9-1-2021

Critical Language Awareness in the Multilingual Writing Classroom: A Self-Study of Teacher Feedback Practices

Emma R. Britton
University of Massachusetts Amherst

CRITICAL LANGUAGE AWARENESS IN THE MULTILINGUAL WRITING CLASSROOM: A SELF-STUDY OF TEACHER FEEDBACK PRACTICES

A Dissertation Presented

by

EMMA R. BRITTON

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

September 2021

College of Education
Language, Literacy and Culture

CRITICAL LANGUAGE AWARENESS IN THE MULTILINGUAL WRITING CLASSROOM: A SELF-STUDY OF TEACHER FEEDBACK PRACTICES

A Dissertation Presented

by

EMMA R. BRITTON

Approved as to style and content by:

_____
Theresa Y. Austin, Chair

_____
Maria José Botelho, Member

_____
Rebecca Lorimer Leonard, Member

_____
Ezekiel Kimball
Associate Dean of Academic Affairs
College of Education

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my students. You inspire inquiry into my teaching.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

While dissertation writing may seem like a solo endeavor, there are so many people who have made this work possible. Firstly, I would like to thank all the students attending ENG 101 during the 2018-2019 academic year. Witnessing their participation in the course and the development of their writing, I have gained much energy and inspiration to continue this project. I would especially like to thank the six focal participants in this study: Ai, Dulari, Hemant, Vanessa, Wang, and Yubi. These students generously spent time in interviews with me to discuss their writing and their course experiences. Their writing, stories, voices, and perspectives most fueled and propelled my pedagogical inquiries.

I thank all my dissertation committee members, who have each contributed in different and important ways. My advisor and dissertation chair, Dr. Theresa Austin, has pushed and challenged me to think in new and critical ways throughout my six years of study. I honestly could not imagine what this dissertation would look like without her influence and her probing mindset. Her courses sparked my interest in critical linguistics, and I gained endless possibilities for pursuing critical qualitative inquiries and data analysis procedures while participating. From her advising, I gained the courage to embrace the vulnerabilities of a self-study research design, and the strength to defend this design amidst skeptical reviewers of my work. Dr. Maria José Botelho, I especially thank for all the words of wisdom she shared in her academic writing courses. From these courses, I figured out how to embrace the messiness of the writing process, and I gained self-esteem to submit my work for publication. I will not forget our long car rides back and forth from Amherst to Toronto to attend the AERA conference in 2019. During these rides, Dr. Botelho offered me many helpful citations and expressed value in my work. Dr. Rebecca Lorimer Leonard has been my guide to the field of rhetoric and writing studies. She has pointed me in the right direction with article databases, journals, and conferences of interest. She has been a generous collaborator and careful reviewer of my work, and an important coach for all matters related to academic job searches.

I thank faculty and staff both inside and outside of the College of Education at UMass Amherst. Dr. Marialuisa Di Stefano has been a supportive mentor for me during the later stages of my dissertation project. She has helped me to envision next steps in my career, and she has given me the encouragement to continue on an academic track. Dr. Anne Bello has been a constant source of support and inspiration. We have had many great conversations about writing pedagogy and assessment, and she has shared many useful citations with me over the years. I appreciate Dr. Denise Ives, who was a supportive reader of my work during her course on Discourse Analysis, and who I have long admired as an ally for all graduate students. Dr. Laura Valdiviezo I especially thank for first introducing me to the LLC community and supporting me during my first years of study. Dr. Donal Carbaugh I thank for his expertise in the ethnography of communication. His communication course on cultural discourse demystified qualitative data analysis for me.

There are a number of professional organizations both inside and outside of UMass Amherst that have provided important mentoring and coaching to me. I am especially grateful to the Office of Professional Development through the UMass Graduate School, which has offered a number of helpful workshops on career and academic development. I especially appreciated the summer 2019 dissertation writing retreat, hosted by Kelin Loe and Johanna Frances Yunker. Through their guidance, I have gained new strategies to organize my schedule and improve my writing habits. I also am grateful for the one-on-one mentoring and group workshop opportunities provided for graduate students through the American Education Research Association. The Qualitative Research SIG and Writing and Literacies SIG have both provided me with wonderful opportunities to meet and learn from mentors and established scholars. The Modern Language Association has provided important opportunities to network with graduate students in the humanities and learn about different career pathways.

I would be amiss not to express my gratitude for all those who have reviewed my scholarship outside of the UMass Amherst community. These include the anonymous reviewers

for conference and journal papers, as well as several journal editors. These reviewers have all taken time and care to read my work critically and offer productive suggestions for improvements. Their comments have often provoked new insights and led me to new ways of thinking about my work, which are represented in the pages that follow.

I thank the many LLC peers who have helped and supported me over the years. Dr. Rosa Medina Riveros has long been a beacon and "go to" support for all LLC students. I have gained great inspiration from Dr. Roehl Sybing for his ambitious drive and work ethic. Dr. Mukkarin Wirojchoochut has been a great resource for all administrative matters in the department. I offer especial thanks to the three continuous members of my LLC doctoral writing group: Heonsook Cho, Hengyi Liu, and Xinyue Zuo. For years, these three have been enthusiastic readers of my work. As they have read many of the pages to follow, these three have helped to me to build confidence and persistence as a writer. During our biweekly meetings, their continuous companionship, food, and encouragement has transformed my doctoral journey from a solitary endeavor into a social and collaborative endeavor. As I have followed their progress, I have shared many moments of joy and celebration, and I have found friends to commiserate with in moments of challenge.

Finally, I would like to thank my friends and family outside of the LLC community for their nourishment. Through various excursions, travels, holidays, and diversions, my friends and family have helped me to find a healthy balance between my studies and maintain a distinctive life outside of it. Lastly, and most importantly of all, I thank my husband, Dr. Hamid Razifard. He first planted the seed in my mind to pursue doctoral studies. Since then, he has constantly supported and provided guidance on my academic and career choices. He has made many sacrifices on my behalf, encouraging me to publish and to have higher academic aspirations than I could ever envision for myself. Together, with the companionship of our cat, Gülly, we have weathered the hardest moments of the pandemic and found peace and productivity.

ABSTRACT

CRITICAL LANGUAGE AWARENESS IN THE MULTILINGUAL WRITING CLASSROOM: A SELF-STUDY OF TEACHER FEEDBACK PRACTICES

SEPTEMBER 2021

EMMA R. BRITTON

B.A., CLARK UNIVERSITY

M.A.T., CLARK UNIVERSITY

Ph.D., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

Directed by: Professor Theresa Y. Austin

Despite the increasing amount of ethnolinguistic diversity in US schools and universities, traditional approaches to university writing instruction continue to advance the teaching of standard written American English (SWAE) from uncritical ideological standpoints (Bommarito & Cooney, 2016). To disrupt the naturalization of monolingual and standard language ideologies, existing scholarship shows the potential of critical language awareness (CLA), as a pedagogical approach which aims to develop students' awareness of the relationships between languages, language varieties, language ideologies, power, and social inequities, alongside the teaching of SWAE (Fairclough, 1992). Because the production of student texts is central to a CLA pedagogy (Gilyard, 2000), this approach is ideally applied in the composition classroom. While existing scholarship offers writing instructors directions for fostering CLA among students, Alim (2010) cautions scholars that a CLA pedagogy has the potential to become over-theorized in the literature and under-applied in the classroom.

This dissertation responds to the call for the application of CLA, through a self-study focusing on interactions between myself, as one writing teacher, and my students. My self-study examines the nature of a CLA pedagogy within a university developmental writing context, particularly through my provision of oral and written feedback. While existing studies of teacher feedback in the field of L2 writing have devoted more attention to localized feedback (i.e. matters

of grammar and mechanics) than content-oriented feedback (i.e. matters of idea development, organization, argument; Belcher, 2012), as the instructor I provided CLA informed activities such that the students (most of whom were L2 writers) received both localized and content-oriented feedback on their writing. I examine how five focal students responded to CLA-informed instruction. Through textual analysis of my feedback and student writing samples, I analyze the textual characteristics of students' responses to feedback, especially the ideological stances that the students communicated in their written responses to feedback. Through critical discourse and narrative analysis (Fairclough, 1989; Souto-Manning, 2014) of interview transcripts with the focal participants, I also analyze the perceptions, language ideologies, and prior language socialization experiences that the students articulated in relation to feedback and critical language curriculum.

Bolstering my own pedagogical practices through a CLA framework, I have come to identify structured activities that can support students' development of CLA in the writing classroom. Promising activities involve my students in describing their personal experiences with language differences, and engaging in ideological stance taking on issues related to language (i.e. diversity, variation, education, policy, assessment, or discrimination). I have also come to understand ways that CLA theory can support my provision of feedback as a writing instructor. While deepening my understanding of CLA theory, I have also deepened my awareness of the relationships between my feedback and my classroom instruction, and I have sought to establish continuity between my individualized response strategies, and classroom activities. Because CLA aims to enhance students' own linguistic empowerment, my analysis also suggests that I can work toward empowerment by developing clear lines of communication with my students about their needs and preferences in relation to feedback.

My analysis also indicates that my students' responses to CLA-informed feedback and curriculum were complex and multiple. My students' perceptions of feedback were influenced by

their past experiences with writing instruction, including their understandings about the corrective roles instructors should assume in the teaching of SWAE. My students' attitudinal responses toward critical language study were influenced by a multitude of complex sociolinguistic factors outside of the teaching context (both in L1 and L2 settings), including their experiences with language socialization, language standardization, family immigration, and intercultural communication during their youth.

I conclude the dissertation with a series of implications which are of particular relevance not only for my own practices but also for other teacher researchers in the fields of L2 writing and teacher feedback. (1) In relation to localized feedback, my interpretations suggest that CLA can inform the provision of corrective feedback when we as instructors a) meet certain conditions to empower students as decision makers and owners of their texts, and b) are mindful of the power dynamics surrounding the corrective feedback process. (2) In terms of content-oriented feedback, my interpretations suggest that we as instructors can foster students' CLA by a) posing rhetorical questions to invite critical exploration of language, and b) inviting students to engage in contrastive analysis between standardized and non-dominant forms of language, while taking into account the positionalities of our learners and ourselves, as well as contextual factors relating to the status of language. (3) In terms of language socialization, my interpretations suggest that to be linguistically responsive to students, we as critical language instructors benefit from learning about our students' prior language socialization experiences and providing opportunities for students to create written narratives of their language socialization experiences. For future feedback studies, my study invites use of retrospective think-aloud and critical discourse analytic methods to support our reflective practices as self-study researchers. I argue that these methods support our own critical awareness as teachers, making the less visible aspects of the feedback practice more visible to us so that we may develop a more nuanced and equitable feedback

system. My study also invites teacher researchers to explore the implementation of CLA writing pedagogies which are informed by language socialization theories.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

This dissertation represents a self-study of my teaching practices, and an interactional study of students' responses to these practices, which took place in the context of a university multilingual English writing classroom. Before describing this setting and the study further, a few words are in order about my own background, and how I became involved in teaching English to second language (L2)[1] writers. Becoming an L2 teacher was perhaps a happy accident, spurred by the restlessness of my youth. I spent the first 18 years of my life in a semirural, coastal town in Maine. Historically, fishing, lobstering, and farming industries provided modest livelihoods for locals in the town. For this reason, I still today characterize many of the town locals as White, working-class, and "native" English speakers. Yet as I was growing up, my hometown was increasingly transforming into a place where young, prospering, White professionals were relocating to raise their families. Relocating from more urban areas outside the state, I referred to such families as "transplants." I therefore grew up in the juxtaposition of two emerging social identifications that stratified along socioeconomic lines: My siblings and I were also White, English-speaking transplants, yet we were raised in working-class, single-parent home. Neither categorization—local or transplant—in our predominately White community appeared to fit my self-understanding. Feeling no strong sense of belonging to these two identity categories (which index both socioeconomic status and regionality), was a fixture of my youth. While at school, the divisions existing between these groups became more apparent to me as I grew older. Not feeling

[1] I often use the term "second language" or L2 to describe the learners themselves or the teaching setting in this dissertation. I acknowledge that the term "L2" is limited; it is a term that does not capture the full and extended linguistic repertoires of multilingual students, including the numerous languages they draw upon for communication. Nonetheless, I often opt to use the term to signal that the learner is communicating in a language that is distinguishable from their home language (L1).

a strong sense of affinity among any of these apparent groups perhaps was the reason why the lack of visible racial and ethnic diversity in my increasingly affluent town was especially apparent (and increasingly troubling) for me by the time I was in high school. In my graduating class of 180 students, there was only one Black student, and one Asian student. There were no international students present in my graduating high school class.

By the time I was ready to go to college, I craved cross-cultural exchanges. I did not yet realize then that such exchanges were a part and parcel of any L2 classroom. I vividly remember the first day of my orientation as an undergraduate student. I went to the cafeteria, picked up a tray, collected a few things from the salad bar, and walked into the dining hall with my heart racing. I saw a Japanese international student sitting alone at a big table and asked if I could join him. He happily welcomed me and moments later, my nerves had subsided. We first exchanged names; his was Jun[2]. Yet my subsequent attempts to strike up a conversation misfired, as we encountered a series of difficulties understanding each other in the noisy cafeteria which bubbled with the excitement of all the other new students. Yet feelings of frustration or exasperation did not characterize our interactions; rather, our misfires and miscommunications became interesting to me. Being able to communicate some meaning across the languages was similar to the sort of satisfaction one may find when they are finally able to strike and light a match after several failed attempts. As our conversation progressed, I found myself striking and lighting many matches—for words and friendship. Jun and I eventually fell into a rhythmic series of smiles, head nods, and gestures. We said many "yeses" and "nos" before moving onto the next part of our day. While this communication was different from any other communication I had encountered before in my monolingual hometown, I knew as Jun and I departed the cafeteria that we were on our way to developing a strong friendship as peers.

[2] All names of persons and places in this study are pseudonyms.

Through this friendship, I found myself in the accidental role of L2 teacher as Jun and I both struggled in different ways as novices through our courses. I was taking music theory. The ongoing labs for this course required me to listen to a few minutes of music without pause, remember the melody, and then notate the melody within a computer software. Jun was taking an environmental sustainability course, which required him to struggle through writing many sizable research papers. Growing up in Japan, Jun had received extensive ear training and practice in musical notation from his piano teacher. So a tutoring exchange began: Jun helped me to complete my music labs, and I helped him to revise and edit his papers.

Without any prior training in applied linguistics, "editing" meant that I read through Jun's papers closely and looked for "errors" related to grammar and word choice. Sometimes, I consulted Jun for clarification of ideas when I could not determine his intended meaning. Yet more often, I made changes directly into Jun's text, attempting to explain my rationale for these changes when he asked. Years later, I found myself taking on a more official role as a L2 teacher in adult English for Speakers of Other Language (ESOL) classrooms. Over those years in the classroom, many students asked me for corrective feedback both on their speech and writing. So I read through many genres of my adult students' writing (i.e. cover letters, applications, resumes, essays, business emails, scientific reports, etc.). I continued to approach my students' writing in the same way I had approached Jun's during college. I looked closely for "errors"[3], making sure to correct any evidence of a written accent. I did not pause, nor reflect on whether there was another way for me to help students as writers and communicators. After hearing many students tell me their desire to sound like a "native" English speaker, I had no doubts that they wanted to be read like one as well. However, such habits were established through my practical experiences

[3] The use of quotation marks here signifies that a writer's deviation from standardized or conventionalized language forms does not necessarily constitute an error. All writers undoubtedly make errors from time to time, but error detection is often a subjective process. Writing instructors' perceptions of error may emerge as socially-constructed responses' to students' dialectal or register choices (Matarese & Anson, 2010).

rather than grounded in empirical research, and I therefore began my doctoral studies seeking to increase my theoretical and empirical knowledge about the sociocultural dimensions of L2 learning.

By the time I began my doctoral studies in Language, Literacy, and Culture, I had a firmly established philosophy of L2 teaching: I believed that teacher feedback (whether on oral, written, or nonverbal communication) was a crucial dimension of the L2 classroom. In fact, research has established that feedback (whether it be positive or corrective in nature) exemplifies how many teachers see their roles in the classroom, and how they conceptualize student learning (Ellis, 2017; Guénette, 2013; Hyland & Hyland, 2001).

Over the course of my doctoral studies, I have continued to teach writing to L2 students while gaining more exposure to critical linguistic theories. This critical exposure will be revealed to my readers in the dissertation chapters. Critical theories of applied linguistics have complicated and developed my understanding of feedback, and this dissertation project has given me the great opportunity to think extensively about my provision of feedback to L2 writers. I have asked myself many questions about feedback: its nature, focus, form, and goals. I also have found that my students (especially those who grew up in English-dominant contexts like I did) struggle with the same questions that I do when they give feedback to their multilingual peers. For example, a few years ago, one domestic student in my class (also a focal participant in this study), Vanessa, was reviewing an international Chinese student's writing. She raised her hand, gestured to me to come close, and whispered hesitantly in my ear, "Should I be correcting the grammar here?" I did not have a good answer for Vanessa then, and if she asked me this question again now, I still would not be able to give Vanessa the quick and exacting answer she sought initially from me.

In other words, this self- and interactional study of my feedback practices was first motivated by "Should I…?" quandaries like Vanessa's. Yet as a multilingual writing teacher working in a university context, my inquiry into the nature and the role of my feedback is never-

ending. Answering "should I" questions is especially complex because as a teacher I recognize that I am working not only at the micro-level with the individual student, but also within a broader context where my response to student writing also carries sociopolitical implications (Severino, 1993). I desire to be linguistically, culturally, and socially responsive to my students' most immediate needs and desires, but I also desire to work toward the realization of a more socially and linguistically just society. Before gaining exposure to critical linguistic theories, I presumed that being responsive to the individual L2 learner's needs (without questioning how these needs emerge) was the best way to contribute to a socially just society. Yet, as I will discuss further in Chapter 2, there are debates about the extent to which L2 teachers should correct their students' language and teach dominant linguistic forms. Some believe that explicit teaching of dominant linguistic forms contributes to social justice by giving linguistically marginalized students access to the social power that accompanies these forms (Delpit, 1988). Yet others maintain that a more socially just society cannot be realized this way, because the emphasis on dominant linguistic forms entails a writing pedagogy based in assimilation and acculturation as a means to students' empowerment (Kubota & Lehner, 2004). Over the course of this study, I have sought to reconcile these different discourses of social justice, while recognizing that most teachers (myself included) draw upon competing and conflicting discourses about learning to write (Ivanič, 2004). I hope readers will therefore appreciate that my ideological formations as a teacher are complex and ever evolving. To understand what social justice means within the L2 classroom, and to understand why teachers might even pose "should I" questions about correcting L2 students' written "errors," I move into the statement of the research problem.

Statement of the problem

There exist myths and misconceptions about language diversity in the United States, which are not based in facts, but are rather rooted in Herderian, monoglossic, and standard language ideologies (Garcia & Torres-Guevara, 2009; Lippi-Green, 2011; Woolard, 1998a).

Perhaps the most commonly held myths are that the United States is a monolingual and monodialectal nation (Labov, 2012; Wiley & de Klerk, 2010). Myths like these have been substantiated by the Herderian discourses of politicians, efforts of the English-only movement to mandate English as the official language of government and schools, and by educators' prescriptivist approaches toward the nonstandardized English varieties that their students bring into the classroom (van Lier, 2004).

Despite such myths, the nation is rich in linguistic diversity. This linguistic diversity has been documented since the first government census record in 1790 (Wiley & de Klerk, 2010); but it can be traced back even further to the hundreds of indigenous languages in use before the first arrival of European colonizers (McCarty & Nicholas, 2014). Most recent estimates from the 2013 American Community Survey indicate that 21% of U.S. residents above age five currently speak a language other than English in their home. This percentage represents a record high of 61.8 million U.S. residents (Camarota & Zeigler, 2014). Moreover, linguistic diversity is not only accounted for on the basis of distinctive languages, but also to the variation within them. To this end, sociolinguistic research has demonstrated that phonological variations between regional and racialized dialects of American English continue to increase, so that people across the country speak English more differently now than they did in past decades (Labov, 2012), and such dialectal differences can manifest orthographically as "written accents" (Johnson & VanBrackle, 2012; Zawacki et al., 2007). Ethnolinguistic and dialectal diversity is also evident across all walks of life; it is seen in popular media, literature, arts, music, and particularly in different sectors of education, including K-12 and higher education. In K-12 education, students who speak English as an additional language are currently the fastest growing subgroup of learners, representing approximately 10% of the total number of students enrolled in the nation's public schools (Kanno & Varghese, 2010; OELA, 2018).

In the state of Massachusetts, where legislation has historically restricted most forms of bilingual education, national trends are only augmented. During the 2017-2018 School Year, estimates indicate that 199,679 students spoke a first language other than English, and represented approximately 20.9% of the total number of students enrolled in Massachusetts public schools (DESE, 2018). Up until recently in 2017, restrictive policy measures eliminated most forms of bilingual education in Massachusetts. In 2017, Massachusetts Governor Baker signed legislation enacting the Seal of Biliteracy, which enables school districts to provide more options to enable learners of languages other than English to become biliterate (Seal of Biliteracy Massachusetts, 2021). However, prior to this new legislation, during the years of 2002-2017, most multilingual students received only English literacy and writing instruction, rather than literacy instruction in their home languages (Brisk & Zisselberger, 2011).

Unfortunately, such kind of monolingual pedagogies and tendencies in K-12 education are reflective the state of affairs in higher education, despite the fact that growing numbers of students who are international, resident immigrant, Generation 1.5 (i.e. the children of resident immigrants), bidialectal or otherwise multilingual have brought an increasing amount of ethnolinguistic and dialectal diversity in this sector as well (Ferris, 2016). Most recent analyses of U.S. census bureau surveys suggest that post-millennials (individuals who are currently between the ages of 6 to 21) are on track to become the most racially and ethnically diverse as well as most formally-educated generation that our nation has yet to see (Fry & Parker, 2018). Current numbers of college enrollees are also telling. Approximately 24% of U.S. undergraduates are either born abroad or have at least one parent born abroad, and the number of international students currently enrolled in U.S. higher education settings reached its high point in 2015, with some stagnation in recent years (Arbeit et al., 2016; Ferris, 2016; Fischer, 2019). These data also demonstrate that domestic students are more likely to encounter domestic peers from differing geographic points of origin. According to data from the U.S. Department of Education, the

number of US resident students attending universities outside of their home state has nearly doubled since 1986 (Strayer, 2016); this suggests that universities are increasingly becoming contact points for students from different geographic origins where different regional dialects are spoken. Taken together, these statistics are all suggestive that we can reasonably expect the number of ethnolinguistically diverse students enrolled in US colleges and universities to continue to increase over time.

Arguably, the prevalence of monolingual frameworks within American institutions of higher education is disenfranchising ethnolinguistically diverse students. Given that first-year English composition courses are the only common requirement for the vast majority of undergraduates, monolingual ideologies warrant special consideration within such contexts of higher education (Horner & Trimbur, 2002; Matsuda, 2006). In such composition courses, it remains commonplace to advance the teaching of standard written American English (SWAE) from uncritical standpoints (Bommarito & Cooney, 2016). As Horner, Lu, and Royster (2011) point out, such uncritical and long-standing traditional approaches assume that linguistic heterogeneity is problematic for communication, English is ideally uniform, and that writing instruction should reduce linguistic differences.

Through my experiences teaching language and writing to multilingual and multidialectal students over the last decade, I now understand that the uncritical teaching of SWAE is problematic on several counts. Firstly, when instruction is geared towards linguistic uniformity, students internalize deficit thinking about their writing abilities, focusing on what they cannot do compared to the norms of the academic institution (Elsasser & Irvine, 1985; Paugh & Dudley-Marling, 2011), rather than gaining affirmation, appreciation and pride for their expansive linguistic repertoires. Secondly, rather than learning to recognize, appreciate and experiment with natural linguistic variation in English, students might adopt standard language ideologies; these are encompassed by partialities toward idealized, and seemingly homogenous forms of language

which are patterned primarily on the written communication of dominant, upper- and middle-class White individuals (Lippi-Green, 2011). As Rosa and Flores (2015) explain further, standard language ideologies are raciolinguistic in nature; they function to construct racialized and language-minoritized individuals as linguistically deficient, even when these individuals adopt language practices recognized as normative by Whites. Research has shown that when students regard the communication of White American individuals as superior to that of other groups, they may devalue other non-standard varieties of English, and multilingual students in particular may devalue their home languages (Liu & Tannacito, 2013). In other words, uncritical approaches to SWAE maintain and reproduce standard, racialized, and monolingual language ideologies which do not serve the interests of linguistically diverse populations.

This being said, uncritical language study in the writing classroom is not just problematic for linguistically marginalized groups of learners. Uncritical approaches to the teaching of SWAE can lead even English dominant students to narrow, monoglossic understandings of language as uniform, and of so called "good writing" as inextricably bound to notions of correctness. In other words, uncritical approaches to the teaching of SWAE lead students to reductive understandings of language and orthography. Such reductive understandings of correctness foster attitudes of linguistic superiority and prioritize localized concerns in students' writing (such as adherence to standard grammar and stylistic conventions), rather than to larger matters related to content, critical thinking, analysis, structure, and development of argument (Bommarito & Cooney, 2016). Moreover, to advance egalitarianism and social justice, Wallace (1999) argues that critical language study is even more essential for English dominant students, as those who have privileged social circumstances bear a greater responsibility in challenging social and linguistic injustices.

Standardized Englishes and instructor feedback: Reconciling the values underlying this study

The concerns associated with SWAE do not mean that writing instructors should abandon their instruction of it. As Mahboob (2014) points out, failing to provide students access to the globalized ways of using language may limit their ability to engage with discourses they will encounter in higher education where there is often a higher social distance between users. Academic writers often need to accommodate wider audiences by adopting more globalized forms of language, and by minimizing localized forms of language (as these may interfere with a readers' meaning making processes). Therefore, I have maintained a conviction as an L2 writing instructor to provide learners access to the most apparent norms of academic writing (while acknowledging that such norms are variable and changing); access to such norms can range from the smallest unit of the grapheme, to the larger units of the morpheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence, paragraph, essay, genre, etc. Not to draw students' attention to the finite details of localized matters such as mechanics and citation conventions, is simply irresponsible in my view, given that students will encounter such patterned ways of using language throughout their academic experience (Mahboob, 2014), and that written accuracy is more often than not an expectation in academic and professional settings (Ferris, 2011). Therefore, as I have provided individualized feedback to students, I have often felt a responsibility to help students gain access and awareness of the conventions of academic discourses at the more localized, syntactic and sentence-level with the hope that they can then make more informed choices about when, whether, and how to adopt or challenge such conventions.

However, it is also important to acknowledge that my conviction to provide localized feedback to students is somewhat contestable for others. Within L2 writing scholarship, a debate remains on whether instructors should provide written corrective feedback (WCF) to students at all (Hirvela et al., 2016; Truscott, 1999). I have learned through casual observations and

conversations with my writing instructor colleagues that some elect not address sentence-level matters such as unconventional grammar patterns in their students' writing. Some also place little emphasis on learning and conforming to academic citation conventions associated with different academic fields. While Severino (1993) reminds us that such kind of decisions about response (or lack thereof) represent important sociopolitical stances toward linguistic assimilation, I began this dissertation study with an assumption that all writers (whether they be composing in the L1 or L2) should receive at least one piece of localized or sentence-level feedback on each of their papers, which suggests revision rather than prescription.

Yet my apparent stance on localized feedback is complex, and readers may at times even perceive my stance to be contradictory. I, like many other teachers, move between different and competing discourses about learning to write (Ivanič, 2004). My stance on localized feedback must be understood within the larger ecology of the classroom and the content of the writing curriculum. In addition to providing localized or corrective feedback, I believe that writing instructors also have a continued responsibility to address monolingual and standard language ideologies, and to confront unyielding and uncritical attachments to standardized forms of English. While very strong attachments create a barrier towards critical language study, my aim is to play a friendly sort of tug of war in the classroom—representing multiple language ideologies, and holding prescriptivist tendencies in a productive and dynamic tension with critical language pedagogies. While making students aware of such tensions, and working amidst them, I have aimed—over the course of this dissertation study—for students to form and express their own orientations to language through their course assignments and writings. By deepening their own awareness of their language values, my hope is that students can make more deliberate, informed

writing and languaging[4] choices which can reflect their orientation, while also responding to the differing social contexts where the amount of flexibility they are granted differs.

Situating the study in the existing literatures

To counteract the propagation of monolingual and standard language ideologies, existing research has demonstrated the potential of critical language awareness (CLA) as an emancipatory and democratic pedagogy which enables students to recognize, evaluate, and resist hegemonic language practices; in this way, CLA empowers students to make more conscious and deliberate linguistic choices that align with identities and their positionalities as engaged citizens (Ivanič & Simpson, 1992; Janks & Ivanič, 1992). Within a CLA curriculum, the deliberate linguistic choices that students make may affirm existing social identities, but also create new and dynamic spaces for identity making and construction (Ivanič, 2005; Rahimivand & Kuhi, 2014). The CLA approach is based on a sociocultural theory of language and falls under the broader field of critical literacies. The CLA concept originated in the 1980s through the work of a group of scholars in Lancaster, UK (Clark, 1992; Fairclough, 1992a; Ivanic & Simpson, 1992; Janks, 2000). The CLA project is in essence a consciousness-raising approach which advances a critical understanding of the relationships between languages, language varieties, language ideologies, power structures, and social inequities. In the multilingual writing classroom, a CLA-informed pedagogy teaches students the conventions of academic writing, while also exposing them to more critical concerns about such conventions. CLA prompts students to consider the reasons why writers make certain linguistic choices (both of a conventional and unconventional nature), as well as the interests that are served by such choices. A CLA pedagogy asks students to think about how language can be dis/empowering, particularly for groups of who are dominated by

[4] "Languaging" is term introduced by Swain (2006) to conceptualize language production as the artifact of one's own thinking, and "an agent in the making of meaning" (p. 96). Swain describes languaging as a "dynamic, never-ending process of using language to make meaning" (p. 96) and offers it as a crucial component of second language learning.

language, and how they can resist linguistic domination (Alim, 2010; Fairclough, 1992a; Janks, 2000). In other words, a CLA pedagogy asks students to take seriously the issue of linguicism, a term that was first coined by Skutnabb-Kangas, and defined as

> ideologies, structures and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate, regulate and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and immaterial) between groups which are defined on the basis of language/their mother tongue (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2015, p. 1)

Given that generating student texts is a central feature of a CLA-informed pedagogy, this approach is well suited for the first-year college composition classroom (where I have taught in the past), and especially for the transitional composition classroom (where the study occurs). Transitional composition is a prerequisite course which some students—especially those for whom standardized English is an additional language or dialect—place into as a prerequisite to first-year college composition (Gilyard, 2000; Matsuda, 2006). In the research literature, this course is often referred to as 'basic', 'developmental,' or 'remedial' writing. However, alongside Sanchez (2010), I use the term 'transitional' to emphasize the continuum of learning we all experience in gaining academic literacies, and to also avoid terms which are associated with deficit discourses[5].

As will be further discussed in Chapter 2, existing research well establishes the potential that a CLA-informed pedagogy holds for the transitional composition classroom. In this regard, studies in higher education demonstrate that CLA fosters critical reading strategies (Granville, 2003; Wallace, 1992), biliteracy endeavors (Elsasser & Irvine, 1985; Siegel, 2006), an increased sense of writing identity and control over language (Clark, 1992; Clark & Ivanič, 1999; Ivanič, 2005), an awareness of the role of language in reproducing power structures (Gilyard, 2000), an appreciation of language variation (Galloway & Rose, 2018; Siegel, 2006; Toth, 2013), and

[5] "Writing studio" is another term that has been used to conceptualize college services (i.e. classes, workshops, and tutoring) that support those students needing prerequisite study to college writing (Mohamad & Boyd, 2010).

genre-based knowledge (Ramirez, 2018). CLA therefore offers great promise for writing teachers that are specific to context, rather than generalizable truths which are applicable to any context. For example, within the particular instructional context of this study—transitional writing—domestic and English-dominant students enroll and participate alongside international and multilingual students. Through a CLA curriculum, English-dominant students can gain more nuanced and critical understandings about language difference and variation; they can develop productive strategies to approach language difference as it manifests orthographically in their peers' writing.

While existing CLA research is valuable, there remain gaps in the existing studies of CLA and teacher feedback, which suggest opportunities for continued research. The majority of CLA studies have been conducted abroad in countries such as the UK and South Africa, and to a lesser extent in the United States, where this dissertation research is situated. Secondly, as Alim (2010) warns, there is a tendency for CLA to become over-theorized in the scholarship, as a desirable but unattainable ideal, and thus pedagogically under-applied in the classroom. In line with this cautionary note, a common rhetorical pattern in several research studies can be observed through the proffering of CLA for its potential to countering less critical approaches, instead of considering CLA as a unit of analysis that is both applied and studied within the classroom (i.e. Abbadi, 2014; Gilyard, 2000; Horner et al., 2011; Liu & Tannacito, 2013). Gilyard (2000) argues that empirical studies are not needed to make the initial case for CLA, but they are important to document the ongoing effects of such pedagogies. Several studies which do report on CLA pedagogical interventions in higher education have taken place in teacher education contexts, rather than college composition contexts (i.e. Carpenter, Achugar, Walter, & Earhart, 2015; Godley, Reaser, & Moore, 2015; Granville, 2003; Janks, 1999; Lancaster & Taylor, 1992; Mosley Wetzel & Rogers, 2015). Two exceptions in more recent research are the teacher-inquiry studies of Huang (2013) and Toth (2013), both of whom largely focus their attention on their

unique approaches to integrating CLA into composition curriculum and lesson activities, and do not focus on the relationships between CLA-informed instructor feedback and students' writing.

Moreover, the absence of attention to the relationships between written feedback and writing within the CLA literature is reflective of trends within teacher feedback studies. Within the L2 writing literature, Goldstein (2005) and Hyland (2010) point out that there are relatively few studies that look at what students do with their teachers' feedback. Working more specifically within a CLA curricular framework, there are no existing studies to date which document how teachers' feedback practices influence students' drafting and revisions of their texts, which increases the consequential validity (Frey, 2018a) and the ecological validity (Frey, 2018b) of this study. This study thus builds on the work of CLA studies and to bridge this literature with teacher feedback studies in transitional and L2 writing contexts. It also addresses the necessity of documenting the outcomes of CLA pedagogy in the transitional college composition classroom, and the absence of scholarly attention to the impact of a CLA pedagogy particularly on students' writing.

Purpose of the study

As research that draws upon self-study approaches to consider interactions between myself and my students, the driving purposes of this dissertation project are to a) describe and analyze my teaching practices, b) contextualize my decision-making by looking more closely at my teaching practices as well as my students' responses to these practices. I consider the nature of a CLA pedagogy in writing instruction in order to analyze the impacts, consequences, and affordances such a pedagogy furthers, particularly in the provision of feedback. I am particularly interested in understanding students' responses to my theoretically-oriented approaches to writing instruction. I focus on the relationships between feedback and response. Therefore, my gaze shifts in this study between my own practices and my students' responses to these practices as I consider multiple units of analysis. Units of analysis include a) the written and oral feedback I

provide, b) students' own texts and revisions, and c) students' perceptions and sense-making of feedback, d) students' language socialization experiences outside of the course.

This study builds on critical self-study and interactional teacher feedback research in the fields of applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, second language writing, and composition studies. I address the following research questions in this study:

1) How does CLA inform my approaches to writing instruction, especially my decisions about providing oral and written feedback to students on their writing?

2) How do student writers (including L2 writers) respond or interact with CLA-informed teacher feedback?

2a) How do I understand the perceptions toward CLA-informed feedback that students display in their oral responses?

2b) How do I understand the textual characteristics of students' written responses to CLA-informed feedback?

2c) What language ideologies do students communicate in their written and oral responses?

2d) How do students' language socialization experiences impact the ideological stances that they articulate?

2e) How do the language ideologies students express relate to their prior L1 and L2 learning experiences?

2f) As an instructor, how can I respond to the examination of students' expressed language ideologies and language socialization experiences?

Significance of the study

Drawing upon self-study approaches, this dissertation is of foremost significance for myself, given that research has the immediate effect of furthering my practice by a) increasing my

awareness of my own pedagogy; b) deepening my learning about my students, my teaching context, and my teaching identity; and c) establishing my feedback practices in theory (Best, 2011; Best et al., 2015; Brown, 1999). From a methodological standpoint, the study may also be of particular interest to educational researchers interested in qualitative inquiries (i.e. such as critical incident analysis), or self-study/teacher inquiries in a variety of literacy settings.

While self-study researchers are mostly immediately concerned with understanding and improvement of their own teaching practice and teaching context, they also aim to enhance teacher education more broadly (LaBoskey, 2004). Thus, the importance of this study also relates to the potential pedagogical understandings, insights, and strategies it can provide to critically minded writing instructors, especially those who are involved in providing feedback to students on their writing. Language and writing instructors working in a variety of settings will find the study relevant to their instructional practices—i.e. K-12, community college, higher education, developmental writing, ESL, EFL, or other L2 writing settings.

This study is also significant in terms of its uniqueness; to the best of my knowledge, no studies currently exist or consider the intersection of relationships between critical language awareness, teacher feedback, student response, and teacher's response to student perception and actions. The study attends to the interrelationships between teacher feedback and student writing as a means to develop teacher reflexivity. To advance my own writing pedagogy, and understand both its affordances and limitations, I believe it is important to carefully reflect, to critically reexamine the feedback I provide to students, and to attend to the interactive dimensions of what students are actually doing in their writing (Best, 2011; Kim, 2009; Pittaway & Dowden, 2017).

There exist a small number of studies that consider the relationship between CLA instruction and student-generated texts. Such studies are of great importance in terms of promoting teacher reflexivity, but their number is small and their scope is different from my own. In some cases, CLA researchers' analysis of student texts is done without consideration for what

the teacher did in class (cf. Dornbrack & Dixon, 2014; Tahriri, Shabani, & Zokaei, 2016). Other CLA researchers have focused their analyses on the relationships between instruction and student texts generated in college-level courses other than composition such as applied linguistics, teacher education, and EFL (Godley et al., 2015; Granville, 2003; Janks, 1999; Rose & Galloway, 2017; Weninger & Kan, 2013). For example, Godley et al. (2015) collected and analyzed writing samples produced by students enrolled in an online teacher education course focused on language variation. In analyzing students' writing, the researchers looked for evidence of students' emerging CLA through their participation in the course wiki discussions. The researchers provided details about the course content, but instructor feedback was not a data source, nor was it within the scope of inquiry for the study. Thus, it is important to note that while CLA studies like these are extremely significant for my research, they are situated in course contexts which have different instructional objectives from transitional or college composition courses, which typically embrace process-based writing pedagogies. The process model (widely favored in the program I teach) implies that students' revision of their writing is a primary goal and that their writing is therefore the primary source of content that drives instruction. With the emphasis on revision, students continuously draft, revise, redraft, and edit their work. Meanwhile, opportunities for students to receive individualized feedback from their instructor and peers on their in-process work are considered to be paramount to the approach (Patthey-Chavez et al., 2004). In its attention to in-process feedback, this study bridges the interests of CLA and process-based pedagogies together.

This study also is unique in addressing research gaps in the field of L2 writing. While teacher feedback is an area that has been studied substantially in this field (see Chapter 2 for further discussion), much of the existing research focuses on the effects of written corrective feedback on L2 students' writing (i.e. sentence-level, localized feedback), and far less attention has been addressed to content-oriented, global feedback focused on idea development or

argument (Belcher, 2012; Hyland et al., 2016). While there exist both CLA and feedback studies that analyze student writing samples, I have found no existing studies focused on the relationships between CLA-informed teacher feedback and students' writing. This study thus has potential to contribute to existing studies of CLA, teacher feedback, and textual analysis of student writing.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation comprises seven chapters. In this chapter, I problematized the pedagogical state of affairs in US college composition classrooms, drawing attention to the monolingual and standard language ideologies that predominate curricula in an increasingly ethnolinguistically diverse nation. In Chapter 2, I review the literature on critical language awareness and teacher feedback in the fields of developmental and L2 writing studies, taking stock of the knowledge which has already been produced, while also pointing to the limitations of work in both fields. I conclude the chapter with a CLA-informed feedback schema that synthesizes work that has been done in the two disparate fields. In Chapter 3, I explain the theoretical framework that informs the study; this framework draws on critical sociocultural perspectives on literacy, learning, feedback, and agency as well as critical discourse analysis, poststructural and postmodern perspectives on language. In Chapter 4, I describe the methods, setting, and participants in the study. I also explain procedures for data treatment and analysis. The later chapters present the findings of the study. In Chapter 5, I describe one localized feedback intervention I adopted, explaining how this intervention was informed by theories of critical language awareness, as well as sociocultural theories of second language development. Using critical incident analysis, I consider how four focal students respond to my localized feedback. Chapter 6 focuses on the larger CLA curricular approaches I adopted (including globalized feedback strategies). Drawing upon case study methods and language socialization theories, I consider how two students respond to the CLA curriculum and my CLA-informed

feedback. In Chapter 7, I synthesize the previous chapters, discussing some limitations of the study that suggest directions for future pedagogy, and research.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This study brings together two overarching areas of study: teacher feedback and critical language awareness. While there is a considerable amount of interrelation between these areas, they have often been kept apart by disciplinary boundaries. Teacher feedback studies have traditionally found their home in the overarching discipline of composition studies, a discipline that is inclusive of L2 writing studies. CLA scholarship has traditionally found its home in the discipline of applied linguistics, a discipline that is inclusive of language teacher education.

The underlying intention of this literature-based chapter is to bring the literatures together. The purposes of doing so are to strengthen the ontological and epistemological assumptions of this dissertation study, and to map its interdisciplinary contribution. Teacher feedback studies represent the first area of interest, given the ontological perspectives such studies contribute. As noted by Blaikie (2007), ontological study includes making claims about the phenomena of interest. This includes claims about the conditions under which each phenomenon exists, what it looks like, the smaller units that the phenomenon of interest ultimately comprises, and the interaction among the smaller units. A review of the feedback literature thus provides the study with a strong ontological grounding, locating this study's principal object of inquiry, and shedding light on particular concepts and research procedures that have been used to generate and collect data in this area. The scholarship on critical language awareness represents the second area of interest, given the epistemological perspectives it advances. The CLA literature provides a theoretical foundation for self-study research and praxis, guiding teacher researchers and practitioners toward the realization of critical language study. The review of literature in this area sheds light on the historical and philosophical origins of CLA theory, and accounts for more recent trends in research in language teacher education.

Given that the two literatures each inform this study in different ways, the review of each area has a distinctive flavor, and the chapter is organized into four parts. Part 1 encompasses a review of the feedback literature. Here, I summarize two major theoretical orientations scholars have adopted within form-focused feedback studies: sociocultural and psycholinguistic orientations, while acknowledging systemic functional linguistics as a newly emerging area in feedback research. I then define key terms related to feedback form and delivery which have been largely shaped by sociocultural and psycholinguistic orientations. I draw attention to the areas of contention amongst scholars regarding the use of written corrective feedback (WCF), and to incongruities existing between teachers' philosophies about WCF and their practices. Finally, I summarize the methodological dimensions of feedback studies that are focused on student response. Subtopics covered in the area of student response include students' processing and uptake of feedback, student preferences for feedback, and students' affective reactions toward feedback.

Part 2 encompasses a review of the CLA literature. In this section, I trace the 20th century British origins of the critical language awareness movement, explaining its critical linguistic aims within the larger "Language Awareness" movement. I then discuss parallel historical movements in the United States, including a 1974 resolution by the US-based Conference on College Composition and Communication. Since CLA theory is not often associated with the field of composition studies, I interpret how CLA theories can be expressed through responses to the 1974 resolution, thereby synthesizing the CLA literature. I conclude this section with a survey of more recent research trends in CLA.

Parts 3 and 4 represent a synthesis of the two literatures. In Part 3, I provide a meta-summary of the two literatures, detailing the ontological and epistemological contributions which prior research in teacher feedback and CLA offers to this dissertation study. In Part 4, I offer a CLA feedback schema, demonstrating how both of the literatures can work together to shape a

practical framework for composition instructors interested in CLA-informed feedback. I conclude the chapter by identifying the overarching trends of the review and explaining how the findings guide the subsequent chapters of this dissertation study.

Part 1: Teacher feedback studies

Given the substantial amount of time and effort that many writing teachers devote to responding to their students' texts, teacher feedback studies represent a pedagogically-relevant and pedagogically-motivated area of research. Teacher feedback studies are also reflective of two more recent developments in the broader field of composition studies: process-based composition pedagogies and L2 writing studies. The process-based pedagogy has been popular in U.S. composition classes (both for L1 and L2 students) since the 1970s. With this approach (which is widely adopted in the writing program where the study is situated), students produce multiple drafts of each essay they compose, and receive feedback from their peers and instructor on in-process drafts which helps them to revise (Hyland, Nicolas-Conesa, & Cerezo, 2016). Given the increased interest in multilingual writers within the field of composition studies, teacher feedback has also been a topic of interest in the relatively young field of L2 writing studies (Belcher, 2012). Teacher feedback studies fall under two broad dimensions of focus, both of which will be covered in Part 1. The first group of studies focuses on the nature and forms of instructor feedback. Such studies explore a range of issues, including instructors' use of mitigation, instructor approaches toward "error" correction, and instructors' philosophies toward feedback. The second group of studies focuses on students' responses to teacher feedback (Kang & Dykema, 2017), exploring a range of issues such as students' processing and uptake of feedback, student preferences for feedback, and students' affective reactions to the feedback they receive.

Studies of feedback forms

Studies which focus on the nature and forms of feedback are highly relevant for teacher professional development. As Hyland (2010) points out, teachers benefit by increasing their awareness of the different feedback forms which are available to them. Knowing about multiple forms of feedback can enable teachers to combine multiple forms and create a more effective support system. While form-focused feedback studies have adopted a variety of theoretical perspectives, I draw attention to two overarching theoretical orientations in the sections that follow. I seek to distinguish between sociocultural (SCT) and psycholinguistic orientations because these two theories are widely used in the literature, and because both theories have most informed my own approaches to feedback. In the form-focused sections that follow, I broadly seek to distinguish the different sorts of concerns and questions that researchers have drawn on through each theoretical orientation, and also to distinguish the feedback forms that each orientation promotes.

Sociocultural theorizations of feedback and its forms

While I am seeking to draw broad distinctions between the sociocultural and psycholinguistic theoretical orientations that researchers have taken in feedback studies, it is important to acknowledge that both theories have undergone transformations over the last 60 years (Lantolf, 2007), and that drawing their demarcations is an interpretive act rather than an absolute one. Both SCT and psycholinguistic theories can be seen as contemporaries under the broader umbrella of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory (De Costa & Crowther, 2018). Moreover, Lantolf (2007) declares SCT to be a "third-generation [of] psycholinguistics" (p. 694), observing that the two theories were not separated historically. Researchers working under the first generation of psycholinguistics focused on learner's processing and acquisition of words as smaller units of language. Researchers in the second generation expanded their focus to learners' acquisition of "abstract rules." Rather than words as smaller units, they were interested in

learners' processing and production of larger units such as sentences. The third generation of researchers, according to Leontiev (1981, as cited in Lantolf, 2007) paved the way for SCT by shifting their focus to activities where language is used in communication and showing increasing interest in "how speaking (and writing) mediates the concrete social and mental activity of human beings" (Lantolf, 2007, p. 694). The gradual shift away from the mental processing of smaller units of language to the social process of language acquisition is often referred to as the social turn in SLA. The social turn can be observed in both SLA research and L2 writing research (Casanave, 2016; De Costa & Crowther, 2018).

Sociocultural conceptions of teacher feedback

While teacher feedback has been defined in different ways across composition studies, a sociocultural definition operationalizes its interactive, dialogic, and negotiating dimensions. In this regard, I draw on four concepts defined by van Lier (2004), a SCT scholar, to create an operational definition of feedback: *affordance*, *scaffolding*, *contingency*, and *takeover*, while offering *negotiation* as the fifth concept useful to describe oral feedback exchanges. Using SCT concepts, I define feedback as any *affordance* which is presented to student writers through pedagogical *scaffolding*. An affordance refers to an available semiotic resource which signals a possibility for linguistic action, while scaffolding is individualized task guidance provided by the instructor through a semiotically-mediated means. Scaffolding is achieved through two primary conditions: *contingency* and *takeover*. Contingency occurs when the task is acted upon by the learner. Takeover occurs when the learner's role in the task increases through his/her engagement, while the instructor's role in the task diminishes (van Lier, 2004).

Taken together, the concepts of affordance and scaffolding place emphasis on the interactive and dialogic dimensions of feedback, given that affordances can be made available, with the possibility of either being acted or not acted upon by the student. Perhaps Norton's concept of "investment" is helpful for teachers in distinguishing the varied levels of commitment

which students may show toward the feedback they receive (Darvin & Norton, 2015). Factors such as time constraints, competing agendas, disagreement, distrust in the teacher's authority, or belief that it is not necessary to address comments can limit students' investment in the feedback they receive (Goldstein, 2005; Lee & Schallert, 2008; Tardy, 2006). Even when students appear to have some degree of investment in learning, they may still ignore feedback for other reasons such they could not understand it, or could not determine a strategy to revise from it (Best et al., 2015; Goldstein, 2005, 2016; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). While ignoring feedback may represent a noteworthy means that a learner interfaces and responds to feedback, scaffolding is not accomplished in such a situation because the learner does not contribute reciprocally to the feedback process and does not increase their engagement in the instructor's task guidance.

Because SCT emphasizes the interactive nature of learning, negotiation also emerges as an important concept, illustrating the ways that students can modify their texts collaboratively with instructors (or peers) during synchronous oral feedback exchanges. Negotiation refers to synchronous and oral interactions occurring between learners and their instructors. According to Nassaji (2017), negotiation includes interactional strategies such as "repetition, clarification requests, [or] confirmation checks" (p. 116) used by teachers or students. While much of the research on negotiation has focused on oral error correction, Nassaji (2017) summarizes studies supporting the effectiveness of oral negotiation in response to L2 students' written errors. In such contexts, the instructor supports the learner in clarifying meaning in order to build a coherent text. Scaffolding is therefore evident in the negotiation process as the instructor provides individualized guidance, allowing the learner to increase engagement in their revision task.

While more will be discussed about psycholinguistic conceptions of feedback later, it is important to note at this juncture that sociocultural conceptualizations of feedback are different from feedback as it has been conceptualized in psycholinguistic literature, but may be more compatible with other emerging theoretical conceptualizations (such as systemic functional

linguistics). In the psycholinguistic literature, feedback has been conceptualized as carrying a corrective function on the learner's interlanguage, inducing noticing of lexical or syntactical problems in the learner's discourse (García Mayo & Labandibar, 2017; Sheen, 2010). Within the SCT conception of feedback, the task the instructor seeks to engage the learner in does not necessarily involve the correction of a deviant linguistic feature because language development is understood in broader terms. Moreover, while this chapter focuses principally upon SCT and psycholinguistic conceptualizations of feedback, it is important to acknowledge newly emerging conceptualizations of feedback which are informed by theories compatible to SCT. For instance, Jarvin (2014) has drawn parallels between key concepts in SCT and systemic functional linguistics (SFL), offering that scaffolding as a concept is compatible with Sydney School genre-based pedagogies (informed by SFL). In genre-based pedagogy, feedback is evidenced dialogically as the instructor presents a model text, deconstructs it for the students' benefit, and subsequently involves the students in composing the same text type. The collaborative nature of this process increasingly involves the students in contingency and takeover. Therefore, SFL-based pedagogical understandings have informed SFL-informed conceptualizations of different feedback types (Mahboob & Devrim, 2013) and preliminary studies of their effectiveness (Uzun & Zehir Topkaya, 2020).

Sociocultural directions in feedback studies and pedagogy

Given that SCT views learning as occurring in interaction, it is not surprising that SCT studies of feedback tend to be focused on the social, interactional, affective, and interpersonal dimensions of the feedback process, considering how feedback is carried out with learners (Erlam et al., 2013). Such studies have examined the way students process and respond to feedback (i.e. Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010) and the implementation of feedback forms which are aimed at enabling learners to self-correct and self-revise their writing. Feedback forms supporting self-

correction attempt to guide and offer assistance only to the extent that is needed for the learner to engage with the task (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Bijami et al., 2016; Erlam et al., 2013; Panahi et al., 2013). Others have used SCT to examine the interactive dimensions of peer feedback (Villamil & de Guerrero, 2006), and the mediating potential of newer technological tools (Slavkov, 2015).

SCT has also enabled scholars to complicate cognitive models of feedback and revision, by considering complex interpersonal, sociopolitical, ideological and relational dynamics. For example, Lee and Schallert (2008), who assume a sociocultural and relational perspective in their study, demonstrate that a trusting interpersonal relationship plays an important role in the effectiveness of an instructor's feedback for promoting students' revisions, but that such trust relates to the larger sociopolitical context of instruction. The researchers used a case study approach to examine a non-native EFL college composition teacher in Korea and two of her students, who were chosen because of the differing degrees of trust the instructor established with them. One student, who had a trusting relationship with the teacher, responded positively to feedback. However, the more "troubled" relationship the teacher had with the other student meant that the student did not respond to feedback positively and did not make substantial improvements to his drafts. The student's distrust of his teacher's feedback related to his preferences for having a native speaker as an English teacher, and his dissatisfaction with a non-native teacher. This study is significant for establishing that while trusting relationships are essential for effective reception of feedback, they are also reflective of the larger cultural and social context of instruction. The study illustrates that learners' perceptions of teacher feedback are informed by their ideological stances, such as native speakerism, or the idea that native speakers are the most authoritative as instructors (Doerr, 2009).

Other scholars who focus on the relational dimensions of feedback (Best, 2011; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Treglia, 2008), have drawn on SCT to examine interpersonal aspects of the

feedback system, such as the teachers' use and students' reception of mitigation strategies. Mitigation can be understood as an attempt to weaken the harshness of a critique of a student's writing through a manner of commenting that takes on certain semantic phrasing or syntactic patterning. Hyland and Hyland (2006, p. 211) demonstrate how mitigation occurs through a range of syntactic forms including hedging, paired comments, personal attributions, and interrogative forms. Hedging often involves suggestive rather than direct language through the use of modal verbs such as "might" or "could" (i.e. "You might try…"). Paired comments involve praise which is accompanied by suggestion or criticism. Personal attributions are indexed through the use of the first person, and in such instances, the teacher's attempts to build trust and rapport by assuming a stance as an ordinary reader rather than as an authority through their phrasing (i.e. "As your reader, I found this part a little confusing."). Interrogative forms typically express uncertainty, and use questioning techniques (i.e. "These two ideas: do they need separate paragraphs?"). Mitigation studies have shown that mitigating criticism can play an important role in students' reception of feedback and attitudes toward writing, but mitigation can also be misunderstood by learners, or perceived as inauthentic (Baker & Hansen Bricker, 2010; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Treglia, 2008).

In addition to mitigation strategies, SCT also has provided teachers with pedagogical guidance related to feedback forms. Vygotskian orientations in particular stress that there is not one particular type of feedback that can be deemed as most effective for writers. The most effective feedback is rather varied in accordance with learners' Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), such that learners are assisted an adequate amount on writing tasks they cannot accomplish independently (Sheen, 2010). In accordance, feedback should be graduated, meaning that the teacher aspires to gradually remove or reduce the level of assistance they provide to encourage self-correction from the learner (Erlam et al., 2013). This means that teachers' feedback will estimate the minimum level of guidance needed for the learner to engage with the

task, and that it be contingent, so that feedback is offered only when it is needed (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994).

Because SCT emphasizes certain elements of the feedback system (i.e. teacher adjustment, and mediation through student interaction), some SCT researchers have gone beyond feedback that addresses language development through the lexicogrammatical or sentence-level features of students' writing (i.e. students' lexical choices, spelling, mechanics, syntactical phrasing). As Dervrim (2014) suggests, language development encompasses other elements of writing such as organization, content, genre, or the effectiveness of written register. Some SCT studies have approached language development in these broader terms. For instance, some scholars have considered teacher feedback provided to students during oral conferencing, investigating how teachers assist learners with global writing matters such as idea development, expansion, and structural organization (Ewert, 2009; Weissberg, 2006). One SCT scholar, Lee (2014), even critiques common approaches to feedback where teachers focus purely on writers' 'errors.' Responding to all 'errors' in a students' text would not be in alignment with SCT, because mediation, another cardinal concept in sociocultural theory, could not feasibly be achieved under such a response strategy. The concept of mediation maintains that mental and social activities are interconnected; mental activities occur only through interactions with others or with artifacts in the learning community, whereby the learner co-constructs knowledge about language, appropriating new forms and making changes to their system of interlanguage (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Cumming, 2016; Lantolf, 2000). Lee (2017) outlines criteria which are needed for feedback to accomplish mediation. Feedback should be intentional; rather than responding to all "errors," teachers should have a sense of purpose and direction in their feedback which is clearly aligned with their instruction. There also needs to be active student interaction with feedback, so that students are provided with input on in-process drafts, and given opportunities to revise.

Psycholinguistic and cognitive theorizations of feedback and its forms

In contrast to SCT, psycholinguistic theories of SLA are primarily concerned with the extent to which feedback assists students with acquisition of particular linguistic features in the L2. Therefore, such orientations have tended to focus more exclusively on corrective feedback which is provided to students on lexicogrammatical "errors" evident at the local sentence-level of their texts. Within the broader field of SLA, cognitive and psycholinguistic research has focused specifically on the individual mental writing processes associated with feedback, viewing writing as a cognitive process which relies on the writers' attentiveness, knowledge, and goals for their texts (Lee & Schallert, 2008) and revision as an act of "psychological problem-solving" (Cumming, 2016, p. 69). Psycholinguistic researchers have often considered the relationship between memory systems and writing processes; concerns in this subfield focus on the planning and monitoring processes, and cognitive loads involved in the uptake of differing feedback forms. Psycholinguists have explored aspects of writing assistance as they relate to the lexical complexity of texts. Psycholinguistic and cognitive studies have also tended to use experimental research designs (Bonilla López et al., 2018; Negro & Chanquoy, 2005; Roca de Larios et al., 2016). However Hyland (2010) identifies a need for more naturalistic and longitudinal designs in this area.

Written corrective feedback (WCF): definitions and forms

As noted by Sheen (2010), there is a substantial amount of support for the provision of corrective feedback (CF) which has come specifically from cognitive and psycholinguistic theories of SLA. For this reason, SCT and SLA theories emphasize different elements of the feedback systems. Rather than emphasizing mediation in the feedback system, psycholinguistic approaches emphasize the effectiveness of various forms of corrective feedback to promote learners' language development (Devrim, 2014). While much of research in SLA has considered the effects of oral CF rather than written corrective feedback (WCF), there is a growing body of

research in L2 writing studies focused on WCF. Ellis (2010) attributes the strong interest in both forms of CF to the theoretical relevance it holds for SLA researchers, the practical applications it carries for language teachers, and scholars' ability to identify instances of CF and carry out research in this area with relative ease.

Written corrective feedback (WCF) can be defined as error correction which is provided to L2 students' in writing, rather than through verbal means. To fully operationalize WCF, it is necessary to also define 'error,' as Ferris (2011) notes that the term has held different meanings and significance to SLA and composition scholars over time. For instance, some SLA scholars view errors as a part of a natural developmental stage that learners will eventually pass through, and thus not in themselves problematic (Horwitz, 1986; Sheen, 2013). In contrast, some L2 writing scholars, like Ferris, view the errors that L2 writers make as distinctive from those of native speakers and regard corrective feedback as an important channel to prevent error fossilization.

Ferris (2011) defines errors as "morphological, syntactic, and lexical forms that deviate from the rules of the target language, violating the expectations of literate adult native speakers" (p. 3). By mentioning "native speaker" expectations, this definition appears to recognize the subjectivity or variability of readers' response; rather than recognizing error as a discrete or isolated occurrence that can be objectively determined, the definition seems to emphasize error as a "flawed transaction" between the writer and individual reader (Williams, 1981, p. 153). Following Ferris' definition of error, WCF thus generally involves some form of correction surrounding a linguistic form that deviates from the expectations of "native speakers". To conceptualize error from a psycholinguistic perspective, it is helpful and perhaps even necessary to work within Ferris' definition. At the same time, it is important to mention some of the issues related to the term "native speaker" which is included in this definition. First of all, Ferris' definition appears to presume that it is native speakers who detect errors and are therefore

superior to non-native speakers in their provision of feedback. Yet as Devrim (2014) points out, the ability to provide feedback is related to one's expertise in a language rather than the heritage connection they have to it. Secondly, Ferris' definition offers little elaboration about the presumed personhoods of those assuming the status—presumably speakers of non-dominant varieties of English (i.e. African American Vernacular English, Working Class English) assume this status too.

There has been considerable scholarly debate about the use and nature of WCF in L2 writing. One area of contention relates to the relative importance of localized, sentence-level feedback as compared to feedback on macro-level issues related to content and organization. Proponents offer that WCF not only helps students to revise and improve their writing, but students value it (Ferris, 2011). Others deemphasize the importance of WCF, offering that readers' confusions with text may not relate to linguistic and grammatical issues, but rather to clarity and explanation provided by the writer (Merkel, 2018). There have been larger philosophical conversations questioning whether WCF has any value or should be used at all. Such conversations were pioneered and popularized by Truscott (1999), but even earlier by SLA scholars such as Krashen (1982). However, there seems to be a general consensus that to some extent, WCF is useful and valued, particularly for L2 writers (Ferris, 2011). More recent debate and considerable attention in SLA research relates to the relative effectiveness of differing forms of WCF (Baker & Hansen Bricker, 2010; Bitchener et al., 2005; Bonilla López et al., 2018; Erlam et al., 2013; Nagode et al., 2014; Nushi, 2016; Panahi et al., 2013; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010). The literature on the effectiveness of WCF forms is vast. Therefore, the following section samples the literatures in seeking to draw practical distinctions between the various forms of WCF which have been the ongoing subject of such research.

Forms of WCF. One concern amongst SLA researchers is whether teachers provide WCF which is focused or unfocused. An unfocused approach involves an attempt to correct a

broad range of errors, whereas a focused approach involves noticing a pattern of specific error types, and choosing a small number of error types to strategically intervene (Ferris, 2011; Wang & Jiang, 2015). There is a growing number of SLA studies which provide support for the provision of focused WCF over unfocused WCF. With an unfocused approach, teachers are not guided by a purpose and may respond to many types of errors, whereas with a focused approach, teachers direct learners' attention more deliberately to a specific error type, and increase the likelihood for learners to restructure their interlanguage systems around the error type (Lee, 2017; Wang & Jiang, 2015). However, research is not conclusive on this issue, as Wang and Jiang (2015) point out that there is far more research exploring the effectiveness of focused feedback than there is on unfocused feedback, and Ferris (2011) offers that a more comprehensive approach to error correction could actually serve students' long-term objectives in a world where a high degree of accuracy is expected around all error types, rather than a select few.

The various forms of WCF can also be distinguished based on two related continuums: directness and explicitness (examples of these categories are included in Table 1 below). With a direct approach, the teacher provides the correct linguistic form to the student, whereas with an indirect approach, the teacher merely indicates that an error has been made. The most extreme form of direct WCF occurs through reformulation, or rewriting the whole or substantial parts of the student's writing (Ferris, 2010). Less extreme direct approaches might include inserting smaller corrections, or providing explicit commands for corrections. Indirect WCF feedback forms vary across a continuum related to their explicitness. Less-explicit WCF occurs through highlighting, underlining, circling errors, or by recording the number of errors made for a given line in the text. More-explicit WCF is exemplified by the use of editing symbols to code specific error types, or by the use of labels indicating specific error types and categories (Ferris, 2011; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Wang & Jiang, 2015). Devrim (2014) further classifies explicit strategies as either metalinguistic (i.e. brief grammatical descriptions of problem areas) or

electronic (i.e. providing a hyperlink to a resource explaining an error type). While SLA studies have obtained contrasting results, and demonstrated merits for both direct and indirect approaches (Baker & Hansen Bricker, 2010), Ferris (2011) suggests that the overall trends point to the superiority of indirect approaches. Moreover, the notion of graduated feedback from SCT theory best aligns with indirect approaches. By increasing the learner's involvement in the task with a minimum level of guidance, indirect approaches resemble graduated feedback, aiming to involve learners more actively in a process of problem solving as they determine how to revise the target features (Sheen, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010).

	Indirect	
Direct	Implicit strategies	Explicit strategies
• Reformulating portions of the text (i.e. rewriting) • Inserting a correction • Providing a command for a correction	• Highlighting an "error" • Circling an "error" • Recording the number of "errors" made for a line in the text	• Using editing symbols to code specific "error" types • Labeling "error" types under a specific category • Offering a brief grammatical explanation of an "error type" • Providing a hyperlink to a resource explaining the "error"

Table 1: Direct and indirect approaches to error correction

Lastly, in providing WCF, Ferris (1999; 2011) has distinguished between targeting L2 error types that are "treatable" versus "untreatable." Treatable errors relate to linguistic features which occur in rule governed ways. Examples of treatable error types include issues relating to mechanics (i.e. run-on sentences, comma splices, sentence fragments, punctuation, and capitalization), and also those relating to grammar (i.e. subject-verb agreement, verb form, plural and possessive noun endings, use of articles, and some errors relating to word form and spelling). These errors can be understood as treatable because the student could consult a reference book to learn the structure. Untreatable errors are conversely those that are particular, and not entirely rule

governed. A student would not necessarily be able to consult a grammar or writing manual to be able to correct the error. Untreatable errors include most errors related to word choice, missing words, and some errors related to preposition usage. Ferris (2011) notes that the idiosyncratic nature of untreatable errors has led other scholars to conclude that they are best addressed by direct rather than indirect WCF. By adopting a SCT orientation in relation to the treatable/untreatable error distinction, it is reasonable to conclude that treatable errors can be best supported through graduated feedback (that which leads the learner to self-correct with less intervention from the teacher). However, Erlam et al. (2013) note that some types of treatable errors (i.e. the use of the past tense) are easier to understand than others (i.e. learning rules related to articles).

Incongruities between teacher beliefs, practices, and perceptions of error. A few L2 writing studies have considered the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices regarding WCF. While teachers have often voiced the relative importance of providing feedback to students on global matters (i.e. idea development, organization, content, argument) above local matters (i.e. grammar, punctuation, mechanics), a number of studies have shown that teacher devote more attention to lower-order, localized concerns and WCF in practice (Ferris et al., 2011; Ferris, 2014; Goldstein, 2016; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Given that teacher incongruity about WCF is common, a systematic self-study of feedback practices can be useful to help writing teachers root their practice in theory and make changes to their practice (Christiansen & Bloch, 2016). Teachers' beliefs may be at odds with practice in terms of the type of WCF they provide to students as well. For example, Best's (2011) self-study of her feedback practices in a university ESL setting demonstrates a disjuncture between her beliefs about error correction and her actual feedback practices on her L2 students' work. Before conducting her self-study, Best (2011) assumed that indirect error feedback was preferable (highlighting or indicating errors), and assumed that she gave students more indirect feedback on

errors. However, analysis of her actual feedback led her to realize that she was actually providing direct WCF far more often than she believed. This tendency to provide direct WCF was similarly found in a study conducted in an EFL Iranian university setting by Kazemi, Abadikhah, and Dehqan (2018). Best (2011) notes that the disjuncture between assumed and actual practice helped her to realize the importance of teacher self-study, for gaining an accurate understanding of teaching practices in relationship to teacher beliefs. It also led her to change her practice, and to deliberately provide indirect WCF to her students. Such kind of self-reflective work has similarly been emphasized by Feuerherm (2012) who offers strategies that writing teachers can adopt to develop their self-reflexivity, including discussing their beliefs about feedback with other writing teachers, and also comparing their beliefs about feedback with the actual feedback they have given students on their papers.

In Chapter 5, I will discuss at further length how teachers can develop greater self-awareness and self-reflexivity surrounding their perceptions of error constitution. For instance, in a study considering how raters of student writing responded to written error patterns, Johnson and VanBrackle (2012) found that raters tended to perceive "error" patterns typical of African American Vernacular English (AAVE) users (i.e. verbal –s absence, absence of is or are) as more egregious than those typical of ESL writers (i.e. subject-verb agreement). Yet when taking a descriptive linguistic orientation, such AAVE "error" patterns are considered as "features" integral to the language variety. Therefore, multidialectal English learners are likely to display different developmental errors from L2 English learner. In both cases, "errors" emerge from learners' own literate practices, and have been cultivated through learners' educational experiences, which may diverge from instructors' educational experiences or their expectations about dominant language conventions (Horner et al., 2011). Critically-aware instructors may therefore experience some dilemmas in interpreting what constitutes a mistake or an error

(Zawacki & Habib, 2014), and recognize their perceptions of error as socially-constructed responses to students' language differences (Matarese & Anson, 2010).

Studies of student response to feedback

The second major focal area for feedback studies relates to students' responses to their instructors' feedback. While earlier studies inquiring into the effects of teacher feedback suggested that feedback is often ineffective or ignored by students (Zamel, 1985), more recent studies have demonstrated that feedback actually improves students writing, and that students actually value it (Clements, 2008; Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris, 1995; Goldstein, 2016; Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011; Zumbrunn, Marrs, & Mewborn, 2016). The scholarship on student response to feedback can be grouped into three main areas of inquiry. The first area relates to students' processing of feedback; it explores relationships between the feedback students receive and their revisions. The second area accounts for students' preferences about the feedback they receive and the third area accounts for students' affective reactions toward feedback. In the sections that follow, I distinguish between these three sub-areas of inquiry. I describe research methodologies researchers in each sub-area adopt and summarize a few research findings which are relevant for my own investigation.

Processing feedback: Relationships between feedback and students' uptake

Processing WCF

Given the strong interest in WCF in SLA and L2 writing studies, a body of studies have considered the relationships between WCF and student revisions. Such studies focus on students' uptake of WCF forms and examine the degrees to which students are successful revising the target linguistic feature based on the form of WCF which is provided. Such studies have often used a case study methodology (Han & Hyland, 2015; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010; Sze, 2002) and some use larger mixed-methods designs (Bitchener et al., 2005; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009).

One representative example of such research is Han and Hyland's (2015) case study of four EFL learners in a Chinese tertiary setting. The researchers found that the learners engaged with the WCF their instructor provided to varying degrees and that they had different emotional and attitudinal responses to it. The type of error receiving the most WCF was word choice errors for three of the four students. While one motivated student successfully revised most of the WCF forms provided on an initial draft, another student reported feeling confused about WCF, choosing to disengage with it by having a peer edit his paper for him instead. Drawing upon a sociocultural view of feedback, affective factors and social relationships will therefore influence the writer's decision making about feedback. For example, Lee and Schallert (2008) show that distrust in the teacher's knowledge of language influenced one student's choice to disregard feedback. However, psycholinguistic understandings will place greater emphasis on individual traits rather on social conditions and power relationships within the classroom. Therefore, within the psycholinguistic view, differing responses and success revising the target structure relate to individual differences such as ability level, developmental readiness (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999), available time to do revisions (Goldstein, 2016), and motivation (Goldstein, 2005).

Uptake and processing differing types of feedback

Other L2 writing studies have broadened the focus beyond WCF, examining instances of uptake in relation to differing comment types. Such studies have considered both sentence-level feedback (i.e. WCF) as well as global feedback (relating to meaning, content, organization, or idea development). The methodological approach underlying such studies involves determining the extent of student uptake. Researchers analyze both qualitatively and quantitatively instances students are successful (or unsuccessful) in addressing differing types of instructor comments mostly in naturalistic settings, but also some experimental settings (i.e. Baker & Hansen Bricker, 2010). Uptake success is often defined as improving a problem area addressed in feedback and comments can be understood as a stretch of discourse which carries a unified intended aim

(Conrad & Goldstein, 1999). One representative study in this area is Ene and Upton's (2014) study of 12 L2 writers and three instructors in a college composition context. The researchers determined that students engaged in successful uptake on average 63.3% of the time. Even though the three instructors in this study focused their comments more on content concerns than surface-level concerns, the researchers found that students' uptake was more often successful in relation to grammar as compared to content concerns. Similar to this finding, Sze (2002) determined that one reluctant L2 writer in an upper-level high school setting in Canada made more revisions to feedback focused on lower order concerns in his writing (i.e. mechanics and lexical changes) than he did on higher order concerns (structure, argument) when considering all of his writing samples. However, the student also made higher order revisions when he received more feedback related to this area. Sze's study thus demonstrates that the type of revisions students make directly relates to the nature of feedback they receive. Moreover, a few researchers (Christiansen & Bloch, 2016; Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Sze, 2002) have made the observation that self-initiated revisions, falling outside those elicited by instructors, were uncommon among L2 writers.

Alshairf and Alyousef's (2017) more recent feedback study, however, complicates the observation that L2 writers do not often initiate revisions outside of those elicited by the instructor. Their study focused on six highly motivated ESL students in an Australian university context. In general, all students in this study received more comments from their instructors which were focused on surface-level issues; 75% of all instructor comments focused on surface-level issues. However, through their analysis of student drafts, the researchers determined that three students were "locally-oriented" (more responsive to surface-level comments), and three students were "globally-oriented" (more responsive to meaning-level comments). The globally-oriented students tended to focus on both end comments related to meaning-level and structural changes, as well as body comments focused on surface and grammar issues. The globally-oriented students also initiated revisions which were not specific to the instructor's feedback.

However, the locally-oriented students tended to focus more on surface-level body comments, and spent a shorter amount of time revising. This study demonstrates that students have different beliefs, concerns, and approaches to the feedback they receive. Locally-oriented students often reported being reluctant to add new ideas in fear that their grade would suffer with the increased chance of making grammatical errors with newly added content. Globally-oriented students believed that changing the content of the essay was important for improving their writing.

Christiansen and Bloch (2016) similarly examined how four L2 writers who were first year graduate students in a university ESL program responded to different types of comments from their instructor. Dissimilar from Alshairf and Alyousef's (2017) study, a coding and analysis of all of the instructor's comments revealed less emphasis on surface-level issues: 37% of comments focused on grammatical items; 26% focused on idea development; 10% focused on structure and organization; and 10% related to other types of personalized comments. Overall, students followed 49.16% of instructor suggestions successfully and partially followed 9.62% of the comments. Students were found to ignore 4.68% of the comments, which the researchers attributed in part to misunderstanding them. Similarly, misunderstanding of comments was a possible explanation given for unsuccessful revisions students made in Conrad and Goldstein's (1999) study.

Conrad and Goldstein's (1999) study of the revision success of three advanced level ESL composition students at an urban university sheds light on the relationship between revision success and the revision issue which is being addressed in the instructor comment. A general finding from this study was that revision success was most strongly associated with the type of problem students were asked to revise. While students were generally more successful when comments asked them to provide specific information or add examples, they experienced the most difficulty when comments focused on the development of argument and asked students to provide explanation or analysis. For instance, one focal student, Tran, was successful when he

was asked to add concrete examples to his argumentative essay focused on discrimination. However, he experienced difficulty when he was asked to provide explanation, making his argument about the causes of discrimination more explicit in relationship to the specific examples he provided in the text. The researchers attribute this particular difficulty to a lack of content knowledge in the subject area, and more generally point to a variety of individual factors that may inhibit revision success, including content knowledge, strong beliefs, course content, and time limitations. This study illustrates that revision success not only relates to the syntactic shape of the comment (i.e. whether it is declarative or integrative) but that it also relates to the type of issue that the student is being asked to revise, as well as to individual and contextual subjectivities.

Student preferences and affective reactions to feedback

Overview of the methodologies

A distinctive feature of all studies in this category of literature is that they place emphasis on the student perspectives rather than instructor perspectives on feedback. Generally speaking, studies that have elicited students' preferences for feedback tend to overwhelmingly adopt survey and self-report methodologies (Diab, 2006; Elwood & Bode, 2014; Ferguson, 2011; D. R. Ferris, 1995; Gredler, 2018; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Zumbrunn et al., 2016). To a lesser extent, such studies have combined surveys with other methods of data collection such as interview (Zacharias, 2007), or instructor written feedback (Irwin, 2017). Lee's (2008) study is noteworthy for triangulating student surveys with a range of data sources including interview, classroom observation, and teacher feedback. On the other hand, studies that elicit students' reactions to instructor feedback tend to utilize student interview methodologies (Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Treglia, 2008; Wang & Li, 2011). To a lesser extent, think-aloud protocols (Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011; Scrocco, 2012), and focus group (Best et al., 2015) methodologies have also been employed.

Student preferences for feedback

Across studies that elicit student preferences, students have indicated a preference to receive more feedback from their teachers (Lee, 2008); they have also perceived instructor feedback to be more valuable than feedback from their peers (Hu & Ren, 2012). Yet, they also expressed difficulties understanding some of the feedback they receive from their teachers. In one survey study of 155 students enrolled in a university ESL program, only half indicated that they never had problems understanding instructor comments (Ferris, 1995). This finding was intensified in a more recent survey of 100 EFL students in an Indonesian university; in this instance, 91% reported that they sometimes experienced difficulty understanding feedback. In interviews with a smaller number of respondents, a few of these students attributed such difficulty to feedback that contains unfamiliar terminology (Zacharias, 2007). Students have also reported feeling confused when feedback is too general, and they have expressed a preference for longer comments that point to specific problems and offer specific revision strategies (Goldstein, 2016). Many have reported difficulty reading their instructor's handwriting (Ferguson, 2011), yet in Elwood and Bode's (2014) study of 410 EFL students at a Japanese university, students preferred handwritten feedback to electronic feedback (e-feedback). Providing e-feedback, however, eliminates the potential difficulty students may experience with legibility. Students' preferences for e-feedback were a principal topic of Gredler's (2018) study, which surveyed the preferences of 93 students enrolled at an online university in the United States. Students in this study overwhelmingly expressed a preference for teacher's using comment balloons as opposed to having their teachers write comments in the body of their text. They also expressed a desire for comments to be proximal to the location of the text which is being addressed.

Generally, composition students have expressed desire to receive WCF from their instructors, especially in L2 writing contexts (Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995). However, a few points are needed to qualify this generalized claim. Firstly, L2 students report paying more attention to

WCF on early drafts compared to final drafts (Ferris, 1995). Secondly, L2 students may be more expectant of receiving form-focused feedback from their composition teachers than disciplinary teachers (Leki, 2006; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Thirdly, Hedgecock and Lefkowitz (1994) point out that among the different types of L2 writers, a preference for WCF can be higher for foreign language (i.e. EFL) students than for ESL students, given the purpose for which writing is undertaken in the different contexts. While college-level ESL writers use English for all their academic endeavors, EFL students may view writing as a form of language practice. In their study, both ESL and FL students expressed an interest in feedback on form, but FL students paid more attention to it, and ESL students were also interested in receiving feedback on content (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994). Studies in other EFL contexts seem to support students' heightened preference for receiving WCF from their instructors. In this regard, 90% of the EFL university students surveyed in Diab's (2006) reported that it is important to them to have as few errors as possible in their written work. Hu and Ren's (2012) survey of 116 Chinese EFL writers in a university context indicates that while most students appreciate receiving both peer and instructor feedback, they trust in the authority of the teacher more than the peers to provide corrective feedback. While the large majority of EFL students in a Japanese university context expressed a preference for receiving feedback in more than one area (i.e. form and content), more than half said they wanted their teachers to point out all of the mistakes they make in their writing. In terms of the types of errors they wanted their teachers to attend to, the largest percentage of students (47.4%) expressed an interest in feedback related to lexical mistakes (vocabulary and expressions). Grammar was second to this desire at 36.8%. The students in this study were also split on their preferences for receiving WCF that was direct or indirect (Irwin, 2017).

Students' affective reactions to feedback

As a whole, the research literature in this sub-area demonstrates that students experience a range of both positive and negative emotions in relation to the feedback they receive from their instructors (Wang & Li, 2011). In terms of positive reactions, a few researchers have demonstrated that students respond positively to praise (Best et al., 2015; Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011) and also to mitigation, viewing suggestive comments (rather than directive comments) as a form of respect and politeness from their teachers (Treglia, 2008).

At the same time, students have expressed doubts about the sincerity of some mitigating techniques, such as the pairing of praise with criticism. The use of mitigation can carry potential for miscomprehension compared to more direct approaches, as praise is often used to soften criticisms rather than simply to indicate something was done well (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). In this regard, Baker and Bricker (2010) showed that both native and nonnative college students were more accurate and faster in responding to direct as compared to indirect and hedged comments. This, however, does not imply that teachers should only use direct feedback, nor that they should only prioritize speed and accuracy in student revisions. In this regard, Scrocco's (2012) study demonstrates that directive feedback can actually have the effect of limiting students' engagement with the feedback and limiting the extent of their revisions to surface issues. In this study, the researcher used a think-aloud protocol and asked four composition students to react orally to their instructor's written comments as they were viewing them for the first time. The researcher demonstrated that comments that are open ended and conversational in nature tended to elicit more conversational responses, prompting students to engage in generative tasks such as brainstorming ideas or planning revisions, as they processed the comments. Conversely, directive comments, including those written in brief imperative form, tended to limit student responses to making mechanical and superficial changes to their texts.

Students also have described negative reactions they have had from the feedback they have received. In Wang and Li's (2011) qualitative interview study of 10 doctoral students who spoke English as an additional language, students who experienced negative reactions to feedback consistently reported experiencing unequal power dynamics with their supervisor. In these situations, the relationship dynamic was one of apprentice and master. On the contrary, those who had more positive experiences with feedback also found themselves to be in a more equal relationship, one of mentor and mentee. The negative effects of unequal power dynamics have similarly emerged in undergraduate settings. Students are highly aware of the unequal power relationship with the teacher given that the teacher gives grades (Zacharias, 2007). Teacher's feedback often carries both developmental (i.e. help the student to revise and make improvements) and evaluative (assign a grade) aims; it can be difficult for students to negotiate both aims together (Clements, 2008). A group of teacher researchers in a university ESL setting investigated 20 students' views of their teachers' feedback using focus group methods (Best et al., 2015). One of the principal findings emerging from this study related to the emotionally charged negative reactions students spoke of in regard to grades, as they often receive feedback together with their grades. Anxiety surrounding grades was also a theme; one student in the study said that he avoided opening an email relating to his grade, because he was afraid it would ruin his whole day. Students also reported having difficulties moving on after receiving a low grade (Best et al., 2015).

Students have also expressed negative reactions to WCF. For example, in Zacharias' (2007) survey and interview study of 100 EFL students in an Indonesian university context, students expressed a desire to receive feedback on form. However, their affective reactions often related to the amount of feedback they received. If they received 'too much feedback,' they reported feeling annoyed or discouraged to continue with their writing. If they received less feedback, they reported feeling 'happy' and 'motivated,' knowing that there were fewer mistakes

to attend to in their revisions. Findings were similar in Mahfoodh and Pandian's (2011) qualitative interview study also in a university EFL context. Students in this study expressed a desire to receive feedback across different areas of writing, including content, organization, vocabulary, mechanics, but had negative reactions when they received too many corrections. These researchers also found that students had negative reactions to the use of codes in relation to WCF, because they did not understand them. A few studies have also found that students who have negative affective reactions to WCF (i.e. anxiety) tend to have lower language proficiency, whereas students who have positive reactions to WCF and desire it tend to have higher language proficiency (Elwood & Bode, 2014; Lee, 2008).

Part 2: CLA Studies

CLA is not a new concept. The term first materialized in the early 1990s through the work of a small group of scholars in Lancaster, UK (Achugar, 2015). Their work is best represented collectively through Norman Fairclough's edited book volume, *Critical language awareness*, which was published in 1992. As discussed in greater detail in the section that follows, 1992 was also the year of inception for the academic journal, *Language Awareness,* and the first CLA scholars exhibited a strong presence in this journal. For example, Clark and Ivanič (1999) edited a special issue focused on CLA. These early scholars advanced CLA as a pedagogy which holds immediate relevance and application for composition pedagogies. According to Fairclough (1992) CLA seeks not only to teach written conventions of English, but also to highlight how such "language conventions and language practices are invested with power relations and ideological processes which people are often unaware of" (p. 7). In other words, CLA helps composition students to develop a critical consciousness surrounding the language conventions they encounter, encouraging them to investigate, question, and even to challenge such conventions when they desire to do so in their own writing. Many earlier publications built

immediately on Fairclough's work by focusing on academic reading and writing (Svalberg, 2007).

While the CLA concept first came into vogue largely amongst writing instructors and practitioners in the 1990s, today CLA represents a growing area of specialization that is located primarily in the discipline of sociolinguistics (Alim, 2010), rather than in the discipline of composition studies. CLA currently offers broad applications to practitioners working in a variety of language education settings. Given that the context of the current study is a composition classroom where the majority of learners use English as an additional language, the original and the more recent applications of CLA applications together hold relevance for this study. In the sections that follow, I seek to accomplish a number of tasks. First, I trace the origins of the CLA movement back to the 20th century "Language Awareness" (LA) movement in the UK. I compare CLA and LA movements, exploring their connections, and identifying their distinctive yet complimentary features. Following a discussion of C/LA's 20th century British origins, I explore C/LA applications in relation to parallel critical linguistic movements existing in US college composition contexts. Then, I move into a discussion of more recent CLA studies.

The origins of the language awareness movement and its critical branches

CLA emerged in tandem to the LA movement; the founders of CLA saw their recommendations and pedagogical approaches as complementary to the LA movement but also distinctive from it. Therefore, a robust understanding of CLA necessitates an understanding of LA and a few words are in order about the origins of the LA movement. Similar to CLA, LA originated in the United Kingdom. In the 1950s and 1960s, there were influxes of immigrants coming to the United Kingdom, and English was not the first language for many immigrant students in the school system (Komorowska, 2014). It followed that in the 1970s, there were a number of policy reports expressing concerns about educational deficits of students upon their completion of secondary education. Such reports expressed concern about the low levels of

British students' English literacy achievement, as well a concern for the general underachievement in foreign language learning (James, 1999). Therefore, as Komoroska (2014) notes the LA movement was originally "put forward as an attempt to answer the needs of the L1 in the British school system" (p. 5) both from the standpoint of English teachers, and with the expertise of British linguists such as Michael Halliday (James, 1999).

To answer such needs of British students, LA came about as a pedagogical approach largely aiming to draw students' attention to the forms, structure, and properties of the language. It sought to enable students to develop 'knowledge about language' (Norman Fairclough, 1992d), making it an approach similar to many structural-linguistic oriented approaches to L2 instruction (Doddy Irmawati & Hum, 2014). The term became widespread in the UK by the early 1980s (Donmall-Hicks, 1997), and by 1992, the LA approach gained further traction through the inception of *Language Awareness,* an academic journal dedicated exclusively to the topic. LA has broad pedagogical aims, and Svalberg (2007) makes the point that most current approaches to language instruction can also be seen as LA approaches if they aim "to raise consciousness of how linguistic systems work" (p. 290). Yet at the same time, Svalberg's (2007) comprehensive review of the subject suggests a few reemerging characteristics of LA approaches. These include involving learners in ongoing and active investigation about language and incorporating analytical talk about language into classroom instruction. Such investigations and analytic talk of language can occur across five domains, identified by James and Garrett (1991). These include the cognitive, affective, social, power, and performance domains. The cognitive domain relates to the study of language patterns. The affective domain relates to the study of language attitudes and emotions. The social domain focuses on the role of language in communication. The power domain concerns the study of language as an instrument of domination. The performance domain concerns one's general command of language (Finkbeiner & White, 2017; James & Garrett, 1991). As the LA approaches emerged in UK schools, an over emphasis on some domains

(coupled with a neglect for other domains) aroused different concerns from practitioners and researchers.

The early spread of the LA movement encountered a range of resistance not only within academic circles, but also within the UK educational system. Equating LA more narrowly with the cognitive domain, as a re-emphasis on explicit and rote grammar instruction, some teachers resisted LA (Svalberg, 2007). Yet early CLA scholars had a different set of concerns relating to the affective and power domains. While they largely agreed with the basic tenants of the LA movement, they also saw it as insufficient in terms of dealing with the underlying power dynamics surrounding the conventions and use of language (Norman Fairclough, 1992c). In their analysis of a number of early LA policy documents and teaching materials, these scholars expressed concerns that the documents did not bring attention to the ideological struggles surrounding language use. While the materials included a language-variety component, assisting students in gaining knowledge and appreciation for English language variation, they did not prompt students to question the social processes of domination through which the standard language variety comes to have more status and legitimacy than other non-dominant language varieties (Clark et al., 1990). By airing their concerns, these scholars exploited the notion that language is not fixed, but rather variable. They emphasized a linguistically-oriented tenant of LA, and ensured that the movement carried a critical dimension early on (Svalberg, 2007). While the CLA scholars sought to push the LA movement into a more critical and emancipatory domain in its early phase, the UK government responded with opposition. In 1991, Tim Egger, the Education Minister at the time, blocked the publication of some LA materials that included language-variety components, deeming them to be inappropriate in their inclusion of non-standard language varieties (James, 1999). James (1991) summarizes the early history of the LA and CLA movement respectively, stating that while LA "begun as deficit language education; it was suppressed on account of its association with a view that the real deficit lay within the

establishment" (p. 96). In other words, while the critical component of LA existed early on, the more critical branch of the movement ultimately was suppressed as it sought to question language standards and norms, rather than upholding the views of the establishment.

The origins of critical language movements in US-based college composition

While the early scholarship in CLA found its origins in the UK, there have been a number of parallel historical educational movements existing within the US context that were similarly grounded in sociolinguistic concerns. This review is selective in discussing past educational movements, but readers may consult other reviews for more comprehensive historical discussions (see Higgins, Nettell, Furukawa, & Sakoda, 2012; Kaplan, 2014; Pavlenko, 2002; Smitherman, 1998). One historical event occurring in higher education warrants further attention for purposes of this study. In 1974, the US-based Conference on College Composition and Communication set forth a resolution, *Students' Right to Their Own Language* (SRTOL), drawing attention to the social inequities that students from linguistically marginalized groups face within education (Higgins et al., 2012). The resolution stated that dialect does not impact whether students will be able to write and declared that all students have the right to use whatever dialects and idiolects best represent their families, communities, and personal identities within the college classroom. The resolution spoke directly to issues of power and inequity, stating:

> The claim that any one dialect is unacceptable amounts to an attempt of one social group to exert its dominance over another. Such a claim leads to false advice for speakers and writers, and immoral advice for humans (CCCC, 1974, p. 2-3).

This resolution, which became the official policy of CCCC, was controversial (Smitherman, 1995). Within composition scholarship, it set in motion a longstanding series of questions and concerns as to how educators could best support the ethnolinguistically diverse students in their classrooms. More than 40 years later, composition scholars still view the resolution as a "touchstone" for "progressive language campaigns" (Gilyard, 2016, p. 285) and college composition instructors still struggle with how to implement SRTOL in practice (Davila, 2016).

In response to these struggles, there is a great wealth of composition scholarship to support composition instructors in implementing SRTOL and taking critical orientations to language in their classrooms. However, CLA theory, which is best represented by the works of Fairclough and his Lancaster colleagues, is not often part of these conversations. There are a few composition scholars who have quite recently drawn upon CLA theories (Gere et al., 2021; Weaver, 2019). However, more often, composition scholars draw upon translingualism as a theory (Horner & Alvarez, 2019).[6]

(C)LA as a response to SRTOL

While the original LA movement developed outside of SRTOL, what sorts of approaches might they offer to SRTOL resolution? As noted by Svalberg (2007), LA is a vast field. One can hold different theoretical orientations within it at the same time. Most writing teachers draw on multiple discourses of learning to write even within a single lesson, and their approaches can range from the cognitive, to the psycholinguistic, to the critical (Ivanič, 2004). However, Svalberg offers that the shared concern of LA practitioners is an "engagement with language" whether it "be intellectual, affective, social, or political" (p. 302), or even a combination of these elements. From Svalberg's perspective, criticality in LA approaches might "best be seen as a matter of degree and focus, rather than either present or absent" (p. 298). While I largely align myself with Svalberg's sentiment here, I will explore the question further, differentiating language awareness curricula that background criticality from those that foreground it.

Appropriate-based LA approaches

A commonplace LA response to the SRTOL resolution (which deemphasizes LA's critical dimensions) is the "appropriate-based" approach. With appropriate-based pedagogies,

[6] As both the translingual and CLA movements promote linguistic justice, there is much common ground between them (See Britton & Lorimer Leonard, 2020 for further explanation).

non-standardized varieties of language are respected and conceived as being appropriate for some situations, but inappropriate for other situations (Fairclough, 1992b). Appropriate-based approaches generally advance the view that standardized language practices are most appropriate for academic settings (Flores & Rosa, 2015). At minimum, this view provides composition instructors with a practical means to address the resolution by exhibiting respect for students' home language varieties and paying lip service to the value of linguistic diversity. However, by prescribing which language varieties are appropriate for particular situations, and projecting an idealized version of the standard variety, appropriate models can uphold prescriptivist orientations to language and retain ideological underpinnings that present obstacles to criticality (Fairclough, 1992b).

Promising LA approaches

Awareness of linguistic variation

More progressive LA approaches might help students to gain sociolinguistic content knowledge and recognize the sociolinguistic reality that no speech community exists without linguistic variation (Fairclough, 1992b; Godley, Reaser, & Moore, 2015; Ivanič, 1990). To this end, a more progressive LA model might engage students in a language discovery process, by enabling them to explore and draw comparisons between particular language features associated with a non-dominant variety and the standardized counterparts, an approach that as often been referenced as the contrastive approach (Higgins et al., 2012). For example, one college composition instructor, Lee (2014), reported using McArthur's (1998) Circle of World English graphic. The use of this graphic helped students gain a linguistic vocabulary for non-dominant English varieties. Others have reported similar activities to promote dialect awareness. These include examining writing passages written in non-dominant English varieties, and inviting students to use home varieties in their writing, with consideration of the effects, benefits, and risks associated with such linguistic choices (Bommarito & Cooney, 2016; Canagarajah, 2006;

Crisco, 2004; Davila, 2016; Elsasser & Irvine, 1985; Siegel, 2006; Toth, 2013). Tardy (2011) points out how uncommon these sorts of activities remain today in college composition contexts.

Writing as identity making

In addition to promoting dialect awareness, promising LA approaches recognize language as a fundamental resource for the production and expression of identity (Bucholtz & Hall, 2004) and increase students' awareness of writing as an act of identity. Ivanič (1998) summarizes such an approach, stating that "writers have to recognize that they are involved in a process of self-attribution: forging their own allegiances to particular traditions and sets of values by their language choices" (p. 3). With this in mind, such an approach presumes that the writer's identity is always being etched into the texts they create, through linguistic resources they draw upon. This emphasis teaches students that using language in a particular way also implies a particular kind of person to their readers, draws students' attention to the discoursal choices they make, and asks them to consider how the use of certain linguistic features positions them in relation to other individuals, groups, or discourse communities. For example, Clark (1992), as a university composition instructor, offered the following comment to a student who opted for an impersonal writing style that excluded first person pronouns: "Is this impersonal style a deliberate choice on your part? Why? Let's discuss this" (p. 134). Such kind of questioning alerts students to their particular linguistic choices, without directing them to make changes. Writing identity scholars advocate that such kind of language awareness enables students to gain greater control of their language, and make conscious linguistic choices which align with the identities they wish to align with and convey to their readers (Burgess & Ivanič, 2010; Clark & Ivanič, 1999; Ivanič, 2005).

CLA approaches

While the LA approaches reviewed in the previous section are promising, applying the term "critical" to language awareness ultimately entails an overt focus on concerns of power,

inequality, and dominance (Janks, 2000; Pennycook, 2010). It implies that students be engaged in an analysis of the relationships of dominance, discrimination, power, and control as they emerge by and through language (Wodak, 1995). As Godley, Reaser and Moore (2015) offer, "to be truly critical, language pedagogy must teach students to question existing language ideologies and become aware of the ways in which language upholds systems of privilege and discrimination" (p. 43). Thus without an explicit exploration of the underlying power struggles related to language standardization, many promising LA approaches may still uphold standardized conventions, by reinforcing standard and raciolinguistic ideologies (Flores & Rosa, 2015).

Writing for social justice

Therefore, from my perspective as a reviewer of the CLA literature, the most robust CLA response to SRTOL also requires an overtly political response which is led by the writing instructor. CLA involves the instructor in sharing knowledge about standard language ideologies and the potential harms they may cause (Watson, 2018). Similarly, CLA draws students' heightened attention to the ideological nature of language pedagogies, by enabling students to identity, question, and even at times trouble the far reaching prescriptivist orientations to language that have dominated their educational experiences. CLA involves student writers in risk taking endeavors because they consider potentially uncomfortable topics, foregrounding linguistic systems of privilege, disadvantage, profiling or discrimination in their writing (Godley et al., 2015). It involves the instructor not only in asking students to write for social justice purposes (Huang, 2013) but also in providing students with guidance in selecting socially significant writing topics. Writing topics particularly salient to CLA make social inequality visible either by attending to specific linguistic forms or more broadly to unequal statuses of languages (Huang, 2012; Janks, 2000; Liu & Tannacito, 2013).

Critical reading strategies

While CLA presumes that students take up socially and linguistically just positions as writers, it also presumes that they take up equitable positions as readers of texts through the adoption of critical reading strategies. A principal assumption underlying any CLA-informed reading of a text is that its authors have ideological intentions. In this way, the text promotes certain interests, and purposes, at the expense of other interests and purposes. Texts are ultimately written for "ideal readers," those who do not question or deconstruct the ideological intentions of texts. To disrupt this, CLA scholars have offered what has been termed "critical," "oppositional" and "empowered" reading strategies. A critical reader might ask how a text either reinforces or challenges power hierarchies through its linguistic features (Wallace, 1999). A critical reader has democratic aims, considering whose interests are being served through the text, and whose interests are being marginalized (Huang, 2013; Janks & Ivanič, 1992; Wallace, 1992, 1999). Given these democratic aims, several scholars (Janks, 2005; Merga & Booth, 2017; Sanchez, 2010; Wallace, 1999; Weninger & Kan, 2013) have recommended the use of everyday and popular texts (i.e. advertisements, newspapers, letters, political messaging, social media posts) to promote critical reading strategies.

Writing and education scholars have made recommendations about the written genres and pedagogies that support students CLA and critical reading strategies. For example, some composition scholars (Huckin, 2002; Huckin, 1997; Sanchez & Paulson, 2008; Stone & Stewart, 2016) have recommended rhetorical analysis as a writing genre that involves students in close textual examinations by analyzing specific linguistic features (i.e. word choices) and the effect these choices have on readers. Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) is a theory that is compatible with this writing genre, because it "shows how different choices serve different purposes and thus create different meanings" (Brisk & Zisselberger, 2011, p. 114). Other scholars in education and applied linguistics advocate that SFL-oriented pedagogies support the development of students'

critical language awareness as they read and closely analyze texts (Colombi, 2015; R. M. Harman & Khote, 2018; O'Hallaron et al., 2015; Schleppegrell & Moore, 2018; Simmons, 2018; Zhang & O'Halloran, 2019). SFL theory provides students with a metalanguage to describe an author's language choices and to consider how such choices create meanings. Schleppegrell and More (2018) assert that critical language awareness is supported as students present their views about these texts in writing and assert their own stances about what they have read.

Recent trends in CLA studies

CLA theories originate from social movements arising in language education, so it is unsurprising that many more CLA recent studies occur within K-12 pre-service and in-service language teacher education settings. To advance CLA, recent studies include examinations of teachers' language ideologies toward stigmatized language varieties. For example, Alim (2010) points to the similarity of teachers' language ideologies in both San Francisco and Philadelphia area schools in regards to Black English, noting that many see the language of Black students as something to eliminate in the classroom. Godley, Carpenter, and Werner's (2007) study of a 10th grade English language arts classroom similarly found that daily grammar instructional activities represented written Standard English as the only appropriate variety for school settings. Less common but existent are examinations of teachers that legitimize marginalized languages in their classrooms. For example, Zavala (2015) demonstrates how one teacher of Quechua in the Peruvian context held some ambivalent and contradictory ideologies toward Quechua as non-dominant language, but ultimately fostered CLA in her students by prompting them to reflect on issues of power and ideology surrounding its use.

While much of the research occurs in K-12 language education settings, the study of teacher language ideologies has also been an area of concern in higher education settings. In some cases research demonstrates that CLA is increasingly evident among university educators' through shifting attitudes that favor the use of non-standardized varieties such as Hawai'i Creole

(Lockwood & Saft, 2016), Black English (Stone & Stewart, 2016), Navajo English, and Diné bizaad (Toth, 2013) in the classroom. In other cases, university language educators' attitudes manifest standard language ideologies, and maintain ideologies of appropriateness, privileging standardized forms of English (Weaver, 2019) as well as standardized forms of other languages like Spanish (Showstack, 2015) as the ones most suitable for academic settings.

Given that each teacher's own C/LA is an important prerequisite for the teaching of CLA (Finkbeiner & White, 2017), centering teachers' language ideologies in research has been an important step toward educational reform and teacher training. A number of scholars focused their efforts on documenting teachers' emerging CLA through their participation in pre-service and in-service k-12 language teacher training programs (Carpenter et al., 2015; Doecke et al., 2004; Godley et al., 2015; Mosley Wetzel & Rogers, 2015). For example, Carpenter et al. (2015) trace the development of one teacher's CLA as he develops a metalanguage from Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) theory that enables him to talk about language.

Observing these trends and promising efforts, Canagarjah (2016) notes that critical linguistic orientations to teacher professional development are nowadays increasingly common in teacher education programs, but far less common in composition programs. There is little empirical research on CLA as part of teacher professional development in the field of composition studies. Moreover, the majority of college and developmental writing instructors receive their training through composition departments rather than through teacher education departments. Therefore, current trends and research directions suggest that the field of composition studies could generally benefit from increased attention to CLA, both in terms of scholarship and professional development.

Part 3: Meta-summary of the feedback and CLA literature

The feedback literature offers this dissertation research an ontological foundation. Existing studies in this area all consider teacher feedback as the primary unit of analysis, providing crucial understandings about multiple forms of feedback, as well as the diverse ways that students experience and respond to feedback. The differing SLA theoretical orientations researchers have adopted within feedback studies emphasize different dimensions of the feedback system. Sociocultural orientations emphasize the dialogical nature of feedback, and have enabled researchers to consider its interpersonal, sociopolitical, and relational dynamics. For example, a sociocultural study of feedback form could entail a study of mitigation, with attention to teacher's relational efforts, and their attempts to soften criticisms of their students' writing through a range of syntactic strategies. Meanwhile, psycholinguistic theories inform many feedback studies in L2 writing. Such theories have prompted a great number of feedback studies focused on the localized features of learners' texts, and the diverse forms of feedback teachers use. As instructors respond to the 'errors' they perceive in L2 students' writing, their use of WCF, in its multiple forms, has gained substantial empirical attention.

While CLA studies do not consider teacher feedback as a unit of analysis, the theory of CLA offers this dissertation research an epistemological foundation. The CLA literature offers teacher researchers and practitioners a praxis, providing direction for how a critical language study can be achieved within writing instruction. Promising directions imply an emphasis on language variation. This can include activities in contrastive analysis, directing learners' attention to the legitimacy of particular features of non-dominant English varieties. Other promising approaches include drawing learners' attention to their own particular linguistic and textual choices and asking learners to consider how they position themselves as well as other readers through these choices. Yet, the most robust CLA approaches are in service of a social justice project, centering concerns of power, equity, domination, and marginalization. Such approaches

prompt learners to engage in critical and interpretive analyses of linguistic power and domination. Within the composition classroom, such analyses can be accomplished through a variety of reading and writing strategies, including textual responses and rhetorical analysis.

Part 4: Toward a CLA-informed feedback model

While this dissertation study focuses primarily on my CLA-informed feedback points and students' responses to it, I begin this section by acknowledging the interconnectedness of CLA-informed feedback and CLA-informed assessment criteria. In order to determine CLA assessment criteria and provide CLA-informed feedback, I offer that teachers need to first observe and recognize the manifestation of CLA in student writing. Following this claim, I draw on existing scholarship to illustrate the ways that CLA can be manifested at the global and the local level of students' writing. I conclude the section by providing a schema with representative examples of CLA-informed feedback points, and I summarize the emerging trends from this review to explain how this review has guided the study.

Relationships between CLA, feedback, and assessment

Previous studies on teacher feedback practices establish that feedback is most effective when it is clearly aligned with teaching objectives and formative assessment practices (Lee, 2017). Accordingly, the differing types of CLA informed-feedback I provide to students surrounding the texts they generate is undeniably and inextricably bound to my teaching and learning objectives and my assessment practices as a teacher. However, assessing students' writing and identifying the occurrence of CLA is an extremely complex undertaking for teachers.

According to Ivanič (2004), the very notion of assessment can be seen as "antithetical" to a critical linguistic orientation, as any value judgments placed on student writing should also be "critically scrutinized for the relations of power which underpin" them (p. 239). At the same time,

Ivanič grants that an implicit assessment criterion for CLA writing is that it will "work to sustain equality among the participants in the written communication" (p. 239). Morgan (1995) provides similar disclaimers on assessment, cautioning teachers against utilizing a quantitative or overtly deterministic method to assess CLA, and offering that the most useful assessment practices emerge from simply having "some way to mark the moment[s] of 'awareness'" where students recognize that they "are subjects of and through language" (p. 13). Following Morgan's (1995) and Ivanič's (2004) recommendations for formative assessment, teachers may assess CLA by looking closely (Hicks, 2015b) for "moments of awareness" where students recognize the salience of language, and take on linguistically and socially responsible roles through their writing.

In process-based writing instruction, teachers' feedback on their students' in-process drafts can help students prepare for the formative assessment, functioning as an instructional channel that invites students to partake in written awareness exercises. During such written awareness exercises, students' goal is to recognize themselves as socially responsible actors, who are implicated in the relationships between languages, language varieties, language ideologies, language statuses, or sociolinguistic inequities. In order to fully explain the CLA-informed feedback schema that follows (Tables 2 and 3), I will draw on scholarship that helps to identify how such awareness moments can be made manifest in students' writing and subsequently identified in my assessment practices.

Global manifestations of CLA in student writing

I recognize the manifestation of CLA as occurring through a) the ideological and reflective stances students adopt beyond the sentence level, and b) the localized choices they make at the sentence-level. In terms of the larger ideological stances and reflective dimensions, it is important to turn to related scholarship on critical discourse analysis (CDA) because CLA is

ultimately the pedagogical realization of CDA. Critical linguists offer that projects of critical discourse analysis are ultimately about addressing and troubling social dominance and inequality that are produced by and through language (van Dijk, 2001; Wodak, 1995). In this view, CLA is ultimately about political and social action; it is about addressing and providing solutions to social problems related to language. Wodak (1995) offers that such a project is essentially driven to analyze "relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language… aim[ing] to investigate critically social inequality as it is expressed, signalled, constituted, [and] legitimized … by language use" (p. 204). van Dijk (2001) further offers that analyzing such relationships (i.e. power, language, inequity) also entails a consideration of the role of the analyst within such relationships.

Accordingly, as students take up ideological stances on social problems related to language dominance and discrimination, they may also engage in critical and personal reflection as analysts (Mezirow, 1990; van Dijk, 2001). A multilingual student writer in Lie's (2009) ethnographic case study illustrates how the ideological stances students take on linguistic domination can be coupled with personal reflection. This case study involved Su, a postgraduate student in a Malaysian higher education context. Su produced written narratives describing her perceptions of local English varieties, her feelings about bilingualism in the Malaysian context, and her larger aspirations to acquire a globalized form of the English language. As a user of the Mandarin, English, Bahasa, Malay, and Cantonese languages, Su articulates her complex feelings about her own use of Malaysian English, describing it as a "hybrid language" that makes her "have everything but yet …have none" (p. 97) at the same time. The frustration she experienced with being "stuck in the middle" using her "hybrid language", motivated her to be "more English" (p. 102) by joining an English-speaking group of students earlier at her university. While she joined this group to enhance her English, she felt proud about her bilingualism, observing that some of its members could not read Mandarin as she could. While she embraces

bilingualism, Su expresses that she holds an unprivileged status in Malaysia, as an ethnic minority (Malaysian Chinese), and believes that her ability to speak a standard form of English could enable her to seek out better employment opportunities globally. Su experiences challenges in learning English as a "second language" because it is not a "natural language" for her but rather a "destiny" and she feels that she "could never be as good as the native speaker of English language no matter how hard" she tries to learn it (p. 110). In these written narratives, Su exhibits CLA by adopting complex ideological stances in relation to language variation, bilingualism, and language status. To accomplish this, she reflects on her personal experiences with Malaysian English, Mandarin, and global forms of English. Such reflective and narrative modes of writing occur at the global level rather than the sentence level of her texts.

Localized manifestations of CLA in student writing

However, CLA can also be manifested through the localized, deliberative, and creative choices student writers make at the sentence level, including the choice to deviate from SWAE by codemeshing, bringing in other languages and language varieties into their writing (Canagarajah, 2011). In this regard, Lu (1994) describes a multicultural approach to writing instruction, introducing students to a unique verb phrase created by one of her former students: "can be able to". Rather than asking students to explain what makes the verb phrase an "error," the phrase functions as an entry point to discussing the writers' possible motives for deploying a nonstandardized[7] phrase and the meaning that is conveyed by its use, thus reframing "errors" as rhetorical choices and innovations. Multilingual writers acquire a great depth of multilingual

[7] I use this term here to connote a word phrase that is not currently recognized or maintained as part of the official language or conventionalized writing system associated with a language. I prefer the term "nonstandardized" to "nonstandard". Use of this term recognizes that nonstandardized language varieties are rule governed and patterned, just like standardized varieties are (Hudley & Mallinson, 2014; Silverstein, 1996).

literate practices that are developed over time by their unique personal and cultural histories (Lorimer Leonard, 2013), and Canagarajah (2006) argues that such kind of written codemeshing acts therefore demand more, rather than less from writers because they are making active and deliberate ideological choices. These choices require them to know how to draw on other language varieties in strategic ways, while also indicating to the audience that they are doing so in intentional ways. One Saudi Arabian student in Canagarajah's (2011) study practiced codemeshing by bringing in some French and Arabic into her predominantly English essay. The student observed that doing so was not part of her regular academic writing practice, but she rather did so because she was welcomed to do so by her teacher. A number of scholars have exhibited codemeshing in their writing. For example, Anzaldúa (1999) brings Spanish words, sentences, and features into English-dominant texts. Young (2007) and Alim (2005) have brought features of African American Vernacular English into their writing.

CLA-informed feedback schema

Taken together, CLA-informed feedback can enable both globalized, meso-level, and localized revision strategies for student writers. In terms of globalized revision strategies, CLA-informed feedback can beckon students to take up particular ideological stances surrounding language, or to recall and reflect on past experiences with language. In terms of localized revision strategies, CLA-informed feedback can enable students to make particular kinds of localized choices. Previous studies on teacher feedback have offered a number of feedback schemas to help researchers categorize different types of comments instructors make. However, Hyland and Hyland (2001) note that these models tend to distinguish global and local categories of feedback without consideration for the instructors' goals, and I found no existing studies which systematically examine a feedback model that is theoretically driven by critical language awareness. The feedback schema (presented in Table 2 and Table 3) therefore reflects my instructional goals, while also illustrating that CLA can have multiple manifestations that are

realized at the global, meso, and local levels of students' texts. Table 2 defines global-oriented feedback, meso-oriented feedback, and localized feedback, distinguishing the different revision goals for each feedback category. At the same time, I acknowledge that there is a continuum and overlap among the three broad categories. Table 3 provides CLA-informed examples of global-oriented feedback, meso-oriented feedback, and localized feedback. Because CLA can inform all three levels of feedback, all three are considered in this study.

Feedback category	Description of category
Global-oriented feedback	These broader comments do not correspond to one isolated location in the text. The revision goal is not isolated to one location in the text.
Meso-oriented feedback	These comments do correspond to isolated location(s) in the text. The revision goal is not isolated to one location in the text.
Localized feedback	These comments correspond to an isolated location in the text. The revision goal is isolated to the sentence level.

Table 2 Description of feedback categories

While local feedback guides students to make a change within an isolated location in the text, global oriented feedback does not correspond to an isolated location in the text, and the revisions may occur in more than one location in the text.

Feedback category	Examples from the data
Global-oriented feedback	You have a body paragraph focused on prescriptivism and you also have a body paragraph focused on language discrimination. What is the relationship between these two paragraphs? How might you help readers to see this relationship? Who would benefit the most in a world where everyone must learn English? To what extent were foreign languages valued in your school or community?
Meso-oriented feedback	I invite you to write in the first person "I" in these first 2 paragraphs if you think it will help you to establish "flow" or "cohesion" between sections. How might you illustrate the struggle you experienced with the local dialect in Haikou? What were people saying? I invite you to write it in this language as it suits your purpose.
Localized feedback	I invite you to include this word both in Spanish and English as it suits your purpose. See *the EasyWriter* section 34a "Revising shifts in tense" (p. 175) to get an idea of how you might revise this sentence.

Table 3 Schema for CLA-informed feedback

The varied examples of feedback points presented in Table 3 illustrate that CLA-informed feedback points can be directed at the global, meso, or local levels of the text, and I will therefore consider all three levels in this dissertation.

Conclusion and bridge to next chapter

This literature-based chapter has established an ontological and epistemological foundation for this dissertation study—establishing how feedback has been theorized and studied, and how CLA has emerged and evolved as a pedagogical and epistemological theory.

In terms of ontology, this review of feedback studies have revealed that many studies have adopted sociocultural and psycholinguistic orientations. Because both orientations stress

different dimensions of the feedback system, both inform Chapter 5, which focuses on the provision and uptake of localized feedback forms. While sociocultural conceptions of feedback emphasize socially mediated elements of the feedback system, such as the teacher's use of scaffolding, and mitigation, psycholinguistic conceptions tend to emphasize the corrective components of feedback, considering varied forms of WCF, and the extent to which these support learners in uptake of a desired linguistic form.

In terms of epistemology, this review has traced the origins of CLA theory to the 20th century language awareness movement in the UK. It has distinguished the relationships between LA and CLA. Findings suggest that LA and CLA are largely compatible approaches to language study, while a heightened emphasis on criticality will center a curriculum on concerns of power, ideology, dominance, sociolinguistic inequity or discrimination, in order to empower those who face linguistic marginalization. This overarching finding will inform Chapters 5 to 7. In terms of recent trends in research, many CLA-informed studies have taken place in pre-service and in-service language teacher education settings, while fewer have occurred in composition contexts. Because teachers' CLA development is an important prerequisite for the teaching CLA, research trends center upon explorations of teacher language ideologies. However, as I will elaborate further in Chapter 3, this trend implies that few CLA-informed studies have centered on language learner ideologies.

In the next chapter, I present the theoretical framework for this study. Chapter 3 extrapolates and builds upon this literature review chapter, providing not only an empirical lens to support data collection and interpretation, but also a pedagogical lens to support the curricular approaches adopted as part of this study.

CHAPTER 3
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

In this chapter, I present the theories that I draw on to both conceptualize my feedback practices as a L2 writing instructor, and to understand how students interface with teacher feedback in the context of the ENG 101 course. This theoretical framework therefore provides not only the empirical lens supporting interpretations of data generated through the self-study, but also the pedagogical lens supporting the curricular approaches I adopt in the study.

In the first section, I distinguish the critical sociocultural perspective as the overarching theory that explains the dialogic and socially situated nature of literacy, learning, writing, feedback, and agency. Because critical sociocultural orientations to agency are complementary to critical language study, I explain how such perspectives offer both pedagogical resources that inform my course curriculum, and empirical resources that further analyses of the ways students appropriate and resist the curriculum.

In the second section, I describe the theories of language that inform this study. I distinguish critical discourse analytic and poststructural theories of language as the overarching theories that explain language as action in situated, complex, and dynamic relations of power. I explain that critical discourse analytic perspectives function in this study both as pedagogical resources in the classroom, and analytic resources for research. To further expand the analytic potentials of critical discourse analysis, I explain how complementary constructs from the fields of sociolinguistics and language socialization inform my understandings about student beliefs and linguistically responsive instruction.

Sociocultural theories of literacy and learning

Sociocultural notions of literacy and learning are complementary but distinguishable from cognitive perspectives. Rather than viewing literacy as emerging through the cognitive

process of acquisition of an abstract written system, I presume that there is an integral relationship between mental and social, cultural, and linguistic learning processes (Lewis et al., 2007). As fundamental to sociocultural theory, I presume that learning is a highly social phenomenon, and student writing is mediated through situated social interactions with others in the writing community. Within classroom contexts, writing becomes mediated between students, peers, and instructors, as well as through tools and the artifacts of the community, such as classroom texts and technologies (Lantolf, 2000, 2007). However, L2 writing is also mediated through interactions outside the classroom context. For example, Black (2006) demonstrates how one L2 writer constructs a transcultural online identity, and develops writing skills through networked interactions with others in an online fanfiction culture.

Sociocultural theories of writing and feedback

Sociocultural theories are distinctive from other theories of writing such as genre and cognitive theories. While cognitive theories describe the mental activities associated with writing, and genre theories delineate the conventional textual organizations of particular text types, sociocultural theories focus more on collaborations between people as writing is produced (Cumming, 2016). Sociocultural theory presumes that writers are never autonomous, and that all writing, especially that which is done in the classroom setting, involves collaboration and even co-authorship between the teacher and student, which is intramental, intersubjective, and interdiscursive.

Taking a sociocultural view, Prior (2006) argues that teachers are in fact co-authors in students' writing because they presume many roles which typically fall under the authorship role in publication processes, including deciding what topic(s) students should write, structuring the entire writing process, setting deadlines, indicating an appropriate style, and providing feedback—even offering specific words or phrases to be used. A sociocultural view thus recognizes the substantial influence that the teacher has on the students' writing, complicates

notions of text ownership, and draws attention to the dialogic and intertextual dimensions of feedback (Tardy, 2006). As I discussed in Chapter 2, sociocultural orientations also invite broader conceptual understandings of teacher feedback than what has often been more traditionally and narrowly conceptualized in the L2 writing studies literature as written corrective feedback (i.e. Ferris, 2011) or teacher written commentary (i.e. Goldstein, 2005). Therefore, Séror's (2009) broader definition of feedback as "any interaction about writing" (p. 205) aligns with sociocultural perspectives.

As discussed in Chapter 2, within the sociocultural perspective, I conceive of feedback as being indexed through any *affordances* for students' writing which are made available through pedagogical *scaffolding*. An affordance is a relationship between the writer and the environment which signals a possibility, or opportunity for linguistic action (or for linguistic inhibition). According to van Lier (2004), "Affordance refers to what is available to the person to do something with" (91). Affordances fuel linguistic activity when they are acted upon, and in the writing classroom, semiotic resources are intentionally made available to students. In other words, such resources do not just happen to be there, but rather are often created, shared, and brought in by the teacher with the intention of being used by the students (van Lier, 2004). Pedagogical scaffolding, a central concept in sociocultural theory, is thus important for conceptualizing teacher feedback in the context of the writing classroom. Drawing on other scholars (Baleghizadeh et al., 2011; van Lier, 2004; Weissberg, 2006), I define scaffolding as individualized task guidance, provided by the instructor through a semiotically-mediated situation (verbal or written). In verbal situations, scaffolding entails negotiation—i.e. an instructor supports the learner in clarifying meaning and building a coherent text through synchronous interactional strategies such as clarification requests (Nassaji, 2017). Regardless whether the situation is verbal or written, scaffolding occurs only with contingency and takeover, meaning that the task requires

the action of the learner, and that the role of the learner increases through engagement with the task while the role of the instructor is diminished (van Lier, 2004).

Critical sociocultural perspectives on student agency

By taking a critical sociocultural lens, student agency can be defined as students' control over their actions and performances as writers and their sense of author identity. For students, agency therefore entails awareness of the range of possible actions that they can take as writers (Shapiro et al., 2016). Even though others contribute to the writing process, agency is also about the writer maintaining authority to make ultimate decisions about their texts. It also entails maintaining a sense of ownership over the texts they write and the ideas they are developing; such ownership is understood and respected by the teacher (Gorzelsky, 2009). Yet with this conceptualization of agency questions linger about which acts are particularly "agentive". As critical SCT researchers, Moje and Lewis (2007) assert that agency manifests as students act to assert and form their linguistic selves within existing power structures. Promoting student agency is an important goal for any critical language curricula, because its overarching goal is to help students find their own voice in counteracting the linguistic forces of social domination, including the social marginalization which often occurs through systems of education (Park, 2008). Because critical sociocultural orientations to agency are complementary to critical language study, I draw on such perspectives both as pedagogical resources that inform my course curriculum, and as empirical resources that further analyses of the ways students appropriate and resist the curriculum.

Centering student agency in critical language curriculum

Pedagogically, such orientations can enable teachers to a) strive for equalizing relational dynamics in the classroom, and b) support student writers' agency as they develop their own arguments and positionalities in relation to language. Taking a sociocultural perspective on agency, equalizing forces can be conceived as occurring through the relational dynamics of the

classroom when teachers try to share their authority with students (Gorzelsky, 2009). While the social roles teachers assume in providing feedback to students provide a certain degree of dominance that arguably cannot be fully equalized, despite the teacher's intentions (Kang & Dykema, 2017; Park, 2008), sociocultural perspectives on agency nonetheless maintain that agency is co-produced (even if it is not evenly distributed). Such perspectives run contrary to psychological orientations which tend to view agency as residing solely with the individual (Charteris & Smardon, 2018). Kang and Dykema (2017) offer that teachers can seek to balance the unequal teacher-student power relationships by emphasizing the agency that students have in the feedback and writing processes. While Kang and Dykema's (2017) suggestion is an undoubtedly important practice for teachers, questions will nonetheless linger about the extent to which teacher-student power relationships can truly be balanced, particularly in graded instructional contexts, where L2 writers have expressed anxiety about grades (Best et al., 2015). For instance, will students experience dilemmas about whether to accept or reject the teacher feedback they receive out of fear for repercussions? How will students respond when they are offered choices rather than directives? Will students take up invitations to make their own choices? For students who are accustomed to following explicit guidance, could the offering of choices cause disruptions?

Questions aside, critical language pedagogies will promote students' agency not only as writers who make particular choices (that can either challenge or uphold textual conventions), but as responsible citizens who take political actions to subvert linguistic inequities and dominance (Clark & Ivanič, 1999; Ivanič, 2004). While the immediate instructional goal in a critical language writing course is to support students' in making choices surrounding textual conventions, and in developing their own written arguments and sociopolitical orientations to language, students' agency as writers is not mutually exclusive from their agency as informed citizens. This is especially true when students' written arguments are intertwined with their

firsthand experiences. In reporting on their own efforts to infuse CLA into a four week business communication course at a polytechnic institute in Singapore, Weninger and Kan (2013) advocate the importance of centering students' own agency in the curriculum. The teacher researchers achieved this by focusing primarily on the direct interpersonal experiences students had with language. The researchers note that such a focus was crucial because the students generally came into the course with a preexisting acceptance of dominant language ideologies, and with inexperience engaging in critical discussions surrounding larger sociopolitical issues.

Centering agency through critical reflection

While writing practices vary across different academic disciplines, centering students' own interpersonal experiences with language (and language differences) appears to be a promising strategy for a critical language curriculum within a writing program that is located in the larger discipline of humanities. I have therefore pondered the interpersonal dimensions of language further in a recent paper (Britton & Lorimer Leonard, 2020). Could such a curricular focus be informed by transformative learning theory (Mezirow, 1990)? Could this curricular focus involve students in activities that facilitate their critical reflection? Weninger and Kan's (2013) study of CLA seems to offer some tentative answers, illustrating that writing activities focused on personal experiences and critical reflection can center students' agency, enabling students rise to the challenge of engaging in such critical sociopolitical discussions of language.

According to transformative learning theory, critical reflection involves the learner in a process of stepping back, looking at past experiences, and making new meanings of these experiences through reinterpretation. Critical reflection involves an assumption analysis as Mezirow (1990) explains: "adulthood is the time for reassessing the assumptions of our formative years that have often resulted in distorted views of reality" (p. 13). Learners therefore attempt to identify an assumption guiding their action during a personal event or experience. Through this process, individuals determine whether old interpretations remain "justified under present

circumstances" (Mezirow, 1990, p. 5). According to Mezirow (1990) a perspective transformation can transpire when the learner arrives at new interpretations of past experiences that serve to guide their subsequent social actions. As Canagarajah (2002) explains, the sort of thought patterns that critical reflection activities promote become inseparable from students' concerns about fairness, justice, and struggle for social change. As college students (who are mostly young adults), look critically back upon their past experiences with language differences (including those occurring during their formative years), there seems to be potential for them to develop both critical consciousness and agency. Critical consciousness emerges through changes in students' understanding through a process Males (2000) describes as "distantiation of the self from itself within the interior of appropriation" (p. 159) or reaching new meanings and revelations about oneself through "separation of the self from itself" (p. 154). Through this development of critical consciousness, students can also develop personal and political agency, by assessing how they will act and respond in their linguistic worlds differently in the future (Mezirow, 1990). Considering theories of transformative learning, could personal agency be promoted through written activities within the critical language classroom? Would this form of agency involve students in reevaluating issues of linguistic domination and discrimination by revisiting their own related experiences, and reinterpreting such experiences with critical and linguistically responsible lenses?

Empirically centering student agency

From an empirical perspective, centering agency is complementary to critical sociocultural theories of writing and feedback, as such a project entails highlighting the active role of students in appropriating, or resisting curricular affordances in their writing, and maintaining authority to make ultimate decisions about their texts. Affordances may take diverse forms, including pre-writing activities, writing prompts, in-class revision activities and exercises, or written comments provided on in-process drafts. Yet perhaps the term "affordance" is

misleading, as the same affordance could be either "enabling" or "constraining" to a student, depending on the student's responsiveness to it, which includes their decision to take over a task that is presented to them through the affordance. For example, a written comment which asks the student to revise a sentence could be "enabling" when the student acts on it, thereby achieving scaffolding through their contingency, and takeover of the task which is guided through the comment. However, in the instance that the student is already satisfied with their sentence, this same affordance could become potentially constraining to student, and present an opportunity for the student to exert agency, as it is exhibited by their awareness about the range of possible actions, and active decision making to accept or reject the comment (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Shapiro et al., 2016). Could agency therefore be exhibited through students' resistance to the affordances that constrain them?

Agency and resistance

In this dissertation, I assume that agency can in fact be indexed through resistance, and moments of resistance are both pedagogically and empirically relevant to this study. By defining *pedagogy* as an endeavor to reproduce and legitimate social values, Park (2008) conceptualizes the language classroom as a place where resistance is inevitable because "discourses from different sets of identities conflict and create tensions" (p. 7). As a part of critical writing pedagogy, Kamler et al. (1997) assert that it is important for teachers not only to be aware of such tensions, but also to respect student resistance as a legitimate learning response. Resistance moments are important for student learning because they represent active responses to the learning situation where students may exhibit independent and critical thinking (Consalvo & Maloch, 2015; Vetter et al., 2012). I therefore align myself with Moje and Lewis (2007), critical sociocultural researchers, who conceptualize learning as occurring through resistance; in their view, learning is a "reconceptualization of skills and knowledge" and knowledge is "a process that may involve taking up and taking on existing discourses or disrupting and transforming fixed

discourses" (p. 18). Students' reconceptualization of prior knowledge will be different because they have differing prior experiences and knowledge bases.

Resistance is therefore empirically salient in critical language study and especially in this dialogically-oriented feedback study. According to Alim (2010), teaching students to think like critical linguists requires an ongoing recognition that all language use is "loaded with issues of power, hierarchy and dominance," but also with acts of "contestation, resistance and transformation" (p. 207). Therefore in the context of the classroom, language use applies to both the teacher and the students. Park (2008) builds on the project of the critical linguist, offering that by empirically centering students' resistance, researchers can "conceptualize how teachers or students negotiate with each other and create their own positions" (p. 4) within the critical language curriculum. It is especially important to consider students' positions and ideological stances within a CLA framework because critical language pedagogies often involve students in recognizing, questioning, and troubling standard and raciolinguistic ideologies of language; it is to be expected that resistance will emerge when such problematizing clashes with students' preexisting beliefs, experiences, and expectations for language study. Therefore, within a CLA-oriented study, it becomes important to identify and classify certain resistance phenomena through coding and analysis. These include a) the tensions and conflicts that emerge for students within the curriculum, and b) their subsequent actions and/or resistant responses to the teacher feedback they receive.

Manifestations of resistance in critical language and writing pedagogy

Two studies of particular relevance further identify and classify ways that students manifest resistance to writing instruction and language curriculum. For instance, Liu and Tannacito (2013) identified a number of resistance strategies two Taiwanese L2 writers (in a university ESL setting in the US) adopted when they felt that writing instruction did not promote acquisition of the prestige form of standard written English that they desired. Resistance acts

included skipping or arriving late to classes, disengaging from classroom activities, questioning the legitimacy of the instructor's English proficiency, questioning the legitimacy of the instructor's instructional approach, and questioning the value of peer review from "nonnative" English speaking peers. The researchers conceptualize all of such resistance acts to be rooted in a "white prestige ideology" and native-speakerism (p. 356). While Liu and Tannacito (2013) focused on the overt and covert behaviors associated with resistance which manifest through linguistic, paralinguistic, extralinguistic, and nonlinguistic cues (Ephratt, 2011), Park (2008) conceptualizes resistance as occurring primarily through linguistic means, i.e. through a *pedagogical discourse*, encapsulated through direct oral interactions between students and teachers. This researcher conducted a critical discourse analysis of pedagogical discourses circulating in their own classroom, located in a Korean heritage learning weekend program for children, and found that students more often adopted a resistance position than did the instructor. Park saw resistance as manifested by student utterances including complaining, arguing, mimicking, or challenging the authority of the instructor.

Focusing primarily on students' responses to feedback and critical language study, my conceptualization of resistance builds on Park's (2008) and Liu and Tennacito's (2013) frameworks. Similarly to Park, I view student resistance as manifested through linguistic means, occurring when the pedagogical discourse conflicts with students' preexisting beliefs and prior educational experiences. However, since my classroom context privileges the act of writing, I conceive of resistance as also occurring through students' written language. Similarly to Tennacito and Liu (2013) I conceive that any resistance acts (relevant to this study) to be rooted in dominant and raciolinguistic language ideologies, including white prestige ideology, native speakerism, Herderian ideologies, and standard language ideologies (which I describe in the subsequent section). However, differently from Park (2008) and Tennacito and Liu (2013), I view resistance as manifested by and through students' writing; Resistance is most salient in this study

when students' written language ideologies are in tension with the pedagogical discourse. Resistance is therefore a form of student agency and considered in this study as a form of productive conflict for instructors and students to learn from. By honoring and respecting students' acts of resistance, instructors may learn about students' experiences and expectations so that they can more responsively address and face the ideological tensions that emerge within critical language study (Galloway, 2017a). Inclusion and negotiation of multiple perspectives within a CLA curriculum is necessary to help both the instructor and learner deal with ideological differences, and to help students develop criticality.

Critical discourse and poststructural perspectives on language

Critical discourse analysis (CDA), and its pedagogical realizations (i.e. critical literacy and critical language awareness) are based on sociocultural and poststructural perspectives on language. In adopting a critical sociocultural perspective on language in the classroom, the relationship between language and social power is foregrounded, and a psycholinguistic view of language as a system of abstract forms and rules is de-centered (Janks, 2000; Lantolf, 2007; see Chapter 2 for a longer discussion of sociocultural and psycholinguistic orientations to language development). In line with a poststructural view, language and its workings are both foregrounded and interrogated; students are asked to reflect upon and trouble the imposition of dominant conventions (Lee, 2000). Classroom content, discussions, and writing feedback is informed by larger questions such as:

- What makes languages and language varieties powerful?
- How is language used to accomplish control and domination?
- In whose interests do language conventions operate? Who has access to such conventions?
- What makes writers/genres seem authoritative?
- How do specific texts/authors reinforce or challenge existing power relations through their linguistic choices?
- How do language choices construct writer identities? (Bloome & Green, 2015; Clark & Ivanič, 1999; Janks & Ivanič, 1992; Wallace, 1999; Wodak, 1995).

In addition to practical applications in the classroom, CDA offers researchers a set of analytic tools that enable the analyst to make visible connections between language use, and social structures, and power structures. To define the project of CDA, an operational definition of "discourse" first is needed, as a number of definitions exist from different disciplines. Drawing on Fairclough (1992a) I operationalize the term by drawing on understandings from both linguistic and social theories. Drawing on linguistic understandings, "discourse" refers to both extended stretches of spoken or written texts. In this study, it encompasses student writing samples, written commentary (as provided through teacher feedback), and spoken interviews (which include turns in talk). Drawing on social theories, "discourse" refers "to different ways of structuring ideas of knowledge and social practice" and it is "manifested in particular ways of using language and other symbolic forms…[to] construct and constitute" social entities (Fairclough, 1992a, p. 3). In this study, "discourse" therefore also encompasses "pedagogic discourses". These include more widely-circulating, value-laden ideologies, or prescriptions about schooling, societal relations, or language use (Park, 2008). In the context of a critical language pedagogy, such discourses often emerge as language ideologies (as discussed in the subsequent section). Oftentimes, ideologies are so commonplace that they remain undetected and are naturalized. The project of CDA is ultimately about denaturalizing such ideologies, by "showing how social structures determine the properties of discourse, and how discourse in turn determines social structures" (Fairclough, 2010, p. 27).

CDA enables initially a description of the linguistic features of the text, with attention to more finite details such as the use of pronouns, grammar patterns, nominalizations, and verb tenses. However a CDA ultimately moves between descriptions of the text, and descriptions of the power relations that surround and constitute the text. The analyst highlights micro features of the text in order to discern how they "work to constitute institutional discourse practices and power relations" (Bloome & Talwalkar, 1997, p. 108). CDA ultimately uncovers how student

writers' semiotic choices, ideologies, and positionalities are embedded within social structures and power relations; this interpretive process also supports the analyst to find evidence of intertextuality between the focal text and discourse surrounding it (Norman Fairclough, 1989; Fernsten, 2008; Janks, 2005; Kang & Dykema, 2017; Moje & Lewis, 2007).

CDA offers the research analyst tools to uncover students' language ideologies, and to understand how such ideologies occur within power relations. In Chapter 2, I introduced and discussed the CLA approach in the L2 writing classroom as the pedagogical realization of CDA, which prompts students to address social problems related to language differences. Both CDA and CLA are therefore tied to Norman Fairclough, a key theorist for this dissertation study. In 1989, Fairclough published a monograph on CDA, *Language and power*, which preceded his 1992 edited volume, *Critical language awareness*. Both CDA and CLA are concerned with the power dynamics of language, especially with the ideologies that are invested in particular languages/language varieties in accordance with "the power of their users" (Fairclough, 1992, p. 8).

Language Ideologies

In the previous sections of this chapter, I suggested that CLA can manifest in student writing through the ideological stances students assume in relation to questions of language difference. As student writers pose questions and develop inquiries about matters relating to language (i.e. language standards, language status, language policies, language variation, language acquisition processes, language schooling practices, language discrimination, bilingualism, language use and identity), they undoubtedly assume ideological stances, and often will draw on their personal experiences to explain their views.

Language ideology is therefore an important theoretical perspective that enables analysts to elucidate connections between individual learners' beliefs about language learning and broader institutional systems that reify such beliefs (Britton, 2021; Gal, 1998; Woolard, 1998b). However,

as discussed further in Chapter 2, larger trends in CLA-oriented studies suggest that teacher ideologies are more often centered as a unit of analysis, rather than language learner ideologies. Only very recently have some researchers studying the application of CLA in Spanish as a second language (Quan, 2020) and Spanish as a heritage language (Beaudrie et al., 2021) settings, considered learner ideologies incidentally, but not as their primary unit of analysis.

The term "language ideology" describes the ideas that learners have about language. As Woolard (1998) explains, "there is much cultural variation in ideas about language and about how communication works as a social process" (p. 3). Drawing on the field of linguistic anthropology, studies of language ideology describe the belief systems shared by members of a group that apply to language use. Learners' beliefs about language often become evident through their ideas about the meaning, function, form, use or value of language. Language ideologies index and intersect with the language learner's moral and political interests, and are often used to justify particular uses of language (Woolard, 1998), or even to justify instructional practices such as error correction (Razfar, 2010).

Language ideology is not a stable construct for analysts to consider because learners' beliefs are often fluctuating, multiple, and malleable. However, this theoretical perspective does not discount the volatility of language ideology, nor view it as a sign of human senselessness. Rather, highlighting the dissonance in learner beliefs can provide language instructors with insights to inform critical language instruction. It helps instructors to recognize what stakeholders may benefit when a particular language ideology is invoked by the learner, and to discern the institutional linkages that may exist in relation to the ideology (Gal, 1998; Surtees, 2016). As discussed in the subsequent section, determining students' language ideologies and revealing their dissonances can also enable instructors to learn more about their students' language socialization experiences, in order to understand how these experiences inform students' understandings about language or expectations about the language instruction in the classroom. For critical language

instruction to achieve its emancipatory objectives of dismantling the dominance of inequality that is produced and sustained through language (van Dijk, 2001; Wodak, 1995), teachers need to more deeply understand the interests, experiences, and desires that students bring to the classroom. Understanding such interests will enable instructors to make the curriculum both culturally relevant and linguistically responsive to their learners (Metz, 2018).

Language ideologies can emerge in many forms, but three typifications are of interest for coding and analytic purposes in this study: language acquisition ideologies, dominant language ideologies, and critical language ideologies. Within educational contexts, learners assume language acquisition ideologies (LAIs). These become evident through beliefs about the process of learning a language and can encompass ideas about what makes a learner good, what makes a particular language variety worthy of learning (i.e., for political or economic reasons), and how one should learn a language (King & Hermes, 2014). According to Riley (2012), LAIs range from "semi-conscious and fluctuating intuitions" to resembling "fully fleshed and institutionally applied theories" (p. 494).

Interrelated to LAIs are three manifestations of dominant language ideologies. These include 1) Herderian LIs, 2) standard LIs, and 3) modal LIs. Herderian LIs manifest as nationalist discourses, associating one nation with one language. These are exemplified through the rhetoric of the English-only movement in the U.S., which espouses ideas that everyone needs to know English, and English should be the sole language used in instruction (Wiley & Lukes, 1996; Woolard, 1998). Perhaps less readily discernible are standard LIs. These are recognizable through individuals' proclivities toward an imagined, idealized, prestige standard English variety, which is often modeled by the written language patterns of upper-class Whites (Lippi-Green, 1997; Riley, 2012). Standard LIs advance monoglossic assumptions that language is stable, uniform, and unchanging (Garcia & Torres-Guevara, 2009). Therefore, standard LIs mediate instructional practices such as corrective feedback (Razfar, 2010). Third, modal LIs express that one mode of

communication has elevated status over others, such as the belief that written practices are elevated above orality (Riley, 2012).

All manifestations of dominant LIs can be held in opposition to critical LI alternatives. As noted by Metz (2018) critical LIs often grant legitimacy to the use of other language varieties, encompassing "beliefs that associate positive characteristics with speakers of historically stigmatized varieties" (p. 12). Critical LIs uphold values of plurilingualism and bilingualism. They represent multiple languages to be valuable for instructional and communicative purposes. Such LIs may also grant legitimacy to multiple modes of communication (i.e. orality, literacy) While learners' language ideologies can be typified in different ways, all typifications relate to the value and assumptions that learners bear in relation to language. All typifications therefore provide valuable sources of information not only to sociolinguistic researchers, but especially to critical language instructors that desire to be responsive to their students. In other words, the resistance or acceptance that learners display in relation to CLA-oriented feedback can help the instructor to learn about students' pre-existing values, assumptions, and even expectations for learning. As I will discuss in the subsequent section, recognizing learner ideologies that are oppositional to CLA presents an opportunity for the instructor to learn more about students' language socialization histories, in order to find innovative and productive ways to face ideological tensions and differences through instruction.

Theories of language and literacy socialization

Studies of language socialization consider learners' worldviews (i.e. ideologies) as they are developed over the lifespan. Therefore, dual inquiries into L2 learners' language ideologies and language socialization experiences are complementary. According to Och and Schieffelin (2012) language socialization is a "lifespan process" that transpires across a range of environments that L2 learners encounter, including schools, households, media use, workplaces,

and the like. While many studies of language socialization focus on childhood experiences, language socialization is actually a process that spans across adulthood, as even adult learners continue to move into new educational, professional, or social settings (Duff, 2008). The study of second language socialization therefore takes into account the "legacy of socially and culturally informed persons, artifacts, and features of the built environment" which promote learners' language acquisition (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2012, p. 4). Studies of language and literacy socialization are often therefore concerned with how learners (i.e. "novices") become apprenticed into languaging practices and routines (including reading, writing, speaking and listening) while simultaneously being socialized into certain expectations or worldviews about how they will become productive contributors to their communities (Sterponi, 2012).

Complementary to the inquiry of language ideologies, the inquiry of language socialization can enable critical language instructors to "take into account the lived realities of learners and social conditions in which their learning is occurring" (Bronson & Watson-Gegeo, 2008, p. 49). Therefore, dual inquiries in these areas are interconnected. Riley (2012 further explains how language ideologies are interconnected to language socialization processes, including the learners' acquisition of new linguistic forms:

> Language ideologies are intrinsically implicated in all language socialization processes and vice versa - that is, language ideologies influence the sociocultural contexts that shape language socialization, and language ideologies are also among the many cultural values socialized through language use.
> …
> Given that cultural beliefs (and thus language ideologies) are encoded within linguistic forms, the acquisition of linguistic forms is in part responsible for the cognitive development of these cultural beliefs. (p. 494).

In other words, Riley (2012) expresses that while L2 learners are acquiring new linguistic forms that facilitate their language development, they are simultaneously acquiring new cultural belief systems that facilitate the development of particular language ideologies. Language and its associated forms are therefore never neutral but rather "encoded"; acquiring the linguistic forms

associated with a particular language variety cannot be separated from the identities and interests of the social groups who use it (Razfar, 2010).

Furthermore, Riley (2012) also explains how language ideologies become enmeshed with the routines that learners encounter in their home and school environments:

> Cultural beliefs about language acquisition affect the language socialization routines used by caregivers and educators. Assumptions about the contextual use of language have an impact on the socialization of communicative competence. Hegemonic ideologies about specific forms of language (modes, varieties, and genres) consequentially frame the institutions and processes that shape the acquisition of valued forms. (p. 494).

In other words, language ideologies mediate L2 learners' language socialization. Such mediation is realized through the instructional and corrective routines that the L2 learner encounters in their interactions with parents, caregivers, and teachers (Razfar, 2010), and also through the institutions that value and uphold such routines (Riley, 2012). Therefore, language socialization perspectives enable the analyst to more comprehensively understand the ideologies that learners index in their writing, by viewing such ideologies in relation to the learner's language socialization experiences. These socialization experiences occur with other individuals the learner interacts with (i.e. caregivers, teachers, siblings) and in other environments that the learner encounters (i.e. institutions, schools, homes, informal settings, workplaces, etc.)

This self-study therefore draws on theories of second language socialization to conceptualize and understand the experiences, attitudes, and ideologies that L2 writers bring to the critical language classroom. How can I, as a critical language instructor working in the context of a writing classroom, be informed by theories of language socialization? How can I gain deeper insights into my students' previous experiences with language socialization, and also into my own history of language socialization? How can I better understand the resources, expectations, and stereotypes that students hold in relation to language difference (Galloway, 2017a)? How can I address these elements more comprehensively in instruction? How can I help learners to assume a more active role in challenging sociolinguistic equities (Doerr, 2009b)?

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this chapter, I explain the methodologies used in this study. First, I describe the larger qualitative research design and the rationale for taking self-study approaches that are rooted in ethnographic traditions. Second, I explain the setting where the study took place, and introduce the focal research participants (including myself); to establish a brief profile of each focal participant, I draw on theoretical constructs from the previous chapter. Next, I describe the study procedures as they relate to data: I explain the different types of data sources, the procedures through which this data was generated and collected, and the ways I treated, sampled, analyzed, represented, and triangulated the data. Finally, I discuss the limitations of my selected methodologies.

Rationale for qualitative inquiry

As mentioned previously, this study broadly draws on sociocultural, critical discourse analysis, and poststructural perspectives on language, literacy, and pedagogy. Such kind of theoretical orientation favors locally situated and produced knowledge, foregrounding the agentive role of individuals (i.e. students and instructors) within a socially-mediated classroom. This theoretical orientation attends to the dynamic nature of power relations (Fairclough, 1992b), as all are aware that grades in institutionalized and credit-bearing contexts are determined by the instructor. Given this theoretical orientation, the study is most suitable for and consistent with qualitative research methodologies, as it does not draw on positivist concepts such as predictability, hypotheses, study replicability, objectivity, control variables, or generalizability (Matsuda, 2012).

Self-study has particularly different goals from positivist research, given that it is focused on deepening understanding of one's own practice rather than determining laws or making

predictions (LaBoskey, 2004). As Matsuda (2012) states, such aims of increasing one's own understanding and awareness can create "knowledge that resonates with people's experience" (p. 301). Thus, as a teacher researcher, I make no aims to predict the outcomes of pedagogical interventions. While I purposely applied some interventions (described in the chapters that follow), the study's purpose was also naturalistic: to openly observe, describe and reflect on my experiences working with students as these unfolded, being guided by my research questions. Some of these experiences will likely resonate with the experiences of other teachers and researchers, and could be reasonably compared to existing research, or applied to other classroom pedagogies. However, my goal is not to generalize to other cases beyond my own classroom, nor is it a goal to proffer a one-sized-fits-all curriculum which could be successfully replicated in other contexts.

Understanding positionality in self-study and ethnographic traditions

The methodology for this dissertation research can be broadly characterized as self-study research with some points of distinction, in relation to the five defining features of self-study (LaBoskey, 2004). Self-study is rooted in the long-standing tradition of teachers researching their own classrooms since the 1950s, but it became more recognizable as a genre of teacher education research in the early 1990s (Lunenberg et al., 2010; Pinnegar & Hamilton, 2009). Self-study does not offer researchers a singular method, but rather opens possibilities for any research method that helps teacher researchers to answer their questions, engage in deep reflective thinking about their actions, and bring about thoughtful responses to their quandaries (Goodell, 2006; Hamilton & Pinnegar, 1998; Williams & Grierson, 2016). Therefore the term "self-study" is perhaps misguiding for some, because it does not entail a focus only upon the self, but rather on the self "in relation to others who are our students" (LaBoskey, 2004, p. 820). Offering five main features of self-study, LaBoskey (2004) emphasizes interaction as one crucial feature; self-study is "interactive at one or more stages of the process" (p. 821) to guard against the limitation of one's

individual interpretation of practice. Through interactional approaches, self-study researchers therefore involve students and other "critical friends" in their research practice. While some self-studies do center the unit of analysis more principally upon the self (i.e. Allison-Roan & Hayes, 2012), I consider this self-study to be weighted more interactionally in its nature, as it centers' students responses and experiences (in addition to my own). According to LaBoskey (2004), the other features of self-study emphasize that the study 1) be initiated by oneself, 2) be aimed at improving and transforming oneself as an instructor, 3) involve multiple methods that are principally qualitative, and 4) work toward validity and reliability by building trustworthiness with the readers. In this chapter, I elaborate primarily upon LaBoskey's (2004) third point, and in the final chapter of this dissertation I will reflect upon the fourth point. While there is no single (but rather multiple) method for self-study research, there is an emphasis on qualitative inquiries, as the vast majority of literacy-related studies tend of be qualitative in design, in order to maintain consistency with their theoretical orientations (Fecho & Allen, 2005; Goswami & Rutherford, 2009; LaBoskey, 2004). I accordingly draw on qualitative and ethnographic traditions.

While the methodological boundaries between self-study and ethnography are blurry (Hamilton et al., 2008), in a self-study the researcher assumes a different positionality from other ethnographers in education settings. While some ethnographers come to the field as outsiders seeking to gain insider knowledge about a particular classroom community, teacher researchers are already insiders to their communities, and possess privileged knowledge because they observe the students closely over long periods of time (Goswami & Rutherford, 2009; Zeni, 2001). Rather than assuming the more traditional ethnographer role of a *participant observer* in the classroom, the teacher is an *observant participator*, who not only observes the classroom but actively makes decisions which shape it. While traditional ethnographers may place primacy on the experiences of research participants, rather than the researcher, the teacher researcher places herself as a participant in the research, seeking to research her own experience by illuminating her own

pedagogical acts through means such as teacher journaling, field notes, documentation of lesson plans, and collection of the feedback she provides to students. As noted by LaBoskey, "Self-study researchers are, therefore, not only the selves doing the research, they are the selves being studied, which does not mean the self is the sole focus" (p. 843). In other words, the teacher researcher seeks a balance between research on the experience of the self and experience of the students by means such observation, collection of student work, and interviews with students.

Given the distinctive positionality of the researcher, self-study shares perhaps the most common ground with auto-ethnography, but the two methodologies have slightly differing aims. Pinnegar and Hamilton (2010) distinguish auto-ethnography as "a look at self within a larger context" and self-study as "a look at self in action, usually within education contexts" (p. 70). While some auto-ethnographies take place in education contexts, auto-ethnographers focus more deliberately on cultural elements of their experiences, and consider how the self can be othered within the larger social context of such experiences (Hamilton et al., 2008). Self-study is aimed at understanding, improvement, and transformation of practice in the researcher's classroom (LaBoskey, 2004), and making a contribution to a professionalized knowledge base in education (Pinnegar & Hamilton, 2009).

Self-study researchers take on dispositions that necessitate stepping back from teaching experiences to learn, analyze, and transform instruction. They make commitments to actively acknowledge shortcomings and areas for improvement, to embrace feelings of dissonance in practice, and to learn from the students how to better teach them (Burton & Seidl, 2005; Fecho & Allen, 2005; LaBoskey, 2004; Wilhelm, 2009). Reflection on teaching practice is emphasized through means such as journaling, conversing with colleagues, and doing deep thinking about teaching problems; all of these means are identifying features of the genre (M. L. Hamilton et al., 2008). Critical incidents provide productive frames in considering problems in teaching that can be described and reinterpreted through alternative actionable possibilities in reflective writing

(Goodell, 2006). Considering the emic and reflective elements of study design, teacher researchers often consider themselves principal audiences for their study (Brown, 1999; Fecho & Allen, 2005; LaBoskey, 2004; Pole & Morrison, 2003), while also inviting outside audiences and contributing more broadly to educational theories.

Setting

This study took place within the context of a transitional composition course, ENG 101, for first year students (hereafter referred to as ENG 101) located at a Westpond University (WU)[8], a public university in New England. ENG 101 was offered through WU's department of English Writing and it was a prerequisite to the first-year college composition (ENG 102) course for a small percentage of incoming first-year students (hereafter referred to as ENG 102). Placement into ENG 101 or 102 was determined by the writing program department, which administered an internal placement to all incoming students. While more than 90 percent of incoming students placed into ENG 102, only about five percent of WU students placed into ENG 101. Therefore, a majority of students taking ENG 101 did so because they were placed into the class. However, a smaller number of students (about 12 percent of enrollees) elected to take it to gain additional writing practice, even though it was not a requirement for them. For those students attending sections of ENG 101 at the time of the study, approximately 57 percent were international students, and the vast majority of international students were from China. Across the three sections of ENG 101 I taught over the study's duration, approximately three quarters of students were L2 writers. As Ferris (2016) notes, the population of L2 writers in US higher education is known to be increasingly complex and expansive. The term "L2 writer" is inclusive of those students who were previously educated within the US while using a language other than English in their home. Students in this category may have been born from immigrant parents in

[8] All names of places and persons are pseudonyms.

the US (i.e. "Generation 1.5"), or immigrated to the US during some point in their youth (i.e. First Generation Resident Immigrants). L2 writers also include international students. International L2 writers can include those who were educated in English-medium contexts while using another language at home, or those who learned English as foreign language.

Despite the high numbers of L2 writers in ENG 101, it is important to note that the English Writing department did not consider the course to be an ESL course and regularly directed students to the universities' ESL department for other language development courses designed specifically for this demographic. Yet, in many universities, ESL courses do not carry academic credits towards students' degrees (Kanno & Varghese, 2010). Similarly, the courses offered in WU's ESL department were not credit-bearing, and so ENG 101 may have appealed to L2 writers because it carried academic credit toward the undergraduate degree. Yet, as ENG 101 was not deemed at the institutional level as a course for ESL writers, the ENG 101 instructor's manual (provided by the department of English Writing) specified that approximately the same amount of time should be devoted to more localized matters in student writing (i.e. grammar and sentence-level revisions) in ENG 101 as in ENG 102, even though instructors may encounter more student writing in 101 that does not conform to standardized forms of English. Such guidance made the standard ENG 101 course design distinctive from other college-level ESL writing courses, where teachers may be apt to focus more principally upon localized matters in student writing.

The ENG 101 course met twice a week and each session was 90 minutes long. Each course section had 15 enrolled students, and approximately 8-10 sections of the course were offered each semester by multiple instructors (approximately five). Given these circumstances, certain aspects of the curriculum were standardized at the time of the study. Consistently across sections, students produced multiple drafts for five essays, and each essay increased in its length requirement as the semester progressed. The five essays also were distinct in genre; students were

asked to: (1) write from experience, (2) enter into dialogue with a text, (3) analyze a text, (4) persuade readers, and (5) reflect on their writing. Teachers all provided feedback on in-process and final drafts for each essay. All instructors also used three required textbooks, which students purchased as part of their participation. The first textbook was Lunsford's (2016) *EasyWriter* which included chapters on citation conventions, mechanics, grammar, and writing processes. The other two textbooks were produced internally by the department. The second textbook included samples of each of the five essay genres, and all essay exemplar samples were written by former students of the course. The third textbook addressed the course theme of borders and contained a variety of scholarly as well as popular essays which relate to the course themes of linguistic, national, physical, and abstract borders. These essays were written by authors such as Gloria Anzaldúa (1999), James Baldwin (1979), Ira Berlin (2010), Maxine Hong Kingston (1976), Fan Shen (1989), Amy Tan (1990), and Beverly Daniel Tatum (1997).

Participants

As the teacher of ENG 101, I consider myself to be among the focal participants in the study. Other self-study researchers have considered how personal memories, autobiographies, former schooling experiences, and intellectual histories can be used to better understand their pedagogical selves (Allison-Roan & Hayes, 2012; Clift & Clift, 2017). In line with such kind of project, I offer readers some details here from my personal history of language socialization which I believe may be relevant to the research[9].

I am a White American, 'native' speaker of English, who was born and raised in a single-parent home in New England. I cannot make any strong claims about my ethnicity nor family ancestry. Based on some results from ancestral DNA testing within my family, I do know that my ancestry is mostly European, and therefore not indigenous to the US. I do not know what

[9] I also elaborate on my formative years and how my earlier life experiences impacted my professional pathway in Chapter 1.

generation of immigrants to the US I am, and I therefore do not identify strongly with one ethnic group. Some genealogical research that has been done by other relatives suggests that my maternal lineage traces back to the British arrival of the Mayflower at Plymouth Rock in 1620, and also to a French migration at a later date. Knowing this immigration history, readers perhaps will not be surprised to know that I attended in Episcopalian church services with my mother through some of my formative years, which follow in Anglican traditions and often incorporate use of Liturgical Latin—such as through readings of theological works, liturgy and dogmatic proclamations (Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society, 2021). In my paternal lineage, there are records that some ancestors migrated to the Midwestern US from Germany in the 1800s. Therefore, in addition to English, French and German appear to be the languages for which I have the strongest heritage connections. While my family members had some basic knowledge of French and German, I grew up in a largely what I perceived to be a monolingual English household.

I received my K-12 education through the US public schooling system, while I grew up in a predominantly white and affluent community. Yet, as the oldest of three siblings in a single-parent household (with a very modest income), my socioeconomic standing was far beneath the affluence represented among the vast majority of my school peers. While I experienced numerous mismatches and identity conflicts between home and school, language correction—manifested by adults' efforts to eliminate my variation and label my deviations as errors (Das, 2021)—were pervading and ubiquitous across my home and school domains. For this reason, it was not until my adult life that I realized the extent to which my home and school environments had limited my critical language education, through language socialization experiences where I gained access only to prescriptivist orientations to language and grammar.

In the public schools I attended, world languages were offered, but were not emphasized as part of the mainstay curriculum. Given that the state examinations I took did not test students

on languages other than English, world languages were considered to be a marginal and relatively unimportant component of the core academic curriculum, as I experienced it. This marginalization was evident in the offerings and the limited staff: the number of languages offered were limited to two: French and Spanish, and there were only a few teachers teaching these subjects across many grade levels. I took French classes up until my second year of high school. After my sophomore year, I decided to switch to Spanish classes. This decision was not due to my lack of interest in the French language (as I do have some distant heritage connections to it), but my fears of humiliation. I became afraid of the strict French teacher (assigned to all junior year students), after witnessing another student burst into tears in her classroom under pressure.

In my home environment, I was socialized into a prescriptive view of grammar, where any deviances from the perceived standards were considered to be problematic for communication. At home as a child, I remember dinner table conversations where my speech was corrected by my parents and grandparents when it was perfectly intelligible, but did not conform to standardized forms of English (i.e. "my sister and me went to the store."). In this sense, my language socialization bears resemblance to the corrective routines that linguistic anthropologists have observed caregivers initiating amongst their children. Corrective routines occur in some speech communities where caregivers believe that children need to be taught grammatical and pragmatic forms in explicit ways. While there is cultural variability in the sort of corrective routines caregivers adopt (Das, 2021) these speech communities have been found to be represented across different cultures, languages, and socioeconomic classes (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2012; Riley, 2012). Yet, these corrective routines can extend beyond childhood; even into the adult years of my thirties (when this study takes place), my mother continued to correct my speech in moments she perceived it as deviant from standards, and my father urged all of his adult children to reference Strunk and White's (1959) *Elements of Style*, a prescriptive style guide for

American English, for all of our professional and academic writing. While this guide today still continues to be popular and earn high ratings as a style guide, Inoue (2021) pointedly observes that it was written by two upper-middle class men from New England, who received Ivy league educations.

In my school environment, I have a memory of asking my fifth-grade teacher, "Can I go to the bathroom?" He answered sarcastically, "I don't know, can you?" Embarrassed and confused in front of my classmates, I flushed red and returned promptly to my seat. In my state of humiliation, I presumed that my request was being cryptically and sarcastically declined, and did not immediately understand (until years later) that I was actually getting a grammar lesson on modality, while being socialized into the pragmatics of politeness surrounding requests in professional contexts (Li, 2000). Through these early experiences, it is not surprising that I became incredibly self-conscious about making a 'mistake' in my speech and writing and had not yet gained a full appreciation for natural language variation and the innovation that emerges through language invention and creativity. Thus, by the time I first began teaching English, I had internalized this prescriptivist mindset, and actively sought to correct the 'mistakes' of my students.

During my first years of college, my self-confidence about English and other languages emerging in my repertoire remained limited. Similar to my students at WU, I was placed into what I perceived to be a more remedial English writing class as a first-year student. While I gained some confidence about my written communication skills after taking this course, the college's placement procedures (and lack of transparency) initially made me feel that I was not a strong writer. World languages were also not emphasized in my undergraduate education. In an attempt to please an Israeli boyfriend and his family abroad, I struggled through a few semesters of Hebrew. While my listening comprehension in Hebrew improved substantially, and I

developed some basic conversational skills, the Hebrew script remained challenging for me to decode, and I considered myself to be monolingual until my adult professional life.

After university studies, I worked in the fields of adult education and TESOL where linguistic diversity was abundant, and I began further developing my proficiency in Spanish. Motivated to become conversational in Spanish at my workplace (where I interacted with Spanish-speakers daily), I hired a private tutor, while also offering language exchanges to a few of my ambitious students who desired one-on-one tutoring. We split our language exchange sessions together such that half the time was devoted to English study, and the other half to Spanish study. At work and on other social occasions, I often found myself immersed in Spanish. Yet these immersive opportunities diminished during my PhD studies, where I became more focused on developing academic registers of English.

Given that I am currently married to an Azerbaijani polyglot, I have continued to learn world languages (as well as English) through my adult life and graduate studies. In my current household, we speak mostly English, but often mix it with Azerbaijani, Farsi, and even some Spanish lexicon and syntax. Through periodic visits to my in-laws in Iran during the many years of my marriage, there have been weeks of time where I am fully immersed in Azerbaijani. In Azerbaijan province of Iran, Azerbaijani is a minoritized language that cannot be taught in schools (and the language therefore remains unstandardized). However, in the neighboring country of Azerbaijan, there have been recent efforts to standardize and teach the language in schools with the fall of the Soviet Union. Therefore, while spending time in the country of Azerbaijan, I have acquired some Azerbaijani books and learning materials. I have also puttered with Azerbaijani learning online through some group classes (intended for heritage learners) and have regularly met online with a tutor from Baku. However, language learning does not come as easily or naturally for me an adult learner, and I often regret that I did not gain more socialization and nurturing in world languages early in my childhood. Though on most counts, my public

education successfully prepared me for college and beyond, it failed me by falsely presuming a monolingual society and future for me and by not exposing me to more critical views of language.

At the time of the study, I was in my thirties and also in my second-year teaching for the English Writing department of WU. During my first year working in the department of English Writing, I taught ENG 102. When I first started working in the department, I learned that a large majority of students in the ENG 101 used English as an additional language, and I requested to teach ENG 101 during my second year. This interest and request to transfer was spurred by my prior experiences teaching ESL in various adult education contexts, and my interest in working with ethnolinguistically diverse students. While most of my writing instructor colleagues came from a disciplinary standpoint of Composition and Rhetoric, I came from a disciplinary standpoint of TESOL and applied linguistics.

My practical TESOL experience undoubtedly influenced the disciplinary standpoint from which I approached the preexisting ENG 101 curriculum. As I mentioned earlier, while other instructors did not broach the topic of grammar or sentence-level revision in their courses, TESOL experiences have made me more familiar and comfortable using a grammatical meta-language with students. While I devote a minimal amount of time to discussing grammar with the whole class, opting to work with students individually on such topics instead, I often tell my students that I love to "talk grammar" and will entertain any and all grammar questions as students solicit them. In the classroom, I have a tendency to help my students with language formulation when they are writing, and I gravitate toward the use of sentence templates to help students generate new ideas and thinking patterns during prewriting, drafting and even revising. Such language formulation practices have undeniably carried on from my TESOL days. I include these details so that readers will understand that teaching students conventional uses of English

was far more developed in my pedagogical repertoire, whereas developing critical language awareness in students was a lesser developed area that I wanted to improve through this study.

Of the students attending the three sections of ENG 101 that I taught over the fall 2018 and spring 2019 semesters, 27 agreed to participate by granting permission to have their course writings analyzed. The majority of those students were in their first year of university studies (ages 18-19), and a smaller number were in their second year of studies (ages 19-20). Consistent with the general make-up of students attending ENG 101, three quarters of those who agreed to participate were L2 writers.

From the larger pool, I selected six students as focal participants. To determine the focal participants, I considered selection criteria. Firstly, all students gave consent to participate in the study, agreeing both to have their writing analyzed and to engage in at least one audio-recorded interview with me. Of the larger pool, I considered only those students who attended the majority of class sessions and completed all course assignments. I recruited students who I observed as experiencing affordances of the CLA pedagogy (including the individual feedback I provided) as particularly enabling or constraining to their writing processes and idea development. Considering this selection criteria, I was equally interested in selecting students who demonstrated strong attachments to standardized forms of English (including those who exhibited resistance to critical language study), as I was in selecting students who exhibited CLA (i.e. by code-meshing or writing for social justice purposes). Table 4 summarizes the focal participants. I interviewed two of the six participants, Ai and Yubi two times. A description of the interviews and other data sources are included in the following section.

Pseudonym	Gender	Admission Status	Other Known Languages	Country of Family Origin
Vanessa	Female	Domestic	None	England
Dulari	Female	International	Gujarti, Hindi	India
Hemant	Male	International	Hindi	India
Ai	Female	International	Mandarin	China
Yubi	Female	International	Mandarin	China
Wang	Male	International	Mandarin	China

Table 4 Focal Participants

Below is a brief introduction of each participant, which is based on surveys they answered at the beginning of the course, their reports during interviews, and my own observations as their course instructor.

Vanessa

Vanessa, a White student, is the only domestic focal participant. She was in her first semester of studies at Westpond at the time of the study. Vanessa was considered an in-state student for tuition purposes. She grew up in a predominantly white community in New England, where she attended public schools during her K-12 experience. While Vanessa identified English as the only language in which she had fluency, her parents were both immigrants to the United States, and she had often visited England and Wales to visit family during her youth; through course activities focused on language variation, she made some observations about the use of Welsh English in her family. Vanessa was an economics major but expressed a desire to "write stronger essays" at the onset of the course. As the subsequent chapter will reveal in greater detail, Vanessa exhibited agency as a writer; analysis suggests that feedback affordances were enabling her, as she was responsive to them. During class time, Vanessa often participated in discussions, and expressed on multiple occasions that she liked having time in class to write. Vanessa was very eager to stay on top of her assignments; often she was the first student to turn in assignments for ENG 101.

Dulari

Dulari was a female international student who was in her first semester of studies at Westpond at the time of study. Dulari originated from the Gujarat state of India and was fluent in three languages. In her personal and family life, she spoke Gujarati and Hindi. However, her parents sent her to a private English-medium school in India for her K-12 studies. As a result, Dulari identified as a stronger English speaker than her parents (who did not receive such opportunities). Meanwhile, her opportunities to learn her mother language, Gujarati, were severely limited due to English-only language policies. While majoring in business administration, Dulari expressed a great interest and enjoyment for the creative aspects of writing upon her entry to the course. For instance, after class one day, Dulari asked me how she could find and borrow fiction novels in the library, and she enrolled in an extracurricular poetry club. After taking ENG 101, she shared her desire to pursue additional creative writing courses subsequently during her studies. As the subsequent chapter will reveal, her apparent enthusiasm and autonomous nature manifested in her agency and decision making as a writer; Dulari intuited and interpreted the teacher feedback she received through the course to be suggestive rather than obligatory to implement. Dulari was often an active participant in class, who desired opportunities to work with classmates and practice public speaking skills. On the first day of class, she identified increasing her vocabulary in English and her fluency in speaking as her foremost goals for the class.

Hemant

Hemant, a male international student, also was in his first semester of studies when he attended ENG 101. Hemant originated from the West Bengal State of India, and spoke both English and Hindi with fluency. Before coming to the US for university studies, he attended private schools in his home country. While Hemant identified as an English speaker, the course provided opportunities for him to observe some lexical differences in American English. As a

newcomer to the US, Hemant was encountering new varieties of English spoken by his peers, and he reflected upon some communication challenges he experienced during his first semester of studies. While Hemant was a computer science major, he expressed a great desire to enhance his communication skills. As he explained during an interview, he felt that the courses in his major were focused on computer programming, and did not provide many opportunities to develop his communication skills. Therefore, in addition to improving his writing, Hemant expressed an interest in public speaking; he was vocal, and gregarious, but also responsible and dedicated to his writing during class time. While Hemant expressed that he was "not that good in writing" at the beginning of the course, he put great effort into improving his writing, exhibiting agency as a writer, while seeking to diligently implement the feedback he received from me. As the subsequent chapter will reveal, Hemant desired written corrective feedback that was explicit and rule bound in its nature. After attending ENG 101, Hemant expressed a continued enjoyment for English courses; during his follow up interview, he mentioned attending an elective English course on African American literature.

Ai

Ai was a female international student, and in her first semester abroad when she attended the course. Ai originated from Beijing, China and attended public schools there during her youth. As will be discussed at further length in Chapter 6, Ai identified as a speaker of the most prestigious variety of Mandarin. While a Chinese dialect (not mutually intelligible to Mandarin) was spoken by her paternal grandparents and relatives, Ai did not learn this dialect growing up, and preferred to learn the standard variety of Mandarin. While she spoke Mandarin as a first language, Ai's family had long anticipated her studies abroad in the US, and she took TOEFL and SAT preparation courses to prepare for her admissions. Ai was a Mathematics major, but she expressed that the subject was especially difficult for her. Therefore, she preferred the sort of reading and writing activities (associated with ENG 101) to doing calculations in her math

courses. While often quiet during class discussions, Ai was nonetheless a diligent student who attended my office hours of her own accord. She identified "being more native" as one of her goals for the class. As Chapter 5 will reveal, she desired written corrective feedback on her writing, and sought this out not only from the course, but also from tutors at WU's writing center.

Yubi

Yubi was a female international student, and also in her first semester of studies abroad at the time of the study. Yubi spent much of youth living and attending schools in the Jilin province of northeastern China, where she used a variety of Mandarin which she identified as close to the standard. However, during high school, Yubi immigrated with her family to the southern Hainan province of China, where Hainanese, a dialect unintelligible with Mandarin, is widely spoken. In her youth, Yubi decided that she wanted to study abroad in the US, and she convinced her parents to support this path. Anticipating this move, she attended TOEFL and ACT testing preparation courses so that she could be admitted to Westpond University. While her major was "undecided" at the time of the course, she later chose Economics as her major. While often quiet in class, Yubi would participate when called on. She also expressed appreciation to have opportunities to practice communicating with her peers during class time. At the beginning of the class, Yubi expressed some anxiety surrounding her "grammar mistakes" and hoped that the class would help her to "avoid" such mistakes in the future. As Chapter 6 will reveal, she desired more written corrective feedback than she received from the writing program courses (ENG 101 and ENG 102) for pragmatic reasons.

Wang

Wang was a male international student, in his second semester of studies at Westpond at the time of the study. Wang attended private schools in the Sichuan province of China. While he learned a standardized form of Mandarin in schools, he identified Sichuanese, a dialect which he describes as intelligible to Mandarin, as his home language variety. Before attending ENG 101,

Wang attended an ESL course at Westpond University. While he was still undecided about his major during the course, he later identified Economics as his major during his interview. Wang was a gregarious student in class, who identified both improving his oral and writing skills as goals for the course.[10]

Timeline for data collection and data sources

This study took place over two academic semesters, from Fall 2018 to Spring 2019 (see Table 5 for the timeline of the data collection). At the beginning of each of these semesters, I informed students of my research purpose, explaining my interest in better understanding how students interact and use the feedback they receive from me on the writing they do in the course. While I asked all who were willing students to participate in the research, I also assured them that participation was entirely optional. I gained students' agreement to participate and permission to collect writing samples via written consent forms (see appendix A). However, to ensure that students experienced no undue pressure to participate, I left the room once consent forms were distributed during class time. My supervisor then collected the forms and kept them sealed and locked until the end of each semester. I did not have access to these forms until I submitted final grades.

From the larger pool of 27 students, I recruited six students as focal participants in the study. After the conclusion of each semester, upon receiving the consent forms) I contacted focal participants by email, asking them to participate in a retrospective interview. I approached first those who had already indicated their willingness to participate in an audio recorded interview on the consent form. I subsequently approached students who permitted me to analyze their writing

[10] While I do not analyze data related to Wang in this dissertation, I nonetheless introduce him in the methodology section as one of the participants I interviewed in relation to the goals of this dissertation study. Readers may consult a co-authored publication in the *Journal of Second Language Writing* (Britton & Lorimer Leonard, 2020), which features Wang.

samples on the consent form. From this larger group, I approached students who I believed experienced aspects of the CLA pedagogy as particularly enabling or constraining to their writing process. In Fall 2018, I taught two sections of ENG 101, and recruited five students as focal participants. In Spring 2019, I taught one section of ENG 101, and recruited one student as a focal participant.

Timeframe	Data sources generated/collected
September – December 2018	Teaching journal entries Lesson plans and teaching materials Student surveys Student writing samples Teacher feedback
January-February 2019	Interviews with focal participants
January – May 2019	Teaching journal entries Lesson plans and teaching materials Student surveys Student writing samples Teacher feedback
December 2019-February 2020	Interviews with focal participants

Table 5 Timetable for data collection

As noted by Wihelm (2009), "Teacher-researchers see the classroom as a rich set of data that can be used to learn how to teach better and to inform the changes they are committed to making (p. 38)." In other words, I was a teacher before a researcher, and my primary methods of generating and collecting data occurred within my normal teaching responsibilities; the study procedures process infringed minimally on regular classroom activities (Mohr, 2001). Moreover, a self-study calls for data collection methods that can best provide the evidence needed to understand one's practice, and to document student learning (LaBoskey, 2004). Data sources therefore centered my gaze not inwardly upon myself as an individual but rather myself in interaction and in relation with the focal students. The primary data generating and data gathering

methods included teacher journaling, documentation of lesson plans and teaching materials, administration of student surveys, collection of student writing samples, documentation of teacher feedback, and interviews. Each data source is described in greater details in the sections that follow.

Teaching journal

I kept a teaching journal for each class session I taught. Here, I documented my observations of each lesson in a general narrative format. My journal entries included descriptions of planned classroom events as well as accounts of unplanned classroom discussions. In the structure of the course, students spent a substantial part of class time drafting and revising their essays. While students are engaged in individual writing tasks, I spent a substantial part of class time conferring and discussing their writing with them one-on-one. In these moments, I often prompted students to brainstorm ideas for their writing or explain their ideas orally by saying things like, "Tell me what you're thinking about," or "Tell me what you want to write about." Moments where CLA-informed concepts emerged in individual discussions with students informed the content for the entries. I also included descriptions of the ways in which I introduced CLA concepts into whole class discussions, and any memorable student responses to CLA-informed classroom discourse.

My entries not only provided a place to recount CLA discourse within the classroom, but also a place to recount CLA discourse outside of the confines of the classroom. For example, as I read students' writing outside of the classroom and provided them with written feedback, I took note of any written feedback cycles I experienced with the students that seemed particularly salient for my research questions or those that related to critical incidents. I also used the journal as a place to summarize and recapitulate any salient oral feedback exchanges that occurred

between myself and students during our individual conferences (see the teacher feedback section for more details).

In addition to general narrative, my entries included more reflective observations which moved from immediate accounts of classroom events and feedback cycles towards my interpretations, hunches and analyses surrounding such events (Burton & Seidl, 2005), as well as any actionable steps I wanted to take in future lessons. These entries were distinct from ethnographic field notes, which are often initially written in the midst of observations. My entries were always written retrospectively, after the day's lesson, when the students were no longer present in the classroom (Power, 1999); therefore, rather than in the moment jottings, I needed to rely more on my memory to recall events.

Lesson plans and teaching materials

I kept records of all my lesson plans and all the teaching materials I generated for use in the classroom. These included any CLA-informed powerpoints, lecture notes, videos, handouts, descriptions of classroom activities, homework assignments, course readings, reading response questions, writing prompts, and essay assignment descriptions I provided to students. Keeping records of these materials allowed for retracing the processes which informed students drafting and revision processes, and for discerning intertextuality and interactivity between my instructional materials and students' writing.

Administration of student surveys

At the beginning of each academic semester, I administered a short survey (Appendix B) to students to gain baseline information about the students' linguistic repertoires and attitudes toward writing. The survey asked students to provide demographic information including their hometown, their spoken and written languages, their prior experiences with English classes, and

their expectations and fears about the course. During the spring semester, I additionally distributed a short questionnaire to students before they received their first round of feedback from me early in the semester (Appendix C). I did not distribute it both semesters, as I encountered this survey later over the course of my literature work. The survey was developed by Goldstein (2005) and presented the book titled, *Teacher written commentary in second language writing classrooms* (p. 52-54). Goldstein (2005) offers the survey as one mechanism (among others) through which teachers can establish an open line of communication with their students in relation to their strategies and preferences for teacher feedback. As the author explains, the purpose of administering this questionnaire is not to dictate what the instructor should do, but rather to allow an opening for explorations of the teacher and the students' expectations about feedback, and mismatches between teacher and student views.

Student writing samples

On an ongoing basis over the course of the semester, I collected samples of student writing which the students uploaded to moodle, our online course management system. These included informal writing students engaged in class. Informal writing included brainstorming exercises, free writes, or prompted exploratory/generative writings. I also collected writing that the students composed outside of class, including homework assignments, essay outlines, drafts, and final papers for each of the five writing units. Finally, I collected written reflections from each student at the end of each unit. In these written reflections, I used prompts to elicit student perceptions of affordances which enabled and/or constrained their writing process. I asked students to reflect on the changes they made as they wrote and revised their essay, to describe how they revised their essay the most, and to detail learning activities which they felt were most useful and least useful to their writing process. As LaBoskey (2004) notes, soliciting such kind of reflective student writing is an important form of interactive input in self-study research, because

it helps teacher researchers to understand students' reactions to their teaching, especially with regards to the aspect of teaching that is under investigation. In asking students to reflect, the assumption is that there is value in understanding how students make meaning of their circumstances and actions (Best et al., 2015). By the end of each semester, I collected approximately 20 writing samples (of varied lengths) from each student.

Teacher feedback

I kept track of all the feedback I provided to students on their in-process and final drafts of each unit. In-process feedback included written feedback that I provided to students on their initial drafts during the first, and third units. In-process feedback also included oral feedback that I delivered to students through individual conferences, occurring during the second and fourth units. During the second unit, I conferenced with students regarding their initial drafts, and during the fourth unit, I conferenced with students regarding their second revised drafts.

For any feedback that I delivered orally, I made general notes about the comments that I wanted to share with the student in advance of the individual meeting. Creating these notes provided a record for me to reference at a later date. In some cases, I additionally created a written record of my commentary over the course of my conversations with students. In these instances, I used the comment feature in Microsoft Word directly within the students' drafts. I typed a suggestion in live time after first stating it orally. I adopted this practice to provide students with a second instructional medium to reinforce oral feedback, and to provide myself as a researcher with another written record of my suggestions.

After conferencing with students during the second and fourth units, I set aside a period of time to write in my teaching journal. Any journal entries related to individual conferences included a recapitulation of salient exchanges that occurred between us through our conference dialogue. A past conference with an international student from China serves as an example of the

sort of the exchanges I documented: during the course of our conference, I asked the student to clarify how the different ideas he represented in his argumentative paper on language discrimination came together to form one central argument. In one paragraph, the student wrote about the prescriptivist teaching methods he experienced as an English language learner in China. In a different paragraph, he pointed out that some students experience discrimination in relation to their English abilities, especially surrounding college entrance examinations in China. Over the course of our exchange, I asked him to think about the relationship between these two paragraphs and to explain it out loud. He came to the realization that he was ultimately arguing that prescriptivism can lead to language discrimination, and so I wrote an account of this exchange in my teaching journal.

The in-process feedback I collected for purposes of this study was aimed at developing students' CLA, so it was particularly important for me to see how students interfaced with my feedback in their subsequent drafts. While not part of this dissertation study, a past writing conference I had with an Anglo-American student in the fall of 2017 provides readers with another representative example of the form and content that CLA feedback can take at the global level in moments when students are resistant to the classroom discourse. During our conference, we discussed a first draft of the student's essay, which was a personal response to a chapter from Henry Hitchings'(2011) book, *The language wars*. The student, who grew up in New England and went through the public schooling system, wrote that he did not particularly like learning foreign languages, and that he is of the opinion that everyone in the world should speak English. As we considered angles for revision, I asked him to consider who would benefit the most in a world where everyone must learn English. I asked him to further elaborate on his past experiences learning foreign languages in school, and to say more about why these experiences were unpleasant for him. I asked him to determine the extent to which foreign languages were valued

in his school or in his community. We discussed his career interests in management and whether foreign languages could be useful in his future.

In this study, I sought to determine how students interfaced with such kind of critical feedback, and to understand the extent to which it helped them to formulate new and critical perspectives related to language. I was also interested in whether my feedback points (as affordances) were enabling or constraining to students' writing processes. As I was providing feedback to students, I often wondered whether it would stifle students' in their writing process, or whether they would feel resistant toward it. I also wondered whether they may not take some feedback into account. Retrospective interviewing with focal participants helped me to get clarity on these questions.

Interviews

By inviting focal participants to participate in interviews, one of my purposes was to generate a data source that privileges students' perspectives and voices within self-study research (Best et al., 2015). Moreover, according to Kawamitsu (2019) the teacher researcher's analysis of students' textual productions are not enough to understand writers' decision making in a second language. Therefore, including interviewing data allows the researcher to gain a writer's perspective on the process of text production: both performances of the writing and an explanation of their choices in decision making.

After observing students' reception and appropriation of CLA in their oral and written discourse, I selected six students as focal participants. I asked each of the six students to participate in one informal, semi-structured retrospective interview with me after the semester concluded, and 10 months after the initial interview, I asked Yubi and Ai to participate in a second interview. The length of the interviews ranged from 40 minutes to two hours, and all interviews were audio recorded with each student's consent. It is important to note here that power relations between myself and students were not static (Fairclough, 1992b) throughout the

duration of this study, but were rather dynamic, as Chapters 5 and 6 will show. Therefore, the retrospective timing of the interview (occurring after the semester concluded and grades were determined) had an impact on students' perceptions about the interview and their assumed role as interviewee. The initial and second interview are described further below.

Initial Interview

The overarching aims of the first interview were to more generally gauge the relationship students had with CLA-informed feedback, and also to more closely discern the meaning-making that occurred through students' engagement with specific feedback points (Best et al., 2015). To structure this interview, I selected a few pieces of each student's writing in advance and discussed them with the student. In selecting writing samples for conversation, I choose those which best demonstrate the student writer's efforts to apply or resist the CLA pedagogy. Prior to this interview, I spent some time preparing by revisiting each students' focal writing pieces and tracking all the relevant revisions the student made after considering my CLA-informed feedback.

To accomplish both the broader and more specific goals of the interview, the interview protocol was sequenced and balanced in an adaptive, flexible and variable way. In other words, the protocol provided me with guidance and consultation, rather than a close script to follow because my phenomenological assumption was that no single question can get at the complex and multiple aspects of human experience, and the researcher should therefore be prepared to ask more and different sorts questions as they may arise (Bevan, 2014). While each interview varied from student to student, the basic structure was consistent. All interviews included carry looser, ethnographic and phenomenological dimensions that did not require the student to reference specific writing points. During selected time intervals, I also prompted students to engage in think-aloud protocols, asking the student to re-read and reconsider specific feedback points and sections of their writing.

Ethnographic and phenomenological elements of the interview. Spradley (1979) describes the ethnographic interview to be largely a "friendly conversation" during which the researcher "slowly introduces new elements" to guide [participants], interspersing some "easygoing talk" throughout the interview to maintain rapport (p. 59). In order to build rapport and to get participants to generalize about their experience, ethnographic interviews often entail asking broader, descriptive "grand tour" questions that invite the participant to take a broader view in relation to an activity, time, or object. In this case, the broader view was taken upon a piece of writing as the object, and upon the activities that surrounded its production. Spradley (1979) notes that grant tour questions often "encourage informants to ramble on and on" (p. 87). While the writing samples selected for the interview were carefully and deliberately selected based upon my theoretical interests, the interview protocol included some "grand tour" questions, such as "Tell me about your favorite piece of writing you did for our class," and "When you were writing and revising this paper, what helped you to generate new ideas?" (Appendix D). These broad questions were designed to get participants talking around their writing piece(s), describing how they produced them, and recalling any tools, resources, and affordances that were useful or memorable (Calfee & Chambliss, 2005).

I also characterize these interviews as phenomenological in the sense that I generally strove for an effortless sort of conversation, where it was especially welcome for students to candidly recall their attitudes and recollections toward classroom activities and my feedback interventions, and recount moments of their lived experience as it occurred alongside the writing they did in class. As Bevan (2014) explains, the phenomenological dimension encourages reflectivity, as students make meaning upon their past experiences during the interview. Questions such as: "What do you think about this kind of feedback? Is it confusing? Do you like it?" (Appendix D) relate to the phenomenological dimensions of lived experience. Phenomenological questions were especially appropriate given the timing of our interview, which

occurred months after the conclusion of the semester. While the amount of time that elapsed could be seen as a limitation of this study (as time had passed since the students wrote their essays, and details of their process were not as fresh in their minds) an advantage of the retrospective timing was the longer duration of our relationship. As Craig (2009) points out "the sense of knowing afforded by relationships allows insights into research texts that would not otherwise be possible" (p. 110). Therefore, as I mentioned previously, I believe that the students were able to speak with me more freely in the interviews, knowing that the course had concluded, their grades had been determined, and they had gained a semester of experience working with me.

In addition to "grand tour" and phenomenological questions, the protocol also included some "structural questions" allowing me to inquire about the students' domain specific knowledge. Spradley (1979) notes that these kinds of questions "allow us to find out how informants have organized their knowledge" (p. 60). Questions in the protocol such as, "Tell me a little bit about how we approached grammar in class" (Appendix D) elicited students to recall domain-specific linguistic knowledge (given that the way I approached "grammar" in class was integral to critical language study). However, it is important to note that I generally avoided using overtly theoretical terms related to critical linguistics and opted for more accessible language. I hoped that general language would invite the student to show me the domain-specific and theoretical knowledge as they recalled it. The structural questions also allowed me to listen and ask follow up questions (which varied considerably from student to student).

Think-aloud protocols. During intervals of the interview, I also moved into a more structured think-aloud protocol in order to elicit students' reactions towards any specific CLA-informed feedback they received. Think-aloud protocols are useful in encouraging students to speak freely and enabling researchers to gain more authentic views of student perceptions of feedback, as compared to interview or survey methods (Scrocco, 2012). Such protocols are also productive in allowing the researcher to make more visible the often invisible aspects of

composing. Most often in feedback studies, these protocols are used by researchers who maintain a more distanced relationship to the student and the learning that takes place (Scrocco, 2012; Torres & Anguiano, 2016). However, I recognize the protocol as especially useful for self-study researchers who desire to better understand their students' responses to feedback; Pandey (2012) notes that many aspects of composition go beyond the realm of teaching intervention, because the process is "an internal, learner-triggered mix of affective, cognitive, and memory-based variables" (p. 666) that teachers often do not observe. Think-aloud protocols therefore carry the power to make visible the less visible aspects of students' composing processes to teachers.

Per the protocol, I asked students to reread selected comments I made on their drafts, and to explain their initial reactions as well as any recollections they had in relation to the comment. When written comments did not exist, I restated oral comments I previously provided (based on any notes, or teaching journal entries). As part of the think-aloud protocol, I also drew students' attention to any revisions they made after receiving CLA feedback, asking them to reflect on the revisions and to express their perceptions about the revisions. This retrospective think-aloud protocol therefore bears some resemblance to instructional protocols that are well established among reading specialist teachers and used with students as part of reading instruction. For example, the retrospective miscue analysis is a teacher-directed strategy that involves the emerging reader in revisiting and reconsidering their process of reading. Teachers have reported that the process of retrospectively revisiting "miscues" with their students has helped them to become aware of the implicit strategies children use to engage with texts and the knowledge that children possess about graphophonic language systems (Goodman, 1996). While it is worth noting that miscue analysis is informed by a psycholinguistic orientation to language where errors are presumed and first directed by the teacher (see Chapter 2 for further discussion about the psycholinguistic orientation to "error"), I will assert in a similar fashion that the think-aloud

protocol is valuable in a self-study design to help teachers understand the strategies that students use to engage with their teachers' comments.

Second Interview

10 months after their initial interview I asked two focal participants, Ai and Yubi to participate in a second interview. The protocol for this interview (Appendix E) was generated after initial transcription of their first interview and analysis of these two students' writings. After initial analysis of data pertaining to the two students, I decided that a cross-case analysis was warranted in order to "deepen understanding and explanation" of the two students' experiences (Miles et al., 2014, p. 101). I selected these two students, both of whom were educated in China, because they displayed contrasting language ideologies about language variation within their course writings. Also, both students had written and spoken to me about distinctive language socialization experiences in their L1. The findings of the cross-case analysis are presented in chapter 6.

I therefore developed the second interview protocol specifically for a cross-case analysis of Ai's and Yubi's language socialization experiences and attitudes toward variation. My conceptual interests informed both the selection of the two cases for further analysis, and the development of the second interview protocol. As Miles et al. (2014) explain, researchers often choose multiple cases for sampling on a conceptual basis rather than because the cases are representative of the larger sample. From the larger theoretical framework (discussed in Chapter 3), I drew on theories of language socialization (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2012), critical discourse analytic perspectives on language (Fairclough, 1992b), and sociolinguistic perspectives on language ideology (Woolard, 1998a) to develop the second protocol. The second protocol therefore emerged as a data collection instrument for a "pre-structured" case study, because I had already "established an explicit conceptual framework, a rather precise set of research questions,

and a clearly defined sampling plan" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 154), before recruiting the two students for a second interview.

While the second protocol (Appendix E) maintained some of the ethnographic and phenomenological dimensions of the first protocol, it also has some important differences. While I still elicited both students' views on writing feedback, I did not prompt the two students to engage in think-alouds about specific feedback points on their drafts. Instead I asked students follow up questions about their language socialization experiences in their L1 and L2. These questions emerged from the information that students provided in their first interview. For example, Ai had explained that she speaks Standard Mandarin in China, and that other dialects were not allowed in her school. Yubi had explained that she moved to the Hainan province of China during her high school years, where a dialect intelligible to Mandarin was spoken. Therefore, in the interest of understanding the relationships between L1 and L2 learning and socialization (Neriko Musha Doerr, 2009b), I asked probing questions to discern the students' understandings and experiences about language variation in their L1. Given that the study of the cases of Ai and Yubi was "pre-structured," I also followed the protocol more closely during the second interview. As Miles et al. (2014) explain, the pre-structured case analysis includes a "case outline" that is developed before the data collectio, and provides "shell" for the data to be collected (p. 154) in order to "focus and streamline the data collection and analyses" (p. 155). The five headings under which the questions were grouped provided the shell. As shown in Appendix E, these headings included 1) Recent writing experiences, 2) Views on writing feedback, 3) Experiences learning and using L1, 4) Experiences learning and using a second dialect, and 5) Experiences learning and using L2.

Data treatment, analysis, and representation

My research involved four principal phases whereby data sources were generated, collected, interpreted, and represented. The first two phases unfolded over the course of my instruction. In Phase 1, I began looking carefully at my student's writing, and providing feedback to students while their drafts were still in process. In addition to looking at student generated writing, preliminary analyses of other data sources in Phase 2 (i.e. teaching journals, feedback points) occurred before I completed data collection. Advanced analyses (Phase 3) occurred once data had been collected and transcribed. During Phase 3, I focused on data sampling and analysis, and relied upon critical incident analysis, case study, and critical discourse analysis methods. In Phase 4, I made choices about the representation of data sources in my research report. Each of these four phases are described in the sections that follow.

Phase 1: "Looking closely" at student writing in self-study

The ways in which I treated and analyzed student writing, my principal source of data, were initiated by positionality as the writing instructor of the study participants. Data analysis is something that nearly all writing instructors do implicitly (whether they are aware of it or not) because they are involved in giving feedback to their students. Most instructors experience the feedback process to be a time-consuming task that can even become burdensome when balanced with other responsibilities. At the same time, most instructors will find the feedback process to be necessary for the purposes of assessing student learning and providing grades to students. When the study began, I considered myself to be among a fortunate group of instructors who find the process to be energizing, and experience it as intellectually demanding, stimulating and rewarding (Goldstein, 2016). In an edited book volume, *Assessing students' digital writing: Protocols for looking closely*, Hicks (2015) poses a few questions, inviting teachers to begin to engage in the intellectually demanding analysis of student work:

> When was the last time that you spent more than just a moment, perhaps even a few precious minutes, looking closely at one piece of student work?...What might we learn from our students, from one another, and about ourselves as teachers? (p. 1)

The teacher researchers featured in the volume all set out to answer these questions by examining their own students' writing in a variety of contexts. Self-study is a reflective research process that resembles these teacher researchers' own projects because it is self-initiated and forward focused on transformation of one's own teaching practice through reflection (LaBoskey, 2004). Yet Walsh and Mann (2015) observe that too often reflective practice is individualized, rather than collaborative, and that it is not driven by data.

In Phase 1, I addressed such concerns about reflective practice by taking up Hick's (2015) invitation to begin the analytic process by looking at my students' writing closely as data sources. In self-study, the ultimate outcome of data analysis is to transform one's own practice. For self-study researchers, data analysis is an endeavor that is both practical and contributive to a professionalized knowledge base in education (LaBoskey, 2004; Pinnegar & Hamilton, 2009). By using student writing as a starting point to data analysis, I sought to learn something from student's writing, and also to begin to involve students in my own process of transformation. In other words, I approached students' writing with the understanding that looking closely at it could enable me to think about ways to deepen CLA in future students' writing.

Phase 2: Preliminary data analyses

This study mixes reflective self-study methods with text-based analysis. It therefore takes texts generated by the students, and written/oral feedback generated by myself as the primary units of analysis. To discern the ways I incorporated CLA in the written and oral feedback I provide to students, phase 2 included looking primarily at the comments I made in their drafts, and my teaching journal, where I took notes on any oral feedback I gave to students on their writing. To gain insights into the ways that students used CLA-informed feedback, and to the ways they participated in and resist a CLA-informed writing pedagogy, I also looked primarily to

students' exploratory writings, homework assignments, essays, revisions, unit reflections, interview transcripts, and my teaching journal.

Preliminary data analyses in Phase 2 therefore occurred alongside the collection of the data, and were guided by open coding and thematic analysis, in order to open inquiry and be responsive to all that was happening with the students and myself (Charmaz, 2020; Emerson et al., 1995). As common in self-study research, I set aside a small amount of time each week to revisit my teaching journal entries. Revisiting entries during the earlier stages of research, helped me to look for emerging patterns and create an index with a limited number of preliminary conceptual categories. Preliminary analyses also enabled me to continuously reconnect to my research questions, and to develop meaningful conceptual categories early on (which carried across data sources). Revisiting entries also helped me to a) narrow my focal interest(s), b) discern what might be missing from the data, and c) guide the direction of subsequent teaching and research (Hubbard & Power, 1999; Power, 1999).

Phase 3: Data sampling techniques

As I mentioned earlier in this chapter, adopting a self-study methodology does not prescribe the analyst with a singular method for the treatment, selection and analysis of data. Rather as Hamilton and Pinnegar (1998) state, the analyst should "use whatever methods will provide the needed evidence and context for understanding their practice" (p. 240, as cited in LaBoskey, 2004), and draw upon "multiple means for defining, discovering, developing, and articulating teacher knowledge" (LaBoskey, 2004, p. 849). With these recommendations in mind, I drew upon multiple techniques to select from the larger data corpus after conducting the preliminary analyses (which occurred during the data collection phases). Two distinguishable yet related techniques allowed me to further narrow the selection of data for sampling and supported my analyses in Phase 3: these techniques are critical incident analysis and case study. To present findings (relating to the focal participants) in chapter 5, I used the critical incident method. To

present the findings (relating to the focal participants) in chapter 6, I used the comparative case study method. Both techniques are described in the subsequent sections.

Critical incident analysis

Chapter 5 focuses on my localized feedback interventions, and the data selected for advanced analyses were based upon critical incident analysis (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). Critical incidents can be understood as salient events experienced by the teacher researcher that makes the teacher question decisions, think about beliefs, and prompt deep reflection about improvements to teaching (Goodell, 2006; Williams & Grierson, 2016). While critical incidents are often experienced by the teacher, Halquist and Musanti (2010) explain that they can also be events experienced by other research participants (i.e. students) that similarly prompt reflection on the part of participants that inform the instructor's classroom practice. Therefore, for this chapter, I also relied upon students' reflections and recounts of their experiences with localized feedback to conceptualize the incidents. Halquist and Musanti (2010) observe that "small events, sometimes even unnoticed situations, could turn into critical incidents" (p. 450) when meaning is ascribed to them.

Halquist and Musanti (2010) offer several criteria which I utilized to select incidents for further analysis. Firstly, critical incidents often illuminate "some degree of conflict" for the teacher or students, thereby making them memorable (p. 451). Secondly, critical incidents can offer participants "opportunities to identify, or make visible, aspects of their own lives and/or practice that may be hidden or have gone unnoticed" (p. 455). Thirdly, teachers may select incidents that surprised them, as to become the "stimulus for reflection" on their practice (p. 451). As I selected feedback exchanges to analyze in greater detail, I identified those that illustrated conflicts for myself and the students, those that illuminated hidden aspects of students' experiences, and those that were particularly surprising and memorable to me.

While the selected incidents may be small, the analysis of each incident's significance renders it as "critical," which I understand aligns this form of analysis with poststructuralism as a research ontology (Mellor & Patterson, 2004). This rendering involves the researcher in looking at the power relationships and the wider social contexts that produce the incident (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). Particularly in feedback studies, Kang and Dykema (2017) offer that teachers need to be aware of how power manifests through interpersonal relationships within the feedback process. Viewing students as agents who are able to "negotiate power and identity and develop autonomy as writers," (Kang & Dykema, 2017, p. 9) the critical incident analysis I present in chapter 5 foregrounds how students resist or yield to perceived authority depending on the situation (Halquist & Musanti, 2010).

Case study

The data selected for advanced analyses in Chapter 6, was based upon the case study method. Case study is one of the most frequently utilized methods in qualitative studies and there is not one single consensus about case study procedures (Yazan, 2015). A case may encompass any defined unit that has boundaries. Generally the objective of the case study analysis is to convey a "holistic understanding" of the case (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). To guide the analyst in case sampling, Mitchell (1984) explains that the goal will be different from quantitative modes of sampling. Rather than to ensure that the selected cases are statistically representative of a larger sample, the goal is to ensure that there is "cogency of the theoretical argument linking the elements together in an intelligible way" (Mitchell, 1984, p. 239). Mitchell (1984) therefore offers that the researcher can sample for "telling cases" (rather than typical cases) which make "previously obscure theoretical relationships suddenly apparent" (p. 239). In Chapter 6, I sampled "telling cases" but the cases were different in their boundaries. Given that cases may represent

any “phenomenon…occurring in a bounded context” (Miles and Huberman, 1994 as cited in Yazan, 2015, p. 4), I further explain how cases are delineated in chapter 6.

In Chapter 6, I delimited the cases as two individual learners, Ai and Yubi, and conducted a cross-case analysis of the learners’ experiences. Previously in this methods chapter, I explained that I developed the second interview protocol in a deductive manner; my purpose, informed by preexisting theory, was to conduct a cross-case analysis focused on these two learner’s language socialization experiences and expressed language ideologies. After initial analysis of data pertaining to the two students, I decided that a deductive cross-case analysis was warranted in order to deepen my understandings of each learner’s distinctive experiences and attitudes (Miles et al., 2014). As Miles et al. (2014) offer, multi-case sampling can increase the confidence of the researcher’s interpretations, and it particularly useful to utilize with contrasting cases, because it can allow the analyst to better “understand a single-case finding, grounding it by specifying how and where, and if possible, why it carries on as it does” (p. 33). I chose to focus on these learners as contrasting cases for their exemplary power in representing a range of distinctive a) critical and dominant learner LIs, and b) language socialization experiences. Moreover, as I explain in Chapter 7, exploring each learners’ language socialization narratives with greater depth furthered reflection on my practice (Craig, 2009), leading me to identify possibilities for new approaches to critical language instruction. The cross-case study analysis occurred in two stages: 1) within-case analysis, and 2) cross-case analysis. Given that within-case sampling should be theoretically driven (Miles et al., 2014), I began within-case analysis using a combination of deductive and inductive coding with a range of data sources. As Jerolmack and Khan (2017) note, many qualitative researchers do not locate their procedures rigidly within one area of the deductive/ inductive paradigm. Rather engage in “abductive” forms of analysis which allow for shuttling back and forth between data and analytic categories. Working primarily with the students’ writing samples and interview transcripts, my purpose was to decode and encode the meanings and

manifestations of language ideologies as they appeared in each student's written and spoken statements. In the second stage analysis, I engaged cross-case synthesis, comparing and contrasting the two focal students' ideological perspectives and backgrounds.

Using critical discourse analysis to support advanced analysis

Across the analyses that are presented in Chapters 5 to 6, I consistently relied upon critical discourse analysis (CDA) methods based on Norman Fairclough's (1989) theory. The main project of CDA is to find "connections between language use and unequal relations of power" (Fairclough, 1989, p. 1). Within the context of writing pedagogy, I therefore used CDA to uncover some of the student writers' semiotic choices, ideologies, and positionalities as they are embedded in the linguistic properties and features of their texts. This analytic process allowed me to make claims about the students' use of language. It allowed me to discern how students used language to enact a particular type of socially situated identity that either affiliated or distanced themselves from classroom *discourse* (Fernsten, 2008; Janks, 2005). Fairclough (1989) defines *discourse* as language existing as a "social practice [which is] determined by social structures" (p. 17). Therefore, as I analyzed students' writing samples, I looked for indicators as to whether students were using language in distinctive ways that served to either affiliate or distance themselves from CLA discourse and agendas. This entailed an attention to the intertextual context, which can be understood as the historical series which the student's text follows from. Such attentiveness to both the textuality and intertextuality evident in students' texts is also supported by poststructural theory. Poststructuralism challenges traditional ideas about what constitutes a text, and supports inquiries into "how texts are made" as well as "how texts represent issues of gender, social class, race, and ethnicity" (Mellor & Patterson, 2004, p. 85). My advanced analyses (informed by CDA) entailed demonstrating how students' texts represent

social practices resulting from struggles that are embedded in larger social structures (Fairclough, 1989).

While CDA finds its home in the field of applied linguistics, Fairclough has critiqued other related analytical approaches (i.e. those relating to linguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, cognitive psychology, and conversation analysis) for their lack of attention to power relations (Bloome & Talwalkar, 1997; Fairclough, 1989). Thus, a CDA project enables the researcher to maintain a focus on language use as it enacts or constrains social dominance, social responsibility, or social equity (Ivanič, 2004; Rogers & Mosley Wetzel, 2014). One critique of Fairclough's original theory is that it views power to be a negative, coercive force. However, power can also be "viewed as transformative" when the goal is to redistribute power by working toward more equitable social relations (Bloome & Talwalkar, 1997, p. 111).

As I have mentioned previously, self-study researchers' ultimate goal is to transform their own teaching practices, and there are not finite guidelines on how CDA may promote this goal. While the first phase of CDA often entails a description of a text's linguistic features, robust interpretations cannot be achieved by following an analytic formula (Bloome & Talwalkar, 1997). Fairclough (1989) offers that "interpretations are generated through a combination of what is in the text and what is 'in' the interpreter" (p. 141), and argues that the analyst needs to be sensitive about the resources they are drawing on to conduct the analysis. While there are no clear summations on the relationships between CDA and teacher transformation, there are three studies which were particularly informative for this study (Fernsten, 2008; Kang & Dykema, 2017; Rogers & Mosley Wetzel, 2014). To shed light on my own analytic process, I give each study closer attention in the three paragraphs that follow: summarizing the focus of each analyst's CDA and making inferences about the how the CDA process may have helped the analysts to transform subsequent pedagogies—whether it be their own pedagogies or those of other instructors.

As teacher researchers teaching a literacy course for pre-service reading teachers, Rogers and Mosley Wetzel (2014) conducted a discourse analysis of a letter which was written collectively by their students. The letter was written to Marie Clay, a literacy scholar, and inquired about how reading teachers should account for their students' linguistic variation when using a running record (an assessment tool developed by Dr. Clay). The purpose of Rogers and Mosley Wetzel's (2014) discourse analysis was to "better understand the learning that occurred" (p. 65) through the students' writing, and to observe "both the existence of linguistic devices and how they function" (p. 66). To this end, the teacher researchers analyzed some of the linguistic features in the letter (i.e. parts of speech, pronouns, tense, intertextuality etc.) to understand how the students, as pre-service teachers positioned themselves in multiple ways, how they built agency into the text, and how they deployed key concepts related to critical literacy. The authors also asked questions of the text, such as "What meanings are represented in the letter?" and "What may [the] linguistic devices—use of pronouns and tense—have to do with the [in-service teachers'] identities and social languages?" (p. 65). These authors' CDA therefore informed my own analytic process; this study illuminated that CDA enables the analyst to focus on the micro linguistic features of student writing. In order to better understand the learning that transpired through students' writing, the analyst can look for evidence of students' own positioning, identity, agency, or conceptual knowledge.

Drawing on Fairclough's theory of CDA, Fernsten (2008) similarly engaged in an analysis of one of her students' writings, discerning how the student positioned herself through her linguistic and textual choices. The student, "Mandy," was an ESL learner in the researcher's junior year writing course within a US university. Fernsten offers that CDA "provides a way to study power relations and the embedded ideologies that shape how second-language students come to understand who they are as writers" (p. 44). Accordingly, Fernsten's microanalysis of Mandy's writing attended to the multiple identities and discourses (i.e. discourses of competence,

deficiency, and expressivity) that Mandy communicated in relation to her writing abilities. Fernsten concludes with two recommendations for instructors that can help ESL students to challenge hegemonic discourses of linguistic deficiency. One possibility is to include open, hybrid assignments which enable students to express themselves without worrying about language accuracy, and another is to engage students in sociopolitical discussions surrounding language differences in the classroom. Fernsten's (2008) study informed my own approaches to CDA. It helped me to recognize that in addition to focusing on the micro-features of students' texts (i.e. bits of discourse) the analyst can also be attentive to "Big 'D' Discourses" whereby the student enacts and recognizes "socially significant identities" (Gee, 2014, p. 25). More particularly, Fernsten's analysis helped me to understand that deconstructing students' texts can subsequently inform the teacher researcher's choices about assignment prompts and teaching strategies.

Lastly, Kang and Dykema's (2017) study provides an example where CDA is used to study student-teacher feedback exchanges. These authors used Fairclough's CDA framework to understand how students in a college composition course negotiated and responded to the feedback they received from their composition instructor (the second author in the study). The researchers note that a limited number of feedback studies pay attention to how students' negotiate power relationships in the feedback process, and offer that CDA affords researchers engaged in feedback studies the opportunity to investigate student responses to teacher feedback, and to observe power negotiations between the students and their instructor. Through their analysis, the researchers observed that the students at times made linguistic choices which reflected their uneven power relationships and deference to their teacher (i.e. the use of hedging to soften critiques about the instructor's methods), but at other times the students exerted agency and resistance to the teacher's authority. The researchers also observed and made visible interdiscursivity and appropriation occurring between the instructor's original comments, and the

students' responses. While the researchers did not seem to be explicitly focused on transformation of their own practices, they offer that other teachers can become more aware of the power dynamics surrounding their feedback practices, and that other researchers might use a CDA framework to address student/teacher feedback exchanges on multiple assignments. Therefore, from Kang and Dykema's study, I gained an understanding that teacher analysts can focus and foreground the ways that power distributes and manifests through the feedback process. They can look for discoursal evidence of students' resistance, agency, or appropriation of the classroom discourse.

Phase 4: Narrative representations and inquiries

While CDA offered me the ability to deconstruct data, narrative constructions provided a means of simultaneously representing and analyzing data and enabled me to reconstruct socioculturally storied accounts of my feedback practices and exchanges with students in Phase 4. Squire (2012) offers that a sociocultural theoretical framework offer researchers solutions to the problems that are often associated with narrative inquiry; such frameworks presume that narratives are co-constructed and intertextual, and offer the researcher hermeneutic modes of analysis that are aimed at human sense making and understanding rather than structural analysis. Similarly, Souto-Manning (2014) argues that CDA and narrative analysis need each other; narrative without CDA can become uncritical, and CDA without narrative can become abstracted from human processes of meaning-making. As Craig (2009) demonstrates, narrative approaches also overlap with reflective practices in self-study methods, giving the teacher researcher permission to be fluid and to simply follow "where the story leads" (p. 112) in representing their narratives from the field.

Data triangulation and data crystallization

In addition to considering the types of data to collect, all researchers are faced with decisions of how much data to collect. While it is far from straightforward to know how much

data is sufficient for qualitative studies, Calfee and Chambliss (2005) suggest that triangulation, or considering the different ways in which data is collected, can be a helpful guiding principle for teacher researchers' decision making about data collection. Triangulation of data means using different types of data sources, methods, and theories to confirm findings (Hubbard & Power, 1999). Therefore, I was often guided by the principle of triangulation in this study. I sought to avoid developing a one-sided view as I searched for patterns and drew conclusions. I looked not only at my teaching journal, but also for corroboration between my teaching journal, my written/oral feedback to students, students' writing samples, and interviews. Since I was primarily concerned with student writing, another way I considered triangulation was by considering different types of writing artifacts that students produced in the class (Calfee & Chambliss, 2005). I triangulated student writing by comparing the final essay to any earlier drafts, outlines, generative writing, teacher feedback, classroom materials, and interviews related to the essay and unit under consideration. Students' written reflections on their work were especially important in providing an interpretive check on any claims made (LaBoskey, 2004). Emerging consistencies amongst these different data sources suggested evidence of triangulation to me, and helped me to gain confidence that my findings better reflected students' experiences, in addition to my own experiences (Galloway, 2017b). While triangulation was often a guiding concept for me as a teacher researcher, I also recognized the limitations of this concept, especially in Chapter 5, where I engaged in critical incident analysis (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). Triangulation suggests that there is a single fixed point or truth that the researcher will arrive upon through analysis. Yet in critical incident analysis, my goal is not to arrive at a single truth, but rather to allow room for multiple truths and realities. For this reason Kuby (2014) has called for the need to embrace "data crystallization" as a concept to disrupt the traditional project of "data triangulation" that often drives qualitative study. Crystallization as an alternative project or research methodology "embraces the idea that truth this made up of multiple perspectives which are connected to

specific contexts and points in time" (p. 131). Refracting light within themselves to reveal different colors and patterns, crystals (as a metaphorical representation) encourage researchers to embrace the assumption that truth and knowledge are constructed and evolving in their forms.

Study limitations

As common to qualitative research, this study is limited in terms of its generalizability. Any insights produced are derived from a unique and particular setting, and do not extend beyond them. Generalizability is also limited in terms of its pedagogical replication across other settings. Given that teachers "teach who we are" (LaBoskey, 2004, p. 843) self-study research is highly attuned to the teacher researcher's own positionality in the study. Learning and writing outcomes will (and should) be different for other teachers in other settings; moreover, the texts students produce from the study are influenced by the social practices of the classroom and also not replicable (Canagarajah, 2014; Fairclough, 2011). However, by providing sufficient detail, the project will likely resonate with other teachers and researchers. Another limitation is the primary focus on student texts rather than classroom interactional data. Audio recordings of classroom interactional data would have allowed me to discern how students negotiate CLA pedagogies through verbal discourse, however, this study limits analysis to student writing. Another potential limitation of the study relates to the context of research, as the majority of L2 writing feedback studies have taken place in higher education contexts (Belcher, 2012; Hyland, 2010), where this study takes place. A study of younger writers could offer a fresh perspective. Lastly, a limitation of this study is the time frame. A longitudinal design would have enabled me to see how CLA develops in student writing over a longer timeframe. For instance, I could see how and whether students appropriate course concepts into the ENG 102 course that they took in the subsequent semester. Due to time constraints and feasibility issues, I only followed students through one semester of their writing experience. In Chapter 7, I will reflect at greater length upon these

limitations, explaining how I have sought to address them, while offering future self-study researchers directions for their future projects in research and curricular development.

CHAPTER 5

LOCALIZED FEEDBACK STRATEGIES

Introduction

The findings of this dissertation study are presented in Chapters 5 and 6. In Chapter 5, I focus on my CLA-informed provision of localized feedback and consider how students responded to localized feedback strategies[11]. In Chapter 6, I explain how CLA informed my global approaches to writing instruction, including my decisions to provide content-specific feedback to students during a curricular unit focused on language differences. In Chapter 6, I also use case study methods and language socialization perspectives to explore how two focal students responded to critical language study.

I begin this chapter with a praxis-based discussion. Here I summarize the theories that guided my approaches to localized feedback, including sociocultural, second language acquisition, and critical language awareness theories. While I recognize the explanatory power that psycholinguistic theories of SLA hold in relation to the ontological nature of feedback (i.e. what feedback is, and what it does for L2 writers), I also explain how the theory of critical language awareness informed my decisions to provide corrective feedback to students. In order to further develop teacher reflexivity and criticality, I explain how other writing instructors may develop critical awareness surrounding the "errors" they perceive.

Secondly, I explain how the localized feedback I provided was situated within (and interrelated to) the larger classroom ecology. As Goldstein (2005) notes, for feedback to be effective in supporting students, it is important for the instructor to build explicit connections between feedback and classroom activities. In the spirit of this recommendation, the chapter

[11] Interested readers may also consult my co-authored publication in *TESL Canada* (Britton & Austin, 2020a), where I similarly focus on localized approaches to feedback.

describes classroom activities that corresponded to my localized feedback strategies, illuminating the interconnected nature of classroom activities and feedback strategies.

In the third part of this chapter, my gaze shifts to the students' experience of localized feedback. Here, I present students' responses and perceptions about the localized feedback they received from me. To this end, the chapter features seven "critical incidents" illuminating four focal participants' perceptions (i.e. attitudes, beliefs, preferences) toward the localized feedback they received over the course of instruction (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). Traditionally, "critical incidents" are representational devices that enable instructors to make sense of firsthand interactions with their students (Farrell, 2013). However, drawing on interview data, this section features the incidents from the students' point of view. The analysis of these incidents shows that students' perceptions of corrective feedback were complex and multiple. Students' perceptions were influenced by their past learning experiences, including their preexisting beliefs about the corrective roles of teachers and peers in the classroom. Analysis also foregrounds how students' agency and language awareness emerged through their interaction with feedback. Overall, students expressed some degree of difficulty interacting with indirect corrective feedback, and their uptake was not always successful. Despite the difficulties they encountered, students had positive perceptions of indirect feedback, noting the opportunities for problem solving that emerged through their engagement. By engaging in the critical incident analysis, I ultimately argue in this chapter that other writing teachers may similarly benefit from opening the lines of communication with their students about feedback. By engaging students in discussions about their preferences and prior experiences with feedback, instructors can work towards delivering a more comprehensive and supportive feedback system.

Praxis-based discussion:

Sociocultural, SLA, and CLA orientations to localized feedback

As I explained in Chapter 2, sociocultural orientations to teacher feedback place primacy on the dialogic and reciprocating dimensions of feedback, calling for the provision of feedback that is both individualized and graduated (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). In other words, teachers are encouraged to look at each student's writing separately, providing targeted feedback that is most useful for each particular students' needs; feedback is likely to be different for each student, based on that student's needs. Sociocultural theory also suggests that their feedback is tailored to students' Zone of Proximal Development, and provide an adequate amount of support only for those revision tasks that the learner could not engage in independently without support (Sheen, 2010). The goal of SCT feedback is ultimately to enable the student to self-correct and to engage in the linguistic task that the teacher identifies as worthy of revisiting. The learner's interpretation of the feedback and the instructors' attentiveness and interpretation are therefore both involved in this dialogic process.

As a teacher researcher drawing on these SCT theories, I have often experienced ontological questions about feedback for which SLA theories appear to offer the strongest, most definitive answers. One question has often lingered in my mind about localized feedback strategies: Does localized feedback consistently carry a corrective function? Ultimately this question asks about power relations between the teacher and students—does the feedback students receive carry the illocutionary force of corrections (Kissine, 2008)? As I discussed in Chapter 3, I draw on Séror's (2009) broader definition of feedback practices as "any interaction about writing," (p. 205); this broad definition does not appear to preclude feedback that is not corrective in its nature. In Chapter 2, I defined localized feedback as comments that correspond to an isolated location in the text, which are supposed to support the student in revising within an isolated, sentence-level of the text. With this conceptualization, it appears that when feedback is

localized, it most often takes a corrective function. This conceptualization may explain the great amount of corrective feedback studies that draw on SLA theories. According to Sheen (2010) a substantial amount of support for the provision of corrective feedback has emerged from psycholinguistic theories of SLA. This is because theories of SLA are most concerned with the extent to which feedback may assist students with the acquisition of particular features in the L2.

The conceptualization of feedback as carrying a corrective function perhaps explains the great amount of research that has been produced on written corrective feedback (WCF) within the field of L2 writing. And while there is some debate in this research about whether WCF has any value (Truscott, 1999), there is general consensus in the WCF literature that WCF is useful and valued. The value of WCF particularly resonates with many L2 students themselves. Having been socialized into error correction from in both L1 and L2 settings, many have come to expect corrective feedback from their writing instructors (i.e. Ferris, 2011; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Razfar, 2010). Therefore, while debate remains about the effectiveness and nature of WCF, generally findings from psycholinguistic and SLA oriented studies have suggested that some form of WCF is useful in enabling students to acquire a linguistic feature that is targeted by the instructor, especially when such feedback is desired by the learner.

In designing this study, I treated WCF findings as significant particularly for L2 learners, while also drawing on pedagogical theories of critical language awareness to also allow for critical consideration of the purpose of WCF. CLA-informed instructors are not opposed to teaching standardized English and fostering awareness of academic writing conventions. As Fairclough (1992) explains, "a CLA position on the treatment of standard English is that one should teach written standard English for pragmatic reasons, but one should also expose learners to [critical] views about standard English" (p. 15). Therefore, while instructors may teach students about conventional resources that writers draw on, they can also make students aware that such resources are accompanied with sociopolitical status/currencies. Delpit (1988) arrived at

a similar conclusion in a seminal speech at the Ninth Annual Ethnography in Education Research Forum; in order to work toward a more just society, writing teachers need to provide all students with access to the explicit and implicit rules of power as they are realized through language. As Delpit (1988) further explained, "success in institutions—schools, workplaces, and so one—is predicated upon the acquisition of the culture of those who are in power", and so for students who are not already participants "in the culture of power, being told explicitly the rules of that culture makes acquiring power easier" (p. 283). While providing all students with access to the language of power, instructors can also probe students' criticality, prompting them to consider whose interests are most served by the acquisition and use of dominant linguistic forms (Ivanič, 2005).

Mindful of the sociopolitical aspects of language standards/conventions, I believe that CLA-informed instructors will take extra care in their provision of corrective feedback. Firstly, taking care means avoiding using language in the delivery of feedback that engenders deficit discourses surrounding nonstandard linguistic features. Rather than using words such as "incorrect," "awkward," "mistake," or "error" to identify and to describe non-dominant linguistic features in students' texts, Davila (2016) offers that that adjectives such as "nonstandard" or "unconventional form" be used to describe the 'errors' that teachers perceive. Moreover, composition scholars offer that L2 writers' deviation from the standard variety does not necessarily constitute "error" (see for example, Horner et al., 2011; Zawacki & Habib, 2014). While all writers make errors, instructors' perceptions of "error" may emerge as socially-constructed responses to students' dialectal differences or register choices (Matarese & Anson, 2010). Therefore, as Zawacki and Habib (2014) offer, critically-aware instructors will often experience dilemmas "in deciding what constitutes a [perceived versus actual] error" (p. 183). I believe there are useful strategies for teachers to develop such critical awareness on the subject of errors, by foregrounding both their subjectivity and reflexivity on the topic. To foreground their subjectivity, instructors may use first person pronouns in the description and identification of

errors. In terms of foreground teachers' reflexivity, Kubota and Miller (2017) offer some directions which apply more generally to reflexive practices (i.e. ethnographic reporting), but I also believe their directions are helpful as teachers' reflect on their perceptions of error. They explain that cultivating reflexivity entails "decentering" oneself and "truthfully and ethically representing the other through reflecting on our underlying assumptions about the self and other" (p. 142). In other words, what is perceived as an error (or an incomprehensible part of a text) may vary from one reader to another, and reflexivity can allow the instructor to reflect on the assumptions underlying their perceptions of "error." Perhaps the adoption of certain language patterns can help teachers to increase their critical awareness on the subject of errors. Patterns may include: "I perceive this to be an unconventional form because x", "I interpret this as an error because y", or "It's difficult for me to make meaning here."

Given the subjectivity associated with error correction, the emancipatory objectives of CLA may also invite teachers to provide corrective localized feedback which is choice-driven rather than directive. According to Janks and Ivanič (1992) emancipation involves students in using language to work towards greater freedom. These authors further clarify that CLA is emancipatory only if it "empowers people to successfully contest the practices which disempower them" (p. 306). However, empowerment is not fixed; it will be different for each individual learner based on their position, wishes and goals (Gevers, 2018). From my perspective, the emancipatory objectives of CLA may be realized in the provision of sentence-level feedback; instead of providing the student with explicit corrective feedback (i.e. signaling one choice for the revision of the unconventional linguistic feature), a teacher might provide a resource explaining a rule-governed form, and encourage students to make a deliberate choice that aligns with the student's identity as writer and with the rhetorical purpose of the text. In other words, CLA teachers bring students awareness to dominant conventions, leaving room for students to make choices whether they want to adopt, or challenge such conventions (Lu, 1994).

Approaches to localized feedback

In this section, I address the first research question of this dissertation study, concerning how CLA informs my decisions to provide feedback (including localized corrective feedback) on students' writing. I also consider how sociocultural and SLA theories informed my decisions.

Prior to the start of the first semester of teaching transitional writing, I engaged with different theoretical orientations in order to make some decisions about how I would provide sentence-level feedback to my students. As I mentioned in Chapter 1, I did not enter this study believing that the nonstandardized features of students' texts should be entirely overlooked by teachers. As Ferris (2011) argues, written accuracy often matters outside the context of the writing classroom, and L2 writers in particular experience different sorts of linguistic issues compared to L1 writers. Corrective feedback can help address L2 writers' linguistic knowledge on an individualized basis. Therefore, I premised this study on the belief that all students (both L1 and L2 writers) should receive at least one piece of feedback on each draft they create which is directed at the sentence-level features of their text. While difficult to generalize, the sorts of feedback L1 and L2 writers receive is likely to be different. As Ferris (2011) explains, L1 writers may receive feedback on issues such as punctuation and mechanics, while L2 writers may receive feedback on issues such as verb tenses and forms, noun markers and articles. Given that both sociocultural and CLA orientations emphasize the need for student decision making and full participation in the correction process, I decided that a direct approach to error correction (where nonstandardized forms are marked, edited, or rewritten by the teacher) would not align with my values and ideological position, nor with the goals of the study.

As Goldstein (2005) advises, teachers' written feedback is not separate from instruction; teachers should seek to build explicit connections between their feedback strategies and classroom instruction. With this in mind, I will first elaborate on how I addressed sentence-level issues related to grammar, syntax, mechanics, lexicon, or citation conventions through classroom

instruction. I will then describe how I further established a text-setting relationship with students by approaching such issues in my corrective feedback in parallel ways.

Approaches to grammar instruction in class

Informed by sociocultural theories of learning and theories of linguistics, I made two larger decisions about how I would approach grammar instruction within the classroom context during the study. Firstly, in accordance with sociocultural theory, I decided that any instructional time devoted to grammar, mechanics or other sentence-level conventional issues would need to be individualized as much as possible. Seeking to align my instruction with linguistic epistemologies, I also decided that any teaching of standardized grammatical forms necessitated contextualization.

SCT therefore informed the structure of the course while linguistic theories informed the content. To determine the structure of the course and the role of grammar within it, I was also informed by guidelines of the writing program (which I saw as compatible with SCT). Following guidelines, I committed one class session in each curricular of the four curricular units to sentence-level issues in students' writing. Since the first four units in the semester took place over six class sessions, students focused on sentence-level issues in their composing on the last day of each unit focused on sentence-level issues in students' writing. The typical sequence of focal activities in each class session is detailed in Table 6 below.

Lesson	Activities
1	Introduction of unit themes, pre-reading, generative writing
2	Discussion, generative writing, pre-reading
3	Discussion, generative writing, drafting
4	Introduction of revision strategies and peer review
5	Discussion/analysis of exemplar essays and global revision activities
6	Sentence-level revision activities

Table 6 Typical sequencing of classroom activities in each unit

The first half of any sentence-level class session (i.e. lesson 6 in each unit) was informed by the study of modern linguistics. In other words, during these sentence-level days, I desired to first expose students to sociolinguistic theories of language variation and involved them in conducting their own explorations of variation within the English language. However, the groundwork that helped students to understand why they were engaging in such linguistic explorations began at the beginning of the semester.

On the first day of each semester, I introduced students to descriptive and prescriptive orientations to the study of language (Curzan, 2014), and ensured that the students continued to encounter the concepts of descriptivism and prescriptivism over the first few days of classes. I introduced this content at the start of the semester, so that when students encountered the terms on sentence-level revisions days, they better understood our rationale for exploring both "descriptive" and "prescriptive" orientations to language study. Early in the semester, students brainstormed their understandings of these terms, watched relevant segments of the documentary "Do You Speak American" (Cran, 2005), read Edward Finegans' (2005) essay "What is Correct Language?," wrote about their understandings of the terms, and applied the concepts through reflective writing on their prior educational experiences. Through such activities, students came to the general understanding about meanings and linguistic objectives associated with these

concepts: descriptivists aim to describe the ways that languages evolve, vary, and differ across time and space. Descriptivists show enthusiasm for language differences, and exercise observation and description, rather than critical judgement of nonstandard forms. In contrast, prescriptivists aim to create rules for standard linguistic forms. Prescriptivists tend to oppose change and variation, and to exercise beliefs that there are correct forms which should be taught and learned in schools (i.e. standard language varieties; See Table 7 for students' own definitions of the terms "descriptivist" and "prescriptivist"). From the first day of classes, I asked students not only to reflect on their past educational experiences with descriptivism and prescriptivism, but also to write about their expectations for the course, and to indicate whether they wished to learn about the English language from descriptive or prescriptive standpoints (Curzan, 2014). While a small number of students indicated that they desired instruction to be on one side of the spectrum, most students expressed a desire to further their knowledge of the language from both ideological standpoints. Table 7 represents the responses of two students, Hemant and Wang. While Hemant indicated desiring a prescriptive approach, Wang expressed an interest in learning about descriptive approaches to language:

Hemant's Class 1 Writing	Wang's Class 1 Writing
Descriptivist is basically a person who believes in using the words which are becoming popular now a days and try to give those words a prescriptive platform. A descriptivist follows the trending languages and words and encourage the use of those words.Whereas a prescriptivist is the one who tries to conserve the old english language by not allowing the new slang languages to become popular. A prescriptivist fears the loss of the ancient english language and try to follow the rules of correct english grammar. My teachers approached english from a prescriptive standpoint because they wanted us to learn the correct words and language. They did so so that we could use them correctly in our coming future. My friends started using the word like "LOL" which is descriptive grammar. I expect that I will enjoy my classes this semester and improve on my writing skills.Yes, I think its better to learn to write prescriptively . (In-Class Writing, 9/5/18).	Descriptive means using new styles of languages and prescriptivists means using English in a standardized way. In my high school English classes, I got much more prescriptivist educations. For example, I learned about how to write TOFEL essays in my high school. And the teachers required me to write in a standard format for every essay. New formats of writing is forbidden, because they are not accepted by the TOFEL grader. I rarely took descriptivist classes. The only one I could remember was that poem classes. I have chance to appreciate different styles of poems and created my own works without any restrictions. The reason for the teachers approached more to prescreptivist was that we can achieve higher score in TOFEL and graduated successfully from high school. For this course, I expect to take more descriptivist writing. Cause prescriptivist usually has very strict and standardized rubrics. And descriptivist seems very interesting. (In-Class Writing, 1/23/19)

Table 7: Writing from the first class

Descriptive language study on sentence-level revision days

At the beginning of any sentence-level revision day, I reminded students that most had expressed a desire to learn English from both descriptive and prescriptive standpoints. I informed students that they would approach the English language from both perspectives over the duration of the sentence-level revision session. They would first be descriptivists, noticing and appreciating how the English language is different across the word. Then, they would be prescriptivists, determining rules and guidelines for their own writing.

To begin "descriptivist" explorations, I wrote the word "Englishes" on the board and asked students why I was choosing to pluralize the word during the first segment of the lesson. Inspired by Lee (2014), who describes the ways she introduces students to the World Englishes paradigm in her first-year composition course, I then displayed McArthur's (1987) Circle of World English (Figure 1). After displaying the circle, I asked to describe what they see on the wheel.

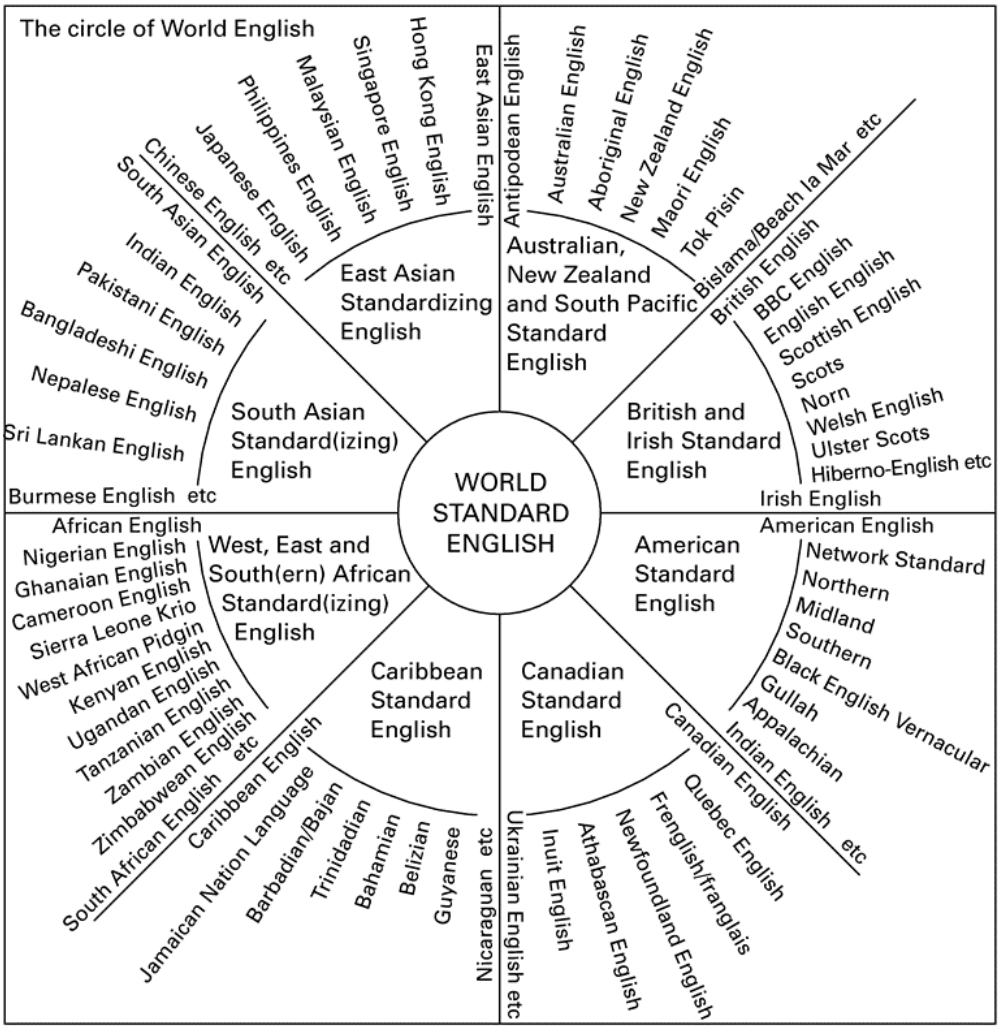

Figure 1: McArthur's (1987) circle of World English

There are a number of critiques about this graphic that I will mention, but I also will explain why I used it in the classroom. In terms of critiques, the graphic appears to be simplistic.

As Lee (2014) notes, it represents languages as discreet and numerable entities, and leaves out some important US-based varieties that may carry particular relevance to students' Englishes (i.e. varieties that are Caribbean or Spanish influenced as well as regional varieties in New York and Boston). By representing languages as discrete, the graphic may promote the "Language as a Code Discourse" (Jaffe, 2007 as cited in Showstack, 2015). As Jaffe (2007) explains, such a discourse "inevitably draws boundaries" that may exclude "mixed codes," (p. 67). Moreover, using enumerative measures to represent languages may "construct language as separable from the environments that are viewed as either sustaining or weakening them" (p. 68). Nonetheless, I opted to use the graphic in the classroom for a few reasons. Firstly, the evenness of the circular display of distinguishable varieties beneath the spokes of the circle may help students to visualize the notion that there is no superior variety (Lee, 2014). The graphic also provides students with immediate vocabulary to understand, describe, and begin to investigate language variation. The terms McArthur (1987) uses to name various English varieties can easily be searched by students on the internet. I also appreciate that the graphic represents Englishes across the world (including regions where some of my students originated).

After viewing the graphic, I asked students to engage in an activity I called "World English Exploration," where they selected and researched one English variety from the circle. The exploration they engaged in has often been described as the contrastive approach to language variation, whereby students learn about a variety by contrasting its differences to standardized forms of English (Higgins et al., 2012). The instructions they received were as follows:

a) Pick an English variety on one of the spokes which interests you.
b) Conduct an internet search for the English on Wikipedia or google
c) Write 2 new things learned about this English such as
    -Where the English is primarily spoken in the world
    -How the English different from standard English
    -Words or slangs that are not used in standard English
    -Words that are spelled differently from standard English
    -How the grammar is different from standard English

After recording their findings, students shared them in partners and as a class. They also saved their findings to include in their portfolios for the unit. As I describe further in Chapter 6, during the fourth unit of the semester (where students wrote an argumentative essay on the topic of language differences), I encouraged students to return to these findings and integrate them into their essays (when appropriate).

Below is one example of such in-class research, which was written by one of the focal participants in this study, Vanessa. Vanessa is an Anglo-American student, whose parents emigrated from the United Kingdom to the US:

> I chose to learn about the Welsh English language because my dad comes from Wales, and growing up with my grandma in my life, I was in the presence of her strong Welsh accent. I found my research on Wikipedia, and I discovered that Welsh English is spoken primarily by people from Wales, which is kind of obvious. The English Welsh language is influenced by the Welsh grammar. For example, instead of someone saying "I am fed up", a person who speaks Welsh English is much more likely to say, "Fed up, I am." I found this very funny because my grandma always said things like this, and I never realized it was a part of her language. (In-Class Writing, 9/24/18).

The students' reasons for choosing a particular variety of World English, and their findings were particularly fascinating to me. It was also delightful to hear them share their findings in class. For example, Chinese students in class often selected "Chinese English," and unreservedly shared with their classmates that the popular US phrase "Long time no see," likely originated from Chinese influenced uses of English (Jacobs, 2010). I hoped that such writing activity could be used in students' unit 4 essays. Vanessa's own research indicates her increased recognition of Welsh English as both a distinctive and legitimate variety, rather than an odd way of speaking.

Prescriptive language study on sentence-level revision days

After engaging in the World English exploration, I informed students that for the remainder of the class, they would be engaged in the work of prescriptivists, forming and enforcing guidelines for their own writing. The first time we did this sentence-level activity, I returned to MacArthur's (1987) Circle of World English, and asked students questions like,

"What variety of English do you think most often serves as a reference point for prescriptivists in US universities?" and "What variety of English is most often referenced in your *EasyWriter* textbook?" Regarding the second question, I emphasized that the *EasyWriter* textbook (Lunsford, 2016) was produced in an US-based social context. I also polled the students about their prior experiences with conventions, reminding that some international students, educated outside of the US, may have learned a different set of conventions. I informed the students that there would be a different set of language conventions represented in this textbook if it were produced in the UK or Australia. Over the course of such conversations, international students often spoke up, eager to share with their classmates distinctive lexical differences between the varieties they had previously been schooled in.

Given that sociocultural orientations, emphasize the socially-mediated nature of learning (Lantolf, 2007), I put students into small groups of 4-5 for a sentence-level revision activity I called a "proofreading workshop." I formed the groups deliberately so that there were a mix ability levels, including both L1 and L2 writers (Zhu, 2001). During the workshop, I asked students to examine some sentences from their peers' draft that still may need revision within a shared google document. By this point in the unit, their drafts had gone through multiple revisions. On some occasions, I pre-selected sentences (that I had not previously commented on). On other occasions, I asked the students to select a few sentences from their own draft. When students determined their own sentences for the workshop, I provide some guidance for sentence selection: they might pick a sentence if they were not sure about its grammar, word choice, or phrasing. I also told them they could pick a sentence which generally they wanted to improve for its flow. The sentences were put into a table existing in a google shared document, which was available to the group members. I constructed the four columns for the table based on a preexisting activity available to instructors in the Writing Program.

Original Sentence	Issue	Resource explaining the issue	Revised Sentence

Table 8 Proofreading workshop

As shown in Table 8, the proofreading workshop asked students not only to revise each other's sentences, but also to provide more instructive feedback to their peers, by considering more carefully how they revised the sentence, identifying a specific "issue," and by finding a resource explaining how to edit the issue. Students mostly used their *EasyWriter* textbooks as the resource, but some found internet explanations on sources such as OWL Purdue. Typically, students were able to offer revisions to their peer's sentences more easily. However, identifying the issue and finding a resource to explain the issue was often more difficult. So while students engaged in this group activity, I frequently responded to their queries. If they had already revised the sentence, I verbalized particular grammatical features within it which I noticed had changed in the newer version. In this noticing, I usually mentioned a keyword (i.e. parallelism, articles, comma splices) and directed students to the index of their *EasyWriter* textbook. The more common "errors" are also identified and explained in the first few pages of the textbook with a chapter titled "the top twenty," so I also directed students there. I never provided explicit grammar explanations during class time unless the students asked me to do so. Admittedly, I felt excited when such an opportunity emerged and the student was "stumped" by a grammar issue.

Approaches to grammar in written feedback

Given these classroom activities, readers will perhaps not be surprised that I adopted a feedback strategy within students' earlier drafts which mirrored and reinforced aspects of the sentence-level revision activities. I approached the surface level of students' text similarly. As I described in Chapter 1, I decided that both L1 and L2 writers would receive comparably equitable amounts of sentence-level of feedback. I did not want to devote most of my attention to corrective

feedback on L2 writers' essays, while devoting most of my attention to content and structure in L1 writers' essays. Yet, I also approached L2 writers' text differently because the type of issues that emerged were different. For example, I might have addressed sentence boundaries (i.e. comma splices) in one L1 students' draft, while subsequently addressing verb forms in another L2 writers' draft. Because I was parsimonious about the amount of localized feedback I provided to all students (only providing one or two localized comments), I prioritized certain issues above others. As I selected a sentence to comment on, I considered moments where I experienced difficulty making meaning. Following Ferris' (2011) guidelines, I also prioritized sentences containing "treatable" or "frequent errors" while ignoring other issues. I also thought features of the essay that appeared more marked or noticeable to me as a linguistic form that may violate "the expectations of literate adult native speakers" (Ferris, 2011, p. 3). Table 9 offers a few examples of such marked sentences, coupled with my response:

Student's original sentence	My sentence-level comment
"Exciting and expecting". That is what I feel when I board the flight to the Hongkong	See this resource for an idea about how you might revise this sentence http://www.grammar.cl/Notes/Adjectives_ED_ING.htm (Comment, 9/18/18)
For example, in my home country China, Japanese animation is becoming more and more famous, Chinese animation is indifferent to the audience.	See EW ch 28 "Comma Splices and Fused Sentences" p.157-160 to get an idea of how you might revise this sentence. (Comment, 9/20/18)
In Defining racism: Can we talk?, Tatum talked about the impact of racism begin at our preschool years which misinformation others who are different from ourselves.	See EW Ch 23 Subject verb agreement, p. 137-143 to get an idea of how you might revise this sentence. (Comment 10/31/18)

Table 9 Sentences containing treatable errors

So if an L2 writers' essay had both issues with sentence boundaries and verb forms, I would be more likely to focus on verb forms (i.e. subject-verb agreement). As I read students' drafts, I kept a running list of common grammatical, lexical, and mechanical issues, and corresponding

resources explaining each issue. Some of the issues included sentence fragments, fused sentences, subject-verb agreement, parallelism, articles and determiners, and tense shifts (See Appendix H for a complete list).

Aiming to provide students with information to help them problem solve and revise the sentence, I provided explicit, indirect WCF for each sentence I identified. To make my feedback explicit, I often prompted students to visit Lunford's (2016) *EasyWriter.* As shown in Table 9, my practice was to highlight the sentence with a comment stating, "See *EasyWriter* page __ to get an idea of how you might revise this sentence".

I arrived at this particular commenting strategy through my close engagement with the feedback and SCT literature. For example, Goldstein (2005) urges writing instructors to consider the nature of their feedback, considering the shape of their written comments (as related to syntax, pragmatic intent, text specificity, and directness). Syntactic shapes can be distinguished in the form of questions, statements, or imperatives, whereas pragmatic shapes can be distinguished as suggestions or directives. Since my comment starts with the command form, it can be characterized as having an imperative syntactic shape (i.e. "See *EasyWrite*r to get an idea about…"). However, this imperative is mixed together with a suggestive pragmatic shape, which is exemplified through the phrase "…how you might revise this sentence"). By mixing together the imperative (i.e. command form) with the suggestive, I aimed to give students adequate direction, but also to leave room for their own choice making. The use of "might," is more suggestive, and leaves the student to decide whether they revise the sentence in accordance with the resource I supplied. According to SCT, my commenting strategy may be understood as graduated assistance because it more actively involves the learner in carrying out the correction themselves (Erlam et al., 2013); I opted to mark the whole sentence (rather than the particular linguistic feature in the sentence needing attention), and this meant that students needed to analyze the sentence further to locate the troublesome aspect of it. On the other hand, my strategy

was also more direct than other marking strategies because the page number I included identified and described a specific grammar issue, and usually provided some direction or instruction on how to revise a faulty sentence. In this regard, Ferris (2011) makes a helpful distinction between choosing to locate versus choosing to label errors; a labeling strategy provides more information to students. Whereas other labeling strategies typically require teachers to create a code for different error types (i.e. WC= word choice, Sp=spelling), my feedback strategy required me not only to be familiar with various "error" types but also to be very familiar with the students' textbook. As I was reading their drafts, I continuously updated my running list of resources, including the appropriate page numbers in *EasyWriter*. Sometimes I identified an issue in L2 writers' essays that was not explained in the *EasyWriter* textbook. In these instances, I found a web resource with an explanation. Examples of issues not explained in the textbook were the use –ed versus –ing adjectives, and the use of reported speech (See Appendix H).

Student responses to localized feedback

In this section, I address the second research question of this dissertation study. To support reflection on my localized feedback practices, I shift the gaze of my inquiry from myself to my students, considering how students respond and interact with the theoretically-oriented localized feedback they received over the course of instruction. In the context of writing instruction, "response" is however a broad concept. As I discussed previously in Chapter 2, the concept can imply a focus on the textual revisions that students make in relation to the feedback they receive, or it can imply a focus on their perceptions of the comments. To allow for both lines of inquiry, the sub-questions I explore in this section include: a) What textual characteristics do students' written responses to localized feedback display? b) What perceptions toward localized feedback do students display in their oral responses to localized feedback? To foreground students' perceptions, analyses attend to students' expressions of agency, power, prior learning

experiences, or language awareness, as such expressions emerged during retrospective interviewing.

To examine how four focal students responded to localized feedback, I use critical incident analysis as a tool to facilitate data selection and analysis (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). Drawing on the localized feedback experiences of Vanessa, Dulari, Ai and Hemant, I represent seven distinctive incidents from each student's point of view[12], as summarized in Table 10.

Incident Number	Description of Incident
1	Vanessa recalls secondary schooling experiences with corrective feedback
2	Vanessa reflects on corrective feedback in peer response
3	Dulari reconsiders corrective feedback
4	Ai seeks CF from the Writing Center
5	Ai interprets explicit WCF
6	Hemant compares implicit and explicit WCF
7	Hemant negotiates WCF

Table 10 Description of critical incidents

As a self-study researcher, these critical incident analyses allowed me to stop and look back on my feedback practices in order to develop a deeper understanding about aspects of my practice that would have otherwise gone unnoticed. My critical incident analyses illuminated two principal lines of inquiry: Firstly, analyses revealed to me the textual characteristics of students' uptake to localized feedback and the emergent relationships between uptake and student beliefs. To this end, I consider instances where each focal student's uptake was either "successful" or "unsuccessful" in addressing the target issue. Drawing on retrospective interview data around these instances of uptake, critical incident analyses helped me to establish connections between students' uptake and their distinctive beliefs about the role of feedback.

[12] An earlier version of the analyses involving Ai and Hemant are presented in a co-authored manuscript (Britton & Austin, 2020a).

Secondly, analyses showed me that students' perceptions of localized feedback were complex and multiple. Prior learning experiences, agency, and language awareness were all indexed in students' perceptions of localized feedback. In this regard, students' perceptions of corrective feedback were influenced by their past learning experiences, including their preexisting ideologies about the corrective roles of teachers and peers. Despite the difficulties some students expressed as they interacted with indirect corrective feedback, students had positive perceptions of this feedback form, noting the opportunities for problem solving that emerged through their engagement with it.

Vanessa's perceptions of corrective feedback

Two critical incidents illuminate that Vanessa perceived corrective feedback in ENG 101 in relation to her secondary schooling experiences. More particularly, Vanessa incurred earlier experiences with corrective feedback from teachers and peers. These experiences impacted her understandings about the role of corrective feedback in ENG 101.

Critical Incident 1: Vanessa recalls secondary schooling experiences with corrective feedback

During a retrospective interview, Vanessa recalled her secondary schooling experiences with corrective feedback, and reflected on how earlier experiences differed from ENG 101. As the subsequent data indicates, a retrospective revisiting of more distant secondary schooling experiences triggered Vanessa to reflect, think critically about past experiences with corrective feedback, and consider her relational experiences with both her teachers and peers (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). When Vanessa wrote essays in secondary English classes, she recalls that her teachers provided some opportunities to exchange feedback with her peers. Yet peer feedback was largely unstructured, such that learners made choices about the focus and form of their

comments without guidance from the instructor. On some occasions peer feedback provided Vanessa the opportunity to give and receive affirming comments such as, "Oh, good job" (Interview, 2/19/19). On other occasions, Vanessa elected to correct some of her peers' sentences of her own accord. However, her English teachers did not often assume a corrective role while her drafts were still in process.

In Extract 1, Vanessa explains that she often received corrective feedback from her teachers only after her drafts were complete. By looking back on past incidents involving her teachers, she renders them as "critical incidents" by critiquing aspects of her educational experience as she talks with me (Halquist & Musanti, 2010):

<u>Extract 1: Secondary schooling experiences with Corrective Feedback</u>

V: Back in high school or middle school …
[the] teachers … [just] had us hand in a final copy [of our essays].
So they don't like really give … us the chance to [revise]…
They just [provided terminal comments] like, "Oh, you should of [done] that."
You know?
E: So do you remember having your grammar corrected by your teachers?
V: Sometimes,
but I feel like usually was too late,
and they corrected it when they were grading my paper,
rather than before the final draft was due.
But if it was before,
I probably did correct it,
But it wasn't really like them telling me why it was wrong.
It was just them saying, "Oh, this should be that."

In Extract 1, Vanessa explains that the corrective feedback she received during her secondary schooling years carried a different objective than the corrective feedback she received from me in ENG 101. Recalling earlier schooling experiences, Vanessa explains that teachers "sometimes" provided corrective feedback on her essays. However, both the timing and the type of this corrective feedback were different from the ENG 101 class. In secondary school, Vanessa often received corrective feedback only after submitting a final copy of her essays. Because she had already completed revisions for the essay, she experienced the delivery of this feedback as "too late." She also recalls that such corrective feedback was direct (Ferris, 2010); her teachers

provided corrections telling her what she "should" change, but she did not receive explanations about the reasons for the needed correction. Vanessa makes clear that her secondary schooling experiences contrast with her experiences with my feedback in ENG 101. Moreover, in order for Vanessa to identify her perceptions about the corrective feedback she received from me in the ENG 101 course, she recalls her prior experiences. I recognize therefore that individual differences between Vanessa and her peers (i.e. the differing learning environments, contexts, prior experiences with CF), affect and mediate Vanessa's perceptions of corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010; Han & Hyland, 2015; Kartchava, 2016).

Vanessa therefore indicated that she had not encountered indirect and explicit CF prior to ENG 101. Despite her limited prior experience with the feedback form I used, one feedback exchange (which we revisited during her interview) shows that Vanessa nonetheless engaged with my WCF closely; after receiving the following comment from me on her draft, Vanessa made several changes to two identified sentences within her essay. In this personal essay, which Vanessa wrote at the beginning of the semester, she describes her first owned car as "border," that provides a shelter from challenging experiences in her life:

> Vanessa's Original Sentence: When I opened my car door, it was a new life inside of it. With a delicious Yankee Candle Fresh Linen scent, it wakes me up as I put my key in the ignition. (Draft 1, 9/17/18).
> Corrective Feedback: See EW ch 34a "Revising shifts in tense" (p. 175) to get an idea of how you might revise this sentence. (9/20/18).
> Vanessa's Revised Sentence: When I opened the driver's side door, I was opening a gateway to a different environment, a different life. Each time I stepped foot into the car and put my key into the ignition, the Yankee Candle Fresh Linen scent revived me and made me ready to hit the road. (Draft 2, 9/24/18).

In this feedback exchange, Vanessa appears to demonstrate successful uptake in her sentence revision because she addressed the target issue I identified in the comment (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999). In her revised version, both of the sentences use the past tense consistently. Vanessa also made several other changes, initiating additional revisions outside of what I elicited as her instructor (Alsharif & Alyousef, 2017). For instance, she alternated earlier word choices (i.e.

"wakes" becomes "revived") and established more consistent use of the first person voice. Therefore, the localized feedback appears to have drawn her attention more closely to the two sentences, prompting her to consider how each could be improved in its clarity, consistency, and style. Therefore, similar to one learner in Han and Hyland's (2015) case study, my comment appears to have prompted a deeper engagement and motivated revision from Vanessa.

In Extract 2, Vanessa views this corrective feedback retrospectively, describing her general perceptions of it. This retrospective revisiting involves her in a collaborative process with me of rendering the small incident (which may have otherwise escaped as insignificant) as "critical" (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). As Halquist and Musanti (ibid.) describe, such rendering involves both the researcher and the participant in a "need to discover the underlying meaning of what is usually taken for granted" (p. 450). In Vanessa's case, discovering what is taken for granted involves her in a think-aloud about her perceptions. As Vanessa thinks aloud, she identifies the strategies she used to engage in the comment (Scrocco, 2012), and reveals her positive attitudes toward it (Han & Hyland, 2015):

<u>Extract 2: Perceptions of corrective feedback</u>
E: So when you see a comment like that,
how do you react to it?
V: Well, typically, if I saw that
and I was actually like editing,
and in the process of going back and revising,
I would go to wherever you said to look in Easy Writer.
There would probably be a heading of like what it [the issue] is.
So, I can get an idea of what you were looking for [by looking at the page],
and then I usually can just figure out the rest on my own.
And then I just realized what I did wrong,
and I'm like, "Oh, okay."
…
E: So, what is your preference about having a writing teacher help you with your grammar? Do you like this kind of [commenting] strategy, or do you find it a little bit confusing?
V: I like it,
because I mean in the long run,
you're not gonna be by our sides forever,
helping us with our writing.
It's really not gonna help us

> if we're just like told what to do,
> what to fix.
> But if you just give us a hint at where to look,
> [then] we'll know [what to do],
> and if we like make the mistake like that again,
> we can remember how to fix it.

In Extract 2, Vanessa's perceptions and comments about my corrective feedback reveal the distributed nature of her agency as a writer. Writerly agency is indexed as Vanessa responds to my question ("how do you react [to the comment]?"); in response, she identifies the active strategy she used to engage with corrective feedback: By locating the corresponding page in her textbook, she initiates her search to figure out how she will revise her sentence. Yet, the motivation underlying her search appears to relate to the authority that she grants to me as the instructor. In other words, Vanessa makes clear that she initiates her searches to figure out what I, as her instructor was "looking for." Therefore, it is difficult to isolate the source of agency during the corrective feedback exchange. On one hand, agency can be attributed to Vanessa (rather than me) because she indicates taking action and maintaining control in her choice making as a writer (Shapiro et al., 2016). Yet on the other hand, Vanessa's agency can be seen as distributed and shared rather than internalized (Charteris & Smardon, 2018). Even though Vanessa indicates a desire to be self-directed in revisions (because instructors will not always be available to her), it still appears that her revisions emerge in part from a desire to please me as her instructor.

Considering Vanessa's revisions to the original sentence, along with her perceptions of the corresponding WCF, I recognize that Vanessa holds multiple beliefs about corrective feedback in relation to her agency and autonomy as a writer. On one hand, Vanessa desires to become self-directed in her revisions; in Excerpt 2, she indicates that my indirect explicit WCF ultimately facilitates her autonomy. This feedback provides "hint[s]" about "where to look" so that she "remember[s]" "how to fix" similar "mistake[s]" in the future. On the other hand, Vanessa is focused on the immediate task at hand. Rather than focusing on the more distant

future, she immediately desires to demonstrate successful uptake in the course context. It is common for a multiplicity of learner beliefs and perspectives to emerge during critical incidents (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). Rather than viewing learners' multiple (and potentially conflicting beliefs) as irrational (and therefore discountable), Halquist and Mustani (2010) theorize incongruities in beliefs as "turning points" that expand "the possibilities for knowing" (p. 453). The recognition of such "turning points" allows me to gain deeper insight into Vanessa's writing experiences, uncovering "layers of meaning and multiple truths" (p. 453) that may already exist for her as a learner, but were previously undetected by me as her instructor.

Critical incident 2: Vanessa reflects on corrective feedback in peer response

While Vanessa appears to have articulated new understandings of corrective feedback within her retrospective interviews, her understandings are also informed by her prior learning experiences exchanging corrective feedback with her classmates.

In Chapter 1, I briefly mentioned a critical incident involving Vanessa, which I will describe in further detail here. The incident occurred during a class lesson which focused on peer review. On this particular day of class, students were involved in reviewing one of their peer's papers, and Vanessa was assigned to work with a multilingual peer. Prior to the peer review activity, I provided explicit instructions and prompts, so that the students had a specific focus for their review process. My instructions pertained to the content, ideas, and structure of the paper. I did not provide any instructions about grammar correction. Yet, even after receiving such guidance, Vanessa still was unsure about the best way to proceed with her multilingual peer's paper. As her peers were reading each other's papers silently, she raised her hand quietly, gesturing me to come very close, and whispered hesitantly in my ear, "Should I be correcting the grammar here?" When I had structured the activity, I did not expect this question. I attempted to answer Vanessa, first suggesting she may consult her peer instead of me. However, after mentioning this, I immediately recognized that my suggestion was a futile one, as Vanessa likely

recognized me as the ultimate authority in the classroom who decides what actions can be sanctioned. In this regard, I was unable to offer her any certitude. Instead, I attempted to redirect Vanessa, encouraging her to focus primarily on my prompts to guide her review, rather than issues outside of it.

Months later, I reminded Vanessa about the question she had posed in relation to her multilingual peer's work during our retrospective interview. Even though the incident had passed, Vanessa still recalled it:

> Extract 3: Corrective feedback in peer review
> **E:** You asked, "should correct the grammar?"
> **V**: Oh, I think I do remember asking you that.
> **E**: Can you tell me a little bit about that,
> and what you were thinking?
> **V**: Well,
> I mean, when we were peer reviewing,
> I know we're supposed to like make comments on their ideas and stuff.
> But where I went to high school,
> most people spoke English,
> so most people's grammar was like pretty fine.
> So if there was a little mistake,
> I would quickly edit it.
> But like,
> when it's someone who doesn't speak English as a first language,
> I don't want to offend them,
> being like, "you're spelling this, and this, and this wrong."
> Like I don't know if you would want me to make those corrections,
> or if you would want them to do it by themselves,
> because that's part of their like learning.
> So yeah, I don't know.
> **E**: So do you feel like you got any answers to that question
> over the course of being in the class?
> **V**: Uhmm, [pause] I mean, yeah.
> Like if I should be correcting their grammar?
> **E:** Yeah.
> **V**: I mean, yeah, I guess I did.
> I didn't really think about it like that,
> but, I mean,
> I guess it just goes to show that
> there's so many different ways to speak one language
> and like, just because they're saying it in their own custom,
> doesn't mean it's wrong.

E: Mhmm
V: But yeah, I guess. Yeah.
E: Okay.
V: I definitely learned something about that. I never thought about it like that.

I follow with several interpretations and observations related to Extract 3. First of all, Extract 3 represents a turning point for Vanessa (Halquist & Musanti, 2010), because she displays a multiplicity of beliefs about corrective feedback (some of which appear incongruous). When asked whether she received answers to her earlier quandary over the duration of the course, she expresses some affirmation of the value of linguistic variation. Through this affirmation, Vanessa shows that she has gained some amount of language awareness—or understanding about how linguistic systems work (Svalberg, 2007). For instance, she affirms that there are "so many different ways to speak one language", and that drawing on one's own linguistic "custom[s]" is not "wrong." By stating, "I definitely learned something [about linguistic variation]," she attempts to reconcile her older and newer perspectives on corrective feedback.

Second, Vanessa again draws upon her secondary schooling experiences to make sense of corrective feedback. Her response in Extract 3 therefore parallels her previous response in Extract 1. In Extract 3, Vanessa reflects on the role of peers in the provision of corrective feedback, while in Extract 1 she reflects on the role of teachers in the provision of corrective feedback. However, in both instances prior learning experiences both inform and complicate her perceptions of corrective feedback in the context of ENG 101. Vanessa again describes her high school experiences with peer review. It was common for her to "quickly edit" her peers' grammar if she encountered "a little mistake" while reading their paper. Because "most [peers] spoke English" as a first language in her high school context, she gained limited experience working with L2 writers.

However, the discrepancies in student demographics between her high school and university contexts, presented new and legitimate quandaries for Vanessa. While she was already

well accustomed to providing corrective feedback to L1 writers, she nonetheless expressed trepidation to provide corrective feedback to L2 writers. While Vanessa perceives corrective feedback between L1 writers as warranted, she expresses trepidation about whether such feedback warranted between L1 and L2 student writers. Her uncertainty is confounded by the particular circumstances of ENG 101 and she reveals three important questions about the provision of corrective feedback: 1) Would her L2 classmates receive it positively? 2) Should her L2 classmates practice self-correction as part of their learning experience? 3) Does corrective feedback between peers align with the teachers' preferences and classroom objectives? While chapter 2 reveals that substantial bodies of research literature have explored Vanessa's first two questions, I will elaborate further on Vanessa's third question.

In critical incident 1, I demonstrated that Vanessa was especially responsive to instructor WCF; she initiated multiple revisions in response to the comment she received from me. It is also important to note that she received the comment described in critical incident 1 before critical incident 2. Therefore, it is possible that her previous engagement with such new forms of corrective feedback created complications for her within the classroom. Therefore, I assert that her newfound quandary also emerged from her observations of my own corrective feedback practices. This became evident to me later in the semester, as she engaged in a peer review session with an L2 classmate, Dulari. Although I again did not provide instructions related to corrective feedback during this subsequent peer revision session, Vanessa interestingly wrote a corrective comment in Dulari's draft, "Use EW to make the sentence a bit clearer" (Vanessa Comment, 10/31/18). Therefore, it appears that Vanessa later appropriated the pedagogic discourse of the classroom; this discourse includes the interactions between teachers and students during classroom instruction which function to transform students' existing social values and/or legitimize social values that the teacher represents in an institutional setting (Park, 2008). To this end, Vanessa's comment to her peer mimics both the content and the nature of the corrective

feedback she earlier received from me during critical incident 1. My original comment to Vanessa stated, "See EW ch 34a "Revising shifts in tense" (p. 175) to get an idea of how you might revise this sentence. (9/20/18)." In terms of syntactic shape, Vanessa mirrors my own use of the imperative form; her sentence begins with an imperative "Use" while my sentence begins with the imperative "See". Subsequently we both mention the editing manual, *EasyWriter* (EW). However, my own phrasing and use of the modal verb "might" within the phrase "how you might revise" creates a pragmatic shape that is more suggestive to the student. In fact, a student could interpret the comment as something to consider but not something that is imperative to address. Meanwhile, the pragmatic shape of Vanessa's comment to Dulari is directive, leaving less possibility open for alternative options (Goldstein, 2005).

Dulari's perceptions of corrective feedback

Critical incident 3 reveals that Dulari perceived corrective feedback in ENG 101 through the lenses of learner agency and autonomy. As a learner, Dulari was sometimes unsuccessful in her uptake of corrective feedback. However, as Dulari later revisited one such WCF comment, her responses indicate that rather than viewing the comment as obligatory, she viewed it as optional, maintaining authority and ownership of her text (Gorzelsky, 2009).

Critical Incident 3: Dulari reconsiders corrective feedback

As a multilingual learner who uses three languages, Dulari continuously expressed her interest and enthusiasm for writing, while she was taking ENG 101, and after the course ended. For example, early in the semester, she approached me after class to ask where she could find fiction novels in the library. Later, at the time of her retrospective interview, she reported that she had just joined an extracurricular poetry club at the university and shared her intention to take creative writing courses as electives, even though these fell outside of her management major

(Interview, 2/19/19). Despite Dulari's natural affinity toward reading and writing, she was not always successful in her uptake of corrective feedback. In the following corrective feedback exchange, Dulari's essay offers a response to Wildman and Davis' (1995) essay, "Language and Silence: Making Systems of Privilege Visible." In Dulari's original sentence, she states that she experienced difficulty "accepting" the authors' ideas about racism:

> Dulari's Original Sentence: The one thing that I really had hard time accepting was when he says "a big step would be for whites to admit that we're racist and then to consider what to do about it''. (Draft 1, 10/29/18)
> Corrective Feedback: Visit EW (p. 195-196) to get an idea of how you might revise this sentence. (10/31/18)
> Dulari's Revised Sentence: The one thing that I really had hard time accepting *or something that I would still disagree with* was when he says "a big step would be for whites to admit that we're racist and then to consider what to do about it''. (Draft 2, 11/5/18, *Emphasis* Added).

In this feedback exchange, my comment directed Dulari to a page number in *EasyWriter* which explained how to use quotation marks with other forms of punctuation. The corresponding page number states, "Periods and commas go inside closing quotation marks" (Lunsford, 2016, p. 195). After receiving the comment, Dulari revised her sentence, adding a new phrase to her text "or something that I would still disagree with." In this revision, Dulari appeared to attend to meaning rather than form. While my comment suggested that Dulari make a mechanical alteration to her text, her revision instead appears to alter the meaning that she communicates within her sentence. While Dulari's initial sentence communicates that she had challenges "accepting" a new perspective on racism, her revision further qualifies that she "disagrees" with the new perspective. From a psycholinguistic perspective, I first interpreted Dulari's uptake as "unsuccessful" when I revisited it because she did not make the mechanical alteration that is prompted by the WCF. Yet as I later recognized, from a sociocultural perspective, Dulari nonetheless acted relationally to the comment, recognizing it as an opportunity to clarify her perspective as in "disagreement" with Wildman and Davis (1995).

In Extract 5, Dulari revisits the corrective feedback retrospectively, unaware that her uptake was unsuccessful. In this case, Dulari's unsuccessful uptake appears to closely relate to her general perceptions about corrective feedback. When I asked Dulari to explain her reactions to the corrective feedback, her response is very different from Vanessa's response to the same question. Vanessa (who was successful in her uptake of the feedback), focused on the strategies she used to engage with the corrective feedback in her response. In contrast, Dulari responds by postulating my intentions in providing the comment:

> <u>Extract 5: The intentions underlying corrective feedback</u>
> **E**: So tell me what you thought when you saw this comment.
> Like how you reacted.
> **D**: I think you didn't wanna impose any of the ideas
> or objectives that you have.
> Instead, you wanted us to have our own idea of rephrasing the sentence.
> Instead of making sure that it was something that you like,
> I [need to make sure] it was something that I wanted to write.
> So, yeah.
> That was my first thought on that.

Dulari's response indexes her agency, understood as her "ownership of their developing ideas and texts" (Gorzelsky, 2009, p. 66). In other words, Dulari regarded the corrective feedback as a suggestive cue, inviting her to "rephrase the sentence" so that it became "something [she] wanted to write," rather than "something that [I] like" as her teacher. Dulari's perceptions of corrective feedback are therefore distinguishable from Vanessa's perceptions. Vanessa perceived my comment as an expression of the teacher's authority, and therefore Vanessa explained the importance of "figuring out" what I was "looking for" by providing the comment. Dulari however does not appear to regard the corrective feedback through an authoritative lens, nor does she believe it to be imperative to address the comment with exactitude. Tardy (2006) provides insight into the differing responses that learners demonstrate in relation to feedback. She explains that feedback can "be accommodated, resisted, [or] later transformed by learners" as different forms of agency learners have in the feedback process (p. 73). Moreover, even when feedback does not

"resonate with the writers' individual sense of self," Tardy maintains that it nonetheless "becomes a part of their repertoire of voices, and they can later choose, to avoid, adopt, or even transform it" (ibid., p. 73). Rather than ignoring or resisting the comment, Dulari appears to have transformed it to serve her own agency and purposes as a writer.

Therefore, involving Dulari in rendering this corrective feedback exchange as "critical" allowed me to gain a) fuller insight into her experience (Halquist & Musanti, 2010), b) new appreciation for her approaches toward feedback, and c) a change in my professional understanding (Gkonou & Miller, 2020). It is important to acknowledge here the role my own emotions played in the collaborative rendering of this feedback incident as critical. As Gkonou and Miller (2020) note, "emotion is ubiquitous in all human activities, and teaching and learning are no exception" (p.131). These authors similarly describe critical incidents as events that are often "highly emotionally charged" for teachers, while also leading to "novel ways of understanding themselves" and their practices (p. 131-132). At the time that Dulari was taking my class, it is important to acknowledge the role my emotions played. While I regarded Dulari as a very pleasant and desirable student to have in my class, I also recall often experiencing concern and even some frustration about her uptake of my feedback. While Dulari was an enthusiastic student, I felt on a number of occasions somewhat concerned that she was not attending to my written commentary.

In fact, many teachers have expressed frustration and concern that students ignore feedback, especially because instructor feedback is time consuming to provide (Christiansen & Bloch, 2016; Ferris et al., 2011; Zamel, 1985). Gkonou and Miller (2020) describe the "emotional labor" that is associated with the feedback process. In these authors' words, there is an "inherent paradox" associated with caring for, investing, and spending time on learners, as such investments lead to relationships that are both "energy-draining" and "energy-giving" (p. 133). Moreover, teachers can become so deeply immersed in certain aspects of teaching practice, such

that “they do not always take the time to ‘read between the lines in interpreting students’ behaviours” (ibid., p. 141). The retrospective sense-making and collaborative rending of the feedback exchange provided me such an opportunity to ‘read between the lines,’ and find out more about Dulari’s behaviors and perceptions toward feedback, which I had earlier perceived as problematic.

In hindsight, I feel that my frustration emerged from a lack of understanding of the different (yet valid) ways that students may interface and perceive the feedback they receive from their instructor. Because Dulari understood the role of the teacher as a guide (rather than an authority), she interfaced with feedback differently, and her interfacing conflicted with my expectations. In hindsight, I see that her way of interfacing with feedback was valid, even when it conflicted with my expectations. Moreover, finding out more about the discrepancies between my own expectations and Dulari’s understandings is a task that Gkonou and Miller (2020) characterize as “a key aspect of good practice” (p. 131). Extract 6 further illustrates that Dulari’s understanding of corrective feedback intersected with her understanding about the more “subtle” and nondirective role of teacher. Here Dulari explains, in more general terms, her own recollections about the role of corrective feedback in the class:

> <u>Extract 6: The red pen</u>
> **E**: Oftentimes, when we think about grammar in the classroom,
> we think about a teacher going through someone’s paper with a red pen,
> and marking it
> and correcting it.
> How does our approach in the class compare
> to your experiences with grammar in the past?
> **D**: I think you were much more subtle
> when you were pointing out our mistakes.
> You used to do that like very personally,
> which I actually, I really appreciated that,
> because you know when you see those red pens,
> you’re actually really demotivated,
> like why are there so many mistakes!
> And you used to like ask us
> to actually like look back,

and instead of pointing out every mistake,
you taught us to like actually look at them with our own eyes.
Like find them ourselves,
and that really helped,
because even now when you're going through initial draft,
you never know the mistakes,
you always think that everything is perfect.
But when you start reading that again,
you like start finding it,
and the red pen thing does not work for me.
E: Having it corrected, right?
D: No, Definitely not.

In Extract 6, Dulari again expresses her perception that supportive corrective feedback carries a guiding function rather than authoritative or imperative function in the classroom. Moreover, she sees the teacher's feedback as a reflection of the teacher's role in the classroom. In her recollection, corrective feedback did not function to "point out every mistake." Rather, it functioned to help her locate her own "mistakes." Dulari also expresses that explicit corrections and marking of "errors" on her paper would be "demotivat[ing]" for her. Her expression about the demotivating nature of feedback echoes findings from Ferris' (2018), who noted that some of the multilingual students in her survey-based study reported being discouraged by the feedback they received, especially when they perceived it as "overbearing" (p. 23). Instead of desiring a thorough "red pen" marking approach to her paper, Dulari expresses value in returning to her paper again after an initial drafting and "looking" for "mistakes" through her "own eyes." Dulari's emphasis on self-correction supports other research-based recommendations. For instance, Eckstein and Ferris (2018) recommend that teachers focus on teaching L2 writers to self-edit their own writing by becoming familiar with frequent error types.

Ai's perceptions of corrective feedback

Two critical incidents showcase Ai's multiple (and sometimes incongruous) perceptions about localized feedback. While Vanessa drew upon her secondary schooling experiences to

make sense of localized feedback, Ai described more recent university experiences with localized feedback outside of the context of ENG 101. Because Ai's received localized feedback orally outside of ENG 101, negotiation is an important concept (see Chapter 2 for further discussion of this concept).

Critical incident 4: Ai seeks CF from the Writing Center

As a multilingual writer, Ai identifies a strong desire to receive CF on her sentences. After taking ENG 101 with me in the fall of 2018, she took ENG 102 with a different instructor the subsequent semester.

Noticing that the ENG 102 instructor did not provide CF, Ai visited the Writing Center (WC) at Westpond on several occasions. Ai was introduced to the WC (which provides individual writing consultations to students) during ENG 101, when a WC representative visited the classroom. During each visit to the WC, Ai requested CF, which she defined as feedback on "grammar and word choice." In Extract 7, Ai recounts her recurrent experiences receiving implicit oral CF from WC tutors. In this recurrent scenario, tutors indicated the presence of error within particular sentences by repeatedly pointing each one out and stating, "it's really weird" (Interview, 2/15/19; line 7). In her recount, Ai illuminates conflicts that emerge for her as a learner during these negotiated CF exchanges (i.e. lines 9, 17), and makes visible to me a small aspect of her experience that might have otherwise gone unnoticed (Halquist & Musanti, 2010):

Extract 7: challenges with implicit CF

1 **E**: And so when you went there,
2 you told them what you wanted to work on, right?
3 And what was it that you were looking for when you went there?
4 **A**: **Just sentence**.
5 Maybe **I want to seem like I write in the local way**,
6 but actually they will not revise my sentence.
7 They will tell me it's "really weird."
8 But they will not revise the sentence,
9 **so I cannot get the point**.
10 **E**: So you had to figure it out?

11 **A**: Yeah,
12 but I think it's a really good sentence!
13 So I don't know….
14 They just talk to me.
15 [They tell me] I need to revise this sentence or revise this sentence.
16 It's always [this way],
17 but **I don't know how I can figure out**,
18 like how I can revise that.
19 **E**: So you didn't feel like you got what you were looking for
20 when you went to the writing center?
21 **A**: Yeah. (Interview, 2/15/19).

In Extract 7, Ai's re-examination of her CF experiences allow her to critique the way things normally operate at the WC, and engage in thoughtful reflection with me about her needs as a learner (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). Her recollection shows a mismatch between her own expectations about CF (lines 4-5), and the indirect, implicit approaches she experienced (lines 6-8, 14-16). Extract 1 exemplifies how exertions of agency and power are interwoven and complex. On one hand, Ai's agency is exhibited in her initiative to seek out CF on her writing. Yet on the other hand, Ai appears to relate her linguistic self to "local" English and the WC tutors in unequal ways. In other words, seeking help from tutors to "write in the local way" (line 5) emerge from her understanding that certain textual modifications are valued in academic writing. Even though Ai cannot "figure out" how to revise her sentences, she does not indicate asking tutors for further explanation. Her apparent silence shows "the workings of power dynamics in feedback practices" (Kang & Dykema, 2017, p. 7) whereby instructors maintain a higher distribution of power during CF. For example, Ai later explains that she possesses limited authority as a writer as she is "not confident about writing skills." She also states that, "Chinese people don't always have a lot of critical thinking," and "love to accept" feedback without questioning instructors (Interview, 2/15/19).

Critical Incident 5: Ai interprets explicit WCF

Ai experienced challenges not only with the tutors' implicit CF but also with my explicit WCF, which she explained later during her retrospective interview. During ENG 101, Ai recalled that *EasyWriter* was a "very important" resource providing examples of how to revise sentences. While she often comprehended the explanations provided in the book, she still encountered difficulty when trying to "figure out the problem" with her own sentences, and she attests that sometimes she "cannot handle" revising sentences using only the book (Interview, 2/15/19).

Reflecting on her experience with explicit WCF, Ai re-reads a comment inserted into one of her drafts (which she had successfully revised):

> Ai's original sentence: Beverly Daniel Tatum writes some examples to show us how people racially, religiously or socioeconomically.
> Explicit WCF: See the EasyWriter section on sentence fragments (p. 10) to get an idea of how you might revise this sentence.
> Ai's revised sentence: Beverly Daniel Tatum writes some examples, which use appeal to ethos, logos, and pathos to show us how people act racially, religiously or socioeconomically.

In Extract 8, Ai explains her complex perceptions of this WCF to me. As I prompted her to revisit the comment with me, Ai engages in a collaborative process of rendering this incident (which otherwise would remain unnoticed) as critical by looking back on it. This collaborative rendering enables us both to construct knowledge about the feedback process (Halquist & Musanti, 2010).

Extract 8: perceptions of explicit WCF

1 **E:** So when you see that feedback,
2 what is your reaction to it?
3 **A**: I can just improve my English grammar myself.
4 It's not just only you tell me how to revise,
5 or you just completely help me,
6 like you revise this sentence right.
7 I think I can just know.
8 **I can try to deep learn about how I can fix this,**
9 and when I miss,
10 I will just remember more clearly.
11 **E**: So in this example you changed the sentence correctly.

12 You inserted a verb in there.
13 **A**: Yeah.
14 **E**: So do you think this strategy is helpful?
15 Is it helpful to look at a specific section in the textbook
16 that explains a particular grammar issue?
17 Does it help you to think about your sentences?
18 **A**: Uhhm,
19 **I think a little bit**,
20 because I always forget to add something in my sentence.
21 Because it's not my first language,
22 **so I just try to translate**.
23 But for some [it seems] like we['re] talking Chinese,
24 but **we don't use some of this [English] grammar**.
25 So we cannot very clearly use the grammar in English.
26 So maybe it's useful to revise my writing,
27 **but it's not helpful to build up [grammar knowledge] in my head** I think.

In Extract 8, Ai expresses ambivalence toward the WCF. While she begins by characterizing her engagement with the comment as "deep learn[ing]" (line 8), she also hesitates to characterize the comment as "helpful" (lines 14-27). Similar to the previous incident, Ai continues to identify and reflect on her challenges with CF. In her view, WCF occurs after she "translates" ideas from Chinese into English on the page (line 22). WCF remains difficult to interpret because she does not use some English grammar patterns in her L1 (line 24). While she acknowledges that it is "a little bit" helpful to revise her sentences after viewing the textbook (line 19-20), it does not satisfy her language development needs, including "build[ing] up" knowledge of new grammar patterns in her "head," rather than orthographically (line 27). By making this need apparent, Ai simultaneously engages in a "strategic making" of her linguistic self and "the material conditions surrounding" herself (Moje & Lewis, 2007, p. 24); she asserts that the print materials tied to WCF complicate her language development.

Yet, as Kartchava (2016) notes, learner beliefs about CF are dynamic, such that they may "change in light of one's situation, emotional state and company" (p. 20). The dynamic nature of Ai's beliefs emerge as the exchange continues in Extract 9. Here, Ai's perceptions about WCF

appear to fluctuate as she distinguishes the differing impacts that direct (lines 2-6) versus indirect CF (lines 7-14) have on her revision process:

Extract 9: Responding to explicit WCF

1 **E**: So, let me ask you this.
2 If I just corrected the sentence,
3 and I inserted the verb for you,
4 how would you respond to that?
5 Would you notice it?
6 **A**: No.
7 **If I don't revise by myself, maybe I will not notice it**.
8 **E**: But it's also difficult to analyze the sentence
9 and think about how you want to change it.
10 Right?
11 **A**: Yeah.
12 **E**: It takes some more time to do that.
13 Right?
14 **A**: **It's worth it**, I think.

In Extract 9, Ai exhibits multiplicity in her beliefs about indirect WCF as she considers the effects of direct approaches (lines 1-5). By concluding that "it's worth it" (line 14) to correct her sentences independently, Ai asserts her agency, engaging in a "remaking" of her linguistic self (Moje & Lewis, 2007, p. 19), and affirming her ability to control her own actions as a writer (Shapiro et al., 2016). As I mentioned previously, rather than viewing fluctuating beliefs as signs of learner irrationality, Halquist and Musanti (2010) frame such shifts in thought as "turning points for knowing" (p. 453). Turning points expand both teachers' and students' knowledge, by uncovering multiple "practices, positionalit[ies], and perspectives" (p. 453) that have already been occurring "without detection or acknowledgement" (p. 451).

Hemant's perceptions of WCF

Two critical incidents reveal Hemant's perceptions of CF. In critical incident 6, Hemant reflects on high school experiences receiving implicit WCF. In critical incident 7, Hemant negotiates WCF he received during ENG 101.

Critical Incident 6 : Hemant compares implicit and explicit WCF

Similarly to other focal students, Hemant also perceives CF as a "helpful" part of writing instruction, even when it comes to the smaller, mechanical details of writing. He recalls that *EasyWriter* identified a "few common mistakes which people generally" make, including how to work with apostrophes. For Hemant, a sense of agency, control, and facility over text emerge through close attention to smaller matters (i.e. mechanics, grammar, and word choice). Attention to such matters "add[s] up to making" his writing better, enabling him to "decorate" and make his writing "more efficient" (Interview, 02/07/19).

Similar to Ai, in Extract 10, Hemant recalls difficulties learning from implicit WCF during his high school years. In doing so, he renders such past incidents as critical, illuminating conflicts occurring for him as a learner (Halquist & Musanti, 2010):

Extract 10: challenges with implicit WCF

1 [Teachers] used to circle the grammatical errors,
2 or underline the sentences which were not correct,
3 or which were having grammatical mistakes and stuff…
4 They did not write what was the correct thing,
5 so it was very difficult for us to realize
6 what the error was in that particular thing.
7 **Sometimes it was very obvious**:
8 **like you made a spelling mistake or something**,
9 which you can clearly see,
10 **but in terms of grammar**,
11 I would say it's kind of **difficult to realize what the mistake is.**

By re-examining past experiences with WCF, Hemant engages in reflection about his needs and abilities as a learner in Extract 4. He distinguishes spelling correction as more "obvious" to self-correct (line 7), but "grammar" as more "difficult to realize" how to correct without explicit explanation (lines 10-11). In Extract 11, Hemant therefore attests that he appreciates the explanations provided in *EasyWriter* when revising his sentences:

Extract 11: processing explicit WCF

1 **H**: [Without this resource] **It might be that I would have just changed it [my sentence]**,

2 **and not understood why I had changed it**,
3 but when I read that entire portion [in the book],
4 and I did my research on my own,
5 I tried to understand what the problem was in this particular part….
6 **It was a better learning process**,
7 than if you would had given it to me directly.

In Extract 11, Hemant indicates that his sense of agency, and ownership of his writing (Gorzelsky, 2009), would dissipate if he "changed" his sentences without comprehension (line 2). In contrast, Hemant characterizes his engagement with explicit WCF as a form of "research" (line 4) and "learning" (line 6).

Critical Incident 7: Hemant negotiates WCF

While Hemant appreciates explicit WCF, like Ai, his challenges did not dissipate with it. While in other instances, Hemant was successful in his uptake of WCF, he was unsuccessful in addressing the target issue (parallelism) in the following instance:

> Hemant's original sentence: For example, the white people are benefitted in the color power system in the society, males are considered to be above the other gender groups in the gender power system and an economically well-off person is considered *about* others in the class power system (Essay, 12/9/18; Emphasis Added).
> Instructor WCF: See the EW section on Parallelism (p. 172-174) to get an idea of how you might revise this sentence.

In response to the WCF, Hemant only made one change in his revisions, replacing the preposition "about" with "above."

In Extract 12, Hemant rereads this WCF, aware that his revision did not address the target issue. As Hemant reflects on the comment, he poses a problem with the original sentence (lines 2-3), and verbalizes a possibility for revision (line 4):

Extract 12: interpreting explicit WCF
1 **H**: One of the things which I'm feeling right now is
2 [It's] a bit big as well.
3 **It is a long sentence**.
4 **And I could have broken down**,
5 or maybe in terms of what I'm trying to explain in this.

6 [It] is the comparison between two groups,
7 two opposite groups,
8 so white and then black.
9 Or how a particular group is given a higher social status
10 as compared to the other group.
11 So, I was trying to express that,
12 but [small laugh]
13 right now I feel that the sentence is…
14 **E**: It's a complex sentence, for sure.

As the exchange continues in Extract 13, I attempt to scaffold Hemant's understanding of parallelism, and negotiate an alternative revision to the sentence. A range of discursive markers show negotiation and scaffolding. For example, I use a confirmation check, "Right?" (lines 2, 5, 9, 15, 22) to facilitate Hemant's understanding of the new concept (Nassaji, 2017). Hemant's contingency and takeover in the scaffolding process (van Lier, 2004) emerge through discursive markers such his use of repetition (line 8), and his identification of the singular verb form in his sentence (line 19):

<u>Extract 13: Scaffolded negotiation</u>
1 **E**: So what you have here are three items in a series.
2 Right?
3 And so you have format that's parallel,
4 in the sense that you use, "people are blank."
5 Right?
6 **H**: Mhmm [softly]
7 **E**: Males are
8 **H**: [Repeats in unison] **Males are**
9 **E**: and you have this pattern, **right?**
10 **H**: Okay, Mhmm
11 **E**: So it's [your pattern includes] an "are"
12 with the verb in the past tense.
13 **H**: Okay! Mhmm
14 **E**: There's a noun,
15 [then] verb in the past tense, **right?**
15 **H**: Yeah
16 **E**: And it's plural [your noun].
17 **H**: Mhmm
18 **E**: And then you have [a noun] here, [in] singular form.
19 **H**: **is**
20 **E**: is considered.
21 **H**: Mhmm

22 **E**: So that's a little complicated **right?**
23 So parallelism is about
24 having whatever pattern you have in the sentence match.
25 Be consistent throughout.
26 **H**: Yeah.

Upon gaining an understanding of parallelism in Extract 13, Extract 14 represents a "turning point" for Hemant, which renders the WCF incident as critical for him, and triggers reflection of his learning needs (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). At this turning point, Hemant's agency manifests as he assumes an advocacy role. In Extract 14, Hemant advocates that instructors have a responsibility to provide further correction when students do not uptake WCF (lines 9-12):

Extract 14: Preferences for CF
1 **H**: If I wouldn't have made any changes to this particular portion,
2 then I would say that
3 I could not realize the mistake,
4 or the way I could improve this particular sentence,
5 which is why I did not make any revision.
6 I feel that in these particular topics, which are much more complex like,
7 this particular part of grammar is not very common.
8 Like people don't get these errors very often.
9 So I feel that in these particular situations, like if I don't correct these,
10 **I would definitely expect you to tell me directly**…
11 **You could have written**, "You should have written 'are'"…
12 So I feel that would have just made me realize what mistakes I have.
13 **E**: But you also pointed out
14 that there are multiple possibilities
15 for revising this sentence.
16 **Right?**
17 **H**: Mhmm
18 **E**: You could of split it into different sentences,
19 and there were multiple possibilities.
20 **Right?**
21 **H**: Mhmm

In Extract 14, power relations continuously shift. Hemant provides CF, stating what he expects me to change (lines 10-11) when he makes an unrealized "mistake" (line 12). By doing so, he exercises agency, making his linguistic self, and his desired actions as a writer, known to me as his teacher (Shapiro et al., 2016). However, rather than arriving at a sense of finality,

Hemant's assertions unsettle me, presenting a turning point for expanding the possibilities of knowing, and revealing multiple truths (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). I recall how Hemant began the negotiation by identifying an alternative strategy (splitting the sentence apart; Extract 6; lines 13-21); given that Hemant had successfully identified an alternative revision strategy, I question whether direct CF is best for Hemant as a learner. In doing so, I reposition myself in the instructional role, using the same confirmatory cues that I used previously, when scaffolding took place (i.e. "Right?"; Extract 7; lines 16-20). Yet by reclaiming instructional authority, I take an opportunity to dispel the "right" and "wrong" binary (Dufour & Ahern-Dodson, 2017), indicating that there is more than one "right" way for Hemant to solve a writing problem.

Summary

This chapter was informed by theories of second language development, namely sociocultural, second language acquisition (i.e. psycholinguistic), and critical language awareness theories. I began the chapter with a theoretical discussion. I distinguished the usefulness of psycholinguistic and SLA theories in delineating what localized feedback does for multilingual writers, yet I argued that teachers also adopt critically aware orientations toward "error" and corrective feedback, by considering their own subjectivity and reflexivity in the process of error identification. I further explained how theories of critical language awareness informed my decisions to provide corrective feedback to students.

In the later sections of this chapter, I considered four focal students' perceptions and experiences with localized feedback in order to look back on my feedback practices. To further illuminate their perceptions, the chapter featured seven "critical incidents" (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). My analysis of these incidents shows that students' perceptions of corrective feedback were complex and multiple. Students' held beliefs about the corrective roles that teachers and peers should adopt in instructional contexts, and these beliefs were influenced by their past

learning experiences. Analysis also foregrounds how students' own sense of agency, power, and language awareness emerged through their interaction with feedback. Overall, the four students expressed some degree of difficulty interacting with indirect corrective feedback, and their uptake was not always successful. Nonetheless, students had positive perceptions of indirect feedback, noting the opportunities for problem solving that emerged through their engagement. Critical incident analysis also allowed me to reconsider my own perceptions and affectivity in relation to these four students, thereby developing a more nuanced and critical understanding about the role of corrective feedback in my own classroom. Therefore, the ultimate argument of this chapter is that other writing teachers may similarly benefit from increasing their students' (including both L1 and L2 students) involvement and input in the corrective feedback process. By engaging students in discussions about their preferences and prior experiences with feedback, instructors can work towards delivering a more comprehensive and supportive feedback system.

CHAPTER 6
GLOBAL FEEDBACK STRATEGIES AND LEARNER CASE STUDIES

Introduction

In the previous chapter, I focused on the relationship between CLA and localized feedback. I explained how CLA informed the decisions I made to provide localized feedback to students. I also considered how students responded to localized corrective feedback. In this chapter, I shift the focus from localized matters in writing to more global-oriented matters in writing.

I begin the chapter with a theoretical discussion. In this discussion, I introduce different discourses that exist on learning to write. Existing as a sociopolitical discourse among alternatives, CLA approaches foreground the workings of language ideology in the writing curriculum. I then explain how competing discourses about learning to write deemphasize or naturalize the workings of dominant language ideologies. Most writing teachers however will draw upon multiple discourses on learning to write, even within the same lesson (Ivanič, 2004). Understandingly, L2 students will also hold different (and even contradictory) beliefs about learning to write in English. Therefore, I argue that the nature of teaching and learning, coupled with L2 writers' expectations about their learning experience impact the multiplicity of discourses that teachers draw upon. I also highlight the explanatory power of theories of language socialization in situating and understanding students' expectations and beliefs about L2 writing.

In the second part of this chapter, I move into a praxis-based discussion, explaining how CLA-informed my approaches to writing instruction. While I include some description of the CLA-informed activities I designed and incorporated across the five units, I focus in greater detail the approaches I took within a persuasive writing unit, where all students' essays were topically focused on language differences. As this section progresses, I narrow my gaze further upon two

focal students' experiences: Ai and Yubi[13]. I explain how both students approached the persuasive writing unit, by considering the role of learning about language variation in second language acquisition. I also describe the CLA-informed feedback I provided to both students on their essays and explain the intentions underlying my feedback.

Because the two focal students represented competing ideological perspectives on language variation in their persuasive writing unit, I further investigate their language socialization experiences in part 3 of this chapter. Gaining deeper insight into the linguistic attitudes, experiences, expectations, resources and even stereotypes that students bring into the classroom is useful for critically minded language and instructors. Developing new insights into learners' language socialization experiences can enable instructors to draw upon students' linguistic attitudes and resources, or even to address potential stereotypes they may have within a critical language curriculum (Doerr, 2009b; Galloway, 2017a). Therefore, in this section, I draw upon theories of language socialization and comparative case study methodologies to situate each students' expressed beliefs about language learning and writing with their prior learning experiences in both their L1 and L2. Case study analysis reveals that each learner's attitudes were influenced by a multitude of complex factors outside of the course, including their experiences with language socialization, language standardization, and intercultural communication during their youth.

[13] Readers can also find an earlier analysis of the essays Ai and Yubi wrote for the persuasive writing unit in my contribution to the book volume *Language learning in Anglophone countries* (Britton, 2021). I also analyze persuasive essays written by two other US-domestic students in this publication.

Theoretical Discussion

Discourses of learning to write

"Discourse" and "ideology" are distinctive yet overlapping terms. While my primary theoretical interest in this chapter is in the later term, ideology, it is nonetheless important to distinguish the two terms for purposes of understanding a) their interrelationships and b) their utility in theorizing the multilingual writing classroom. According to Gee (2014), when linguists use the term "discourse, they are referencing language as it is used in specific contexts. The multilingual language writing classroom is one social context (among others) where language is used in specific ways and carries specific meanings. Within this social context, discourses about learning to write will circulate amongst teachers, students, and other stakeholders (i.e. administrators). Meanwhile, the term "ideology" emphasizes the ideas or beliefs that gain their expression in discourse through a political struggle to acquire or maintain social power (Woolard, 1998b). Ideologies therefore are not merely individual beliefs associated with mental traits (De Costa, 2011). Rather, ideologies gain traction and support as expressions of the interests of recognizable social groups. Therefore ideologies are often represented as commonsense, natural, or universally true by those who express them (Woolard, 1998b). In chapter 3, I summarized different typifications of language ideologies. The three overarching typifications (that I draw upon in this chapter) are language acquisition ideologies, dominant language ideologies, and critical language ideologies.

While ideologies are expressed amongst a variety of stakeholders in the classroom (including students and teachers), Ivanič (2004) focuses on six "discourses about learning to write", recognizing these discourses to be manifested primarily through teachers' classroom routines and practices. Moreover, Ivanič (2004) defines such writing discourses as "recognisable associations among values, beliefs and practices which lead to particular forms of situated action,

to particular decisions" (p. 220). Table 11 (adapted from Ivanič, 2004, p. 225) summarizes the six discourses and the corresponding beliefs about learning to write they convey.

Discourse	Beliefs about learning to write
1. The skills discourse	Learning to write involves learning sound–symbol relationships and syntactic patterns to construct text.
2. The creativity discourse	You learn to write by writing on topics which interest you.
3. The process discourse	Learning to write includes learning both the mental processes and the practical processes involved in composing a text.
4. The genre discourse	Learning to write involves learning the characteristics of different types of writing which serve specific purposes in specific contexts.
5. The social practices discourse	You learn to write by writing in real-life contexts, with real purposes for writing.
6. The sociopolitical discourse	Learning to write includes understanding why different types of writing are the way they are, and taking a position among alternatives.

Table 11 Discourses about learning to write

As Ivanič helpfully explains, writing teachers will draw upon not only one of these discourses, but likely several even over the course of a single lesson. This has been true in my own classroom. Later in this chapter, I will describe some of the ways I drew upon the sociopolitical discourse during a curricular unit focused on language differences. Yet even during this unit, I also drew upon the process discourse as students moved between different stages of composing their essays (i.e. brainstorming, generative writing, thesis writing, outlining, drafting, revision, and peer review). Within this same unit, I also drew upon the skills discourse. For instance, I taught and emphasized the importance of learning the mechanics of particular citation practices. I also presented students with multiple opportunities to practice particular syntactic and patterned ways of engaging with outside texts.

The interconnected nature of CLA and language ideology

In Ivanič's (2004) framework, CLA is named as a sociopolitical discourse that exists amongst other discourses about learning to write. Chapter 2 aimed to deepen readers' understandings of this sociopolitical discourse. There, I summarized the history, origins, and early thinking of the CLA movement. I also described some of the pedagogical approaches in writing classrooms that cultivate students' CLA. While promising pedagogical approaches will develop students' language awareness by heightening their awareness and respect for linguistic variation, early leaders of the CLA movement observed that such promising approaches may still fall short in drawing students' attention to the ideological nature of language. In other words, students can gain new appreciation for (or find novelty in) non-dominant language varieties with such promising approaches. However, they may not question or critique the underlying institutional and social processes that enable standard varieties to gain superior status (Clark et al., 1990).

Therefore, the most robust CLA approaches go beyond teaching awareness of linguistic variation, unveiling dominant language ideologies that mediate language development (Razfar, 2010). Robust approaches will center the curriculum on sociolinguistic and ideological concerns of dominance, discrimination, and inequality that manifest by and through language (Janks, 2000; Pennycook, 2010). In other words, CLA enables students to "to uncover the operation of language ideologies in the distribution of power," and "to participate in the articulation of alternatives" (Sanz-Sanchez, 2014, p. 9). According to Clark and Ivanič (1997) the outcomes of CLA are to "to equip learners to contribute, through their language use, to challenging and ultimately changing social inequities, rather than reproducing the status-quo" (p. 220). The curricular objective is therefore to increase awareness of the dominant language ideologies that have become so naturalized that they often cannot be detected.

However, most approaches to writing instruction draw on competing discourses about learning to write (Ivanič, 2004), and do not aim to foster CLA. Rather, traditionally writing

instruction has aimed to regulate learners' language, such that they adhere to standardized forms of language. Students are not asked to question the legitimacy of standardized language practices because adherence is assumed to benefit them in their future careers (Sanz-Sanchez & Yerrekia, 2014). Consequently, many L2 writing teachers model and reward adherence to standardized forms. In this regard, De Costa's (2011) case study revealed how one Chinese student in an English-medium Singaporean school held a standard language ideology which closely resembled ideological discourses circulating in the school. In the school, "standard" English was revered to have a higher currency than the local Singlish variety. Maintaining dominant ideologies had a rewarding impact on the student's language development outcomes, given that her teacher positioned her favorably as a strong performer with the most improvement, who received school-wide distinctions. In other cases, students are penalized when they do not reproduce standardized language forms, and they internalize deficit ideologies in relation to their home language varieties (Banes et al., 2016). For example, in Liu and Tennacito's (2013) case study of two Taiwanese writers in the US university context, both writers positioned themselves as inferior to native-English speakers. One student expressed the view that white native-English speakers hold superior status to others. By learning to speak native-like English, she believed she could assume a superior status to other Taiwanese people. Taken together, the studies of Liu & Tennacito (2013) and De Costa (2011) reveal that language learner ideologies are not merely internalized, but rather are reified through broader institutional systems and pedagogical practices.

Language and literacy socialization in writing instruction

Theories of language socialization posit that learners become socialized into valued and expected ways of performing and knowing through socializing events and activities. However, in any context, a multiplicity of literacy practices, or language ideologies can be invoked (Patricia A. Duff, 2020). Theories of literacy socialization posit that learning to write encompasses far

more than decoding, encoding, scripting, or typing; it encompasses apprenticeship into the values and identities associated with academic writing practices (Sterponi, 2012).

Even those teachers who adopt sociopolitical discourses on learning to write (i.e. CLA), likely cannot escape some degree of socializing their students into the dominant conventions of writing. Even in higher education contexts, presumably progressive sites of criticality, writing classrooms will not primarily function as sites to deconstruct dominant language ideologies. Drawing upon the multiplicity of discourses about learning to write, most writing teachers will focus at least part of their energies on socializing students to dominant language ideologies, conventions, or genres (i.e. specific text-types).

The previous Chapter 5 demonstrates that I have not been immune to socializing students into dominant language conventions (including the mechanics and grammar associated with edited American English). I, like many other teachers, have drawn upon multiple discourses about learning to write, and part of my emphasis has included building students' knowledge of the symbols, and syntactic patterns for sentence construction that academic writers draw upon. No writer holds complete freedom on how they represent their words on the page, if they desire to reach other readers and support their meaning-making. As Mahboob (2014) explains, academic writing can be characterized as a form of communicative engagement with others that the writer has a higher social distance from. Such distance may relate to geography or other factors (i.e. knowledge base, age, social class, ethnicity, race, gender). Academic communities often exhibit patterned ways of using language that are not native to one geographic region. To increase their engagement with a wider audience, often academic writers elect to minimize the use of localized language that is used with others when the social distance is smaller. When academic writers elect to draw upon localized forms, they do so with purpose and care (S. Canagarajah, 2011). In addition to using patterned forms of syntax and mechanics at the localized level of writing, writers draw upon other discoursal conventions existing at the globalized level of the text,

including different “genres” which Ivanič (2004) defines as “conventions for particular types of social interaction” (p. 238). Raising students’ awareness of the features associated with written genres (i.e. “generic resources”) can enable students to more fully participate and contribute to academic writing communities through their recognition of the globalized and patterned ways of using language in the academy.

In this chapter, I employ language socialization theories to argue that a multitude of factors (outside the instructional context) impact the mutliplicity of ideologies and discourses that individuals draw upon within the writing classroom. One factor impacting the discourses that teachers will draw upon is the very nature of teaching and learning. Regarding the nature of teaching and learning, Park (2008) offers a useful definition of pedagogy: it is a practice of transforming students’ social values through instruction. This definition does not include “liberation”, because instruction is most often “held in institutional settings.” Understandably, the larger institutions will likely parallel or reproduce the social values that are legitimized in the classroom. Indelibly, some classroom objectives will therefore be “pre-described” by teachers and “pre-consented” by students (p. 5). Moreover, students enter the classroom with expectations about their learning experience and about the literacy practices that are valued and recognized. Such expectations are developed throughout students’ lifespans, and across a range of different environments that they have previously encountered, including schools, households, workplaces, media use, institutions, etc. (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2012). For L2 learners, expectations about learning to write in a second language also relate to their experiences in the first language. When learners acquire new linguistic forms in their L1, they are also being socialized into cultural beliefs systems that accompany these forms (Riley, 2012). Therefore second language learners’ experiences with language standardization in their first language can impact their expectations and beliefs about standardization in their second language (Neriko Musha Doerr, 2009b). Other experiences with intercultural communication also contribute to learners’ understandings about

learning in a second language (Y. Wang & Jenkins, 2016). In this chapter, theories of language socialization are therefore helpful in identifying "the ideological and institutional underpinnings" that shape two focal students' understandings about language variation, including "schooled reading and writing activities" (Sterponi, 2012, p. 234) within the context of my critical language writing pedagogy.

CLA approaches in the classroom

At what points does critical language awareness become evident in students' text? How can I foster critical language awareness in my students' writing? These are questions I continuously asked myself while I was designing the study and the corresponding course activities. I realized quite early in conception of this dissertation that if I aimed to develop CLA amidst students' writing and revision processes, language must become an ongoing subject of the course, and an ongoing subject of students' writing. It also occurred to me that I would be able to more readily provide CLA-informed comments on students' writing in instances where language (and attention to differences in language(s)) was a subject of their writing. Therefore, my vision entailed centering students' own ethnolinguistically diverse experiences through a range of personal, reflective, and persuasive writing assignments realized over 5 discrete curricular units.

Yet at the same time, I designed the study in the context of a first-year introductory diversity and writing course where I also worked amidst other teaching objectives. While I had some liberties to design course activities, select new readings, and adapt essay assignments, I also inherited pre-determined textbooks, a course reader, and assignments. In each predetermined curricular unit, students wrote multiple drafts of an essay representing a distinctive writing genre. Understandably language was not the only topical focus across these units. Table 12 summarizes the five units, including their genres and the primary topics we explored:

Unit name	Writing genre	Topics explored
1. Colliding Spaces	Personal essay	Geographical borders Physical spaces New arrivals and first encounters Cross-cultural encounters
2. Defining Lines	Response essay	National borders Assimilation Immigration Citizenship and immigration status
3. Interweavings	Rhetorical analysis	Intersectionality Identity categories and binaries Racism Privilege Gendered identities and fluidity
4. Unsettled Voices	Persuasive essay	Language differences Linguistic profiling/discrimination Language variation Language learning
5. Reflection	Choice of reflective essay or persuasive essay	Codeswitching and race/ethnicity Language policies

Table 12 Unit summary

For all but the first curricular unit, the goal for students' essays was to interact with and cite one or more of the course readings. Therefore, the course readings (which also ranged in their topics) drove much of the content of the course. While students encountered a wider range of themes in the readings, I nonetheless ensured that students still encountered the possibility to explore and integrate linguistic themes into their essays across all the units. I accomplished this by integrating at least one reading that included some linguistic themes, and by intentionally focusing students' explorations of such linguistic themes during class time. For example, during unit 3, students were exposed to the topic of transgenderality, when they read the first chapter of Leslie Feinberg's (1998) book, *Trans liberation: Beyond pink and blue*. In one passage, Feinberg touches on linguistic themes through an analogy. The analogy likens transgender individuals'

desire to express gender fluidity to multilinguals poets' desire to express ideas in multiple languages:

> It's hard for me to label the intricate matrix of my gender as simply masculine. To me, branding individual self-expression as simply feminine or masculine is like asking poets: Do you write in English or Spanish? The question leaves out the possibilities that the poetry is woven in Cantonese or Latino, Swahili or Arabic. The question deals only with the system of language that the poet has been taught. It ignores the words each writer hauls up, hand over hand, from a common well. (p. 9).

During class time, we discussed and analyzed this passage in class. Students also practiced paraphrasing it and writing their own interpretations of the passage. As a result, some students elected to more consistently explore linguistic themes (like Feinberg's) in their writing throughout the semester. However, others wrote about linguistic themes only in the fourth curricular unit, where linguistic themes were a primary focus.

Even in unit 1 (when the goal for students' essays did not include citing a course text), I nonetheless integrated activities aimed at generating writing and ideas on the subject of language. In this unit, students' goal was to write a personal essay focused loosely on the shared curriculum; the shared curriculum included themes such as geographic or first encounters. Students also read Gloria Anzaldua's "How to Tame a Wild Tongue". After reading and discussing this essay in class, students responded to the following generative writing prompt during class time:

- Gloria Anzaldua describes some situations where she confronted borders between herself and others because of the languages she speaks.
- Describe a time you spoke a language differently from others (this could be English or another language), or a time you felt inadequate as a speaker of this language. Imagine I have never been in this space and describe its physical setting.

In creating this prompt, I was largely inspired by Siegel (2006) who offers that reflection on past experiences of language use and examination of belief systems that coincide with such experiences can foster CLA. Many students later elected to further develop their prompted in-class writing into their personal essays.

As I described in the previous chapter, students also generated writing and ideas on the subject of language at the end of each curricular unit. The last lesson of each unit focused on sentence-level revisions and academic writing conventions (related to citation, mechanics, syntax, and grammar). On this same day, I incorporated an activity on descriptive language study, asking students to find out information about a non-dominant English variety unfamiliar to them. They took notes on a few characteristic features of the variety (i.e. syntax, lexicon, phonology), and shared their discoveries in class. Subsequently during unit 4, I also encouraged students to incorporate these earlier discoveries about linguistic variation into their essays to open up possibilities for exploring critical ideological perspectives as writers. As I will subsequently describe, both Ai and Yubi, chose to incorporate their findings about "Chinglish" into their unit 4 essays.

CLA approaches in persuasive writing unit 4

While some students embraced a language focus across units, I set an expectation that students write their essays on the subject of language only during unit 4. The remainder of this chapter therefore centers on this curricular unit. In this section, I describe the unit's goals, readings, and class activities in greater detail. I also explain some of the choices that the two focal students of this chapter, Ai and Yubi made during the sequence of these curricular activities.

At the beginning of this unit, Ai and Yubi received the essay assignment description. In this description, I framed the general writing goals in alignment with other sections ENG 101 (see appendix F for complete assignment description):

- Identify a community problem related to language differences
- Persuade an audience to understand your perspective on language differences
- Use examples, story-telling or details to communicate your argument
- Integrate at least two sources using a combination of summary, paraphrase and quotation
- Analyze how specific parts of the text(s) or your own experiences are important in relation to argument.

To build and expand upon students' academic literacies, a major goal for students' essays was to integrate and respond to at least two readings they encountered during class. Students could select from the readings I assigned to them over the course of Unit 4, or they could choose from a smaller number of readings they were assigned during previous units. Table 13 summarizes these tiles, and also indicates the titles that Ai and Yubi chose for their essays. Both students chose to integrate sources exclusively from authors of Chinese descent in their essays.

Author	Title	Assigned unit	Student who used it
James Baldwin (1979)	If Black English isn't a language, then tell me, what is?	4	
Amy Tan (1990)	Mother tongue	4	Yubi Ai
Kevin Garcia (2018)	Can you lose a language you never knew?	2	
Fan Shen (1989)	The classroom and the wider culture: Identity as a key to learning English composition	4	Yubi
Samy H. Alim and Geneva Smitherman (2012)	Articulate while Black: Barack Obama, language, and race in the US	4	
Stephanie Wildman and Adriana Davis (1995)	Language and silence: Making systems of privilege visible	3	
Edward Finnegan (2005)	What is correct language?	1	
Maxine Hong Kingston (1976)	Silence	4	Yubi Ai
Gloria Anzaldúa (1999)	How to tame a wild tongue	1	

Table 13 Course Readings Available for Unit 4

However, I recognized at the onset of this unit that students needed to go beyond source integration to develop their own ideological stances on language differences, and to select a

community problem that was socially significant to others and themselves. Huang's (2012) teacher-inquiry research, which focused on the implementation of critical literacy practices in a university EFL context, found that L2 writers "need rigorous guidance" from their instructors both to identify "a socially significant angle" for their writing (p. 296), and to understand their writing "as a form of social critique and social action" (p. 285). Inspired by Huang's (ibid.) recommendations, I created a list of inquiry questions, which I distributed at the beginning of the unit as a topic selection guide for students' essays. These questions related to topics such as language variation in schooling and language discrimination (see Appendix G for the complete list).

The purpose of the inquiry list was not only to guide students in selecting a topic that was socially and personally significant, but also to facilitate the raising of students' critical language awareness. Therefore, I ensured that students interacted with the inquiry questions on several occasions before they began drafting their essays: After first viewing the sheet in class, Ai and Yubi practiced brainstorming: they picked one intriguing question from the list and wrote initial responses to it. To help students brainstorm other directions at this early writing stage, I also asked students to revisit their earlier explorations on linguistic variation, to discern what question(s) their discoveries could relate to, and to copy and paste their findings next to a corresponding inquiry question. Both Ai and Yubi had previously engaged in research on "Chinese English" (aka Chinglish) during class time.

Later on, Ai and Yubi returned to the inquiry questions in their homework assignments; one homework prompt asked them to identify three questions of interest for their essays. Interestingly, both students included the question, "Why is standard English taught more often in schools and universities?" on their lists. Table 14 lists the three questions that each learner first identified as of interest to them.

Yubi's questions	Ai's questions
1. Should employers make rules that only one language can be used in the workplace? 2. Why is standard English taught more often in schools and universities? 3. How do other languages influence our English writing?	1. What makes a language powerful? 2. What are some of the differences between English and Chinese? Why are these differences important? 3. Why is standard English taught more often in schools and universities?

Table 14 Questions of initial interest to focal students

As the unit progressed, the students continued to interact with the list of inquiry questions both outside and inside of class. As they read possible sources to integrate into their essay outside of class time, the homework prompts I assigned asked them to again return to the list and identify one question relating to the source. Class time provided further opportunities for students to both consider the questions and to gain contextual information helping them to understand why they were posed as significant. In order to make the social problems related to the questions more visible to students, I showed them several videos which illustrated linguistic and racial tensions in the US. In one ABC news video report (2018), a New York attorney was captured on video in a local restaurant chain. The attorney gets upset upon seeing employees speaking Spanish and threatens to call immigration authorities. They also watched a short video clip from the documentary "Do You Speak American?" featuring linguist John Baugh. In the segment, Baugh demonstrates his research on linguistic profiling in Detroit, Michigan; he calls local landlords, inquiring about rental vacancies. Each time Baugh places a call, he uses a different accent (Black, White, Latino) and tracks the responses he receives from landlords (Cran, 2005). After watching these videos in class, students responded to writing prompts, which asked them to describe the social and linguistic problems being illustrated.

Before Ai and Yubi began drafting their essays, I asked them to select one question from the list to focus their essays, and I introduced the concept of a "working thesis" during class time.

I defined this as "a sentence which focuses your argument, thinking, and engagement with sources" helping "you to stay on track as you write your paper" (Class Materials, 11/14/19). During class time, students gained oral practice rephrasing various questions from the inquiry list into assertions/theses. Their next task was to determine their own guiding question and create their own "working thesis". Both Ai and Yubi chose a guiding question for their essays that they had not identified earlier in the unit: "Should English learners learn about different varieties of English in schools?" While the question selected by both students was the same, they identified oppositional theses for their essays. Ai indicated her thesis as "Schools should not teach English language learners about different varieties of English," while Yubi indicated her working thesis as, "Schools should teach English language learners about different varieties of English" (In-Class Activity, 11/14/19). In the subsequent paragraphs, I further elaborate on the critical and dominant stances that each student subsequently articulated in their essay in relation to language variation and language standardization.

Learner stance-taking

Yubi's critical perspective on language variation. In her essay, Yubi articulates a critical stance toward language standardization, emphasizing the increasing numbers of individuals who use English as an international language of communication:

> Society is developing at an accelerating rate, and the language is changing correspondingly... More and more people use English... since [they] come from different countries, their expression of English is different…From my point of view, schools should support the phenomenon that other varieties of English exist in school keeping abreast of the times and be open to change (Essay, 12/11/18).

In this passage, Yubi validates a sociolinguistic perspective on variation; she points out that no English language variety can be fixed and uniform, especially as more speakers rely on English as a Lingua Franca (Canagarajah, 2007; Jenkins, 2014).

Yubi later explains how Chinese speakers use metaphor and logic to communicate in "Chinglish":

> In my country, when people speak English, their way of expression just like translating Chinese directly into English. For instance, when we say there are so many people, we express "people mountain, people sea". In Chinese, this is an idiom. It's like a metaphor for the number of people. And Chinese people directly translate into English without the way of American expression. In my opinion, each language has its own logic. Chinese is my mother tongue. When I learn to speak, I accept the Chinese way of thinking. When I study English, I feel that there are some expressions that are different from what I think. I'm not the only one who feels that way. Almost all non-native speakers of English have this feeling when they first start learning English. (Essay, 12/11/18).

By stating her acceptance toward "the Chinese way of thinking" and observing the "logic" underlying the non-dominant expression "people mountain, people sea", Yubi grants legitimacy to "Chinglish" as an English variety (Metz, 2018).

Yubi also provides personal accounts of her experiences with English variation both inside and outside of Westpond University in her essay. Within the university, Yubi observes that there are many English users from other countries who have different ways of expressing meaning. She believes that "other varieties of English" should not be regarded as "non-standard" because international students communicate and understand each other "not just" by using "Standard American English" (Essay, 12/11/18). Her claim is supported by research; Canagarajah (2007) notes that multilingual English users communicate successfully by activating "complex pragmatic strategies that help them negotiate" variable linguistic forms (p. 926).

Yubi's essay provides further evidence that variation is salient for her as a learner. She describes the difficulties she encountered ordering food at McDonald's upon her first arrival to a US airport. She could not pronounce the name of the food, and so she "used the number instead". While the experience was "awkward", she explains that it taught her how "American English" varies from the "TOEFL test", such that she cannot use the "way of [the] test" to communicate. Instead, she must "try to learn another way" to formulate expressions, because "language difference also exists in the same language" (Essay, 12/11/18). By providing this explanation, Yubi exhibits a positive attitude toward variation, accepting "deviations as the norm," and

demonstrating that English learners quickly become aware of register variation in daily communication (Canagarajah, 2007, p. 931).

Ai's dominant perspective on language standardization. In her essay, Ai acknowledges the existence of variation in English language, while upholding a dominant perspective about the teaching of English and the teaching of writing:

> As a person who does not speak English as the first language, I think there is only one kind of English in the world, which is a foreign language that I cannot use properly right now. To my surprise, there are over fifty kinds of English in the world. There is one that I am saying right now- Chinglish. A variety type of English is based on the region and people immigrating from different countries. When a language has many different sayings and habits, how can a country unify a language and how can everyone communicate freely? I think this should be the reason that the school in the US only speak in Standard America English to a student from kindergarten to high school. Thus, for the unification of the national language and our international students who cannot communicate easily in the United States, I think the teacher should not teach students about other varieties of English writing and speaking before they attend to university. (Final Draft, 12/10/18).

In Chapter 3, I explained three distinctive (yet interrelated) manifestations of dominant language ideologies: native-speakerism, Herderian LIs, and standard LIs. All three forms are evident in Ai's passage and stance taking. Similar to Yubi, Ai identifies herself as a "Chinglish" user; however, by pointing out that she "cannot use" English "properly" she delegitimizes her idiolect as an interlanguage which is deficient to native speakers (Doerr, 2009a). By mentioning the need for unifying a "national language" in the United States, she invokes the Herderian concept of language unity. Moreover, by mentioning that "there is only one kind of English in the world", she invokes a standard language ideology (Woolard, 1998).

CLA-informed feedback

Later in the unit, the adoption of a process-based writing pedagogy enabled me to intervene in both students' writing processes and provide CLA-informed comments on students' in-process works. For this unit, I elected to meet with all students individually after students had

composed two drafts and held conferences to deliver my feedback orally. Because the two students chose oppositional ideological stances in their essay, my feedback was different in each case. In order to contextualize the specific feedback I provided, I introduce the relevant passages of students' essays which my feedback corresponded to in the remainder of this section. Subsequently, in the final section of this chapter, I will subsequently expand upon the analysis of each student's writings and beliefs.

Yubi's interaction with CLA-informed feedback. In her second paragraph, Yubi discussed Amy Tan's (Tan, 1990) "Mother tongue."

> In Tan's essay, she stated that her mother tongue has affected her pretty much. Her mother tongue is similar to Chinglish because her mother speaks English the same as she speaks Chinese. Tan mentioned several times that her mother tongue made she feel incompatible with American English. She stated that she described it to people as 'broken' or 'fractured' English. she thinks that is "limited" English. Tan felt ashamed of her mother's English (85). (Yubi's Second Draft, 12/5/18).

In response to this paragraph, I encouraged Yubi to provide her readers with more explanation distinguishing how "Chinglish" is different from standardized forms of English. By offering this suggestion, I desired to create an opportunity for Yubi to activate and demonstrate her language awareness. Language awareness is often associated with more cognitive aspects of learning. This includes tasks such as attention, noticing and describing pragmatic, syntactic or lexical differences between linguistic forms (Svalberg, 2007). While such kind of comment may appear to align more with language awareness than CLA, I believe a case can also be made that the comment fosters CLA. As Svalberg (2007) argues, criticality within language awareness paradigm may "best be seen as a matter of degree and focus, rather than as either present or absent" (p. 298). While the comment does not focus overtly on issues of discrimination and power, it is made within the context of an English writing class, where standardized forms of English hold high currency. I therefore believed that an invitation to contrast different English varieties would affirm Yubi's multilingual identity, providing her with an unusual and novel

opportunity to show her expertise as a Mandarin speaker, in a context where such language is not typically dominant (and therefore not typically valued).

In response, Yubi added the following sentences to her final draft:

> Because Chinglish has its own way to express English, It usually a word-for-word translation. Therefore, compared to American English, sometimes it sounds like a sentence not finished, the word order is different. When Tan's mother communicates to native speakers, they usually can't understand what does she what to say. (Final Draft, 12/10/18).

As discussed in the previous section, Yubi articulated that the Chinese and English languages include different "logic" and "way[s]" of thinking. As she learns English, some expressions she learns are "different" from her Chinese ways of thinking (Essay, 12/10/18). In response to this observation, I encouraged Yubi to elaborate and deepen her perspective by putting it in conversation with Fan Shen's writing (which she had read earlier during the unit). In his essay, Shen (1989) describes the challenges he encountered composing in English when he first attended university composition and literature courses in the US. Shen frames such challenges as a process of reconciling his Chinese identity and English identity. For example, Shen describes how he more often relied on pictorial logic, yijing (a Chinese critical approach to thinking), to engage in literature, which made his writing seem strange and even illogical to his English composition instructors. Shen also explains that instructors encouraged him to use first person pronouns, which felt overly individualistic to him; in the Chinese context he explains it was often more appropriate or modest to refer to a collective "we" rather than "I".

In response to my suggestion, Yubi added the following passage to her final draft:

> My experience is similar to Shen's when he first came to the United States. We both contend that identity and logic can affect the expression of language. In his essay, he mentioned that his professor confused about the pronouns that he used. His professor first comments about his composition paper were "Why did you always use 'we' instead of 'I'?" (72). In my view, this way of using words is formed by the imperceptible influence of culture. Socialism in China emphasizes common ownership, so when I was writing in my primary school, I used pronouns that were usually us. There are some effects that may not be noticed in daily life, but it is undeniable that they have a great impact on people's thinking inadvertently. (Final Draft, 12/10/18).

By developing this new passage, Yubi demonstrates language awareness, revealing her understanding about the relationship between language use and culture across her L1 and L2. Yubi observes that she, like Shen, often used collective rather than individual pronouns, and emphasizes that such ways of using language, while not often noticed "have a great impact on people's thinking" nonetheless. As Svalberg (2007) offers, language-focused pedagogical approaches may facilitate the development of both language awareness and culture-awareness in students simultaneously. One illustrative study in this regard (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999 as cited in Svalberg, 2007). This study focuses on the experiences of Chinese students of English, revealing the discoveries that Chinese learners have, including the "mismatch[es] between the cultures of learning" their languages from native-speaking Chinese teachers and from native speaking English teachers (Svalberg, 2007, p. 299).

Ai's interaction with CLA-informed feedback. In contrast to Yubi's essay, Ai's essay was in tension with the pedagogical discourse of the classroom (Park, 2008). In her essay, Ai continuously emphasized the necessity for language standardization, particularly for English as a second language learners who are developing oral and written proficiencies in a US context. In response, I provided a general comment to Ai during our conference together. I explained that her writing represents a strong stance on this controversial issue. I explained that readers who hold a differing point of view on the issue may be more willing to embrace her perspective if she includes a counter argument, which acknowledges an alternative point of view. I expressed the following sentiment to Ai, "Readers will recognize and appreciate that you arrived at your perspective carefully if you show them that you have considered why some students may desire to learn about other varieties of English. If you explain the reasons, you will build trust with your readers." To further substantiate this suggestion, I pointed Ai to a page in her *EasyWriter* textbook, providing a sample outline to use in argumentative genres of writing. This outline included "consideration of alternative arguments" as one element to include (Lunsford, 2016, p.

54). By making this suggestion to Ai, I hoped that exploring a critical linguistic perspective may broaden her own perspective. I naively hoped such exploration and acknowledgement of non-dominant viewpoints could enable her to shift her own perspective. In response to my suggestion, Ai diligently wrote a new paragraph, which she incorporated as second the second paragraph in her essay:

> In the United States, most people are born in an English-speaking environment. They have learned English from school or life from an early age. They can be said to be proficient in a language, or they can communicate very smoothly with people, attend classes, and so on. I can understand the urgency of the diversity of English they want to learn. It is also conceivable that they can easily imitate the different ways in which people from different regions speak English. But there are also 80% of immigrants whose first language is not English. The difficulty for foreigners to learn English is unimaginable for Americans. For beginners, we should teach them Standard American English in a prescription way.

Ai revisions show that she followed through on the task I set for her, but did not reach a transformation in her perspective (Mezirow, 1990). Interestingly, in her counter argument, Ai appears to express a new ideology about second language acquisition. By distinguishing the study of variation as an approach that is more appropriate for those who are "born in an English-speaking environment," she invokes wider circulating ideologies of native-speakerism. Such ideologies set clear binaries, often establishing hierarchical relationships between native and non-native speakers. Doerr (2009a) notes that when such an ideology is invoked, native speakers are seen as a homogenous group with superior linguistic proficiency, and non-natives as a homogenous group with inferior linguistic proficiency. After writing the essay, I asked Ai whether writing about an alternative point of view "changed the way [she] thought about the issue." She responded by stating that no, it did not change her perspective. She further described how she approached the task of writing a counter argument, "I just write something I already accept or already acknowledge and I will not like to write something that I don't like or have different opinions on." When I asked her about her strong opinions, she subsequently explained that she is opposed to the teaching of variation in English because she doesn't "like [the] dialects"

used in China (Interview 2/15/19). I will discuss her L1 socialization experiences further in the following section.

At a later point in her essay, Ai, like Yubi, drew upon the experiences of Amy Tan (1990). In the original passage, Tan describes her mother's Chinese-influenced English as "broken" and difficult for individuals outside of the family to understand. In her own essay, Ai offers her own interpretation of a phrase used by the mother that does not reflect standard grammatical patterns:

> Like Tan's mother, I am Chinese. We all know that we must speak English when we are abroad. When I read "Not waste money that way"(84), which Tan said to her mother when they talking about the price of a furniture, I really know what she are talking about. I started asking myself how I would express what the author wants to say. I prefer to say "Don't waste money". In China, we also take Standard English classes. Teachers will teach us grammar, phrases, and even templates for writing. When English is used as a second language, I believe that pure standard English is the most effective and most acceptable to students.

In response to this passage, I desired to probe and question Ai's viewpoint that the standard variety is correct or "most acceptable". Because Ai included the unconventional English phrase, "Not waste money that way," I suggested that she provide readers with more information about its origins. I suggested that she explain how it corresponds to Chinese grammar patterns (Conference, 12/4/18). In her response, Ai explained that "not" is a direct translation from Chinese to English. She also added new sentences describing the "pain" associated with learning English:

> In Chinese, we usually put "no" at the beginning of the sentence and directly express the negative meaning. The direct translation into English start is beginning with "not". I started asking myself how I would express what the author wants to say. I prefer to say "Don't waste money. ""Not do…" always followed by the object and "Do not do…" usually as an imperative sentence.
> …
> Perhaps people who speak English when they were born can never understand the painful how we learn English. The same meaning, translated by different words or sentences, may be given a low score by the teacher. We are always learning English in the rules, not in life.

With these newly added sentences, Ai demonstrates the contrastive approach to language learning. This pedagogical approach typically involves students in identifying knowledge about their home language varieties and using this knowledge to add the target language to their linguistic repertoires. Higgins et al. (2012) offer a valid critique of contrastive approaches, noting they still may "grant hegemonic languages more authoritative space under the guide of 'appropriate language use" and for "relegate non-mainstream languages to the periphery" (p. 50). Because Ai still appears to grant more legitimacy to dominant forms of English than to Chinglish after her revision, Higgins et al.'s (2012) critique is warranted here. However, I also offer that Ai nonetheless appeared to grant a greater degree of legitimacy to Chinglish by explaining its relationship Mandarin. Moreover, Ai later identified the new passage as the favorite part of her essay (Ai's unit reflection, 12/11/18). This suggests that the contrastive approach may have worked toward one important objective of critical language study: learner empowerment. In other words, articulating her L1 knowledge in her L2 writing may have enabled her to develop a positive sense of self-esteem and identity as a multilingual (Clark & Ivanič, 1997).

Later in her essay, Ai draws on her experiences learning a standard variety of Mandarin to advocate that a standard variety of English be taught:

> Even if some people's Mandarin is not standard, everyone can communicate smoothly. Also, Mandarin has this highest status. When people step into the society and start working, everyone says politely Mandarin. I think that the United States should solve the problem of English pluralism the same as China. From an early age, it must stipulate that standard English must be said, which will reduce the pain of changing speaking habits.

During our conference, I discussed this passage with Ai. Mindful of the objectives of CLA, I asked her to further interrogate or explain the idea that Mandarin is the language with the "highest status" in China. Over the course of our conversation, I posed the question, "does having a high status language create any social inequities for those who do not have access to it?"

Ai's responded to my feedback by adding the following passage to her text:

> In China, we have mandarin assessment since mandarin has this highest status so that everyone can speak Mandarin. Perhaps the United States can also hold the SAE test to

> classify students: high grades can choose to learn more types of English, and the students whose results are not so good should seriously study SAE. Solving the language issue as early as possible, which will reduce the pain of changing speaking habits. (Final Draft, 12/10/18).

Ai's response to the comment seems to suggest that she was resistant to CLA objectives and the pedagogical discourse of the classroom, whereby the status of prestige language varieties are questioned (Liu & Tannacito, 2013; Park, 2008). In other words, Ai does not appear to desire to question the notion that Mandarin has "the highest status". For her, this idea appears to be factual. Instead of questioning the truthfulness of the statement, she adopts an alternative resistance strategy (Liu & Tannacito, 2013), providing an explanation for why Mandarin is unquestionably the "highest status" language. In her mind, this status emerges from the national assessment that all students must take. She does not appear to think about this test critically. Instead, she suggests that students in the US take a comparable test to assess their proficiency in Standard English. The factors that influence such beliefs will be explored further in the next section.

Language socialization experiences: The cases of Ai and Yubi

The previous section shows that Ai and Yubi represented competing ideological perspectives on language variation in their persuasive writing unit. While Yubi believed that variation was an inevitable aspect of second language learning, Ai asserted that second language learners should only learn about the standard variety of English. This section seeks to further contextualize each learner's ideological stance through the lens of language socialization theory. Drawing upon interview transcripts and writing samples, I present a case of each learner. Case study further identifies the relevant language socialization experiences each student gained in their L1 and L2 in order to better understand their ideological stance taking in curricular unit 4. I argue that this kind of case study—i.e. gaining insights about students' prior language socialization experiences—is especially useful for critical language and writing instructors. Developing new insights into learners' language socialization experiences—i.e. with standardization and intercultural communication—can enable instructors to further tap into

students' linguistic attitudes, experiences, and resources within the classroom. Such line of inquiry could also enable instructors to authentically address the potential stereotypes (or misconceptions) that L2 learners may have about linguistic variation within a critical language curriculum (Doerr, 2009b; Galloway, 2017a). Each case demonstrates that the learner's ideological stances were influenced by a multitude of complex factors outside of the course, including their experiences with L1 socialization, L1 standardization, and intercultural communication.

Ai's language socialization experiences

Experiences with Mandarin

The dominant language acquisition ideologies that Ai invoked about English within her writing parallel her beliefs and experiences with the standardization of Mandarin in China. In her essay, Ai acknowledged that China has "many dialects, just like America", but notes that she only heard "standard Mandarin in schools," because the use of other dialects was not permitted (Essay, 12/11/18). She further emphasized in her interview the importance of receiving her secondary education in Beijing, the capital city of China, where she acquired access to the standardized variety of Mandarin:

> **A**: We're the student[s] in capital city. So we have the best standard, the best teacher[s], the best service[s], the best compan[ies]. Like everything is the best, but there's some different region[s] in the north or the very south; there's some people [living in those regions] who are very poor or they [are] just talking something very rudely.
> **E**: Ok, mmhmm
> **A**: And I think I don't like those people. Like [those] who are not being educat[ed].
> **E**: Mhmm. So the standard Mandarin is associated with higher level of education and those kind of things.
> **A**: Yeah. I think it's just what my parents deeply impact on me.
> …
> **E**: So your parents shared a similar [sentiment] with you about the importance of standard Mandarin?
> **A**: And also the teacher. (Interview, 2/15/19).

Here, Ai touches upon several factors outside of the context of the ENG 101 course which impact her articulation of standard language ideologies. She indicates her socialization into such

dominant worldviews and identity categories emerged from different influences (Riley, 2012; Sterponi, 2012). For instance, growing up in the capital city of China afforded her easier access to the standard variety of Mandarin, which she deems not only as the "best" variety, but as a variety that associates her with a higher level of education (that is not accessible to all). She also mentions that her parents and her teachers played an important role in this socialization. Previous research in language socialization similarly shows that young children's interactions with others (i.e. parents, caregivers, teachers) socialize them into normative language values and ways of performing. While studies show that learners sometimes resist the language practices that are most valued (Duff, 2020), Ai appears to internalize and reproduce the value on standardized language practices.

Other experiences with Chinese dialects

Ai knows other students who use Chinese dialects. She has also traveled in China to locations where other dialects are used. For instance, she has traveled to the city of Chongqing, where a Southwestern variety of Mandarin is spoken (Frawley, 2003). While visiting this city, she characterizes her Mandarin as "very good", and the locals' pronunciation as "really weird." Regardless of her interlocutors' background, Ai maintains that she does not adjust her Mandarin use:

> **E**: So what are your experiences, like speaking with someone from there [Chongqing]? Could you communicate with them using standard Mandarin?
> **A**: I can but maybe they will not say very directly, because I know some pronunciation, it's really weird, since I can speak very good Mandarin.
> **E**: So their pronunciation feels weird to you or vice versa?
> **A**: Yeah.
> **E**: Okay, So the communication can be difficult, right? But so you don't change the way that you communicate when you go to a different place?
> **A**: Yeah.
> **E**: You still communicate in the same way that you would if you were in Beijing. Right?
> **A**: Yeah.
> …
> **E**: So when you speak with other Chinese speakers from other parts of the country, do you change the way you speak?
> **A**: I never change (Interview, 12/19/19).

In this transcript, Ai appears to associate her Beijing variety as the "high status" variety and she reflects a monolithic understanding of language, whereby a speaker does not change or adapt as the context changes. Ai also observes that other Chinese speakers will often immediately distinguish her as originating from Beijing, based on the standard language variety she uses, but she cannot distinguish the regions that others are from based on their language variety (Interview 12/19/19).

The acquisition or use of a non-standard Chinese dialect is undesirable for Ai, as she associates dialect with poverty and lack of education. In her own family lineage, earlier generations were faced with such poverty and lack of education. While Ai's mother grew up in Beijing, her father immigrated to the city during his youth. When her paternal grandfather first immigrated to Beijing during her father's youth, the grandfather used a non-dominant dialect. At the same time, her grandfather was "very poor" and wanted "to become better and give the best to his son and daughter" (Interview, 2/15/19). After the family's immigration, Ai's father assimilated to using the standard variety of Mandarin. While Ai's paternal grandparents continue to use dialect, she feels that it is not important to learn it, because the family's dialect will one day disappear (Interview, 12/19/19). By asserting that her heritage dialect will disappear, Ai promotes the ideological process of "erasure". Gal (1998) explains the process of erasure: "[It] occurs when an ideology simplifies a sociolinguistic field, forcing attention on only one part or dimension of it, thereby rendering some linguistic forms or groups invisible or recasting the image of their presence and practices to better fit the ideology" (p. 438). In Ai's case, she accomplishes erasure by characterizing the family dialect as obsolete, emphasizing that the number of relatives using the dialect in her family has diminished over the generations. Moreover, according to Doerr (2009a), language standardization efforts only exacerbate such erasures, by "simultaneously homogeniz[ing] and differentiat[ing] between people" (p. 29). Ai's perceptions about homogenization impact the value of dialect within her own family.

Other experiences learning English writing

After learning English for many years of her childhood, Ai displays strong convictions about the best way to learn English as a second language (King & Hermes, 2014). Learning the language in a rule-governed way was especially important in her youth, given the path that her parents determined for her. While English is mandatory in China, her parents determined that she would attend university abroad in the United States when she was a young child. Aware of her predetermined path, she remembers that at certain points in her youth, she preferred to associate only with other English learning students who were similarly bound to study abroad.

Ai asserts that in China, she only learned "standard English", in a rule-governed way, which she believes is better, especially for beginning learners (Interview, 12/19/19). In her essay, she states that it is "difficult" and "painful", but necessary to learn "rules", "phrases" and writing "templates" associated with the standard variety, in order to avoid negative educational consequences. She elaborates that if learners try using "words and sentences" that are "translated", rather than written in "standard English", they may be "graded harshly by teacher[s]" (Essay, 12/11/18). Ai's past experiences and perceptions about penalization have therefore had lasting effects on the ways that she perceives linguistic deviance and deficiency as a learner (Banes et al., 2016).

Ai displays native speaker ideologies in relation to her learning experiences in ENG 101. As she compares the experience of the developmental writing class she took with me (101) with college writing (102) classes, she explains that peer review with other international students was "not very helpful", and that she prefers to work with native-speakers:

> **A**: When I take 101, there almost all Chinese students. We just cannot fix our problem because we always have the same problems, and the way we write, or the grammar, it's really weird sometimes. But for the 102, I only have one classmate who is Chinese. And others I think are native speakers. So I can read a lot of different papers than I saw before, and also they can talk to me, like to fix some sentence which is very well.
> **E**: Okay. So do you like having that kind of environment in the class for peer review?

> **A**: Yeah. I would really love to read some student paper who speaks English. They always have some good sentences, I think it's correct and I can learn from them. (Interview, 12/19/19).

In this exchange, Ai's understanding seems to reflect a monolithic view of linguistic competence that is often invoked with the native speaker concept. By invoking this concept, she regards the category of native speakers as uniformly superior in their linguistic abilities (Doerr, 2009a). Moreover, I discussed in Chapter 5, Ai believes it is very important for her to receive corrective feedback on her grammar and word choices. By seeking out corrective feedback from the university's writing center, she has observed that native speakers often "just don't really know" what she is communicating, or they think that whole passages of her writing are "really weird" in terms of the grammar (Interview 2/15/19). Fernsten (2008) notes that ESL writers frequently accept others' judgement of incompetence as truth. By labeling her sentences as "weird" Ai appears to invoke ideologies of deficiency when her written language does not conform to native speaker conceptions of "standard" grammar.

Yubi's language socialization experiences

Experiences with Mandarin

Yubi's parents wanted her to have a strong education, so they sent her to the better "public" schools in her northern home city. Similarly to Ai, Yubi incurred experiences where "standard" Mandarin was strictly enforced in these schools: signs were posted on the walls of her school, stating "Mandarin only!" Yet adhering to this rule was not particularly difficult for Yubi, as she identifies her home/native variety as close to "standard" Mandarin. In her childhood hometown, located in the Jilin province of China, there is a local variety of Mandarin (Changchun) that is in use. However, Yubi does not consider herself a speaker of this local variety. Because both of her parents originated from other regions in China, they do not use the Changchun variety in their home.

While Yubi prefers to use a more standardized form of Mandarin, she emphasizes that the standard variety is especially difficult for most students to learn, and that students should not be forced to use it in schools. One story of a Canadian friend showcases Yubi's complex language acquisition ideologies about her L1 (King & Hermes, 2014). To this end, Yubi does not associate "nativeness" with greater proficiency in the standard variety of Mandarin. Even though Yubi grew up with Mandarin as her first language, she describes a Canadian friend who she believes demonstrates greater proficiency in the standard variety than she does. For the friend (who is of Chinese descent but spent much of his youth in Canada), English is like his "mother tongue". Even though the friend does not understand some of the local vocabulary that Yubi uses, she nonetheless regards him as a better speaker and writer of standard Mandarin. Even though Yubi prefers using a standardized variety of Mandarin in school, she believes that students should be able to use the language varieties they prefer:

> **E**: What do you think about that rule [enforcing Mandarin]?
> **Y**: Actually I prefer to study, and to speak Mandarin. I think it's because I can't speak dialect... But for some of persons maybe for the Cantonese students…they prefer to speak Cantonese.
> **E**: So do you think that for them, do you think that that rule is good or fair for those other students from the Cantonese background?
> **Y**: …I think the school shouldn't enforce students to choose which language they speak…that's why I don't want to attend Chinese university. (Interview, 12/20/19).

In this passage, Yubi suggests that language restrictions within the Chinese school system motivated her to pursue studies in the US. Through this perspective, Yubi rejects the Herderian principle of language unity, and grants legitimacy to language varieties that may carry stigmatization (Metz, 2018).

Other experiences with Chinese dialects

When Yubi was in high school, her family moved to the Southern Hainan province of China, because her father's employment was relocated. When Yubi first moved to Hainan, she experienced a lot of language discomfort given that Hainanese, a dialect which is not mutually intelligible to Mandarin, is widely used there. Initially, Yubi was resistant to learning the new

dialect and interacting with her Hainanese peers, fearing that they would exclude her. She spoke to her father about her newfound language anxieties, and he provided encouragement, explaining that she could ignore any peers that acted exclusionary toward her (Interview, 12/20/19). Wang and Jenkins (2016) note that intelligibility can "be a major concern" that feeds into the "acceptance or rejection of certain linguistic forms" (p. 53). While Yubi's fears about intelligibility and exclusion initially caused her to be "resistant" toward the new dialect, Yubi recalls that her negative perceptions about Hainanese dissipated over time:

> **Y**: When I spent some time with the Hainan students, I found they didn't like not want to talk to me. It's just like they think maybe I cannot speak their dialect and they don't want me to feel uncomfortable. So it's kind of a misunderstanding between peoples' communication.
> **E**: And you realized that over time.
> **Y**: Yes, and I think my idea or some opinion changed between this immigration from north to south. And after I graduate from Hainan, I attend school in America. Actually, I'm feel pretty thankful about the experience. (Interview, 12/20/19).

As scholars have noted, experience in intercultural communication plays not only an important role in attitudinal development, but also in helping learners to develop a deeper understanding of communicative attributes that foster intelligibility (Wang & Jenkins, 2016). Over time, Yubi realized that intelligibility was possible for her by adopting new communicative attitudes; her Hainanese peers were willing to speak to her in Mandarin, and communication with them provided her with an opportunity to learn some Hainanese words and phrases. Even though she does not know the dialect well, she still tries to use it a little bit whenever she returns to visit her family in Hainan (Interview, 12/20/19).

Yubi's intercultural communication experiences in Hainan appear to have contributed to a more open attitude toward Chinese dialects, as she describes her interactions with other Chinese students in the US similarly involve a disposition of learning and openness:

> **Y**: Most of the people I met in Westpond, they can speak Mandarin. So if they know that I can't speak Cantonese, or I can't speak Shanghainese, they will talk me to Mandarin. I think it's not hard for them because they learn like, more than 10 years, for Mandarin. Actually, I prefer, I think it's a good thing for them to speak Cantonese because I can learn Cantonese, and yeah, I think that I can take both: Mandarin or Cantonese. Because I

> can understand a little [Cantonese and] if they talk me like more times, I can learn them more.
> **E**: So you do like being able to learn Cantonese from speaking to them?
> **Y**: Yeah, I mean, I don't hate this language that I didn't learn before. I think it's a good experience to learn some new things. (Interview, 12/20/20).

Canagarajah (2007) notes that as multilinguals acclimate to communication in a Lingua Franca, "acquisition and use go hand in hand" and "a lot of learning takes place" (p. 927). This observation resonates with Yubi's open attitude toward Cantonese at Westpond University.

Other experiences learning English writing

Ai and Yubi's experiences and motivations for learning English while in China are different. While Ai explained that English learning was spurred from her parents' pre-determination that she study in the US, Yubi emphasized that she discovered her own desire to study in the US from a young age. Eventually Yubi convinced both parents to send her to the US for university studies. Her father agreed first, and then her mother, who was more reluctant, agreed later. Yubi desired this change because she believes the educational system in China is too strict and regulated. In Chinese universities, she thinks that there is too much emphasis on surveilling students' habits, and not enough emphasis on allowing students to learn self-discipline. Also, she thinks this surveillance creates an unhealthy and stressful atmosphere for learning. She wanted to go to the US to experience a less restrictive educational system.

Yubi exhibits both critical and dominant perspectives, when expressing her expectations for English writing instructors. On one hand, she believes that instructors' feedback should not only focus on grammar, but idea development:

> New ideas can let me think of another way to change my mind and I think it's more useful than just based on the grammars. (Interview, 2/22/19).

On the other hand, learning the grammar associated with "standard American English" also carries pragmatic salience for Yubi, meaning that linguistic alternants associated with standardized forms have social significance (Woolard, 1998). For example, Yubi recognizes that

the standard variety is "widely used, especially on paperwork" (Essay, 12/18/18), and she emphasizes that "grammar is important" for passing the TOEFL test (Interview, 2/22/19). She recalls that her college writing instructor emphasized essay structure rather than grammar. While she appreciated that the instructor did not penalize her grammar, she wishes that he had provided more grammar feedback to her. She explains grammar is especially important for her continued studies in the US. Even though Yubi has already taken the TOEFL test as part of her admission requirements to Westpond, she still intends to retake the writing portion of the TOEFL test so that she may to improve her score for future studies and university admissions; she believes that grammar matters substantially in the scoring process (Interview, 12/20/19). The "games" metaphor, explained by Duff (2020) is useful for understanding Yubi's dominant language ideology from a language socialization perspective. The metaphor asserts that the "rules of the game" are not the same for all demographics of learners (p. 251). Within the US contexts, newcomers remain "agents of socialization" who often must play by certain rules (especially when the stakes are high) to gain acceptance within new cultures (p. 251).

Like Ai, Yubi's experience in the 102 writing course was different from her experience in 101. Most of her classmates in 102 were domestic, and her instructor assigned her to work with a domestic student for the duration of the semester. This American-born student provided her with a lot of useful grammar suggestions, which she accepted and appreciated. However, she recalls that she also valued befriending and learning from the only other Chinese student in this class:

> We are not a partner in our class, but after class we're good friends. We usually go downtown to eat some hotpot and we'll talk with each other. But I think the way she speaks English, or she learn English [is valuable]. She told me the first time she came to America, to the high schools there, some ways like to learn English. She watched a lot of helpful movies and she has a little notebook; she showed that to me, like some expressions in the movies? (Interview, 12/20/19).

In this instance, Yubi expresses that there is value from learning English with other international peers, as she may pick up some new words and expressions from them, which she can use in her

writing. For multilinguals who embrace English as a Lingua Franca, Canagarajah (2007) asserts that learning continuously takes place because they "monitor the form and conventions the other brings", and "learn to ascribe meanings" to them (p. 927).

Summary

This chapter included a theoretical discussion of critical language awareness, as well as a practical discussion of my specific approaches to CLA in the context of ENG 101. I explained that as a pedagogy, CLA approaches foreground the workings of language ideology in the writing curriculum, whereas other approaches to writing instruction deemphasize or naturalize the workings of dominant language ideologies. However, teachers and students can embrace both dominant and critical perspectives on language simultaneously. I also highlighted the explanatory power of theories of language socialization in situating and understanding students' expectations and beliefs about L2 writing.

In the later sections of this chapter, I represented the competing ideologies that two students displayed about learning to read, write, and speak English as a second language in their persuasive writing. Drawing on language socialization theories and case study methodologies, I revealed how and why these two L2 students came to hold such contradicting ideologies about second language acquisition processes. Ai, who grew up in the capital city of China, believed that schools should not teach non-dominant forms of English to L2 learners. Case study analysis showed that Ai held similar beliefs across her languages. She similarly regarded standard Mandarin as the best variety and expressed a lack of interest in the heritage dialects spoken by earlier generations in her family. Meanwhile, Yubi, who experienced a cross-country immigration from northern to southern China during her youth, believed that schools should embrace language variation in English. Case study analysis showed that Yubi cultivated positive attitudes toward L1 dialects after her family's immigration, and expressed interest in learning not only Hainanese, but also Cantonese.

Because both learners experienced a CLA-informed curriculum in ENG 101, I ultimately argue in this chapter that L2 learners' ideologies, expectations, and prior experiences represent forces to be reckoned with in any critical language or writing curriculum. As a critically minded language instructor, I offer that gaining deeper insights into the attitudes, experiences, and expectations that L2 writers bring into the classroom can be especially useful for instructors who desire to implement a critical language pedagogy. Information about students' language socialization experiences—i.e. with standardization and intercultural communication—is important for teachers. For any language curriculum focused on variation, it is important for teachers to learn about students' preexisting beliefs so that these may be addressed in subsequent instruction. As Metz (2018) offers, one of the "primary tenants" of a culturally and linguistically "relevant pedagogy is the incorporation of student knowledge and experiences in instruction" (p. 9). Therefore, even when students' beliefs and experiences are in tension with the pedagogical discourse (Park, 2008), teachers should nonetheless create supportive opportunities for students to express their beliefs and experiences, and encourage students to engage in perspective taking—this includes learning by taking seriously competing ideological perspectives.

CHAPTER 7
DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

In the previous two findings Chapters (5-6) of this self-study research, I have considered different research questions, and I have adopted different research methods. However, underpinning these distinctive chapters are common epistemological and ontological foundations. Critical language awareness (CLA) emerges as the epistemology for research and pedagogy, and teacher feedback as the research ontology. As I discussed at greater length in Chapter 2, CLA is a pedagogical approach to language that seeks to raise learners' awareness of the ideological processes that are associated with language use and conventions. In the context of writing instruction, the goal of critical language study is to help students develop a critical consciousness surrounding language; this includes the meanings, practices, values, judgements, or conventions that users associate with language use and forms. The CLA project therefore involves students in challenging and questioning dominant linguistic practices (Fairclough, 1992). It involves affirming and elevating the languages and language varieties that are non-dominant or marginalized within a particular context, and empowering those who draw upon such varieties (Clark & Ivanič, 1997). Meanwhile, teacher feedback has been defined in different ways across composition studies. Throughout this dissertation, I have drawn upon sociocultural concepts to delineate teacher feedback as affordance for linguistic action which is presented to the student writer through scaffolding—i.e. individualized and semiotically-mediated guidance on a writing task (van Lier, 2004).

This concluding chapter attempts to both summarize and synthesize the previous chapters of this dissertation, while offering implications for future pedagogy and research. I begin by reviewing the research questions posed in Chapter 1. Subsequently, I discuss some highlights of the research findings. Since critical language awareness is a pedagogical theory, this discussion leads me to make some assertions about CLA as a theory, and also to offer some broader

implications for CLA-informed pedagogy. My pedagogical assertions relate to teachers' provision of local and more global forms of feedback, and to teachers' consideration of learners' language socialization experiences in the context of a critical language curriculum. I conclude the chapter by identifying some of the limitations of this study, explaining how I have sought to address limitations, and offer self-study researchers directions for their future projects in research and curricular development.

Review of the Research Questions

A strength of the self-study research design is the flexibility it has granted me to pose research questions that concern my own practice, and to address these questions using different approaches which aim to transform my practice (Hamilton & Pinnegar, 1998). Resultantly, I have posed multiple questions related to my teaching practices and I have considered differing units of analysis.

Centering upon CLA and teacher feedback, this self-study has focused on two major concerns, and therefore has two main analytic foci. Firstly, I inquired about how CLA informs my approaches to writing instruction; this especially includes the decisions I made as I provided feedback to students on their writing. With this area of inquiry, analyses focused upon myself as an object of study, as I was involved in a reflective development of my praxis. Praxis is a process that regards theory and teaching practice as inseparable. Praxis involves teachers in a reflection of their practice through engagement with theory, and subsequently in transforming their practices through action in the classroom (Kubota & Miller, 2017). To consider the self as a unit of analysis, I centered upon my pedagogical choices, my feedback to student writers, and my reflection upon teaching.

I addressed this first area of inquiry in both of the findings chapters. In Chapter 5, I considered how CLA and other complementary theories (i.e. sociocultural theories of second language development) informed my decisions to provide localized and corrective feedback to

my students, and I described concrete strategies I implemented in relation to localized feedback. In Chapter 6, I broadened my focus to other areas of instruction, considering how CLA informed the approaches I took particularly within a persuasive writing unit, where I asked students to develop their own stances on the issue of language (i.e. difference, education, assessment, policy, discrimination, etc.). Also, engaging in praxis-based discussion I reconciled with some of the tensions and apparent contradictions in my feedback practices; to this end, I introduced CLA as one sociopolitical discourse about learning to write, and explained that most teachers will draw upon multiple discourses about learning to write even within one lesson (Ivanič, 2004). By including this discussion, I hoped that readers could recognize the tensions and contradictions emerging during instruction as an inevitable part of implementing a CLA curriculum. That is to say, while writing teachers implement CLA objectives amongst other objectives, some of their pedagogical practices might not align with CLA.

The second major concern of this dissertation was upon the student writers themselves. In broad terms, I considered how student writers (especially L2 writers) responded and interacted with the CLA-informed teacher feedback they received from me. This broader area of inquiry resulted in an exploration of different units of analysis. In Chapter 5, I first inquired about students' perceptions toward localized feedback. I explored students' perceptions through a think-aloud protocol, asking students to revisit feedback points they had received, and state their reactions, perceptions, and understandings about it. However, in Chapter 5, my unit of analysis shifted between a) students' perceptions toward specific feedback points, and b) the textual characteristics of their written responses to feedback. In other words, I was concerned both with student perceptions and attitudes toward feedback, and with students' uptake and revision in relation to feedback. In Chapter 6, a continued area of inquiry involved textual analysis of students' written responses to feedback in its more globalized forms. Yet in this chapter I also shifted between multiple units of analysis relating to the learners themselves. As a starting point, I

examined the language ideologies that two focal learners communicated in their written and oral responses to CLA informed instruction. As the study progressed, I became interested in more deeply understanding these students' expressed language ideologies, and I inquired further into their prior language socialization and language learning experiences in their L1 and L2.

Discussion of the Findings

This self-study has led me to some tentative assertions about a) how CLA informs the different levels of teacher feedback on student writing, and b) the ways teachers can consider students' language socialization experiences in a critical language curriculum. While there is undoubtable overlap and fluidity between different levels of feedback, I distinguished feedback as potentially emerging on three levels in Chapter 2: locally-oriented, meso-oriented, and globally-oriented. To distinguish the level in which a teacher's commentary occurs, the analyst needs to consider the location of the comment, and the revision goal which the instructor had in mind for the student, as shown in Table 15. First, I'll offer some assertions about CLA and localized feedback.

Feedback type	Location of comment in students' text	Revision goal for the student
1 Locally-oriented feedback	an isolated location	likely isolated to one location in the text
2 Meso-oriented feedback		not necessarily isolated to one location
3 Globally-oriented feedback	does not correspond to one location	Not isolated to one location in the text

Table 15 Three levels of teacher feedback

Localized feedback: Pedagogical implications

In Chapter 2, I offered two distinctive examples of feedback strategies which can be locally-oriented. One localized intervention prompts the student to use words or phrases in a non-dominant language or language variety, inviting the student to "codemesh" (Canagarajah, 2011).

This form of feedback can be generative in nature, as it invites the student to add additional text within a specific location. The second form of locally-oriented feedback is more corrective than generative in nature, and involves students in amending a linguistic form that deviates from the grammatical rules of the target language (D. R. Ferris, 2011). From the beginning of the study, I recognized codemeshing as an act aligning with CLA, and there were multiple occasions when I invited students to codemesh through my written commentary.

However, there were a few reasons that I elected to focus Chapter 5 on corrective feedback rather than codemeshing. Firstly, I did not think I could make a novel argument about codemeshing; it seemed more readily apparent that codemeshing can index CLA, and this topic has already been explored by other scholars in the composition field (i.e. Canagarajah, 2011; Machado & Hartman, 2019; Smith et al., 2017; Toth, 2013). Secondly, inviting students to codemesh was not something I could do in a systematic manner through feedback. At certain times, it seemed appropriate to invite students to codemesh (i.e. when they were describing their experiences using a language or language variety distinguishable from dominant forms of English). At other times, asking students to codemesh did not seem fitting to their purpose. In this regard, Canagarjah (2013) explains code-meshing as a rhetorical strategy that needs to be taken in measure; it may not always be appropriate for writers to codemesh as they take other concerns of academic writing into consideration (i.e. the topic at hand, their readers' expectations/knowledge, academic conventions). Gevers (2018) further offers that L2 student writers may not always desire to mesh all their linguistic resources together in writing, particularly "if they find themselves in an environment where they are perceived as cultural or linguistic outsiders" (p. 75-76). Even when students do desire to codemesh, some scholars caution that the unwavering valorization of meshed writing carries the unwanted effect of exoticization or "linguistic tourism" (Matsuda, 2014, p. 483 as cited in Schreiber & Watson, 2018). Matsuda's (2014) concern became evident to me at one point during the study when I invited a Chinese student, Luan, to codemesh

in her narrative writing. Luan identified Mandarin as her L1 and had written an essay describing communication challenges occurring between Mandarin and Cantonese during her travels to Hong Kong. In response to my codemeshing comment, Luan added new dialogue to her essay in Cantonese. However, she later recalled in her end-of-unit reflection that she could not understand Cantonese and needed to use a translator to incorporate the meshed text in her essay (Luan's Unit 1 Reflection, 9/24/18). Therefore, even when codemeshing seems appropriate, instructors still need to consider the implications that are associated with the act itself. In some cases, codemeshing could involve the writer in taking a touristic approach to an unfamiliar language or language variety.

Therefore, while I did not feel warranted to ask all students to codemesh in a consistent manner, I did feel able to provide a limited amount of corrective feedback to students in a more systematic fashion. As I describe at length in Chapter 5, my indirect approach invited students to problem solve a perceived "error" by investigating a related grammatical topic in their course textbook, *EasyWriter*. Subsequently, I was later able to explore each focal learners' perceptions about such localized feedback during think-aloud protocols.

I assert here that CLA can inform instructors' provision of corrective feedback when certain conditions are met to linguistically empower student writers as decision makers and owners of their texts. I recognize this assertion as potentially a controversial one and so I will first provide further explanation for how I have arrived at it. While Clark and Ivanič (1997) claim that one of the central tenants of CLA is learner empowerment, it is important to mention that "empowerment" is by no means a concept that is universal and can even be considered as a concept that is contested. One reason empowerment cannot be understood as universal is because individual learners have different interests and needs in relation to what activities they find to be potentially empowering in the classroom. For instance, when it comes to the activity of codemeshing which I mentioned previously, some learners may become empowered—or in other

words, feel that their ethnolinguistically diverse selves are affirmed and enabled when they are encouraged to blend their different linguistic resources together in their writing. Yet others may still be developing the prerequisite awareness that is called for when deliberately instituting such meshing practices. Moreover, other students may simply not desire to engage in this sort of activity in relation to their goals as emerging academic writers (Canagarajah, 2011; Gevers, 2018; Kubota & Lehner, 2004; Schreiber & Watson, 2018). Given the variation in students' interests and goals, the only way to arrive at a universal definition of empowerment could be to define it in broad terms—such as expanding students' capacity to act effectively as writers. However, when empowerment is defined in this broad way as to focus on the individual, the concept may fail to challenge any particular sociopolitical system, institution or group that exacerbates social inequities and inequitable power relations (Ellsworth, 1989).

Even when we accept "empowerment" as an ideal that will vary from learner to learner, other scholars have cautioned that the term has been invoked far too often in educational practice, as to become a buzzword that is void of theoretical and emancipatory meaning. For instance, the term has been adapted in neoliberal and management discourses (Archibald & Wilson, 2011). Furthermore, when the concept has been applied in the classroom as an ideal for equitable dialogue and interactional exchanges, Ellsworth (1989) has noted that it can be used in an illusory way, whereby actual power imbalances are not adequately addressed and acknowledged, and authoritative teacher-student power relationships remain undisrupted. Therefore, it seems that in the context of critical language study, an emphasis on learner empowerment entails effort on the part of the teacher to disrupt power hierarchies and redistribute power in ways that are more equitable for learners.

Working more specifically within a CLA framework, Clark and Ivanič (1997), explain that learner empowerment will occur at the personal and individual level because critical language study provides learners "with a critical analytic framework to help them reflect on their

own language experiences and practices" (p. 217). These authors go on to say that "learners have to decide whether to accommodate all or some of the dominant practices … which they encounter, or to challenge these by adopting alternative practices" (p. 217). In other words, Clark and Ivanič's (1997) description of learner empowerment (via CLA) appears to foreground learners' own decision making and agency. Therefore, CLA invites active decision making about whether to accommodate the dominant linguistic practice that is associated with the corrective feedback learners receive. This leads to other pedagogical quandaries: How can instructors support students in this active decision-making process? Should the instructor even play a role in increasing students' awareness of dominant linguistic practices? In this dissertation, I have taken the stance that instructors hold a responsibility for increasing students' awareness of both dominant and non-dominant linguistic practices. It is especially important for learners who experience linguistically marginalization to gain access to the power that accompanies dominant forms (Delpit, 1988). As I will discuss in the next section, teachers may heighten students' awareness and affinity for non-dominant linguistic practices through meso- and global-oriented feedback. Meanwhile, because an instructor's localized feedback represents their response (i.e. their perception of an "error" or a pattern in error) as it relates specifically to the individual learner, I interpreted it as the primary mechanism to draw learners' attention to dominant linguistic forms.

In Chapter 5, I found that students appeared to exercise agency as writers as they responded to the localized feedback they received from me. They had complex and multiple perceptions about corrective feedback, which were influenced by their prior learning experiences, and they experienced challenges particularly in working with the indirect implicit feedback they received, because such comments did not provide them with quick, straightforward fixes. Yet all four featured focal students expressed positive perceptions toward my indirect comments, noting the opportunities for problem solving and learning that emerged through their engagement with

the feedback and subsequent investigations in their textbook. Moreover, in terms of revision, all four students exercised agency as writers; after receiving corrective feedback on an individual sentence, all four made changes to their sentences which fell outside of the grammatical or mechanical issue which I had directed them to consider in their textbook. At the same time, students were attentive to the pragmatic nature of my comments and they had different interpretations about my intent (Goldstein, 2005). Dulari for instance was not "successful" in her uptake of one corrective comment, meaning that she did not address the error type that I perceived. Yet, later I discovered that Dulari had not ignored the comment, but rather was attuned to its suggestive nature. While reencountering the comment, Dulari explained my intent during a think-aloud: "I think you didn't wanna impose any of the ideas or objective that you have. Instead, you wanted us to have our own idea of rephrasing the sentence." Therefore, even without "successful" uptake, Dulari appeared to have been empowered as a writer; she maintained a sense of control of whether or not to accommodate dominant linguistic practices, and she verbalized the sense of autonomy she maintained (Clark & Ivanič, 1997; Shapiro et al., 2016).

Learner empowerment was apparent to me not only through the agentive ways students responded to my corrective feedback, but also as students vocally advocated for their needs as writers to me during interviews, thereby disrupting traditional SCT conceptions of scaffolding, which presume that the teacher assumes the role of the more knowledgeable other (Britton & Austin, 2020a). Ai for instance, expressed some frustration with my scaffolded and implicit feedback as she attempted to self-identify changes to her syntax by reading the *EasyWriter* grammar manual (where my corrective comments had directed her). She noted that without receiving explicit corrective feedback, it was difficult to make changes to her sentences because "we don't use some of this [English] grammar" in Mandarin. Through this comment, it became evident to me that expertise was not unilateral between us, and that I too as the teacher could develop new linguistic understandings (Merkel, 2018) as Ai's comment increased my awareness

of how the Mandarin grammar system works. Similarly, Hermant's empowerment as a learner became evident during scaffolded exchange between us, which focused on the concept of a parallelism (see chapter 5, extract 13). Upon gaining an understanding of the concept, power relations between Hemant and me shifted as he vocalized his needs and desired actions as a writer. In other words, Hemant appeared to be empowered as a writer when he advocated to me that as an instructor, I have a responsibility to provide further correction and/or explanation when students do not uptake successfully. He mentioned, "I feel that in these particular situations, [when] I don't correct [the issue identified], I would definitely expect you to tell me directly." While Vanessa did not offer a critique of my localized feedback practices, she similarly expressed critique about the timing and manner with which other teachers had provided her feedback. Therefore, with all students, it seemed that the retrospective think-aloud protocols surrounding feedback practices provided opportunities for empowering learners as writers by disrupting traditional power hierarchies and student-teacher roles; these think-alouds provided opportunities for students to exercise their expertise as learners and enabled me to assume the role of learner.

Therefore, I assert that a CLA curriculum (which raises learners' awareness of both non-dominant and dominant language forms) can be complementary to instructors' provision of corrective feedback when such feedback aims to empower learners' choice making, involvement, and agency surrounding uptake of dominant language forms. Instructors can adopt several strategies to empower their learners' choice making surrounding language forms. Firstly, students are better equipped to make decisions about corrective comments when the instructor has established continuity between their classroom activities and individualized response strategies (Goldstein, 2005). In Chapter 5, I described classroom activities where students practiced providing peer-to-peer implicit corrective feedback which mirrored my own strategies. During those activities, I stressed to students that their comments were suggestive only, as the writer maintained the decision whether or not to accept their change. Secondly, instructors can take

measures to ensure clear lines of communication with students about their needs and preferences in relation to feedback forms and elicit conversations with students about their experiences with corrective feedback (Goldstein, 2005). Findings from my own conversations with students reveal that such communications can create opportunities for co-constructing knowledge about learning and revealing multiple experiential truths about feedback (Halquist & Musanti, 2010). Thirdly, in order to truly empower learners, I assert that instructors need to be mindful of the power dynamics that surround the corrective feedback process. While Dulari appeared liberated not to take my suggestion, this will not hold true for all learners, as there are inevitable power dynamics that cannot be equalized (Kang & Dykema, 2017). Despite the instructors' equalizing intentions, L2 writers have for instance expressed anxieties about receiving low grades in relation to instructor feedback (Best et al., 2015). Instructors can ameliorate some of these anxieties and redistribute power in the classroom by reconsidering their own grading policies and rubrics. Grading rubrics can be amended to prioritize meaning-making between the writer and reader above adherence to language conventions, and rubrics can include language that encourages writers to draw upon their full linguistic repertories with creativity in their language production (Balester, 2012).

Meso-oriented feedback: Pedagogical implications

In the previous section, I suggested that localized feedback could be re-configured as the primary mechanism instructors use to heighten learners' awareness of dominant linguistic practices, and that meso- and global-oriented feedback could be imagined as mechanisms to heighten students' awareness and affinity for non-dominant linguistic practices. Meso-oriented feedback is perhaps the most common type of commenting strategy instructors utilize, because such comments correspond to one location in the text, but the goal for revision may not be isolated to the text.

In Fairclough's (1992) early edited volume *Critical language awareness*, some practitioners provided examples of meso-oriented feedback strategies which they deemed were also informed by CLA. While I did not focus on these proffered strategies in the findings chapters, they have nonetheless contributed to the feedback approaches I implemented during this study, and so it is important to briefly discuss them here. One strategy functions to heighten students' awareness of the relationship between their written language and identity production. In general terms, this strategy helps students to recognize writing as an act of identity (Ivanič, 1998). More specifically, instructors might question students about their impersonal writing style or lack of first person pronouns (Clark, 1992; for further discussion see Chapter 2). In fact, Clark (1992) explains that probing students about their self-referential and representational choices facilitates their empowerment. In Clark's (1992) view, learner empowerment means increasing awareness of where certain academic writing conventions come from and what effects these conventions create so that students may better know "how they feel about them" (p. 118), and be liberated from manipulation by them. As I have written and revised these dissertation chapters, I too have been asked to reconsider my own self-referential choices as a student writer, and to confront what has at times been my own reluctance to write in the first person. As I take up Clark's (1992) encouragement to reflect on how I feel about omission of the first person—as one widely adopted academic writing practice, I certainly have a preference to use the first person in my own texts and hold the belief that use of the first person supports writers in conveying to their readers a) greater levels of clarity, b) a stronger writerly voice and c) compelling narrative. However, like my students, I have at times struggled to embrace the vulnerabilities I associate with continuously placing myself in the text. Even after gaining much practice using the first person through self-study, I still regard it to be a less conventional practice (even in educational sciences) and find it challenging to consistently integrate it. Along these lines, some scholars (associated with Fairclough's original volume), regard CLA as an exercise in raising students' awareness about

how various writing activities—such as use of the first person—construct their identity (Clark & Ivanič, 1999; Ivanič, 2005).

However chapter 2, I have distinguished this pedagogical emphasis on self-representation and discoursal choices as a "promising approach" to language awareness, that is compatible to CLA, while distinguishing CLA as an exercise focused on a different type of awareness raising—one that involves students in "questioning the social processes of domination through which standardized language varieties come to have more legitimacy than stigmatized language varieties" (Britton & Lorimer Leonard, 2020, p. 3) to focus content on concerns of power, inequality, and dominance (Janks, 2000; Pennycook, 2010). Whether CLA focuses more broadly on development awareness of identity construction (rather more specifically than linguistic identity construction) remains an open question that future composition researchers to consider.

Since my own interpretation of CLA has focused more on the social processes of domination associated with language variation, language standardization, and language acquisition I mention only briefly here some of the strategies I adopted based on Clark and Ivanič's (1999) promising work as practitioners. Over the course of this study, many students informed me that their previous writing teachers prohibited them from using the first person in their writing. In response, I often invited students to write freely in the first person, even across different genres of writing. Furthermore, I noticed that students tended to veer into the impersonal type of writing that Clark (1992) describes during the rhetorical analysis curricular unit. In composition textbooks, this genre is often presented to students not as a form of self-analysis, but rather as an outward form of analysis that uncovers the sort of moves another author is making, and postulates about the effects such moves might have on a broader audience (i.e. Gagich & Zickel, 2018). While students' "impersonal" writing style during this unit was understandable, I invoked Clark and Ivanič's (1999)'s conception of CLA by inviting students to consider the ways that their own identities and positionalities impacted their reading and interpretations of their

focal texts. To this end, I provided students with sentence starter templates to help them consider their identity in relation to their interpretation of the text. One such template read as follows: "While this essay strongly appeals to me because of my _____ background, the essay may not appeal to other _____ readers because of _____" (Class Handout, 3/18/19). As a result, some students wrote rhetorical analyses which were far more personal in their nature.[14]

In Chapter 6, I offered examples of meso-oriented strategies I provided to Ai and Yubi during a persuasive essay writing unit which focused on language difference and variation; the pedagogical implication is that other instructors could implement similar strategies under a CLA framework. Readers will recall that both students considered the following question in their persuasive essays: "Should students learn about different varieties of English in schools?" In response to the question, Ai assumed a dominant linguistic stance, while Yubi assumed a critical linguistic stance. Meanwhile, both students made references to "Chinglish" as a non-dominant variety of English in their essays. Attentive to this, I asked both students to provide specific explanations of how Chinglish differs from other linguistic forms; I encouraged Yubi to contrast Chinglish with standardized forms of English, and I asked Ai to contrast Chinglish with standardized forms of Mandarin. While it is clear that this type of commenting fosters students' language awareness (i.e. attentiveness to pragmatic, syntactic or lexical differences between languages or language varieties), readers may question the extent to which the comment fosters criticality. Drawing on Svalberg (2007), I however assert that criticality is not a binary matter. In other words, the analyst cannot make strong assertions that a particular commenting strategy does or does not foster students' criticality. Yet perhaps the analyst can more tentatively assert that a particular commenting strategy fosters students' criticality to a degree (i.e. a greater or lesser extent). When I asked the two students to draw comparisons between Chinglish and other

[14] I explore the identity and language production of one student, Wang, during the rhetorical analysis unit at greater length in a forthcoming manuscript. This manuscript is currently under review in *Linguistics and Education* journal.

dominant linguistic forms, I was not overtly asking them to focus on issues of discrimination, sociolinguistic inequity, power, or ideology.

Nonetheless, I assert that this contrastive commenting strategy is still informed by CLA as a theory, and the strategy could even support students' CLA when contextual factors are taken into consideration: first of all, development of CLA is contingent upon which languages and language varieties are considered dominant and non-dominant in the context of instruction. In the context of this study, standardized English was the dominant variety, and Chinglish was a non-dominant variety of English. Mandarin too could be considered as a non-dominant language in the instructional context. If my study were situated in a different social context, the statuses of these varieties may be different. Other contextual factors relate to the positionalities of the students and myself; we were positioned to the setting and to the concerned language varieties in different ways. In other words, I provided these contrastive comments in a particular context (i.e. an English writing program), as a particular person (a white "native" English speaker who does not have fluency in Mandarin), to particular students (Asian L2 English learners with fluency in Mandarin). Therefore, other writing instructors may also consider this commenting strategy to be within the rubric of CLA because it meets the objective of learner empowerment (Clark & Ivanič, 1997). The strategy affirms the multilingual identity of the learners by inviting them to draw upon their L1 expertise. As an instructor prompts a student to draw upon their expertise in a non-dominant variety, their invitation appears to elevate the currency of that variety, thereby meeting the objectives of CLA. This seemed especially evident in the case of Ai. Even while Ai upheld the superior status of standardized Mandarin and English in her essay, she nonetheless later identified her contrastive passage (added after my comment) as the "favorite" passage of her essay (Ai's unit reflection, 12/11/18). In her new passage, Ai provided a grammatical explanation for the Chinglish phrase "not waste money that way"; she used a contrastive approach to explain how the phrase corresponds to the Mandarin grammar system. It seems therefore that having the

opportunity to articulate her L1 knowledge may have supported her in developing a positive identity as a multilingual.

Interestingly, Ai's dominant linguistic stance about English language variation and acquisition led me to try out two other feedback strategies. I characterize these strategies as falling somewhere between meso- and global-oriented strategies, and I assert that other instructors may similarly implement them within a CLA framework. My first strategy was quite generic; I invited Ai to include a counter argument within her essay, explaining that a reader whose viewpoints differ from her own may be more willing to embrace her argument if she acknowledges other points of view. Even though my comment was generic, it nonetheless aligned with CLA, given the content of Ai's essay. Since Ai advocated that students must only learn about the standard variety of English in school, asking her to supply a counter argument prompted her to think through more critical linguistic perspectives, and to genuinely consider why some learners may want to learn about non-dominant varieties of English. Resultantly, Ai distinguished native English speakers as the group of learners best poised to learn about linguistic variation, and non-native English learners as those who need to learn the standard variety of English only (Ai's final essay, 12/11/18) Any instructor can easily adopt the "counter argument" commenting strategy with students who take dominant linguistic perspectives in their writing. The second strategy was more specific to Ai's writing. Ai claimed that standard forms of Mandarin hold the "highest status" in China. In response, I asked Ai to further consider (i.e. explain, interrogate) the idea that one language has a high status, and I asked her to think about the relationship between "high status language" and "social inequities", i.e. "Does having a high-status language create any social inequities for those who do not have access to it?" In Chapter 6, I interpreted resistance to be manifested in Ai's response to this comment, and offered that Ai's views on the matter did not seem to transform through my comments (Mezirow, 1990). Nonetheless, I offer to other

instructors that any comment which invites students to think about language status in relation to social systems of inequity falls under the rubric of CLA.

Global-oriented feedback: Pedagogical implications

I imagine global-oriented feedback as another mechanism to heighten students' attention and affinity for non-dominant linguistic practices. Yet global-oriented comments are perhaps the hardest to distinguish as they do not correspond to just one location in the student's text. As I reflect back upon the comments I have given students that are both global in nature and informed CLA objectives, I can distinguish two types of global-oriented comments.

The first type of comment asks the student to think about the structure and linguistic content of their essay simultaneously. The comment draws students' attention to the linguistic arguments/ideas posed across different paragraphs and invites the student to think about how the paragraphs work together. In Chapter 2, I provided one example of this strategy which occurred during a meeting I had with one student, Jing. Jing had written an essay which argued in his introduction that "people use language as a weapon to discriminate [against] those people who speak imperfect English or other languages" (Jing's revised draft, 4/25/19). In the second paragraph of his essay, Jing described the "prescriptive" approach to English instruction, as he experienced it in China. In the third paragraph, Jing shifted topic to focus on instances of discrimination against those who speak "unperfect English" (Revised draft, 4/25/19). The main ideas that Jing put forward in paragraphs 2 and 3 both seemed to be important, yet they also seemed a bit disconnected. Therefore, my global comment invited Jing to think about how the paragraphs work together to support his argument. During our meeting, I told Jing, "You have a body paragraph focused on prescriptivism, and you also have a body paragraph focused on language discrimination. What is the relationship between these two paragraphs? How might you help readers to see this relationship?" While writing instructors may often invoke similar sorts of global comments to help students consider the organization of their writing (Rahimi, 2013), this

comment also invokes CLA. This is because it drew attention both to the structure, and the preexisting critical linguistic content of Jing's essay simultaneously. However, as I reflect back on my practice, this type of global comment was less common.

More often in my discussions with students, my global comments involved posing a rhetorical question to the student—i.e. asking a question for which I did not expect or require an immediate answer. While students could certainly attempt to answer my rhetorical questions during our meetings (i.e. thereby brainstorming essay ideas during our time together), I posed these questions to suggest directions for critical explorations of language—including the learning, use, forms, values, communities, or attachments that users associate with language. Rhetorical questions may include the earlier comment I posed to Ai, i.e. Does the existence of a high-status language create any social inequities for those who do not have access to it? In Chapter 2, I included some other rhetorical questions I have posed to students: Who would benefit the most in a world where everyone must learn English? To what extent were foreign languages valued in your school or community? It is important to note that I posed these questions after students had drafted ideas and articulated more dominant stances essays. Yet this form of global commenting is distinctive from the comments that attend to structure and organization in the student's essay. Rather than focusing on organization or attending to the flow of pre-existing ideas, underlying these rhetorical questions is a common interest in idea generation and development. They are supposed to help the student generate/invent/formulate new ideas for their texts. Therefore, I return to the definition of feedback that I offered in Chapter 2—feedback is any affordance which is presented to student writers through pedagogical scaffolding (van Lier, 2004). With this definition in mind, much of the CLA-oriented feedback that teachers provide may fall into the domain of idea development—i.e. assisting students in developing ideas pertaining to language that are realized across different paragraphs of a composition (Salija, 2017).

Therefore, this self-study has helped me to recognize that CLA-oriented feedback occurs not only after students have drafted their essays, but also before they have done so. Equally integral to a CLA curriculum are the scaffolded curricular activities that instructors lead students through in the earlier stages of the writing process. These pre-drafting CLA activities can provide multiple opportunities for students to engage in ideological stance-taking through the writing process. I do not regard CLA activities as imposing a particular ideological stance on students, but rather as providing a space to think through their emerging stances on issues related to language (i.e. diversity, acquisition, variation, standardization education, policy, assessment, discrimination, etc. For this reason, I have documented in Chapters 5 and 6 the variety readings, and multimodal materials which I introduced to students, which facilitated their generation of ideas and invention in the pre-drafting stages (Díez-Prados & Cabrejas-Peñuelas, 2017). Only with sufficient interaction with CLA content, were students able to develop, articulate, and further specify their critical linguistic stances as writers. CLA objectives were therefore advanced through a variety of relevant course readings, videos, and writing prompts. These prompts directed students to focus on the content of course materials, and make meaning of them through linguistic encoding (Cho, 2019). Yet even with the guidance students received during prewriting activities, I recognized that students may need further direction to take up critical linguistic inquiries as they moved into planning and drafting their essays (Huang, 2012). For this reason, the list of potential inquiry questions I supplied to students before drafting (Appendix G) was perhaps the most important element of the persuasive writing unit. The list of questions functioned to focus students' inquiries upon the immediate concerns of critical language study—developing ideas and articulating personal experiences surrounding issues of language.

Language socialization: Pedagogical implications

At this juncture in the chapter, my discussion of pedagogical implications shifts; previously, the chapter has largely focused on the mechanics of CLA-informed teacher feedback. In this section, I will discuss pedagogical implications related to language socialization theory, which became fitting as a framework as this self-study progressed, and I further analyzed the content of learners' texts. In Chapter 6, I revealed contrasting ideological perspectives that the two focal learners (Ai and Yubi) exhibited on the role of variation in English language learning during a persuasive writing unit. Ai appeared to express dominant language ideologies in her written and spoken discourse, while Yubi assumed more critical ideological perspectives. How did these learners arrive at such competing perspectives? Language socialization theory posits that learners become socialized into certain values about language; learners develop language ideologies through learning apprenticeships, which occur over the lifespan and involve a variety of an environmental factors and persons (Duff, 2020; Ochs & Schieffelin, 2012; Sterponi, 2012). In this section, I therefore recognize that self-study has expanded my own understandings about the instructor's own roles in the context of a critical language curriculum. Before I engaged in this self-study, I envisioned the critical language instructor's role more narrowly than I do now; I believed the instructor would facilitate students' critical language inquiries primarily by 1) selecting materials (i.e. readings, videos, assignments, activities), 2) providing opportunities for students to respond to the selected materials in a variety of formats (i.e. in-class writing, online discussion boards, peer and classroom discussions), and 3) probing students' critical thinking and ideological stance-taking via individualized feedback on writing. These three activities placed me in the role of director or facilitator of learning. I did not however recognize the extent to which a critical language curriculum could be enhanced as I additionally placed myself in the role of learner about my students' experiences and histories. Through this self-study, I have come to recognize the importance of learning about my students' language socialization experiences (both

in the L1 and the L2) so that I can be more responsive to the ideological tensions that emerge during critical language study and recognize the classroom as a productive space for negotiation of perspective. Therefore, while self-study led me to take an extended opportunity to explore Ai and Yubi's learning histories in greater depth outside of the curriculum, the implication is that these inquiries can become more embedded into the critical language curriculum. I, as well as other teachers, can take on the role of learner by enabling students to create written artifacts documenting their L1 and L2 socialization. In order to elaborate on possible assignment prompts, I will first review some details of Ai's and Yubi's language socialization experiences.

Ai had various socialization experiences with Mandarin (her L1) which impacted her understandings about English language acquisition. Ai associated non-standard Chinese dialects with poverty, lack of education, and even rudeness. While Ai grew up in Beijing, the capital city of China, where she learned standard forms of Mandarin in her school and home life, a deeper look into her family lineage revealed that Ai has a heritage Chinese dialect (not mutually intelligible to Mandarin), which was still in use amongst her paternal relatives. However, Ai's paternal side of the family became more disconnected with the heritage dialect when her grandfather emigrated from the Gansu province of China to Beijing during her father's youth. While her grandfather used a "dialect" he was "very poor" and wanted to ensure a better future for his family (Interview, 2/15/19). Ai therefore associated standard Mandarin as the language ensuring the best opportunities, and she believed that the family dialect is not essential to learn, because it will eventually become extinct (Interview, 12/19/19). Ai therefore explained that the same logic applies to different "dialects" of English; she believes it is most important to learn standard English (Interview, 2/15/19).

Meanwhile, Yubi had a different set of experiences with Chinese language varieties during her youth, which impacted her more pluralistic viewpoints toward English language variation. Like Ai, Yubi identified her L1 as close to standard Mandarin. Ai spent her adolescent

years in the Jilin province of China. While she identified Changchun to be the local variety spoken in her hometown, she did not use Changchun because her parents are not native to the region. Similar to Ai, Yubi therefore preferred to use standard Mandarin in her writing and speech (Interview, 12/20/19). Yet differently from Ai, she experienced a family migration from northern to southern China during her teenage years. Upon moving to the province of Hainan, she encountered Hainanese, a Chinese variety that is not mutually intelligible to Mandarin (Frawley, 2003). While she was initially uncomfortable with Hainanese, and even resistant to learning it, her attitude changed over time, such that she became more accepting toward language differences and more willing to learn Hainanese. As a newcomer to the US, Yubi felt "thankful" to have previously experienced an immigration. As she found Cantonese to be another other Chinese language variety spoken amongst friends at Westpond University, she asserted that it was "a good experience" for her to learn some Cantonese (Interview, 12/20/19). Yubi therefore regarded language difference, change, and adaptation as inevitable aspects of societal development (Essay, 12/11/18).

By engaging in a comparative case study, I do not regard one learner's socialization experiences as better than the other's experiences. Rather, each learner's accumulated socialization experiences which transpired prior to instruction, and could not be changed. Perhaps this is one reason why the field of language socialization has been critiqued as "overly deterministic [and] unidirectional" (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2012, p. 3). Yet Ochs and Schieffelin (2012) respond to this critique by clarifying that "a central tenant of language socialization research is that novices' participation in communicative practices is *promoted but not determined* by a legacy of socially and culturally informed persons, artifacts, and features of the built environment" (Emphasis added, p. 4). Therefore, while previous L1 socialization experiences have already transpired for L2 learners, socialization in both L1 and L2 is still ongoing, and interactional rather than predetermined (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2012). Learners' dispositions toward

language are therefore subject to change through ongoing experience and interaction. As I reflect further on my own experiences of language socialization (which I revealed to readers at greater length in Chapter 4), I can personally attest that my own views about language differences have evolved considerably as I have augmented my early prescriptivist understandings with critical and descriptivist understandings of language. Moreover, I recognize that my evolving dispositions toward my L1 (English), are informing my learning of Azerbaijani (my L2), and my heightened interest to know more about the dialectal and regional differences that exist in this language. With the two focal learners, I similarly found evidence that Yubi's dispositions toward language differences shifted as she gained new intercultural experiences. Yubi identified a transformational shift in her attitudes toward language difference while she was living in Hainan. While Ai's case may suggest the contrary—i.e. that gaining new experiences with critical language study does not guarantee a change in perspective, I nonetheless offer that both learners' socialization narratives suggest promising directions for future CLA curricula.

I offer here that language teachers can enable learners to become further aware of their socialization experiences (both in the L1 and L2) through the creation of written artifacts (i.e. language socialization narratives). Because both Ai and Yubi recognized that their experiences with L1 variation impacted their beliefs about L2 English variation, socialization assignments can similarly prompt the learner to write about both L1 and L2 experiences, explain how the experiences are connected, and articulate an ideological stance about language. In Table 16 below, I offer three different variations of this assignment—focusing on 1) language learning, 2) cross-cultural communication, or 3) family history respectively:

Assignment Name	Description of Assignment
1. Language learning narrative	Describe two memories illustrating language learning experiences of importance. One memory should relate to your first language, and the second should relate to your second language. In addition to including descriptive detail recounting the experience (i.e. sight, sound and dialogue, touch, smell, taste), your narrative should include some analysis. This analysis will explain what each memory illustrates about the beliefs which you or others exhibited toward language learning processes, and it will explain how the two memories are connected and/or significant.
2. Cross-cultural communication narrative	Describe two memories illustrating significant experiences in cross-cultural communication. One memory should include an experience where you used English, and the second memory should entail an experience where you used another language to communicate. In addition to including descriptive detail (i.e. sight, sound and dialogue, touch, smell, taste), your narrative should include some analysis. This analysis will explain what each memory illustrates about the beliefs which you or others exhibited toward cross-cultural communication, and it will explain how the two memories are connected and/or significant.
3. Family language narrative	This assignment provides you with the opportunity to learn more about the language socialization experiences of a family member. In order to complete the assignment, you will need to interview another family member, and document the findings of your interview in a narrative format. During the interview, you will ask your relative to describe two important memories relating to two distinctive languages or language varieties. For instance, one memory may be about using the standard variety of English, while a second memory may be about using another variety of English (i.e. African American Vernacular English). Alternatively, these memories could relate to two different languages (i.e. Mandarin and English). In your write up of the two memories, you will include descriptive detail (i.e. sight, sound and dialogue, touch, smell, taste), so it is important that your interviewee select memories that they can recall in some vivid detail. In your write up, you will include both description of the memories and analysis of their significance. Your analysis will explain what each memory illustrates about your relative's beliefs about language, and it will explain how the two memories are connected and/or significant.

Table 16 Sample language socialization assignment prompts

While I have developed these activities and assignments primarily through my research with multilingual students, it is important to note that these assignments are not just intended for

multilingual students but can be beneficial for all students, including those from whom English is a first language. While the first variation of this assignment may be best suited for learners in an L2 setting, I imagine that the second and third variations could be readily adapted with L1 learners, as my work with multilingual students helps to generate insights important for all students.

Moving forward, I invite instructors who are interested in incorporating similar assignments in their classrooms to first try writing their own language socialization narratives with the intention of sharing these with students in their classrooms. Perhaps readers will not be surprised to learn that over the course of this self-study, personal storytelling and self-analysis are practices that I have embraced more publicly into in my own teaching, and I intend to further integrate these practices in the future. These forms of modeling can normalize a writing process that is potentially vulnerable for students, showing them that the instructor is willing to engage in the process with them (Brookfield, 1990). To this end, self-study researchers Valerie Allison-Roan and Michael Hayes (2012) describe the integration of Valerie's own schooling narrative into a literacy course designed for preservice teachers. Valerie explains that this practice clarified her own understanding of how her childhood schooling experiences shape her current teaching practices. Valerie also describes the great vulnerability and heightened exposure that accompanied this practice of intimately sharing with students. I similarly acknowledge that embracing the vulnerabilities associated with the revelatory nature of self-study have been especially challenging for me, requiring a kind of courage and bravery to reveal aspects of myself that I could not have imagined years ago. Yet I have come to recognize that I cannot expect criticality and bravery from my students if I do not demonstrate it myself.

In addition to integrating their own language socialization narratives as materials in the classroom, teachers may also find it useful to consult Lie (2009) to find one example of a written text that students may generate through these prompts. In the associated chapter, Lie considers

how the globalization of English relates to the multilingual experiences of students in the Malaysian university context. Lie (2009) provides a case study of one university focal learner, Su, an ethnic Chinese, who possesses academic literacies in Mandarin, Bahasa, and English, while using Malaysian English (ME) for daily communication. In the postcolonial Malaysian context, ME is defined as a "nativized fusion of the formal, functional and discoursal features of English in interaction with the local Malay, Chinese, and Indian languages" (Lie, 2009, p. 91), and the chapter therefore includes excerpts of Su's written narratives. In these narratives, Su provides descriptive accounts and introspective analysis of her experiences using the different languages and language varieties that are a part of her linguistic repertoire.

Limitations and their research implications

In Chapter 4, I addressed some of the methodological limitations of this study. Some of the concerns I mentioned there relate to the positivist paradigm—i.e. the generalizability and replicability of this study (Mayan, 2016), while other concerns may be more relevant to qualitative researchers—i.e. the types of collected data sources, the research context, and the duration of study. In this section, I will further identify some of the limitations that readers may associate particularly with self-study research designs. I will explain how I have attempted to address these limitations, and how future self-study researchers can be further responsive to them in teacher feedback studies. I will also suggest directions for future research related to self-study, critical discourse analysis, and language socialization.

One common concern about self-study pertains to whether the researcher has demonstrated reliability and validity through their design and reporting of the study. In experimental studies, validity is concerned with whether external variables were "controlled" for, whereas reliability is concerned with replication—whether the findings would be the same if the analytic strategy were applied by a different investigator (Mayan, 2016). Methods of assessing validity have traditionally pertained to experimental studies and have therefore long been deemed

inappropriate for qualitative research (LaBoskey, 2004). The same can be said for assessing reliability; the positivist use of a duplication procedure seems rather futile in a research design that considers the individual self as a strength in its design. In other words, a self-study researcher foregrounds (rather than backgrounds) the "I" aspects of their methodology, making their role as an individual more explicit in their reporting as to enhance the rigor of their study (LaBoskey, 2004; Pinnegar & Hamilton, 2009). Many qualitative researchers therefore advocate for rethinking the meaning of terms like "validity" and "reliability". For qualitative designs, Mayan (2016) explains validity as concerned with whether claims about a phenomenon of interest are grounded in the data, and reliability as concerned with whether similar experiences or patterns emerge between different participants in the study.

Considering Mayan's (2016) qualitative definitions of validity and reliability, I hope that readers will find validity to be a strength of this study, which may balance any shortcomings in its reliability. Concerning validity, I have attempted to make analytic claims that are closely grounded to the data and the conceptual framework, to earn the trust of readers. Particularly in self-study research, Mishler (1990) further specifies that validity occurs when "the results of the study come to be viewed as sufficiently trustworthy for other investigators to rely upon in their own work" (p. 429, as cited in LaBoskey, 2004). I have further attempted to build readers' trust in the research reporting by implementing the suggestions that Loughran and Northfield (1998) provide to self-study researchers: a) include "sufficient detail of the complexity and context of the situation for it to 'ring true'," b) demonstrate "some triangulation of data and a range of different perspectives around an issue", and c) make "explicit links to relevant educational literature and other self-study accounts" (p. 13). Considering these suggestions, I believe readers will find triangulation to be a construct that often resonates in this study; when considering a phenomenon, I have sought to include a range of perspectives by analyzing a range of data sources that were interactionally generated between the students and myself. At the same time, I recognize the

limitations of triangulation as a guiding principle for data collection, as it suggests that there is a single point or truth that the researcher will arrive upon through their analysis. By employing the critical incident method (Halquist & Musanti, 2010) in Chapter 5, my goal was not to arrive at singe truth but to allow for multiple truths and realities as the students' revealed complex perceptions about feedback. Therefore, researchers who similarly seek to reveal multiple evolving truths may embrace the construct of "data crystallization" (Kuby, 2014) as an alternative to "data triangulation" to support validity in their studies. In my case, this paradigm entailed embracing the multiple and sometimes even contradictory beliefs that students expressed about writing and instructor feedback, recognizing the dynamicity of these beliefs as "turning points" which could expand my own possibilities for knowing (Halquist & Musanti, 2010).

Regarding the issue of reliability, I believe that readers will have found some repetition and common themes emerging among the focal participants; however, reliability was not always my concern as a self-study researcher. My aim was to further reflection on my practice as to transform it; while this could be achieved through data saturation—i.e. looking for recurring responses from the students (cf. Zacharakis et al., 2011), it was not my consistent concern, as I also drew upon modes of narrative inquiry that centered my individual experiences and those of my students. The fluidity of narrative inquiry methods further granted me permission to "follow where the story leads", branching out in new directions as the study progressed (Craig, 2009, p. 112). With the freedom granted to explore stories, I branched away from a focus only on my feedback exchanges with students in Chapter 6. In this chapter I learned more about two learners' language socialization histories through comparative case study methods (Miles et al., 2014). Considering the sample size of two, I was not consistently preoccupied by concerns of reliability—i.e. assigning learners' experiences to "categories populated by many" others (Coles, 1989, p. 17 as cited in Craig, 2009). While some thematic similarities emerged between the two focal learners' experiences, I became equally interested in the particularities and differences

between their experiences (O' Toole, 2018). Moreover, as I have shown in this chapter, exploring each learners' particularities more deeply contributed to reflective practice, leading me to identify new assignment prompts that are complementary to a CLA pedagogy. In other words, stepping back from my practices and looking more closely at my students' reception and experiences with these practices enabled me to see things I had not seen before. In this way, the research methods I have drawn upon are relevant not only to L2 writing instructors, but also to all teachers desiring to study their own practices.

Therefore, I hope those interested in employing self-study designs for future research can recognize the flexibility and adaptability of the methodology as its strength (Hamilton & Pinnegar, 1998). Most often, the pursuit of academic research is driven by the need to identify and fill a "gap" in relevant literatures (Swales & Feak, 2012). While I do not discount the importance of this cornerstone research practice, self-study is distinctively driven by the need to engage in reflexive-practice and develop new understandings about one's own practice. It grants teachers the liberty to pursue any quandaries they are experiencing in their own practice. When the goal of the highest priority is to transform one's own practice, teachers can legitimately pursue their own intellectual interests with creativity. I therefore invite prospective self-study researchers to similarly pursue diverse methods to further their reflective practice, such as narrative inquiries (Craig, 2009; Severino, 2017), case studies (Miles et al., 2014; Mitchell, 1984), critical incident analyses (Francis, 1997; Goodell, 2006; Halquist & Musanti, 2010), think-aloud protocols (Scrocco, 2012; Torres & Anguiano, 2016), or ethnographies of communication (Britton & Austin, 2020b) involving their students.

At the same time, some self-study researchers may desire to center upon concerns of reliability and data saturation to further their reflective practice. These concepts may most resound in Chapter 5 and carry implications for future self-study research. In this chapter, I provided insights pertaining to learners' perceptions about specific localized feedback points they

received from me. These results were obtained using think-aloud protocols, and as I followed the same protocol with all participants, some common themes emerged. Yet I still believe there could be more room to achieve saturation (Mayan, 2016), by using think-aloud protocols with a greater number of focal participants.

The limitation of my own study therefore creates a potential direction for future self-study researchers who are interested in exploring their feedback practices with a greater number of students. While surveys and interviews are common methods used in teacher feedback studies to understand students' perceptions (including the kinds of comments that students favor), it is less common for researchers to use think-aloud protocols to further probe how students are reflecting on their teacher's comments, and what they are thinking as they read the comments (Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011; Scrocco, 2012). In this regard, Scrocco's (2012) study was inspirational to my own, yet this researcher recorded students' reactions to feedback while they were encountering written comments from their teacher for the first time. Different from my own study, this researcher did not use the protocol with students from their own classroom, and the think-aloud was not retrospective.

Therefore, I argue that the use of think-aloud protocols are powerful tools in enhancing the reflective practice of writing teachers, especially when they are combined with critical discourse analytic (CDA) methods to focus on the power relations that are at play in feedback delivery and response (Kang & Dykema, 2017). In their daily practice, teachers so often are pressed for time, and their capacity to look closely at how students are interfacing with their feedback remains limited (Hicks, 2015a). Meanwhile, many aspects of students' composing process remain hidden beyond the realm of teachers' own awareness, since their students' own practices involve a complex combination of factors related to their affectivities, cognitions, beliefs, and memories (Pandey, 2012). The think-aloud protocol can therefore function to heighten teachers' own critical awareness, making the less visible aspects of writing more

visible—such as students' semiotic choices, and ideologies—as these are embedded in the linguistic properties and features of students' texts and responses. When teachers heighten their own awareness of a) the strategies that their students are using to engage with feedback, b) the ways that students' make sense of feedback, and c) how power relations are impacting students' decision making, they can develop a more nuanced and comprehensive system of feedback support; this means being better equipped to provide comments that their students receive positively (Kartchava, 2016) and that work toward more equitable social relations (Bloome & Talwalkar, 1997). Especially think-aloud protocols that are retrospective can offer teacher researchers benefits. Firstly, students may feel freer to express their thoughts after the semester and the formal teacher-student relationship have ended. Secondly, teachers can prompt students not only to revisit the initial comment they received, but also consider their subsequent revisions in response to the comment, thereby triangulating multiple sources of data (Goldstein, 2016).

Future self-study researchers may therefore consider coupling think-aloud and CDA methods to consider their own students' perspectives on feedback (as it relates to revision), and to understand how students are negotiating power relations through the feedback process (Kang & Dykema, 2017). To the best of my knowledge, there are no feedback studies to date which take such an approach. While Kang and Dykema (2017) explore students' written responses to teacher feedback, analyzing these through a CDA framework, these researchers relied on students' textual data (without use of think-aloud protocols), and placed less emphasis on determining how their textual analysis could be used to transform subsequent feedback practices. Further teacher-directed CDA studies are therefore warranted to understand how students respond to teacher feedback and how power is distributed during this process. The deconstructive CDA approach, which entails not only descriptions of the linguistic features of discourse, but also descriptions of the power relations that surround and constitute it (Bloome & Talwalkar, 1997; Fairclough, 2010) is therefore a fruitful method for self-study researchers. It ultimately allows for reconstruction—

enabling teachers to develop new insights about the learning that took place through their instruction (Rogers & Mosley Wetzel, 2014), and to develop assignment prompts and new teaching strategies for subsequent instruction (Fernsten, 2008).

Lastly there is room for future researchers to further explore the implementation of CLA writing pedagogies through the lens of language socialization theory. In this chapter, I have offered three variations on writing assignment prompts which are informed by language socialization theory. Each prompt asks students to consider the prior language socialization experiences of themselves or others. These prompts may enable the students to identify the manifestations of language socialization in their own lives, and to recognize "the often unseen but vital social processes that mediate learning" (Zappa-Hollman & Duff, 2015, p. 333). In this sense, a language socialization approach is complementary to a CLA approach; both approaches share an interest in heightening awareness of the linguistic ideological processes that people are often unaware of (Fairclough, 1992a). Yet as I did not use these prompts over the course of this study, future studies could explore a) how teachers develop and integrate their own language socialization narratives into the classroom, b) students' reception and responses to their instructors' language socialization narratives, or c) students' own responses to language socialization prompts (see Table 16). Possible research questions include: a) How will I be transformed by sharing my language socialization history with others? b) How will students evaluate and interpret my history? c) How do student writers respond to language socialization assignments? What features or characteristics do their written artifacts display? Particularly in writing instructional contexts, researchers may also consider the provision of teacher feedback in relation to their students' language socialization narratives. A possible research question is as follows: What forms, contents, or objectives underlie teacher feedback that is provided during a curricular unit that focuses on language socialization? To the best of my knowledge, no studies to

date have explored these questions, and further study is warranted to involve learners in self-inquiry of their own L1 or L2 socialization.

Closing thoughts

To conclude, I return to where I began in Chapter 1. There I shared stories of my early teaching experiences, and I identified the central quandary that motivated me to pursue this self-study—how can I, as an L2 writing instructor, work toward a more socially and linguistically just society, knowing that each response I provide on my students' writing carries sociopolitical implications (Severino, 1993)? As a teacher aspiring to be responsive to both my students' identified needs, and to critical linguistic theories, I wondered about the necessity of error correction in the writing classroom. Desiring to respond to my students' individual needs, my former teaching-self took on the correcting role without much hesitation or contemplation. My current teaching-self however recognizes the corrective role I may assume (from time to time) as one "skills discourse" I draw upon about learning to write. Yet this discourse exists among other competing discourses that I too may draw on –such as the "sociopolitical discourse" which assumes that "writing is a sociopolitically constructed practice" that is "open to contestation and change" (Ivanič, 2004, p. 225). So, while I may not have resolved the "should I" question about error correction through self-study, I have become more adept in recognizing and moving between these conflicting discourses. I now recognize that students are likely to be more acquainted with some discourses than others, and that I can support students in developing awareness of the tensions that exist between prescriptive and critical language study.

In Chapter 1, I also described my initial forays into the fields of L2 teaching and writing through exchanges with my college friend from Japan, Jun. Many years have passed since the days I met Jun upon his first arrival to the United States, and subsequently spent time immersed in his academic writing. While the details of our exchanges have escaped my memory, I will not

forget the foundations upon which we built our friendship as peers: a mutual desire to communicate and build shared understandings that bridged differences in our languages, cultures, and literacies. Since that formative experience, I believe I have continued to find success as a teacher by approaching my students' writing with interest and friendship. In this dissertation, I have explored ways that feedback can support multilingual writers within a critical linguistic and sociocultural framework. As other readers join me in similar inquiries, I hope they too may approach their students' writing with friendship and desire to build shared understandings.

APPENDIX A

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN A RESEARCH STUDY

University of Massachusetts Amherst

Researcher: Emma Britton
Study Title: Critical language awareness in the writing classroom: A teacher self-study

1. **WHAT IS THIS FORM?**
This form is called a Consent Form. It will give you information about the study so you can make an informed decision about participation in this research.

2. **WHO IS ELIGIBLE TO PARTICIPATE?**
This study will be observing your Basic Writing course, so the study will be asking you, and your classmates to participate in this study.

3. **WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY?**
My purpose for this study is to learn how students' writing is influenced by my classroom instruction. I aim to understand how the feedback I provide to students on their drafts impacts the texts they create.

4. **WHERE WILL THE STUDY TAKE PLACE AND HOW LONG WILL IT LAST?**
The study will take place during your Basic Writing course and it will last for the remainder of the semester. Shortly after the semester ends, I may ask you to participate in a face-to-face interview to discuss one or two pieces of writing you wrote for our class.

5. **WHAT WILL I BE ASKED TO DO?**
If you agree to take part in this study, please sign this Consent Form. As your teacher, I will take general notes about what I do in class, and about what I observe in class. I will also collect copies of the written work you do as part of your regular participation in this class. Written work includes the drafts you write for each unit, the writing you do during class time, and the written homework assignments you do.

I may also ask you to participate in one face-to-face interview to discuss one or two pieces of writing you wrote during the semester. Participation is optional and you are free to decline. Interviews are expected to last 30-45 minutes. During interviews, you may skip any question you don't want to answer, and you will not be asked about any confidential information. Interviews will be audio recorded to facilitate data analysis.

6. **WHAT ARE MY BENEFITS OF BEING IN THIS STUDY?**
You may benefit from this research. As the research unfolds, I may make decisions which improve the instruction you receive. Your participation in the study may also help to provide guidance to other writing teachers.

7. **WHAT ARE MY RISKS OF BEING IN THIS STUDY?**
Risks associated with this study are minor, however they may exist. Risk of data being revealed to outside sources is possible because physical data (e.g. writing samples, audio recordings) may

be lost or stolen. However, the researcher will make best efforts to secure all physical data from loss (see section 8 for an explanation of how this risk will be minimized).

You may experience minimal discomfort during an interview question. However, you may skip any question you feel uncomfortable answering. Your name, as well as the names of the university, city, and other identifying information will be kept confidential. The only possible inconvenience may be the time required for interviews during the study.

8. **HOW WILL MY PERSONAL INFORMATION BE PROTECTED?**
All names will be changed, as will all identifying information. Any computer files holding data about the study are password-protected and the computer itself kept in a secure location. Only the researcher will have the passwords. At the conclusion of the study, Mrs. Britton may publish her findings as part of her doctoral dissertation. Information will be presented in summary and will not identify you in any publication or presentation.

9. **WILL I RECEIVE ANY PAYMENT FOR TAKING PART IN THE STUDY**?
No.

10. **WHAT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?**
Take as long as you like before you make a decision. I will be happy to answer any question you have about this study. If you have further questions, or have any research-related problems, please contact me, Emma Razifard Britton at (111)111-1111 or ebritton@umass.edu. Mrs. Britton's faculty sponsor, Dr. Theresa Austin, can also be contacted via email at taustin@educ.umass.edu.

If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact the University of Massachusetts Amherst Human Research Protection Office (HRPO) at (413) 545-3428 or humansubjects@ora.umass.edu.

11. **CAN I STOP BEING IN THE STUDY?**
You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate. If you decline to participate now or during the course of the study, your grades and academic status will not be affected, and you and your activities will not be documented for this study.

12. **WHAT IF I AM INJURED?**
It is not likely that you would be injured by participating in this study. The University of Massachusetts does not have a program for compensating subjects for injury or complications related to human subjects research, but the study personnel will assist you in getting treatment.

13. **SUBJECT STATEMENT OF VOLUNTARY CONSENT**
When signing this form I am agreeing to voluntarily enter this study. I have had a chance to read this consent form, and it was explained to me in a language which I use and understand. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have received satisfactory answers. I understand that I can withdraw at any time. A copy of this signed Informed Consent Form has been given to me.

_____	_____	_____
Participant Signature:	Print Name:	Date:

☐ By checking this box, I agree to allow the researcher to collect and analyze the writing I do in class.

☐ By checking this box, I consent to be audio recorded during any interview in which I participate.

☐ By checking this box, I agree to be recontacted after the conclusion of the study.

☐ By checking this box, I decline to allow the researcher to collect and analyze the writing I do in class.

☐ By checking this box, I decline to be audio recorded during any interview in which I participate.

By signing below I indicate that the participant has read and, to the best of my knowledge, understands the details contained in this document and has been given a copy.

_____ _____ _____

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent Print Name: Date:

APPENDIX B

SURVEY FOR NEW STUDENTS

This survey helps me to learn about you as a student, so I can best support you in the classroom.

Your Name:

What are your preferred gender pronouns?

- o She/ her / hers
- o He/ him / his
- o They/ them / theirs
- o Ze / hir / hir
- o Just my name please!
- o Other: _____

What is your major and class standing (i.e. freshman, sophomore)?

What is your home town/city, state, and country?

What type of education did you receive during your k-12 education? (i.e. public or private)

What English classes have you taken in the past?

What languages do you read, write, or speak?

What languages do your family members speak?

What are you hoping to gain from this course?

What are your fears about this course?

Is there anything else you might like to tell me?

APPENDIX C

FEEDBACK QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire will help me to learn about your preferences for receiving feedback from me on your writing, and your past experiences using feedback. As you consider each question, please put a check mark next to the response that fits you.

Feedback Preferences

1. I prefer to receive teacher written commentary
   □ At the beginning of my paper
   □ Directly next to the place in my paper where there is a problem
   □ At the end of my paper
   □ A combination of all of the above
   □ A combination of some of the above (specify which: _____)

2. I would like to receive feedback on
   □ The problem areas in my paper
   □ What is effective in my paper
   □ Both
   □ It depends (tell me what it depends on: _____)

3. I would like to tell my teacher what I would like to receive feedback on
   □ Always
   □ It depends (specify what it depends on: _____)
   □ My teacher is the only one who should decide what I should receive feedback on

4. I would like to receive feedback on the ideas and content of my writing
   □ Always
   □ It depends (specify what it depends on: _____)
   □ Never

5. I would like to receive feedback on the organization and development of my ideas.
   □ Always
   □ It depends (specify what it depends on: _____)
   □ Never

6. I would like to receive feedback on errors (grammar, spelling, vocabulary) on all my drafts.
   □ Always
   □ It depends (specify what it depends on: _____)
   □ Never

Strategies for using feedback

7. When I get my essays back

□ I read all of the comments and put the essay away
□ I only look at the grade
□ I read all of the comments and start thinking about how to revise
□ It depends (specify what it depends on: _____)

8. When I don't understand a comment
□ I ignore the comment
□ I ask a classmate
□ I ask my teacher
□ I guess
□ It depends (specify what it depends on: _____)

9. When I don't agree with a comment
□ I ignore the comment
□ A revise in response to it anyway
□ I talk with my teacher
□ It depends (specify what it depends on: _____)

10. When I understand the comment but don't know how to revise using the comment
□ I ignore the comment
□ I ask a classmate
□ I ask my teacher
□ I guess
□ It depends (specify what it depends on: _____)

11. Is there anything else you want to tell me about your feedback preferences? If so, please elaborate in the space below:

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL I

General

1. Tell me about your favorite piece of writing you did for our class. What do you like about it?
2. What is your favorite part of this essay? What do you like about it?
3. What was the most challenging about writing this essay?
4. What was the most rewarding about writing this essay?
5. What makes you proud about this piece of writing?

Drafting and revising

6. When you were writing and revising this paper, what helped you to generate new ideas?
7. How are the ideas you presented in this paper different from the ideas you've written about before?
8. Tell me a little bit about the feedback you received during this unit. What do you remember?

Feedback (general)

9. What kind of feedback do you like to receive on your writing?
10. Describe the feedback you received in this class. What was most helpful/least helpful?
11. How is the feedback you received in this class different from feedback you have received in other classes?

Grammar

12. Tell me a little bit about how we approached grammar in class. How did we correct sentences? I have an idea about this, but I want to hear more about how you experienced it.
13. In class, we often used EW as a grammar reference. Did you like using EW as a resource in this way? Did reading the text help you to self-correct your grammar or mechanics?
14. What are your preferences for getting feedback on your grammar?
15. In some of your drafts, I addressed any grammar issues by directing your classmates and you to a page number in the EW text. What do you think about this kind of feedback? Is it confusing? Do you like it?

Specific paper

16. Do you like this writing? Why or why not?
17. Tell me about the feedback you received while you were writing this paper.
18. [Prompt student to read specific feedback point on draft aloud]. When you first read this comment, what did you think? How did you react to it?
19. [Show student a specific revision point on draft and read it out loud while student follows along]. What do you think about the revision you made here? Do you like it? Why?
20. What feedback did you use and how did you use it?
21. What feedback was difficult for you to use? Why was it difficult?
22. Was there any feedback you chose not to use? Why?

Conclusion

23. If you could give advice to future writing instructors about providing feedback to their students, what would you say?

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL II

Recent writing experiences

Sometime has passed since our last interview.

1. Have you taken many classes that require writing? What kinds of writing have you done? What has your experience been like?
2. What resources do you use to support yourself as a college writer?
3. Tell me a bit about your recent experiences at the writing center. Do you [still] consult them? Can you tell me about one particularly helpful consultation? What sorts of feedback were you seeking when you went?
4. How do you see yourself as a writer in the specific courses you mentioned above?
5. Now that you have more writing experience, have you noticed any changes in seeing yourself as writer?

Views on writing feedback

6. Before you mentioned that you like to receive x kind of feedback. Now that you have more experience as a writer, what kind of feedback do you want to receive?
7. In our class, I gave you feedback on your writing, but your peers did as well. What qualities or attributes make a teacher a good reviewer for your writing?
8. What qualities or attributes make a peer a good reviewer for your writing?
9. In our class, there were many students from different backgrounds. Which ones were the most helpful to you? Why?
10. How do you think you did in providing peer feedback with other international students? Why?

Experiences learning and using L1

In one the essays you wrote for our class, you shared your ideas about how English language learners should learn English. You wrote that learners [should or should not] learn other varieties of English. Now, I want to learn a little bit more about your experiences learning Mandarin and understand how these may relate to your experiences learning English.

11. Tell me a little bit about your experiences learning Mandarin in school.
12. What is your language variety? Or what dialect you speak with friends and family in your home city?
13. You mentioned that there were some rules about the use of dialect in your school. Can you tell me more about this?
14. Were there dialects spoken in your school? Were they different from the dialect you speak?
15. What happens when you go to another place in China? What dialect do you use? Does your speaking change?
16. What did your parents emphasize about learning ….Standard Mandarin? ….other dialects?
17. When you are at Westpond, do you speak with others who use different dialects of Mandarin? In these situations, what dialect(s) do you use?

Experiences learning and using a second dialect

18. Tell me more about your experiences learning [second dialect]. Do you use this dialect now?

19. You mentioned before that your parents played a role in your learning a new dialect. What was their role in learning this new dialect?
20. You mentioned that you were initially resistant to learning the dialect. Why? Where do you think your feelings of resistance came from?
21. Have your views about speaking/using this dialect changed over time?

Experiences learning and using L2

22. What are your goals for learning English?
23. Where do you see yourself using English after you graduate?
24. Who do you desire to communicate with in English?
25. Who do you often communicate with in English at Westpond? What dialects do they use?
26. When you talk to other international students do you use a different dialect of English? How?

APPENDIX F

UNIT IV: UNSETTLED VOICES -- ESSAY ASSIGNMENT

In Unit III, we considered several intangible borders created by common binaries in mainstream society. We also explored how the realities of individual's identities are often far more complex than binaries allow. In Unit IV, we will examine an aspect of human life that both creates and complicates borders and binaries: **language**. We will revisit two major linguistic orientations to language, noting that while **descriptivists** tend to describe the way languages are different across space and time, **prescriptivists** tend to determine rules for the conventions of languages. We will draw attention to **language differences** between different communities**.** We will explore how **languages, language varieties** and **dialects** relate to **systems of power, privilege,** and **discrimination**. In particular, we will look at the role of **Standard English** in American culture, and we will consider how different writers use language to engage, resist, and complicate the influence of Standard English.

In your unit 4 essay, you will be persuading an audience to understand your perspective on **language differences**. You will identify a **community problem** related to **language differences**. Your essay will ultimately aim to serve your identified community by first identifying a problem and then by moving your community toward social change—e.g., a change in mindset, a change in individual behaviors, or a change in policy.

In this unit, you will use at least two sources. At least one source should be from an essay we have read this semester. Your source may come from a reading from this unit (Tan, Baldwin, Shen, or Alim and Smitherman). Your source could also come from another essay we've read earlier in the semester (i.e. Anzaldúa, Vargas, Wildman and Davis, Garcia, Finnegan).

Goals

- **Narrative & Description**: Have you used examples, story-telling, and details to communicate your ideas? Does your use of these examples help persuade readers?
- **Summary**: Have you presented ideas from at least two sources, including one source we've read in class this semester (Tan, Baldwin, Shen, Alim and Smitherman, Anzaldúa, Vargas, Wildman and Davis, Garcia, or Finnegan)? Have you presented the writers' ideas so that someone who hasn't read these sources would understand their ideas, using an effective balance of paraphrase and quotation?
- **Analysis**: Have you explained why your ideas or experiences relate to the topic and why they are interesting or important? If you've responded to a specific part of a source, have you explained why it is interesting or important, or how it relates to the points you are making in your essay (that is, textual analysis)?
- **Sentence-Level Revision**: Have you used transitions to create a cohesive essay? Did you use MLA formatting, including a works cited page and in-text citations?

Deadlines and Details

- April 17: Outline & Initial draft due. *Requirements*: Must be at least 600 words long, refer to at least one source, and have in-text citations and a works cited page.
- April 24: Revised Draft due. *Requirements*: Must be at least 900 words long, refer to at least two sources, show global revisions, and have in-text citations and a works cited page.
- April 24-25: Individual Conferences on your revised draft (group class cancelled on 4/24).

- April 29: Final Draft and Portfolio due. *Requirements*: Must be at least 1,000 words long, have both response and summary with textual analysis, show sentence-level revisions, and use MLA formatting, including a works cited page and in-text citations.

Submit all drafts and your final unit portfolio on moodle. See the Grading Policy and Unit IV Grading Rubric (on the next page) for more information about grading.

Grading Rubric for Unit 4 Portfolio

Domain	Possible Points	Points Earned
1 Writing process grade	**50**	
Homework assignments	13	
In-class writing assignments	12	
Outline & Initial draft: complete & submits on time	13	
Revised draft: incorporates feedback & submits on time	12	
2 Product grade	**40**	
Uses examples, story-telling, and details to communicate argument and persuade readers	8	
Presents ideas from at least two sources using summary, paraphrase, and quotation	9	
Analyzes how specific parts of the text(s) or own experiences are important in relation to the topic/argument	9	
Proofreads, uses transitions, MLA formatting, and includes a work cited list	9	
Submits a complete portfolio with reflection, drafts, and writing samples	5	
3 Writing community membership grade	**10**	
4 Other		
Lateness of portfolio (-5 pts per day late)	**-5**	**-**
Total	**100**	

APPENDIX G

INQUIRY QUESTIONS FOR PERSUASIVE WRITING UNIT

Around the world there are **language differences**. Many people speak more than one language. Many people speak different varieties (or dialects) of the same language. Below are some questions related to **language differences** in the United States and also across the world. These questions are a starting point for you as you begin to think about your unit 4 topic. These questions can help you to identify a social problem, form an argument, and advocate for social change in your essay. However, you are also welcome to create your own question related to language differences.

Language policies

- Should employers make rules that only one language can be used in the workplace?
- Should the government make rules that politicians can only use one language or variety in their speech?
- Should teachers make rules that only one language can be used in their classroom?
- Should schools make rules that only one language can be used in the school?
- Should families make rules that only one language can be used in the home?

Language learning

- Should schools teach students languages prescriptively or descriptively?
- Why is standard English taught more often in schools and universities?
- Should schools teach students about African American Vernacular English?
- Should schools teach students about other varieties of English?
- Does learning a language change a person's social identity?

Codemixing

- Should we mix languages together in our speech?
- Should politicians mix different languages and styles together in their speech?
- Should we mix languages together in our writing?
- How do other languages influence our English writing?
- Is codemixing an important part of social identity?

Language status and variation

- What are some of the differences between _____ (language) and _____ (language)? Why are these differences important?
- Why does _____ (language) have a higher social status than _____ (language) in _____ (community)?
- Why are certain languages or language varieties accompanied by social stigma? What can be done about this?

Language discrimination

- What is linguism? What can be done about it?
- What is linguistic profiling? What can done about it?
- Is grammar racist?

Language and power

- What makes a language powerful?
- What is the relationship between ….language and race? ….accent and belonging?
- How can language be used to maintain and perpetuate existing power relations in _____ (community)?
- How can language be used be used to resist, and redefine power relations in _____ (community)?

APPENDIX H

COMMON GRAMMATICAL, LEXICAL, AND MECHANICAL ISSUES IN STUDENT WRITING

Issue	**Page # in *EasyWriter***
Acknowledging sources	110-111
active and passive voice	283-284
Adjectives and adverbs	296-298
Apostrophe: Unnecessary or missing	33
Articles	288-290
Auxiliary verb tenses "have been"	277
Brackets	337-338
Breathe versus breath (usage)	355
Capitalization	31, 341-344
Capitalizing proper nouns and proper adjectives	342-343
Clause fragments	316
Colons	339
Comma (unnecessary)	7
Comma missing after an introductory element	28
Comma missing in a compound sentence	32
Comma missing with a nonrestrictive element	32
Comma splice	33, 311-313
Commas with items in a series	322-323
comparatives and superlatives	298-299
Complete comparisons	262
Conjunctions (missing) / relating equal ideas	263
Contractions	332
Count and noncount nouns	286-287
Dashes	338
Determiners & Articles	287-290
Documentation (incomplete or missing)	29
Ellipses	340-341
Faulty sentence structure	31
Fused (run-on) sentence	33, 311-313
Hyphen: unnecessary or missing	35
Indefinite use of you, it, and they	308
infinitives and gerunds	279-280
Irregular verbs	274-276
Long quotations	333-334
Missing word	31
Parallelism	268-270

Parentheses	336-337
Possession/ Apostrophes	330-332
Preferred terms for race/ethnicity	245
Prepositions	308-310
Pronoun: vague reference	29
Pronoun-antecedent agreement	34
Quotation integration	34
Quotation: Mechanical error	6
Redundant words	266
Semicolons	326-328
Sentence fragment	35
Shift in verb tense (unnecessary)	32
Shifts between direct and indirect discourse	272
Shifts in point of view	271
Shifts in tense	271
Shifts in tone and diction	
Shifts in voice	271
Slashes	340
Spelling	30
Subject verb agreement	290-296
Too, to, two (usage)	364
Topic sentences and paragraph unity	14
Wrong word	27

Issue	**Website**
ING versus ED adjectives	http://www.grammar.cl/Notes/Adjectives_ED_ING.htm
Nouns ending in "–ent"	https://www.eslbuzz.com/words-ending-with-suffixes-ent-ence-and-ant-ance/
position of adverbs	https://www.espressoenglish.net/position-of-adverbs-in-english-sentences/
Reported speech	https://www.perfect-english-grammar.com/reported-speech.html
Using "would" versus "will	https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/english-grammar/will-or-would
Using present tense to write about the future	https://www.ef.edu/english-resources/english-grammar/simple-present-future-events/

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abbadi, S. O. (2014). Teaching Arabic post 9/11: Humor and the potential for critical language awareness. *Dirasat*, *41*(1).

ABC. (2018). *Man threatens to report Spanish-speaking women*. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p9E26av56lk

Achugar, M. (2015). Theme: Critical language awareness approaches in the Americas: Theoretical principles, pedagogical practices and distribution of intellectual labor. *Linguistics and Education*, *32*, 1–4.

Alim, H. S. (2005). Critical language awareness in the United States: Revisiting issues and revising pedagogies in a resegregated society. *Educational Researcher*, *34*(7), 24–31.

Alim, H. S. (2010). Critical language awareness. In N. H. Hornberger & S. L. McKay (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language education* (pp. 205–231). Multilingual Matters.

Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal*, *78*(4), 465. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02064.x

Allison-Roan, V. A., & Hayes, M. P. (2012). To be heard, to be seen, to matter: Consequences of/for self in utilizing one's narrative. *Studying Teacher Education*, *8*(2), 127–141.

Alsharif, A. A., & Alyousef, H. S. (2017). Investigating ESL/EFL students' approaches in response to revision processes: A case study. *Journal of Language & Linguistics Studies*, *13*(2), 153–181.

Anzaldúa, G. (1999). *Borderlands/la frontera: The new mestiza*. Aunt Lute Books.

Arbeit, C. A., Staklis, S., Horn, L., & Simone, S. A. (2016). *New American undergraduates: Enrollment trends and age at arrival of immigrant and second-generation students* (Issue November 2016). US Department of Education. https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2017/2017414.pdf

Archibald, T., & Wilson, A. L. (2011). Rethinking empowerment: Theories of power and the potential for emancipatory praxis. *Adult Education Research Conference*, 22–28.

Baker, W., & Hansen Bricker, R. (2010). The effects of direct and indirect speech acts on native English and ESL speakers' perception of teacher written feedback. *System*, *38*, 75–84.

Baldwin, J. (1979, July 29). If Black English isn't a language, then tell me, what is? *The New York Times*. https://archive.nytimes.com/www.nytimes.com/books/98/03/29/specials/baldwin-english.html?_r=1

Baleghizadeh, S., Memar, A. T., & Memar, H. T. (2011). A sociocultural perspective on second language acquisition: The effect of high-structured scaffolding versus low-structured scaffolding on the writing ability of EFL learners. *Reflections on English Language Teaching*, *10*(1), 43–54.

Balester, V. (2012). How writing rubrics fail: Toward a multicultural model. In A. B. Inoue & M. Poe (Eds.), *Race and writing assessment*. Peter Lang.

Beaudrie, S., Amezcua, A., & Loza, S. (2021). Critical language awareness in the heritage language classroom: design, implementation, and evaluation of a curricular intervention. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, *15*(1), 61–81. https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2020.1753931

Belcher, D. (2012). Considering what we know and need to know about second language writing. *Applied Lingusitics Review*, *3*(1), 131–150.

Berlin, I. (2010, February). The changing definition of African-American. *Smithsonian Magazine*, 1–4. https://www.smithsonianmag.com/history/the-changing-definition-of-african-american-4905887/

Best, K. (2011). Transformation through research-based reflection: A self-study of written feedback practice. *TESOL Journal*, *2*(4), 492–509.

Best, K., Jones-Katz, L., Smolarek, B., Stolzenburg, M., & Williamson, D. (2015). Listening to our students: An exploratory practice study of ESL writing students' views of feedback. *TESOL Journal*, *6*(2), 332–357.

Bevan, M. T. (2014). A method of phenomenological interviewing. *Qualitative Health Research*, *24*(1), 136–144.

Bijami, M., Pandian, A., & Singh, M. K. M. (2016). The relationship between teacher's written feedback and student's' writing performance: Sociocultural perspective. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies*, *4*(1).

Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2009). The relative effectiveness of different types of direct written corrective feedback. *System*, *37*(2), 322–329.

Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *14*(3), 191–205.

Black, R. W. (2006). Language, culture, and identity in online fanfiction. *E-Learning*, *3*(2), 170–184. https://doi.org/10.2304/elea.2006.3.2.170

Blaikie, N. (2007). *Approaches to social enquiry: advancing knowledge*. Polity.

Bloome, D, & Talwalkar, S. (1997). Critical discourse analysis and the study of reading and writing. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *32*(1), 104–112.

Bloome, David, & Green, J. (2015). The social and linguistic turns in studying language and literacy. In J. Rowsel & Lk. Pahl (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of literacy studies* (pp. 19–31). Routledge.

Bommarito, D. V, & Cooney, E. (2016). Cultivating a reflective approach to language difference in composition pedagogy. *Composition Studies*, *44*(2), 39–57.

Bonilla López, M., Van Steendam, E., Speelman, D., & Buyse, K. (2018). The differential effects

of comprehensive feedback forms in the second language writing class. *Language Learning*, *68*(3), 813–850.

Brisk, M., & Zisselberger, M. (2011). We've let them in on a secret: Using SFL theory to improve the teaching of writing to bilingual learners. In T. Lucas (Ed.), *Preparing all teachers to teach English language learners* (pp. 111–126). Elbraum/Taylor & Francis.

Britton, E. R. (2021). Using critical language awareness to disrupt global English hegemony in US higher education. In U. Lanvers, A. S. Thompson, & M. East (Eds.), *Language learning in Anglophone countries* (pp. 425–443). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56654-8_21

Britton, E. R., & Austin, T. Y. (2020a). " That's just how we say it ": Understanding L2 student writers' responses to written and negotiated corrective feedback through critical incidents. *TESL Canada Journal*, *37*(2), 103–127. https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v37i2.1332

Britton, E. R., & Austin, T. Y. (2020b). "Keeping words in context": Language policy and social identification in an immigrant job training program. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2020.1833728

Britton, E. R., & Lorimer Leonard, R. (2020). The social justice potential of critical reflection and critical language awareness pedagogies for L2 writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *50*, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2020.100776

Bronson, M. C., & Watson-Gegeo, K. A. (2008). The critical moment: Language socialization and the (re)visioning of first and second language learning. In Patricia A. Duff & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 43–55). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3

Brookfield, S. (1990). Using critical incidents to explore learners' assumptions. In J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning* (pp. 177–193). Jossey-Bass Inc.

Brown, J. B. (1999). We have met the audience and she is us: The evolution of teacher as audience for research. In R. S. Hubbard & B. M. Power (Eds.), *Living the questions: A guide for teacher researchers* (pp. 15–21). Stenhouse Publishers.

Bucholtz, M., & Hall, K. (2004). Language and identity. In A. Duranti (Ed.), *A companion to linguistic anthropology* (pp. 369–394). Blackwell Publishing.

Burgess, A., & Ivanič, R. (2010). Writing and being written: Issues of identity across timescales. *Written Communication*, *27*(2), 228–255.

Burton, F. R., & Seidl, B. L. (2005). Teacher researcher projects: From the elementary school teacher's perspective. In J. Flood, D. Lapp, J. R. Squire, & J. Jensen (Eds.), *Methods of research on teaching the English language arts: The methodology chapters from the handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (2nd ed., pp. 195–209). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Calfee, R. C., & Chambliss, M. (2005). The design of empirical research. In J. Flood, D. Lapp, J. R. Squire, & J. Jensen (Eds.), *Methods of research on teaching the English language arts:*

The methodology chapters from the handbook of research on teaching the English language arts (2nd ed., pp. 43–78). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Camarota, S. A., & Zeigler, K. (2014). *One in five U.S. residents speaks foreign language at home, record 61.8 million*. Center for Immigration Studies. https://cis.org/One-Five-US-Residents-Speaks-Foreign-Language-Home-Record-618-million

Canagarajah, A. S. (2002). *Critical academic writing and multilingual students*. The University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.8903

Canagarajah, A. S. (2006). The place of World Englishes in composition: Pluralization continued. *College Composition and Communication*, *57*(4), 586–619.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2013). Negotiating translingual literacy: An enactment. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *48*(1), 40–67.

Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *Modern Language Journal*, *95*(3), 401–417. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x

Canagarajah, S. (2016). Translingual writing and teacher development in composition. *College English*, *78*(3), 2016.

Carpenter, B. D., Achugar, M., Walter, D., & Earhart, M. (2015). Developing teachers' critical language awareness: A case study of guided participation. *Linguistics and Education*, *32*, 82–97.

Casanave, C. P. (2016). Qualitative inquiry in L2 writing. In R. M. Manchón & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 497–517). De Gruyter.

CCCC. (1974). Students' right to their own language. *College Composition and Communication*, *XXV*.

Charmaz, K. (2020). "With constructivist grounded theory you can't hide": Social justice research and critical inquiry in the public sphere. *Qualitative Inquiry*, *26*(2), 165–176. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800419879081

Charteris, J., & Smardon, D. (2018). A typology of agency in new generation learning environments: Emerging relational, ecological and new material considerations. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, *26*(1), 51–68. https://doi.org/10.1080/14681366.2017.1345975

Cho, M. (2019). The effects of prompts on L2 writing performance and engagement. *Foreign Language Annals*, *52*(3), 576–594. https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12411

Christiansen, M. S., & Bloch, J. (2016). "Papers are never finished, just abandoned": The role of written teacher comments in the revision process. *Journal of Response to Writing*, *2*(1), 6–42.

Clark, R. (1992). Principles and practice of CLA in the classroom. In N. Fairclough (Ed.), *Critical language awareness* (pp. 117–140). Longman.

Clark, R., Fairclough, N., Ivanic, R., & Martin-Jones, M. (1990). Critical language awareness Part I: A critical review of three current approaches to language awareness. *Language and Education*, *4*(4), 249–260. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500789009541291

Clark, R., & Ivanič, R. (1997). Critical discourse analysis and educational change. In *Encyclopedia of Language and Education* (pp. 217–227). Springer, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-011-4533-6_21

Clark, R., & Ivanič, R. (1999). Raising critical awareness of language: A curriculum aim for the new millennium. *Language Awareness*, *8*(2), 63–70.

Clements, P. (2008). lnstructors' written comments on students' compositions in an intensive English program: International standards local pressures. *Bulletin of Faculty of Education, Shizuoka University, Kyoka Kyoiku*, *39*, 199–212.

Clift, B. C., & Clift, R. T. (2017). Toward a "pedagogy of reinvention": Memory work, collective biography, self-study, and family. *Qualitative Inquiry*, *23*(8), 605–617.

Cohen, A. (1987). Student processing of feedback on their compositions. In A. L. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in second language learning* (pp. 57–69). Prentice-Hall.

Colombi, M. C. (2015). Academic and cultural literacy for heritage speakers of Spanish: A case study of Latin@ students in California. *Linguistics and Education*, *32*, 5–15.

Conrad, S. M., & Goldstein, L. M. (1999). ESL student revision after teacher-written comments: Text, contexts, and individuals. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *8*(2), 147–179.

Consalvo, A., & Maloch, B. (2015). Keeping the teacher at arm's length: Student resistance in writing conferences in two high school classrooms. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, *50*(2), 120–132.

Craig, C. J. (2009). Learning about reflection through exploring narrative inquiry. *Reflective Practice*, *10*(1), 105–116.

Cran, W. (2005). *Do you speak American?* MacNeil/Lehrer Productions. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kcx7khaN180

Crisco, V. (2004). Rethinking language and culture on the institutional borderland. *Journal of Basic Writing*, *23*(1), 39–63.

Cumming, A. (2016). Theoretical orientations to L2 writing. In R. M. Manchón & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 65–88). De Gruyter.

Curzan, A. (2014). *Fixing English: Prescriptivism and language history*. Cambridge University Press.

Darvin, R., & Norton, B. (2015). Identity and a model of investment in applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *35*(2015), 36–56. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000191

Das, S. N. (2021). Correctness, incorrectness, and correction. In J. Standlaw (Ed.), *The*

international encyclopedia of linguistic anthropology (pp. 1–4). John Wiley & Sons, Inc. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118786093.iela0082

Davila, B. (2016). The inevitability of "standard" English: Discursive constructions of standard language ideologies. *Written Communication*, *33*(2), 127–148.

De Costa, P. I. (2011). Using language ideology and positioning to broaden the SLA learner beliefs landscape: The case of an ESL learner from China. *System*, *39*, 347–358. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.007

De Costa, P. I., & Crowther, D. (2018). Second language acquisition and world Englishes: Dialogue and engagement. *World Englishes*, *37*(1), 19–33.

Delpit, L. (1988). The silenced dialogue: Power and pedagogy in educating other people's children. *Harvard Educational Review*, *58*(3), 280–299. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.58.3.c43481778r528qw4

DESE. (2018). *School and district profiles: 2017-18 selected populations report*. Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. http://profiles.doe.mass.edu/state_report/selectedpopulations.aspx

Devrim, D. Y. (2014). Theorizing written feedback as a mediation tool within the Sydney School's genre pedagogy: a focus on ZPD and scaffolding. *Functional Linguistics*, *1*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40554-014-0008-z

Diab, R. L. (2006). Error correction and feedback in the EFL writing classroom: Comparing instructor and student preferences. *English Teaching Forum*, *3*, 2–13.

Díez-Prados, M., & Cabrejas-Peñuelas, A. B. (2017). The internet as a pedagogical tool in the writing process: A research-based approach. In R. Muñoz-Luna & L. Taillefer (Eds.), *Integrating information and communication technologies in English for specific purposes* (pp. 57–78). Springer.

Doddy Irmawati, N., & Hum, M. (2014). Structural linguistics and its implication to language teaching. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature*, *2*(8), 116–130. www.arcjournals.org

Doecke, B., Kostogriz, A., & Charles, C. (2004). Heteroglossia: A space for developing critical language awareness? *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *3*(3), 29–42.

Doerr, N. M. (Ed.). (2009). *The native speaker concept: Ethnographic investigations of native speaker effect*. Mouton de Gruyter.

Doerr, Neriko Musha. (2009a). Investigating "native speaker effects": Toward a new model of analyzing "native speaker" ideologies. In Neriko Musha Doerr (Ed.), *The native speaker concept: Ethnographic investigations of native speaker effect* (pp. 15–46). Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110220957

Doerr, Neriko Musha. (2009b). Uncovering another "native speaker myth": Juxtaposing standardization processes in first and second languages of English-as-a-Second-Language learners. In Neriko Musha Doerr (Ed.), *The native speaker concept: Ethnographic*

investigations of native speaker effect (pp. 185–208). Mouton de Gruyter.

Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society. (2021). *An episcopal dictionary of the church*. The Episcopal Church. https://www.episcopalchurch.org/glossary/vernacular/

Donmall-Hicks, B. G. (1997). The history of language awareness in the United Kingdom. In *Encyclopedia of Language and Education* (pp. 21–30). Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Dornbrack, J., & Dixon, K. (2014). Towards a more explicit writing pedagogy: The complexity of teaching argumentative writing. *Reading & Writing*, *5*(1), 1–8.

Duff, P.A. (2008). Language socialization, higher education, and work. In *Encyclopedia of language and education* (2nd ed., Vol. 8, pp. 257–270). Springer.

Duff, Patricia A. (2020). Language socialization in classrooms: Findings, issues, and possibilities. In K. M. H. Matthew J. Burdelski (Ed.), *Language socialization in classrooms: Culture, interaction, and language development* (pp. 249–264). Cambridge University Press.

Eckstein, G., & Ferris, D. (2018). Comparing L1 and L2 texts and writers in first-year composition. *TESOL Quarterly*, *52*(1), 137–162.

Ellis, R. (2010). A framework for investigating oral and written corrective feedback. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *32*, 335–349.

Ellis, R. (2017). Oral corrective feedback in L2 classrooms: What we know so far. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning: Research, theory, applications, implications* (pp. 3–18). Routledge.

Ellsworth, E. (1989). Why doesn't this feel empowering?: Working through the repressive myths of critical pedagogy. *Harvard Educational Review*, *59*(3), 187–214. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.59.3.058342114k266250

Elsasser, N., & Irvine, P. (1985). English and Creole: The dialectics of choice in a college writing classroom. *Harvard Educational Review*, *55*(4), 129–149.

Elwood, J. A., & Bode, J. (2014). Student preferences vis-à-vis teacher feedback in university EFL writing classes in Japan. *System*, *42*(1), 333–343.

Emerson, R., Fretz, R., & Shaw, L. (1995). *Writing ethnographic fieldnotes*. University of Chicago Press.

Ephratt, M. (2011). Linguistic, paralinguistic and extralinguistic speech and silence. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *43*(9), 2286–2307. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.03.006

Erlam, R., Ellis, R., & Batstone, R. (2013). Oral corrective feedback on L2 writing: Two approaches compared. *System*, *41*(2), 257–268.

Ewert, D. E. (2009). L2 writing conferences: Investigating teacher talk. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *18*(4), 251–269.

Fairclough, Norman. (1989). *Language and power*. Longman.

Fairclough, Norman (Ed.). (1992a). *Critical language awareness*. Longman.

Fairclough, Norman. (1992b). *Discourse and social change*. Polity Press.

Fairclough, Norman. (1992c). Introduction. In Norman Fairclough (Ed.), *Critical language awareness* (pp. 1–29). Longman.

Fairclough, Norman. (1992d). The appropriacy of "appropriateness." In Norman Fairclough (Ed.), *Critical language awareness* (pp. 33–56). Longman.

Fairclough, Norman. (2010). *Critical discourse analysis*. Routledge.

Fecho, B., & Allen, J. (2005). Teacher inquiry into literacy. In J. Flood, D. Lapp, J. R. Squire, & J. Jensen (Eds.), *Methods of research on teaching the English language arts: The methodology chapters from the handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (2nd ed., pp. 211–243). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Feinberg, L. (1998). *Trans liberation: Beyond pink and blue*. Beacon Press.

Ferguson, P. (2011). Student perceptions of quality feedback in teacher education. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, *36*(1), 51–62.

Fernsten, L. A. (2008). Writer identity and ESL learners. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *52*(1), 44–52. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1598/JAAL.52.1.5

Ferris, D. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *8*(1), 1–11.

Ferris, D. (2018). "They said I have a lot to learn": How teacher feedback influences advanced university students' views of writing. *Journal of Response to Writing*, *4*(2), 4–33.

Ferris, D., Brown, J., Liu, H., & Stine, M. E. A. (2011). Responding to L2 students in college writing classes: Teacher perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly*, *45*(2), 207–234.

Ferris, D. R. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, *29*(1), 33–53.

Ferris, D. R. (2010). Second language writing research and written corrective feedback in SLA: Intersections and practical applications. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *32*(2), 181–201.

Ferris, D. R. (2011). *Treatment of error in second language student writing* (2nd ed.). The University of Michigan Press.

Ferris, D. R. (2014). Responding to student writing: Teachers' philosophies and practices. *Assessing Writing*, *19*, 6–23.

Ferris, D. R. (2016). L2 writers in higher education. In R. M. Manchón & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 141–160). De Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781614511335-009

Feuerherm, E. (2012). Written feedback, student writing, and institutional policies: Implications for novice teacher development. *CATESOL Journal*, *23*(1), 132–154.

Finegan, E. (2005). *What is "correct" language?* PBS.Org. http://www.pbs.org/speak/speech/correct/prescriptivism/#

Finkbeiner, C., & White, J. (2017). Language awareness and multilingualism: A historical overview. In *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 3–18). Springer International Publishing Switzerland.

Fischer, K. (2019). International enrollments remain flat, raising concerns about America's continuing appeal. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. https://www.chronicle.com/article/International-Enrollments/247560

Flores, N., & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing appropriateness: Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, *85*(2), 149–172. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.85.2.149

Francis, D. (1997). Critical incident analysis: A strategy for developing reflective practice. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, *3*(2), 169–188. https://doi.org/10.1080/1354060970030201

Frawley, W. (2003). Chinese. In *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics* (2nd ed., pp. 310–318). Oxford University Press.

Frey, B. B. (2018a). Consequential validity evidence. In *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Measurement, and Evaluation*. Sage Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781506326139.n142

Frey, B. B. (2018b). Ecological validity. In *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Measurement, and Evaluation*. Sage Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781506326139.n219

Fry, B. Y. R., & Parker, K. (2018). Early benchmarks show "post-millenials" on track to be most diverse, best-education generation yet. *Pew Research Center*, *November*, 1–16.

Gagich, M., & Zickel, E. (2018). *A guide to rhetoric, genre, and success in first-year writing*. Pressbooks.

Gal, S. (1998). Multiplicity and contention among ideologies. In B. B. Schieffelin, K. A. Woolard, & P. V. Kroskrity (Eds.), *Language ideologies: Practice and theory* (pp. 445–449). Oxford University Press.

Galloway, N. (2017a). *Global Englishes and change in English language teaching: Attitudes and impact*. Routledge. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.4324/9781315158983

Galloway, N. (2017b). Researching your own students: Negotiating the dual practitioner-researcher role. In J. McKinley & H. Rose (Eds.), *Doing research in applied linguistics: Realities, dilemmas, and solutions* (pp. 146–156). Routledge.

Galloway, N., & Rose, H. (2018). Incorporating Global Englishes into the ELT classroom. *ELT*

Journal, *72*(1), 3–14.

Garcia, K. (2018, March 10). Can you lose a language you never knew? *NPR Code Switch*. https://www.npr.org/sections/codeswitch/2018/03/10/588306001/can-you-lose-a-language-you-never-knew

García Mayo, M. D. P., & Labandibar, U. L. (2017). The use of models as written corrective feedback in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *37*(2017), 110–127. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190517000071

Garcia, O., & Torres-Guevara. (2009). Monoglossic ideologies and language policies in the language education of U.S. Latinas/os. In E. G. Murillo, S. A. Villenas, R. T. Galván, J. S. Muñoz, C. Martínez, & M. Machado-Casas (Eds.), *Handbook of Latinos and education: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 182–193). Routledge. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1075/prag.19.2.03gar

Gee, J. P. (2014). *An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method* (4th ed.). Taylor & Francis.

Gere, A. R., Curzan, A., Hammond, J. W., Hughes, S., Li, R., Moos, A., Smith, K., Zanen, K. Van, Wheeler, K. L., & Crystal, J. (2021). Communal justicing: Writing assessment, disciplinary infrastructure, and the case for critical language awareness. *College Composition and Communication*, *72*(3), 384–412.

Gevers, J. (2018). Translingualism revisited: Language difference and hybridity in L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *40*, 73–83. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2018.04.003

Gilyard, K. (2000). Basic writing, cost effectiveness, and ideology. *Journal of Basic Writing*, *19*(1), 36–42.

Gilyard, K. (2016). The rhetoric of translingualism. *College English*, *78*(3), 284–289.

Gkonou, C., & Miller, E. (2020). "Critical Incidents" in language teachers' narratives of emotional experience. In C. Gkonou, J.-M. Dewaele, & J. King (Eds.), *The emotional rollercoaster of language teaching* (pp. 131–149). Multilingual Matters.

Godley, A. J., Carpenter, B. D., & Werner, C. A. (2007). "I'll speak in proper slang": Language ideologies in a daily editing activity. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *42*(1), 100–131.

Godley, A. J., Reaser, J., & Moore, K. G. (2015). Pre-service English language arts teachers' development of critical language awareness for teaching. *Linguistics and Education*, *32*, 41–54. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2015.03.015

Goldstein, L. M. (2005). *Teacher written commentary in second language writing classrooms*. The University of Michigan Press.

Goldstein, L. M. (2016). Making use of teacher written feedback. In R. M. Manchón & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 407–430). De Gruyter.

Goodell, J. E. (2006). Using critical incident reflections: A self-study as a mathematics teacher educator. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, *9*(3), 221–248.

Goodman, Y. M. (1996). Revaluing readers while readers revalue themselves: Retrospective miscue analysis. *Reading Teacher*, *49*(8), 600–609.

Gorzelsky, G. (2009). Working boundaries: From student resistance to student agency. *College Composition and Communication*, *61*(1), 64–84.

Goswami, D., & Rutherford, M. (2009). "What's going on here?": Seeking answer through teacher inquiry. In D. Goswami, C. Lewis, M. Rutherford, & D. Waff (Eds.), *Teacher inquiry: Approaches to language and literacy research* (pp. 1–11). Teachers College Press.

Granville, S. (2003). Contests over meaning in a South African classroom: Introducing critical language awareness in a climate of social change and cultural diversity. *Language and Education*, *17*(1), 1–20.

Gredler, J. (2018). Postsecondary online students' preferences for instructor feedback. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *30*(2), 195–206.

Guénette, D. (2013). The pedagogy of error correction: Surviving the written corrective feedback challenge. *TESL Canada Journal*, *30*(1), 117–126.

Guerrettaz, A. M., & Johnston, B. (2013). Materials in the classroom ecology. *The Modern Language Journal*, *97*(3), 779–796. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.l540-4781.2013.12027.x

Halquist, D., & Musanti, S. I. (2010). Critical incidents and reflection: Turning points that challenge the researcher and create opportunities for knowing. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *23*(4), 449–461. https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2010.492811

Hamilton, M. L., & Pinnegar, S. (1998). Conclusion: The value and the promise of self-study. In M. L. Hamilton (Ed.), *Reconceptualizing teaching practice: Self-Study in teacher education*. Falmer Press.

Hamilton, M. L., Smith, L., & Worthington, K. (2008). Fitting the methodology with the research: An exploration of narrative, self-study, & auto-ethnography. *Studying Teacher Education*, *4*(1), 17–28.

Han, Y., & Hyland, F. (2015). Exploring learner engagement with written corrective feedback in a Chinese tertiary EFL classroom. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *30*, 31–44.

Harman, R. M., & Khote, N. (2018). Critical SFL praxis with bilingual youth: Disciplinary instruction in a third space. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *15*(1), 63–83. https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2017.1318663

Hedgcock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1994). Feedback on feedback: assessing learners' receptivity to teacher response in L2 composing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *3*(2), 141–163.

Hicks, T. (Ed.). (2015a). *Assessing students' digital writing: Protocols for looking closely*. Teachers College Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2016.08.002

Hicks, T. (2015b). Introduction: An invitation to look closely at students' work. In T. Hicks (Ed.), *Assessing students' digital writing: Protocols for looking closely* (pp. 1–19). Teachers College Press.

Higgins, C., Nettell, R., Furukawa, G., & Sakoda, K. (2012). Beyond contrastive analysis and codeswitching: Student documentary filmmaking as a challenge to linguicism in Hawai'i. *Linguistics and Education*, *23*(1), 49–61. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2011.10.002

Hirvela, A., Hyland, K., & Manchon, R. M. (2016). Dimensions in L2 writing theory and research: Learning to write and writing to learn. In R. M. Manchón & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 45–63). De Gruyter.

Hitchings, H. (2011). *The language wars: A history of proper English*. Farrar, Straus, and Giroux.

Horner, B., & Alvarez, S. P. (2019). Defining translinguality. *LiCS*, *7*(2), 1–30.

Horner, B., Lu, M., Royster, J. J., & Trimbur, J. (2011). Language difference in writing: Toward a translingual approach. *College English*, *73*(3), 303–321.

Horner, B., & Trimbur, J. (2002). English only and U.S. college composition. *College Composition and Communication*, *53*(4), 594–630.

Horwitz, E. (1986). Some language acquistion principles and their implications for second language teaching. *Hispania*, *69*(3), 684–689.

Hu, G., & Ren, H. (2012). The impact of experience and beliefs on Chinese EFL student writers' feedback preferences. In R. Tang (Ed.), *Academic writing in a second or foreign language: Issues and challenges facing ESL/EFL academic writers in higher education contexts* (pp. 67–87). Continuum.

Huang, S. (2012). The integration of "critical" and "literacy" education in the EFL curriculum: Expanding the possibilities of critical writing practices. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *25*(3), 283–298. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2012.723715

Huang, S. Y. (2013). Revising identities as writers and readers through critical language awareness. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *12*(3), 65–86.

Hubbard, R. S., & Power, B. M. (1999). What likes what?: Data analysis. In R. S. Hubbard & B. M. Power (Eds.), *Living the questions: A guide for teacher researchers* (pp. 117–160). Stenhouse Publishers.

Huckin, T. (2002). Critical discourse analysis and the discourse of condescension. In E. L. Barton & G. Stygall (Eds.), *Discourse Studies in Composition* (pp. 155–176). Hampton Press.

Huckin, T. N. (1997). Critical discourse analysis. In T. Miller (Ed.), *Functional approaches to written text: Classroom applications.* (pp. 78–92). United States Information Agency.

Hudley, A. H. C., & Mallinson, C. (2014). *We do language: English language variation in the secondary English classroom*. Teachers College Press.

Hyland, F. (2010). Future directions in feedback on second language writing: Overview and research agenda. *International Journal of English Studies*, *10*(2), 171–182.

Hyland, F., & Hyland, K. (2001). Sugaring the pill: Praise and criticism in corrective feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *10*(3), 185–212.

Hyland, F., Nicolas-Conesa, F., & Cerezo, L. (2016). Key issues of debate about feedback on writing. In R. M. Manchón & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 433–452). De Gruyter.

Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006). Interpersonal aspects of response: Constructing and interpreting teacher written feedback. In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 206–224). Cambridge University Press.

Inoue, A. (2021). Unteaching racist discourse in the contemporary writing classroom. *Racism in the Margins*.

Irwin, B. (2017). Written corrective feedback: Student preferences and teacher feedback preferences. *IAFOR Journal of Language Learning*, *3*(2), 35–58.

Ivanič, R. (1990). Critical language awareness in action. In R. Carter (Ed.), *Knowledge about language and the curriculum: The LINC reader* (pp. 122–132). Hodder and Stoughton.

Ivanič, R. (1998). *Writing and identity: The discoursal construction of identity in academic writing*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Ivanič, R. (2004). Discourses of writing and learning to write. *Language and Education*, *18*(3), 220–245.

Ivanič, R. (2005). The discoursal construction of writer identity. In R. Beach, J. Green, M. Kamil, & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Multidisciplinary perspectives on literary research* (pp. 391–416). Hampton Press.

Ivanič, R., & Simpson, J. (1992). Who's who in academic writing? In Norman Fairclough (Ed.), *Critical language awareness* (pp. 141–173). Longman.

Jacobs, A. (2010, May 2). Shanghai is trying to untangle the mangled English of Chinglish. *New York Times*, 5–8. https://www.nytimes.com/2010/05/03/world/asia/03chinglish.html

James, C., & Garrett, P. (1991). The scope of language awareness. In Carl James & P. Garrett (Eds.), *Language awareness in the classroom* (pp. 3–20). Longman.

James, Carl. (1999). Language awareness: Implications for the language curriculum. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *12*(1), 94–115. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07908319908666571

Janks, H. (1999). Critical language awareness journals and student identities. *Language Awareness*, *8*(2), 111–122.

Janks, H. (2000). Diversity and design: A synthesis for critical literacy education. *Educational Review*, *52*(2), 175–186.

Janks, H. (2005). Deconstruction and reconstruction: Diversity as a productive resource. *Discourse*, *26*(1), 31–43.

Janks, H., & Ivanič, R. (1992). Critical language awareness and emancipatory discourse. In Norman Fairclough (Ed.), *Critical language awareness* (pp. 305–331). Longman.

Jerolmack, C., & Khan, S. (2017). The analytic lenses of ethnography. *Socius: Sociological Research for a Dynamic World*, *3*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1177/2378023117735256

Johnson, D., & VanBrackle, L. (2012). Linguistic discrimination in writing assessment: How raters react to African American "errors," ESL errors, and standard English errors on a state-mandated writing exam. *Assessing Writing*, *17*(1), 35–54.

Junqueira, L., & Payant, C. (2015). "I just want to do it right, but it's so hard": A novice teacher's written feedback beliefs and practices. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *27*, 19–36.

Kamler, B., Cousins, K., Jonas, T., Lawson, B., & Linden, D. (1997). Developing a critical writing pedagogy: A discontinuous narrative. *English in Australia*, *118*, 24–42.

Kang, H.-S., & Dykema, J. (2017). Critical discourse analysis of student responses to teacher feedback on student writing. *Journal of Response to Writing*, *3*(2), 6–35.

Kanno, Y., & Varghese, M. M. (2010). Immigrant and refugee ESL students' challenges to accessing four-year college education: From language policy to educational policy. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, *9*(5), 310–328.

Kaplan, R. B. (2014). Multilingualism vs. monolingualism: the view from the USA and its interaction with language issues around the world. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *16*(1–2), 149–162.

Kartchava, E. (2016). Learners' beliefs about corrective feedback in the language classroom: Perspectives from two international contexts. *TESL Canada Journal*, *33*(2), 19.

Kawamitsu, S. (2019). *Language learners as agentive meaning-makers: Exploring learners' investment and meaning-making* [University of Massachusetts Amherst]. https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_2/1647

Kazemi, M., Abadikhah, S., & Dehqan, M. (2018). A comparison of teacher feedback versus students' joint feedback on EFL students' composition. *IUP Journal of English Studies*, *XIII*(1), 90–103.

Kim, J. H. (2009). Teacher written feedback: Learner Preferences, perceptions, and teacher reflections. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *16*(1), 19–40.

King, K. A., & Hermes, M. (2014). Why is this so hard?: Ideologies of endangerment, passive language learning approaches, and Ojibwe in the United States. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, *13*(4), 268–282. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2014.939029

Kingston, M. K. (1976). *The woman warrior: Memoirs of a girlhood among ghosts*. Alfred A. Knopf.

Kissine, M. (2008). Locutionary, illocutionary, perlocutionary. *Language & Linguistics Compass*, *2*(6), 1189–1202.

Komorowska, H. (2014). Language awareness: From embarras de richesses to terminological confusion. In A. Łyda & K. Szcześniak (Eds.), *Awareness in action: The role of consciousness in language acquisition* (pp. 3–20). Springer International Publishing Switzerland.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practices in second language acquisition*. Pergamon Press.

Kubota, R., & Lehner, A. (2004). Toward critical contrastive rhetoric. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *13*(1), 7–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2004.04.003

Kubota, R., & Miller, E. R. (2017). Re-examining and re-envisioning criticality in language studies: Theories and praxis. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *14*(2–3), 129–157.

Kuby, C. (2014). Crystallization as a methodology: disrupting traditional ways of analyzing and (re)presenting through multiple genres. In R. N. Brown, R. Carducci, & C. R. Kuby (Eds.), *Disrupting qualitative inquiry: Possibilities and tensions in educational research*. Peter Lang.

LaBoskey, V. (2004). The methodology of self-study and its theoretical underpinnings. In J. Loughran, M. Hamilton, V. LaBoskey, & T. Russell (Eds.), *International handbook of self study of teaching practices* (pp. 817–869). Kluwer Press. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-6545-3_21

Labov, W. (2012). *Dialect diversity in America: The politics of language change*. University of Virginia Press.

Lancaster, L., & Taylor, R. (1992). Critical approaches to language, learning, and pedagogy: A case study. In Norman Fairclough (Ed.), *Critical language awareness* (pp. 256–284). Longman.

Lantolf, J. P. (2000). Second language learning as a mediated process. *Language Teaching*, *33*, 79–96.

Lantolf, J. P. (2007). Sociocultural theory: A unified approach to L2 learning and teaching. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 693–700). Springer.

Lee, A. (2000). *Composing critical pedagogies*. National Council of Teachers of English.

Lee, G., & Schallert, D. L. (2008). Meeting in the margins: Effects of the teacher-student relationship on revision processes of EFL college students taking a composition course. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *17*(3), 165–182.

Lee, I. (2008). Student reactions to teacher feedback in two Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *17*, 144–164.

Lee, I. (2017). *Classroom writing assessment and and feedback in L2 school contexts*. Springer.

Lee, M. E. (2014). Shifting to the World Englishes paradigm by way of the translingual approach: Code-meshing as a necessary means of transforming composition pedagogy. *TESOL Journal*, *5*(2), 312–329.

Leki, H. (2006). '"You cannot ignore"': L2 graduate students' response to discipline-based written feedback. In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing* (pp. 266–286). Cambridge University Press.

Lewis, C., Enciso, P., & Moje, E. B. (2007). Introduction: Reframing sociocultural research on literacy. In C. Lewis, P. Enciso, & E. B. Moje (Eds.), *Reframing sociocultural research on literacy* (pp. 1–11). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Li, D. (2000). The pragmatics of making requests in the L2 workplace: A case study of language socialization. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *57*(1), 58–87.

Lie, K. Y. (2009). Englishisation through World English as a cultural commodity: the literacy practices of multilingual students in Global Malaysian Higher Education. In K. K. Tam (Ed.), *Englishization in Asia: Language and Cultural Issues* (pp. 88–118). Open University of Hong Kong Press.

Lippi-Green, R. (2011). *English with an accent: Language, ideology, and discrimination in the United States* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203348802

Liu, P. H. E., & Tannacito, D. J. (2013). Resistance by L2 writers: The role of racial and language ideology in imagined community and identity investment. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *22*(4), 355–373. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2013.05.001

Lockwood, H. M., & Saft, S. L. (2016). Shifting language ideologies and the perceptions of Hawai'i Creole among educators at the university level in Hawai'i. *Linguistics and Education*, *33*, 1–13.

Lorimer Leonard, R. (2013). Writing across languages: Developing rhetorical attunement. In S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as a translingual practice between communities and classrooms* (pp. 162–169). Routledge.

Loughran, John, & Northfield, J. (1998). A framework for the development of self-study practice. In Mary Lynn Hamilton (Ed.), *Reconceptualizing teaching practice: Developing competence through self-study*. Routledge.

Lu, M.-Z. (1994). Professing multiculturalism: The politics of style in the contact zone. *College Composition and Communication*, *45*(4), 442–458.

Lunenberg, M., Zwart, R., & Korthagen, F. (2010). Critical issues in supporting self-study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *26*(6), 1280–1289.

Lunsford, A. A. (2016). *EasyWriter*. Bedford/St. Martins.

Machado, E., & Hartman, P. (2019). Translingual writing in a linguistically diverse primary classroom. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *51*(4), 480–503. https://doi.org/10.1177/1086296X19877462

Mahboob, A. (2014). Language variation and education: A focus on Pakistan. In S. Bushfeld, T. Hoffmann, M. Huber, & A. Kautzsch (Eds.), *The evolution of Englishes. The dynamic model and beyond.* (pp. 267–281). John Benjamins Publishing Company. https://doi.org/10.1075/veaw.g49.15mah

Mahboob, A., & Devrim, D. Y. (2013). Supporting independent construction online: Feedback in the SLATE project. *Linguistics and the Human Sciences*, *7*(1–3), 101–123. https://doi.org/10.1558/lhs.v7i1-3.101

Mahfoodh, O., & Pandian, A. (2011). A qualitative case study of EFL students' affective reactions to and perceptions of their teachers' written feedback. *English Language Teaching*, *4*(3), 14–25.

Males, T. (2000). What is critical in critical language awareness? *Language Awareness*, *9*(3), 147–159.

Matarese, M., & Anson, C. (2010). Teacher response to AAE features in the writing of college students: A case study in the social construction of error. In J. B. Smith (Ed.), *The elephant in the classroom: Race and writing* (pp. 111–136). Hampton Press.

Matsuda, P. K. (2006). The myth of linguistic homogeneity in U.S. college composition. *College English*, *68*(6), 637–651. https://doi.org/10.2307/25472180

Matsuda, P. K. (2012). On the nature of second language writing: Replication in a postmodern field. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *21*(3), 300–302.

Mayan, M. J. (2016). *Essentials of qualitative inquiry*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526417978.n2

McArthur, A. (1987). The English languages. *English Today*, *11*, 9–11.

McCarty, T. L., & Nicholas, S. E. (2014). Reclaiming indigenous languages: A reconsideration of the roles and responsibilities of schools. *Review of Research in Education*, *38*(1), 106–136. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X13507894

Mellor, B., & Patterson, A. (2004). Poststructuralism in English classrooms: Critical literacy and after. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *17*(1), 85–102. https://doi.org/10.1080/0951839032000150248

Merga, M. K., & Booth, S. (2017). Investigating debates around racism in sport to facilitate perspective transformation in the secondary English classroom. *Journal of Transformative Education*, *15*(3), 184–202. https://doi.org/10.1177/1541344617692773

Merkel, W. (2018). Role reversals: A case study of dialogic interactions and feedback on L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *39*, 16–28.

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons.

Metz, M. (2018). Exploring the complexity of high school students' beliefs about language variation. *Linguistics and Education*, *45*, 10–19.

https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2018.02.003

Mezirow, J. (1990). *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning*. Jossey-Bass Inc.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*. SAGE Publications.

Mitchell, J. C. (1984). Typicality and the case study. In R. Ellen (Ed.), *Ethnographic research: A guide to general conduct* (pp. 238–241). Academic Press.

Mohamad, M., & Boyd, J. (2010). Realizing distributed gains: How collaboration with support services transformed a basic writing program for international students. *Journal of Basic Writing*, *29*(1), 78–99.

Mohr, M. M. (2001). Drafting ethical guidelines for teacher research in schools. In J. Zeni (Ed.), *Ethical issues in practioner research* (pp. 3–12). Teachers College Press.

Moje, E. B., & Lewis, C. (2007). Examining opportunities to learn literacy: The role of critical sociocultural literacy research. In C. Lewis, P. Enciso, & E. B. Moje (Eds.), *Reframing sociocultural research on literacy* (pp. 15–48). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Montgomery, J. L., & Baker, W. (2007). Teacher-written feedback: Student perceptions, teacher self-assessment, and actual teacher performance. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *16*(2), 82–99.

Morgan, B. (1995). Promoting and assessing critical language awareness. *TESOL Journal*, *5*(2), 10–15.

Mosley Wetzel, M., & Rogers, R. (2015). Constructing racial literacy through critical language awareness: A case study of a beginning literacy teacher. *Linguistics and Education*, *32*, 27–40.

Nagode, G. P., Pižorn, K., & Juriševič, M. (2014). The role of written corrective feedback in developing writing in L2. *ELOPE: English Language Overseas Perspectives and Enquiries*, *11*(2), 89.

Nassaji, H. (2017). Negotiated oral feedback in response to written errors. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning: Research, theory, applications, implications* (pp. 114–128). Routledge.

Negro, I., & Chanquoy, L. (2005). The effect of psycholinguistic research on the teaching of writing. *L1-Educational Studies in Language and Literature*, *5*(2), 105–111.

Nushi, M. (2016). On the role of L1 markedness and L2 input robustness in determining potentially fossilizable language forms in Iranian EFL learners' writing. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *12*(2), 66–86.

O' Toole, J. (2018). Institutional storytelling and personal narratives: Reflecting on the 'value' of narrative inquiry. *Irish Educational Studies*, *37*(2), 175–189.

O'Hallaron, C. L., Palincsar, A. S., & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2015). Reading science: Using systemic functional linguistics to support critical language awareness. *Linguistics and Education*, *32*, 55–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2015.02.002

Ochs, E., & Schieffelin, B. B. (2012). The theory of language socialization. In A. Duranti, E. Ochs, & B. B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *The handbook of language socialization* (pp. 1–21). Blackwell Publishing. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/9781444342901.ch1

OELA. (2018). *Fast facts: English Learner (EL) populations by local educational agency*. U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition. https://ncela.ed.gov/files/fast_facts/LEAs_Fact_Sheet_2018_Final.pdf

Panahi, P., Birjandi, P., & Azabdaftari, B. (2013). Toward a sociocultural approach to feedback provision in L2 writing classrooms: the alignment of dynamic assessment and teacher error feedback. *Language Testing in Asia*, *3*(1), 13.

Pandey, A. (2012). Rethinking process-based writing approaches in the ESOL middle school classroom: Developing linguistic fluency via hybrid pedagogies. *TESOL Journal*, *3*(4), 659–697.

Park, H.-Y. (2008). "You are confusing! ': Tensions between teacher's and students''' discourses in the classroom.'" *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, *4311*(43), 749–4025.

Patthey-Chavez, G. G., Matsumura, L. C., & Valdés, R. (2004). Investigating the process approach to writing instruction in urban middle schools. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *47*(6), 462–476.

Paugh, P. C., & Dudley-Marling, C. (2011). "Speaking" deficit into (or out of) existence: How language constrains classroom teachers' knowledge about instructing diverse learners. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, *15*(8), 819–833.

Pavlenko, A. (2002). 'We have room for but one language here': Language and national identity in the US at the turn of the 20th century. *Multilingua*, *21*, 163–196.

Pennycook, A. (2010). Critical and alternative directions in applied linguistics. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, *33*(2), 16.1-16.16.

Pinnegar, S., & Hamilton, M. L. (2009). *Self-study of practice as a genre of qualitative research*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-9512-2_4

Pittaway, S., & Dowden, T. (2017). Providing students with written feedback on their assessment: A collaborative self-study exploring the nexus of research and practice. *Studying Teacher Education*, *10*(3), 197–203.

Pole, C., & Morrison, M. (2003). *Ethnography for education*. Open University Press.

Power, B. M. (1999). When to write: Strategies to find time for notetaking. In R. S. Hubbard & B. M. Power (Eds.), *Living the questions: A guide for teacher researchers* (pp. 105–110). Stenhouse Publishers.

Prior, P. (2006). A sociocultural theory of writing. In C. A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J.

Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research* (pp. 54–66). Guilford Press.

Quan, T. (2020). Critical language awareness and L2 learners of Spanish: An action-research study. *Foreign Language Annals*, *53*(4), 897–919. https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12497

Rahimi, M. (2013). Is training student reviewers worth its while? A study of how training influences the quality of students' feedback and writing. *Language Teaching Research*, *17*(1), 67–89. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168812459151

Rahimivand, M., & Kuhi, D. (2014). An exploration of discoursal construction of identity in academic writing. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *98*, 1492–1501.

Ramirez, A. (2018). Paraphrastic academic writing: Entry point for first generation advanced bilingual college students. In R. Harman (Ed.), *Bilingual learners and social equity: Critical approaches to Systemic Functional Linguistics* (Issue 33, pp. 179–198). Springer.

Razfar, A. (2010). Repair with confianza: Rethinking the context of corrective feedback for English learners (ELs). *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *9*(2), 11–31.

Riley, K. (2012). Language socialization and language ideologies. In A. Duranti, E. Ochs, & B. B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *The handbook of language socialization* (pp. 493–514). Blackwell Publishing. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/9781444342901.ch21

Roca de Larios, J., Nicolás-Conesa, F., & Coyle, Y. (2016). Focus on writers: Processes and strategies. In R. M. Manchón & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *The handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 267–286). De Gruyter.

Rogers, R., & Mosley Wetzel, M. (2014). *Designing critical literacy education through critical discourse analysis: Pedagogical and research tools for teacher researchers*. Routledge.

Rose, H., & Galloway, N. (2017). Debating standard language ideology in the classroom: Using the 'speak good English movement' to raise awareness of global Englishes. *RELC Journal*, *48*(3), 294–301. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688216684281

Salija, K. (2017). The effect of using outlines on idea development quality of students essay writings. *International Journal of Language Education*, *1*(1), 11–19. https://doi.org/10.26858/ijole.v1i1.2867

Samy Alim, H., & Smitherman, G. (2012). *Articulate while Black: Barack Obama, language, and race in the US*. Oxford University Press.

Sanchez, D. M. (2010). Hip-hop and a hybrid text in a postsecondary English class. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *53*(6), 476–487.

Sanchez, D. M., & Paulson, E. J. (2008). Critical language awareness and learners in college transitional English. *Teaching English in the Two-Year College*, *36*(2), 164–176.

Sanz-Sanchez, I., & Yerrekia, L. (2014). Explicit critical language awareness: What are we really doing in our linguistics courses? *International Journal of Lasso*, *33*(1), 1–37.

Schleppegrell, M., & Moore, J. (2018). Linguistic tools for supporting emergent critical language

awareness in the elementary school. In R. Harman (Ed.), *Bilingual learners and social equity: Critical approaches to Systemic Functional Linguistics* (Vol. 33, pp. 23–43). Springer.

Schreiber, B. R., & Watson, M. (2018). Translingualism ≠ code-meshing: A response to Gevers' "Translingualism revisited" (2018). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *42*, 94–97. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2018.10.007

Scrocco, D. L. A. (2012). Do you care to add something? Articulating the student interlocutor's voice in writing response dialogue. *Teaching English in the Two-Year College*, *39*(3), 274–292.

Seal of Biliteracy Massachusetts. (2021). *FAQ - For schools & districts*. Language Opportunity Coalition. https://sealofbiliteracyma.org/language-instruction-pedagogy/

Séror, J. (2009). Institutional forces and L2 writing feedback in higher education. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *66*(2), 203–232.

Severino, C. (1993). The sociopolitical implications of response to second language and second dialect writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *2*(3), 181–201.

Severino, C. (2017). "Multilingualizing" composition: A diary self-study of learning Spanish and Chinese. *Composition Studies*, *45*(2), 12–31.

Shapiro, S., Cox, M., Shuck, G., & Simnitt, E. (2016). Teaching for agency: From appreciating linguistic diversity to empowering student writers. *Composition Studies*, *44*(1), 31–52.

Sheen, Y. (2010). The role of oral and written corrective feedback in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *32*, 169–179.

Sheen, Y. (2013). What should teachers do about learner errors? *The European Journal of Applied Linguistics and TEFL*, 5–27.

Shen, F. (1989). The classroom and the wider culture: Identity as a key to learning English composition. *College Composition and Communication*, *40*(4), 459–266.

Showstack, R. E. (2015). Institutional representations of 'Spanish' and 'Spanglish': managing competing discourses in heritage language instruction. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *15*(3), 341–361.

Siegel, J. (2006). Language ideologies and the education of speakers of marginalized language varieties: Adopting a critical awareness approach. *Linguistics and Education*, *17*(2), 157–174. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2006.08.002

Silverstein, M. (1996). Monoglot "standard" in America: Standardization and metaphors of linguistic hegemony. In D. Brenneis & R. Macaulay (Eds.), *The matrix of language: Contemporary linguistic anthropology* (pp. 284–306). Westview Press.

Simmons, A. M. (2018). Student use of SFL resources on fantasy, canonical, and non-fiction texts: Critical literacy in the high school ELA classroom. In R. Harman (Ed.), *Bilingual learners and social equity: Critical approaches to Systemic Functional Linguistics* (pp. 71–

90). Springer.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2015). Linguicism. In *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 1–6). https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal1460

Slavkov, N. (2015). Sociocultural theory, the L2 writing process, and google drive: Strange bedfellows? *TESL Canada Journal*, *32*(2), 80–94.

Smith, B. E., Pacheco, M. B., & de Almeida, C. R. (2017). Multimodal codemeshing: Bilingual adolescents' processes composing across modes and languages. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *36*, 6–22.

Smitherman, G. (1995). "Students'' Right to their own Language": A retrospective." *The English Journal*, *84*(1), 21.

Smitherman, G. (1998). Ebonics, King, and Oakland: Some folk don't believe fat meat is greasy. *Journal of English Linguistics*, *26*(2), 97–107.

Souto-Manning, M. (2014). Critical narrative analysis: The interplay of critical discourse and narrative analyses. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *27*(2), 159–180.

Spradley, J. P. (1979). *The ethnographic interview*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Squire, C. (2012). From experience-centered to socioculturally-oriented approaches to narrative. In M. Andrews, C. Squire, & M. Tamboukou (Eds.), *Doing narrative research* (pp. 47–71). Sage.

Sterponi, L. (2012). Literacy socialization. In A. Duranti, E. Ochs, & B. B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *The handbook of language socialization* (pp. 227–246). Blackwell Publishing.

Stone, B. J., & Stewart, S. (2016). HBCUs and writing programs: Critical hip hop language pedagogy and first-year student success. *Composition Studies*, *44*(2), 183–186.

Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2010). Learners processing, uptake, and retention of corrective feedback on writing: Case studies. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *32*(2), 303–334.

Strayer, N. (2016, August 26). The great out-of-state migration: Where students go. *New York Times*. https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2016/08/26/us/college-student-migration.html

Strunk, W., & White, E. B. (1959). *The elements of style*. Macmillan.

Surtees, V. (2016). Beliefs about language learning in study abroad: Advocating for a language ideology approach. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, *27*, 85–103.

Svalberg, A. M.-L. (2007). Language awareness and language learning. *Language Teaching*, *40*(4), 287–308. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444807004491

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2012). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills* (3rd ed.). University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.2173936

Sze, C. (2002). A case study of the revision process of a reluctant ESL student writer. *TESL Canada Journal*, *19*(2), 21–36.

Tahriri, A., Shabani, M., & Zokaei, S. (2016). EFL learners' attitudes toward writing instruction based on critical language awareness. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *6*(1), 127–133.

Tan, A. (1990). Mother tongue. *The Threepenny Review*, *43*, 7–8.

Tardy, C. (2006). Appropriation, ownership, and agency: Negotiating teacher feedback in academic settings. In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 60–78). Cambridge University Press.

Tardy, C. M. (2011). Enacting and transforming local language policies. *College Composition and Communication*, *62*(4), 634–661.

Tatum, B. D. (1997). *Why are all the Black kids sitting together in the cafeteria? And other conversations about race*. Basic Books.

Torres, J., & Anguiano, C. (2016). Interpreting feedback: A discourse analysis of teacher feedback and student identity. *Practitioner Research in Higher Education*, *10*(2), 2–11.

Toth, C. (2013). Beyond assimilation: Tribal colleges, basic writing, and the exigencies of settler colonialism. *Journal of Basic Writing*, *32*(1), 4–36.

Treglia, M. (2008). Feedback on feedback: Exploring student responses to teachers' written commentary. *Journal of Basic Writing*, *27*(1), 105.

Truscott, J. (1999). The case for "the case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes": A response to Ferris. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *8*(2), 111–122.

Uzun, K., & Zehir Topkaya, E. (2020). The effects of genre-based instruction and genre-focused feedback on L2 writing performance. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, *36*(5), 438–461. https://doi.org/10.1080/10573569.2019.1661317

van Dijk, T. A. (2001). Principles of critical discourse analysis. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, & S. J. Yates (Eds.), *Discourse theory and practice: A reader*. Sage Publications.

van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology and semiotics of language learning: A sociocultural perspective*. Kluwer Academic Publishers. https://doi.org/10.1007/1-4020-7912-5

Vetter, A., Reynolds, J., Beane, H., Roquemore, K., Rorrer, A., & Shepherd-Allred, K. (2012). Reframing resistance in the English classroom. *The English Journal*, *102*(2), 114–121.

Villamil, O. S., & de Guerrero, M. C. M. (2006). Sociocultural theory: A framework for understanding the social-cognitive dimensions of peer feedback. In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 23–41). Cambridge University Press.

Wallace, C. (1992). Critical literacy awareness in the EFL classroom. In Norman Fairclough (Ed.), *Critical language awareness* (pp. 59–92). Longman.

Wallace, C. (1999). Critical language awareness: Key principles for a course in critical reading. *Language Awareness*, *8*(2), 98–119.

Walsh, S., & Mann, S. (2015). Doing reflective practice: A data-led way forward. *ELT Journal*, *69*(4), 351–362.

Wang, T., & Jiang, L. (2015). Studies on written corrective feedback: Theoretical perspectives, empirical evidence, and future directions. *English Language Teaching*, *8*(1), 110–120.

Wang, T., & Li, L. Y. (2011). "Tell me what to do" vs. "guide me through it": Feedback experiences of international doctoral students. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, *12*(2), 101–112.

Wang, Y., & Jenkins, J. (2016). "Nativeness" and intelligibility: Impacts of intercultural experience through English as a lingua franca on Chinese speakers' language attitudes. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *39*(1), 38–58. https://doi.org/10.1515/cjal-2016-0003

Watson, M. (2018). Contesting standardized English: There are many versions of English, yet we judge people by their command of standardized English. Are we right to abet this standard language ideology in our classrooms? *Academe*, *108*(4), 37–40.

Weaver, M. M. (2019). "I still think there's a need for proper, academic, Standard English": Examining a teacher's negotiation of multiple language ideologies. *Linguistics and Education*, *49*, 41–51.

Weissberg, R. (2006). Scaffolded feedback: Tutorial conversations with advanced L2 writers. In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues*. Cambridge University Press.

Weninger, C., & Kan, K. H. Y. (2013). (Critical) language awareness in business communication. *English for Specific Purposes*, *32*(2), 59–71.

Wildman, S. M., & Davis, A. D. (1995). Language and silence: Making systems of privilege visible. *Santa Clara Law Review*, *35*(3), 881–906.

Wiley, T. G., & de Klerk, G. (2010). Common myths and stereotypes regarding literacy and language diversity in the multilingual United States. In M. Farr, L. Seloni, & J. Song (Eds.), *Ethnolinguistic diversity and education: Language literacy, and culture* (pp. 23–43). Routledge.

Wilhelm, J. (2009). The power of teacher inquiry: Developing a critical literacy for teachers. *Voices from the Middle*, *17*(2), 36–39.

Williams, J., & Grierson, A. (2016). Facilitating professional development during international practicum: Understanding our work as teacher educators through critical incidents. *Studying Teacher Education*, *12*(1), 55–69.

Williams, J. M. (1981). The phenomenology of error. *College Composition and Communication*, *32*(2), 152–168.

Wodak, R. (1995). Critical linguistics and critical discourse. In J. Verschueren, J. Ostman, & J. Blommaert (Eds.), *Handbook of pragmatics* (pp. 204–210). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/hop.m.cri1

Woolard, K. A. (1998a). Introduction: Language ideology as a field of inquiry. In B. B. Schieffelin, K. A. Woolard, & P. V. Kroskrity (Eds.), *Language ideologies: Practice and theory* (pp. 3–31). Oxford University Press.

Woolard, K. A. (1998b). Introduction: Language ideology as a field of inquiry. In B. B. Schieffelin, K. A. Woolard, & P. V Kroskrity (Eds.), *Language ideologies: practice and theory* (Vol. 16, pp. 3–31). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.2307/417737

Yazan, B. (2015). Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam, and Stake. *The Qualitative Report*, *20*(2), 149–182.

Young, V. A. (2007). *Your average nigga: Performing race, literacy and masculinity*. Wayne State University Press.

Zacharakis, J., Steichen, M., & Sabates, G. D. De. (2011). Understanding the experiences of adult learners: Content analysis of focus group data. *Adult Basic Education and Literacy Journal*, *5*(2), 84–95.

Zacharias, N. T. (2007). Teacher and student attitudes toward teacher feedback. *RELC Journal*, *38*(1), 38–52.

Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, *19*, 79–102.

Zappa-Hollman, S., & Duff, P. A. (2015). Academic English socialization through individual networks of practice. *TESOL Quarterly*, *49*(2), 333–368. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.188

Zavala, V. (2015). "It will emerge if they grow fond of it": Translanguaging and power in Quechua teaching. *Linguistics and Education*, *32*, 16–26.

Zawacki, T., Habib, A., Hajabbasi, E., Antram, A., & Das, A. (2007). *Valuing written accents: Non-native students talk about identity, academic writing, and meeting teachers' expectations*. George Mason University. https://writtenaccents.gmu.edu/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/valuing-written-accents-second-edition.pdf

Zeni, J. (2001). Introduction. In J. Zeni (Ed.), *Ethical issues in practioner research* (pp. xi–xxi). Teachers College Press.

Zhang, Y., & O'Halloran, K. L. (2019). Empowering the point: Pains and gains of a writer's traversals between print-based writing and multimodal composing. *Linguistics and Education*, *51*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2019.04.003

Zhu, W. (2001). Interaction and feedback in mixed peer response groups. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *10*(4), 251–276. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(01)00043-1

Zumbrunn, S., Marrs, S., & Mewborn, C. (2016). Toward a better understanding of student perceptions of writing feedback: a mixed methods study. *Reading and Writing*, *29*(2), 349–370.