

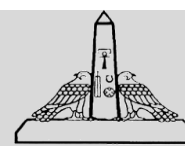


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Historical as well as Theoretical Evidence for the Efficacy of EFL Teachers' Written corrective Feedback on Students' Writing Accuracy

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Abstract

This research paper aims at clarifying the historical as well as the theoretical importance of the written corrective feedback (WCF) of teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) on the writing accuracy of the students. To arrive at this end, the study offers a historical as well as theoretical review of the prominent figures and schools of thought relevant to WCF. The study lies in the area "Applied Linguistics," which is defined according to Cambridge Dictionary as "the study of language as it affects situations in real life, for example in education or technology" (retrieved on Oct. 1st, 2017). The insights included in this research are mainly of interest to EFL practitioners. This review includes supporters as well as opponents of the use of WCF in second language (L2) writing. First, feedback is defined. Second, the history of feedback practice since the sixties to the nineties is chronologically traced. Third, the theoretical perspectives underlying the study of feedback are summarized to show the positive effect of WCF on students' writing summarizes. This paper also illustrates the fact that the issue of implementing feedback in general and in EFL contexts in particular was and still is controversial. That is to say, to date, researchers as well as language practitioners are still in a constant struggle on whether to apply WCF or not, and on how, when and by whom it should be provided. However, through the analysis of this study, it is apparent that the linguistic and the pedagogical pendulums are swung more into the positive effect of WCF on L2 students' writing accuracy.

Keywords

second language acquisition, second language writing, feedback, cognitive psychology, accuracy, efficacy.

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0.1 Introduction:

According to the online dictionary, Dictionary.com, “feedback” is defined as the “evaluative information derived from such a reaction or response, or knowledge of the results of any behavior, considered as influencing or modifying further performance” (retrieved on Dec. 3rd, 2010). In relation to education, feedback has been defined as the information supplied by experts to bridge the gap between students’ actual competence and the reference level they should attain (Ramaprasad, 1983, as cited in El Sayed, 2007). In relation to writing, Ferris, Pezone, Tade, and Tinti (1997) also defined it as a teacher’s written reaction to student writing, which “allows for a level of individualized attention and one-on-one communication that is rarely possible in the day-to-day operations of a class, and it plays an important role in motivating and encouraging students” (p. 155).

According to Beuningen (2010), the notion that successful Second Language (L2) pedagogy should include attention to linguistic form gained wide recognition recently. That is to say, by overlooking the linguistic form, Second Language Acquisition (SLA) would be characterized by being slow, difficult, and unsuccessful (Doughty, 2003, as cited in Beuningen, 2010). An example of successful pedagogy is Long’s focus-on-form approach, which should be implemented in a communicative context (Long, 1991, 1996, 2000, Long & Robinson, 1998, as cited in Beuningen, 2010). Lyster (2007) explained that the success of this pedagogy is attributed to Segalowitz’s (1997, 2000) proposition of transfer-appropriate learning, which necessitates that “the kind of cognitive processing that occurs while performing [language] learning tasks should ideally resemble the kind of processing involved during communicative language use” (p. 43, as cited in Beuningen, 2010). Therefore, the pitfall of decontextualized grammar instruction is that L2 students may fail to transfer knowledge gained from such rigid grammar teachings to real life communication.

Whereas to Ellis (2005), “feedback” is a potential pedagogical tool for the focus-on-form approach, Beuningen (2010) noted that feedback “is a reactive focus-on-form methodology with the specific value of inducing learners’ attention to form in the context of performing a task in a personalized, individualized manner” (as cited in Beuningen, 2010, p.5). Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) is superior to oral CF in this respect because it does not disrupt the communication flow because L2 learners handle WCF after meaning has been conveyed (Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998, as cited in Beuningen, 2010).

0.2 Historical Background of Research on the Efficacy of Feedback

This part of the research traces the history of research on teacher feedback practices both oral and written since the sixties to the nineties. It demonstrates the views of the supporters as well as the opponents of teacher feedback. This historical log of research on the effect of feedback on the

improvement of L2 students' language proficiency shows that although feedback was not a preferred practice in ancient times, gradually it started to gain positive recognition among linguists and language practitioners. However, there is no definite answer as to the how and when should L2 teachers provide such feedback.

The Modern Language Material Development Center (1961), according to Hendrickson (1978), pioneered in developing the Teachers' Manual for German, Level One. The manual offers guidelines for correcting students' errors, recommended that students' errors should be corrected instantly (Hendrickson, 1978, p. 3, 17, 21, 26). The manual, also, called for prohibiting students from detecting or correcting their errors by themselves (Hendrickson, 1978, p. 28, 32). However, many foreign language teachers rejected error-eradication based on the hypothesis that it is natural to commit mistakes while learning and that correcting every single error may disrupt the flow of the process of learning and affect the students' self-confidence (Hendrickson, 1978).

Structural linguistics, then, suggested contrastive analysis as another apparatus in helping teachers handling their students' errors. The underlying assumption, in this respect, is that the major reason behind students' errors is the interference of their L1 into their target language production. According to Hendrickson (1978), numerous linguists believed that, if language teachers could successfully discern the differences between the two languages, they would wisely adopt the appropriate instructional methods and make use of suitable teaching materials that would enable students to minimize their errors. However, by the late 1960s, research in transformational-generative grammar, first language acquisition and cognitive psychology led to a shift in language instruction to the communicative competence. As cited by Hendrickson (1978), Chastain (1971) asserted that: "More important than the error-free speech is the creation of an atmosphere in which the students want to talk" (p.249).

Therefore, a strong link between foreign language acquisition and First language Acquisition (FLA) may also offer a plausible explanation for providing feedback. Foreign language errors are no longer looked down upon based on the analogy that children do make mistakes while acquiring their mother tongue; the question became rather which errors should be corrected and who should correct them. Hendrickson (1978) cited, within this communicative competence framework, Burt and Kiparsky's (1972) who attempted to classify errors into two important categories, namely: global errors and local errors. First, global errors are those errors that render a speaker's or a writer's message incomprehensible. Second, local errors are

errors that do not impede comprehension. Hendrickson called the global errors communicative ones and the local errors non-communicative.

According to Hendrickson (1978), Burt (1975) contended that if teachers confined their correction efforts only to communicative errors, this would ameliorate students' self-confidence and motivation to learn their L2. Language practitioners, according to Hendrickson (1978), should handle those errors, which are indicators that actual learning is taking place, through tolerance and offering constructive periodic feedback. However, George (1972), Corder (1973), and Ravem (1973), as cited by Hendrickson (1978), agreed that students learn more if they be allowed to self-correct themselves once they are made aware of their errors, especially with grammatical errors rather than lexical ones (Wingfield 1975). Hendrickson (1978), thus, concluded that what can be mostly agreed upon is that students' errors are better corrected than not. However, there is no consensus so far as to who should correct these errors, when to be corrected and which errors should be given the priority of correction.

Besides, according to Beuningen (2010), the earlier research about the effect of written feedback on students' writing accuracy following the "learning-to-write agenda" (product-oriented writing), can be divided into two domains; first, the research that focused on the influence of WCF during the revision process (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1997; Ashwell, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Second, the research on the question of whether feedback results in a learning effect (Semke, 1984; Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992; Polio et al., 1998; Chandler, 2003). Beuningen (2010) contended that although the first group of studies showed that WCF led Second Language (L2) students to improve their writing accuracy during the revision process (Ferris & Roberts, 2001), these findings are not of much value from a Second Language Acquisition (SLA) perspective. Beuningen clarified that Polio et al. (1998) revealed that development (italics in original), which is the long-term effects of pedagogical interventions like WCF, is the ultimate goal of SLA. Hence Truscott and Hsu (2008) stated that evidence of development cannot be provided by comparing two versions of the same text; WCF can be said to positively affect learning if only two writing topics are to be compared. In this respect, and as testified by numerous researchers much empirical work is still needed to determine the effectiveness of WCF on L2 writing development (Truscott, 1996; Ferris, 1999; Beuningen, 2010).

0.3 Perspectives of Research on the Study of Feedback

Leeman (2003) stated that "feedback is a central issue in scholarship dealing with theoretical concerns as well as with instructional design" (p. 111). In other words, it is insightful to provide a historical and theoretical contextualization about WCF. Leeman (2003) also confirmed that numerous linguists revealed that feedback is the field in which SLA researchers and language practitioners "historically have not seen eye to

eye” (Leeman, 2003, p. 113). On the one hand, Scachter in 1991 stated that many SLA researchers have seen that WCF (also known as negative evidence) does not lead to any development in the field of L2, since that it has a minor influence in language acquisition (as cited in Leeman, 2003). On the other hand, language practitioners did not question the inevitability of feedback, but rather wondered about the optimal way of providing such pedagogical scheme. However, thanks to insights from cognitive psychology, error correction has recently gained the interest of SLA researchers as a potentially beneficial pedagogy in L2 development. Moreover, it has become accepted that another pivotal goal of SLA research, besides the key objective of theory building, is constructing the knowledge that leads to effective instructional tools (e.g. R. Ellis, 1997; Mitchell & Myles, 1998, as cited in Leeman, 2003, p. 126).

The researcher will, therefore, provide a summarized review of the research on WCF from the perspectives of SLA, L2 writing, cognitive linguistics, educational psychology, as well as sociolinguistics.

0.4 Feedback from the Perspectives of SLA and L2 Writing

As Leeman (2003) suggests, the history of feedback goes back to the introduction of generative linguistics and its overall eschewal of research on the behaviorist model of language learning, which valued the effect of “positive feedback, with target behaviors reinforced by means of rewards and other positive responses from the environment” (P. 114). Contrary to Behaviorism, Chomsky (1981) argued that generative linguists believed that human languages do have biologically determined constraints or Universal grammar (UG), by which language as a set of abstract rules can be acquired. This generativist view is supported by the following arguments: (a) the bulk of the linguistic data which speakers are exposed to is by no means greater than the speakers' linguistic knowledge; (b) Learners encounter poor input, such as “false starts, slips of the tongue...;” (c) When acquiring their language, children are not supplied with negative evidence concerning the impossible structures (Chomsky, 1981, cited in Leeman, 2003, p. 114).

Leeman (2003), in clarifying the Chomskyan(1981) stance against the use of negative evidence in First Language (L1) Acquisition, shed light on the widely held belief that children do acquire their mother tongue without any negative evidence or remarks about the ungrammaticality of their utterances being given by their parents. This deeply rooted notion was primarily empirically supported by a one small-scale study by Brown and Hanlon (1970) and personal anecdotes. Nonetheless, the ensuing wave of research revealed that some parents do correct their children speech by means of “clarification requests and recasts, defined as grammatical

reformulations of the child's ungrammatical utterance" (Hirsh-Pasek, Treiman, & Schneiderman, 1984; Demetras, Post, & Snow, 1986; as cited in Leeman, 2003, p. 114). In this light, although feedback may have a role in L1 acquisition, its indirect and unsystematic nature led many researchers to believe that it would be difficult for children to make use of such negative evidence. Moreover, although some studies showed that children linguistic growth is associated with exposure to implicit negative evidence (e.g. Farrar, 1990; Saxton, 1997, as cited in Leeman, 2003), heated controversies are still conducted concerning the theoretical implications of these studies on the problematic issue of the effectiveness of WCF on L2 writers development (Bohannon, Mac Whinney, & Snow, 1990, as cited in Leeman, 2003).

In spite of the differences between L1 and L2 acquisition, as Leeman put it, the role of feedback and negative evidence in L2 research has been congruent with that of L1 research (Bley-Vroman, 1988; 1990; Mac Whinney, 2001; Ellis, 2002; as cited in Leeman, 2003). Hence, going along the same line with L1 acquisition research findings that children learn their L1 based only on positive evidence, SLA research following the UG model maintains that negative feedback has no role in acquiring L2 syntax (e.g. Beck, Schwartz, & Eubank, 1995, as cited in Leeman, 2003). However, it is still possible that the acquisition of other aspects of L2 (e.g. morphology, lexis) is positively affected by negative evidence (e.g. Schwartz, 1993, as cited in Leeman, 2003).

0.5 Feedback from the Perspective of Cognitive Linguistics

Within the area of cognitive linguistics, there are several lines of research that support the efficacy of WCF on L2 writers' accuracy. However, other cognitive linguists did not lend support to the role of WCF on L2 writing accuracy; though Anderson's (1983) skill acquisition theory, Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis, Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis, and Swain's (2005) output hypothesis support the use of WCF as an effective pedagogical tool, Krashen's (1984) learning acquisition hypothesis disagrees.

The skill acquisition theory contradicts the Chomskyan (1981) belief that the process of language acquisition, especially L1, is different from the acquisition of any other skill or domain of knowledge. The skill acquisition theory, a valuable line of research closely integrating cognitive psychology research into SLA, puts SLA research in much resemblance with that of learning other complex cognitive skills and hence as subject to the same learning strategies. This theory functions as the theoretical basis to the role of negative feedback in SLA (see Dekeyser, 2001, 2010).

The skill acquisition theory maintains that in order for the learner to progress in any skill, three cognitive stages should occur, namely: "(1) acquisition of declarative knowledge, (2) proceduralization, and (3) automatization" (Anderson, 1983, 1993, as cited in Dekeyser, 2010, p.117).

Feedback seemingly plays a role in the three stages and can be summarized as follows: firstly, feedback can reinforce declarative knowledge. It can also show that much more attention and dependence on declarative knowledge are needed and that the scope of a certain rule or procedure needs to be changed in proceduralization, fine-tuning, and automatization. Moreover, avoiding the non-target L2 knowledge can be achieved through feedback.

However, Krashen's Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis (1984) (commonly known as the non-interface position) comes in contradiction with the skill acquisition theory with regard to the role of WCF in L2 learning. Krashen's (1984) hypothesis, which first appeared in the seventies, strikes a sharp distinction between L2 acquisition and L2 learning based on the context (Clark, 2007). In the formal classroom setting where students are provided with grammar instruction, learning consciously takes place; whereas, when the learner communicates in a natural situation, acquisition subconsciously occurs. Krashen (1984), hence, puts much weight on comprehensible input that facilitates acquisition.

Nonetheless, the Noticing Hypothesis by Schmidt (1990) is another theory that, in incongruence with Krashen (1984), provides solid grounds for using feedback as a powerful pedagogy. It postulates that: "subliminal language learning is impossible, and that noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input into intake." Schmidt clarified that despite the poverty of the theoretical basis for the aforementioned point of view, Bialystok (1978) has established a theoretical model in which conscious knowledge has a role in language learning, and Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) contended that language learning is facilitated by "consciousness-raising," drawing the learner's attention to the formal properties of the language. According to Schmidt in the same source, most likely, influenced by the 20th century trends rejecting the role of "consciousness" in behavior, the majority of researchers do not have a consensus about the role of consciousness in SLA. Moreover, in ancient times (when behaviorism was in vogue), unconsciousness was the only explanation for every human phenomena including language learning. However, in the past 4 decades, and in the aftermath of the decline of behaviorism, consciousness regained recognition in language learning... it is no longer "epiphenomenal". From Schmidt's point of view (1991), "Consciousness" is not only necessary for one stage of learning, but also it does have a facilitating effect for the rest of learning stages.

Schmidt (1990) equated the term "consciousness" with that of "awareness", and he distinguished three levels thereof: (1) Perception, which is generally recognized as the process of organizing the external

events (sensation-driven information) into mental folders; (2) Noticing (focal awareness), which is illustrated by Bowers' (1984) distinction between the mere "noticing" of what we are reading rather than perceiving its syntactic structure; (3) Understanding (thinking), which is the ability to analyze and compare the noticed phenomenon to other ones noticed on other occasions. In Schmidt and Frotta (1986) it is claimed that "those who notice most learn most." By analogy, as cited in Wang and Jiang (2015) Gass and Varonis (1994) stated that if noticing is important in SLA, then learners would modify their existing interlanguage (IL) knowledge, if they are to notice the gap between what they produce and what L2 speakers produce. According to Gass (1997), error correction can, thus, contribute to SLA development, since that it would lead learners to restructure the non-target like part of their interlanguage. It is clear now that WCF by acting as a "noticing facilitator," saps the gap between learners' interlanguage and the target language (TL) (as cited in Schmidt, 1990).

To avoid ambiguity, Selinker's (1972) definition of "interlanguage" should be mentioned. It is an independent linguistic system in between learner's L1 and L2 systems, which is the learning outcome of the hypothesis formation and testing (as cited in Clark, 2007). Schulz (1991) noted that "Through error analyses of speech and writing samples of learners at various stages, researchers have found that interlanguages reflect systematic patterns of error and communication strategies" (Schulz, 1991, p. 19, cited in Clark, 2007, p. 11). As per Clark, if the learner receives sufficient proper input, many of these developmental errors will finally disappear. Interlanguage has been quite an influential theory in the field of second language acquisition, because it postulates the existence of a separate mental grammar, which ESOL learners are making use of to formulate their L2 production. In this respect it is inevitable to discuss the role of input and intake (Clark, 2007).

Clark (2007) proclaimed that input and intake are two key constructs in the SLA field, as an outgrowth of greater understanding of the process of language learning. He quoted Ellis (1994) stating that the behaviorists' views of L2 learning, dominating the linguistic scene in the 1960s and 1970s, were rebutted by the results of the studies of error analysis. These results likened L2 learning to any other kind of learning, involving procedures such as "imitation, repetition, and reinforcement, which enabled learners to develop 'habits' of the L2" (Ellis, 1994, p.19, cited in Clark, 2007, p. 12). According to Ellis, however, the study of error showed that, although many errors resulted from L1 transfer, other errors are not; L2 learners have creative contributions to the process of learning and undergo stages of acquisition. Ellis referred to one of those "stages of acquisition", as named by Pit Corder (1967), and later advanced by Long (1996), intake stage. The learner, in order to achieve intake, they must first utilize input. Clark provided the definition for input as "what is available to the learner,"

and intake as “what is actually internalized” (Gass & Selinker, 2001, as cited in Clark, 2007, p. 260). Hence, the teacher’s written feedback can function as a prototype of this particular stage of SLA called input. However, it cannot be transformed into intake, unless it is internalized.

Long (1996) also disagreed with Krashen’s Input Hypothesis through his “Interaction Hypothesis”. The main difference pertains to Krashen’s claim that the input should be simplified; Long (1996) believed that input should be interactional, rather than simplified; language acquisition is based on the “interaction between internal and external factors” (as cited in Wang & Jiang, 2015, p.111).

Wang and Jiang (2015) reported that internal factors can be the process of language learning, and external factors can be input with its dichotomic nature as positive evidence and negative evidence (feedback). Figure 1 below, adapted from EL Tatawy (2002), shows Feedback as a type of input in the framework of SLA. The figure shows that feedback or negative evidence can be of two types, namely, “preemptive” and “reactive”. The preemptive feedback is pre-planned feedback based on the expected needs of the students. It comes in the form of explicit teaching of grammar rules. Conversely, the “reactive feedback” is spontaneous feedback given on the spot to address the errors committed by the students. This feedback can be implicit or explicit. The implicit can be in the form of recasts, which may result in communication breakdown. It can be simple or complex. The “explicit feedback” is the overt feedback, which refers to offering the correct form to replace the incorrect one.

This illustrates the interactive input function of oral feedback in language learning.

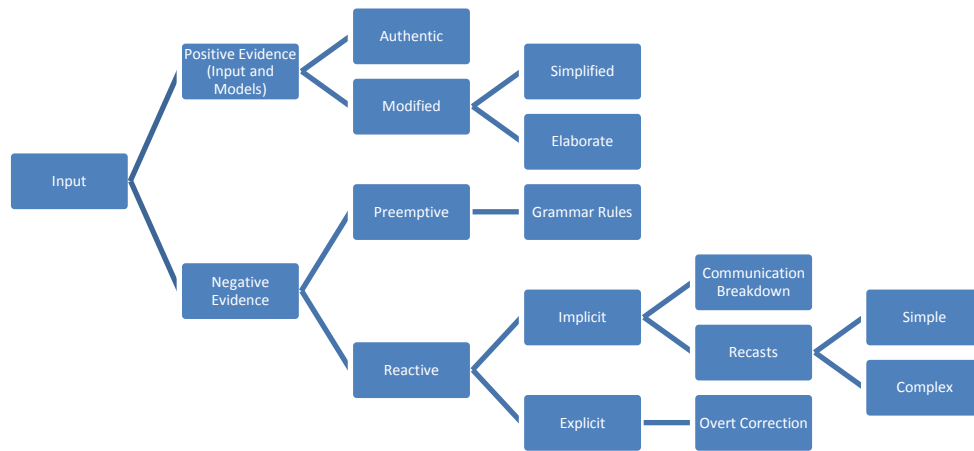


Figure 1: Types of Input in SLA (adapted from El Tatawy, 2002)

Despite the fact that “Interaction Hypothesis” pinpoints the role of corrective feedback in oral contexts rather than written ones, the pedagogical insights can by all means be applicable to written contexts. As in the case of oral interaction, learners can be granted the chance of writing modified outputs in their revised texts after receiving their teachers’ WCF. Moreover, like the oral context, conscious attention is strongly required so that learners internalize the feedback. WCF, however, has a surplus in this respect; while oral interaction is bound by constraint of on-line interaction time, the writing context offers the learners sufficient time to take notice of the feedback.

Furthermore, Wang and Jiang (2015) cited Swain’s Output Hypothesis (2005), which lays much emphasis on output in the language acquisition process. Output, from this point of view, works on the language learner to exert a lot more mental effort than that exerted during reading and listening. Swain (2005) attributed three functions to output: (a) the noticing function, as output stimulates learner’s mind to take notice of the deformity in their interlanguage system, (b) the hypothesis-testing function, and (c) output acts as a catalyst to the learner’s metalinguistic reflection, which promotes the development of their metalinguistic knowledge on the mechanism of L2. However, Swain (2005) stated that without providing sufficient appropriate feedback, output functions will not be realized. In this light, WCF aides in facilitating the “noticing” role regarding the learner’s ill-formed parts of output against the target language. Moreover, WCF improves the “awareness of self-monitoring in L2 production” by enabling learners to adjust themselves to the correct use of certain structures in their upcoming output (Wang & Jiang, 2015, p.111). WCF, as an “output monitor,” eventually, enhances learners L2 development by raising their chances of correct output.

0.6 The Relationship between Feedback and Motivation (Educational Psychology)

In the field of motivation, educational psychologists also supported the positive role of WCF on L2 learning. McClosky (1963), for example, has profoundly contributed to the field of motivation in education through his 1963 Theory of Margin, commonly known as the power-load-margin (PLM) formula. According to Merriam and Bierema (2013), he identified that: "Margin is a function of the relationship of load to power: by load we mean the self and social demands required by a person to maintain a minimum level of autonomy. By power we mean the resources, i.e., abilities, possessions, positions, allies, etc. which a person can command in coping with load (McClusky, 1970, p.27, cited in Merriam & Bierma, 2013).

As Merriam and Bierema put it, while with power surplus one will be more motivated, demotivation will be the result of a load surplus. Obviously McClusky's theory of Margin can be easily applicable in the teaching field as Merriam and Bierema cited Hiemstra and Sisco (1990) stating that teachers, unconsciously, might be a source of load surplus if they assume the classical authoritarian role, which is disrespectful of their students' attitudes and needs, or if they are disorganized in presenting material, assigning tasks and providing feedback. This means that crafty teachers should empower students with appropriate learning environments, rather than overload them. Merriam and Bierema in the same source clarify this by introducing Wlodkowski's significant postulation: "if something can be learned, it can be learned in a motivating manner...every instructional plan also needs to be a motivational plan" (Wlodkowski, 2008, pp. 46-47, italics in original, cited in Merriam & Bierma, 2013, p. 156).

Furthermore, in his *Enhancing Adult Motivation to Learn*, the most thorough exploration of motivational instruction, Wlodkowski proposes four main "motivational conditions" (Merriam & Bierema, 2013) for culturally responsive teachers to use for teaching adults. These conditions are: "establish inclusion, developing attitude, enhancing meaning, and engendering confidence." The third motivational condition, which is enhancing meaning, can be undertaken by creating an atmosphere that promotes students' points of view and principles. Wlodkowski recommended, in this respect, encouraging students to discuss their ideas, ask and answer questions, and react to feedback. As Makino (1993) stressed here, demotivation would be the result of students' ignorance of their teachers expectations of the feedback provided (Makino, 1993, cited in El Sayed, 2007). Concerning the forth condition, which is engendering confidence, Wlodkowski suggested enabling learners to recognize their

points of strength in learning, either according to them or according to their community. It is best achieved during or at the end of the class “through providing timely feedback that avoids cultural bias” (Wlodkowski, 2008, cited in Merriam & Bierema, 2013, p. 158).

0.7 Feedback from the Perspective of the Sociocultural Theory

Having discussed “feedback” from the cognitive psychology and the educational psychology perspectives, it is no less important to discuss it from the sociocultural point of view, which also supported the use of feedback in L2 learning; this refers to Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development (commonly known as ZPD). This means providing feedback that suits the learner’s particular developmental stage. In his prime review of feedback, Truscott (1996) fiercely called for the obliteration of the feedback practice in the writing class, claiming that WCF ignores “SLA insights about how different aspects of the language are acquired” (Wawire, 2013, p.1). As Wawire put it, SLA works according to a foreordained timely sequence of acquisition that includes: “vocabulary; morphology; phonology and syntax occurring separately” (Wawire, 2013, p.2). She, thus, cited Ferris (2002), assuring that errors committed by L2 learners are a mirror of their SLA processes.

Of great relevance here would be the Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory (SCT) (1976), which posits that “higher forms of thinking and the ability to perform certain complex skills originate in and are shaped by social interaction” (Wawire, 2013, p.3). For Vygotsky the ZPD summarizes the path for development and hence internalization (1978); learning is seen as the capability to perform some task under someone’s guidance in the ZPD. This guidance is identified as assisted learning or scaffolding that results in an internalization of the knowledge gained with peers of superior capabilities. Wawire confirmed that in a successive agreement (Lalande, 1982; Semke, 1982, 1984; Kepner, 1991; Reichelt, 1999, 2001; Paton, 2002) reported that the joint venture of error correction and teacher feedback leads the student to better decipher a certain error fact and helps the student correct it in the following writing assignment.

0.8 Conclusion:

In conclusion, WCF is a controversial EFL pedagogical practice since the sixties and up to our present time. On the one hand, linguists such as Truscott (1996) and Krashen (1984) as well as some teachers used to condemn such a practice for both theoretical as well as practical reasons. On the other hand, other linguists like Ferris (1999, 2003, 2004) and Schmidt (1990) do support the use of WCF for L2 learners as a means of improving their writing accuracy. Historically, the study of feedback started since the sixties and went through several stages and was affected by many schools of thought. In ancient times, teachers were recommended to be the only source of feedback on students' errors. Then the Structural linguist offered the study of feedback the explanation of contrastive analysis, which suggests that L2 students' errors are the result of their L1 interface. Later transformational-generative grammar and cognitive psychology shifted the focus of language instruction into the communicative approach. This means that not all students' errors should be corrected; only errors that can lead to communication breakdown should be corrected and it is better if students are guided to correct their own errors. Also several theoretical perspectives from different linguistic domains like the "behaviorist model", Anderson's (1983) "skill acquisition theory", Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis, Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis, and Swain's (2005) output hypothesis support the use of WCF as an effective pedagogical tool. Conversely, other lines of research like the Chomskyan stance and Krashen's (1984) learning acquisition hypothesis disagree to the use of WCF. However, recent studies on the efficacy of feedback could not confirm any of these claims about how, when and who should be the source of feedback. What is agreed upon is that "feedback" has a positive effect on L2 writing accuracy provided that it is given by well-trained instructors, who can correctly identify their students' errors and correctly assess their students' needs and response to such feedback

الملخص:

دلائل تاريخيه و نظريه علي التاثير الايجابي للتعليقات التصحيحية المكتوبة لمدرسي اللغة الانجليزية كلغه اجنبيه على دقة الكتابة عند الطلاب أميره شريف

يهدف هذا البحث إلى تقديم الأهمية التاريخية و النظرية لتأثير التعليقات التصحيحية المكتوبة لمدرسي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية على دقة الكتابة عند الطلاب، و لبلوغ هذا الهدف يطرح البحث عرضا تاريخيا للنظريات التي تناولت التعليقات التصحيحية المكتوبة لأهم اللغويين و أشهر المدارس الفكرية، و يقع هذا البحث ضمن نطاق اللغويات التطبيقية و التي ورد تعريفها في قاموس كامبريدج الإلكتروني على أنها: " دراسة اللغة من حيث تأثيرها على المواقف الحياتية، كما هو الحال في التعليم أو التكنولوجيا على سبيل المثال" (تم تخريجه في 1 أكتوبر، 2017)، و لذلك يعد مدرسو اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية من أهم المستهدفين بقراءة الأفكار المستخلصة من هذا البحث.

و يتضمن هذا البحث كلا من المؤيدين و المعارضين لاستخدام التعليقات التصحيحية المكتوبة في كتابة اللغة الثانية، و تستهل هذه الورقة البحثية بتعريف التعليقات التصحيحية المكتوبة، و من ثم يقوم البحث بالتتبع الزمني لتاريخ التعليقات منذ الستينيات و حتى التسعينيات من هذا القرن، ثم يقوم الباحث بتلخيص النظريات المستخدمة في دراسة تلك التعليقات لتوضيح التأثير الإيجابي لتلك التعليقات التصحيحية المكتوبة على دقة الكتابة عند الطلاب.

و يقوم هذا البحث أيضا بإظهار الجدل الدائم حول تطبيق تلك التعليقات بشكل عام و في سياق اللغة الأجنبية بشكل خاص، مما يعني أن الباحثين ومدرسي اللغة الإنجليزية لا يزالون في صراع دائم على وجوب استخدام تلك التعليقات التصحيحية من عدمه، و كيفية كتابتها، و توقيتها المثالي و مصدرها، إلا أنه من خلال التحليل الوارد في هذا البحث يتضح أن البنودولين اللغوي و التعليمي يميلان في اتجاه التأثير الإيجابي للتعليقات التصحيحية المكتوبة على دقة الكتابة لطلاب اللغة الأجنبية.

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