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[SiELE] Submission Acknowledgement

1 message

The Editors <jurnal@usk.ac.id> Tue, Feb 14, 2023 at 4:09 PM
To: "Dr. Masrul M" <masrulm25@gmail.com>

Dear Dr. Masrul M:

Thank you for submitting the manuscript, "Interactional Feedback in EFL Students' Writing Ability" to Studies in English Language and Education. With the online journal management system that we are using, you will be able to track its progress through the editorial process by logging in to the journal web site:

Manuscript URL: https://jurnal.usk.ac.id/SiELE/author/submission/30836
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4. If revisions are required, the authors must do them as suggested by the reviewers,
5. The revisions will be further evaluated by our team of Editors,
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Thank you very much. If you have any questions, please contact us at this email address: sielejournal@unsyiah.ac.id. Thank you for considering this journal as a venue for your work.

Best Regards,
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Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com>

[SiELE] Review Results of Your Article

1 message

SiELE Journal Unsyiah <sielejournal@usk.ac.id> Wed, Apr 5, 2023 at 10:17 PM
To: masrulm25@gmail.com

Dear Masrul M, R. Andi Ahmad Gunadi, Aswir A, Beny Hamdani, Ummi Rasyidah, and Sri Yuliani,

Thank you for submitting the manuscript, "Interactional Feedback in EFL Students' Writing Ability" to Studies in English Language and Education. The reviewers have returned their reviews of your article to the journal. Unfortunately, one reviewer has **REJECTED** your article, meanwhile, the other reviewer has recommended **MAJOR REVISION** providing that you are committed to making the revisions as suggested. Attachments 1 and 2 are the first reviewer's comments and feedback, and Attachments 3 and 4 are the second reviewer's feedback and comments on your article.

Please work on the revision as suggested by Reviewer 1 first (highlight the changes in yellow), once this is done, on this same draft, continue to work on the revision as suggested by Reviewer 2 (highlight the changes in green). This is **obligatory** so that we can evaluate your revision more efficiently. You must fill in the rebuttal letter form (Attachment 5) and **this is also obligatory.** This first round of revision is due on **May 5, 2023**. Since both reviewers have different results on your article, after this revision, **it will be sent to a third reviewer before we can make a decision on your article.**

Submit your revision and rebuttal to this email address AND also upload it to the journal's OJS (login --> click on your title --> click on the menu Review --> scroll down and upload the files at Upload Author Version under Editor Decision). **Please reply to our email once you have received it.**

If you would like to withdraw your article from the journal, please let us know as well. Thank you and we look forward to hearing from you.

Best Regards,
The Editors

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Category	Yes	Partially	No
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1. Abstract is too long. Remove some parts. Only between 200-250 words
2. Very, very, old references, unacceptable. Change and update them
3. Research questions should be in the Intro part
4. Have the paper proofread. Provide proof to the journal
5. Make subtitles in lit review
6. Revise method. Explain the instrument and insert one example of the students' feedback
7. Actually, I expect to see students' feedback in the 'result and discussion' part, not only 'number(s)'. Your tittle is a bit too general for a very quantitative study. In the method section, you mentioned about likert-scale questionnaire, but I could not find the result of that questionnaire in result and discussion section. Re-read what you have written!
8. Read carefully the SiELE guidance for authors

Good luck!

STUDIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND EDUCATION
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Is the gap of study justified?		√	
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Does it clearly explain the instruments used in research?	√		
Is the technique of data collection explained clearly?			√
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Do the findings answer the research question of this paper?		√	
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Are the discussions drawn reasonable and linked to other studies on the topic?		√	
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CONCLUSION: Are the conclusions and generalizations based on the findings?		√	
Are limitations of the study and suggestions for future research provided?		√	
REFERENCES: Are the references current and sufficient?		√	
GRAMMAR AND COHESION: Is the language clear and understandable?		√	
Is cohesion achieved throughout the article?			√

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1) Most of references used are too old (more than 10 years)
2) The whole sentences need more cohesion and coherence. Between the title and the research questions as well as the conclusion do not match
3) The abstract is too long and not quite clearly stated
4) The facts or problems and the aim of study in INTRODUCTION are not clearly explained.
5) No reviews on interactional feedback, additional feedback, and implicit feedback style (but they are stated in CONCLUSION)
6) There are many grammatical errors

Interactional Feedback in EFL Students' Writing Ability

Abstract

This study investigates the effect of corrective feedback on students' writing abilities. This study involved 100 participants were enrolled in an intermediate EFL course. They were recruited from the State University of Malang, Indonesia. Intermediate level EFL courses use three factors for assessing student progress: attendance, writing assignments, and final exams. Main data analysis used in this study was the ANCOVA test, a useful analytical technique to increase the precision of an experiment because it regulates the effect of variables other independent uncontrolled. Then the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were carried out. The results revealed that six variables in the experimental group had higher averages than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistics, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. The results of the ANCOVA test showed that the dependent variable (writing length, accuracy, and affective) simultaneously had a significant effect on adding feedback (p=0.000). The Wilcoxon value obtained was -0.798 (p=0.425); it was concluded that the experimental group and the control group were not significantly different for the accuracy variable. The Wilcoxon value obtained was -0.344 (p=0.731); thus, it was concluded that the experimental group and the control group were not significantly different for the writing length variable. The Wilcoxon value obtained was -1.565 (p=0.118), and it was concluded that the experimental group and the control group were not significantly different for affective variables. Levene's test results showed that the variances of the two groups were the same or homogeneous in the variables of accuracy (p=0.575), writing length (p=0.161), and affective variables (p=0.610). This study reveals that EFL teachers should choose additional feedback styles based on the purpose of providing the feedback. To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective. More useful recommendation lines for further research are discussed to improve this field.

Keywords: Interactional Feedback; Writing Performance; EFL learner; writing development, Writing Assessment

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 (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). In the context of writing, students expect a response immediately from the teacher when they turn in their writing assignments. The students want to realize where they stand in relation to their assignments. These reactions were primarily evaluative. Feedback has been defined loosely as information offered by the teacher that helps students comprehend and improve their performance by allowing them to notice and fix their mistakes (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). This procedure informs students whether an instructional answer is correct (Lalande, 1982). Generally, three wide meanings of

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feedback have been investigated (Kulhavy et al., 1989). The first is feedback in motivational meaning that increases the general behaviors, for example, in writing or revision activities (Brown, 1932). The second is in reinforcement, meaning that it reacts to particular behaviors, such as a spelling error or particular approach in writing (Thorndike, 1927). The last definition is feedback in informational meaning, consisting of information used by students to modify their performance in a particular way (Bardwell, 1981). In a school setting, all three aspects are important, but the informational aspect is the most crucial.

Ferris & Roberts (2001) have shown that feedback has the greatest impact on incorrect over correct answers when it comes to written instructions. Therefore, the most well-known types of feedback are corrective feedback, as these responses were evaluative and educative (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012). Corrective feedback is information provided about aspects of students' performance and understanding (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Based on this definition, a student can explore the answers to evaluate the correctness of a response from corrective information provided by the teacher. It is in line with Miller & Geraci (2011), who revealed that feedback is information that students can use to confirm, add to, overwrite, or restructure information in memory that can be domain and metacognitive knowledge, awareness about themselves and tasks, or cognitive methods and strategies.

Corrective feedback has also been discussed in the context of feedback on forms, such as grammatical and contextual issues, as well as feedback on material, such as word-level writing restrictions and concept development. The findings demonstrate that substance and form must be considered while providing feedback (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Sheppard, 1992; Krashen, 1982). Dabbagh (2017) used conversational journal writing to investigate descriptively students' writing skills in an EFL context. In his study, 84 students between the ages of 17 and 22 were divided into control and experiment. The quantitative analysis was used to focus on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings revealed three scoring settings: content, organization, and vocabulary have significant changes in the post-test, whereas language use and mechanics have no significant achievement. In addition, due to studies of students' reactions to teachers' feedback, students value the feedback they eventually receive on their writing errors (Enginarlar, 1993; Ferris et al., 2013; Hedguxk & Lefkowi-Iz, 1994; Leki, 1991; Radecki & Swales, 1988; Saito, 1994). Written corrective feedback refers to teachers' written comments on students' work to improve it (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019). As a result, the current research focuses on providing written corrective feedback to rectify problems in student-produced texts that are deemed written texts.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The result of three current empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Han & Jung, 2007; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki, 2004), different sorts of corrective feedback should be used dependently on students' competence levels. The form of written corrective feedback is considered important to the final construction success, and a wide variety of written corrective feedback patterns are now accessible in the literature (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, 2012; Ferris, 2004; Sheen, 2007). Direct feedback is when a teacher points out an error and gives the student the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take several forms, including removing unneeded 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 accept feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. While indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for diagnosing and correcting any problems on their own. In most cases, four ways of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors on a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the fault occurred; and (4) using a symbol to indicate what type of error is indicated (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Robb et al., 1986).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, are the most commonly used technique for dealing with second-language students' writing (Cumming, 1985; Nguyễn, 2003). Indeed other studies indicate that systematically identifying grammar errors in second language students can improve their writing accuracy and overall level of writing performance (Van Beuningen et al., 2012; Lalande, 1982; Robb et al., 1986). The extent of the errors determines the teacher's decision to use direct or indirect written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of either form might be beneficial or bad based on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite the 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 discovered no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Ferris & Roberts (2001) have shown that they generally prefer indirect feedback from teachers. Students are forced to participate in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading them to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Schmidt, 1990). As a result, identity and motivation can be encouraged and developed, enabling a student's long-term growth to expand and reinforce greater learning. Chandler (2003) divided participants into four groups to test the efficacy of several types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) only underlining. The results demonstrated that the more explicit the comments, the more accurate the students' adjustments were. Using written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicit and implicitly corrected criticism. However, text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

The instructional parts of feedback have received a lot of attention. Several studies have looked at the attitudinal aspects of feedback, specifically EFL students' responses to teacher feedback as well as their opinions (Leki, 1991; Lee, 2008). Some researchers have argued that teacher-provided corrective feedback is an important tool for learning progress (e.g., Lalande, 1982; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Chandler, 2003; Robb et al., 1986). Other researchers, however, have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy growth (e.g., Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992). However, many still believe that written corrective feedback is a clear, high-priority, and selective way to guide students and help them in mastering their skills and correct mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). For teachers who desire to enhance their students' writing abilities and linguistic correctness, providing feedback on student writing is considered an essential educational practice (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2019).

Hence, this study investigated whether corrective feedback affects students' writing ability. It is argued that interactional feedback can facilitate writing skill development (Lynch, 2002). The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship between the experimental treatment and control of additional feedback?
2. What is the effect of the experiment and control on the additional feedback variable?

3. METHOD

3.1 Participants

This study involved 100 students enrolled in an intermediate English language course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. Students' writing skills were improved by incorporating them into interactive activities in 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 came 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.

2.2 Research Procedures

In both the experiment and control groups, students were instructed to create four pieces of writing throughout the semester. Each four sessions, one unit was covered and practiced for each composition. Themes were also created to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. The writings were all classified homework assignments and were not completed in class.

2.3 Data collection

In addition, the intermediate EFL course used three factors to assess students' progress: attendance, writing assignments, and the final test. Because the major goal of the course is to help EFL students improve their exam scores, the courses focus on writing accuracy and fluency rather than ideas and coherence.

Students were instructed to compose a free composition at the end of the course concerning the subjects mentioned in their course books for the final assignment. This is part of their final exam, and the writing segment was given 40 points. Topics were controlled in such a way that conditional structures were elicited. Each student's composition was also counted in terms of words. Students must compose a 150-word composition on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. On 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 Montgomery & Baker (2007) and Storch & Tapper (2000). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and 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). Local and global concerns in this study could receive either direct feedback (in the form of reformulations) or indirect feedback (circling/underlining codes or comments).

2.4 Data analysis and scoring

The main data analysis used in this study is the ANCOVA test, an analytical technique useful for increasing the precision of an experiment as it regulates the influence of other uncontrolled independent variables. ANCOVA is used if the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis. It is 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. Categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative data or ordinal data. While numerical data is data in numbers or can also be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

The Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were then carried out. Wilcoxon test (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic, with the data using nominal and ordinal scales. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine a relationship. The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired); in the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before testing. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups if the dependent variable 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. If the data is interval or ratio, the distribution is not normal. The Mann-Whitney test is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the assumption of normality is not met. However, despite the non-parametric form of the independent t-test, the Mann-Whitney U test does not test the difference in the mean of the two groups like the Independent t-test. Instead, it examines the difference in the median of the two groups.

4. RESULT

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Statistics is a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be in the form of data tendency (mean, mode, median, etc.) and data distribution (standard deviation, variance, etc.). The mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. 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	Affective	2.76	1.05	3.09	1.03
4	Vocabulary	2.80	0.90	3.13	1.09
5	Pronunciation	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 1. Descriptive statistics of the research variables

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Table 1 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 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, affective, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

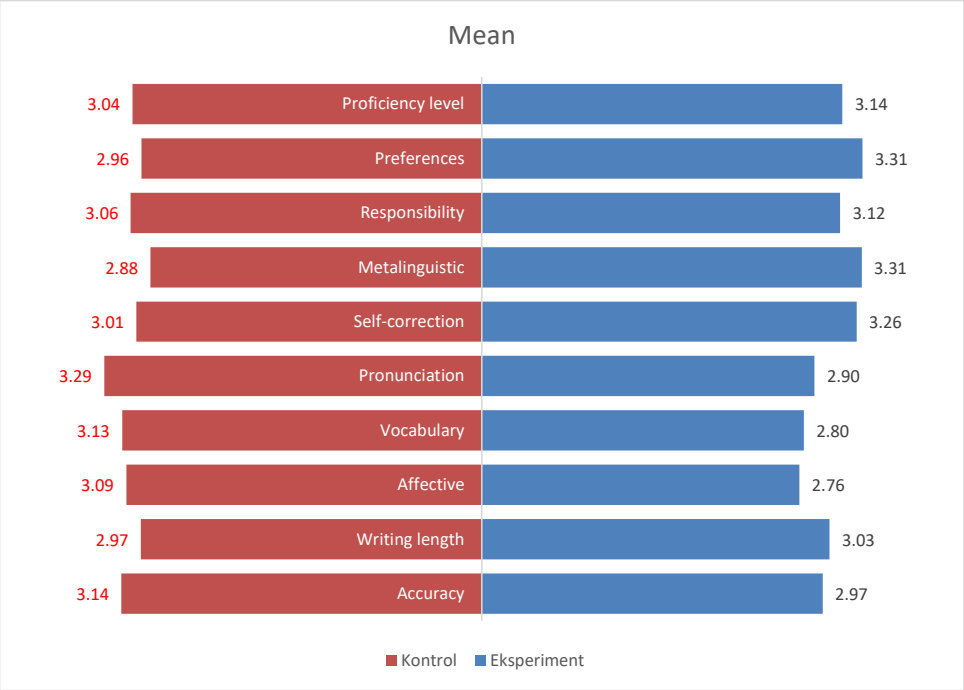

Figure 1. Mean per variable

3.2 ANCOVA Test

ANCOVA 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 affective. The results of the ANCOVA test can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. 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		
Perlakuan	3.339	0.071		
Corrected Model	34.922	0.000	0.419	0.407
Intercept	93.278	0.000		
Accuracy	67.621	0.000		
Perlakuan	0.540	0.464		
Corrected Model	38.850	0.000	0.445	0.433

Intercept	150.041	0.000
Affective	75.372	0.000
Perlakuan	0.018	0.894

Corrected model tests are the influence values of all independent variables simultaneously or together on the dependent variable. Table 1 shows the results of the ANCOVA test. It shows that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and affective) all simultaneously or simultaneously have a significant effect on additional feedback (p=0.000).

The Intercept value shows how much the additional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates and independent variables or independent variables. The results of Table 1 show the ANCOVA test on writing length, accuracy, and affective on the intercept is significant (p=0.000). This means that the additional feedback variable underwent a significant change without being influenced by the dependent variable, either writing length, accuracy, or affective.

The effect of each dependent variable, starting from writing length, accuracy, and affective, is expressed in the significance value for each. The p-values for all dependent variables result is 0.000. Hence, it is concluded that the dependent variable writing length, accuracy, and affective partially significantly influence additional feedback. While for the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all of the significance values were above 0.05; thus, it can be concluded that the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the additional feedback. The value of the goodness of estimation in each ANCOVA test is indicated by R^2. The R2 for the writing length, accuracy, and affective is 46.3%, 41.9%, and 43.3%, respectively.

3.3 Wilcoxon Test

The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired. In the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before being carried out for testing. In this study, the Wilcoxon test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and affective variables. The Wilcoxon test results are presented in Table 3.

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

Table 3. Wilcoxon test results

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Negative ranks mean that the sample with the value of the second group (control) is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the value of the second group (control) higher than the first group (experiment). While Ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to the value of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, there are 22 samples classified as Negative Ranks, 24 as Positive Ranks, and 4 as Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.798 (p=0.425); hence,

it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the accuracy variable. In the writing length variable, 27 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 21 Positive Ranks, and 2 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 (p=0.731); thus, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the variable writing length. In the affective variable, 21 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 27 Positive Ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 (p=0.118), and it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the affective variable.

3.4 Mann Whitney Test

Test Mann Whitney is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the normality assumption is not met. In this study, the Mann-Whitney test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and affective variables. The Mann-Whitney test began by describing the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

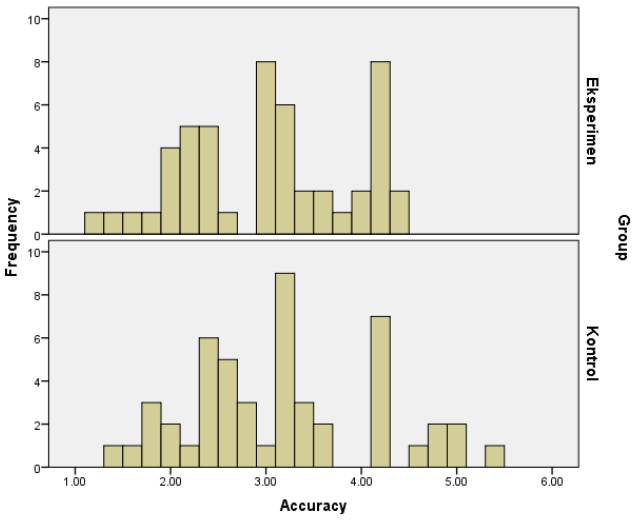

Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy

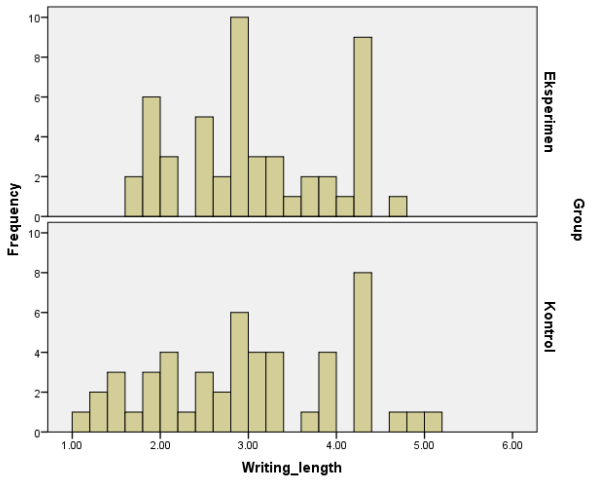

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length

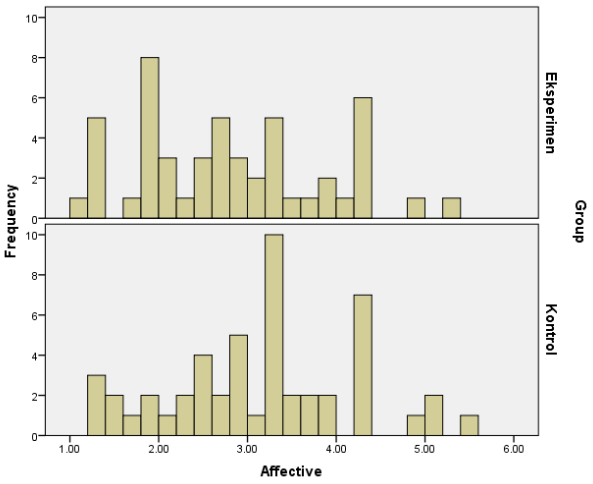

Figure 4. Histogram of mean affective

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

Item	Accuracy	Writing Length	Affective

	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 4. Homogeneity test results

Table 4 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 affective variables (p=0.610).

Item	Accuracy	Writing Length	Affective
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 5. Mann Whitney test results

Table 5 shows a U value of 1.142 and a W value of 2.417 for the accuracy variable. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.746 (p=0.455), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.201 (p=0.841) and it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

For the affective variable, the U value is 1.003 and the W value is 2.278. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -1.708 (p=0.088), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

5. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigated whether experimental treatment and control of additional feedback affected the advanced EFL writers' ability to improve their accuracy after they had already achieved a reasonable level of accuracy. In the immediate post-test, all six experimental groups outperformed the control group. This

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result is consistent with Bitchener & Knoch (2009), where additional feedback was proved to develop accuracy.

The second research question looked into the relative impact of the experiment and control on the additional feedback variable for EFL students. The findings revealed six variables in the experiment group with a greater average than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Additional feedback was stimulating, and students gladly wrote larger pieces. Not only were the students' compositions longer, but they also included drawings and graphs, which can be ascribed to motivation.

In summary, statistical analysis revealed that additional feedback did not affect students' accuracy in new writing assignments. When comparing the rate of mistake reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment, the gap between the two groups developed over time, even if 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. This could be explained by the proximity of the feedback options used in this study. When the direct determinant level of the feedback kinds supplied varies significantly, it seems more likely to expect differences in learners' ability in the initial stages than when the difference is minimal. As a result, the more similar the feedback kinds are, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

When comparing Ferris & Roberts (2001) study to this one, it appears that treatment length may have an impact on the study's outcomes. This study found that the variation was insignificant in combining the two tasks, completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities are not the same as theirs. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks that students achieve, in addition to the duration of the treatment, appears to be essential, Robb et al. (1986), who compared the usefulness of four distinct types of supplementary input on revision accuracy, reported findings that were comparable to those of Ferris & Roberts (2001). They discovered that little time-consuming ways of diverting students' interest to surface flaws might suffice after finding no difference in the participants' performance in different groups (Robb et al.1986). Although the study lasted roughly eight months, the individuals only created five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise in that time. In light of the foregoing, the findings of short-term research can be more confidently applied if they are repeated by longer-term longitudinal investigations.

This supports what researchers have found in the literature about students wanting input on not only language but also content and structure (Hedguxk & Lefkowi-Iz, 1994; Leki, 1991). Written feedback can assist students in seeing how their teachers interpret their writing and identify their strengths and flaws.

One option is for teachers to provide feedback selectively, focusing on critical areas such as pervasive error patterns (Ferris, 2003), thereby lowering the amount of input and the load on teachers. Teachers will be more inclined to provide legible feedback due to this. Teachers could also investigate other types of feedback, such as using feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes, such as voice

feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research could look into various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and how students react to them in different situations.

6. CONCLUSION

This study reveals that EFL teachers should select additional feedback style based on the aim for which the feedback is given. To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective. More implicit types of feedback, on the other hand, will be more effective if the purpose is to help learners improve their knowledge. There are two advantages to using more implicit input in learning. Teachers can provide implicit feedback in less time. Students will be more likely to learn if revising becomes more of a problem-solving activity for them.

There are certain limitations to the current study. To begin with, even if the teacher-to-student ratio was appropriate, the number of teachers who participated in this study was insufficient to generalize the effect of additional input. In addition, due to the small number of teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews, which could have provided more detailed answers and reasons, were not possible. Such in-depth interviews will help researchers better balance the results and comprehend both perspectives in future studies on differences in actual classroom input.

Furthermore, further research is needed to understand the numerous elements influencing learners' preferences for additional 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 written skills. Given the physiological and behavioral differences between adults and younger students (Brown, 1985; Oliver, 2000), a more fruitful line of investigation would be to investigate the influence of age and learning opportunity on written interactional feedback preferences.

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Interactional Feedback in EFL Students' Writing Ability

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Abstract

This study investigates the effect of corrective feedback on students' writing abilities. This study involved 100 participants who were enrolled in an intermediate EFL course. They were recruited from the State University of Malang, Indonesia. Intermediate level EFL courses use three factors for assessing student progress: attendance, writing assignments, and final exams. Main data analysis used in this study was the ANCOVA test, a useful analytical technique to increase the precision of an experiment because it regulates the effect of variables other independent uncontrolled. Then the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were carried out. The results revealed that six variables in the experimental group had higher averages than those in the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistics, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. The results of the ANCOVA test showed that the dependent variable (writing length, accuracy, and affective) simultaneously had a significant effect on adding feedback (p=0.000). The Wilcoxon value obtained was -0.798 (p=0.425); it was concluded that the experimental group and the control group were not significantly different for the accuracy variable. The Wilcoxon value obtained was -0.344 (p=0.731); thus, it was concluded that the experimental group and the control group were not significantly different for the writing length variable. The Wilcoxon value obtained was -1.565 (p=0.118), and it was concluded that the experimental group and the control group were not significantly different for affective variables. Levene's test results showed that the variances of the two groups were the same or homogeneous in the variables of accuracy (p=0.575), writing length (p=0.161), and affective variables (p=0.610). This study reveals that EFL teachers should choose additional feedback styles based on the purpose of providing the feedback. To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective. More useful recommendation lines for further research are discussed to improve this field. Too long abstract. See author guidance

Between 200-250 words

Keywords: Interactional Feedback; Writing Performance; EFL learner; writing development, Writing Assessment

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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 (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). In the context of writing, students expect a response immediately from the teacher when they turn in their writing assignments. The students want to realize where they stand in relation to their assignments. These reactions were primarily evaluative. Feedback has been defined loosely as information offered by the teacher that helps students comprehend and improve their performance by allowing them to notice and

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fix their mistakes (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). This procedure informs students whether an instructional answer is correct (Lalande, 1982). Generally, three wide meanings of feedback have been investigated (Kulhavy et al., 1989). The first is feedback in motivational meaning that increases the general behaviors, for example, in writing or revision activities (Brown, 1932). The second is in reinforcement, meaning that it reacts to particular behaviors, such as a spelling error or particular approach in writing (Thorndike, 1927). The last definition is feedback in informational meaning, consisting of information used by students to modify their performance in a particular way (Bardwell, 1981). In a school setting, all three aspects are important, but the informational aspect is the most crucial.

Ferris & Roberts (2001) have shown that feedback has the greatest impact on incorrect over correct answers when it comes to written instructions. Therefore, the most well-known types of feedback are corrective feedback, as these responses were evaluative and educative (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012). Corrective feedback is information provided about aspects of students' performance and understanding (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Based on this definition, a student can explore the answers to evaluate the correctness of a response from corrective information provided by the teacher. It is in line with Miller & Geraci (2011), who revealed that feedback is information that students can use to confirm, add to, overwrite, or restructure information in memory that can be domain and metacognitive knowledge, awareness about themselves and tasks, or cognitive methods and strategies.

Corrective feedback has also been discussed in the context of feedback on forms, such as grammatical and contextual issues, as well as feedback on material, such as word-level writing restrictions and concept development. The findings demonstrate that substance and form must be considered while providing feedback (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Sheppard, 1992; Krashen, 1982). Dabbagh (2017) used conversational journal writing to investigate descriptively students' writing skills in an EFL context. In his study, 84 students between the ages of 17 and 22 were divided into control and experiment groups?. The quantitative analysis was used to focus on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings revealed three scoring settings: content, organization, and vocabulary have significant changes in the post-test, whereas language use and mechanics have no significant achievement. In addition, due to studies of students' reactions to teachers' feedback, students value the feedback they eventually receive on their writing errors (Enginarlar, 1993; Ferris et al., 2013; Hedguxk & Lefkowi-Iz, 1994; Leki, 1991; Radecki & Swales, 1988; Saito, 1994). Written corrective feedback refers to teachers' written comments on students' work to improve it (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019). As a result, the current research focuses on providing written corrective feedback to rectify problems in student-produced texts that are deemed written texts.

Research questions?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The result of three current empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Han & Jung, 2007; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki, 2004), different sorts of corrective feedback should be used dependently on students' competence levels. The form of written corrective feedback is considered important to the final construction success, and a wide variety of written corrective feedback patterns are now accessible in the literature (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010;

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Bitchener, 2012; Ferris, 2004; Sheen, 2007). Direct feedback is when a teacher points out an error and gives the student the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take several forms, including removing unneeded 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 accept feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. While indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for diagnosing and correcting any problems on their own. In most cases, four ways of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors on a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the fault occurred; and (4) using a symbol to indicate what type of error is indicated (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Robb et al., 1986).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, are the most commonly used technique for dealing with second-language students' writing (Cumming, 1985; Nguyễn, 2003). Indeed other studies indicate that systematically identifying grammar errors in second language students can improve their writing accuracy and overall level of writing performance (Van Beuningen et al., 2012; Lalande, 1982; Robb et al., 1986). The extent of the errors determines the teacher's decision to use direct or indirect written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of either form might be beneficial or bad based on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite the 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 discovered no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Ferris & Roberts (2001) have shown that they generally prefer indirect feedback from teachers. Students are forced to participate in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading them to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Schmidt, 1990). As a result, identity and motivation can be encouraged and developed, enabling a student's long-term growth to expand and reinforce greater learning. Chandler (2003) divided participants into four groups to test the efficacy of several types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) only underlining. The results demonstrated that the more explicit the comments, the more accurate the students' adjustments were. Using written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicit and implicitly corrected criticism. However, text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

The instructional parts of feedback have received a lot of attention. Several studies have looked at the attitudinal aspects of feedback, specifically EFL students' responses to teacher feedback as well as their opinions (Leki, 1991; Lee, 2008). Some researchers have argued that teacher-provided corrective feedback is an important tool for learning progress (e.g., Lalande, 1982; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Chandler, 2003; Robb et al., 1986). Other researchers, however, have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy growth (e.g., Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992). However, many still believe that written corrective feedback is a clear, high-priority, and selective way to guide students and help them in mastering their skills and correct mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). For teachers who desire to enhance their students' writing abilities and linguistic correctness, providing feedback on student

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writing is considered an essential educational practice (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2019).

Hence, this study investigated whether corrective feedback affects students' writing ability. It is argued that interactional feedback can facilitate writing skill development (Lynch, 2002). The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship between the experimental treatment and control of additional feedback?
2. What is the effect of the experiment and control on the additional feedback variable?

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3. METHOD

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3.1 Participants

This study involved 100 students enrolled in an intermediate English language course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. Students' writing skills were improved by incorporating them into interactive activities in 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 came 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.

2.2 Research Procedures numbering problem

In both the experiment and control groups, students were instructed to create four pieces of writing throughout the semester. Each four sessions, one unit was covered and practiced for each composition. Themes were also created to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. The writings were all classified homework assignments and were not completed in class.

2.3 Data collection

In addition, the intermediate EFL course used three factors to assess students' progress: attendance, writing assignments, and the final test. Because the major goal of the course is to help EFL students improve their exam scores, the courses focus on writing accuracy and fluency rather than ideas and coherence.

Students were instructed to compose a free composition at the end of the course concerning the subjects mentioned in their course books for the final assignment. This is part of their final exam, and the writing segment was given 40 points. Topics were controlled in such a way that conditional structures were elicited. Each student's composition was also counted in terms of words. Students must compose a 150-word composition on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. On 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 Montgomery & Baker (2007) and Storch & Tapper (2000). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and 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). Local and global concerns in this study could receive either direct feedback (in the form of reformulations) or indirect feedback (circling/underlining codes or comments).

Can you insert one example of sstudents' sheet and feedback

2.4 Data analysis and scoring

The main data analysis used in this study is the ANCOVA test, an analytical technique useful for increasing the precision of an experiment as it regulates the influence of other uncontrolled independent variables. ANCOVA is used if the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis. It is 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. Categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative data or ordinal data. While numerical data is data in numbers or can also be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

The Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were then carried out. Wilcoxon test (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic, with the data using nominal and ordinal scales. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine a relationship. The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired); in the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before testing. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups if the dependent variable 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. If the data is interval or ratio, the distribution is not normal. The Mann-Whitney test is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the assumption of normality is not met. However, despite the non-parametric form of the independent t-test, the Mann-Whitney U test does not test the difference in the mean of the two groups like the Independent t-test. Instead, it examines the difference in the median of the two groups.

4. RESULT

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Statistics is a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be in the form of data tendency (mean, mode, median, etc.) and data distribution (standard deviation, variance, etc.). The mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. 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	Affective	2.76	1.05	3.09	1.03
4	Vocabulary	2.80	0.90	3.13	1.09
5	Pronunciation	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 1. Descriptive statistics of the research variables

Table 1 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 higher mean than…… (than what? Compare thing to thing, not a thing to a class) 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, affective, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

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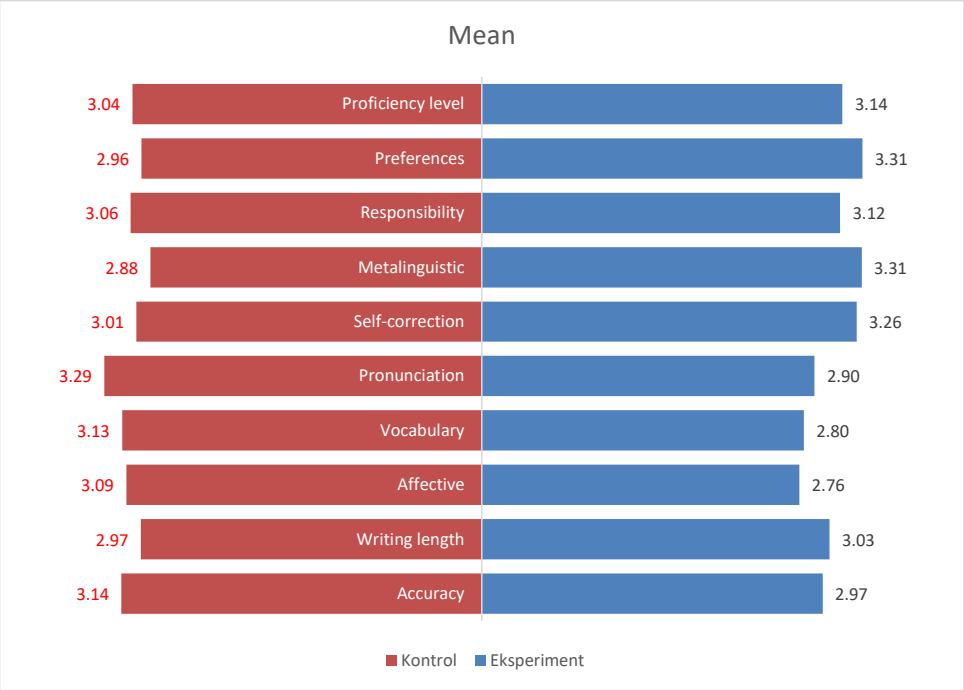

Figure 1. Mean per variable

3.2 ANCOVA Test

ANCOVA 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 affective. The results of the ANCOVA test can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. 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		
Perlakuan	3.339	0.071		
Corrected Model	34.922	0.000	0.419	0.407
Intercept	93.278	0.000		
Accuracy	67.621	0.000		
Perlakuan	0.540	0.464		
Corrected Model	38.850	0.000	0.445	0.433

Intercept	150.041	0.000
Affective	75.372	0.000
Perlakuan	0.018	0.894

Corrected model tests are the influence values of all independent variables simultaneously or together on the dependent variable. Table 1 shows the results of the ANCOVA test. It shows that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and affective) all simultaneously or simultaneously have a significant effect on additional feedback (p=0.000).

The Intercept value shows how much the additional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates and independent variables or independent variables. The results of Table 1 show the ANCOVA test on writing length, accuracy, and affective on the intercept is significant (p=0.000). This means that the additional feedback variable underwent a significant change without being influenced by the dependent variable, either writing length, accuracy, or affective.

The effect of each dependent variable, starting from writing length, accuracy, and affective, is expressed in the significance value for each. The p-values for all dependent variables result is 0.000. Hence, it is concluded that the dependent variable writing length, accuracy, and affective partially significantly influence additional feedback. While for the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all of the significance values were above 0.05; thus, it can be concluded that the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the additional feedback. The value of the goodness of estimation in each ANCOVA test is indicated by R^2. The R2 for the writing length, accuracy, and affective is 46.3%, 41.9%, and 43.3%, respectively.

3.3 Wilcoxon Test

The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired. In the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before being carried out for testing. In this study, the Wilcoxon test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and affective variables. The Wilcoxon test results are presented in Table 3.

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

Table 3. Wilcoxon test results

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Negative ranks mean that the sample with the value of the second group (control) is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the value of the second group (control) higher than the first group (experiment). While Ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to the value of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, there are 22 samples classified as Negative Ranks, 24 as Positive Ranks, and 4 as Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.798 (p=0.425); hence,

it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the accuracy variable. In the writing length variable, 27 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 21 Positive Ranks, and 2 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 (p=0.731); thus, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the variable writing length. In the affective variable, 21 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 27 Positive Ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 (p=0.118), and it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the affective variable.

3.4 Mann Whitney Test

Test Mann Whitney is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the normality assumption is not met. In this study, the Mann-Whitney test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and affective variables. The Mann-Whitney test began by describing the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

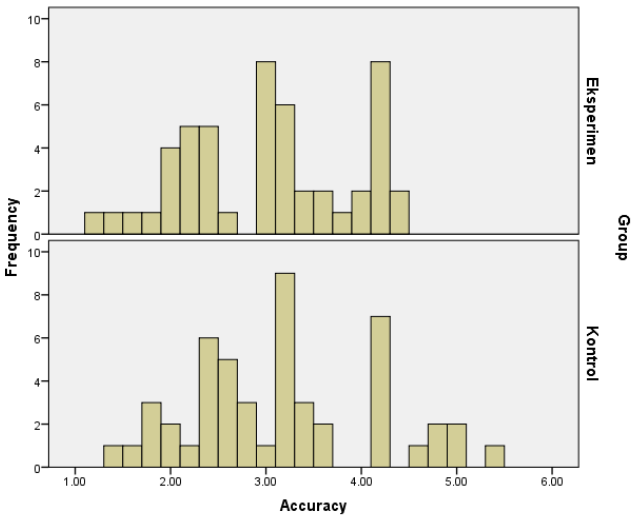

Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy

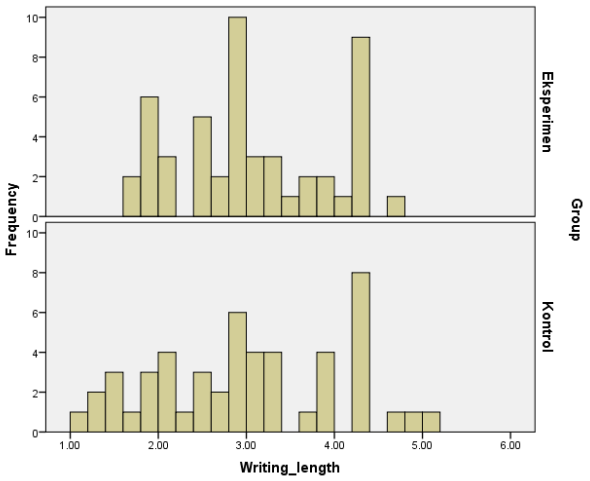

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length

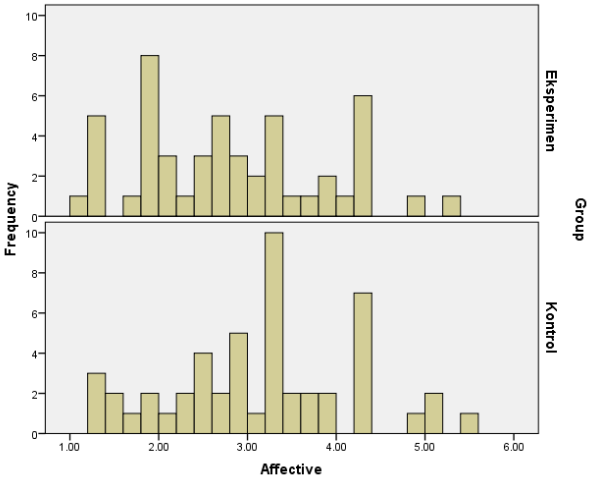

Figure 4. Histogram of mean affective

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

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Item	Accuracy	Writing Length	Affective

	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 4. Homogeneity test results

Table 4 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 affective variables (p=0.610).

Item	Accuracy	Writing Length	Affective
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 5. Mann Whitney test results

Table 5 shows a U value of 1.142 and a W value of 2.417 for the accuracy variable. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.746 (p=0.455), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.201 (p=0.841) and it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

For the affective variable, the U value is 1.003 and the W value is 2.278. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -1.708 (p=0.088), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

5. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigated whether experimental treatment and control of additional feedback affected the advanced EFL writers' ability to improve their accuracy after they had already achieved a reasonable level of accuracy. In the immediate post-test, all six experimental groups outperformed the control group. This

result is consistent with Bitchener & Knoch (2009), where additional feedback was proved to develop accuracy.

The second research question looked into the relative impact of the experiment and control on the additional feedback variable for EFL students. The findings revealed six variables in the experiment group with a greater average than ……the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Additional feedback was stimulating, and students gladly wrote larger pieces. Not only were the students' compositions longer, but they also included drawings and graphs, which can be ascribed to motivation.

In summary, statistical analysis revealed that additional feedback did not affect students' accuracy in new writing assignments. When comparing the rate of mistake reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment, the gap between the two groups developed over time, even if 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. This could be explained by the proximity of the feedback options used in this study. When the direct determinant level of the feedback kinds supplied varies significantly, it seems more likely to expect differences in learners' ability in the initial stages than when the difference is minimal. As a result, the more similar the feedback kinds are, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

When comparing Ferris & Roberts' (2001) study to this one, it appears that treatment length may have an impact on the study's outcomes. This study found that the variation was insignificant in combining the two tasks, completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities are not the same as theirs. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks that students achieve, in addition to the duration of the treatment, appears to be essential, Robb et al. (1986), who compared the usefulness of four distinct types of supplementary input on revision accuracy, reported findings that were comparable to those of Ferris & Roberts (2001). They discovered that little time-consuming ways of diverting students' interest to surface flaws might suffice after finding no difference in the participants' performance in different groups (Robb et al.1986). Although the study lasted roughly eight months, the individuals only created five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise in that time. In light of the foregoing, the findings of short-term research can be more confidently applied if they are repeated by longer-term longitudinal investigations.

This supports what researchers have found in the literature about students wanting input on not only language but also content and structure (Hedguxk & Lefkowi-Iz, 1994; Leki, 1991). Written feedback can assist students in seeing how their teachers interpret their writing and identify their strengths and flaws.

One option is for teachers to provide feedback selectively, focusing on critical areas such as pervasive error patterns (Ferris, 2003), thereby lowering the amount of input and the load on teachers. Teachers will be more inclined to provide legible feedback due to this. Teachers could also investigate other types of feedback, such as using feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes, such as voice

feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research could look into various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and how students react to them in different situations.

6. CONCLUSION

This study reveals that EFL teachers should select additional feedback style based on the aim for which the feedback is given. To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective. More implicit types of feedback, on the other hand, will be more effective if the purpose is to help learners improve their knowledge. There are two advantages to using more implicit input in learning. Teachers can provide implicit feedback in less time. Students will be more likely to learn if revising becomes more of a problem-solving activity for them.

There are certain limitations to the current study. To begin with, even if the teacher-to-student ratio was appropriate, the number of teachers who participated in this study was insufficient to generalize the effect of additional input. In addition, due to the small number of teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews, which could have provided more detailed answers and reasons, were not possible. Such in-depth interviews will help researchers better balance the results and comprehend both perspectives in future studies on differences in actual classroom input.

Furthermore, further research is needed to understand the numerous elements influencing learners' preferences for additional 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 written skills. Given the physiological and behavioral differences between adults and younger students (Brown, 1985; Oliver, 2000), a more fruitful line of investigation would be to investigate the influence of age and learning opportunity on written interactional feedback preferences.

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Dear Mr. Masrul,

Thank you. We have sent it to a third reviewer. We will get back to you in a month's time. Thank you for your patience and cooperation.

Best Regards,
The Editors

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The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability

Abstract

This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. This study recruited 100 participants who were enrolled in an intermediate EFL course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. The ANCOVA test was the primary data analysis method, followed by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests. The results revealed that six variables in the experimental group had higher averages than the control group. The ANCOVA test showed that the dependent variable (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) simultaneously significantly affected adding feedback (p=0.000). However, no significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups regarding accuracy (Wilcoxon value = -0.798, p=0.425) and writing length variables (Wilcoxon value = -0.344, p=0.731). The findings suggest that EFL teachers should select feedback styles that align with the intended purpose of providing feedback. For instance, more specific feedback options may be more effective in assisting students to revise and improve their written assignments. Finally, this study provides recommendations for further research in this field.

Keywords: Interactional Feedback; Writing Performance; EFL learner; Writing Development, Writing Assessment

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 response immediately from the teacher when they turn in their writing assignments. The students want to realize where they stand in relation to their assignments. These reactions were primarily evaluative. Feedback is loosely defined as information the teacher offers that helps students comprehend and improve their performance by allowing them to notice and fix their mistakes (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). This procedure informs students whether an instructional answer is correct (Polio & Park, 2016). Generally, three wide meanings of feedback have been investigated (Hattie & Gan, 2011). The first is feedback in motivational meaning that increases the general behaviors, for example, in writing or revision activities (Grindle et al., 2017). The second is in reinforcement, meaning that it reacts to particular behaviors, such as a spelling error or a particular approach in writing. The last definition is feedback in informational meaning, consisting of information students use to modify their performance in a particular way (Elola & Oskoz, 2016). All three aspects are important in a school setting, but the informational aspect is the most crucial.

Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) have shown that feedback has the greatest impact on incorrect over correct answers when it comes to written instructions. Therefore, the most well-known types of feedback are corrective feedback, as these responses were evaluative and educative. Corrective feedback is information about student

performance and understanding (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Based on this definition, a student can explore the answers to evaluate the correctness of a response from corrective information provided by the teacher. It is in line with Miller & Geraci (2011), who revealed that feedback is information that students can use to confirm, add to, overwrite, or restructure information in memory that can be domain and metacognitive knowledge, awareness about themselves and tasks, or cognitive methods and strategies.

Interactional feedback has also been discussed in the context of feedback on forms, such as grammatical and contextual issues, as well as feedback on material, such as word-level writing restrictions and concept development. The findings demonstrate that substance and form must be considered while providing feedback (e.g., Wiliam, 2018; Nava & Pedrazzini, 2018). Dabbagh (2017) used conversational journal writing to investigate descriptively students' writing skills in an EFL context. In his study, 84 students between 17 and 22 were divided into control and experiment. The quantitative analysis was used to focus on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings revealed three scoring settings: content, organization, and vocabulary have significant changes in the post-test, whereas language use and mechanics have no significant achievement. In addition, due to studies of students' reactions to teachers' feedback, students value the feedback they eventually receive on their writing errors (Ferris et al., 2013). Hence, this study investigated whether feedback affects students' writing ability. It is argued that interactional feedback can facilitate writing skill development (Warsidi, 2017). The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship between the experimental treatment and control of interactional feedback?
2. What is the effect of the experiment and control on the interactional feedback?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Studies on Interactional Feedback

The result of three current empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Abdollahifam, 2014), different sorts of corrective feedback should be used dependently on students' competence levels. Written corrective feedback is considered important to the final construction success, and a wide variety of written corrective feedback patterns are now accessible in the literature (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, 2012). Direct feedback is when a teacher points out an error and gives the student the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take several forms, including removing unneeded 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 accept feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. In comparison, indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for diagnosing and correcting any problems on their own. In most cases, four ways of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors on a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the fault occurred; and (4) using a symbol to indicate what type of error is indicated (Sarré et al., 2021; Hosseiny, 2014).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, are the most commonly used technique for dealing with second-language

students' writing (D. R. Ferris, 2014). Indeed other studies indicate that systematically identifying grammar errors in 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 decision to use direct or indirect written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of either form might be beneficial or bad based on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite the 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 discovered no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Jamalinesari et al., (2015) have shown that they generally prefer indirect feedback from teachers. Students are forced to participate in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading them to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Scott & Dienes, 2010). As a result, identity and motivation can be encouraged and developed, enabling a student's long-term growth to expand and reinforce greater learning. Nassaji (2015) divided participants into four groups to test the efficacy of several types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) only underlining. The results demonstrated that the more explicit the comments, the more accurate the students' adjustments were. Using written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicit and implicitly corrected criticism. However, text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

The instructional parts of feedback have received a lot of attention. Several studies have looked at 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 important for learning progress (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Abdollahifam, 2014; Poorebrahim, 2017). Other researchers, however, have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy growth (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 in mastering their skills and correcting mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). Providing feedback on student writing is considered an essential educational practice for teachers who desire to enhance their students' writing abilities and linguistic correctness (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2019).

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, 2017), Written Corrective Feedback (Poorebrahim, 2017 and Zarifi, 2017). Because interactional feedback can be used not only in classroom activities but also in non-classroom settings such as private teaching, language environments, and through long distance learning interactions such as using the internet, its application requires a variety of concepts for better results as the interactional purposes, for more effective feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017). For example, the concept of genre approach has been applied to improve interaction in social life, cultural activities, and personal experience (Thorne, 2002), and the goals of the interactional context in language teaching and learning prefer more to receive the abstract concept of knowledge and

skills, Hua et al., (2007: p.1), which tends to the concept of interaction, (Seedhouse, 2007). As a result, in EFL teaching, the interactional context is used not only for situational purposes, but it also has the potential to improve EFL skills, such as in academic writing and other types of studies.

3. METHOD

3.1 Participants

This study involved 100 students enrolled in an intermediate English language course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. Students' writing skills were improved by incorporating them into interactive activities in 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 came 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.

2.2 Research Procedures

In both the experiment and control groups, students were instructed to create four pieces of writing throughout the semester. In each four sessions, one unit was covered and practiced for each composition. Themes were also created to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. The writings were all classified homework assignments and were not completed in class.

2.3 Data collection

The instrument of the research is used writing test. Students were instructed to compose a free composition at the end of the course concerning the subjects mentioned in their course books for the final assignment. This is part of their final exam, and the writing segment was given 40 points. Topics were controlled in such a way that conditional structures were elicited. Each student's composition was also counted in terms of words. Students must compose a 150-word composition on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. On 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, 2017) and (Boggs, 2019). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and 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). Local and global concerns in this study could receive either direct feedback (in the form of reformulations) or indirect feedback (circling/underlining codes or comments).

2.4 Data analysis and scoring

The main data analysis used in this study is the ANCOVA test, an analytical technique useful for increasing the precision of an experiment as it regulates the

influence of other uncontrolled independent variables. ANCOVA is used if the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis. It is 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. Categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative data or ordinal data. While numerical data is data in numbers or can also be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

The Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were then carried out. Wilcoxon test (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic, with the data using nominal and ordinal scales. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine a relationship. The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired); in the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before testing. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups if the dependent variable 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. If the data is interval or ratio, the distribution is not normal. The Mann-Whitney test is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the assumption of normality is not met. However, despite the non-parametric form of the independent t-test, the Mann-Whitney U test does not test the difference in the mean of the two groups like the Independent t-test. Instead, it examines the difference in the median of the two groups.

4. RESULT

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Statistics is a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be in the form of data tendency (mean, mode, median, etc.) and data distribution (standard deviation, variance, etc.). The mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. 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	Pronunciation	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 1. Descriptive statistics of the research variables

Table 1 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 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 pronunciation.

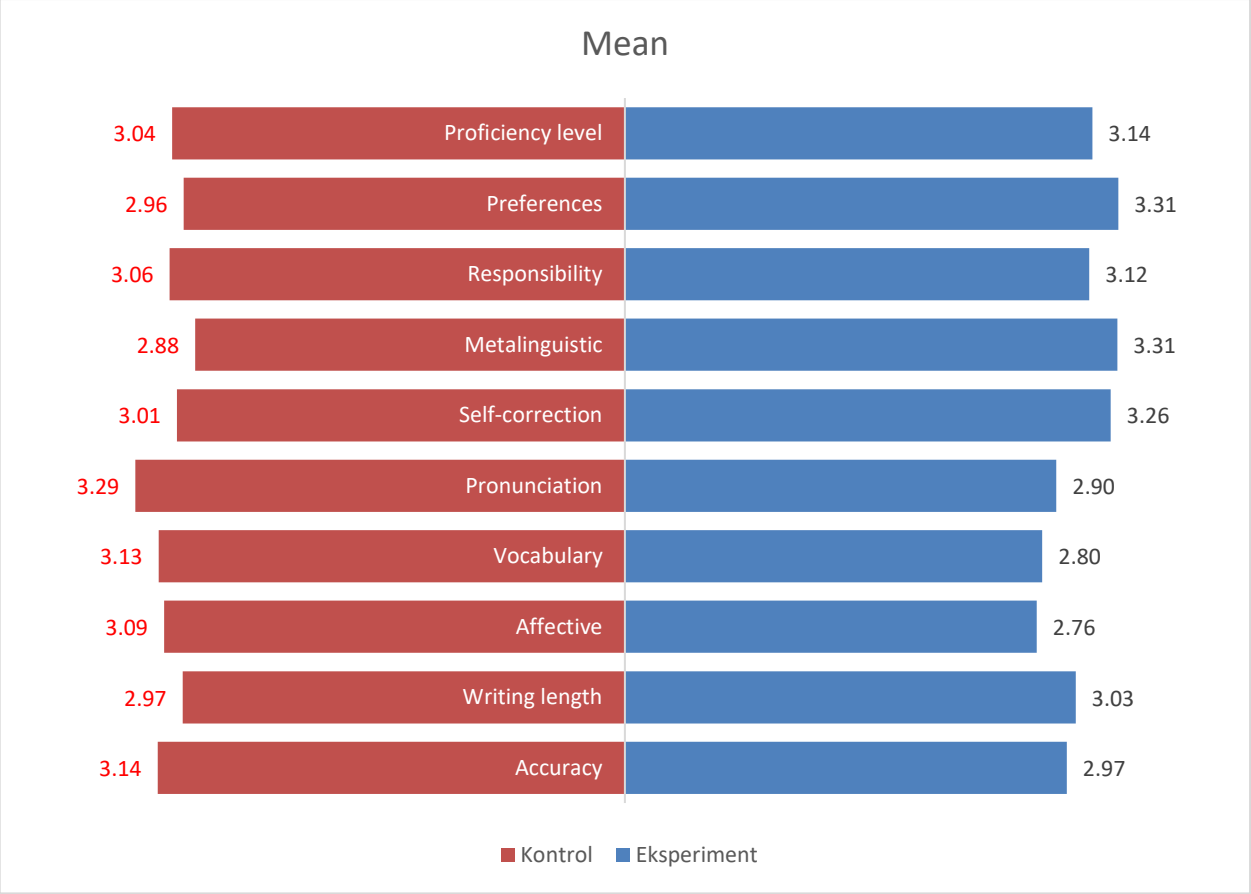

Figure 1. Mean per variable

3.2 ANCOVA Test

ANCOVA 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 can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. 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		
Perlakuan	3.339	0.071		
Corrected Model	34.922	0.000	0.419	0.407
Intercept	93.278	0.000		
Accuracy	67.621	0.000		
Perlakuan	0.540	0.464		
Corrected Model	38.850	0.000	0.445	0.433

Intercept	150.041	0.000
Effectiveness	75.372	0.000
Perlakuan	0.018	0.894

Corrected model tests are the influence values of all independent variables simultaneously or together on the dependent variable. Table 1 shows the results of the ANCOVA test. It shows that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) all simultaneously or simultaneously have a significant effect on interactional feedback (p=0.000).

The Intercept value shows how much the interactional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates and independent variables or independent variables. The results of Table 1 show 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, either writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness.

The effect of each dependent variable, starting from writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness, is expressed in the significance value for each. The p-values for all dependent variables result is 0.000. Hence, it is concluded that the dependent variable writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness partially significantly influence interactional feedback. While for the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all of the significance values were above 0.05; thus, it can be concluded that the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the interactional feedback. The value of the goodness of estimation in each ANCOVA test is indicated by R^2. The R2 for the writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness is 46.3%, 41.9%, and 43.3%, respectively.

3.3 Wilcoxon Test

The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired. In the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before being carried out for testing. In this study, the Wilcoxon test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Wilcoxon test results are presented in Table 3.

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

Table 3. Wilcoxon test results

Negative ranks mean that the sample with the value of the second group (control) is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the value of the second group (control) higher than the first group (experiment). While Ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to the value of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, there are 22 samples classified as Negative Ranks, 24 as

Positive Ranks, and 4 as Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.798 (p=0.425); hence, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the accuracy variable. In the writing length variable, 27 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 21 Positive Ranks, and 2 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 (p=0.731); thus, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the variable writing length. In the effectiveness variable, 21 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 27 Positive Ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 (p=0.118), and it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the effectiveness variable.

3.4 Mann-Whitney Test

Test Mann Whitney is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the normality assumption is not met. In this study, the Mann-Whitney test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Mann-Whitney test began by describing the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

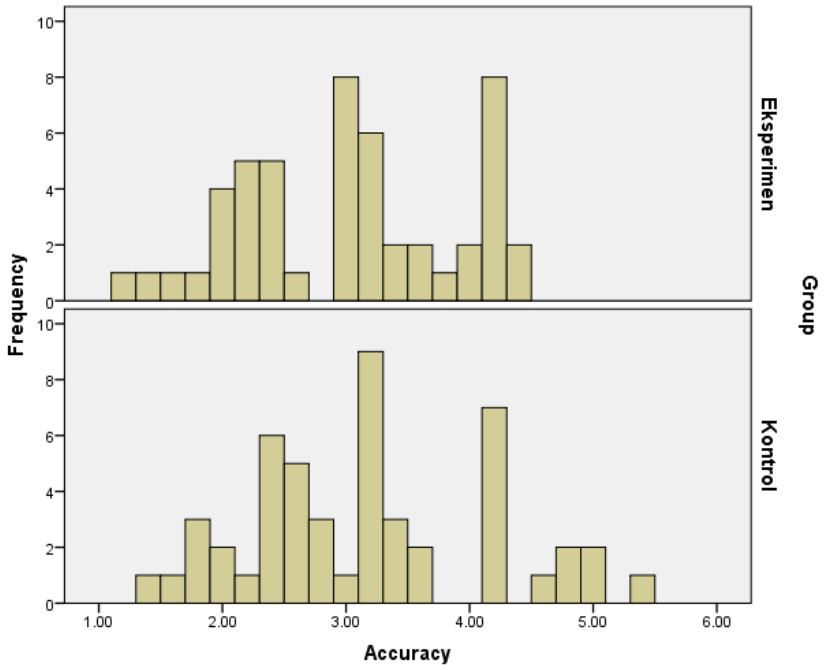

Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy

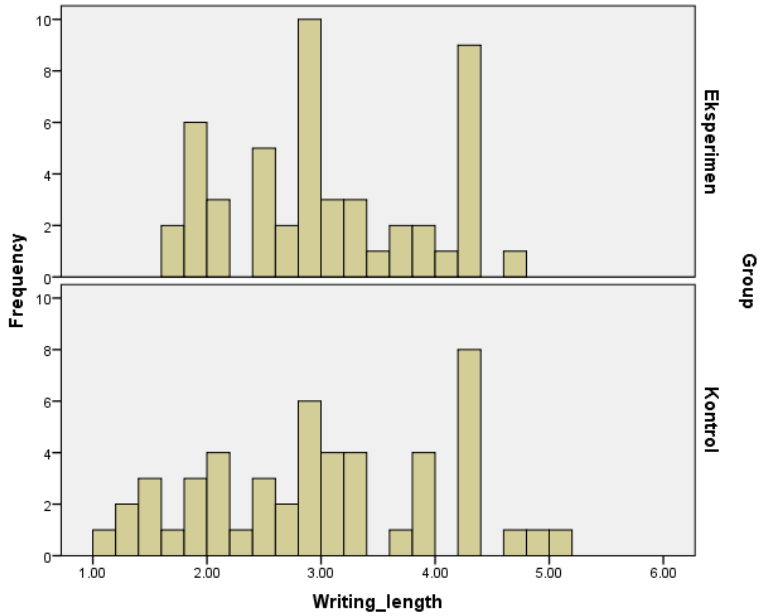

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length

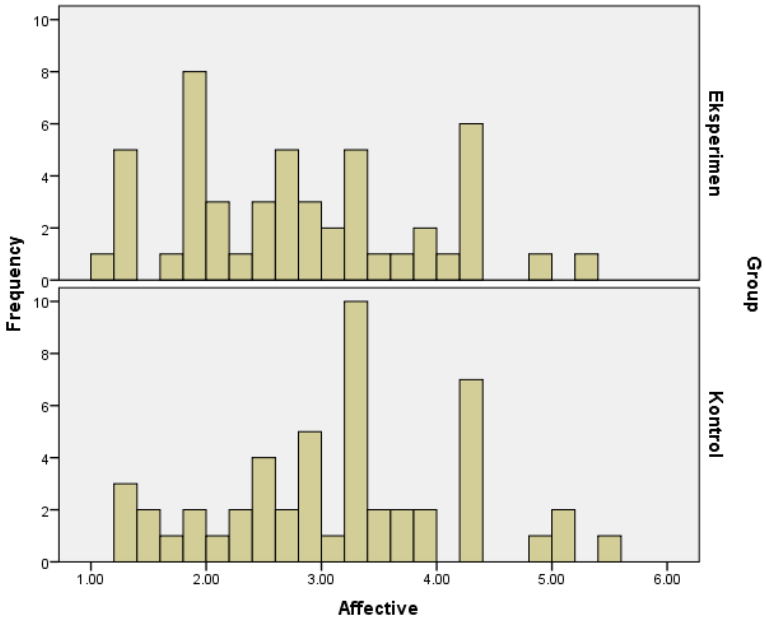

Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness

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

Item	Accuracy	Writing Length	

	Levene Statistic	Sig.	Levene Statistic	Sig.
Based on Mean	0.316	0.575	1.991	0.161
Based on Median	0.331	0.566	2.154	0.145
Based on the Median and with adjusted df	0.331	0.566	2.154	0.145
Based on trimmed mean	0.287	0.594	2.000	0.160

Table 4. Homogeneity test results

Table 4 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).

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 5. Mann Whitney test results

Table 5 shows a U value of 1.142 and a W value of 2.417 for the accuracy variable. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.746 (p=0.455), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.201 (p=0.841), and it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

For the effectiveness variable, the U value is 1.003, and the W value is 2.278. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -1.708 (p=0.088), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

5. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigated whether experimental treatment and control of interactional feedback affected the advanced EFL writers' ability to improve their accuracy after they had already achieved a reasonable level of accuracy. In the immediate post-test, all six experimental groups outperformed the control group. This

result is consistent with Bitchener & Knoch (2009), where interactional feedback was proved to develop accuracy.

The second research question looked into the relative impact of the experiment and control on the interactional feedback variable for EFL students. The findings revealed six variables in the experiment group with a greater average than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Interactional feedback was stimulating, and students gladly wrote larger pieces. Not only were the students' compositions longer, but they also included drawings and graphs, which can be ascribed to motivation.

In summary, statistical analysis revealed that interactional feedback did not affect students' accuracy in new writing assignments. When comparing the rate of mistake reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment, the gap between the two groups developed over time, even if 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. This could be explained by the proximity of the feedback options used in this study. When the direct determinant level of the feedback kinds supplied varies significantly, it seems more likely to expect differences in learners' ability in the initial stages than when the difference is minimal. As a result, the more similar the feedback kinds are, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

When comparing Abdollahifam (2014) study to this one, it appears that treatment length may impact the study's outcomes. This study found that the variation was insignificant in combining the two tasks completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities are not the same as theirs. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks that students achieve, in addition to the duration of the treatment, appears to be essential, (Nassaji, 2020) , who compared the usefulness of four distinct types of supplementary input on revision accuracy, reported findings that were comparable to those of (Ravand & Rasekh, 2011). They discovered that little 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 roughly eight months, the individuals only created five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise in that time. In light of the foregoing, the findings of short-term research can be more confidently applied if they are repeated by longer-term longitudinal investigations.

This supports what researchers have found in the literature about students wanting input on not only language but also content and structure (Saeed et al., 2018). Written feedback can assist students in seeing how their teachers interpret their writing and identify their strengths and flaws.

One option is for teachers to provide feedback selectively, focusing on critical areas such as pervasive error patterns (Hardman & Bell, 2018), thereby lowering the amount of input and the load on teachers. Teachers will be more inclined to provide legible feedback due to this. Teachers could also investigate other types of feedback, such as using feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes, such as

voice feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research could look into various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and how students react to them in different situations.

6. CONCLUSION

This study reveals that EFL teachers should select interactional feedback styles based on the aim for which the feedback is given. To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective. More implicit types of feedback, on the other hand, will be more effective if the purpose is to help learners improve their knowledge. There are two advantages to using more implicit input in learning. Teachers can provide implicit feedback in less time. Students will be more likely to learn if revising becomes more of a problem-solving activity for them.

There are certain limitations to the current study. To begin with, even if the teacher-to-student ratio was appropriate, the number of teachers who participated in this study was insufficient to generalize the effect of interactional input. In addition, due to the small number of teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews, which could have provided more detailed answers and reasons, were not possible. Such in-depth interviews will help researchers better balance the results and comprehend both perspectives in future studies on differences in actual classroom input.

Furthermore, 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 written 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 opportunity on written interactional feedback preferences.

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STUDIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND EDUCATION
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REBUTTAL LETTER FOR SIELE JOURNAL

(Wednesday – 03/May/2023)

Dear Editors of SiELE Journal,

We have amended our article as suggested by the Reviewer as the following:

No.	**Reviewer 1** comments/suggestions	Corrections made
1	The reviewer ticked "No" for Title in the reviewer form	*We have changed our title from "Interactional Feedback in EFL Students' Writing Ability" to "The Effect of Interactional Feedback toward EFL Students' Writing Ability"*
2	The reviewer ticked "No" for Abstract in the reviewer form	*We have revised our abstract; please Abstract.*
3	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for introduction provide a meaningful purpose to the manuscript	*We have revised our introduction (see page 2)*
4	The reviewer ticked "No" for the objectives in introduction set clearly	*We have revised our objectives in introduction (see page 2)*
5	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for the gap of study in introduction justified	*We have revised our gap of study (see page 2)*
6	The reviewer ticked "No" for research questions in introduction presented	*We have revised our research question (see page 2)*
7	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for literature review appropriate and adequate	*We have revised our literature review (see page 2)*
8	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for discussions on previously published research on a similar topic	*We have revised our literature review (see page 3)*
9	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for the techniques used appropriately for the collection and analysis of the data	*We have revised our collection and analysis of the data (see page 4)*

10	The reviewer ticked "No" for clearly explain the instruments used in research	*We have revised our instruments (see page 4)*
11	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for technique of data collection explained clearly	*We have revised our technique of data collection explanation (see page 4)*
12	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for Finding in the reviewer form	*We have revised our findings (see page 6*
13	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for discussions in the reviewer form	*We have revised our discussion (see page*
14	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for implications in the reviewer form	*We have revised our implications (see page*
15	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for conclusions in the reviewer form	*We have revised our conclusions (see page*
16	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for references in the reviewer form	*We have revised our references (see page*
17	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for grammar and cohesion in the reviewer form	*We have proofread our article*
18	Additional comments: Most of references used are too old (more than 10 years)	*We have changed the old references to new references*
19	Additional comments: The whole sentences need more cohesion and coherence. Between the title and the research questions as well as the conclusion do not match and There are many grammatical errors	*We have revised and proofread our article*

No.	**Reviewer 2** comments/suggestions	Corrections made
1	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for concerns in this article important to the field of English language education, linguistics, or literature	
2	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for Title in the reviewer form	*We have changed our title from "Interactional Feedback in EFL Students' Writing Ability" to "The Effect of Interactional Feedback toward EFL Students' Writing Ability"*
3	The reviewer ticked "No" for Abstract in the reviewer form	*We have revised our abstract; please Abstract.*
4	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for introduction in the reviewer form	*We have revised our introduction (see page 1-2)*
5	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for literature review in the reviewer form	*We have revised our literature review (see page 2)*

6	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for the techniques used appropriately for the collection and analysis of the data in the reviewer form	*We have revised our methods (see page 4*
7	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for Finding in the reviewer form	*We have revised our findings (see page 6)*
8	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for discussions in the reviewer form	*We have revised our discussions (see page 11)*
10	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for conclusions in the reviewer form	*We have revised our conclusions (see page 13)*
11	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for references in the reviewer form	*We have revised and updated our references (see page 14)*
12	The reviewer ticked "Partially" for grammar and cohesion in the reviewer form	*We have proofread our article*
15	Additional comments: Research questions should be in the Intro part	*We have revised our research question (see page 2)*
17	Additional comments: Make subtitles in lit review	*We have revised our literature review (see page 2)*
18	Additional comments: Revise method. Explain the instrument and insert one example of the students' feedback	*We have revised our instrument (see page 4)*

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Masrul

Gmail

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[SiELE] Third Review Results of Your Article

1 message

SiELE Journal Unsyiah <sielejournal@usk.ac.id> Fri, Jul 21, 2023 at 2:32 PM
To: Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com>

Dear Masrul, R. Andi Ahmad Gunadi, Aswir A, Beny Hamdani, Ummi Rasyidah, Sri Yuliani ,

Thank you for submitting the manuscript, "The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability" to Studies in English Language and Education. The third reviewer has returned his/her reviews of your article to the journal. Revisions are requested. Attachments 1 and 2 are the reviewer's feedback and comments on your article.

Please work on the revision as suggested by the Reviewer, and highlight the changes in yellow. This is **obligatory** so that we can evaluate your revision more efficiently. You must fill in the rebuttal letter form (Attachment 3) and **this is also obligatory.**

The revision is due on **August 21, 2023**. Please submit your revision on time so we have time to evaluate your manuscript and tentatively consider it for the upcoming publication in SiELE Journal. Your article is queued for the **January 2024** publication slot. Due to the long wait, we also request that you reduce the Turnitin of your article to below 20%, now it is 27% (attached) which is not possible to be considered for publication. At this time, we have an extensive backlog of accepted articles, meanwhile, we are a small journal and only publish 3 (three) issues a year, with 25-30 articles per issue. We truly appreciate your patience, cooperation, and understanding.

Submit your revision and rebuttal to this email address AND also upload it to the journal's OJS (login --> click on your title --> click on the menu Review --> scroll down and upload the files at Upload Author Version under Editor Decision). **Please reply to our email once you have received it.**

Thank you and we look forward to your revision.

Best Regards,
The Editors

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MANUSCRIPT REVIEW FEEDBACK FORM

Reviewer code	NST
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Reference number	-

*Please ensure that the abstract is 200 words minimum and 250 words maximum, and the article is 5000 words minimum and 8000 words maximum as per the submission guidelines: http://www.jurnal.unsyiah.ac.id/SiELE/about/submissions#authorGuidelines

Category	Yes	Partially	No
ARTICLE: Are the concerns in this article important to the field of English language education, linguistics, or literature?	√		
TITLE: Is the title clear and appropriate for the content of the manuscript?		√	
ABSTRACT: Does the abstract summarize the article clearly and effectively?		√	
INTRODUCTION: Does the introduction provide a meaningful purpose to the manuscript?	√		
Are the objectives set clearly?		√	
Is the gap of study justified?			√
Are research questions presented?	√		
LITERATURE REVIEW: Is the literature review appropriate and adequate?		√	
Are there discussions on previously published research on a similar topic?	√		
METHODS: Are the techniques used appropriately for the collection and analysis of the data?		√	
Does it clearly explain the participants/respondents of the research?		√	
Does it clearly explain the instruments used in research?	√		
		√	

Is the technique of data collection explained clearly?		√	
Is the technique of data analysis explained clearly?		√	
FINDINGS:			√
Are the findings expressed clearly?			
Is the presentation of the findings adequate and consistent?		√	
Are the tables and figures, if any, arranged and explained well?	√		
Do the findings answer the research question of this paper?		√	
DISCUSSION:		√	
Are the discussions meaningful, valid, and based on the findings?			
Are the discussions drawn reasonable and linked to other studies on the topic?		√	
IMPLICATIONS:	√		
Are the implications logical or pertinent to the manuscript?			
CONCLUSION:	√		
Are the conclusions and generalizations based on the findings?			
Are limitations of the study and suggestions for future research provided?	√		
REFERENCES:	√		
Are the references current and sufficient?			
GRAMMAR AND COHESION:			
Is the language clear and understandable?	√		
Is cohesion achieved throughout the article?	√		

DECISION FROM REVIEWER (tick where appropriate)**:**	
Accept without revision	
Accept but needs minor revision	√
Accept but needs major revision	
Rejected	

REVIEWER'S COMMENTS (provide the strength and weaknesses of the manuscript; please give comments/feedback to items ticked "Partially/No"):

The topic is interesting, but the author/s did not explain briefly what interactional feedback means in this current study. It should be elaborated in the literature review.

The research findings must be described one by one in light of the research questions.

The discussion should also follow the research findings.

Please look at my comments in the manuscript.

The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability

Abstract

This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. This study recruited 100 participants who were enrolled in an intermediate EFL course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. The ANCOVA test was the primary data analysis method, followed by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests. The results revealed that six variables in the experimental group had higher averages than the control group. The ANCOVA test showed that the dependent variable (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) simultaneously significantly affected adding feedback (p=0.000). However, no significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups regarding accuracy (Wilcoxon value = -0.798, p=0.425) and writing length variables (Wilcoxon value = -0.344, p=0.731). The findings suggest that EFL teachers should select feedback styles that align with the intended purpose of providing feedback. For instance, more specific feedback options may be more effective in assisting students to revise and improve their written assignments. Finally, this study provides recommendations for further research in this field.

Keywords: Interactional Feedback; Writing Performance; EFL learner; Writing Development, Writing Assessment

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Commented [R2]: Ensure it is a minimum of 200 words, and a maximum of 250 words
Carefully read and follow the journal's guidelines!

What is a research method the researcher used?

Commented [R3]: Should be in alphabetical order and separated by comma

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 response immediately from the teacher when they turn in their writing assignments. The students want to realize where they stand in relation to their assignments. These reactions were primarily evaluative. Feedback is loosely defined as information the teacher offers that helps students comprehend and improve their performance by allowing them to notice and fix their mistakes (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). This procedure informs students whether an instructional answer is correct (Polio & Park, 2016). Generally, three broad~~wide~~ meanings of feedback have been investigated (Hattie & Gan, 2011). The first is feedback in motivational meaning that increases the general behaviors, for example, in writing or revision activities (Grindle et al., 2017). The second is in reinforcement, meaning that it reacts to particular behaviors, such as a spelling error or a particular approach in writing. The last definition is feedback in informational meaning, consisting of information students use to modify their performance in a particular way (Elola & Oskoz, 2016). All three aspects are important in a school setting, but the informational aspect is the most crucial.

Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) have shown that feedback has the greatest impact on incorrect over correct answers when it comes to written instructions. Therefore, the most well-known types of feedback are corrective feedback, as these responses were evaluative and educative. Corrective feedback is information about student

performance and understanding (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Based on this definition, a student can explore the answers to evaluate the correctness of a response from corrective information provided by the teacher. It is in line with Miller & Geraci (2011), who revealed that feedback is information that students can use to confirm, add to, overwrite, or restructure information in memory that can be domain and metacognitive knowledge, awareness about themselves and tasks, or cognitive methods and strategies.

Interactional feedback has also been discussed in the context of feedback on forms, such as grammatical and contextual issues, as well as feedback on material, such as word-level writing restrictions and concept development. The findings demonstrate that substance and form must be considered while providing feedback (e.g., Wiliam, 2018; Nava & Pedrazzini, 2018). Dabbagh (2017) used conversational journal writing to investigate descriptively students' writing skills in an EFL context. In his study, 84 students between 17 and 22 were divided into control and experiment. The quantitative analysis was used to focus on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings revealed three scoring settings: content, organization, and vocabulary have significant changes in the post-test, whereas language use and mechanics have no significant achievement. In addition, due to studies of students' reactions to teachers' feedback, students value the feedback they eventually receive on their writing errors (Ferris et al., 2013). Hence, this study investigated whether feedback affects students' writing ability. It is argued that interactional feedback can facilitate writing skill development (Warsidi, 2017). The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship between the experimental treatment and control of interactional feedback?
2. What is the effect of the experiment and control on the interactional feedback?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Studies on Interactional Feedback

The result of three current empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Abdollahifam, 2014), different sorts of corrective feedback should be used dependently on students' competence levels. Written corrective feedback is considered important to the final construction success, and a wide variety of written corrective feedback patterns are now accessible in the literature (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, 2012). Direct feedback is when a teacher points out an error and gives the student the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take several forms, including removing unnecessary~~eded~~ 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 accept feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. In comparison, indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for diagnosing and correcting any problems on their own. In most cases, four ways of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors on a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the fault occurred; and (4) using a symbol to indicate what type of error is indicated (Sarré et al., 2021; Hosseiny, 2014).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, are the most commonly used technique for dealing with second-language

students' writing (~~D. R.~~ Ferris, 2014). Indeed other studies indicate that systematically identifying grammar errors in 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 decision to use direct or indirect written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of either form might be beneficial or destructive~~bad~~ based on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite the 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 discovered no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Jamalinesari et al., (2015) have shown that they generally prefer indirect feedback from teachers. Students are forced to participate in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading them to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Scott & Dienes, 2010). As a result, identity and motivation can be encouraged and developed, enabling a student's long-term growth to expand and reinforce greater learning. Nassaji (2015) divided participants into four groups to test the efficacy of several types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) only underlining. The results demonstrated that the more explicit the comments, the more accurate the students' adjustments were. Using written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicit and implicitly corrected criticism. However, text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

The instructional parts of feedback have received a lot of attention. Several studies have looked at 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 important for learning progress (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Abdollahifam, 2014; Poorebrahim, 2017). Other researchers, however, have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy growth (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 in mastering their skills and correcting mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). Providing feedback on student writing is considered an essential educational practice for teachers who desire to enhance their students' writing abilities and linguistic correctness (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2019).

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, 2017), Written Corrective Feedback (Poorebrahim, 2017 and Zarifi, 2017). Because interactional feedback can be used not only in classroom activities but also in non-classroom settings such as private teaching, language environments, and through long-distance learning interactions such as using the internet, its application requires a variety of concepts for better results as the interactional purposes, for more effective feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017). For example, the concept of genre approach has been applied to improve interaction in social life, cultural activities, and personal experience (Thorne, 2002), and the goals of the interactional context in language teaching and learning prefer ~~more~~ to receive the abstract concept of knowledge and

skills, Hua et al., (2007: p.1), which tends to the concept of interaction, (Seedhouse, 2007). As a result, in EFL teaching, the interactional context is used not only for situational purposes, but it also has the potential to improve EFL skills, such as in academic writing and other types of studies.

3. METHODS

3.1 Participants

This study involved 100 students enrolled in an intermediate English language course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. Students' writing skills were improved by incorporating them into interactive activities in 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 came 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.

2.2 Research Procedures

In both the experiment and control groups, students were instructed to create four pieces of writing throughout the semester. In each four sessions, one unit was covered and practiced for each composition. Themes were also created to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. The writings were all classified homework assignments and were not completed in class.

2.3 Data collection

The instrument of the research is used writing test. Students were instructed to compose a free composition at the end of the course concerning the subjects mentioned in their course books for the final assignment. This is part of their final exam, and the writing segment was given 40 points. Topics were controlled in such a way that conditional structures were elicited. Each student's composition was also counted in terms of words. Students must compose a 150-word composition on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. On 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, 2017) and (Boggs, 2019). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and 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). Local and global concerns in this study could receive either direct feedback (in the form of reformulations) or indirect feedback (circling/underlining codes or comments).

2.4 Data analysis and scoring

The main data analysis used in this study is the ANCOVA test, an analytical technique useful for increasing the precision of an experiment as it regulates the

influence of other uncontrolled independent variables. ANCOVA is used if the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis. It is 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. Categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative data or ordinal data. While numerical data is data in numbers or can also be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

The Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were then carried out. Wilcoxon test (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic, with the data using nominal and ordinal scales. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine a relationship. The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired); in the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before testing. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups if the dependent variable 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. If the data is interval or ratio, the distribution is not normal. The Mann-Whitney test is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the assumption of normality is not met. However, despite the non-parametric form of the independent t-test, the Mann-Whitney U test does not test the difference in the mean of the two groups like the Independent t-test. Instead, it examines the difference in the median of the two groups.

4. RESULT

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Statistics is a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be in the form of data tendency (mean, mode, median, etc.) and data distribution (standard deviation, variance, etc.). The mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. 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	Pronunciation	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 1. Descriptive statistics of the research variables

Table 1 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 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 pronunciation.

Commented [R12]: Report the findings based on the research questions the researcher is looking for

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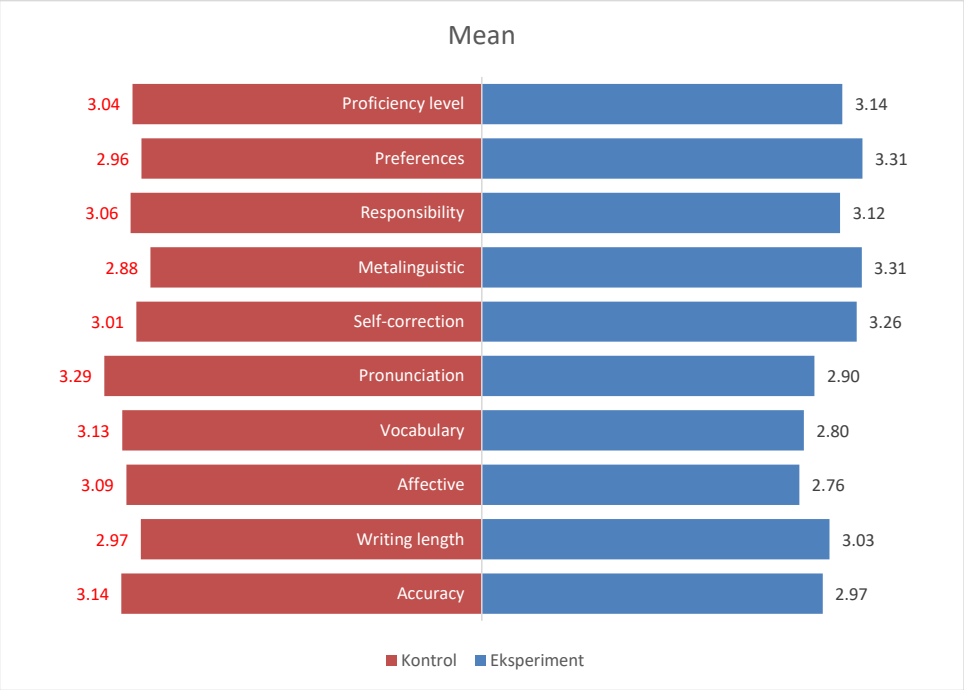

Figure 1. Mean per variable

3.2 ANCOVA Test

ANCOVA 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 can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. 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		
Perlakuan	3.339	0.071		
Corrected Model	34.922	0.000	0.419	0.407
Intercept	93.278	0.000		
Accuracy	67.621	0.000		
Perlakuan	0.540	0.464		
Corrected Model	38.850	0.000	0.445	0.433

Commented [R16]: ????

Commented [R17]: ???

Intercept	150.041	0.000
Effectiveness	75.372	0.000
Perlakuan	0.018	0.894

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Corrected model tests are the influence values of all independent variables simultaneously or together on the dependent variable. Table 1 shows the results of the ANCOVA test. It shows that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) all simultaneously or simultaneously have a significant effect on interactional feedback (p=0.000).

The Intercept value shows how much the interactional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates and independent variables or independent variables. The results of Table 1 show 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, either writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness.

Commented [R19]: In this study, what is the dependent variable and the independent variable?
Can the dependent variable influence the independent variable?

The effect of each dependent variable, starting from writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness, is expressed in the significance value for each. The p-values for all dependent variables result is 0.000. Hence, it is concluded that the dependent variable writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness partially significantly influence interactional feedback. While for the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all of the significance values were above 0.05; thus, it can be concluded that the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the interactional feedback. The value of the goodness of estimation in each ANCOVA test is indicated by R^2. The R2 for the writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness is 46.3%, 41.9%, and 43.3%, respectively.

3.3 Wilcoxon Test

The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired. In the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before being carried out for testing. In this study, the Wilcoxon test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Wilcoxon test results are presented in Table 3.

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

Table 3. Wilcoxon test results

Commented [R20]: Read carefully the guidelines for tables and figures

Negative ranks mean that the sample with the value of the second group (control) is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the value of the second group (control) higher than the first group (experiment). While Ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to the value of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, there are 22 samples classified as Negative Ranks, 24 as

Positive Ranks, and 4 as Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.798 (p=0.425); hence, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the accuracy variable. In the writing length variable, 27 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 21 Positive Ranks, and 2 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 (p=0.731); thus, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the variable writing length. In the effectiveness variable, 21 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 27 Positive Ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 (p=0.118), and it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the effectiveness variable.

3.4 Mann-Whitney Test

Test Mann Whitney is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the normality assumption is not met. In this study, the Mann-Whitney test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Mann-Whitney test began by describing the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

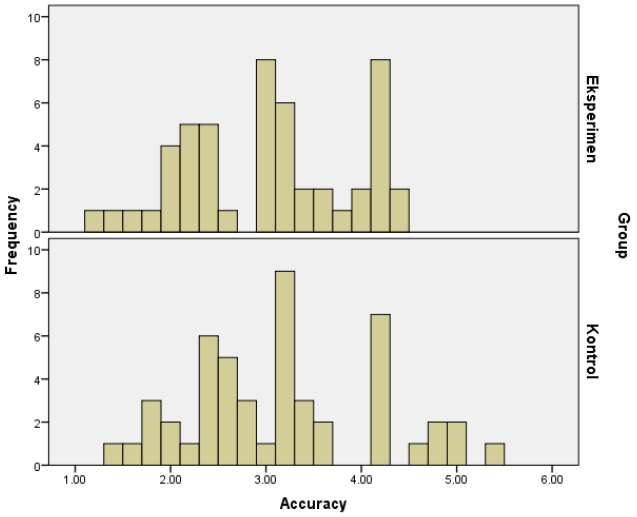

Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy

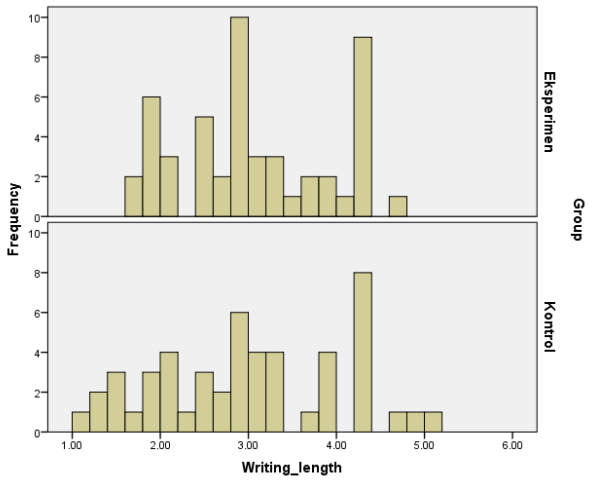

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length

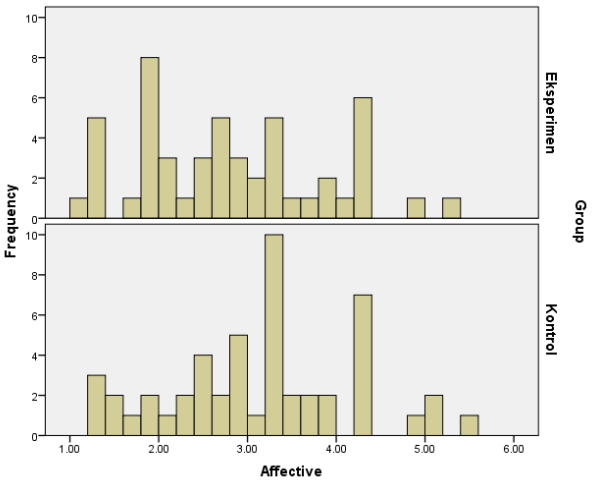

Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness

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

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 4. Homogeneity test results

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Table 4 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).

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 5. Mann Whitney test results

Commented [R22]: Read carefully the guidelines for tables and figures

Table 5 shows a U value of 1.142 and a W value of 2.417 for the accuracy variable. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.746 (p=0.455), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.201 (p=0.841), and it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

For the effectiveness variable, the U value is 1.003, and the W value is 2.278. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -1.708 (p=0.088), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

5. DISCUSSION

Commented [NST23]: Need to discuss briefly your findings regarding each research question and compare with the previous related studies.

The first research question investigated whether experimental treatment and control of interactional feedback affected the advanced EFL writers' ability to improve their accuracy after they had already achieved a reasonable level of accuracy. In the immediate post-test, all six experimental groups outperformed the control group. This

Commented [R24]: Six experimental groups??

result is consistent with Bitchener & Knoch (2009), where interactional feedback was proved to develop accuracy.

The second research question looked into the relative impact of the experiment and control on the interactional feedback variable for EFL students. The findings revealed six variables in the experiment group with a greater average than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Interactional feedback was stimulating, and students gladly wrote larger pieces. Not only were the students' compositions longer, but they also included drawings and graphs, which can be ascribed to motivation.

In summary, statistical analysis revealed that interactional feedback did not affect students' accuracy in new writing assignments. When comparing the rate of mistake reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment, the gap between the two groups developed over time, even if 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. This could be explained by the proximity of the feedback options used in this study. When the direct determinant level of the feedback kinds supplied varies significantly, it seems more likely to expect differences in learners' ability in the initial stages than when the difference is minimal. As a result, the more similar the feedback kinds are, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

When comparing Abdollahifam (2014) study to this one, it appears that treatment length may impact the study's outcomes. This study found that the variation was insignificant in combining the two tasks completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities are not the same as theirs. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks that students achieve, in addition to the duration of the treatment, appears to be essential., (Nassaji, (2020), who compared the usefulness of four distinct types of supplementary input on revision accuracy, reported findings that were comparable to those of (Ravand & Rasekh, 2011). They discovered that lessittle 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 roughly eight months, the individuals only created five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise in that time. In light of the foregoing, the findings of short-term research can be more confidently applied if they are repeated by longer-term longitudinal investigations.

This supports what researchers have found in the literature about students wanting input on not only language but also content and structure (Saeed et al., 2018). Written feedback can assist students in seeing how their teachers interpret their writing and identify their strengths and flaws.

One option is for teachers to provide feedback selectively, focusing on critical areas such as pervasive error patterns (Hardman & Bell, 2018), thereby lowering the amount of input and the load on teachers. Teachers will be more inclined to provide legible feedback due to this. Teachers could also investigate other types of feedback, such as using feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes, such as

voice feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research could look into various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and how students react to them in different situations.

6. CONCLUSION

This study reveals that EFL teachers should select interactional feedback styles based on the aim for which the feedback is given. To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective. More implicit types of feedback, on the other hand, will be more effective if the purpose is to help learners improve their knowledge. There are two advantages to using more implicit input in learning. Teachers can provide implicit feedback in less time. Students will be more likely to learn if revising becomes more of a problem-solving activity for them.

There are certain limitations to the current study. To begin with, even if the teacher-to-student ratio was appropriate, the number of teachers who participated in this study was insufficient to generalize the effect of interactional input. In addition, due to the small number of teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews, which could have provided more detailed answers and reasons, were not possible. Such in-depth interviews will help researchers better balance the results and comprehend both perspectives in future studies on differences in actual classroom input.

Furthermore, 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 written 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 opportunity on written interactional feedback preferences.

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The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability

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The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability

Abstract

This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. This study recruited 100 participants who were enrolled in an intermediate EFL course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. The ANCOVA test was the primary data analysis method, followed by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests. The results revealed that six variables in the experimental group had higher averages than the control group. The ANCOVA test showed that the dependent variable (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) simultaneously significantly affected adding feedback (p=0.000). However, no significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups regarding accuracy (Wilcoxon value = -0.798, p=0.425) and writing length variables (Wilcoxon value = -0.344, p=0.731). The findings suggest that EFL teachers should select feedback styles that align with the intended purpose of providing feedback. For instance, more specific feedback options may be more effective in assisting students to revise and improve their written assignments. Finally, this study provides recommendations for further research in this field.

Keywords: Interactional Feedback; Writing Performance; EFL learner; Writing Development, Writing Assessment

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 response immediately from the teacher when they turn in their writing assignments. The students want to realize where they stand in relation to their assignments. These reactions were primarily evaluative. Feedback is loosely defined as information the teacher offers that helps students comprehend and improve their performance by allowing them to notice and fix their mistakes (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). This procedure informs students whether an instructional answer is correct (Polio & Park, 2016). Generally, three wide meanings of feedback have been investigated (Hattie & Gan, 2011). The first is feedback in motivational meaning that increases the general behaviors, for example, in writing or revision activities (Grindle et al., 2017). The second is in reinforcement, meaning that it reacts to particular behaviors, such as a spelling error or a particular approach in writing. The last definition is feedback in informational meaning, consisting of information students use to modify their performance in a particular way (Elola & Oskoz, 2016). All three aspects are important in a school setting, but the informational aspect is the most crucial.

Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) have shown that feedback has the greatest impact on incorrect over correct answers when it comes to written instructions. Therefore, the most well-known types of feedback are corrective feedback, as these responses were evaluative and educative. Corrective feedback is information about student

performance and understanding (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Based on this definition, a student can explore the answers to evaluate the correctness of a response from corrective information provided by the teacher. It is in line with Miller & Geraci (2011), who revealed that feedback is information that students can use to confirm, add to, overwrite, or restructure information in memory that can be domain and metacognitive knowledge, awareness about themselves and tasks, or cognitive methods and strategies.

Interactional feedback has also been discussed in the context of feedback on forms, such as grammatical and contextual issues, as well as feedback on material, such as word-level writing restrictions and concept development. The findings demonstrate that substance and form must be considered while providing feedback (e.g., Wiliam, 2018; Nava & Pedrazzini, 2018). Dabbagh (2017) used conversational journal writing to investigate descriptively students' writing skills in an EFL context. In his study, 84 students between 17 and 22 were divided into control and experiment. The quantitative analysis was used to focus on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings revealed three scoring settings: content, organization, and vocabulary have significant changes in the post-test, whereas language use and mechanics have no significant achievement. In addition, due to studies of students' reactions to teachers' feedback, students value the feedback they eventually receive on their writing errors (Ferris et al., 2013). Hence, this study investigated whether feedback affects students' writing ability. It is argued that interactional feedback can facilitate writing skill development (Warsidi, 2017). The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship between the experimental treatment and control of interactional feedback?
2. What is the effect of the experiment and control on the interactional feedback?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Studies on Interactional Feedback

The result of three current empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Abdollahifam, 2014), different sorts of corrective feedback should be used dependently on students' competence levels. Written corrective feedback is considered important to the final construction success, and a wide variety of written corrective feedback patterns are now accessible in the literature (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, 2012). Direct feedback is when a teacher points out an error and gives the student the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take several forms, including removing unneeded 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 accept feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. In comparison, indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for diagnosing and correcting any problems on their own. In most cases, four ways of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors on a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the fault occurred; and (4) using a symbol to indicate what type of error is indicated (Sarré et al., 2021; Hosseiny, 2014).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, are the most commonly used technique for dealing with second-language

students' writing (D. R. Ferris, 2014). Indeed other studies indicate that systematically identifying grammar errors in 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 decision to use direct or indirect written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of either form might be beneficial or bad based on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite the 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 discovered no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Jamalinesari et al., (2015) have shown that they generally prefer indirect feedback from teachers. Students are forced to participate in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading them to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Scott & Dienes, 2010). As a result, identity and motivation can be encouraged and developed, enabling a student's long-term growth to expand and reinforce greater learning. Hassaji (2015) divided participants into four groups to test the efficacy of several types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) only underlining. The results demonstrated that the more explicit the comments, the more accurate the students' adjustments were. Using written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicit and implicitly corrected criticism. However, text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

The instructional parts of feedback have received a lot of attention. Several studies have looked at 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 important for learning progress (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Abdollahifam, 2014; Poorebrahim, 2017). Other researchers, however, have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy growth (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 in mastering their skills and correcting mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). Providing feedback on student writing is considered an essential educational practice for teachers who desire to enhance their students' writing abilities and linguistic correctness (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2019).

Some scholars have investigated interactional feedback in language learning in both Teaching English as Second Language (TESOL) and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), including effective supervisory feedback (Mehrpour, 2017), Written Corrective Feedback (Poorebrahim, 2017 and Zarifi, 2017). Because interactional feedback can be used not only in classroom activities but also in non-classroom settings such as private teaching, language environments, and through long distance learning interactions such as using the internet, its application requires a variety of concepts for better results as the interactional purposes, for more effective feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017). For example, the concept of genre approach has been applied to improve interaction in social life, cultural activities, and personal experience (Thorne, 2002), and the goals of the interactional context in language teaching and learning prefer more to receive the abstract concept of knowledge and

skills, Hua et al., (2007: p.1), which tends to the concept of interaction, (Seedhouse, 2007). As a result, in EFL teaching, the interactional context is used not only for situational purposes, but it also has the potential to improve EFL skills, such as in academic writing and other types of studies.

3. METHOD

3.1 Participants

This study involved 100 students enrolled in an intermediate English language course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. Students' writing skills were improved by incorporating them into interactive activities in 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 came 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.

2.2 Research Procedures

In both the experiment and control groups, students were instructed to create four pieces of writing throughout the semester. In each four sessions, one unit was covered and practiced for each composition. Themes were also created to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. The writings were all classified homework assignments and were not completed in class.

2.3 Data collection

The instrument of the research is used writing test. Students were instructed to compose a free composition at the end of the course concerning the subjects mentioned in their course books for the final assignment. This is part of their final exam, and the writing segment was given 40 points. Topics were controlled in such a way that conditional structures were elicited. Each student's composition was also counted in terms of words. Students must compose a 150-word composition on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. On 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, 2017) and (Boggs, 2019). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and 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). Local and global concerns in this study could receive either direct feedback (in the form of reformulations) or indirect feedback (circling/underlining codes or comments).

2.4 Data analysis and scoring

The main data analysis used in this study is the ANCOVA test, an analytical technique useful for increasing the precision of an experiment as it regulates the

influence of other uncontrolled independent variables. ANCOVA is used if the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis. It is 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. Categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative data or ordinal data. While numerical data is data in numbers or can also be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

The Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were then carried out. Wilcoxon test (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic, with the data using nominal and ordinal scales. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine a relationship. The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired); in the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before testing. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups if the dependent variable 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. If the data is interval or ratio, the distribution is not normal. The Mann-Whitney test is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the assumption of normality is not met. However, despite the non-parametric form of the independent t-test, the Mann-Whitney U test does not test the difference in the mean of the two groups like the Independent t-test. Instead, it examines the difference in the median of the two groups.

4. RESULT

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Statistics is a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be in the form of data tendency (mean, mode, median, etc.) and data distribution (standard deviation, variance, etc.). The mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. 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	Pronunciation	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 1. Descriptive statistics of the research variables

Table 1 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 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 pronunciation.

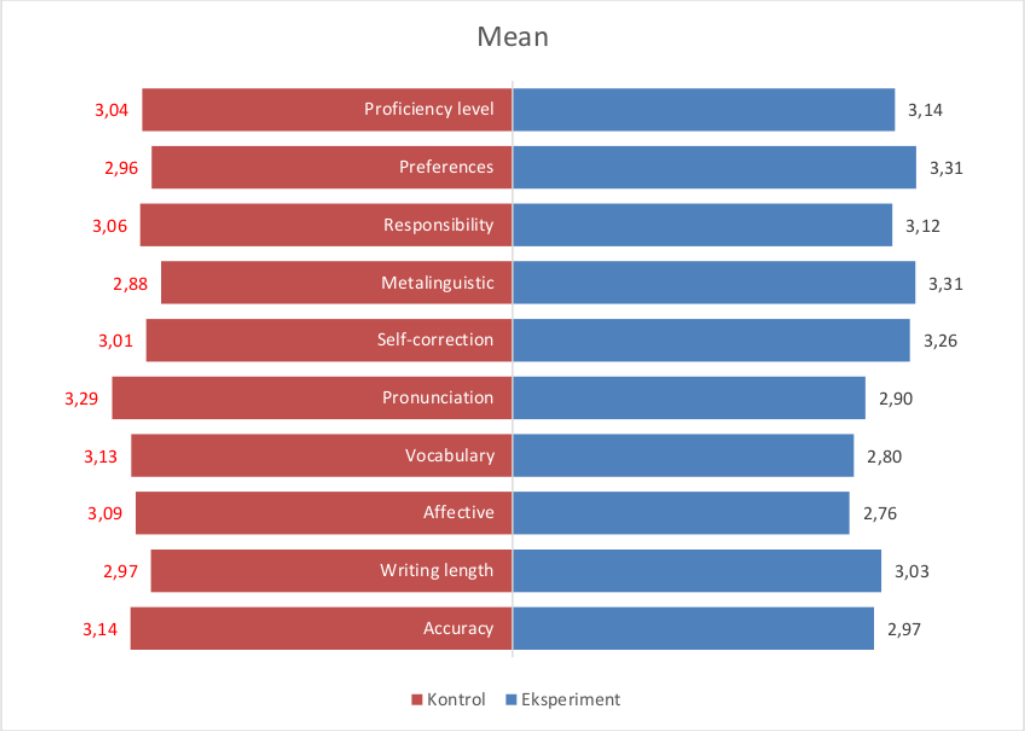

Figure 1. Mean per variable

3.2 ANCOVA Test

ANCOVA 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 can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. 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		
Perlakuan	3.339	0.071		
Corrected Model	34.922	0.000	0.419	0.407
Intercept	93.278	0.000		
Accuracy	67.621	0.000		
Perlakuan	0.540	0.464		
Corrected Model	38.850	0.000	0.445	0.433

Intercept	150.041	0.000
Effectiveness	75.372	0.000
Perlakuan	0.018	0.894

Corrected model tests the influence values of all independent variables simultaneously or together on the dependent variable. Table 1 shows the results of the ANCOVA test. It shows that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) all simultaneously or simultaneously have a significant effect on interactional feedback (p=0.000).

The Intercept value shows how much the interactional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates and independent variables or independent variables. The results of Table 1 show 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, either writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness.

The effect of each dependent variable, starting from writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness, is expressed in the significance value for each. The p-values for all dependent variables result is 0.000. Hence, it is concluded that the dependent variable writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness partially significantly influence interactional feedback. While for the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all of the significance values were above 0.05; thus, it can be concluded that the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the interactional feedback. The value of the goodness of estimation in each ANCOVA test is indicated by R^2. The R2 for the writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness is 46.3%, 41.9%, and 43.3%, respectively.

3.3 Wilcoxon Test

The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired). In the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before being carried out for testing. In this study, the Wilcoxon test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Wilcoxon test results are presented in Table 3.

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

Table 3. Wilcoxon test results

Negative ranks mean that the sample with the value of the second group (control) is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the value of the second group (control) higher than the first group (experiment). While Ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to the value of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, there are 22 samples classified as Negative Ranks, 24 as

Positive Ranks, and 4 as Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.798 (p=0.425); hence, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the accuracy variable. In the writing length variable, 27 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 21 Positive Ranks, and 2 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 (p=0.731); thus, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the variable writing length. In the effectiveness variable, 21 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 27 Positive Ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 (p=0.118), and it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the effectiveness variable.

3.4 Mann-Whitney Test

Test Mann Whitney is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the normality assumption is not met. In this study, the Mann-Whitney test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Mann-Whitney test began by describing the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

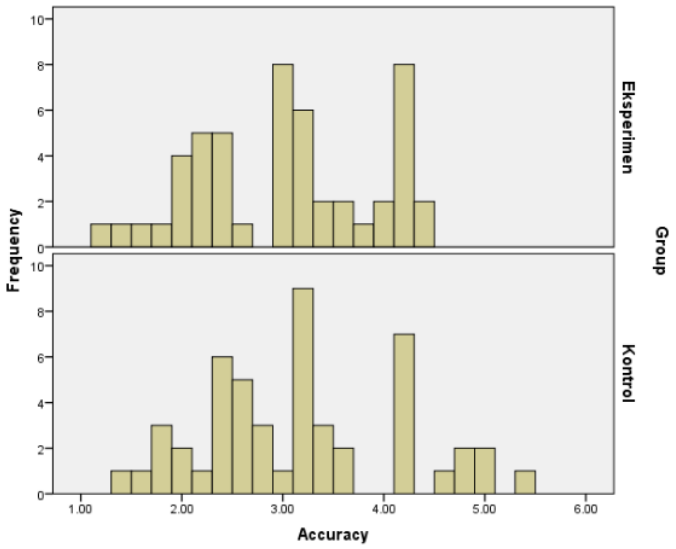

Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy

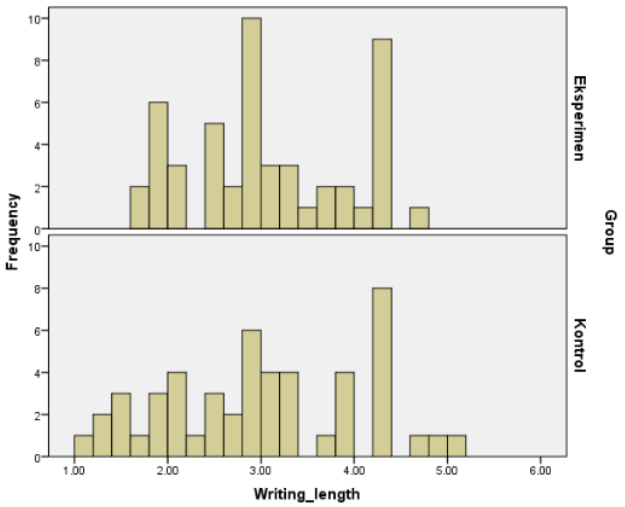

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length

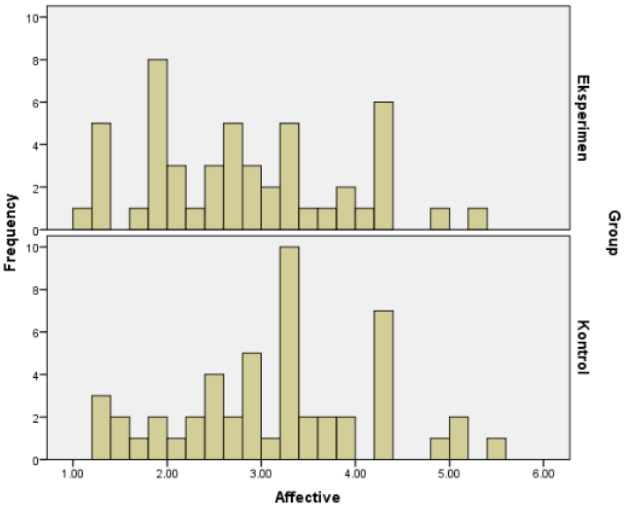

Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness

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

Item	Accuracy	Writing Length	

	Levene Statistic	Sig.	Levene Statistic	Sig.
Based on Mean	0.316	0.575	1.991	0.161
Based on Median	0.331	0.566	2.154	0.145
Based on the Median and with adjusted df	0.331	0.566	2.154	0.145
Based on trimmed mean	0.287	0.594	2.000	0.160

Table 4. Homogeneity test results

Table 4 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).

Mann	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 5. Mann Whitney test results

Table 5 shows a U value of 1.142 and a W value of 2.417 for the accuracy variable. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.746 (p=0.455), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.201 (p=0.841), and it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

For the effectiveness variable, the U value is 1.003, and the W value is 2.278. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -1.708 (p=0.088), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

5. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigated whether experimental treatment and control of interactional feedback affected the advanced EFL writers' ability to improve their accuracy after they had already achieved a reasonable level of accuracy. In the immediate post-test, all six experimental groups outperformed the control group. This

result is consistent with Bitchener & Knoch (2009), where interactional feedback was proved to develop accuracy.

The second research question looked into the relative impact of the experiment and control on the interactional feedback variable for EFL students. The findings revealed six variables in the experiment group with a greater average than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Interactional feedback was stimulating, and students gladly wrote larger pieces. Not only were the students' compositions longer, but they also included drawings and graphs, which can be ascribed to motivation.

In summary, statistical analysis revealed that interactional feedback did not affect students' accuracy in new writing assignments. When comparing the rate of mistake reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment, the gap between the two groups developed over time, even if 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. This could be explained by the proximity of the feedback options used in this study. When the direct determinant level of the feedback kinds supplied varies significantly, it seems more likely to expect differences in learners' ability in the initial stages than when the difference is minimal. As a result, the more similar the feedback kinds are, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

When comparing Abdollahifam (2014) study to this one, it appears that treatment length may impact the study's outcomes. This study found that the variation was insignificant in combining the two tasks completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities are not the same as theirs. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks that students achieve, in addition to the duration of the treatment, appears to be essential, (Nassaji, 2020) , who compared the usefulness of four distinct types of supplementary input on revision accuracy, reported findings that were comparable to those of (Ravand & Rasekh, 2011). They discovered that little 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 roughly eight months, the individuals only created five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise in that time. In light of the foregoing, the findings of short-term research can be more confidently applied if they are repeated by longer-term longitudinal investigations.

This supports what researchers have found in the literature about students wanting input on not only language but also content and structure (Saeed et al., 2018). Written feedback can assist students in seeing how their teachers interpret their writing and identify their strengths and flaws.

One option is for teachers to provide feedback selectively, focusing on critical areas such as pervasive error patterns (Hardman & Bell, 2018), thereby lowering the amount of input and the load on teachers. Teachers will be more inclined to provide legible feedback due to this. Teachers could also investigate other types of feedback, such as using feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes, such as

voice feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research could look into various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and how students react to them in different situations.

6. CONCLUSION

This study reveals that EFL teachers should select interactional feedback styles based on the aim for which the feedback is given. To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective. More implicit types of feedback, on the other hand, will be more effective if the purpose is to help learners improve their knowledge. There are two advantages to using more implicit input in learning. Teachers can provide implicit feedback in less time. Students will be more likely to learn if revising becomes more of a problem-solving activity for them.

There are certain limitations to the current study. To begin with, even if the teacher-to-student ratio was appropriate, the number of teachers who participated in this study was insufficient to generalize the effect of interactional input. In addition, due to the small number of teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews, which could have provided more detailed answers and reasons, were not possible. Such in-depth interviews will help researchers better balance the results and comprehend both perspectives in future studies on differences in actual classroom input.

Furthermore, 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 written 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 opportunity on written interactional feedback preferences.

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The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability

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The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability

Abstract

This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. This study recruited 100 participants who were enrolled in an intermediate EFL course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. The quantitative method was used in this research. The ANCOVA test was the primary data analysis method, followed by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests. The results revealed that dependent variables in the experimental group had higher averages than the control group. The ANCOVA test showed that the dependent variable (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) simultaneously significantly affected adding feedback (p=0.000). However, no significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups regarding accuracy (Wilcoxon value = -0.798, p=0.425) and writing length variables (Wilcoxon value = -0.344, p=0.731). As a result, interactional feedback has a significant effect on EFL students' writing ability. This requires thorough planning or 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 select feedback styles that align with the intended purpose of providing feedback. For instance, more specific feedback options may be more effective in assisting students to revise and improve their written assignments. Finally, this study provides 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 response immediately from the teacher when they turn in their writing assignments. The students want to realize where they stand in relation to their assignments. These reactions were primarily evaluative. Feedback is loosely defined as information the teacher offers that helps students comprehend and improve their performance by allowing them to notice and fix their mistakes (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). This procedure informs students whether an instructional answer is correct (Polio & Park, 2016). Generally, three broad meanings of feedback have been investigated (Hattie & Gan, 2011). The first is feedback in motivational meaning that increases the general behaviors, for example, in writing or revision activities (Grindle et al., 2017). The second is in reinforcement, meaning that it reacts to particular behaviors, such as a spelling error or a particular approach in writing. The last definition is feedback in informational meaning, consisting of information students use to modify their performance in a particular way (Elola & Oskoz, 2016). All three aspects are important in a school setting, but the informational aspect is the most crucial.

Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) have shown that feedback has the greatest impact on incorrect over correct answers when it comes to written instructions. Therefore, the most well-known types of feedback are corrective feedback, as these responses were evaluative and educative. Corrective feedback is information about student performance and understanding (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Based on this definition, a student can explore the answers to evaluate the correctness of a response from corrective information provided by the teacher. It is in line with Miller & Geraci (2011), who revealed that feedback is information that students can use to confirm, add to, overwrite, or restructure information in memory that can be domain and metacognitive knowledge, awareness about themselves and tasks, or cognitive methods and strategies.

Interactional feedback has also been discussed in the context of feedback on forms, such as grammatical and contextual issues, as well as feedback on material, such as word-level writing restrictions and concept development. The findings demonstrate that substance and form must be considered while providing feedback (e.g., Wiliam, 2018; Nava & Pedrazzini, 2018). Dabbagh (2017) used conversational journal writing to investigate descriptively students' writing skills in an EFL context. In his study, 84 students between 17 and 22 were divided into control and experiment. The quantitative analysis was used to focus on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings revealed three scoring settings: content, organization, and vocabulary have significant changes in the post-test, whereas language use and mechanics have no significant achievement. In addition, due to studies of students' reactions to teachers' feedback, students value the feedback they eventually receive on their writing errors (Ferris et al., 2013). In the State Malang University, the researcher found that the students have many grammatical errors in writing. To face this problem, the researcher used the interactional feedback to improve students' writing ability. Hence, this study investigated whether feedback affects students' writing ability. It is argued 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 result of three current empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Abdollahifam, 2014), different sorts of corrective feedback should be used dependently on students' competence levels. Written corrective feedback is considered important to the final construction success, and a wide variety of written corrective feedback patterns are now accessible in the literature (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, 2012). Direct feedback is when a teacher points out an error and gives the student the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take several forms, including removing 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 accept feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. In comparison, indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for diagnosing and correcting any problems on their own. In most cases, four ways of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting

or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors on a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the fault occurred; and (4) using a symbol to indicate what type of error is indicated (Sarré et al., 2021; Hosseiny, 2014).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, are the most commonly used technique for dealing with second-language students' writing (Ferris, 2014). Indeed other studies indicate that systematically identifying grammar errors in 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 decision to use direct or indirect written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of either form might be beneficial or destructive based on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite the 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 discovered no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Jamalinesari et al., (2015) have shown that they generally prefer indirect feedback from teachers. Students are forced to participate in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading them to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Scott & Dienes, 2010). As a result, identity and motivation can be encouraged and developed, enabling a student's long-term growth to expand and reinforce greater learning. Nassaji (2015) divided participants into four groups to test the efficacy of several types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) only underlining. The results demonstrated that the more explicit the comments, the more accurate the students' adjustments were. Using written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicit and implicitly corrected criticism. However, text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

The instructional parts of feedback have received a lot of attention. Several studies have looked at 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 important for learning progress (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Abdollahifam, 2014; Poorebrahim, 2017). Other researchers, however, have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy growth (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 in mastering their skills and correcting mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). Providing feedback on student writing is considered an essential educational practice for teachers who desire to enhance their students' writing abilities and linguistic correctness (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2019).

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, 2017), Written Corrective Feedback (Poorebrahim, 2017 and Zarifi, 2017). Because interactional feedback can be used not only in classroom activities but also in non-

classroom settings such as private teaching, language environments, and through long-distance learning interactions such as using the internet, its application requires a variety of concepts for better results as the interactional purposes, for more effective feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017). For example, the concept of genre approach has been applied to improve interaction in social life, cultural activities, and personal experience (Thorne, 2002), and the goals of the interactional context in language teaching and learning prefer to receive the abstract concept of knowledge and skills, Hua et al., (2007: p.1), which tends to the concept of interaction, (Seedhouse, 2007). As a result, in EFL teaching, the interactional context is used not only for situational purposes, but it also has the potential to improve EFL skills, such as in academic writing and other types of studies.

Prior research has examined the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under evaluation, instructors—who are frequently researchers—explicitly instructed students on peer review. Such training directs students on the writing-related difficulties they should pay attention to and how to offer constructive criticism. Typically, this research-based training should be straightforward and in line with the objectives of university writing courses and the study's purpose. According to Stanley (2012), for instance, coaching or training impacted how intensely groups communicate with one another because trained groups engaged in more interaction than untrained ones. Additionally, coaching groups provided more detailed interactional comments to their peers that assisted them in improving their text revision. This finding suggests that training made it possible for those groups to take on the tasks of evaluators. The frequent interactional exchanges (pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying) are signs of the coached groups' enhanced participation.

3. METHOD

3. 1 Research Method

This study strategy employed quantitative research to methodically and precisely compute the data from the research findings using statistical measures. The preparation of quantitative techniques is carried out methodically and comprehensively, commencing with the research concept and culminating in the study's outcomes (Siyoto & Sodik, 2015).

The researcher employed an experimental design in this quantitative study to explore the influence of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. 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.

Pre-test and post-test group designs are the two basic forms of quasi-experimental 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 employed in a quasi-experimental design (Creswell, 2003).

This study contrasted the experimental (X) and control (Y) groups. The control group is a class that does not use interactional feedback to provide feedback, while an experimental group is the class that provided 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. Students' writing skills were improved by incorporating them into interactive activities in 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 came 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 procedure of the research used pre-test, treatment, and post-test. This research was conducted for two months, from March until April. This research conducted eight meetings, consisting of one meeting for pre-test in the experiment and control group, six meetings for treatment in the experimental class, and one meeting for post-test in the experimental and control group.

In the experiment group, students were instructed to create four pieces of writing throughout the semester. The treatment in each six meetings, one unit was covered and practiced for each composition. Themes were also created to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. The writings were all classified homework assignments—at each meeting, the student was given interactional feedback as a treatment. However, in the control class, are not given the treatment.

3. 4 Data collection

The instrument of the research is used essay writing test. Students were instructed to compose a free composition at the end of the course concerning the subjects mentioned in their course books for the final assignment. This is part of their final exam, and the writing segment was given 40 points. Topics were controlled in such a way that conditional structures were elicited. Each student's composition was also counted in terms of words. Students must compose a 150-word composition on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. On 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, 2017) and (Boggs, 2019). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and 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). Local and global concerns in this study 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 determine students' recount text writing skills before and after the treatment. The scoring rubric was used to assess the dependent variable of students' writing.

The main data analysis used in this study is the ANCOVA test, an analytical technique useful for increasing the precision of an experiment as it regulates the influence of other uncontrolled independent variables. ANCOVA is used if the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis. It is 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. Categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative data or ordinal data. While numerical data is data in numbers or can also be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

The Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were then carried out. Wilcoxon test (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic, with the data using nominal and ordinal scales. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine a relationship. The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired); in the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before testing. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups if the dependent variable 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. If the data is interval or ratio, the distribution is not normal. The Mann-Whitney test is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the assumption of normality is not met. However, despite the non-parametric form of the independent t-test, the Mann-Whitney U test does not test the difference in the mean of the two groups like the independent t-test. Instead, it examines the difference in the median of the two groups.

4. RESULT

Intermediate EFL students at State Malang University participated in this study from March to April. The researcher employed two samples for this study: experimental and control classes. The researcher used Interactional Feedback as a treatment for the experimental class, but there was no treatment for the control class. This research aims to investigate 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 in the form of data tendency (mean, mode, median, etc.) and data distribution (standard deviation, variance, etc.). The mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. 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	Pronunciation	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 1 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 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 pronunciation.

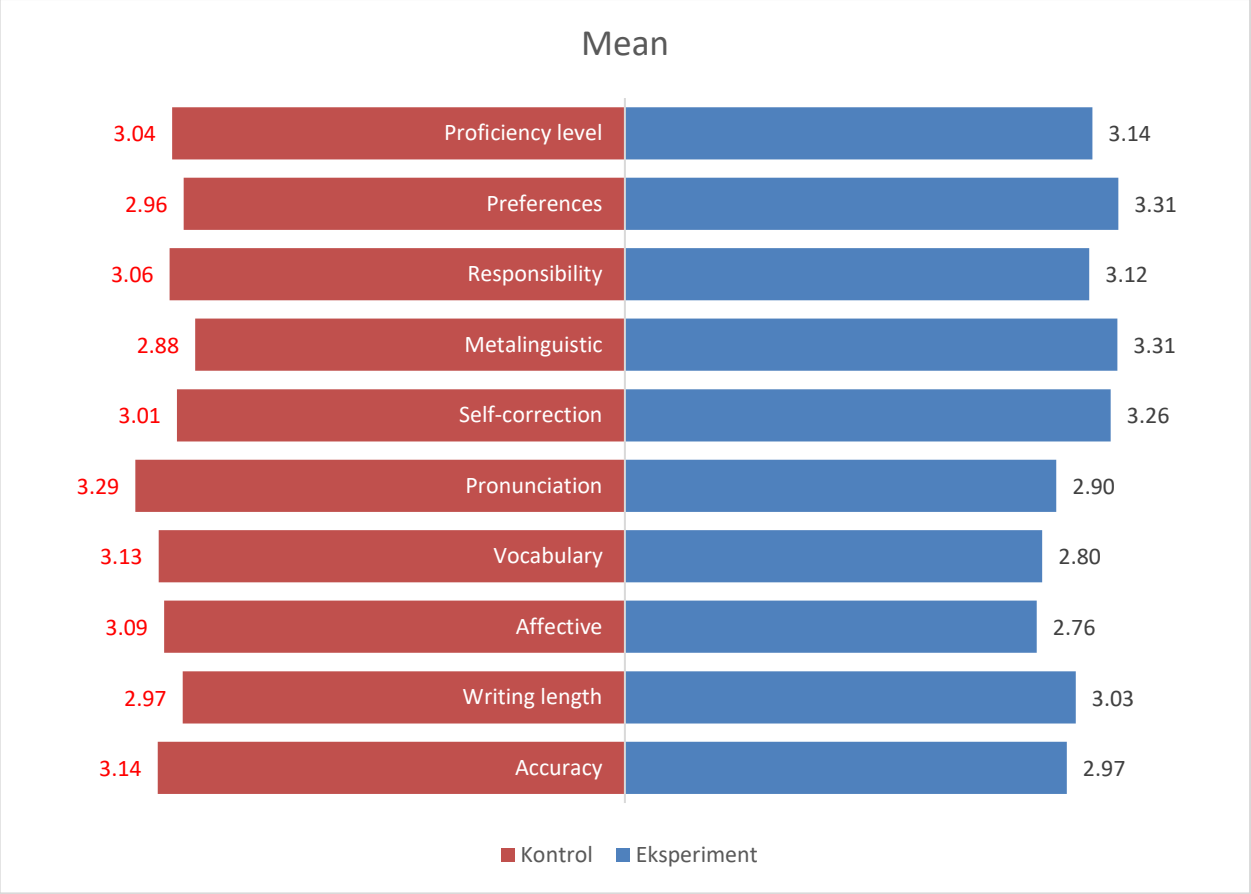

Figure 1. Mean per variable

3.2 ANCOVA Test

ANCOVA 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 can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. 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

Corrected model tests are the influence values of all independent variables simultaneously or together on the dependent variable. Table 1 shows the results of the ANCOVA test. It shows that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) all simultaneously or simultaneously have a significant effect on interactional feedback (p=0.000).

The Intercept value shows how much the interactional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates and independent variables or independent variables. The independent variable in this research was interactional feedback and the dependent variable of the research was writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness. The results of Table 1 show 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, either 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-values for all dependent variables result is 0.000. Hence, it is concluded that the dependent variable writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness partially significantly influence interactional feedback. While for the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all of the significance values were above 0.05; thus, it can be concluded that the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the interactional feedback. The value of the goodness of estimation in each ANCOVA test is indicated by R^2. The R2 for the writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness is 46.3%, 41.9%, and 43.3%, respectively.

3.3 Wilcoxon Test

The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired. In the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before being carried out for testing. In this study, the Wilcoxon test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Wilcoxon test results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Wilcoxon test results

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

Negative ranks mean that the sample with the value of the second group (control) is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the value of

the second group (control) higher than the first group (experiment). While Ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to the value of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, there are 22 samples classified as Negative Ranks, 24 as Positive Ranks, and 4 as Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.798 (p=0.425); hence, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the accuracy variable. In the writing length variable, 27 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 21 Positive Ranks, and 2 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 (p=0.731); thus, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the variable writing length. In the effectiveness variable, 21 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 27 Positive Ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 (p=0.118), and it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different for the effectiveness variable.

3.4 Mann-Whitney Test

Test Mann Whitney is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the normality assumption is not met. In this study, the Mann-Whitney test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Mann-Whitney test began by describing the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

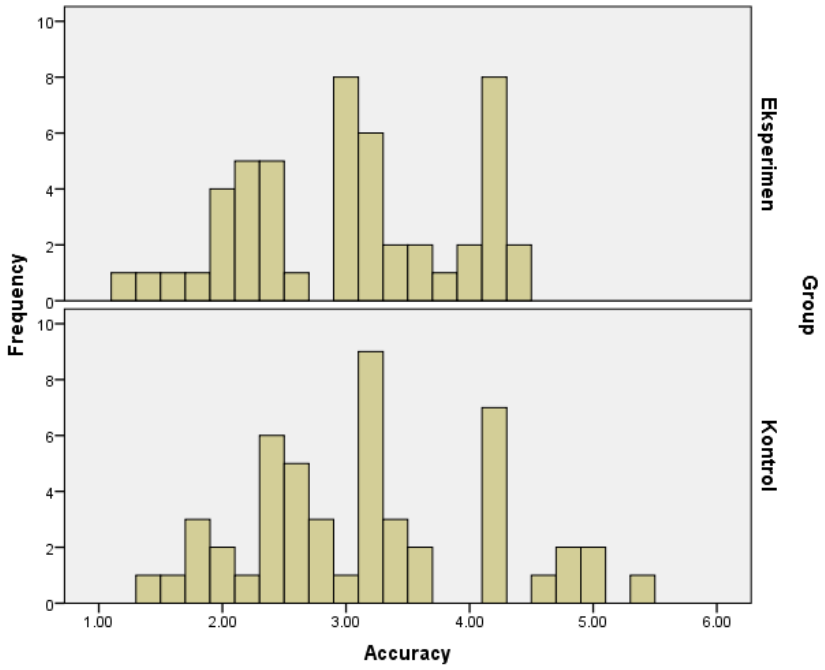

Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy

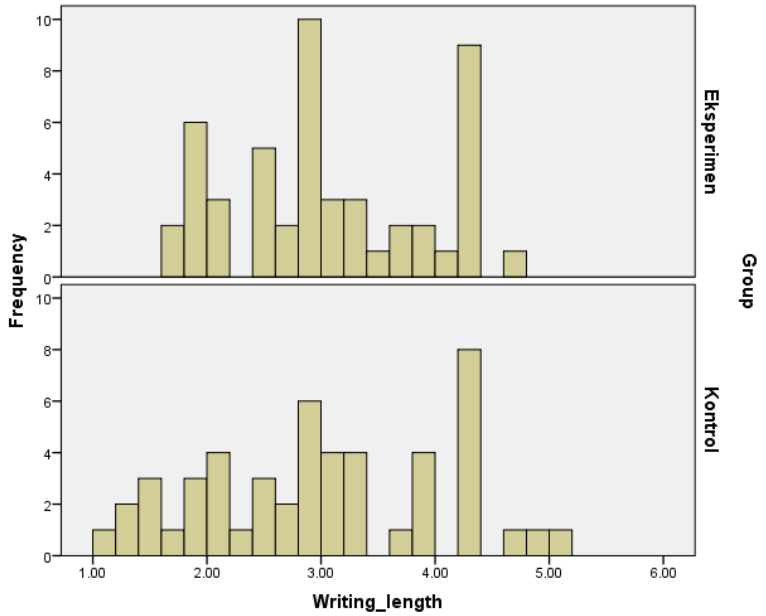

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length

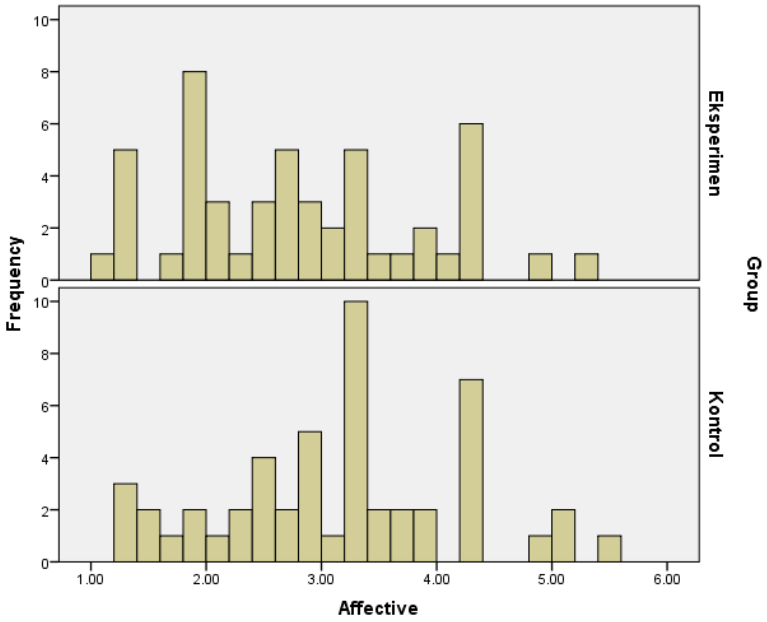

Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness

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

Table 4. Homogeneity test results

	Accuracy		Writing Length		Effectiveness	
Item	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 4 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 5. 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 5 shows a U value of 1.142 and a W value of 2.417 for the accuracy variable. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.746 (p=0.455), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -0.201 (p=0.841), and it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

For the effectiveness variable, the U value is 1.003, and the W value is 2.278. When converted to a Z value, the amount is -1.708 (p=0.088), indicating no significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control).

5. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigated whether interactional feedback affected the EFL writers' writing ability to improve. In the immediate post-test, the experimental group outperformed the control group. This result is consistent with Bitchener & Knoch (2009), where interactional feedback was proved to develop accuracy. Prior research has examined the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under evaluation, instructors—who are frequently researchers—explicitly instructed students on peer review. Such training directs students on the writing-related difficulties they should pay attention to and how to offer constructive criticism. Typically, this research-based training should be straightforward and in line with the objectives of university writing courses and the study's purpose. According to Stanley (2012), coaching or training impacts how intensely groups communicate with one another because trained groups interact more than untrained ones. Additionally, coaching groups provided more detailed interactional comments to their peers that assisted them in improving their text revision. This suggests that training made it possible for those groups to take on the tasks of evaluators. The more frequent interactional exchanges, including pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying, show the coached groups' enhanced participation.

The coached learners engaged in peer review more actively than the uncoached group (Zhu, 2015). Additionally, the taught group's negations were longer, more in-depth, and marked by prolonged debates on a single subject, indicating lovelier and richer talks. Similarly, (McGroarty & Zhu, 2017) discovered that the trained group engaged more thoroughly than the untrained group, as seen by the higher number of turns and the longer and livelier exchanges. The results of Min's (2015) study showed that training through specific instruction on peer review helped students produce noticeably more comments that focused on clarifying, identifying, and explaining a particular issue and making recommendations on how to improve their texts. It also increased learners' focus on comments as they made more comments on global issues.

The second research question looked into the relative effect of the interactional feedback variable for EFL students' writing. The findings revealed six variables in the experiment group with a greater average than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Interactional feedback was stimulating, and students gladly wrote larger pieces. Not only were the students' compositions longer, but they also included drawings and graphs, which can be ascribed to motivation.

In summary, statistical analysis revealed that interactional feedback affect students' accuracy in new writing assignments. When comparing the rate of mistake reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment, the gap between the two groups developed over time, even if 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. This could be explained by the proximity of the feedback options used in this study. When the direct determinant level of the feedback kinds supplied varies significantly, it seems more likely to expect differences in learners' ability in the initial stages than when the difference is minimal. As a result, the more similar the feedback kinds are, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

When comparing Abdollahifam (2014) study to this one, it appears that treatment length may impact the study's outcomes. This study found that the variation was insignificant in combining the two tasks completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities are not the same as theirs. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks that students achieve, in addition to the duration of the treatment, appears to be essential Nassaji 2020, who compared the usefulness of four distinct types of supplementary input on revision accuracy, reported that were comparable to those of (Ravand & Rasekh, 2011). They discovered 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 roughly eight months, the individuals only created five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise in that time. In light of the foregoing, the findings of short-term research can be more confidently applied if they are repeated by longer-term longitudinal investigations. This supports what researchers have found in the literature about students wanting input on not only language but also content and structure (Saeed et al., 2018). Written feedback can assist students in seeing how their teachers interpret their writing and identify their strengths and flaws.

Teachers should deliver feedback selectively, concentrating on crucial areas, such as chronic mistake patterns (Hardman & Bell, 2018), thereby lowering the amount of input and the load on teachers. Teachers will be more inclined to provide legible feedback due to this. Teachers could also investigate other types of feedback, such as using feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes, such as voice feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research could look into various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and how students react to them in different situations.

6. CONCLUSION

This study reveals that EFL teachers should select interactional feedback styles based on the aim for which the feedback is given. To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective. More implicit types of feedback, on the other hand, will be more effective if the purpose is to help learners improve their knowledge. There are two advantages to using more implicit input in learning. Teachers can provide implicit feedback in less time. Students will be more likely to learn if revising becomes more of a problem-solving activity for them.

There are certain limitations to the current study. To begin with, even if the teacher-to-student ratio was appropriate, the number of teachers who participated in this study was insufficient to generalize the effect of interactional input. In addition, due to the small number of teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews, which could have provided more detailed answers and reasons, were not possible. Such in-depth interviews will help researchers better balance the results and comprehend both perspectives in future studies on differences in actual classroom input.

Furthermore, 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 written 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 opportunity on written interactional feedback preferences.

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REBUTTAL LETTER FOR SIELE JOURNAL

(Friday - 18/08/2023)

Dear Editors of SiELE Journal,

We have amended our article as suggested by the Reviewer as the following:

No.	**Reviewer 3** comments/suggestions	Corrections made
1	The reviewer ticked "No" for Introduction in the gap of study	*We have revised our research gap, see page 2*
2	The reviewer ticked "No" for Findings are presented clearly	*We have revised our finding in the result, see page 6*
3	Additional comments: "this abstract Ensure it is a minimum of 200 words, and a maximum of 250 words"	*We have revised our abstract; This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. This study recruited 100 participants who were enrolled in an intermediate EFL course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. The quantitative method was used in this research. The ANCOVA test was the primary data analysis method, followed by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests. The results revealed that dependent variables in the experimental group had higher averages than the control group. The ANCOVA test showed that the dependent variable (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) simultaneously significantly affected adding feedback (p=0.000). However, no significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups regarding accuracy (Wilcoxon value = -0.798, p=0.425) and writing length variables (Wilcoxon value = -0.344, p=0.731). As a result, interactional feedback has a significant effect on EFL students' writing ability. This requires thorough planning or 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 select feedback styles that align with the intended purpose of providing feedback. For instance, more specific feedback options may be more effective in assisting students to revise and improve their written assignments. Finally, this study provides recommendations for further research in this field.
4	*Additional comments: "Keyword Should be in alphabetical order and separated by comma"*	*We revised our keyword;* EFL learner, Interactional Feedback, Writing Ability, Writing Assessment, Writing Performance
5	*Additional comments: "research question: Did you apply interactinal feedback to both groups?*	We have revised our research question, see page 2
6	*Additional comments: "Consider to add one more sub-heading regrading interactional feedback, particulary in writing instruction"*	We have revised our sub heading, see page 4
7	*Additional comments: ". Method: Add the section of Research Method"*	We have revised our method, see page 4-6
8	*Additional comments: "tables and figures must follow the guidelines"*	We have revised our tables and figures, see page 7-9
9	*Additional comments: "Need to discuss briefly your findings regarding each research question and compare with the previous related studies."*	We have revised our discussion, see page 13-14
10	*Additional comments: "Mention the year of publication"*	We have revised our references, see page 16

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Masrul

Gmail **Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com>**

[SiELE] FURTHER AMENDMENTS ON YOUR ARTICLE

1 message

Heri Apriadi, S.Pd. <heri.apriadi@usk.ac.id> Mon, Nov 13, 2023 at 8:00 AM
To: masrulm25@gmail.com, santi.erliana@iain-palangkaraya.ac.id, sriyuliani@edu.uir.ac.id, ummirasyidah@yahoo.com, bayu_hw@umm.ac.id, melyannmelani@gmail.com

Dear **Masrul M**, **Santi Erliana**, **Sri Yuliani**, **Ummi Rasyidah**, **Bayu Hendro Wicaksono**, and **Melyann Melani**,

Thank you for submitting your article revision entitled "**The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability**". Your revision has been evaluated by one of our editors, and attached is the evaluation results of your article. Please make the revision as requested using Track Changes. If you do not agree with the suggestions given, please provide your version and provide the reason in the Comment. This revision is due on **November 23, 2023**. Please submit your revision on time so we can consider it for the upcoming publication of SiELE Journal, which is in the January 2024 issue. **Submit your revision to this email address AND ALSO upload it to the journal's OJS (login --> click on your title --> click on the menu Review --> scroll down and upload the files at Upload Author Version under Editor Decision)**. Please reply to our email once you have received it. Thank you, and we look forward to your revision.

Sincerely,
The Editors of SiELE Journal

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The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability

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Abstract

This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. ~~This study recruited 100~~ One hundred participants ~~who were~~ enrolled in an intermediate EFL course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia, were recruited for this research.~~.~~ The quantitative method was ~~used~~ employed for data analysis~~in this research~~.~~-~~ The primary data analysis method used was the ANCOVA test, ~~was the primary data analysis method,~~ followed by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests. The results revealed that dependent variables in the experimental group exhibited ~~had~~ higher averages compared to ~~than~~ the control group. The ANCOVA test showed that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) ~~simultaneously~~ were significantly affected ~~adding~~by the addition of feedback ($p=0.000$). However, no significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups regarding accuracy (Wilcoxon value = -0.798, $p=0.425$) and writing length variables (Wilcoxon value = -0.344, $p=0.731$). As a result, interactional feedback significantly impacted~~has a significant effect on~~ EFL students' writing ability. This highlights the need for~~requires~~ thorough planning ~~or~~ 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 ~~be~~ prove more effective in assisting students ~~to~~ in revising~~e~~ and improv~~e~~ing their written assignments. Finally, this study provides valuable recommendations for further research in this field.

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DOI: xxxx.xxxx.xxxx

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 enabling 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. (2012) have demonstrated that feedback has the most significant impact on incorrect answers compared to correct ones when it comes to 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 & 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, awareness about themselves 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 investigate descriptively 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 was used to focused on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings

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revealed that three scoring settings: (content, organization, and vocabulary) have significantly improvedsignificant changes in the post-test, whereas while language use and mechanics exhibited have no significant achievementchanges. MoreoverIn addition, consideringdue to studies of students' responsesreactions to teachers' feedback, students highly- value the feedback they eventually receive on their writing errors (Ferris et al., 2013). The researcher identified numerous grammatical errors in students' writing at the State University of MalaIn the State Malang University, the researcher found that the students have many grammatical errors in writing. To address face this problemissue, the researcher employed used the interactional feedback to improve enhance students' writing ability. HenceThus, this study investigated investigates whether the impact of feedback affects on students' writing ability., It is argueingd 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.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.

2.1. Studies on Interactional Feedback

The results of three recentcurrent empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Abdollahifam, 2014), suggest that different sorts types of corrective feedback should be used dependingently on students' proficiencycompetence levels. Written corrective feedback is considered crucial for the ultimate success of writingimportant to the final construction success, and a wide range of patterns for written corrective feedback variety of written corrective feedback patterns are now availableaccessible in the literature (Bitchener, 2012; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, 2012). Direct feedback involves is when athe teacher pointsing out an error and providing gives the student the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take variousseveral forms, including eliminatingremoving 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 receiveaccept feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. In contrastcomparison, indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for identifyingdiagnosing and correcting any problems issues on their own. In most cases, four ways types of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors on in a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the fault error occurred; and (4) using a symbol to specifyindicate what the type of error is indicated (Hosseiny, 2014; Sarré et al., 2021; Hosseiny, 2014).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, areis the most commonly used technique for addressing dealing with second-language students' writing (Ferris, 2014). Indeed oOther studies suggestindicate that systematically identifying grammar errors in second 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 decision between to use direct or indirect written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of

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either form might be beneficial or detrimental~~destructive~~ depending~~based~~ on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite ~~the~~ 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 f~~discovered~~ ound no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Jamalinesari et al.~~,~~ (2015) have shown ~~that they generally~~ a preference for indirect feedback from teachers in general. Students are ~~forced~~ encouraged to engage~~participate~~ in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading ~~them~~ to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Scott & Dienes, 2010). As a result, identity and motivation can be ~~encouraged~~ fostered and developed, enabling ~~a~~ student~~s's~~ long-term growth to expand and reinforce ~~greater~~their learning. Nassaji (2015) divided participants into four groups to test the effectiveness ~~efficacy~~ of ~~several~~ various types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) ~~only~~ underlining only. The results ~~demonstrated~~ showed that the more explicit the comments, the more accurate the students' ~~adjustments~~ revisions were. W~~Using~~ hile written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicitly and implicitly corrected criticism~~., However,~~ text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

~~-~~The instructional ~~parts~~ aspects of feedback have received ~~a lot of~~significant attention. Several studies have ~~looked at~~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 ~~important~~ crucial for learning progress (Abdollahifam, 2014; Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015~~; Abdollahifam, 2014~~; Poorebrahim, 2017). On the other hand,~~Other~~ some researchers ~~, however,~~ have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy improvement ~~growth~~ (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 ~~in~~ master~~ing~~ their skills and correct~~ing~~ mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). Providing feedback on student writing is considered an essential educational practice for teachers who ~~desire~~ aim to enhance their students' writing abilities and linguistic correctness (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2019).

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), ~~W~~written c~~C~~orrective ~~F~~feedback (Poorebrahim, 2017~~; and~~ Zarifi, 2017). Because interactional feedback can be used not only in classroom activities but also in non-classroom settings such as private ~~teaching~~tutoring, language environments, and ~~through long-distance learning interactions such as using~~long-distance learning interactions such as the internet~~, i, it~~s application requires ~~a variety~~various ~~of~~ concepts for better results~~, as~~ considering the interactional purposes, for more effective feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017). For example, the ~~concept of~~ genre approach concept has been applied to ~~improve~~ 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 ~~prefer to receive~~ the abstract concept

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of knowledge and skills, Hua et al., (2007~~: p.1~~), which leans toward ~~tends to~~ the concept of interaction, (Seedhouse, 2007). Consequently~~As a result~~, in EFL teaching, the interactional context is used not only for situational purposes~~,~~ but ~~it~~ also has the potential to improve EFL skills, such as in academic writing and other types of studies.

Previous~~Prior~~ research has examined the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under ~~evaluation~~review, instructors ~~who are frequently~~ often researchers—explicitly instructed students on peer review. ~~Such~~ This training directed~~s~~ students on the writing-related difficulties they should ~~pay attention to~~focus on and how to offer constructive criticism. Typically, this research-based training ~~should be straightforward and in line~~ aligned with the objectives of university writing courses and the study's purpose. For instance, according to ~~According to~~ Stanley (2012), ~~for instance,~~ coaching or training influenced~~impacted~~ ~~how~~ the ~~intensely~~ intensity of groups' ~~communicate~~ communication, as ~~with one another because~~ trained groups engaged in more interaction than untrained ones. Additionally, trained~~coaching~~ groups provided more detailed interactional comments to their peers, which ~~that assisted~~aided them in improving their text revision. This finding suggests that training ~~made~~ enabled~~it possible for~~ those groups to assume the roles of ~~to take on the tasks of~~ evaluators. The frequent interactional exchanges (pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying) are indicators~~signs~~ of the coached groups' enhanced engagement~~participation~~.

3. METHOD

~~3.~~

~~3. 1~~ 3.1. Research Method

This study ~~strategy~~ employed ~~quantitative research~~quantitative research to systematically~~methodically~~ and precisely compute the data from the research findings using statistical measures. ~~The preparation of quantitative techniques is carried out~~Quantitative techniques are prepared methodically and comprehensively, commencing with the research concept and culminating in the study's outcomes (Siyoto & Sodik, 2015).

The researcher employed an experimental design in this quantitative study to explore the influence of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. 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.

~~Pre-test-and-post-test group designs~~There are ~~the~~ two basic ~~forms of~~ 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 ~~employed~~ used in a quasi-experimental design (Creswell, 2003).

This study compared~~contrasted~~ the experimental (X) and control (Y) groups. The control group is a class that does not use interactional feedback to provide feedback, while ~~an~~ the experimental group is the class that ~~provided~~ provides the interactional feedback. The experimental and control groups were recruited from separate classes or students.

3.2. ~~-~~Participants

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~~3. 2~~

This study involved 100 students enrolled in an intermediate English language course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. These ~~S~~students' writing skills were improved by incorporating ~~them into~~ 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 came 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

~~3. 3~~

The research ~~procedure of the research used~~involved pre-test, treatment, and post-test. This research was conducted ~~for~~ over two months, from March ~~until~~ to April. ~~This research conducted~~ comprising eight meetings. ~~,~~ The meetings included ~~consisting of~~ one ~~meeting for~~ pre-test session each for ~~in~~ the experimental and control group~~, six meetings for treatment in the experimental class, and one meeting for post-test~~ s, six treatment sessions in the experimental class, and one post-test session for ~~in~~ the experimental and control groups.

~~In the experiment group, students were instructed to create four pieces of writing~~writing pieces throughout the semester~~. T~~ the treatment in each of the six meetings ~~, one unit was~~ covered and practiced ~~for~~ one unit for each composition. Themes were also ~~created~~ designed to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. At each meeting, ~~The~~ the students ~~writings~~ were ~~all classified homework assignments at each meeting, the student was~~ given interactional feedback as a treatment. In contrast,~~However,~~ ~~in~~ the control class~~,~~ did not receive this treatment~~are not given the treatment~~.

3.4. Data collection

~~3. 4~~

The research instrument used w~~of the research i~~as an~~used~~ essay writing test. Students were instructed to compose a free ~~composition~~ essay ~~at the end of the course concerning the subjects mentioned in their course books~~on subjects mentioned in their course books at the end of the course for the final assignment, which was~~.~~ ~~This is~~ part of their final exam, and were allocated ~~, and the writing segment was given~~ 40 points. Topics were controlled to elicit ~~in such a way that~~ conditional structures ~~were elicited~~. Each student's ~~composition~~ essay was also assessed~~counted~~ in terms of word counts~~.~~ Students ~~must~~ were required to write~~compose~~ a 150-word essay~~composition~~ on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. Using a ~~On 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~~,~~ (2017) and ~~(~~Boggs (~~,~~2019). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and 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,

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paragraphs, or passages). In this study, ~~L~~local and global concerns ~~in this study~~ could receive either direct feedback (in the form of reformulations) or indirect feedback (circling/underlining codes or comments).

3.5. ~~3. 5~~ Data analysis and scoring

Writing tests were administered to the class, consisting of pre-test and post-test, to ~~determine~~ assess students' recount text writing skills before and after the treatment. The scoring rubric was used to assess the dependent variable of students' writing.

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 w~~i~~hen the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis~~. It is~~ 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~~ categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative ~~data~~ or ordinal data. Mean~~W~~while, numerical data is data in numbers or can ~~also~~ be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

Subsequently, ~~T~~the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were ~~then carried out~~conducted. The Wilcoxon ~~test (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic~~(sign test) is a non-parametric statistic~~,~~ with ~~the~~ ~~data using~~ nominal and ordinal scale~~s~~ data. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine ~~a~~ relationship~~s~~. ~~The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t test for paired data (t paired); in the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before testing~~. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups w~~if the dependent variable~~ hen 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~~If~~ the data is interval or ratio because the distribution is ab~~, the distribution is not~~ normal. ~~The Mann-Whitney test is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the assumption of normality is not met. However, despite the non-parametric form of the independent t-test, the Mann-Whitney U-test does not test the difference in the mean of the two groups like the independent t-test. Instead, it examines the difference in the median of the two groups.~~

4. ~~4.~~ RESULT

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

4.1. ~~4.1~~ Descriptive Statistics

~~Statistics is~~ Statistics is a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be in the form of

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data tendency (such as mean, mode, and median) and data distribution (such as standard deviation and variance). ~~a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be in the form of data tendency (mean, mode, median, etc.) and data distribution (standard deviation, variance, etc.).~~ Table 1 presents the mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study~~The mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study are presented in Table 1~~.

Table 1. 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	Pronunciation	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 1 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 pronunciation.

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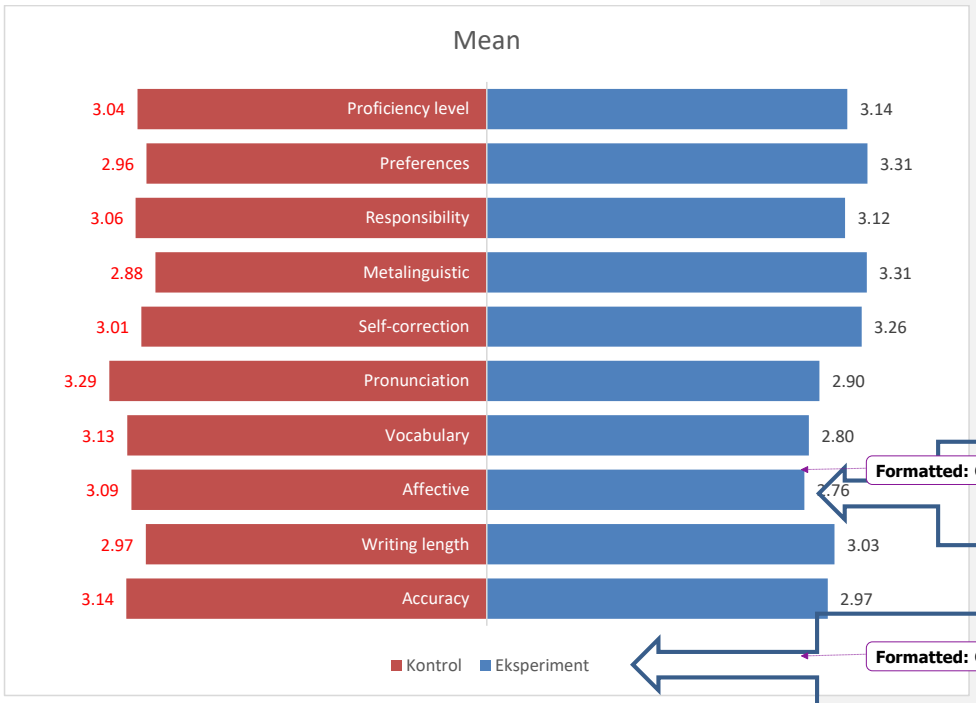

Figure 1. Mean per variable

43.2. -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 can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. The results of the ANCOVA

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

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Intercept	150.041	0.000
Effectiveness	75.372	0.000
Treatment	0.018	0.894

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~~Corrected model tests are the influence values of all independent variables simultaneously or together on the dependent variable.~~ Table 1 displays~~shows~~ the results of the ANCOVA test~~.~~, including the corrected model tests, w~~h~~hich show~~s~~ 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 ~~or simultaneously~~ have a significant effect on interactional feedback (p=0.000).

The Intercept value represents~~shows~~ how much the interactional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates and independent variables ~~or independent variables~~. The independent variable in this research was interactional feedback, and the dependent variable ~~of the research~~ was writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness. The results ~~of Table 1~~ 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, ~~either~~ 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~~s~~ for all dependent variables result~~s~~ is 0.000. Concluding that~~Hence~~, ~~it is concluded that the dependent variable~~ writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness partially significantly influence interactional feedback. As for ~~While for~~ the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all ~~of the~~ significance values were above 0.05~~; thus,~~ indicating that ~~it can be concluded that~~ the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the interactional feedback. The ~~value of the~~ goodness of estimation, indicated by ~~in each ANCOVA test is indicated by~~ R^2 in each ANCOVA test, ~~. The R2 for the writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness~~ is 46.3% for writing length, 41.9% for accuracy, and 43.3% for effectiveness~~46.3%, 41.9%, and 43.3%, respectively~~.

~~4~~3. Wilcoxon Test

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The Wilcoxon test, conducted on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables, is an alternative to the t-test for paired data, and the ~~is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired. In the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before being carried out for testing. In this study, the Wilcoxon test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Wilcoxon test~~ results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Wilcoxon test results

Item		Accuracy	Writing length	Effectiveness
Test	Negative Ranks	22	27	21
	Positive Ranks	24	21	27
	Ties	4	2	2
	Wilcoxon Signed Ranks	-0.798	-0.344	-1.565

Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.425	0.731	0.118

Negative ranks mean ~~that~~ the sample with the ~~value of the second group (control)~~second group (control) value is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the ~~value of the second group (control)~~second group (control) value higher than the first group (experiment). ~~While~~ In contrast, Ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to ~~to the value~~at of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, ~~there are 22 samples~~22 samples 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~~; hence, it is concluded that~~ there is no ~~experimental and the control groups are not~~ significant~~ly~~ difference~~t~~ between the experimental and control groups for the accuracy variable. For the ~~In the~~ writing length variable, 27 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 21 Positive Ranks, and 2 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 (p=0.731), indicating~~; thus, no, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not~~ significant~~ly~~ difference between~~t~~ the experimental and control groups for the variable writing length. In the effectiveness variable, 21 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 27 Positive Ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 (p=0.118), concluding that~~ and it is concluded~~ there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups~~that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different~~ for the effectiveness variable.

3.4. Mann-Whitney Test

~~Test Mann-Whitney is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the normality assumption is not met. In this study, t~~The Mann-Whitney test ~~was~~ was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Mann-Whitney test began by describing the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

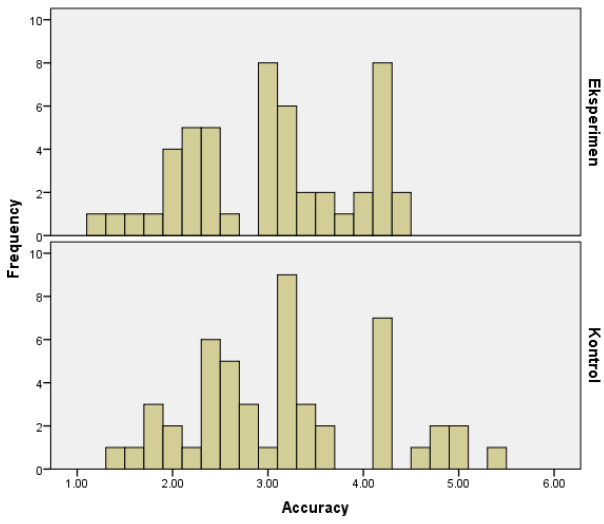

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Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy

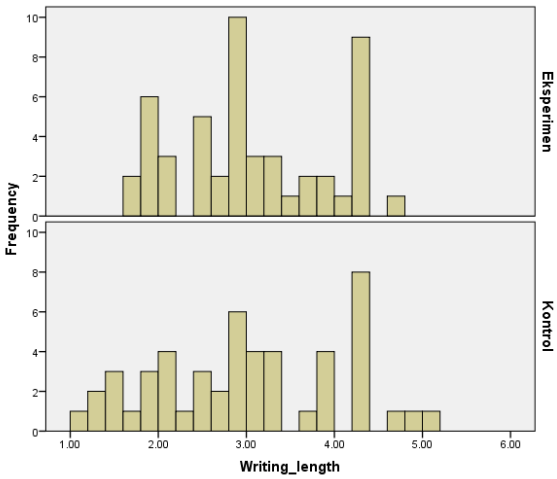

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length

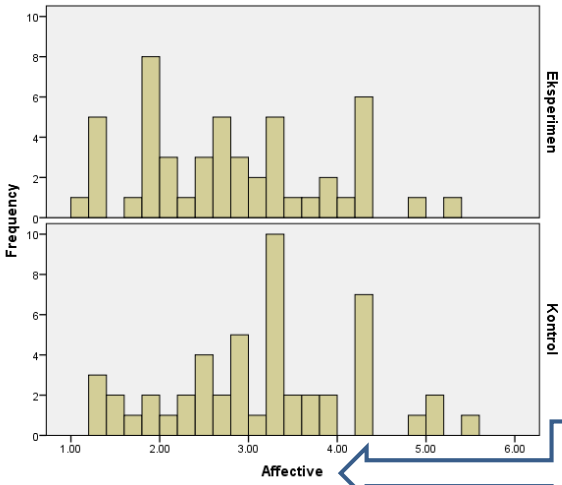

Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness

Figures 2, 3~~ and 4 show the difference in the data distribution in the experiment and control groups~~, 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 c~~arried out to ascertain whether the variance in each group (experimental and control) was different~~onducted to ascertain whether the variance in each group (experimental and control) differed.

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Table 4. Homogeneity test results

	Accuracy		Writing Length		Effectiveness	
Item	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.

Table 4 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 5. 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 5 shows ~~a~~the U and W values ~~of 1.142 and a W value of 2.417~~ for the accuracy variable. The Z value is ~~When converted to a Z value, the amount is~~ -0.746 (p=0.455), indicating no significant difference between the experimental and control groups~~the two groups (experimental and control)~~.

The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496, resulting in ~~. When converted to~~ a Z value~~, the amount is~~ of -0.201 (p=0.841), ~~and it can be~~ concludinged that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups.~~the two groups (experimental and control).~~

For the effectiveness variable, the U value is 1.003, and the W value is 2.278, ~~:~~ with a Z value of ~~When converted to a Z value, the amount is~~ -1.708 (p=0.088), indicating no significant difference between the ~~two groups (~~ experimental and control group~~)~~s.

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5. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigated investigated whether interactional feedback affected the EFL writers' writing ability to improve. In the immediate post-test, the experimental group outperformed the control group., which aligns with findings from This result is consistent with Bitchener and& Knoch (2009), where interactional feedback was shown to provedenhance to develop accuracy. PreviousPrior research has examined explored the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under evaluation, instructors—, often who are frequently researchers themselves—, explicitly ginstructed uided students ion peer review., directing them to focus on specific Such training directs students on the writing-related difficulties and providing they should pay attention to and how to offer constructive criticism. Typically, thisSuch research-based training should be straightforward and in linealigns with the goals of university writing courses, as Stanley (2012) noted with the objectives of university writing courses and the study's purpose. According to Stanley (2012)., eCoaching or training has been found to impacts how intensifely groups interactions,communicate with one another because trained groups engaging more actively thaninteract more than untrained ones. AdditionallyFurthermore,, coached ing groups offeredprovided more detailed interactional comments, contributing to improved their peers that assisted them in improving their text revision. This suggests that training made it possible for those groups to take on the tasks of evaluators. The increased more frequencyt of interactional exchanges, including pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying, indicates show the coached groups' enhanced participation in coached groups.

The cCoached learners were found to engage more actively in peer review more actively than the uncoached groups (Zhu, 2015). The coached groups were also involved inAdditionally, the taught group's negations were longer, more in-depth, and marked bymore vibrant discussions,- prolonged debates on a single subject, indicating lovelier and richer talks. Similarly,a finding corroborated by (McGroarty and& Zhu, (2017), who noted increased interaction discovered that thein trained groups regarding the number engaged more thoroughly than the untrained group, as seen by the higher number of turns and the lengthonger and of livelier exchanges. Additionally, The results of Min's (2015) study showed that training through specific instruction on peer review increased the number of helped students produce noticeably more comments that focused on clarifying, identifying, and explaining a particular issues and- providing and making recommendations on how to improve their texts. It also increased Llearners' focus attention onto comments as they made more comments on global issues also increased.

The second research question looked intoexamined the relative effect of the interactional feedback variable for on EFL students' writing. The findings results revealedindicated that six variables in the experimental group hadwith a highergreater average than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic awareness, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Interactional feedback was proved to be stimulating, motivating and students to produce longer compositionsgladly wrote larger pieces., including Not only were the students' compositions longer, but they also included drawings and graphs, which can be ascribed todemonstrating increased motivation.

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In summary, The statistical analysis revealed indicated that interactional feedback significantly influenced affect students' accuracy in new writing assignments. When comparing the rate of mistake reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment, tThe gap between the two groups in terms of error reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment increased developed over time, even ifthough 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 could 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 stagesWhen the direct determinant level of the feedback kinds supplied varies significantly, it seems more likely to expect differences in learners' ability in the initial stages than when the difference is minimal. As a result, the more similar the feedback kinds types,are, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

When cComparing Abdollahifam's (2014) study wto ith this one, it appears that treatment length may impact the study's outcomes. In Tthis study, found that the variation was insignificant in combining the first two tasks completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities are not the samediffer as theirs. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks completed by studentsthat students achieve, and the treatment durationin addition to the duration of the treatment, appears to be essential 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 discovered 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 approximatelyroughly eight months, the individualsparticipants only created produced five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise in thenthat time. Therefore, shorter-term research findings In light of the foregoing, the findings of short-term research can be more confidently applied when supported by if they are repeated by longer-term longitudinal investigations. This supports what researchers have discoveredfound in the literature, as about students wanting desire input on not only language but also content, content, and structure (Saeed et al., 2018). Written feedback can assist help students in seeingunderstand how their teachers interpret their writing and identify their strengths and flaws.

TTeachers should providedeliver feedback selectively, concentrating on crucial areas, such as recurring error chronic mistake patterns (Hardman & Bell, 2018), thereby lowering reducing the amount of input quantity and the load on teachers' workload. This approach can also lead to . Teachers will be more inclined to provide legible feedback due to this. Teachers could also investigateexplore other types of feedback, such as using feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes, such as like voice feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research could lookcan investigate into various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and how students' responses react to them in different situations.

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6. CONCLUSION

~~6.~~

This study ~~reveals~~ highlights that EFL teachers should select interactional feedback styles based on the aim for which the feedback is ~~given~~provided. More specific feedback options prove to be more effective for facilitating students' revision and enhancement of their written assignments~~To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective~~. Conversely, ~~M~~more implicit ~~types~~ forms of feedback are preferable when the aim is to aid ~~, on the other hand, will be more effective if the purpose is to help~~ learners in ~~improve~~ 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~~There are two advantages to using more implicit input in learning. Teachers can provide implicit feedback in less time. Students will be more likely to learn if revising becomes more of a problem-solving activity for them~~.

Nonetheless, ~~T~~there are certain limitations to the ~~current~~ present study. ~~F~~~~To begin with~~irstly, despite an appropriate ~~even if the~~ teacher-to-student ratio ~~was appropriate~~, the study involved a limited ~~the~~ number of teachers, making it challenging ~~who participated in this study was insufficient~~ to generalize the ~~effect~~ impact of interactional feedback across various contexts~~input~~. In addition, due to the limited ~~small~~ number of participating teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews~~, which~~ that could have provided more nuanced insights and explanations ~~detailed answers and reasons,~~ were not feasible~~possible~~. Conducting ~~S~~such in-depth interviews in future studies ~~will~~ could help researchers achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the ~~better balance the results and comprehend both~~ perspectives of both teachers and students regarding ~~in future studies on~~ differences in actual classroom input.

Moreover~~Furthermore~~, 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 written 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 ~~opportunity~~ opportunities on preferences for written interactional feedback ~~preferences~~.

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Gmail **Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com>**

[SiELE] FURTHER AMENDMENTS ON YOUR ARTICLE

5 messages

Heri Apriadi, S.Pd. <heri.apriadi@usk.ac.id> Wed, Nov 15, 2023 at 10:43 PM
To: masrulm25@gmail.com, santi.erliana@iain-palangkaraya.ac.id, sriyuliani@edu.uir.ac.id, ummirasyidah@yahoo.com, bayu_hw@umm.ac.id, melyannmelani@gmail.com

Dear **Masrul M**, **Santi Erliana**, **Sri Yuliani**, **Ummi Rasyidah**, **Bayu Hendro Wicaksono**, and **Melyann Melani**,

Thank you for submitting your article revision entitled "**The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability**". Your revision has been evaluated by one of our editors, and attached is the evaluation results of your article. Please make the revision as requested using Track Changes. If you do not agree with the suggestions given, please provide your version and provide the reason in the Comment. This revision is due on **November 20, 2023**. Please submit your revision on time so we can consider it for the upcoming publication of SiELE Journal, which is in the January 2024 issue. **Submit your revision to this email address AND ALSO upload it to the journal's OJS (login --> click on your title --> click on the menu Review --> scroll down and upload the files at Upload Author Version under Editor Decision)**. Please reply to our email once you have received it. Thank you, and we look forward to your revision.

Sincerely,
The Editors of SiELE Journal

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Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com> Thu, Nov 16, 2023 at 8:51 AM
To: "Heri Apriadi, S.Pd." <heri.apriadi@usk.ac.id>
Cc: santi.erliana@iain-palangkaraya.ac.id, Sri Yuliani <sriyuliani@edu.uir.ac.id>, Ummi Rasyidah <ummirasyidah@yahoo.com>, bayu_hw@umm.ac.id, melyannmelani@gmail.com

Well received with thanks.
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Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com> Fri, Nov 17, 2023 at 9:08 PM
To: "Heri Apriadi, S.Pd." <heri.apriadi@usk.ac.id>

Dear Editors,

This is our article revision.

Regards,
Masrul
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Heri Apriadi, S.Pd. <heri.apriadi@usk.ac.id> Fri, Nov 24, 2023 at 11:15 AM
To: Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com>

Dear **Masrul M**, **Santi Erliana**, **Sri Yuliani**, **Ummi Rasyidah**, **Bayu Hendro Wicaksono**, and **Melyann Melani**,

Thank you for submitting your article revision entitled "The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability". We will now proceed with your article to the copy-editing stage. The Chief Editor will get back to you before the end of December 2023. Please check your email from sielejournal@usk.ac.id from time to time. Thank you for your patience and cooperation.

Sincerely,
The Editors of SiELE Journal
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Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com> Fri, Nov 24, 2023 at 7:42 PM
To: "Heri Apriadi, S.Pd." <heri.apriadi@usk.ac.id>

Thank you for your information.
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The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability

Author's Name[1*] Author's Name[2] Author's Name[3]

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Abstract

This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. This study recruited 100 One hundred participants who were enrolled in an intermediate EFL course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia, were recruited for this research. The quantitative method was used employed for data analysis in this research. The primary data analysis method used was the ANCOVA test, was the primary data analysis method, followed by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests. The results revealed that dependent variables in the experimental group exhibited had higher averages compared to than the control group. The ANCOVA test showed that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) simultaneously were significantly affected addingby the addition of feedback (p=0.000). However, no significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups regarding accuracy (Wilcoxon value = -0.798, p=0.425) and writing length variables (Wilcoxon value = -0.344, p=0.731). As a result, interactional feedback significantly impactedhas a significant effect on EFL students' writing ability. This highlights the need forrequires thorough planning or 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 be prove more effective in assisting students to in revising and improveing their written assignments. Finally, this study provides valuable recommendations for further research in this field.

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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 enabling 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. (2012) have demonstrated that feedback has the most significant impact on incorrect answers compared to correct ones when it comes to 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 & 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, awareness about themselves 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 investigate descriptively 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 was used to focused on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings

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revealed that three scoring settings: (content, organization, and vocabulary) have significantly improvedsignificant changes in the post-test, whereas while language use and mechanics exhibited have no significant achievementchanges. MoreoverIn addition, consideringdue to studies of students' responsesreactions to teachers' feedback, students highly value the feedback they eventually receive on their writing errors (Ferris et al., 2013). The researcher identified numerous grammatical errors in students' writing at the State University of MalaIn the State Malang University, the researcher found that the students have many grammatical errors in writing. To address face this problemissue, the researcher employed used the interactional feedback to improve enhance students' writing ability. HenceThus, this study investigated investigates whether the impact of feedback affects on students' writing ability., It is argueingd 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.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.

2.1. Studies on Interactional Feedback

The results of three recentcurrent empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Abdollahifam, 2014), suggest that different sorts types of corrective feedback should be used dependingently on students' proficiencycompetence levels. Written corrective feedback is considered crucial for the ultimate success of writingimportant to the final construction success, and a wide range of patterns for written corrective feedback variety of written corrective feedback patterns are now availableaccessible in the literature (Bitchener, 2012; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, 2012). Direct feedback involves is when athe teacher pointsing out an error and providing gives the student the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take variousseveral forms, including eliminatingremoving 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 receiveaccept feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. In contrastcomparison, indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for identifyingdiagnosing and correcting any problems issues on their own. In most cases, four ways types of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors on in a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the fault error occurred; and (4) using a symbol to specifyindicate what the type of error is indicated (Hosseiny, 2014; Sarré et al., 2021; Hosseiny, 2014).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, areis the most commonly used technique for addressing dealing with second-language students' writing (Ferris, 2014). Indeed oOther studies suggestindicate that systematically identifying grammar errors in second 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 decision between to use direct or indirect written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of

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either form might be beneficial or detrimental~~destructive~~ depending~~based~~ on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite ~~the~~ 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 f~~discovered~~ ound no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Jamalinesari et al.~~,~~ (2015) have shown ~~that they generally~~ a preference for indirect feedback from teachers in general. Students are ~~forced~~ encouraged to engage~~participate~~ in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading ~~them~~ to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Scott & Dienes, 2010). As a result, identity and motivation can be ~~encouraged~~ fostered and developed, enabling ~~a~~ student~~s's~~ long-term growth to expand and reinforce ~~greater~~their learning. Nassaji (2015) divided participants into four groups to test the effectiveness ~~efficacy~~ of ~~several~~ various types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) ~~only~~ underlining only. The results ~~demonstrated~~ showed that the more explicit the comments, the more accurate the students' ~~adjustments~~ revisions were. W~~Using~~ hile written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicitly and implicitly corrected criticism~~. ,~~ ~~However,~~ text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

~~-~~The instructional ~~parts~~ aspects of feedback have received ~~a lot of~~significant attention. Several studies have ~~looked at~~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 ~~important~~ crucial for learning progress (Abdollahifam, 2014; Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015~~; Abdollahifam, 2014~~; Poorebrahim, 2017). On the other hand,~~Other~~ some researchers ~~, however,~~ have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy improvement ~~growth~~ (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 ~~in~~ master~~ing~~ their skills and correct~~ing~~ mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). Providing feedback on student writing is considered an essential educational practice for teachers who ~~desire~~ aim to enhance their students' writing abilities and linguistic correctness (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2019).

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), ~~W~~written c~~C~~orrective ~~F~~feedback (Poorebrahim, 2017~~; and~~ Zarifi, 2017). Because interactional feedback can be used not only in classroom activities but also in non-classroom settings such as private ~~teaching~~tutoring, language environments, and ~~through long-distance learning interactions such as using~~long-distance learning interactions such as the internet, i~~, i~~ts application requires ~~a variety~~various ~~of~~ concepts for better results, ~~as~~ considering the interactional purposes, for more effective feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017). For example, the ~~concept of~~ genre approach concept has been applied to ~~improve~~ 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 ~~prefer to receive~~ the abstract concept

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of knowledge and skills, Hua et al., (2007~~: p.1~~), which leans toward ~~tends to~~ the concept of interaction, (Seedhouse, 2007). Consequently~~As a result~~, in EFL teaching, the interactional context is used not only for situational purposes~~,~~ but ~~it~~ also has the potential to improve EFL skills, such as in academic writing and other types of studies.

~~P~~Previous~~Prior~~ research has examined the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under ~~evaluation~~review, instructors ~~who are frequently~~ often researchers explicitly instructed students on peer review. ~~Such~~ This training directed~~s~~ students on the writing-related difficulties they should ~~pay attention to~~focus on and how to offer constructive criticism. Typically, this research-based training ~~should be straightforward and in line~~ aligned with the objectives of university writing courses and the study's purpose. For instance, according to ~~According to~~ Stanley (2012), ~~for instance,~~ coaching or training influenced~~impacted~~ ~~how~~ the ~~intensely~~ intensity of groups' ~~communicate~~ communication, as ~~with one another because~~ trained groups engaged in more interaction than untrained ones. Additionally, trained~~coaching~~ groups provided more detailed interactional comments to their peers, which ~~that assisted~~aided them in improving their text revision. This finding suggests that training ~~made~~ enabled~~it possible for~~ those groups to assume the roles of ~~to take on the tasks of~~ evaluators. The frequent interactional exchanges (pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying) are indicators~~signs~~ of the coached groups' enhanced engagement~~participation~~.

3. METHOD

~~3.~~

~~3. 1~~ 3.1. Research Method

This study ~~strategy~~ employed ~~quantitative research~~quantitative research to systematically~~methodically~~ and precisely compute the data from the research findings using statistical measures. ~~The preparation of quantitative techniques is carried out~~Quantitative techniques are prepared methodically and comprehensively, commencing with the research concept and culminating in the study's outcomes (Siyoto & Sodik, 2015).

The researcher employed an experimental design in this quantitative study to explore the influence of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. 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.

~~Pre-test-and-post-test-group-designs~~There are ~~the~~ two basic ~~forms of~~ 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 ~~employed~~ used in a quasi-experimental design (Creswell, 2003).

This study compared~~contrasted~~ the experimental (X) and control (Y) groups. The control group is a class that does not use interactional feedback to provide feedback, while ~~an~~ the experimental group is the class that ~~provided~~ provides the interactional feedback. The experimental and control groups were recruited from separate classes or students.

3.2. ~~-~~Participants

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~~3. 2~~

This study involved 100 students enrolled in an intermediate English language course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. These ~~S~~students' writing skills were improved by incorporating ~~them into~~ 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 came 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

~~3. 3~~

The research ~~procedure of the research used~~involved pre-test, treatment, and post-test. This research was conducted ~~for~~ over two months, from March ~~until~~ to April. ~~This research conducted~~ comprising eight meetings. ~~,~~ The meetings included ~~consisting of~~ one ~~meeting for~~ pre-test session each for ~~in~~ the experimental and control group~~, six meetings for treatment in the experimental class, and one meeting for post-test~~ s, six treatment sessions in the experimental class, and one post-test session for ~~in~~ the experimental and control groups.

~~In the experiment group, students were instructed to create four pieces of writing~~writing pieces throughout the semester~~. T~~ The treatment in each of the six meetings ~~, one unit was~~ covered and practiced ~~for~~ one unit for each composition. Themes were also ~~created~~ designed to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. At each meeting, ~~The~~ the students ~~writings~~ were ~~all classified homework assignments at each meeting, the student was~~ given interactional feedback as a treatment. In contrast,~~However,~~ ~~in~~ the control class~~,~~ did not receive this treatment~~are not given the treatment~~.

3.4. Data collection

~~3. 4~~

The research instrument ~~used w~~of the research ~~i~~as an~~used~~ essay writing test. Students were instructed to compose a free ~~composition~~ essay ~~at the end of the course concerning the subjects mentioned in their course books~~on subjects mentioned in their course books at the end of the course for the final assignment, which was~~.~~ ~~This is~~ part of their final exam, and were allocated ~~, and the writing segment was given~~ 40 points. Topics were controlled to elicit ~~in such a way that~~ conditional structures ~~were elicited~~. Each student's ~~composition~~ essay was also assessed~~counted~~ in terms of word counts~~.~~ Students ~~must~~ were required to write~~compose~~ a 150-word essay~~composition~~ on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. Using a ~~On 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~~,~~ (2017) and ~~(~~Boggs (~~,~~2019). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and 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,

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paragraphs, or passages). In this study, ~~L~~local and global concerns ~~in this study~~ could receive either direct feedback (in the form of reformulations) or indirect feedback (circling/underlining codes or comments).

3.5. ~~3. 5~~ Data analysis and scoring

Writing tests were administered to the class, consisting of pre-test and post-test, to ~~determine~~ assess students' recount text writing skills before and after the treatment. The scoring rubric was used to assess the dependent variable of students' writing.

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 w~~i~~hen the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis~~. It is~~ 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~~ categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative ~~data~~ or ordinal data. Mean~~W~~while, numerical data is data in numbers or can ~~also~~ be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

Subsequently, ~~T~~the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were ~~then carried out~~conducted. The Wilcoxon ~~test (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic~~(sign test) is a non-parametric statistic~~,~~ with ~~the~~ ~~data using~~ nominal and ordinal scale~~s~~ data. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine ~~a~~ relationship~~s~~. ~~The Wilcoxon test is another alternative to the t test for paired data (t paired); in the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before testing~~. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups w~~if the dependent variable~~ hen 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~~If~~ the data is interval or ratio because the distribution is ab~~, the distribution is not~~ normal. ~~The Mann-Whitney test is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the assumption of normality is not met. However, despite the non-parametric form of the independent t-test, the Mann-Whitney U-test does not test the difference in the mean of the two groups like the independent t-test. Instead, it examines the difference in the median of the two groups.~~

4. ~~4.~~ RESULT

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

4.1. ~~4.1~~ Descriptive Statistics

~~Statistics is~~ Statistics is a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be in the form of

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data tendency (such as mean, mode, and median) and data distribution (such as standard deviation and variance). ~~a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be in the form of data tendency (mean, mode, median, etc.) and data distribution (standard deviation, variance, etc.).~~ Table 1 presents the mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study~~The mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study are presented in Table 1~~.

Table 1. 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	Pronunciation	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 1 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 pronunciation.

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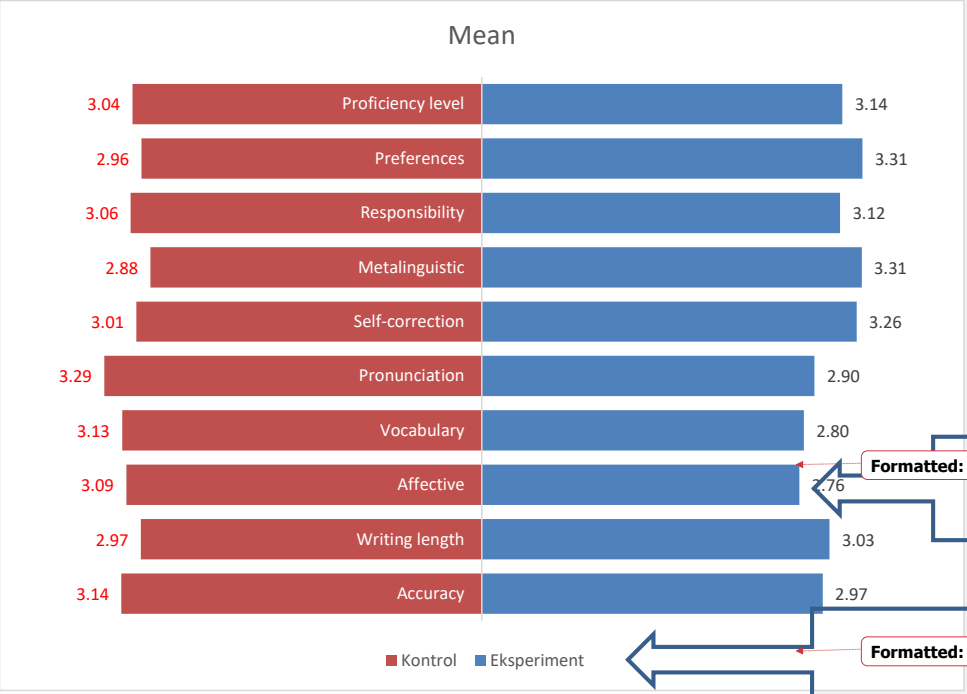

Figure 1. Mean per variable

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~~4~~3.2. 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 can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. The results of the ANCOVA

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

Intercept	150.041	0.000
Effectiveness	75.372	0.000
Treatment	0.018	0.894

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~~Corrected model tests are the influence values of all independent variables simultaneously or together on the dependent variable.~~ Table 1 displays~~shows~~ the results of the ANCOVA test~~.~~, including the corrected model tests, w~~I~~hich show~~s~~ 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 ~~or simultaneously~~ have a significant effect on interactional feedback (p=0.000).

The Intercept value represents~~shows~~ how much the interactional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates and independent variables ~~or independent variables~~. The independent variable in this research was interactional feedback, and the dependent variable ~~of the research~~ was writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness. The results ~~of Table 1~~ 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, ~~either~~ 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~~s~~ for all dependent variables result~~s~~ is 0.000. Concluding that~~Hence~~, ~~it is concluded that the dependent variable~~ writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness partially significantly influence interactional feedback. As for ~~While for~~ the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all ~~of the~~ significance values were above 0.05~~; thus,~~, indicating that ~~it can be concluded that~~ the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the interactional feedback. The ~~value of the~~ goodness of estimation, indicated by ~~in each ANCOVA test is indicated by~~ R^2 in each ANCOVA test, ~~. The R2 for the writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness~~ is 46.3% for writing length, 41.9% for accuracy, and 43.3% for effectiveness~~46.3%, 41.9%, and 43.3%, respectively~~.

~~4~~3.3. Wilcoxon Test

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The Wilcoxon test, conducted on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables, is an alternative to the t-test for paired data, and the ~~is another alternative to the t-test for paired data (t-paired. In the Wilcoxon test, the data must be ranked before being carried out for testing. In this study, the Wilcoxon test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Wilcoxon test~~ results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Wilcoxon test results

Item	Accuracy	Writing length	Effectiveness
Negative Ranks	22	27	21
Positive Ranks	24	21	27
Ties	4	2	2
Test Wilcoxon Signed Ranks	-0.798	-0.344	-1.565

Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.425	0.731	0.118

Negative ranks mean ~~that~~ the sample with the ~~value of the second group (control)~~second group (control) value is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the ~~value of the second group (control)~~second group (control) value higher than the first group (experiment). ~~While~~ In contrast, Ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to ~~to~~ the ~~value~~at of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, ~~there are 22 samples~~22 samples 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~~; hence, it is concluded that~~ there is no ~~experimental and the control groups are not~~ significant~~ly~~ difference~~t~~ between the experimental and control groups for the accuracy variable. For the ~~In the~~ writing length variable, 27 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 21 Positive Ranks, and 2 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 (p=0.731), indicating~~; thus, no, it is concluded that the experimental and the control groups are not~~ significant~~ly~~ difference between~~t~~ the experimental and control groups for the variable writing length. In the effectiveness variable, 21 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 27 Positive Ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 (p=0.118), concluding that~~ and it is concluded~~ there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups~~that the experimental and the control groups are not significantly different~~ for the effectiveness variable.

3.4. Mann-Whitney Test

~~Test Mann-Whitney is a non-parametric test option if the independent T-test cannot be performed because the normality assumption is not met. In this study, t~~The Mann-Whitney test ~~was~~ was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Mann-Whitney test began by describing the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

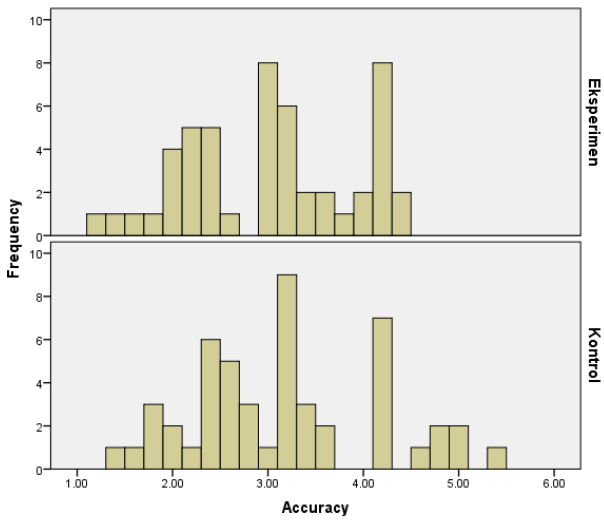

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Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy

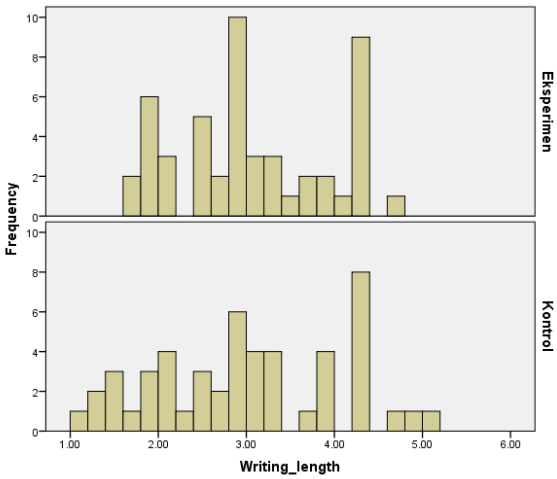

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length

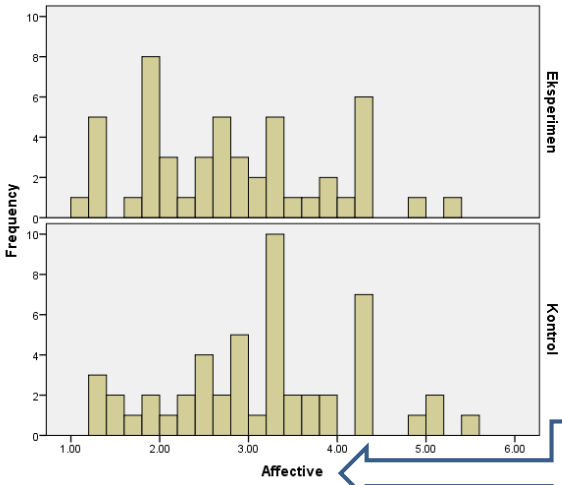

Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness

Figures 2, 3~~ and 4 show the difference in the data distribution in the experiment and control groups~~, 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 c~~arried out to ascertain whether the variance in each group (experimental and control) was different~~onducted to ascertain whether the variance in each group (experimental and control) differed.

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Table 4. 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.

Table 4 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 5. 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 5 shows ~~a~~the U and W values ~~of 1.142 and a W value of 2.417~~ for the accuracy variable. The Z value is ~~When converted to a Z value, the amount is~~ -0.746 (p=0.455), indicating no significant difference between the experimental and control groups~~the two groups (experimental and control)~~.

The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496, resulting in ~~. When converted to~~ a Z value~~, the amount is~~ of -0.201 (p=0.841), ~~and it can be~~ concluding~~ed~~ that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups.~~the two groups (experimental and control).~~

For the effectiveness variable, the U value is 1.003, and the W value is 2.278, ~~:~~ with a Z value of ~~When converted to a Z value, the amount is~~ -1.708 (p=0.088), indicating no significant difference between the ~~two groups (~~ experimental and control group~~)~~s.

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5. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigated investigated whether interactional feedback affected the EFL writers' writing ability to improve. In the immediate post-test, the experimental group outperformed the control group., which aligns with findings from This result is consistent with Bitchener and& Knoch (2009), where interactional feedback was shown to provedenhance to develop accuracy. PreviousPrior research has examined explored the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under evaluation, instructors—, often who are frequently researchers themselves—, explicitly ginstructed uided students ion peer review., directing them to focus on specific Such training directs students on the writing-related difficulties and providing they should pay attention to and how to offer constructive criticism. Typically, thisSuch research-based training should be straightforward and in linealigns with the goals of university writing courses, as Stanley (2012) noted with the objectives of university writing courses and the study's purpose. According to Stanley (2012)., eCoaching or training has been found to impacts how intensifely groups interactions,communicate with one another because trained groups engaging more actively thaninteract more than untrained ones. AdditionallyFurthermore,, coached ing groups offeredprovided more detailed interactional comments, contributing to improved their peers that assisted them in improving their text revision. This suggests that training made it possible for those groups to take on the tasks of evaluators. The increased more frequencyt of interactional exchanges, including pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying, indicates show the coached groups' enhanced participation in coached groups.

The cCoached learners were found to engage more actively in peer review more actively than the uncoached groups (Zhu, 2015). The coached groups were also involved inAdditionally, the taught group's negations were longer, more in-depth, and marked bymore vibrant discussions,- prolonged debates on a single subject, indicating lovelier and richer talks. Similarly,a finding corroborated by (McGroarty and& Zhu, (2017), who noted increased interaction discovered that thein trained groups regarding the number engaged more thoroughly than the untrained group, as seen by the higher number of turns and the lengthonger and of livelier exchanges. Additionally, The results of Min's (2015) study showed that training through specific instruction on peer review increased the number of helped students produce noticeably more comments that focused on clarifying, identifying, and explaining a particular issues and- providing and making recommendations on how to improve their texts. It also increased Llearners' focus attention onto comments as they made more comments on global issues also increased.

The second research question looked intoexamined the relative effect of the interactional feedback variable for on EFL students' writing. The findings results revealedindicated that six variables in the experimental group hadwith a highergreater average than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic awareness, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Interactional feedback was proved to be stimulating, motivating and students to produce longer compositionsgladly wrote larger pieces., including Not only were the students' compositions longer, but they also included drawings and graphs, which can be ascribed todemonstrating increased motivation.

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In summary, The statistical analysis revealed indicated that interactional feedback significantly influenced affect students' accuracy in new writing assignments. When comparing the rate of mistake reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment, tThe gap between the two groups in terms of error reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment increased developed over time, even ifthough 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 could 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 stagesWhen the direct determinant level of the feedback kinds supplied varies significantly, it seems more likely to expect differences in learners' ability in the initial stages than when the difference is minimal. As a result, the more similar the feedback kinds types,are, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

When cComparing Abdollahifam's (2014) study wto ith this one, it appears that treatment length may impact the study's outcomes. In Tthis study, found that the variation was insignificant in combining the first two tasks completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities are not the samediffer as theirs. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks completed by studentsthat students achieve, and the treatment durationin addition to the duration of the treatment, appears to be essential 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 discovered 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 approximatelyroughly eight months, the individualsparticipants only created produced five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise in thenthat time. Therefore, shorter-term research findings In light of the foregoing, the findings of short-term research can be more confidently applied when supported by if they are repeated by longer-term longitudinal investigations. This supports what researchers have discoveredfound in the literature, as about students wanting desire input on not only language but also content, content, and structure (Saeed et al., 2018). Written feedback can assist help students in seeingunderstand how their teachers interpret their writing and identify their strengths and flaws.

TTeachers should providedeliver feedback selectively, concentrating on crucial areas, such as recurring error chronic mistake patterns (Hardman & Bell, 2018), thereby lowering reducing the amount of input quantity and the load on teachers' workload. This approach can also lead to . Teachers will be more inclined to provide legible feedback due to this. Teachers could also investigateexplore other types of feedback, such as using feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes, such as like voice feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research could lookcan investigate into various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and how students' responses react to them in different situations.

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6. CONCLUSION

~~6.~~

This study ~~reveals~~ highlights that EFL teachers should select interactional feedback styles based on the aim for which the feedback is ~~given~~provided. More specific feedback options prove to be more effective for facilitating students' revision and enhancement of their written assignments~~To help students modify and update their written assignments, more specific feedback options are more effective~~. Conversely, ~~M~~more implicit ~~types~~ forms of feedback are preferable when the aim is to aid ~~, on the other hand, will be more effective if the purpose is to help~~ learners in ~~improve~~ 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~~There are two advantages to using more implicit input in learning. Teachers can provide implicit feedback in less time. Students will be more likely to learn if revising becomes more of a problem-solving activity for them~~.

Nonetheless, ~~T~~there are certain limitations to the ~~current~~ present study. F~~To begin with~~irstly, despite an appropriate ~~even if the~~ teacher-to-student ratio ~~was appropriate~~, the study involved a limited ~~the~~ number of teachers, making it challenging ~~who participated in this study was insufficient~~ to generalize the ~~effect~~ impact of interactional feedback across various contexts~~input~~. In addition, due to the limited ~~small~~ number of participating teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews~~, which~~ that could have provided more nuanced insights and explanations ~~detailed answers and reasons,~~ were not feasible~~possible~~. Conducting ~~S~~such in-depth interviews in future studies ~~will~~ could help researchers achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the ~~better balance the results and comprehend both~~ perspectives of both teachers and students regarding ~~in future studies on~~ differences in actual classroom input.

Moreover~~Furthermore~~, 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 written 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 ~~opportunity~~ opportunities on preferences for written interactional feedback ~~preferences~~.

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The Effect of Interactional Feedback on EFL Students' Writing Ability

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Abstract

This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. 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 revealed that dependent variables in the experimental group exhibited higher averages compared to the control group. The ANCOVA test showed 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 accuracy (Wilcoxon value = -0.798, p=0.425) and writing length variables (Wilcoxon value = -0.344, p=0.731). As a result, interactional feedback significantly impacted EFL students' writing ability. This 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

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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 enabling 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. (2012) have demonstrated that feedback has the most significant impact on incorrect answers compared to correct ones when it comes to 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 the 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 in 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, 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 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 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 abilities and linguistic correctness (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 learning theory, there are also several models. For instance, feedback in learning theory plays a crucial role. In the context of learning, interactional feedback involves providing feedback from the teacher to the 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).

Interactional feedback 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), 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 ones. 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 measures. Quantitative techniques are prepared methodically and comprehensively, commencing with the research concept and culminating in the study's outcomes (Siyoto & Sodik, 2015).

The researcher employed an experimental design in this quantitative study to explore the influence of interactional feedback on students' writing abilities. 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).

This study compared the experimental (X) and control (Y) 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 came 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, 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 mentioned 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 (2017) and Boggs (2019). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and capitalization).

Table 1. Categorized 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 was used to assess the dependent variable of students' writing.

Table 2. 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	Good use of vocabulary with some variety, contributing	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.

	to enhance the recount.	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.
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.

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 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 abnormal.

4. RESULT

Intermediate EFL students at State Malang University participated in this study from March to April. The researcher 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 in the form of data tendency (such as mean, mode, and median) and data distribution (such as standard deviation and variance). Table 1 presents the mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study.

Table 3. 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 1 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.

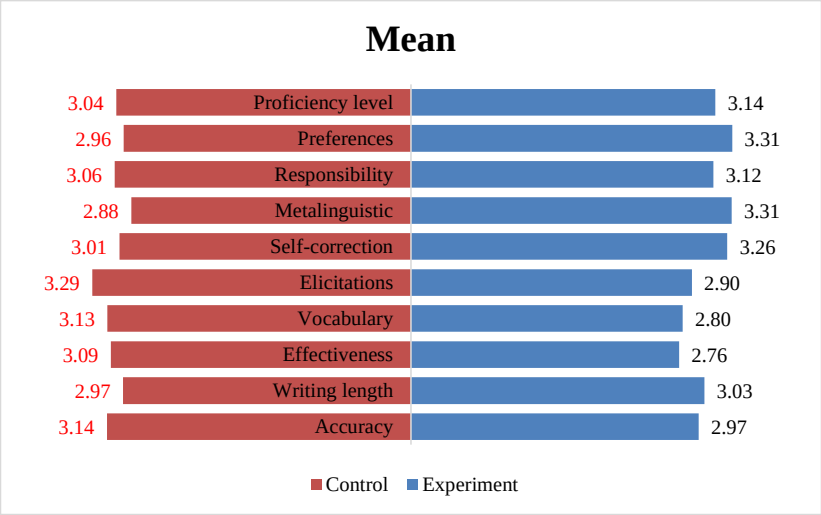

Figure 1. Mean per variable

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 can be seen in Table 2.

Table 4. 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 1 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 and 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 above 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 3.

Table 5. 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 samples 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 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 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 samples belong to the Negative Rank, 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.

3.4. Mann-Whitney Test

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

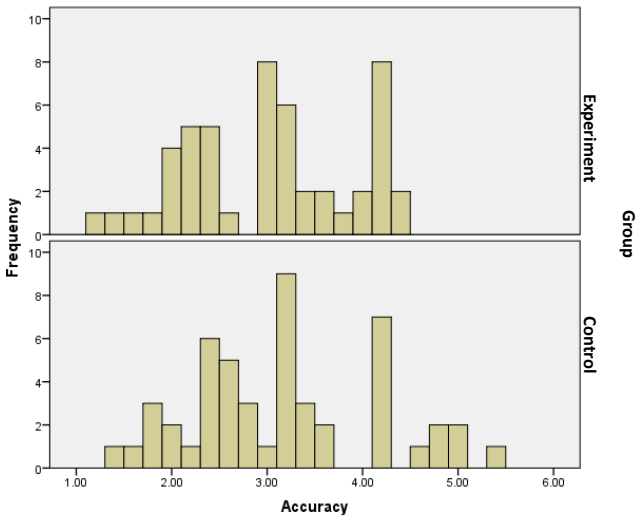

Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy

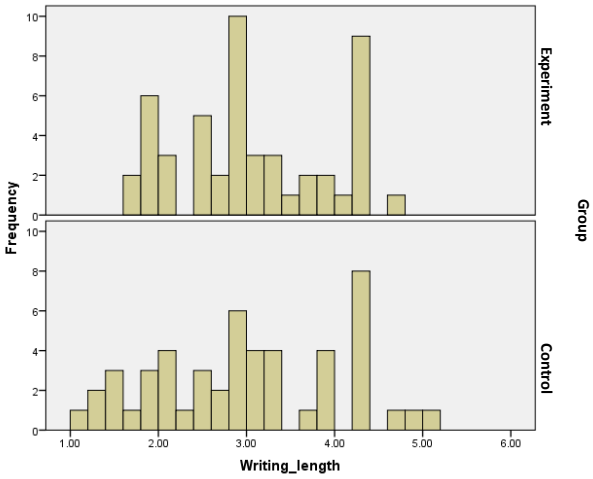

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length

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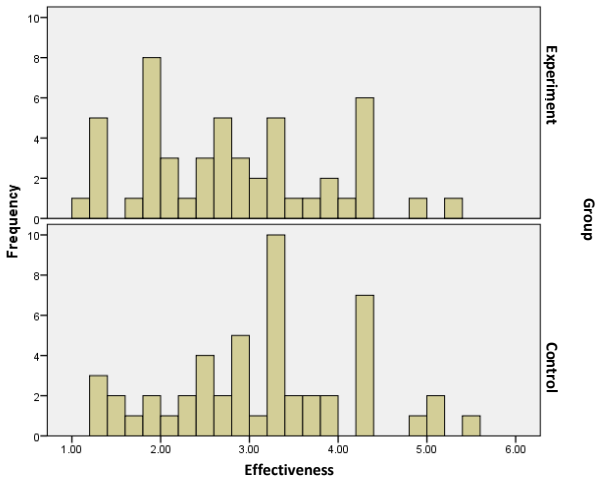

Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness

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 6. 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 4 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 7. 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 5 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 investigated 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.

Coached learners were found to engage more actively in peer review than uncoached 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 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 examined the relative effect of the interactional feedback variable on EFL students' writing. The results indicated 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 indicated 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 this one, treatment length may impact the study's outcomes. In this study, the variation was insignificant in the first two tasks completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities differ. 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 written 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.

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Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com>

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SiELE Journal Unsyiah <sielejournal@usk.ac.id> Mon, Nov 27, 2023 at 4:13 PM
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[5]Universitas Pasir Pengaraian, Riau, INDONESIA
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Date of Signing: December 5, 2023

Gmail **Masrul Masrul <masrulm25@gmail.com>**

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

Masrul[*1]
Bayu Hendro Wicaksono[2]
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[1]Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Pahlawan Tuanku Tambusai, Riau, INDONESIA
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[5]Department 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

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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 202x, 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.

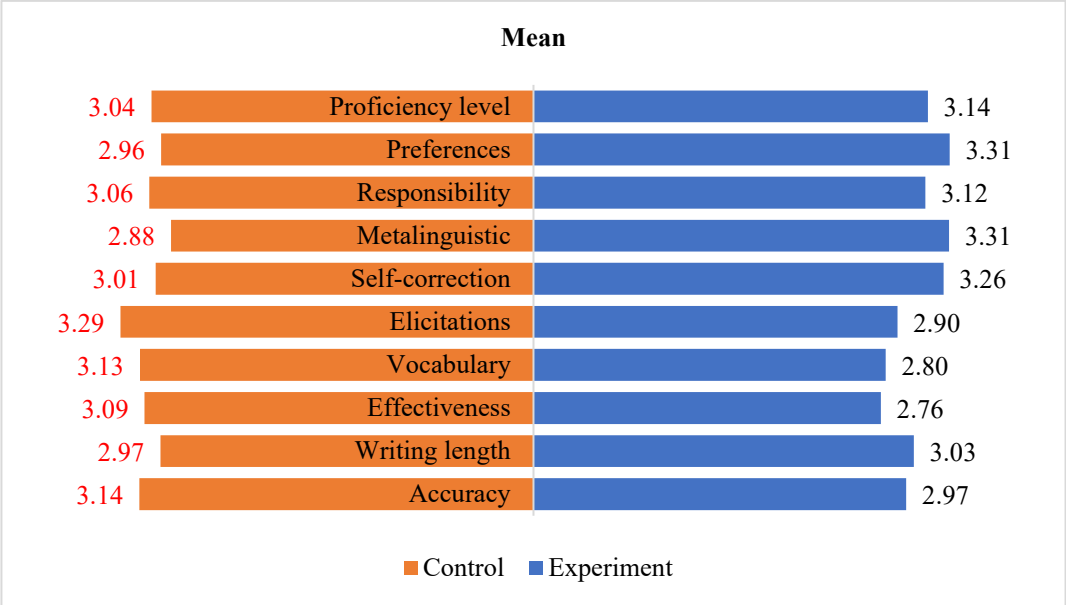

Figure 1. Mean per variable.

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.

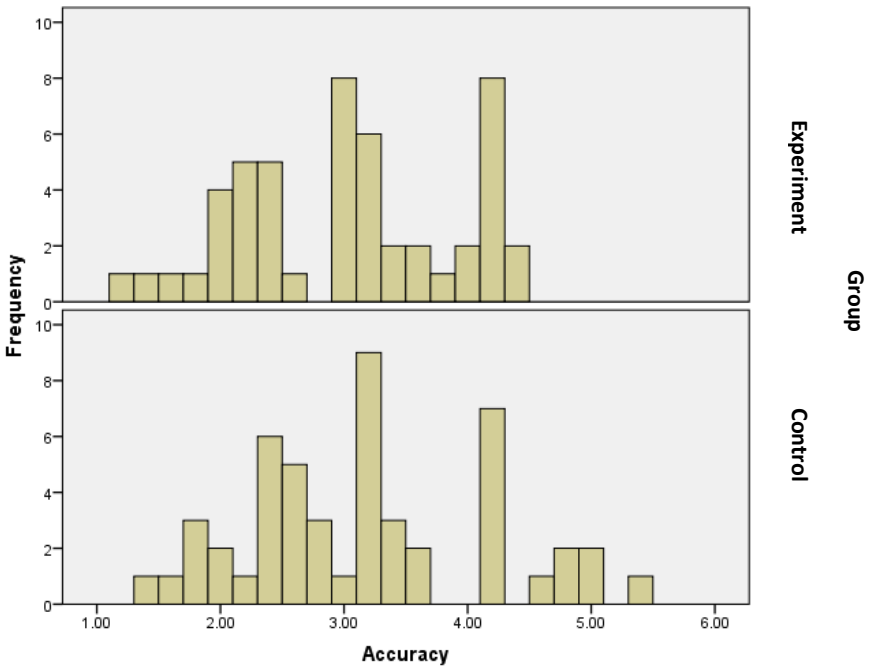

Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy.

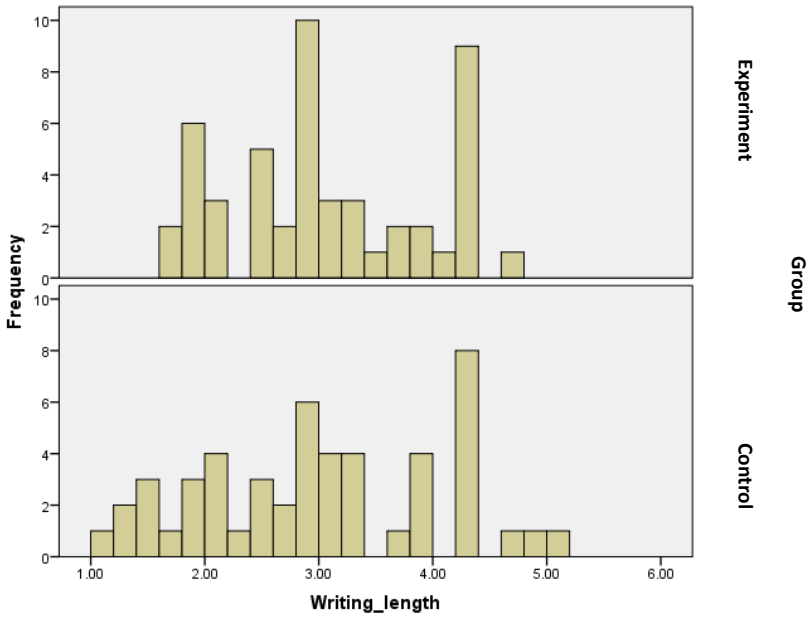

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length.

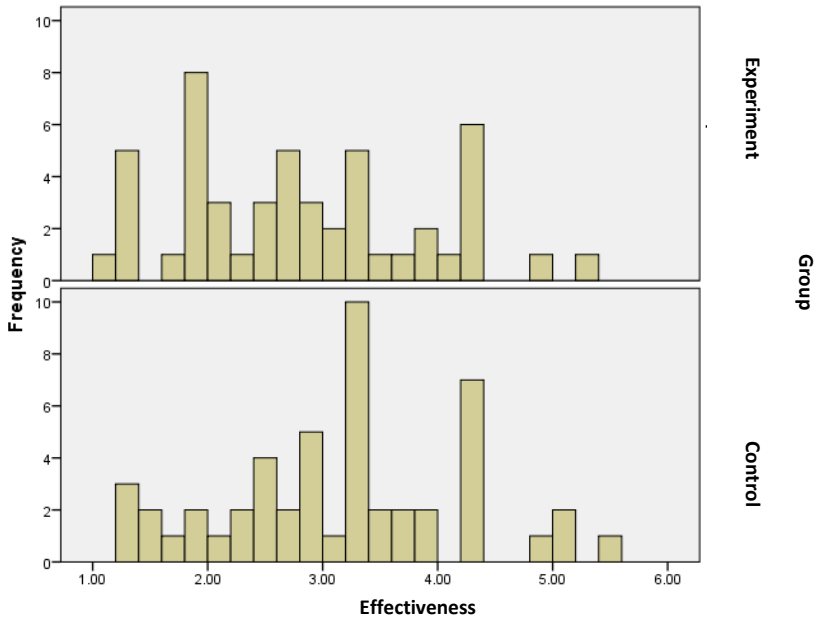

Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness.

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.

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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.