

RESEARCH ARTICLE

THE EFFECT OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON NOTICING WRITING PROBLEMS OF THE SECOND YEAR GRAPHIC DESIGN STUDENTS AT ADEN COMMUNITY COLLEGE: A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

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Abstract

This study investigated the effect of corrective feedback providing explanations and corrections through teachers and peers on writing related problems and gaps. The sample was the second year students of Graphic Design Technology major at Aden Community College (ACC). The study adopted a quasi-experimental design employing a single experimental group that undertook a pre-test and a post-test to determine whether a significant difference existed between their scores. The mean scores of both tests were compared using a paired sample t-test and other statistical measures within the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The findings indicated a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test means, the post-test mean (6.5625) was higher than the pre-test mean (4.4688). This result suggests that the feedback procedures proposed by Barnwai (2010) played a crucial role to scaffold Graphic students noticing their writing problems and gaps to improve their writing skills. Based on these findings, the researchers recommended integrating corrective feedback into the current English writing course (Technical Writing) to enhance and develop writing skill.

Keywords: Feedback, Corrective feedback, Noticing, Writing skill.

Introduction

Writing is an important skill in foreign and second language learning (Manchón, 2011). However, writing in English as a foreign language is a difficult and a complex skill as it requires mastery of all language components, such as grammar, content, vocabulary, spelling, and organisation. Consequently, EFL students often commit numerous of errors in these different components of language (Wee, Sim, and Jusoff, 2009). In the same line, Nasser (2018) found that the students at the Faculty of Education at University of Aden, face significant challenges in writing. According to the study, most students demonstrate weak writing skills because of some factors such as linguistic, cultural background, learners, teachers and contextual factors. Therefore, providing corrective feedback to learners' mistakes and errors by language teachers can be beneficial and effective (Bitchener, Young and Cameron, 2005).

In addition, the effective role of feedback is not limited to merely "indicating to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (Lightbown & Spada, 1999) (as cited Alkhamash & Gulnaz, 2019, p. 42). Rather feedback serves as a catalyst for other cognitive process such as noticing that interacts with feedback to facilitate testing and reflecting on the language they acquiring (Baghzou, 2011, Zhang 2012, Barnwai, 2010). Buriro and Kakepoto (2013) defined "noticing as exhibit a conscious awareness of a specific form in the input, before they process." In this point of view, noticing is paying attention to the information they receive or produce while language learning. However, such attention requires conscious reorganisation (i.e. awareness)

of their linguistic problems through feedback to help them focus on second language acquisition (Krashen, 1982, as cited in Buriro, & Kakepoto, 2013).

For the purpose of this paper, the researchers aimed to examine the extent to which corrective feedback can guide students' noticing their writing gaps. To achieve this, the researchers trained students on giving and receiving feedback using Barnawi's (2010) framework to help them notice their writing output mistakes and improve them.

Statement of the Problem

In the Technical Writing course at Aden Community College (ACC), second-year students frequently commit errors in grammar, content, and organisation when completing writing tasks such as paragraphs, emails, and memos. These errors are often repeated in subsequent assignments, indicating limited improvement in their writing skills.

This lack of progress may be attributed to ineffective feedback practices in prior learning experiences. Common issues include a focus on grades rather than formative learning, reliance on traditional written comments without promoting self- or peer-noticing, and students' difficulty in understanding feedback due to low English proficiency. As a result, students appear to lack feedback that targets their writing challenges within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)—the area in which learning occurs most effectively with guidance from teachers or more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978, as cited in Yu, 2022). Teachers, therefore, have a crucial role in offering scaffolded feedback that fosters students' awareness of their linguistic issues.

Mahfoodh (2016) emphasised that a key gap in prior research is students' inability to use teacher feedback effectively. Due to limited English skills, many learners do not fully understand written comments, especially when unfamiliar abbreviations or symbols are used. In Yemen, large class sizes further complicate the provision of individualized, formative feedback (Mahfoodh, 2016; Nasser, 2018).

Consequently, this study proposes that providing corrective feedback can help students notice and address their writing gaps. Noticing enables learners to compare their output with target language norms, facilitating language development (Kim, 2004).

Research Objective

This study aimed to investigate the effect of corrective feedback on students' noticing their writing problems and gaps.

Research Question

Regarding to the research aim, the following question was:

1. To what extent does corrective feedback have a significant effect on developing students' noticing their writing problems and improving their writing performance?

The Null Hypothesis

To answer the afore-mentioned research question, the researchers hypothesised that there was no a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test students' writing scores after training them on corrective feedback to develop noticing their writing problems.

Literature Review

The terms noticing and feedback are interchangeably used in foreign language learning. According to Barnawi (2010) the term noticing can be defined as strategy of recognising gaps, problems, mistakes or errors in a particular piece of writing. Ellis, 1991 (as cited in Barnawi, 2010) supported the importance of noticing in second language learning (SLA) and added that to gain awareness of language features, students should go through three main stages: noticing a certain structure, comparing their versions with the main one, and improving by incorporating features in their language. Noticing the gaps occurs when students receive feedback.

In foreign and second language writing, students need to feedback to notice, revise and correct their writing gaps while they learn a target language. That is feedback has a key role to enhance such process and develop learning language. A lot of researchers offered varied definitions of feedback. For example, Yu (2022) defined "corrective feedback as language learners' corrections of faults in their oral or written performance" (p. 647). In addition, feedback refers to "comments or other information that learners receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other persons" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, as cited in Babanoğlu, Ağçam & Badem, 2018, p. 106). In other words, feedback is providing information and strategies from the teacher to students or from students to other students to identify their grammatical errors and other gaps and how to deal with them.

However, feedback has not only an effective role to correct students' writing gaps. Further, it also helps students to notice and recognise a mismatch between the interlanguage and target language they produce. That is through noticing students focus and pay attention to the language they produce. Schmidt (1990) stated that "noticing is necessary for learning and is a process of attending consciously to linguistic features in the input" (as cited in Zhang, 2012, p.579). In the same line, Tatawy (2006) stated that:

[a]ccording to the noticing hypothesis, in order for input to become intake for L2 learning, some degree of noticing must occur, and that it is corrective feedback that triggers the learners' noticing of gaps between the target norms and their IL, and thus leads to subsequent grammatical restructuring. (p. 3).

In other words, the noticing process is very important for foreign and second language learning because noticing requires consciousness (i. e. focus attention) for learning linguistic features and this is an essential part in language learning. Therefore, after receiving feedback either from peers or from teachers, students need to notice gaps or problems found in their piece of writing. These processes suggest that promoting noticing through feedback task in EFL college writing classroom can help students observe and notice the targeted features of writing such as form content and organisation which in turn help students repair and improve their writing problems. On the other hand, Gue 2011 (as cited in Barnawi, 2010) suggested that corrective feedback is the only one of the many factors that contribute to the noticing process. Therefore, feedback and noticing can help the students identify gaps between their drafts and their last version of the text, students need to understand their gaps so that they gain awareness of what to revise. This what Barnwai (2010) indicated that "noticing and feedback are implementing together, they potentially complement one another in facilitating second or foreign language writing learning"(p. 211).

To stimulate noticing in EFL classroom, "corrective feedback could be in the form of implicit or explicit feedback occurring in both natural conversational and instructional setting" (Sheen, 2004, as cited in Galaddy, 2012. p.34). In other words, explicit feedback directly points to students' mistakes and provides them with correct answer. Implicit feedback indirectly informs students of their mistakes by giving them hints or negotiating to locate the errors place themselves (Bitchener, et al., 2005). Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified corrective feedback into six types (as cited in Babanoğlu, Ağçam, & Badem (2018):

Table 1: Corrective Feedback Types Adapted from Babanoğlu, Ağçam, & Badem, (2018)

| Feedback Types | Examples |
|--|--|
| Explicit correction is the direct and explicit correction of students' errors. The teacher clearly refers to what the learner saying incorrect. | Student: My friends is kind and helpful. Teacher: No, you should say: My friends are kind and helpful. |
| Recast in which the teacher says the students' answers again. | Student: My friends are kind and helpful. Teacher: Yes, My friends are kind and helpful. |
| Clarification request refers to the need of more clarification. Thus, teacher asks students to formulate it partially or fully by saying, "I do not understand." Or, "Could you repeat?" | Student: My friends is kind and helpful. Teacher: Could you repeat? |
| Metalinguistic feedback provides grammatical information or questions that guide to the correct form without providing the correct answer. | Student: My friends is kind and helpful. Teacher: No, not is Teacher: Use plural verb. Or Teacher: plural verb? |
| Elicitation refers to eliciting the feedback through three ways: a teacher a) pronounces partly and asks student to complete the answer, b) asks questions or c) requests the student to reformulate his/her answer. | Student: My friends is kind and helpful. 1)Teacher: My friends 2) Teacher what is the plural of is? 3)Teacher: is? |
| Repetition is teacher's repetition of the student's answer and raising his or her voice to highlight the error. | Student: My friends is kind and helpful. Teacher: My <i>friends</i> is? Italic font shows increase the teacher voice. |

As shown in the table above, Babanoğlu, Ağçam, & Badem (2018) indicated that Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified corrective feedback into six types: correction, recast explicit, clarification, metalinguistic, elicitation, and repetition. Further, Ellis (2009) classified explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback as explicit feedback, while recast, clarification request, and repetition as implicit feedback (as cited in Shirhkan & Tajeddin, 2016). Both types of corrective feedback are effective in raising noticing while learning language (Zohrabi and Ehsani, 2014, as cited in Yu, 2024). However, some empirical studies were conducted to show the extent of effects and benefits of explicit feedback over implicit feedback. For example, the study findings of Carroll and Swain (1993) indicated that "explicit feedback might have been of more benefit because it identified the precise location and nature of erroneous performance, while implicit feedback which includes negative feedback required the learners to engage in a good deal of mental guesswork" (as cited in Kim, 2005, p. 9). In other words, in explicit feedback, the teacher clearly informs the corrections of students mistakes and then students correct the correct answers into their version, while in implicit feedback, students try to correct their mistakes of writing through some hints their teachers give them.

Other two types of feedback are provided by Panova and Lyster, (2002). First is the teacher's translation of the students' answer from L1 to L2. Second is the teacher's paralinguistic signs such as facial expressions and hand movements to raise sound intonation as a response to student's errors.

Corrective feedback can be practiced collaboratively in oral or written form. As revealed by Barnawi (2010) that:

After students receive feedback from peers or teachers, they are asked to respond to feedback. This collaborative feedback should promote noticing and in turn help to enhance students' uptake of feedback and foster their awareness of feedback issues. (p. 212)

In other words, collaborative feedback can be as interactions between the teacher and students or students and students during collaborative feedback. The teacher provides students with scaffolding in forms of ideas or strategies to support and help them in a guided practice to activate students' cognitive abilities so that eventually they internalise their writing problems and improve them (Vygotsky, 1978, as cited in Yu, 2022). In addition, students can mutually work in pairs or groups negotiating their teacher's feedback or their ideas to notice their writing gaps.

Moreover, to achieve responding to oral feedback, written feedback should accompanied with the oral feedback to help students think and revise their work (Bentcher et al., 2005). In written feedback, the teacher usually writes some comments on student's work sheet to help them correct their mistakes. It's important to remind students how important it is to go back over their work after revising their teacher written feedback. Syahriyanti, Gaffar, Nur, and Daniel (2022) asserted that "the students' rewriting is the key to turning the instruction of teachers into the success of students' own writing" (p. 49). To achieve responding to their teacher feedback, students should be trained on teacher's written feedback, to guide them how to rewrite the piece of writing successfully.

To know how noticing process takes place in second language acquisition through corrective feedback, Ellis (1999, as cited in Ahadi, 2023) proposed the cognitive process below:

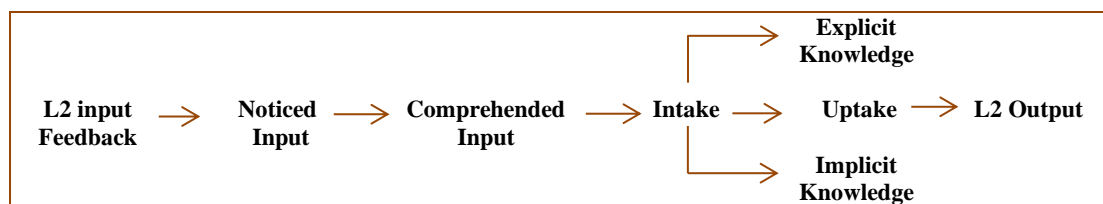


Fig. 1: Framework of noticing process (adapted from Ahadi, 2023, p. 1209)

This framework illustrates the steps of noticing process while receiving feedback in second language acquisition. When students receive feedback information input, they notice and comprehend language features and become intake in short term memory. During intake, students process the knowledge implicitly or explicitly through some construction reformulation processes or through retrieving knowledge they have learned. Therefore, students' responses to teacher's corrective feedback are called students' uptake. It can be successful uptake if the corrective feedback was explicit, so students just repeat the answer, notice the error and work out the correct form. However, if students receive implicit feedback, they should guess the correct answer and the uptake needs repair (Gladday, 2012). Finally, according to Ahadi (2023, p.1209) "the output will be created in which the absorbed intake forms part of the learner's interlanguage system and changes only occur when language features become part of long-term memory."

Related Studies

Among of the varied studies that referred to the importance of feedback in language learning is the empirical study of Zohrabi and Ehsani (2014). This study concluded that both explicit and implicit feedback led learners to notice their writing errors. However, implicit feedback is less effective than explicit feedback (as cite in Yu, 2022). The surveys revealed that both students and teachers have a preference for direct, explicit feedback rather than indirect feedback (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris, Cheyney, Komura, Roberts, & McKee, 2000; Komura, 1999; Rennie, 2000; Roberts, 1999) (As cited in Bitchener, et al., 2005). Zeqiri (2011) conducted a descriptive study which examined the role of feedback on noticing writing mistakes. The study was conducted at South East European University (SEEU). The findings showed that although students have positive believes of the role of teachers' feedback, they also indicated the peer feedback is more effective on noticing writing mistakes and errors. In addition, the findings suggested that noticing is more helpful for higher proficiency students. They indicated that it is more powerful and beneficial for writing skills regarding to content, organisation and their critical thinking.

On the other hand, the Ahadi's experimental study (2004) in which sixteen Japanese students of English were assigned to perform communicative tasks, using a model or recast. The findings showed that recast was more beneficial for students to notice their errors than noticing through a model given.

The study of Rezazadeh, Asharfi and Foozunfar (2018) was conducted in West Azarbaijan Jahad Daneshgahi, with 32 learners of English as a foreign language. This study investigated the effect of three kinds of corrective feedback in form of oral, written and oral/written feedback. The findings indicated that the

experimental group that had combination of oral/written feedback had a great effect on students' performance than the other groups.

Methodology

Design

This study employed a quasi-experimental design with a single experimental group. The researchers aimed to enhance the students' ability to notice their writing skills gaps and problems through peers' and teacher's feedback. The independent variables (i.e. peer's and teacher's feedback) were implemented as treatments over a defined period to support students in identifying and improving their writing errors. To assess the effectiveness of the intervention, statistical tests were conducted to analyse the students' pre-test and post-test scores.

The Sample

The sample of this study was 32 second-year students enrolled in the Graphics Design Technology Diploma program at ACC. The participants, aged between 20-22 years, were purposefully selected to ensure consistency in the study's outcomes. All participants had studied English language as a foreign language from grades 7 through 12 and completed an additional year of general English during their foundation year at ACC.

The Instruments

Data were collected using a quasi-experimental procedure involving a pre-test and a post-test to measure students' writing performance before and after the intervention. The results were analysed using a paired samples t-test in SPSS to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two sets of scores. According to McKenzie (2014), "a paired-samples t-test is appropriate for comparing the means of a group that was measured twice, or two separate groups that were matched on variables such as age and gender and are therefore related" (as cited in Babanoğlu, Ağçam & Badem, 2018, p.111).

The material used in this study is Technical Writing course. It is the current English writing course for the second-year students at the tertiary level at ACC. It is a part of written communication which is based on developing clear and accurate writing skills. It can be used in sectors such as business and industry focusing on products and services, or workplace to give instructions to specific audience (i.e. supervisors, colleagues, or customers) (Gerson, 2001). Therefore, this course aims to:

- Develop students' ability to write clearly and concisely.
- Enhance students' skills in writing paragraphs, emails, business letters, and memos.

Research Procedures

To address the research question and test the null hypothesis of no significant effect of feedback on the students' noticing their writing problems, One of the researchers, who also served as the course instructor, implemented the following procedures:

Pre-test

At the beginning of the course, the researcher asked the 32 Graphic students to write a paragraph titled "*My friends*" or any topic of their choice. The students' written work was then collected, evaluated and corrected with corrective feedback. The scores were recorded to serve as baseline data for later comparison.

Teaching Students Technical Writing

The researcher herself taught the Technical Writing course over twelve weeks. During such period, students were trained to give and receive feedback from both peers and the teacher, aiming to promote noticing of writing problems and gaps. Here is description of feedback-noticing training procedure

Feedback-Noticing Training Procedure

The proposed feedback training procedure is a replication of Barnwai (2010) procedure of promoting noticing through feedback. Barnawi (2010, p. 213) indicated that the suggested procedure needs to focus on content, organisation and form to develop students' writing skills. In accordance with such purpose, implementing such feedback procedure here is so beneficial to improve students' noticing their problems and gaps on such characteristics (content, organisation and forms) in writing paragraphs, emails and memos. Such feedback procedure consists of three stages: pre-noticing, while noticing and post-noticing.

Pre-Noticing via Feedback

In such feedback procedure stage, the teacher:

- Stated the purpose of the task (e.g. write a paragraph)
- Explained the feedback process (i.e. self- and peer-feedback, teacher feedback, and reflection).
- Introduced and modeled the peer and teacher feedback techniques: implicit and explicit to examine (content, organization and form).

While-Noticing via Feedback

- In peers/groups, the students gave, provided and negotiated information of their writing gaps and errors via the checklist given (see Appendix A).
- The teacher walked around and provided help (i.e. implicit and explicit feedback).

Post- Noticing via Feedback

- The students reflected on their work using the reflection checklist (see Appendix B).
- The teacher discussed with the students the feedback procedure they used to notice, their problems and how they utilised from the peer's or teacher's feedback to improve their writing mistakes in their last draft of writing.

Post-test

At the end of the course, the same writing task was administered as a post-test. This test was conducted after the students were trained on peer's and teacher's implicit and explicit feedback using writing checklist. Then the researcher recorded the post-test scores to be used for later comparison with the pretest scores.

Data Analysis

To analyse the collected data, the researchers recorded the pre-test and the post-test scores of students (n=32) and then summarised them in the following table:

Table 2: Students' Pre-test and Post-test Scores

| Student No | Students' scores | |
|------------|------------------|-----------|
| | Pre-test | Post-test |
| Student1 | 4 | 9 |
| Student2 | 4 | 7 |
| Student3 | 6 | 9 |
| Student4 | 3 | 5 |
| Student5 | 7 | 8 |
| Student6 | 5 | 8 |
| Student7 | 2 | 7 |
| Student8 | 8 | 9 |
| Student9 | 3 | 5 |
| Student10 | 8 | 9 |
| Student11 | 3 | 5 |
| Student12 | 7 | 9 |
| Student13 | 8 | 9 |
| Student14 | 0 | 0 |
| Student15 | 4 | 6 |
| Student16 | 4 | 7 |
| Student 17 | 6 | 7 |
| Student 18 | 5 | 7 |
| Student 19 | 7 | 8 |
| Student 20 | 4 | 6 |
| Student 21 | 5 | 7 |
| Student 22 | 2 | 7 |
| Student 23 | 2 | 2 |
| Student 24 | 7 | 8 |
| Student 25 | 4 | 5 |
| Student 26 | 3 | 4 |
| Student 27 | 1 | 3 |
| Student 28 | 0 | 2 |
| Student 29 | 0 | 6 |
| Student 30 | 8 | 9 |
| Student 31 | 9 | 9 |
| Student 32 | 4 | 7 |

As noticed in Table 2 the majority of students demonstrated improvement in their writing scores in the post-test. A Few students showed only marginal improvement while one student exhibited no noticeable any change. For statistical analysis, the students' scores of the pre-test and post-test of all participants (n=32) were analysed statistically using the SPSS. Two primary statistical tests were employed. First, a normality test was conducted to examine whether the pre-test and post-test data set distributions fit a normal distribution. Second a paired-samples t-test was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the means of pre-test and post-test scores of the same sample before and after treatment (Babanoğlu, Ağçam & Badem, 2018). In addition, statistical values are used to describe the statistical tests, such as the significance value of 0.05 and confidence interval of a 95%. The first value of 0.05 was used to determine whether the results of the study are statistically significant to reject the null hypothesis. The second value of a 95% was used to measure the consistency of the obtained mean which should fall between the upper and lower boundaries of such 95

percentage of times if experiment conducted again (Feinstein, 1998). Such statistical tests findings are explained below:

Findings

Based on the statistical tests, the normality test findings are explained first in Table 3 below:

Table 3: Test of Normality

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnova | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|-----------|---------------------|----|------|--------------|----|------|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| Pre-test | .135 | 32 | .144 | .953 | 32 | .172 |
| Post-test | .198 | 32 | .003 | .878 | 32 | .002 |

Table 3 examines the normal distribution of the pre-test and the post-test data set. Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro -Wilk tests were used to check whether the data set distributions of the sample pre-test and the post-test were normally distributed. As reported in Table 3 above, the significance values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro -Wilk of the post-test of 0.03 and 0.02 were lower than significance value of 0.05. In other words, such significance values were normal and rejected the null hypothesis that feedback did not affect students noticing their writing gaps. According to Test of normality-simply explained- Data Tab, "With a very large sample, you can even get a p-value of less than 0.05, rejecting the null hypothesis of normal distribution (para 13)". As such significance values were normal, the paired sample t-test could be conducted. Findings of paired sample test are shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Paired Samples Statistics

| | | Mean | N | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------------|------------------|--------|----|----------------|-----------------|
| Pair 1 | Post-test | 6.5625 | 32 | 2.36831 | .41866 |
| | Pre-test | 4.4688 | 32 | 2.55247 | .45122 |

Table 4 provides a statistical summary of the pre-test and post-test scores. As clearly seen that the post-test mean was 6.5625 while the pre-test mean was 4.4688. In other word, the post-test mean score was higher than the pre-test mean score. Such both different mean scores were consistent with slightly variability of the standard deviations (2.36831 and 2.55247), and the small standard errors (.41866 and .45122). In other words, such significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test were enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis of the same means of the two tests.

Table 5: Paired Samples Correlations

| | N | Correlation | Sig. |
|--|----|-------------|------|
| Pair 1 Post-test & Pre-test | 32 | .809 | .000 |

Table 5 contains information on the correlation between the two tests mean scores (i.e. pre-test and post-test). As shown in the Table 5 above, the correlation was .809 which indicated that the two variables means were strongly positively correlated because such correlation value is within the strong positive correlation range .7 to 1 (Schober, Boer, & Schwarte, 2018, p. 1765). On the other hand, the significant value was .000 less than 0.05. According to Moore, Notz and Flinger (2013), the smaller the p-value, the stronger the evidence against null hypothesis. Therefore, such findings reject the null hypothesis that there is no correlation between the tests mean scores.

Table 6: Paired Samples Test

| | Paired Differences | | | | | t | df | Sig |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|---------|-------|----|------|
| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
| | | | | Lower | Upper | | | |
| Pair 1 Post-test – Pre-test | 2.09375 | 1.53159 | .27075 | 1.54155 | 2.64595 | 7.733 | 31 | .000 |

Table 6 describes the paired sample test that examines the significant difference between the post-test and pre-test mean scores. Mainly, the difference between the two mean scores was 2.09375 with a 95% confidence interval ranging between 1.54155 and 2.64595. Such obtained interval of the difference is good. According to Swinscow and Campbell (2002), the good confidence interval is between 2 and 3. Another evidence of the significant difference was the calculated t (7.733), with degree of freedom (df)= 31, which was higher than the tabulated t (2.042) in statistics' table of critical values (as cited in Radford, Freeman & Walters, 2007, p. 22). Here, df equals the number of observations – 1(31), and it is used to choose the correct t distribution for the statistic. (The British Academy, p. 3, para 15). Finally, the significant value of the t-test of 0.000 was smaller than the p value of 0.05 by which we can reject the null hypothesis that the pre-test and post-test have the same mean scores.

All such statistics tests and values were significant evidences to reject the research null hypothesis that feedback had no significant effect on noticing writing problems.

Discussion

The findings of this research paper started with test normality to show whether the two variables values confirmed to the characteristics of a normal distribution. Then, in paired sample test, the pre-test and post-test mean scores were compared with sample size of 32. The findings reported that such mean scores were significantly different. Mainly, the post-test mean of 6.5625 was higher than pre-test mean of 4.4688. Other statistical output values were given such as the difference between the two mean scores (2.09375), t (7.733), and the test significance level of .000. Such statistical values were statistically significant and answered the research question that feedback had a significant effect on students' noticing of their writing problems and rejected the null hypothesis that there was no significant difference between the t-test variables mean scores. Such findings are in line with other studies findings of Berkanta, Dererb, and Derer (2020) and Bagzou (2011).

Peer's and teacher's feedback training procedures (i.e. noticing through feedback) brought positive effects to developing students' writing skills. In while feedback-noticing, students tried to give and receive feedback to notice, revise, think and discuss their writing problems. However, the teacher realised from correcting students' written work and their reflection of such procedure that most their feedback with peers focused on punctuation, spelling rather on grammar, content and organisation. In other words, peer feedback in English writing course was difficult to EFL students. This may due to two main reasons. The first one was their low level in English that hindered them to correct their peers' work accurately. The second reason was referred to the fact that maybe they used not to practise such techniques.

Therefore, in while feedback-noticing, students depended so much on the teacher's feedback rather their peers'. The teacher provided two types of feedback. Sometimes, she provided explicit feedback for students of low level to guide them to the correct forms. Other times, she provided implicit feedback for students of high level to help them think and analyse their mistakes. Within such feedback procedure, the most important issue was not giving explicit or implicit feedback, but how to process the feedback to help them notice and negotiate their problems and gaps of their writing work. That is what Barnawi (2010, p. 2014) suggested that "students do not necessarily make use of the feedback directly, but they have to address how the feedback can improve their drafts of writing. After students have revised their drafts, they were asked to re-notice or re-identify the

original and revised versions." In other words, students need to practise such feedback even if they lack such ability. This is what exactly occurred during this quasi-experimental study, and such feedback procedure had a great effect on students' written work. Therefore, the researcher discovered that both types of corrective feedback procedures were positive and effective during the writing course to help students notice their writing problems and improve their learning.

Conclusion and Implication

The proposed training feedback procedures used in this study were effective for two reasons. First, the teacher's and peer's feedback implicitly and explicitly scaffolded in raising students' noticing of writing problems by which they could improve their writing skill. Second, Graphic design students at ACC tried to practice self and peer assessment while in fact it is a challenging process for EFL students who have poor linguistic knowledge and totally depended on their teacher to correct their writing work.

The researchers suggested some implications. They are as follows:

- Designing writing activities that based on teaching explicit and implicit feedback in writing classrooms to develop students' noticing.
- Developing workshops to raise English teachers' awareness on peer's and teacher's feedback in English writing course.

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Appendix A

While-noticing collaborative feedback checklist

| | Aspects | Your Feedback | Peer Feedback | Teacher Feedback |
|----|--|---------------|---------------|------------------|
| 1. | Meaningful content Is the content clear and easily understood? | | | |
| 2. | Accuracy Are the verbs correctly used? | | | |
| 3. | Organization (i.e. unity and coherence) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Is there a topic sentence? Are there at least three supporting sentences? Is there a concluding sentence? | | | |
| 4. | Paragraph Format <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Margin Spacing Clear hand writing A title | | | |
| 5. | Punctuation and spelling <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does each sentence begin with a capital letter?. Does each sentence end with a punctuation mark? Does each new sentence begin next to the one before it? | | | |

Appendix B

Student Reflection on Feedback Procedures

| Reflection items | Peer Feedback | Teacher Feedback |
|--|---------------|------------------|
| 1. Feedback led me to notice my writing problems. | | |
| 2. Feedback led me to notice how to organize the ideas. | | |
| 3. Feedback led to notice and correct grammatical mistakes. | | |
| 4. Feedback led to notice and correct the mechanical errors. | | |
| 5. Feedback improved my writing skill. | | |
| 6. The language ability hindered me to notice my writing problems. | | |

مقالة بحثية

تأثير التغذية الراجعة التصحيحية على ملاحظة مشكلات الكتابة لطلاب السنة الثانية في تخصص التصميم الجرافيكي بكلية المجتمع- عدن: دراسة شبه تجريبية

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المُلخَص

هدفت الدراسة إلى التعرف على أثر التغذية الراجعة التصحيحية التي تصحبها نقاشات وتوضيحات من المدرس أو الاقران في تنمية قدرة ملاحظة الطلاب للأخطاء اللغوية في مهارة الكتابة في الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية لدى عينة من طلاب السنة الثانية في تخصص التصميم الجرافيكي بكلية المجتمع- عدن. اعتمدت الدراسة المنهج شبه التجريبي، حيث استخدمت مجموعة تدريبية واحدة مكونة من 32 طالبًا وطالبة خضعت لاختبار قبلي وآخر بعدي لتحديد ما إذا كان هناك فرق دال إحصائيًا بين درجات الطلاب. تمت مقارنة متوسطات الاختبارين باستخدام اختبار (t) لعينتين مرتبطتين، بالإضافة إلى مقاييس إحصائية أخرى ضمن حزمة البرامج الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية (SPSS). أشارت النتائج إلى وجود فرق دال إحصائيًا بين متوسطات الاختبار القبلي والاختبار البعدي؛ إذ كان متوسط الاختبار البعدي (6.5625) أعلى من متوسط الاختبار القبلي (4.4688). وتشير هذه النتيجة إلى أن إجراءات التغذية الراجعة التي اقترحها بارنواي (2010) قد لعبت دورًا محوريًا في مساعدة طلاب التصميم الجرافيكي على ملاحظة مشكلاتهم وفجواتهم في الكتابة من أجل تطوير مهاراتهم الكتابية. وبناءً على هذه النتائج، أوصت الباحثتان بدمج التغذية الراجعة التصحيحية ضمن مقرر الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية الحالي (الكتابة التقنية) لتعزيز وتطوير مهارات الكتابة.

الكلمات المفتاحية: التغذية الراجعة، التغذية الراجعة التصحيحية، الملاحظة، مهارة الكتابة.

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