

PENGECEKAN TURNITIN

30836-126782-1-PB

 Artikel 2

Document Details

Submission ID

trn:oid::3618:129509900

Submission Date

Mar 1, 2026, 8:42 AM GMT+7

Download Date

Mar 1, 2026, 9:29 AM GMT+7

File Name

30836-126782-1-PB.pdf

File Size

584.0 KB

20 Pages

8,214 Words

47,681 Characters

13% Overall Similarity

The combined total of all matches, including overlapping sources, for each database.

Filtered from the Report

- ▶ Bibliography
- ▶ Small Matches (less than 15 words)

Exclusions

- ▶ 3 Excluded Sources
- ▶ 2 Excluded Matches

Match Groups

- 23 Not Cited or Quoted 11%**
Matches with neither in-text citation nor quotation marks
- 5 Missing Quotations 2%**
Matches that are still very similar to source material
- 0 Missing Citation 0%**
Matches that have quotation marks, but no in-text citation
- 0 Cited and Quoted 0%**
Matches with in-text citation present, but no quotation marks

Top Sources

- 11% Internet sources
- 3% Publications
- 6% Submitted works (Student Papers)

Integrity Flags

0 Integrity Flags for Review

Our system's algorithms look deeply at a document for any inconsistencies that would set it apart from a normal submission. If we notice something strange, we flag it for you to review.

A Flag is not necessarily an indicator of a problem. However, we'd recommend you focus your attention there for further review.

Match Groups

- **23 Not Cited or Quoted 11%**
Matches with neither in-text citation nor quotation marks
- **5 Missing Quotations 2%**
Matches that are still very similar to source material
- **0 Missing Citation 0%**
Matches that have quotation marks, but no in-text citation
- **0 Cited and Quoted 0%**
Matches with in-text citation present, but no quotation marks

Top Sources

- 11% Internet sources
- 3% Publications
- 6% Submitted works (Student Papers)

Top Sources

The sources with the highest number of matches within the submission. Overlapping sources will not be displayed.

1	Internet	publicatio.bibl.u-szeged.hu	2%
2	Internet	jeltl.org	2%
3	Internet	discovery.researcher.life	2%
4	Internet	c.coek.info	1%
5	Student papers	Informatics Education Limited on 2015-07-03	<1%
6	Internet	jurnalpendidikan.unisla.ac.id	<1%
7	Publication	Lydia Hendayani Sukma, Ramadoni Ramadoni, Mulia Suryani. "THE IMPLEMENTA...	<1%
8	Internet	ijssr.ridwaninstitute.co.id	<1%
9	Publication	Arti Prihatini, Hari Windu Asrini, Rusdhianti Wuryaningrum, Nina Inayati. "Cognit...	<1%
10	Student papers	Universitas Bengkulu on 2024-06-20	<1%

11	Student papers	The London College UCK on 2023-07-09	<1%
12	Internet	csuepress.columbusstate.edu	<1%
13	Internet	jurnal.fkip.unila.ac.id	<1%
14	Internet	repository.tilburguniversity.edu	<1%
15	Internet	edulearn.intelektual.org	<1%
16	Student papers	University of Birmingham on 2021-09-27	<1%
17	Student papers	University of Kurdistan Hawler on 2022-01-02	<1%



P-ISSN 2355-2794
E-ISSN 2461-0275

The Dynamic Influence of Interactive Feedback on Elevating EFL Students' Writing Skills

Masrul^{*1}

Bayu Hendro Wicaksono²

Sri Yuliani³

Santi Erliana⁴

Ummi Rasyidah⁵

¹Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Pahlawan Tuanku Tambusai, Riau, INDONESIA

²Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Muhammadiyah Malang, East Java, INDONESIA

³Department of English Language Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Islam Riau, Riau, INDONESIA

⁴Department of English Language Education Department, Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teacher Training, Institut Agama Islam Negeri Palangka Raya, Central Kalimantan, INDONESIA

⁵Department of English Language Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Pasir Pengaraian, Riau, INDONESIA

Abstract

This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing skills. One hundred participants enrolled in an intermediate EFL course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia, were recruited for this research. The quantitative method was employed for data analysis. The primary data analysis method used was the ANCOVA test, followed by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests. The results reveal that the dependent variables in the experimental group exhibited higher means compared to the control group. The ANCOVA test show that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) were significantly affected by the addition of feedback ($p = 0.000$). However, no significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups regarding

* Corresponding author, email: masrulm25@gmail.com

Citation in APA style: Masrul, Wicaksono, B. H., Yuliani, S., Erliana, S., & Rasyidah, U. (2024). The dynamic influence of interactive feedback on elevating EFL students' writing skills. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 11(1), 133-152.

Received February 14, 2023; Revised August 21, 2023; Accepted November 27, 2023; Published Online January 31, 2024

<https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v11i1.30836>

accuracy ($p = 0.425$) and writing length variables ($p = 0.731$). As a result, interactional feedback significantly impacted EFL students' writing ability. This result highlights the need for thorough planning and preparation, including preparing ESL/EFL students through explicit instruction prior to peer review, to ensure that learners' interactional feedback is useful. The findings suggest that EFL teachers should carefully select feedback styles that align with the intended purpose of providing feedback. For instance, more specific feedback options may prove more effective in assisting students in revising and improving their written assignments. Finally, this study provides valuable recommendations for further research in this field.

Keywords: EFL learner, interactional feedback, writing ability, writing assessment, writing performance.

1. INTRODUCTION

Various aspects and characteristics of students' texts contribute to their overall quality. No experienced EFL instructor would argue that the number of linguistic errors students make represents the total value of a student's writing ability (Sarré et al., 2021). In the context of writing, students expect a prompt response from the teacher when they submit their writing assignments. These responses were primarily evaluative. Feedback is loosely defined as information the teacher offers to help students comprehend and improve their performance by allowing them to identify and rectify their mistakes (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). This process informs students whether an instructional response is correct (Polio & Park, 2016). Generally, three broad meanings of feedback have been explored (Hattie & Gan, 2011). The first relates to motivational feedback that enhances general behaviors, for example, in writing or revision activities (Grindle et al., 2017). The second pertains to reinforcement feedback, reacting to specific behaviors, such as spelling errors or particular approaches in writing. The last encompasses informational feedback, consisting of information that students use to modify their performance in a particular way (Elola & Oskoz, 2016). All three aspects are essential in a school setting, but the informational aspect holds the utmost significance.

Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) have demonstrated that feedback has the most significant impact on incorrect answers compared to correct ones in written assignments. Therefore, the most well-known type of feedback is corrective feedback, as these responses were evaluative and educative. Corrective feedback provides information about student performance and understanding (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Based on this definition, a student can explore the answers to assess the correctness of a response with corrective information provided by the teacher. This aligns with Miller and Geraci (2011), who revealed that feedback is information that students can use to confirm, add to, overwrite, or restructure information in memory, encompassing domain and metacognitive knowledge, self-awareness, and awareness of tasks, as well as cognitive methods and strategies.

Interactional feedback has also been discussed in the context of feedback on forms, such as grammatical and contextual issues, and on material, such as word-level

writing restrictions and concept development. The findings demonstrate that content and form must be considered when providing feedback (e.g., Nava & Pedrazzini, 2018; Wiliam, 2018). Dabbagh (2017) used conversational journal writing to descriptively investigate students' writing skills in an EFL context. In his study, 84 students between the ages of 17 and 22 were divided into control and experimental groups. The quantitative analysis focused on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings revealed that three scoring settings (content, organization, and vocabulary) significantly improved in the post-test, while language use and mechanics exhibited no significant changes. Moreover, considering students' responses to teachers' feedback, students highly value the feedback they receive on their writing errors (Ferris et al., 2013). The researcher identified numerous grammatical errors in students' writing at the State University of Malang. To address this issue, the researcher employed interactional feedback to enhance students' writing ability. Thus, this study investigates the impact of feedback on students' writing ability, arguing that interactional feedback can facilitate writing skill development (Warsidi, 2017). The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship between the interactional feedback and students' writing?
2. What is the effect of the interactional feedback on students' writing ability?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Studies on Interactional Feedback

The results of three recent empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Abdollahifam, 2014) suggest that different types of corrective feedback should be used, depending on students' proficiency levels. Written corrective feedback is considered crucial for the ultimate success of writing, and a wide range of patterns for written corrective feedback are now available in the literature (Bitchener, 2012; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). Direct feedback involves a teacher pointing out an error and providing the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take various forms, including eliminating unnecessary words or sentences, providing missing content, and writing the proper form next to the incorrect one (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019). In this form of written corrective feedback, students receive feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. In contrast, indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for identifying and correcting any issues on their own. In most cases, four types of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors in a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the error occurred; and (4) using a symbol to specify the type of error (Hosseiny, 2014; Sarré et al., 2021).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, is the most commonly used technique for addressing second-language students' writing (Ferris, 2014). Other studies suggest that systematically identifying grammar errors for second language students can improve their writing accuracy and overall writing performance (Van Beuningen et al., 2012). The extent of the errors determines the teacher's choice between direct or indirect written corrective feedback

(Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of either form might be beneficial or detrimental depending on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite teachers' best efforts, Crosthwaite (2018) used longitudinal data sets to monitor student errors during a semester of English for Academic purpose (EAP) instruction with several options for written corrective feedback in different forms but found no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Jamalinesari et al. (2015) have shown a preference for indirect feedback from teachers in general. Students are encouraged to engage in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Scott & Dienes, 2010). As a result, identity and motivation can be fostered and developed, enabling students' long-term growth to expand and reinforce their learning. Nassaji (2015) divided participants into four groups to test the effectiveness of various types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) underlining only. The results showed that the more explicit the comments were provided, the more accurate the students' revisions were. While written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicitly and implicitly corrected criticism, text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

The instructional aspects of feedback have received a significant attention. Several studies have examined the attitudinal aspects of feedback, specifically EFL students' responses to teacher feedback and their opinions (Lee, 2008). Some researchers have argued that teacher-provided corrective feedback is crucial for learning progress (Abdollahifam, 2014; Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Poorebrahim, 2017). On the other hand, some researchers have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy improvement (Benson & Dekeyser, 2018). However, many still believe that written corrective feedback is a clear, high-priority, and selective way to guide students and help them master their skills and correct their mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). Providing feedback on student writing is considered an essential educational practice for teachers who aim to enhance their students' writing skills and linguistic accuracy (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2017).

Interactional feedback refers to the process of exchanging information or responses between individuals or groups in response to each other's behavior or communication (van Ruler, 2018). This can occur in various contexts, including interpersonal communication, learning, and social interaction. Theories and concepts related to interactional feedback include communication theory and learning theory. In communication theory, there are several models, such as the Shannon-Weaver model. This model depicts communication as a process involving a sender, message, channel, receiver, and noise. Interactional feedback can occur when the receiver responds to the message back to the sender. Another model is the transactional model, which emphasizes the interdependence between the sender and receiver in the communication process. Interactional feedback is considered a response that can alter the dynamics of communication (Wrench et al., 2023).

In the learning theory, several models have also been proposed. For instance, feedback in the learning theory plays a crucial role. In the context of learning, interactional feedback involves providing feedback from a teacher to a student and vice versa. Feedback allows for adjustments and improvements in the learning process (Thurlings et al., 2013). Another relevant theory is constructivism, which highlights

the active role of individuals in learning and understanding concepts. Interactional feedback in this context helps individuals build their understanding by providing information and guidance (Kapur, 2019). It plays a crucial role in refining and optimizing communication processes, learning, and social interaction. It creates opportunities for improvement, adjustment, and the development of relationships between individuals or groups.

2.2 Interactional Feedback in Writing Instruction

Some scholars have investigated interactional feedback in language learning in both Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), including effective supervisory feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017), and written corrective feedback (Poorebrahim, 2017; Zarifi, 2017). Because interactional feedback can be used not only in classroom activities but also in non-classroom settings such as private tutoring, language environments, and long-distance learning interactions such as the internet, its application requires various concepts for better results, considering the interactional purposes, for more effective feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017). For example, the genre approach concept has been applied to enhance interaction in social life, cultural activities, and personal experience (Thorne, 2002), and the goals of the interactional context in language teaching and learning tend to emphasize the abstract concept of knowledge and skills, (Hua et al., 2007), which leans toward the concept of interaction (Seedhouse, 2007). Consequently, in EFL teaching, the interactional context is used not only for situational purposes but also has the potential to improve EFL skills, such as in academic writing and other types of studies.

Previous research has examined the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under review, instructors—often researchers—explicitly instructed students on peer review. This training directed students on the writing-related difficulties they should focus on and how to offer constructive criticism. Typically, this research-based training aligned with the objectives of university writing courses and the study's purpose. For instance, according to Stanley (2012), coaching or training influenced the intensity of groups' communication, as trained groups engaged in more interaction than untrained counterparts. Additionally, trained groups provided more detailed interactional comments to their peers, which aided them in improving their text revision. This finding suggests that training enabled those groups to assume the roles of evaluators. The frequent interactional exchanges (pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying) are indicators of the coached groups' enhanced engagement.

3. METHOD

3.1 Research Method

This study employed quantitative research to systematically and precisely compute the data from the research findings using statistical analysis. Quantitative techniques are prepared methodically and comprehensively, commencing with the research concept and culminating in the study's outcomes (Siyoto & Sodik, 2015).

The researchers employed an experimental design in this quantitative study to explore the influence of interactional feedback on students' writing skills. An experimental design is a broad strategy for a study containing an active independent variable. The research design determines its internal validity, or the capacity to make correct inferences about the influence of the experimental treatment on the variable. In a quasi-experimental design, participants are assigned to groups for the experiment, but not at random.

There are two basic quasi-experimental designs: pre-test and post-test group designs. The researcher employed a pre-test-post-test group quasi-experimental design in this investigation. The pre-test and post-test procedures can be used in a quasi-experimental design (Creswell, 2003). Thus, this study compared the experimental and control groups. The control group is a class that does not use interactional feedback to provide feedback, while the experimental group is the class that provides the interactional feedback. The experimental and control groups were recruited from separate classes or students.

3.2 Participants

This study involved 100 students enrolled in an intermediate English language course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. These students' writing skills were improved by incorporating interactive activities into the selected language sessions. With 50 students in each group, they were randomly divided into experimental and control groups. The students' ages ranged from 16 to 26, and all were from the same linguistic background: Indonesian natives who had studied English as a foreign language for about nine years. Although this is an unofficial observation based on experience, the student's English language skills could best be defined as pre-intermediate or intermediate without formal test results.

3.3 Research Procedures

The research involved pre-test, treatment, and post-test. This research was conducted over two months, from March to April 2022, comprising eight meetings. The meetings included one pre-test session each for the experimental and control groups, six treatment sessions in the experimental class, and one post-test session for the experimental and control groups.

In the experiment group, students were instructed to create four writing pieces throughout the semester – the treatment in each of the six meetings covered and practiced one unit for each composition. Themes were also designed to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. At each meeting, the students were given interactional feedback as a treatment. In contrast, the control class did not receive this treatment.

3.4 Data Collection

The research instrument used was an essay writing test. Students were instructed to compose a free essay on subjects found in their course books at the end of the course for the final assignment, which was part of their final exam, and were allocated 40 points. Topics were controlled to elicit conditional structures. Each student's essay

was also assessed in terms of word count. Students were required to write a 150-word essay on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. Using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree,’ participants were asked to indicate their support for various interactional feedback and rate their preferences for specific types of corrective feedback.

Each feedback point was then categorized according to a local or global problem following the scheme adopted by Nassaji and Kartchava (2017) and Boggs (2019). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and capitalization).

Table 1. Categories of writing skill.

Type	Function	Examples
Grammar (morphological and syntactic problems)	Ensuring correct language structure and grammatical rules.	Errors in verb conjugation, mismatch between subject and predicate, or the use of incorrect word forms.
Language expression (lexical errors)	Guaranteeing the accuracy of vocabulary and phrases in appropriate contexts.	Use of the wrong word, differences in meaning in specific contexts, or a mismatch between selected words and the intended message.
Mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and capitalization)	Maintaining readability and clarity of writing through correct spelling and punctuation rules.	Spelling mistakes, incorrect or missing punctuation, and inappropriate use of capitalization.

Global problems include ideas (feedback on the intention and personal viewpoint), content (feedback on the material provided), and organization (feedback on the structure of linked phrases, paragraphs, or passages). In this study, local and global concerns could receive either direct feedback (in the form of reformulations) or indirect feedback (circling/underlining codes or comments).

3.5 Data Analysis and Scoring

Writing tests were administered to the class, consisting of pre-test and post-test, to assess students’ recount text writing skills before and after the treatment. The scoring rubric, provided in the appendix, was used to assess the students’ writing. This rubric provides comprehensive assessment guidelines for recount text writing skills with the specified indicators. A score of 5 indicates the highest level of performance, while a score of 1 indicates the lowest level of performance.

The main data analysis used in this study is the ANCOVA test, which is an analytical technique useful for increasing the precision of an experiment as it regulates the influence of other uncontrolled independent variables. ANCOVA is used when the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis to determine or examine the effect of treatment on the response variable by controlling other quantitative variables. ANCOVA is a comparative test with the dependent variable interval or ratio data, while the independent variable consists of a mixture of categorical and numerical data, where categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative or ordinal data. Meanwhile, numerical data is data in numbers or the data which can be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

Subsequently, the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were conducted. The Wilcoxon (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic with nominal and ordinal scale data. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine relationships. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups when the data scale is ordinal or interval/ratio but not normally distributed. The Mann-Whitney U test requires the data to be ordinal, interval, or ratio scale, even if the data is interval or ratio because the distribution is not normal.

4. RESULTS

Intermediate EFL students at the State University of Malang participated in this study. The researchers employed two samples for this study: experimental and control classes. Interactional feedback was used as a treatment for the experimental class, while there was no treatment for the control class. This research investigates the effect of interactional feedback on EFL students' writing ability in essay writing.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Statistics is a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be performed in the form of data tendency (such as mean, mode, and median) and data distribution (such as standard deviation and variance). Table 2 presents the mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of all variables.

No.	Variable	Experimental		Control	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	Accuracy	2.97	0.88	3.14	0.99
2.	Writing length	3.03	0.85	2.97	1.04
3.	Effectiveness	2.76	1.05	3.09	1.03
4.	Vocabulary	2.80	0.90	3.13	1.09
5.	Elicitations	2.90	1.12	3.29	1.03
6.	Self-correction	3.26	0.95	3.01	0.94
7.	Metalinguistic	3.31	0.96	2.88	1.05
8.	Responsibility	3.12	0.95	3.06	0.86
9.	Preferences	3.31	1.17	2.96	0.93
10.	Proficiency level	3.14	1.11	3.04	0.98

Table 2 describes the mean and standard deviation of ten variables in this study for the experimental and control groups. Six variables in the experiment group have a higher mean than the control group, including writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic, responsibility, preferences, and proficiency level. Four variables in the control group have a higher mean than the experimental group: accuracy, effectiveness, vocabulary, and elicitations.

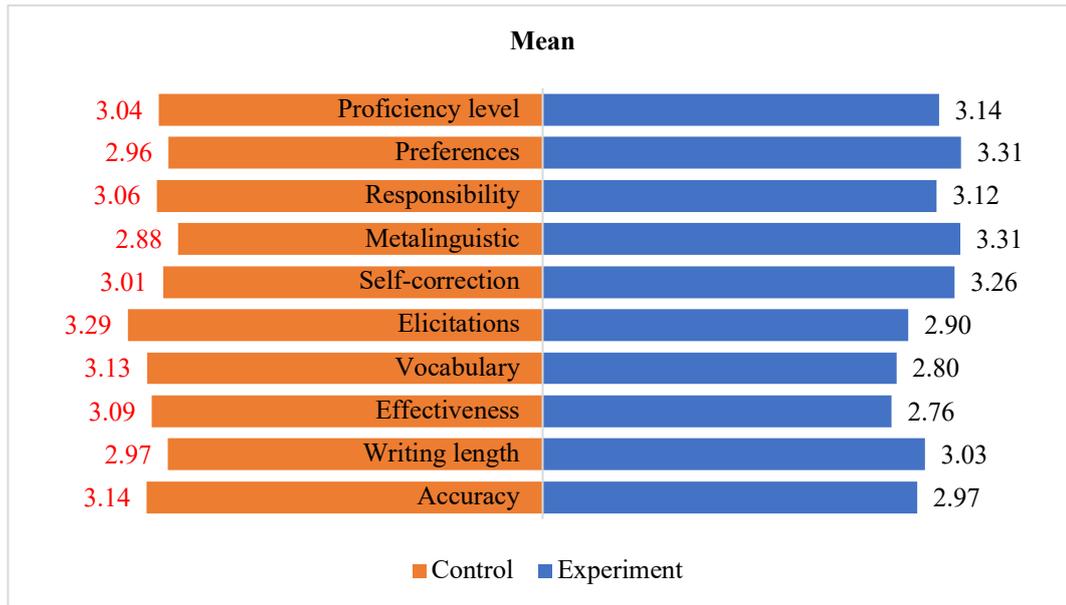


Figure 1. Mean per variable.

4.2 ANCOVA Test

The ANCOVA test is a comparative test with the dependent variable being interval or ratio data. ANCOVA test was performed on the dependent variables: writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness. The results of the ANCOVA test are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. The results of the ANCOVA.

Source	F	Sig.	R-Sq	Adj R-Sq
Corrected Model	41.789	0.000	0.463	0.452
Intercept	104.118	0.000		
Writing Length	81.173	0.000		
Treatment	3.339	0.071		
Corrected Model	34.922	0.000	0.419	0.407
Intercept	93.278	0.000		
Accuracy	67.621	0.000		
Treatment	0.540	0.464		
Corrected Model	38.850	0.000	0.445	0.433
Intercept	150.041	0.000		
Effectiveness	75.372	0.000		
Treatment	0.018	0.894		

Table 3 displays the results of the ANCOVA test, including the corrected model tests, which show the influence of all independent variables simultaneously on the dependent variables. The ANCOVA test results indicate that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) all simultaneously have a significant effect on interactional feedback ($p = 0.000$).

The intercept value represents how much the interactional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates or independent variables. The independent variable in this research was interactional feedback, and the dependent variable was writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness. The results show that the

ANCOVA test on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness on the intercept is significant ($p = 0.000$). This means that the interactional feedback variable underwent a significant change without being influenced by the dependent variable, whether it is writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness after the treatment.

The effect of each dependent variable, starting from writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness, is expressed in the significance value for each. The p -value for all dependent variables results is 0.000. Concluding that, writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness partially significantly influence interactional feedback. As for the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all significance values were higher than 0.05, indicating that the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the interactional feedback. The goodness of estimation, indicated by R^2 in each ANCOVA test, is 46.3% for writing length, 41.9% for accuracy, and 43.3% for effectiveness.

4.3 Wilcoxon Test

The Wilcoxon test, conducted on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables, is an alternative to the t -test for paired data, and the results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Wilcoxon test results.

Item	Accuracy	Writing length	Effectiveness
Negative ranks	22	27	21
Positive ranks	24	21	27
Ties	4	2	2
Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test	-0.798	-0.344	-1.565
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.425	0.731	0.118

Negative ranks mean the sample with the second group (control) value is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the second group (control) value higher than the first group (experiment). In contrast, ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to that of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, 22 students' scores are classified as negative ranks, 24 as positive ranks, and 4 as ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.798 ($p = 0.425$), concluding that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups for the accuracy variable. For the writing length variable, 27 scores belong to the negative ranks, 21 positive ranks, and 2 ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 ($p = 0.731$), indicating no significant difference between the experimental and control groups for the variable writing length. In the effectiveness variable, 21 scores belong to the negative ranks, 27 positive ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 ($p = 0.118$), concluding that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups for the effectiveness variable.

4.4 Mann-Whitney Test

The Mann-Whitney test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Mann-Whitney test first describes the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

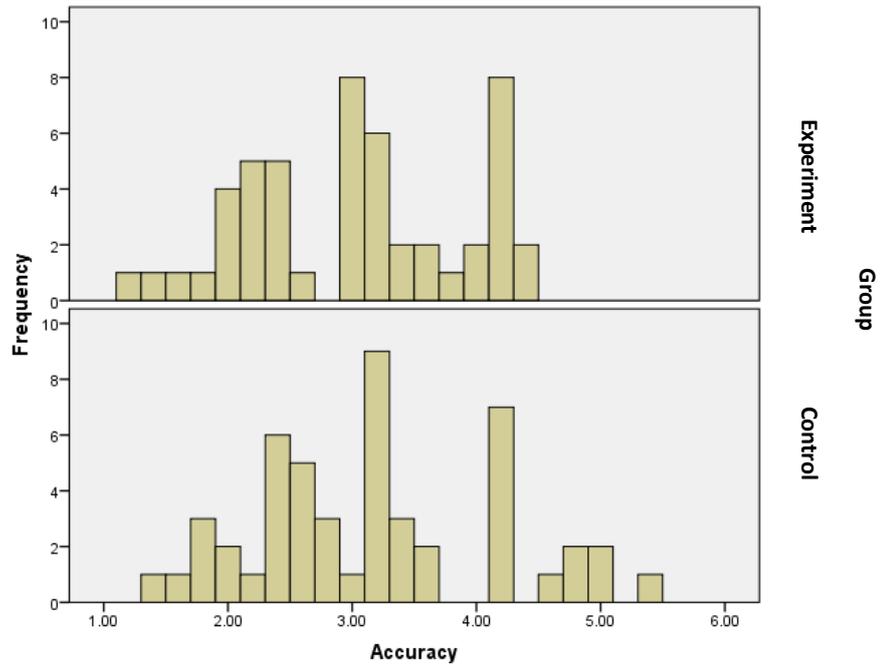


Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy.

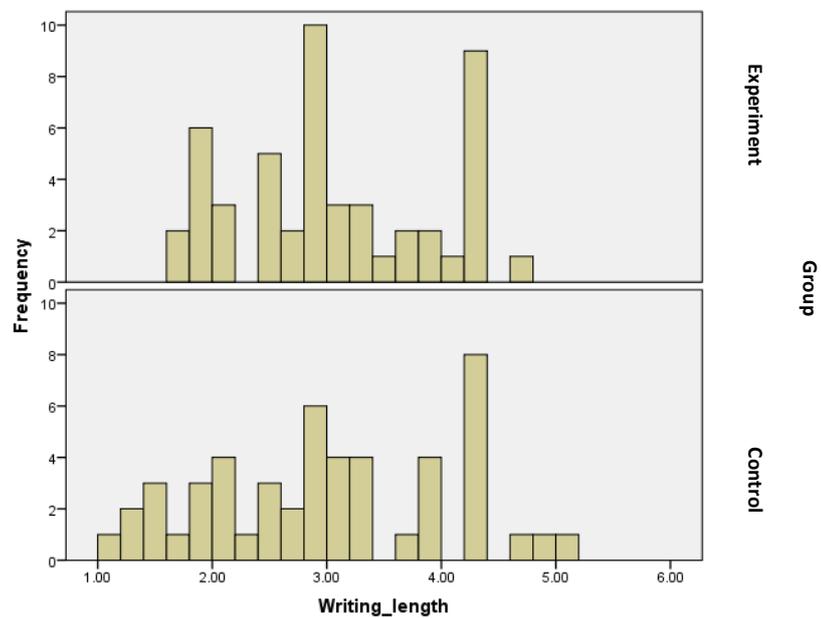


Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length.

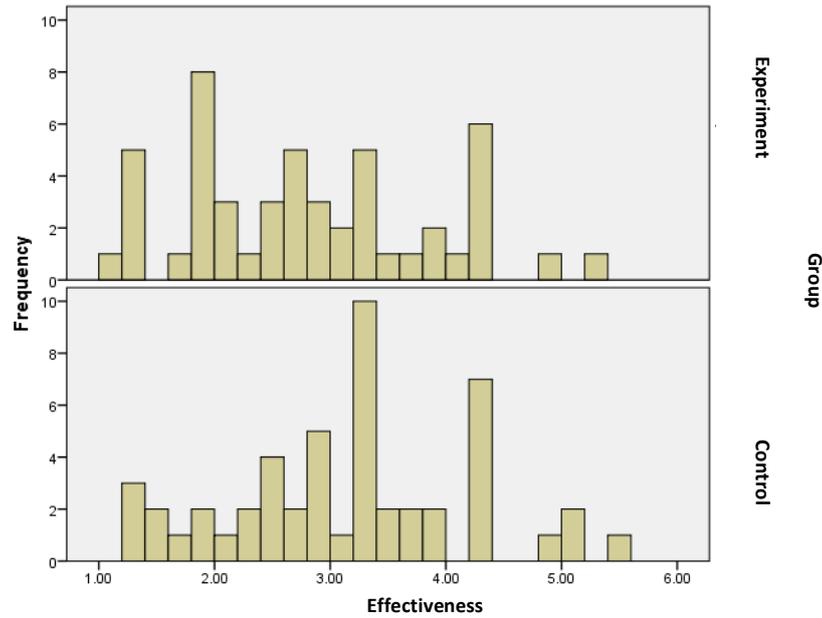


Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness.

Figures 2, 3, and 4 show the difference in the experimental and control groups' data distribution. There are striking differences in accuracy, writing length, and effectiveness variables. Furthermore, a homogeneity test was conducted to ascertain whether the variance in each group (experimental and control) differed.

Table 5. Homogeneity test results.

Item	Accuracy		Writing Length		Effectiveness	
	Levene Statistic	Sig.	Levene Statistic	Sig.	Levene Statistic	Sig.
Based on Mean	0.316	0.575	1.991	0.161	0.261	0.610
Based on Median	0.331	0.566	2.154	0.145	0.278	0.599
Based on the Median and with adjusted df	0.331	0.566	2.154	0.145	0.278	0.599
Based on trimmed mean	0.287	0.594	2.000	0.160	0.225	0.636

Table 5 shows the homogeneity test results using Levene's test method. Levene's test is recommended because it can be used to test the homogeneity of variance on data that are not normally distributed. Meanwhile, the Fisher F test is preferred if the data is normally distributed. The Levene's Test results in Table 4 show that the variance of the two groups is the same or homogeneous on the accuracy variable ($p = 0.575$), writing length ($p = 0.161$), and effectiveness variables ($p = 0.610$).

Table 6. Mann Whitney test results.

Item	Accuracy	Writing Length	Effectiveness
Mann-Whitney U	1,142	1,221	1,003
Wilcoxon W	2,417	2,496	2,278
Z	-0.746	-0.201	-1.708
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.455	0.841	0.088

Table 6 shows the U and W values for the accuracy variable. The Z value is -0.746 ($p = 0.455$), indicating no significant difference between the experimental and

control groups. The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496, resulting in a Z value of -0.201 ($p = 0.841$), concluding that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups. For the effectiveness variable, the U value is 1,003, and the W value is 2,278, with a Z value of -1.708 ($p = 0.088$), indicating no significant difference between the experimental and control groups.

5. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigates whether interactional feedback affected the EFL writers' writing ability. In the immediate post-test, the experimental group outperformed the control group, which aligns with findings from [Bitchener and Knoch \(2009\)](#), where interactional feedback was shown to enhance accuracy. Previous research has explored the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under evaluation, instructors, often researchers themselves, explicitly guided students in peer review, directing them to focus on specific writing-related difficulties and providing constructive criticism. Such research-based training aligns with the goals of university writing courses, as [Stanley \(2012\)](#) noted. Coaching or training has been found to intensify group interactions, with trained groups engaging more actively than untrained ones. Furthermore, coached groups offered more detailed interactional comments, contributing to improved text revision. The increased frequency of interactional exchanges, including pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying, indicates enhanced participation in coached groups.

Learners in the experimental group were found to engage more actively in peer review than those on the control groups ([Zhu, 2015](#)). The coached groups were also involved in longer, more in-depth, and more vibrant discussions, a finding corroborated by [McGroarty and Zhu \(2017\)](#), who noted an increased interaction in trained groups regarding the number of turns and the length of livelier exchanges. Additionally, [Min's \(2015\)](#) study showed that specific instruction on peer review increased the number of comments focused on clarifying, identifying, and explaining issues and providing recommendations to improve texts. Learners' attention to comments on global issues also increased.

The second research question examines the relative effect of the interactional feedback variable on EFL students' writing. The results indicate that six variables in the experimental group had a higher average than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic awareness, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Interactional feedback proved to be stimulating, motivating students to produce longer compositions, including drawings and graphs, demonstrating increased motivation.

The statistical analysis indicates that interactional feedback significantly influenced students' accuracy in new writing assignments. The gap between the two groups in terms of error reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment increased over time, though it was not significant in the first two written tasks. That is, neither of the two types of mistake feedback was more useful than the other in assisting learners in fixing their errors during the review stage of the first two tasks. The disparities between the two groups became noticeable in the third task and grew larger in the fourth task. This observation can be explained by the proximity of

the feedback options used in this study. When there is significant variation in the level of feedback provided, differences in learners' abilities are more likely to manifest in the initial stages. As a result, the more similar the feedback types, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

Comparing [Abdollahifam's \(2014\)](#) study with the results of the present study, treatment length may impact the study's outcomes. In our study, the variation was insignificant in the first two tasks completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities differed. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks completed by students and the treatment duration appear to be crucial. [Nassaji \(2020\)](#), who compared the usefulness of four distinct types of supplementary input on revision accuracy, reported that they were comparable to those of [Ravand and Rasekh \(2011\)](#). They found that less time-consuming ways of diverting students' interest to surface flaws might suffice after finding no difference in the participants' performance in different groups ([Nassaji, 2020](#)). Although the study lasted approximately eight months, participants only produced five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise then. Therefore, shorter-term research findings can be more confidently applied when supported by longer-term longitudinal investigations. This supports what researchers have discovered in the literature, as students desire input on language, content, and structure ([Saeed et al., 2018](#)). Written feedback can help students understand how their teachers interpret their writing and identify strengths and flaws.

Teachers should provide feedback selectively, concentrating on crucial areas, such as recurring error patterns ([Hardman & Bell, 2018](#)), thereby reducing the input quantity and teachers' workload. This approach can also lead to more legible feedback. Teachers could explore other types of feedback, such as feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes like voice feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research can investigate various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and students' responses to them in different situations.

6. CONCLUSION

This study highlights that EFL teachers should select interactional feedback styles based on the aim for which the feedback is provided. More specific feedback options prove to be more effective for facilitating students' revision and enhancement of their written assignments. Conversely, more implicit forms of feedback are preferable when the aim is to aid learners in improving their knowledge. The use of more implicit feedback holds two key advantages. Firstly, teachers can deliver implicit feedback more efficiently, saving time. Secondly, by engaging students in the problem-solving process of revision, a more implicit approach increases the likelihood of successful learning.

Nonetheless, there are certain limitations to the present study. Firstly, despite an appropriate teacher-to-student ratio, the study involved a limited number of teachers, making it challenging to generalize the impact of interactional feedback across various contexts. In addition, due to the limited number of participating teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews that could have provided more nuanced

insights and explanations were not feasible. Conducting such in-depth interviews in future studies could help researchers achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the perspectives of both teachers and students regarding differences in actual classroom input.

Moreover, further research is needed to understand the numerous elements influencing learners' preferences for interactional feedback. Based on the diagnostic assessments of the language institutes that participated in the study, one of the study's weaknesses was the rather inadequate operationalization of the proficiency variable. Our findings might be put to the test in a variety of settings, such as a more extensive evaluation of writing skills. Given the physiological and behavioral differences between adults and younger students, a more fruitful line of investigation would be to investigate the influence of age and learning opportunities on preferences for written interactional feedback.

REFERENCES

- Abdollahifam, S. (2014). Investigating the effects of interactional feedback on EFL students' writings. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 16-21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.383>
- Arrad, G., Vinkler, Y., Aharonov, D., & Retzker, A. (2014). Increasing sensing resolution with error correction. *Physical Review Letters*, 112(15), 150801. <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.112.150801>
- Benson, S., & Dekeyser, R. (2018). Effects of written corrective feedback and language aptitude on verb tense accuracy. *Language Teaching Research*, 23(6), 702-726. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818770921>
- Bitchener, J. (2012). A reflection on "the language learning potential" of written CF. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(4), 348-363. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2012.09.006>
- Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. R. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203832400>
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2009). The relative effectiveness of different types of direct written corrective feedback. *System*, 37(2), 322-329. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.12.006>
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2010). Raising the linguistic accuracy level of advanced L2 writers with written corrective feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19(4), 207-217. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.10.002>
- Boggs, J. A. (2019). Effects of teacher-scaffolded and self-scaffolded corrective feedback compared to direct corrective feedback on grammatical accuracy in English L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 46, 100671. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2019.100671>
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. SAGE Publications.
- Crosthwaite, P. (2018). Does EAP writing instruction reduce L2 errors? Evidence from a longitudinal corpus of L2 EAP essays and reports. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 56(3), 315-343. <https://doi.org/10.1515/IRAL-2016-0129>

- Dabbagh, A. (2017). The effect of dialogue journal writing on EFL learners' descriptive writing performance: A quantitative study. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 6(3), 71-80. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.6n.3p.71>
- Ellis, R. (2009). A typology of written corrective feedback types. *ELT Journal*, 63(2), 97-107. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ELT/CCN023>
- Elola, I., & Oskoz, A. (2016). Supporting second language writing using multimodal feedback. *Foreign Language Annals*, 49(1), 58-74. <https://doi.org/10.1111/FLAN.12183>
- Ferris, D. R. (2014). Responding to student writing: Teachers' philosophies and practices. *Assessing Writing*, 19, 6-23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2013.09.004>
- Ferris, D. R., Liu, H., Sinha, A., & Senna, M. (2013). Written corrective feedback for individual L2 writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 22(3), 307-329. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2012.09.009>
- Grindle, C. F., Cianfaglione, R., Corbel, L., Wormald, E. V, Brown, F. J., Hastings, R. P., & Carl Hughes, J. (2017). Teaching handwriting skills to children with intellectual disabilities using an adapted handwriting programme. *Support for Learning*, 32(4), 313-336. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9604.12178>
- Hardman, W., & Bell, H. (2018). 'More fronted adverbials than ever before'. Writing feedback practices and grammatical metalanguage in an English primary school. *Language and Education*, 33(1), 33-50. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2018.1488864>
- Hattie, J., & Gan, M. (2011). Instruction based on feedback. In R. E. Mayer & P. A. Alexander (Eds.), *Handbook of research on learning and instruction* (pp. 263-285). Routledge.
- Hosseiny, M. (2014). The role of direct and indirect written corrective feedback in improving Iranian EFL students' writing skill. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 668-674. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.466>
- Hua, Z., Seedhouse, P., Wei, L., & Cook, V. (Eds.). (2007). *Language learning and teaching as social inter-action*. Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230591240>
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2017). *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524742>
- Jamalinesari, A., Rahimi, F., Gowhary, H., & Azizifar, A. (2015). The effects of teacher-written direct vs. indirect feedback on students' writing. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 192, 116-123. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.06.018>
- Kaivanpanah, S., Alavi, S. M., & Sepehrinia, S. (2015). Preferences for interactional feedback: differences between learners and teachers. *Language Learning Journal*, 43(1), 74-93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2012.705571>
- Kapur, R. (2019). *Constructivism in teaching-learning process*. University of Delhi.
- Lee, I. (2008). Student reactions to teacher feedback in two Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 17(3), 144-164. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.12.001>

- Mao, S. S., & Crosthwaite, P. (2019). Investigating written corrective feedback: (Mis)alignment of teachers' beliefs and practice. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 45, 46-60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2019.05.004>
- McGroarty, M. E., & Zhu, W. (2017). Triangulation in classroom research: A study of peer revision. *Language Learning*, 47(1), 1-43. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.11997001>
- Mehrpour, S., & Agheshteh, H. (2017). Supervisory feedback efficiency: Developing a framework based on Iranian EFL teachers' and supervisors' perceptions. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 6(3), 24-33. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.6n.3p.24>
- Miller, T. M., & Geraci, L. (2011). Training metacognition in the classroom: The influence of incentives and feedback on exam predictions. *Metacognition and Learning*, 6(3), 303-314. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11409-011-9083-7>
- Min, H.-T. (2015). Training students to become successful peer reviewers. *System*, 33(2), 293-308. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.11.003>
- Nassaji, H. (2015). *The interactional feedback dimension in instructed second language learning: Linking theory, research, and practice*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Nassaji, H. (2020). Assessing the effectiveness of interactional feedback for L2 acquisition: Issues and challenges. *Language Teaching*, 53(1), 3-28. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444819000375>
- Nassaji, H., & Kartchava, E. (Eds.). (2017). *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315621432>
- Nava, A., & Pedrazzini, L. (2018). *Second language acquisition in action: Principles from practice*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Polio, C., & Park, J.-H. (2016). Language development in second language writing. In R. M. Manchón & P. Matsuda (Eds.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 287-306). De Gruyter Mouton. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9781614511335-016>
- Poorebrahim, F. (2017). Indirect written corrective feedback, revision, and learning. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), 184-192. <https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v6i2.4843>
- Ravand, H., & Rasekh, A. E. (2011). Feedback in ESL writing: Toward an interactional approach. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(5), 1136-1145. <https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.2.5.1136-1145>
- Saeed, M. A., Ghazali, K., & Aljaberi, M. A. (2018). A review of previous studies on ESL/EFL learners' interactional feedback exchanges in face-to-face and computer-assisted peer review of writing. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 15, Article 6. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-017-0084-8>
- Sarré, C., Grosbois, M., & Brudermann, C. (2021). Fostering accuracy in L2 writing: Impact of different types of corrective feedback in an experimental blended learning EFL course. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 34(5-6), 707-729. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2019.1635164>
- Scott, R. B., & Dienes, Z. (2010). Knowledge applied to new domains: The unconscious succeeds where the conscious fails. *Consciousness and Cognition*, 19(1), 391-398.

- Seedhouse, P. (2007). Interaction and constructs. In Z. Hua, P. Seedhouse, L. Wei, & V. Cook (Eds.), *Language learning and teaching as social inter-action* (pp. 9-21). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230591240_2
- Siyoto, S., & Sodik, M. A. (2015). *Dasar metodologi penelitian* [Fundamentals of research methodology]. Literasi Media Publishing.
- Stanley, J. (2012). Coaching student writers to be effective peer evaluators. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 1(3), 217-233. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743\(92\)90004-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743(92)90004-9)
- Thorne, B. (2002). Widening the conceptual scope: Gender and interaction. In B. Bettina & H. Kotthoff (Eds.), *Gender in Interaction: Perspectives on femininity and masculinity in ethnography and discourse* (pp. 3-18). John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/PBNS.93.03THO>
- Thurlings, M., Vermeulen, M., Bastiaens, T., & Stijnen, S. (2013). Understanding feedback: A learning theory perspective. *Educational Research Review*, 9, 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2012.11.004>
- Van Beuningen, C. G., De Jong, N. H., & Kuiken, F. (2012). Evidence on the effectiveness of comprehensive error correction in second language writing. *Language Learning*, 62(1), 1-41. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00674.x>
- van Ruler, B. (2018). Communication theory: An underrated pillar on which strategic communication rests. *International Journal of Strategic Communication*, 12(4), 367-381. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1553118X.2018.1452240>
- Warsidi, W. (2017). The effect of texts-based interactional feedback (TIF) on the students' EFL writing. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics*, 2(3), 245-258. <https://doi.org/10.21462/jeltl.v2i3.82>
- Wiliam, D. (2018). Feedback: At the heart of—but definitely not all of—formative assessment. In A. Lipnevich & J. Smith (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of instructional feedback* (pp. 3-28). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316832134.003>
- Wrench, J. S., Punyanunt-Carter, N. M., & Thweatt, K. S. (2023). *Interpersonal communication: A mindful approach to relationships*. LibreTexts.
- Zarifi, A. (2017). Iranian EFL learners' reaction to teacher's written corrective feedback. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 6(3), 254-261. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.6n.3p.254>
- Zhu, W. (2015). Effects of training for peer response on students' comments and interaction. *Written Communication*, 12(4), 492-528. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088395012004004>

APPENDIX

Scoring Rubric: Recount Text Writing Skills

Variable	Score 5	Score 4	Score 3	Score 2	Score 1
Accuracy	Demonstrates a high level of accuracy in grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.	Shows accuracy with minor errors in grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.	Has noticeable errors in grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.	Contains frequent errors in grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.	Contains numerous errors impacting overall understanding.
Writing Length	Consistently meets or exceeds the required writing length with a well-developed recount.	Meets the required length with a sufficiently developed recount.	Approaches the required length but lacks thorough development.	Falls short of the required length with limited development.	Significantly below the required length with minimal development.
Effectiveness	Highly effective in engaging the reader, maintaining interest, and clearly conveying the recount.	Effectively engages the reader, maintains interest, and clearly conveys the recount.	Moderately engages the reader, with some lapses in interest and clarity.	Ineffectively engages the reader, with significant lapses in interest and clarity.	Fails to engage the reader, lacking interest and clarity.
Vocabulary	Rich and varied vocabulary used appropriately to enhance the recount.	Good use of vocabulary with some variety, contributing to the recount.	Limited vocabulary use; lacks variety and impact.	Very limited vocabulary use; minimal impact on the recount.	Inappropriate or repetitive vocabulary; does not contribute to the recount.
Elicitations	Effectively elicits emotions, reactions, or responses from the reader.	Somewhat elicits emotions, reactions, or responses from the reader.	Attempts to elicit emotions, reactions, or responses but with limited success.	Lacks effective elicitation of emotions, reactions, or responses.	Does not attempt to elicit any emotions, reactions, or responses.
Self-correction	Demonstrates a high level of self-correction with minimal errors remaining.	Shows effective self-correction with only a few errors remaining.	Attempts self-correction but with noticeable errors remaining.	Shows limited self-correction, with frequent errors remaining.	Lacks self-correction; errors persist throughout.
Metalinguistic	Effectively uses metalinguistic awareness to enhance the recount.	Shows good metalinguistic awareness, contributing to the recount.	Demonstrates some metalinguistic awareness, but with limited impact.	Limited use of metalinguistic awareness; does not significantly contribute.	Lacks metalinguistic awareness; does not contribute to the recount.

Appendix continued...

Responsibility	Takes full responsibility for the recount, demonstrating a high level of ownership.	Takes responsibility for the recount, with a good level of ownership.	Demonstrates partial responsibility for the recount; ownership is inconsistent.	Shows limited responsibility for the recount; lacks consistent ownership.	Lacks responsibility for the recount; no sense of ownership.
Preferences	Effectively incorporates personal preferences, enhancing the recount.	Incorporates personal preferences with some impact on the recount.	Attempts to incorporate personal preferences, but impact is limited.	Shows limited use of personal preferences; impact is minimal.	Does not incorporate any personal preferences; lacks impact.
Proficiency Level	Demonstrates a high level of proficiency in recount text writing.	Shows proficiency in recount text writing.	Approaches proficiency in recount text writing.	Demonstrates limited proficiency in recount text writing.	Lacks proficiency in recount text writing.