the students did not read the prompt carefully. This may also correlate with their lower proficiency scores in terms of their reading. Since they scored lower in the reading component of the proficiency test, it is possible that they did not understand the comment given to them. However, the high frequency of this behavior in the writing samples leads the scholar to believe that the students wanted to demonstrate to their professor their understanding of errors they felt confident articulating through their writing.

Another trend that was found in the data was the students requesting more explicit feedback from their professor despite receiving direct metalinguistic feedback. Out of all the students in the study, six students or 60% requested for their professor provided more feedback. The students wanted to be provided with more examples from their professor in order to make more corrections on their own. However, research shows that “students’ reactions to teacher feedback has found that L2 learners of low proficiency are most vulnerable and can easily be discouraged by teacher feedback that points out a large number of weaknesses in their writing” (as cited in Lee 379). Despite the request for more feedback, research shows that students feel overwhelmed by a vast number of comments. The researcher hypothesizes that the students are requesting more feedback that is understandable rather than more feedback in general. As mentioned earlier,

Generation 1.5 students struggle in terms of their proficiency in Academic English; it is plausible that the metalinguistic component of the direct WCF was too advanced and left them desiring more feedback that was understandable.

5.2 Limitations

There are various limiting factors that the author of the present study would like to address. First, the proficiency test that was administered to the students only measured their proficiency in reading and listening. Moving forward, the scholar would like to administer proficiency tests that also measure the students' writing capabilities. Next, the scholar wants to acknowledge that the students may have resorted to tutoring sources offered by the University at which the study was conducted. The students may have gone to the writing center at the University, and they may have addressed or explained the feedback given to them by their professor. Similarly, the students were allowed to meet with their professor during her office hours in which she may have reviewed her feedback with them. Consulting with the university writing center and one-on-one meetings with the professor may have impacted the students' noticing and understanding of the feedback given to them. The students were not discouraged from attending supplemental tutoring from the writing center or their professor as the researcher did not want to hinder the students' learning and performance in the class overall. Moving forward, the author of the current study would like to take into consideration these factors and gather more data on whether students resorted to supplemental aides in future studies and how that supplemental instruction aided in their understanding of treatable and untreatable errors.

Another thing to take into consideration is that the sample of the present study was small as there was a total of ten students. The researcher proceeds with caution as the results from this study's sample of Generation 1.5 may not be generalizable to all Generation 1.5 students. The

population of Generation 1.5 students in this study attend a university in the United States along the Mexico/US border. The location of the study differs as the majority of other studies conducted pertaining to Generation 1.5 students are conducted in Midwestern universities.

Additionally, the scholar would like to expand upon this research in the future. Other scholars such as Mackey explain the importance of using triangular methods when conducting research pertaining to noticing and self-reporting (as cited in Saunders). In future studies, the researcher would also like to compare the articulations the students write in their reflections to the actual corrections, also known as uptake, made in the final drafts of their papers. Future studies may include interviews with the test subjects to gauge a better understanding of the students' processing of WCF. Furthermore, the researcher would like to pursue how Generation 1.5 students process other kinds of WCF such as focused WCF.

6. CONCLUSION

Despite the common assumption that direct Written Corrective Feedback will automatically be noticed by students, this study found that students, specifically Generation 1.5 students, struggle to notice and understand direct WCF on treatable and untreatable errors even when prompted by the researcher's questions. Even though the students in the study demonstrated advanced proficiency as measured per the EF Set, they struggled to demonstrate noticing and articulate their understanding of direct feedback on treatable and untreatable errors. Students even struggled to articulate their understanding of praise comments. Although this study only focused on feedback on treatable and untreatable errors, some Generation 1.5 students decided to explore praise comments. For instance, in Reflection Essay 2 in the fall portion, Student CC discusses a comment that was not asked of him, specifically a comment of praise left by the professor. The student's discussion of a comment that was not asked of him demonstrates noticing.

However, the student is not able to demonstrate understanding of the praise comment; he requests that the professor explains to him why he has been left with a praise comment so that he may reproduce that behavior in future writing. Student CC states:

While it is regarding my correct way of doing a good analysis, it does not provide information or details that I can work with to learn what I did right in that paragraph. It could be common sense to know what I did right by just looking back at my essay, but I rather hear from your own words what I did to make you think that of me.

The student's lack of explanation for the comment exposes how students struggle to understand various types of feedback. Even when the student is praised, the student is unsure of what he did in his writing to warrant that praise. Without an explanation from the professor, Student CC

could not figure it out on his own, meaning that he did not understand the written praise comments. Further, Student CC seems to want an explanation from the professor so he could repeat this writing behavior in the future. Student CC's reaction is reminiscent of another highly proficient Generation 1.5 student in Mufanti's study who expressed that she referred to past feedback to guide her revisions (26). Overall, it is critical for scholars and writing instructors to acknowledge that even explicit direct feedback will not guarantee that students will notice or understand the error(s) in their writing; thus, these instructors must find ways in which they can increase the noticing and understanding of WCF.

As previously discussed, without noticing, there will be a slimmer chance of understanding and consequently, a decreased likelihood of experiencing uptake. A way in which educators can increase noticing and in turn understanding of WCF is to create activities in which the student must engage with the feedback. As the results of the current study show, when the students were asked to demonstrate understanding or noticing of feedback on any error of their choosing rather than the researcher prompting them to focus on feedback of a particular writing error, they tended to not notice the feedback. Thus, the students need to be guided and possibly prompted by their instructors to reflect on specific errors to help increase their noticing and possibly their understanding. Ferris and Roberts come to a similar conclusion as they explain "it is possible that using a consistent system of marking and coding errors throughout a writing class, paired with mini-lessons which build students' knowledge base about the error types being marked, might yield more long-term growth in student accuracy than simply underlining or highlighting errors" (177). Additionally, the instructor may take a portion of their class time to explain the most common feedback given on a draft of the essay. An explanation of feedback on

the most frequent errors can help them to better understand the feedback which may lead to appropriate revisions.

Because of the lack of noticing and understanding of feedback from the Generation 1.5 students in this study, it is understandable that some readers may come to the conclusion that WCF is ineffective and not worth the time and effort of writing instructors. The adverse reaction to the administration of feedback is not a novel concept as scholars such as John Truscott have questioned the purpose of providing WCF in his monumental article (345). However, the writer of the present research discourages the readers from adopting this conclusion. The students were asked questions about feedback on their most prevalent treatable and untreatable errors in their writing; in other words, the students were asked to reflect on the errors that they struggled with the most in their writing. Instead of disregarding the administration of feedback altogether, the writer of the current research suggests that writing instructors, especially those who serve Generation 1.5 student populations, should consider administering feedback verbally. Previous research has established that Generation 1.5 pupils are ear learners, and the Generation 1.5 participants in this study demonstrated high listening proficiencies; providing feedback verbally may help Generation 1.5 pupils understand the feedback because their proficiency is highest in the listening component. With platforms such as TurnItIn providing an audio function for providing feedback, instructors should consider utilizing these functions to meet the needs of this unique population.

Given the results of this study, the researcher calls for a more inclusive definition of Generation 1.5. The researcher acknowledges the counter-argument of scholars who are reluctant towards the expansion of the definition. As Schwartz explains:

The term “Generation 1.5” has been used to describe a broad range of students (e.g. those who left their home countries prior to any schooling, those who were born here but live in ethnic enclaves, and sometimes it is even used to describe second-generation students), even though Rumbaut and Ima originally defined the term to include only those students who were not born in the U.S. but who have received at least the latter years of their secondary schooling here in the states (3).

However, with the changing times and evolving college student demographics, the definitions of Generation 1.5 need to be more inclusive and not contain a criterion pertaining to the birthplace of an individual. Placing a criterion regarding birthplace leads to an exclusion of students such as the ones who participated in the study despite meeting the other criteria and demonstrating characteristics of Generation 1.5 students. In today’s age, college students come from diverse backgrounds, and institutions and educators need to meet the needs of these generations of students who neither abides by the norms of a monolingual nor traditional ESL college student.

For years writing instructors have provided feedback to their students’ writing using WCF, and they will most likely continue to in the future. Instructors, especially those who serve Generation 1.5 student populations, cannot dismiss the importance of noticing, understanding, and processing feedback. The present research contributes information to a topic that needs further research. It is eminent that Generation 1.5 students continue to be distinguished in research because they are unique from monolingual and traditional L2 students. Ignoring the population leads to students like Guálinto/George in the novel being at a disadvantage when compared to their peers. The researcher of the present study hopes that this population of students, while caught between two cultures, does not get lost in academic discourse.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Demographic Survey

1. How old are you?

17 or Younger 18-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40-49 Over 50

2. Were your parents born in the US?

Yes No

3. Were you born in the US?

Yes No

4. If you were born in another country, how long have you been living in the United States?

Less than 5 years 5-10 years 10-15 years Over 15 years

5. With your family (or in the house where you spent most of your childhood), do/did you regularly speak a language other than English?

Yes No (If no, skip to question # 7)

If yes, what language? _____

6. In this language other than English, how many years of formal (school) education have you had?

None 1-3 years 3-5 years 5-8 years More than 8

7. Outside of the home, what percentage of your day do you use this non-English language?

5-15% 15-30% 30-50% 50-75% 75-95%

8. How old were you when you started learning English?

1-3 years old 3-5 years old 5-8 years old 8-16 years old 17 years+

9. How many years of formal (school) education have you received in the United States?

1-3 years 3-5 years 5-10 years More than 10

10. Did you graduate from high school in the US?

11. How would you describe your speaking and listening abilities in the non-English language listed above?

Very limited Weak Good Very Good Excellent

12. How would you describe your reading and writing abilities in the non-English language listed above?

Very limited Weak Good Very Good Excellent

Appendix A: Demographic Survey (Cont.)

13. How would you describe your speaking and listening abilities in English?

Very limited Weak Good Very Good Excellent

14. How would you describe your reading and writing abilities in English?

Very limited Weak Good Very Good Excellent

15. How would you describe your proficiency in your parent's or guardian's first language?

Very limited Weak Good Very Good Excellent

16. "Generation 1.5" is defined as "English language learners who arrive at the United States at an early age, obtain much or all of their education in U.S. K-12 settings, and arrive in college with various language and literacy patterns that don't fit the traditional 'institutionally constructed' profiles of Developmental Writing, College ESL, or Freshman composition." Based on this definition, do you consider yourself to be a member of Generation 1.5?

Yes No

17. ESL, which is an acronym for English as a Second Language, refers to an overarching term used to classify students whose second language is English. Based on this definition, do you consider yourself to be ESL?

Yes No

18. Were you labeled as an ESL student at any point in your K-12 education?

Yes No I don't know

19. Were you in ESL classes at any point in your K-12 education?

Yes No I don't know

20. Is this your first time being enrolled in English 1301?

- Yes, this is my first time taking English 1301
- No, this is not my first time taking English 1301

I was granted permission by Doolan and Miller to use this Generation 1.5 survey. A few additional questions were added to the original version of the survey.

Appendix B- Reflection Questions

I. Treatable Errors Questions

- (1) Pick one of the professor's subject-verb agreement comments from the essay that you understood. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: In your own words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?
- (2) Pick one of the professor's subject-verb agreement comments from the essay that you did not understand. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: Why did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand? What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?
- (3) Pick one of the professor's run-on comments from the essay that you understood. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: In your own words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?
- (4) Pick one of the professor's run-on comments from the essay that you did not understand. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: Why did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand? What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?
- (5) Pick one of the professor's "missing article" comments from the essay that you understood. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: In your own words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?
- (6) Pick one of the professor's "missing article" comments from the essay that you did not understand. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: Why

Appendix B- Reflection Questions (Cont.)

did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand?

What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?

(7) Pick one of the professor's "verb form error" comments from the essay that you understood.

Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: In your own words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?

(8) Pick one of the professor's "verb form error" comments from the essay that you did not

understand. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: Why did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand?

What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?

(9) Pick one of the professor's MLA comments from the essay that you understood. Provide the

comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: In your own words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?

(10) Pick one of the professor's MLA comments from the essay that you did not understand.

Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: Why did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand? What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?

II. Untreatable Error Questions

(1) Pick one of the professor's sentence structure comments from the essay that you understood.

Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: In your own words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?

Appendix B- Reflection Questions (Cont.)

(2) Pick one of the professor's sentence structure comments from the essay that you did not understand. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: Why did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand? What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?

(3) Pick one of the professor's "missing word" comments from the essay that you understood. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: In your own words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?

(4) Pick one of the professor's "missing word" comments from the essay that you did not understand. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: Why did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand? What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?

(5) Pick one of the professor's unnecessary word(s) comments from the essay that you understood. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: In your own words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?

(6) Pick one of the professor's unnecessary word(s) comments from the essay that you did not understand. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: Why did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand? What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?

(7) Pick one of the professor's word order comments from the essay that you understood. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: In your own

Appendix B- Reflection Questions (Cont.)

words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?

(8) Pick one of the professor's word order comments from the essay that you did not understand. Provide the comment in your response. Then answer the following questions: Why did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand? What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?

III. Final Reflection Essay Questions

(1) Pick any 3 of your professor's comments that you understood. Provide the 3 comments in your response. Then answer the following questions for each of the comments: In your own words, explain why the correction was needed. Why did you understand the correction? What made the comment clear or easy to understand?

(2) Pick any 3 of your professor's comments that you did not understand. Provide the 3 comments in your response. Then answer the following questions for each of the comments: Why did you not understand the correction? What part of the feedback was difficult to understand? What was unclear? What could your professor do to improve your understanding?

VITA

Melissa Bustamante obtained her Bachelor of Arts degree in English and Psychology at Texas A&M International University in the Fall of 2020. She continued to pursue her Master of Arts degree in English at Texas A&M International University and completed the degree in the Spring of 2023. During the composition of her thesis, Bustamante was part of the First Year Writing Program at Texas A&M International University where she taught English 1301 and English 1302. An abbreviated version of her thesis was presented at the 2023 College English Association (CEA) conference.