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Implementation of Constructive Written Feedback and Constructive Video Feedback on Writing Performance of Undergraduate Learners

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Abstract

Providing constructive feedback in writing classes is academically fruitful, and integrating technology into the feedback process has added value. However, there have been few comparisons of video constructive feedback and written constructive feedback. For this purpose, a quasi-experimental study was conducted with 45 male and female intermediate students at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences (UTAS) in Shinas, Oman. The population were grouped into two experimental and one control group. Of the two experimental groups, one received constructive written feedback, while the other received constructive video feedback. The control group feedback was not either of the ones used for the experimental groups. After six treatment sessions, to measure the effect of constructive written and video feedback, a writing post-test was administered to students from all three groups, and the pre-test and post-test writing scores were compared. An independent-sample Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to compare the groups' writing scores and to detect differences between the effects of the two feedback types., Students' improvement in post-test writing scores was evident when they used constructive video feedback. Although both experimental groups showed the benefits of using constructive feedback, integrating video into the process of giving constructive feedback resulted in a statistically more significant improvement in the post-test results of the students.

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Practitioner Notes

1. When incorporating feedback into writing classes, practitioners should consider using video feedback as it significantly enhances students' writing performance more than written feedback alone.
2. Constructive feedback, whether written or video-based, should focus on positive aspects and areas for improvement, supporting learner autonomy and continuous revision.
3. Video feedback engages students more interactively and personally, making it a valuable tool for fostering deeper comprehension and motivation in writing tasks.
4. Teachers should balance video feedback length and quality to maintain student attention and ensure clear communication for effective learning outcomes.
5. Educational institutions are encouraged to integrate and support technological platforms that facilitate timely and accessible video feedback to maximize learner engagement and improvement.

Keywords

Written Feedback, Video Feedback, Writing Skills

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Introduction

Effective skill acquisition and academic advancement in language education have long been acknowledged as a reliance on feedback. The definition of feedback has recently evolved to encompass interactive, scaffolded strategies that support student autonomy and involvement in addition to conventional remedial actions (Zargaran, 2025). Feedback is now viewed as a dynamic process that bridges the gap between students' stated goals and their current level of ability, thereby promoting self-regulation and continuous improvement. This shift highlights the importance of providing quick, focused, and goal-oriented feedback, aligning with broader advancements in research on second language learning and educational psychology (Gan, 2020).

In writing seminars, comments are important. Writing is a sophisticated skill that requires constant iterations of drafting, editing, and concept refinement. Constructive comments help students identify areas of strength and weakness in their work, allowing them to edit and improve their performance over time. Research shows the importance of feedback loops within the writing process, in which formative comments embedded throughout the drafting stages encourage reflection and change, thereby improving outcomes. Students risk making repetitive mistakes or misguided efforts without sufficient feedback, which hinders their growth in writing skills (Elashri, 2013).

According to Hattie (2009), feedback is a crucial aspect of achieving academically better performance. Consequently, educators should regard feedback as a critical component of pedagogy. Shadiev and Yang (2020) describe feedback as information provided to a learner regarding their progress. It should provide details regarding the students' accomplishments and the intended learning objectives. Additionally, students are expected to identify areas for improvement and make an effort to achieve the learning objectives.

Writing courses employ various types of comments to cater to diverse learning needs. These include **directive feedback**, which offers specific instructions for improvement; **corrective feedback**, which immediately points out mistakes; **interactive feedback**, which encourages conversation between teacher and student; and **evaluative feedback**, which provides opinions on overall performance. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated to be very helpful in directing pupils toward improved performance, as **formative feedback** is ingrained within the writing process. Technological developments have made **video-based feedback** a creative alternative to conventional written remarks, allowing teachers and students to communicate more personally and dynamically (Elashri, 2013).

Using feedback in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing context has been a concern of numerous studies. In the realm of pedagogical perspectives on teaching writing, giving feedback can be approached through several methods, with written feedback being the primary technique. Teachers typically use written feedback to inform students about their progress in writing. From another perspective, providing students with feedback can target specific corrective aspects of the writing or maintain a wholly constructive approach. In this study, the researcher's focal attention has been on three main concepts: constructive feedback, written feedback, and video feedback.

Constructive Feedback

Constructive feedback, comments on academic achievement provided by classmates, professors, or oneself, aims to help students recognise areas for improvement and support them in their growth. It encompasses comments, clarifications, helpful criticism, and reflections on both the positive and negative aspects of language creation, including fluency, accuracy, and complexity in speaking or writing (Kloss & Quintanilla, 2024). A crucial element of formative assessment is the provision of constructive feedback, which motivates and keeps learners occupied in their work (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Hattie, 2009; Brookhart, 2017; Reddy, 2019). Constructive feedback has the potential to enhance teaching and learning outcomes, as well as contribute to individual satisfaction (Ghazali et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2019). Toit (2012) further defines constructive feedback as prompt, precise, constructive, outcome-oriented, encouraging, supportive, and positive. Students should be provided with constructive feedback that is both feasible and not overwhelming (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Shute, 2008).

The importance of receiving constructive feedback is not denied. It can enhance students' depth of understanding and provide them with an academic insight into how to view both sides of their writing ability, including its positive and negative aspects. Ahmad (2013) reported that students' academic results and interpersonal skills are enhanced when they receive instant, constructive feedback, which reduces distance, increases closeness, reflects liking and affection, and enhances sensory simulations between communicators. Additionally, prompt constructive feedback facilitates students' retention of learned materials, increases enrolment in the same course, promotes institutional integration, and increases the percentage of students who complete their degree programs (LeFebvre & Allen, 2014). Prompt constructive feedback in the workplace enables employees to promptly comprehend and implement more effective task strategies, enhancing their overall performance (Kuvaas et al., 2016).

Written Feedback

Written corrective feedback is one of the conventional albeit practical ways to enhance students' writing performance (Dewi et al., 2023). It is also used as an indicator of students' academic achievement and teachers' instructional effectiveness (Wang et al., 2023). Glenn and Goldthwaite (2014) state that written feedback on a student's written work indicates that the instructor has carefully reviewed the student's work. Instructors must thoroughly examine each sentence and word that students compose to provide written feedback. By reviewing the feedback provided, students feel a sense of pride upon learning that the instructor has taken the time to read their writing. Despite the large number of errors, positive feedback will be crucial because students will not be deterred from writing if they observe it. They will be motivated to revise and modify their work while soliciting additional instructor feedback. According to Bitchener (2008), rectifying an error in a student's writing assignment is advantageous because it temporarily and permanently enhances the student's language accuracy. Students are more likely to retain corrections they receive in written form rather than solely receiving verbal notifications of their errors. The students may repeat the error once or twice more, but ultimately, they will bear in mind that specific error and resolve to avoid its recurrence. In this regard, Ferris (2003) states that students who receive both negative and positive feedback tend to show increased motivation to write. Students who receive only negative feedback on their submitted essays will likely abandon the writing process.

Grammar corrections are the most effective form of feedback. Most instructors are eager to rectify their students' grammatical errors, as this is the initial aspect that captures their attention. Education professionals believe that failing to rectify their students' mistakes and permitting them to persist in making grammatical errors is unethical. Corcoran et al. (2014) state that written feedback helps students to identify their strong and weak aspects when provided with feedback on their essays. It will empower the pupils to correct their errors and prevent the recurrence of similar blunders. Students believe that while their teacher corrects their essays and provides feedback describing their errors, they learn more effectively and are less likely to repeat the errors in the future.

Additionally, the research (Hattie & Timperley, 2007) revealed that students' grades improved by 20% due to the constructive criticism provided by their instructors. It demonstrates the significance of providing feedback, as pupils can recognize and rectify their errors before completing the product. Feedback can serve as a formative assessment tool to assist students in their educational development. In contrast to their initial level of comprehension, it will also help students achieve their writing objectives (Kingston & Nash, 2011).

Video Feedback

Video feedback is a procedure in which instructors and students utilize one of the numerous programs that facilitates communication outside the classroom via computers and the Internet. Learners submit their writing assignments to their instructors, who, upon receiving the work, can annotate it with screen captions and errors, record their voices through computer-connected microphones, and provide learners with any necessary corrections via video feedback software. Students can access and review video feedback on their writings from any location and at any time, just as they would in a traditional classroom setting with their instructors (Stannard, 2016). Teachers may make additional corrections without requiring students to write them down and discuss the grammatical errors, concepts covered, and the essay's structure, thereby facilitating students' comprehension and error correction (Armaghan, 2016).

In the context of EFL writing, multimodal feedback has emerged as a subject of interest for numerous academicians due to technological advancements. Inadequacies in written feedback prompted educators to consider utilizing technology's various feedback modalities. The proliferation of audio and video technologies has facilitated greater accessibility to screen-casting technology within the educational realm (Cunningham, 2019). Technology-enhanced feedback, which includes audio or videos, effectively integrates written feedback and conferencing (Hyland, 2003). Moreover, it transcends temporal and spatial limitations, enabling learners to access and review the material at their leisure and as a portfolio to monitor their progress. Although audio feedback can enhance students' writing, the utilization of screencasts, which involve the dissemination of video recordings capturing on-screen activities and accompanying comments, has become increasingly prevalent in educational research as a method to deliver visual feedback on students' written work (Mann, 2015; Séror, 2012; Silva, 2012).

Writing feedback is typically carried out as an individual correction technique because it can enhance the effectiveness of the feedback related to each student's writing issues and needs. Accordingly, Bitchener et al. (2005) argue that the most effective corrective feedback is provided through private conferences with students; however, this method can be challenging to arrange,

particularly for larger classes (Butler, 2011). While utilizing correction symbols can potentially help instructors save time, it can also present challenges due to their susceptibility to misunderstanding, particularly among students with lower proficiency levels (Séror, 2012).

In this vein, Crook et al. (2012) presented the results of a newly conducted research initiative that sought to assess the attitudes of both instructors and students toward video feedback. The results of the study indicated that most pupils considered video feedback more motivating than written feedback and relished receiving video addresses. Furthermore, they actively participated in the video feedback process, with most respondents reviewing their video comments when revising their papers. Séror's (2012) study not only recounts the experience of an instructor of second language writing who utilises video feedback, deliberating on its benefits and drawbacks, but also presents the students' perspectives on video feedback. While there is an increasing interest in the potential of screen-capture videos to provide written feedback and to assist in understanding how learners interact with writing beyond the classroom environment (Séror, 2013; Crook et al., 2012; Séror, 2012; Stannard, 2008; Thompson & Lee, 2012), previous research has primarily examined students' perspectives on video feedback.

Students’ writing achievements are evidenced to improve if presented via video format feedback. Elola and Oskoz (2016) contend that students achieve a greater success rate in local revision when they receive video feedback. According to their research, video feedback has the potential to be efficacious in facilitating revision and rectifying linguistic errors. Although screencast video feedback is interactive and intimate, it provides EFL writers with greater comfort than face-to-face situations due to the social aspect of the instructor created by the letter (Vincelette & Bostic, 2013).

There has been a growing demand among researchers in recent years for feedback studies to place more emphasis on context. It entails conducting research that examines feedback within the entire educational setting and the learner's role in interpreting and utilising feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2019). Parr and Timperley (2010) propose that scholarly investigations should scrutinise the interactive and contextual characteristics of responses or efforts that assess responses in connection with writing outcomes. However, examining the effect of video feedback and comparing its impact with that of constructive written feedback provides a new lens through which to consider how the benefits of constructive feedback can outweigh educational outcomes.

Studies on the efficacy of written and oral corrective feedback in language learning environments have primarily focused on conventional means of delivery without investigating the relative influence of new technological approaches. However, much research has been done on these aspects. Particularly, the use of constructive video feedback in writing courses has received little study (Van der Kleij, 2019). Furthermore, the integration of technology into feedback processes has introduced innovative methods, such as video feedback, which offer dynamic and personalised ways to engage learners. Although video feedback has been shown to increase interest and provide more contextual cues than written criticism (Van der Kleij, 2019), its direct comparison with constructive written feedback regarding the development of writing proficiency has not been fully addressed. This disparity highlights the need for empirical studies on the formation of various feedback forms for students' general performance and writing scores.

Literature Review

Written feedback to enhance learners' writing performance in the EFL context has developed countless evidence in the related research area. In a study, Razali and Jupri (2014) investigate the impact of written feedback from instructors on the writing of undergraduates enrolled in English as a Second Language (L2) course at the University Malaysia Perlis. A combined method research design was employed to gather the necessary data. The questionnaire served as the primary tool utilized for data collection. The results of their research indicated that written feedback from instructors improved the writing abilities of their pupils.

Similarly, Baghzou (2011) conducted a study to investigate the impact of incorporating written feedback on students' writing proficiency. The researcher employed an experimental design in which sixty second-year students from the University of Klendela in Algeria were randomly assigned to groups. A pretest was administered to both groups under identical conditions. The experimental group received written feedback on a writing assignment, whereas the control group did not receive any written feedback. A post-test was administered to compare the outcomes of the two groups. The results showed that a notable distinction existed between the experimental group and the control group. The written feedback yielded favourable outcomes in enhancing the students' writing proficiency.

The integration of technology in writing classes has introduced screen casting, video conferencing, and video feedback. The number of research studies conducted by scholars with a similar research focus is not uncommon. Alvira (2016) utilised a Web 2.0 tool called screen casting. Eighteen university students engaged in two questionnaires and writing tasks. During the 16-week treatment period, students wrote tasks about their childhood at the beginning and as part of the post-test of the study. The study's findings revealed that screen-casting had a positive effect on students' writing skills, specifically at the paragraph level.

Additionally, it was noted that this technique was also motivating for the students. In a similar study, Ali (2016) investigated the impact of video feedback on improving students' writing quality. Sixty-three undergraduate students enrolled in an EFL writing course were engaged in a mixed-method study. The experimental group students received video feedback on modifications at the microstructural level, such as adding a whole paragraph, modifying existing text, deleting content, and increasing the length of sentences and paragraphs. The study's findings showed favourable effects of video feedback on the experimental group, with their significant performance surpassing that of the control group. Edwards et al. (2012) conducted a study to measure the impact of using audio-video feedback screen-casting for assignment feedback in a distance course. Fourteen students were divided into two groups to get screencast and written feedback. The study's results revealed that students who received feedback through an audio-video channel showed better performance and understanding of their written tasks.

Written feedback and video feedback are compared through research studies. Parton et al. (2010) conducted a study with 12 graduate students, providing written feedback on the first task, written and video feedback on the second task, and video feedback on the third task. The videos were prepared to be 5 minutes in length. Although there was no additional information on the design of the study and related procedures, the researcher stated that plenty of materials and comments were easily shared with students rather than relying solely on written feedback. In addition,

students reported that video feedback assisted them in understanding tasks easier. In a similar study by Fatoni et al. (2023), the use of video feedback prepared by the teacher and its effectiveness on students' academic writing was thoroughly investigated. A group of seventh-semester university students were engaged in a qualitative study primarily based on observations of the writing process. The results of the study revealed that implementing video feedback could increase students' performance in content (80%), organization (60%), vocabulary (70%), language use (80%), and mechanics (40%). In another study, Cunningham (2018) examined the accomplishments and opinions of 31 pre-medical learners regarding the feedback they received on their written pieces.

Additionally, the study sought to investigate the various forms of feedback that instructors deliver via conventional written and audio screencast methods. The analysis of the questionnaire indicated that learners regarded the written feedback as more general, whereas they found the audio screencast feedback to be more personalized. The findings from the analysis of strand 2 data indicated that the students' essay scores increased statistically significantly, except for assignments that received conventional written feedback.

Ozkul and Ortactepe (2017) conducted an experimental study to analyse the impact of using video feedback instead of written corrective feedback over 5 weeks. The control and experimental groups received commentary and video feedback, respectively, in their study. Additionally, the experimental group completed a questionnaire to assess their perceptions of video feedback. The study's results revealed that video feedback had a more significant effect on the students than written corrective feedback. Additionally, the study revealed that students could receive significantly more information on their tasks through video feedback. In another study, Ali (2016) examined the implementation of screencast video feedback by teachers in EFL writing classes in Egypt. The results indicated that screencast video feedback was more effective than written feedback in improving students' overall writing abilities, particularly in terms of organization and content on a global scale. The favourable impact of screencast video feedback was ascribed by students to its explicit, personalized, specific, supportive, multimodal, constructive, and engaging attributes. In another study comparing the perceptions of online Saudi EFL students regarding screencast video feedback and handwritten feedback, Alharbi (2017) discovered that students were more engaged with screencast video feedback when they demonstrated greater comprehension and spent more time reviewing it. In a more recent study, Cavaleri et al. (2019) compared the effects of text and screencast video feedback on the revision of academic assignments by beginning-level English as a Second Language (ESL) students. The results demonstrated that students revised their work more effectively in response to screencast video feedback. Cunningham (2019) compared the effectiveness of screencast feedback to text feedback with ESL writers at the intermediate level in the United States and found that students preferred screencast video feedback over text feedback due to its efficiency, clarity, ease of use, and enhanced understanding.

Comparative studies examining the effectiveness of video-based constructive feedback versus conventional written feedback are rare despite the growing body of research on feedback strategies in writing education. The current work aims to address this disparity by investigating the impact of these two forms of constructive criticism on undergraduate writing grades. Through

investigating this contrast, the study aims to provide an insightful analysis of how best to maximize feedback methods in contemporary EFL classes.

Despite the proliferation of research on feedback in academic writing over the years, the importance of feedback as a literacy discipline that contributes to the development of academic writing skills has not been adequately addressed. It is challenging to ensure comparability across studies due to methodological constraints associated with applying various accuracy metrics (Liu & Brown, 2015), the effects of different writing task genres, and variations in effect size (Kang & Han, 2015). Although it was stated that feedback through technology was well understood by the learners (Race, 2014), the focus of the majority of existing literature is based on questionnaires and interviews regarding the perceptions of students and teachers. Unexplored is the pedagogical and practical efficacy of video feedback in writing in a second or foreign language; that is, the degree to which language learners enhance their writing in response to video feedback and its comparative results with written feedback in writing classes. Therefore, limited studies investigated the authentic implementation of technology on feedback (Cavelri et al., 2019). Thus, this study aimed to investigate the effects of providing Constructive Written Feedback (CWF) and Constructive Video Feedback (CVF) on the writing performance of undergraduate students. To achieve this goal, the following research questions are intended to be analysed thoroughly:

1. Does constructive (constructive feedback is used as an opposing concept to instructional feedback; as you know well, constructive feedback not only focuses on correcting feedback but also helps the learner find the positive aspects of using the language and improve the parts that they lack) written feedback increase students' writing ability?
2. Does constructive video feedback increase students' writing ability?
3. Does constructive video feedback outweigh using constructive written feedback in students' writing ability?

Method

Participants

Participants in the study were selected from three different classes, all at the intermediate level (level 3, according to the college's standards) at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences (UTAS) Shinas branch in Oman. To exclude any extraneous factors and maintain the authenticity of the research context, all 45 students were selected from three classes, with 15 students in each class. Students' gender and age were also monitored, resulting in 23 males and 22 females aged between 19 and 20. Students are allowed to enter Level 3 based on the score they achieve on the placement test or the final exam score from Level 2. Since there is no writing test in the UTAS placement test, students' language ability is assessed only through reading, grammar, and vocabulary. Therefore, researchers excluded students who entered Level 3 taking the placement test to control the variable of writing skill ability. The study assigned two experimental groups and one control group. All participants in the study were native Arabic speakers.

Instruments

Pretest-post-test writing tasks

Since the students' writing performances were supposed to be measured by a 150-word task in the form of a comparison and contrast essay type of written task, the following task was selected as the pretest for all the groups:

Figure 1

The Pre-test Task of Writing

Last year, you studied at high school, but you are now studying at college. Write about the similarities and differences between the two kinds of life – school **life** and **college life** - and say which one you prefer. You should write at least 150 words.

To measure the results of the instructions and two types of feedback on participants, a post-test of writing was conducted based on a cause-and-effect task, as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

The Post-test Task of Writing

Some young people love fast food, while others prefer homemade food. What are the similarities and differences of these two types of food? You should write at least 150 words.

UTAS writing rubrics assess this ability on four criteria: Task Achievement, Organization, Grammar, and Vocabulary. Feedback included all the requirements of the UTAS rubrics, presented in both written and video formats. Each criterion has five marks; a student's score will be computed out of 20.

The validity of the written tests had already been measured and analysed by the UTAS coordinator, who had monitored the test questions for a long time. The writing rubrics, writing tasks, and the language forms taught and practised during writing sessions were tailored by the UTAS Central Assessment System. Therefore, the validity of the tests was fully assured. Rater reliability was also controlled. Researchers were UTAS teachers and experienced in using UTAS writing rubrics and marking procedures. However, to ensure maximum quality and objectivity in scoring the papers, two moderation sessions were held: one before the marking began and a random post-moderation session to ensure the markers strictly followed the rubrics.

Procedure

This study received ethical approval from the authorities at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences, Shinas, Oman. All participants provided informed consent, were assured of the voluntary nature of their participation, and were informed that their data would remain confidential and anonymized throughout the research process.

This study was conducted during the spring semester of 2022-2023 at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences (UTAS) Shinas in Oman. After getting approval from the authorities, the researchers selected and divided the participants into three groups: two experimental and one control. Students were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and would not impact their academic progress within the department. Additionally, it was ensured that names and papers would remain confidential and would not be made public. Before the treatment, a writing pretest was conducted to ensure the homogeneity of students in English writing proficiency.

During the 6 sessions of treatment, the control group received product feedback on the marking criteria in class, but no detailed instructions or constructive feedback were provided. The control group teacher only gave corrective feedback to the students. Experimental groups received Hybrid teaching, a combination of process and product writing. After the instructions and explanations on the topic and writing style, students were given two days to write the first draft of their tasks. Students revised their writing after being given feedback in both groups.

In the CWF group, the feedback was given to each of the fifteen individual students as comments at the end of the writing task. CWF enhances students' sense of automaticity, thereby facilitating the discovery learning process. For this, the comments in the CWF were based on the strengths and weaknesses of students' writing on all rubrics criteria. In CWF, phrases such as "you have followed the required framework and steps in the writing structure" and "your grammar is acceptable according to the given structures; however, you used to present continuous instead of present simple, check the sentences and revise them" were used in the comments.

The CVF group was taught the same writing rubrics and tasks related to grammar. Similar phrases were used to provide constructive comments on students' writing in CVF. However, these were explained in the format of a video recorded by the teacher and sent along with the scanned version of the student's writing. CVF was sent to each student via Microsoft Teams, the platform used by UTAS, and all students had easy access to it. Video was used to change the mode of receiving feedback from static to dynamic and interactionally enhanced. It was also used to determine if the visual participation of the teacher could enhance learning from the same type of feedback. The length of the video was no more than three minutes and was equally measured with the reading time of the written feedback given to students in the CWF group. The research aimed to calibrate the time students were required to read and/or watch the video for both groups, thereby eliminating any extraneous cognitive pressure factors. After the treatment period, participants were given a comparison-contrast essay to complete, which would later serve as the basis for comparison among the groups.

Data Analysis

The first research question of this study attempted to measure the effect of CWF on students' writing performance. To collect the required data, it was necessary to compare the pre-tests and post-tests of all groups together; however, measuring the normality of the data in each group was deemed essential to select the appropriate parametric or non-parametric test. Table 1 below shows the results of the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality.

Table 1

The Results of the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality

		Shapiro-Wilk		
	Groups	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig.**
Pre-test	control	.891	15	.070
	CWF	.878	15	.044
	CVF	.901	15	.098
Post-test	control	.951	15	.059
	CWF	.898	15	.358
	CVF	.864	15	.027

As can be observed from Table 1, the normality of data is confirmed for the control group, as the pre-test and post-test results are greater than 0.05 (P>0.05). However, the pre-test and post-test results of the CWF and CVF experimental groups show that the data are not normally distributed ($p < 0.05$). To measure all the groups together and gain better information on the group differences, a non-parametric test, the Kruskal-Wallis test, accompanied by a post-hoc test, was run. Table 2 below presents the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, which is used to determine whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Writing Performance Across Groups

Group	**N**	**Pre-test Mean (SD)**	**Post-test Mean (SD)**
Control	15	55.3 (7.4)	57.1 (6.9)
CWF	15	54.8 (6.8)	64.5 (7.1)
CVF	15	56.1 (7.0)	72.3 (6.5)

With means ranging from 54.8 to 56.1 and similar standard deviations (approximately 6.8 to 7.4), the descriptive statistics shown in Table 2 indicate that the three groups — Control,

CWF, and CVF — had comparable writing performance at the pre-test stage. It suggests that, before the intervention, students in all groups had somewhat similar writing abilities.

Comparing the data in Table 2, the control group demonstrated a marginal rise in the mean score from 55.3 to 57.1, indicating the absence of the targeted alternation. On the other hand, the CWF group experienced a significant improvement, increasing from 54.8 to 64.5, indicating an improvement in students' writing performance in this group due to the use of CWF. The CVF group Illustrates the highest rate of progress in the mean score from 56.1 to 72.3, which confirms the positive and effective impact of Video Feedback on students' writing performance.

These descriptive findings align with the inferential statistics, thereby supporting the conclusion that both feedback interventions improved writing performance; specifically, video feedback produced the most notable improvement.

Table 3

Hypothesis Test Summary

Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig. [a,b]	Decision
The distribution of pretest is the same across categories of groups.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.747	Retain the null hypothesis.
The distribution of the post-test is the same across categories of groups.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Based on Table 3, the results of all groups in the pretest showed that all the learners had similar writing proficiency ($p > 0.05$). However, the analysis of results based on Kruskal-Wallis showed that groups performed differently and significantly in the post-test ($p<0.05$). Table 2 revealed that all the experimental groups had significant performance in the post-test.

To measure the significance of these differences between the groups, compare them, and identify the most significant feedback technique, the Bonferroni post hoc test was applied to the Kruskal-Wallis test. The following table presents the results.

Table 4

Bonferroni Correction Pairwise Comparisons of Groups

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. [a]
control-CWF	-12.000	4.750	-2.527	.012	.035
control-CVF	-25.100	4.750	-5.285	.000	.000
CWF-CVF	-13.100	4.750	-2.758	.006	.017

The comparison of the control group and CWF, as shown in Table 4, revealed a significant rate of 0.035, which is higher than 0.05, indicating a statistically significant difference between the two groups in their post-tests. The comparison of CWF and CVF revealed an adjusted p-value of 0.017, indicating a statistically significant difference. The most notable difference was observed when comparing CWF and CVF, with an adjusted significance of 0.000. To provide a visual analysis that enhances understanding of the post-test performance, the following diagram may be helpful.

Table 5

Effect Sizes (r) for Pairwise Comparisons of Post-Test Scores

Comparison	Z Statistics	N (combined)	Effect size (r)	Interpretation
Control vs. CWF	2.527	30	0.46	Medium to large
Control vs. CVF	5.285	30	0.96	Very large
CWF vs. CVF	2.758	30	0.50	large

Table 5 presents the effect sizes (r) calculated among the three groups from the standardised test statistics (Z) of the post hoc pairwise comparisons. Cohen's guideline (1992) was used to interpret the calculated effect size. To specify the effect size for the two groups, the researcher used the effect size r formula and calculated it using $\frac{|\ |}{\sqrt{the\ formula\ r = z/N}}$.

With a medium to high impact value of 0.46, the comparison between the control group and the CWF group suggests that written feedback has a somewhat enhanced effect on student performance compared to no input. With a fairly significant effect size of 0.96, the comparison between the control group and the CVF group indicates that video feedback had a substantially greater influence on students' writing development. At last, the effect size of 0.50 between the CWF and CVF groups indicates a significant impact, verifying that video feedback improved writing performance more effectively than written feedback. These findings demonstrate the significant impact of CVF on students' writing progress.

Table 6

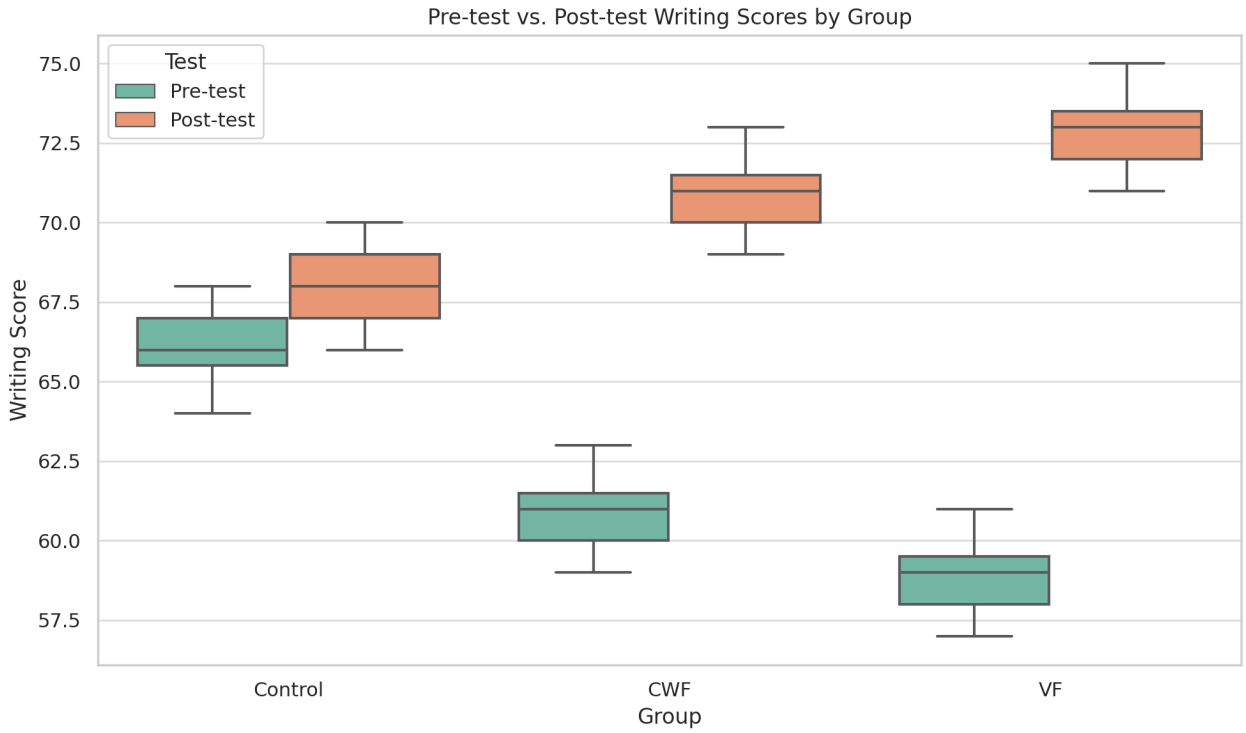
Within-Group Comparisons of Writing Performance: Pre-test vs. Post-test

Group	Test Used	Test Statistics	p-value	Interpretation
Control	Paired-sample t-test	t(14) = 1.85	.085	No significant improvement
CWF	Wilcoxon signed-rank	Z = -3.12	.002	Significant improvement
CVF	Wilcoxon signed-rank	Z = -3.45	.001	Significant improvement

Paired-sample analyses were used to determine if students within each group exhibited significant progress from the pre-test to the post-test. As in Table 6, The Control group's data satisfied the normality assumption; hence, a paired-sample t-test was employed. The findings revealed a marginal enhancement in writing performance from the pre-test (M = 55.3, SD = 7.4) to the post-test (M = 57.1, SD = 6.9); nevertheless, this advancement was not statistically significant, t(14) = 1.85, p = .085. Conversely, CWF and CVF groups failed to meet normality assumptions; therefore, Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were employed. Both cohorts exhibited substantial enhancements in writing scores: the CWF group advanced from a pre-test mean of 54.8 (SD = 6.8) to 64.5 (SD = 7.1), Z = -3.12, p = .002, while the CVF group progressed from 56.1 (SD = 7.0) to 72.3 (SD = 6.5), Z = -3.45, p = .001. The data indicate that, although the control group's writing performance remained consistent, both feedback interventions, particularly video feedback, substantially

improved students' writing skills throughout the study. However, comparing the two experimental groups, CWF and CVF, the group that received video feedback showed a more significant improvement in students' writing.

Figure 3 *Comparison of Pre-test and Post-test Writing Scores by Group*



As shown in Figure 3, the student's performance in CVF significantly improved, followed by the CWF and control groups.

Discussion

This study focused on providing CWF and CVF for undergraduate students to measure their writing performances. The results of this study revealed that all the groups progressed from the pre-test to the post-test due to engagement in the learning and feedback process. In other words, it can be explained through providing detailed feedback on their written tasks. However, the two experimental groups that received constructive written and video feedback showed significant progress, with remarkable mean differences in their post-tests. However, comparing these two groups showed that students who received CVF performed better than those who received CWF. The primary reason for achieving this result is the use of CVF as a learning environment, where learners are more actively engaged in absorbing the language knowledge presented in the feedback. Moreover, video feedback, which involves the teacher providing individual, constructive feedback to students through a video, could enhance the salience of interactional features of feedback. It was one of the significant advantages of CVF over the other existing types. The new generation of students primarily relies on their gadgets, including laptops and mobile phones. Therefore, providing an educational setting where technology is effectively integrated into the learning process can be claimed to offer better learning and teaching opportunities. In addition,

the positive impact of video feedback can be justified based on the conferencing and multimodality features (Ozkul & Oractepe, 2017). Some additional features made it more authentic, including the potential to personalise the feedback session, the use of more emotionally charged colours, and the relationships built on the feedback, which made it appear more authentic (Séror, 2012; Mann, 2015). Moreover, receiving video feedback from students could be psychologically perceived as a means of reducing distance (Mahoney et al., 2019), which in turn increases learning speed.

The first research question of this study investigated the effect of CWF on overall writing improvement at the undergraduate level, and the results revealed a positive impact of this type of feedback on the learners' writing. The results align with Razali and Jupri (2014), indicating that receiving written feedback from instructors improves students' writing abilities. The same research outcome was found in Baghzou (2011), yielding favourable results in using CWF to enhance students' writing proficiency.

This study also attempted to measure the role of CVFon learners' writing performance, revealing that its implementation significantly improved the performance of undergraduate students in writing assignments. The results align with other research studies conducted by scholars in similar research areas, such as Alvira (2016), Ali (2016), and Edwards et al. (2012). In all of these studies, the benefits of using screen technology, specifically video and the screen-casting technique, in enhancing students' writing abilities were observed.

In the last research question, the present study attempted to compare the CWF and CVF. It was found that students who received video feedback outperformed those who received CWF. The results align with those of Parton et al. (2010), indicating an increase in students' essay scores following the receipt of video feedback. Ozkul and Ortactepe (2017) also maintained the same finding on the effectiveness of video feedback on students' writing. Video feedback is more engaging and demonstrates greater comprehension (Alharbi, 2017). Cavaleri et al. (2019) reported that students were more motivated to follow the teacher's feedback after receiving video feedback. Other benefits of using video feedback can be accounted for, as Cunningham's (2019) study results revealed. This study found that screencast videos were more efficient, clear, and easy to follow, as reported by students. Moreover, teachers can archive the videos for later use in open class discussions.

This research study revealed a preference for using CVF in EFL writing classes because it provides the opportunity for both teachers and students to benefit from a more thorough explanation; it is also portable, allowing students to access it on their digital devices wherever they go. Another advantage of video feedback is its potential for interactivity, which is not present in written feedback. It incorporates more interactive features, including visual and audio aids, thereby facilitating better comprehension. However, some drawbacks cannot be ignored if video feedback is used in EFL writing classes. Teachers must be aware of the video length; long videos may not get enough attention. The quality of the video sound and its resolution can affect the quality of students' comprehension. It might be time-consuming for teachers if the number of students is very high and the videos are individualized.

To enhance the pedagogical benefits of the video feedback, teachers can add captions or use some other visual aids to the videos. Future studies can be conducted to evaluate the results of

integrating video feedback with other visual and technological features. Additionally, further research is needed to investigate how other features added to the video can affect students' perceptions of feedback and their writing ability enhancement. Additionally, future research can focus on different writing subskills and language forms when video feedback is used in writing classes. Comparing personalised and open-class video feedback can also yield new insights into this area of study.

Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate the roles of CWF and CWF on the writing performances of undergraduate-level students. The study's results revealed that both types of feedback had a positive impact on students' writing performances. The comparison between the two groups of the experiment showed that students who received CWF outperformed their counterparts in the other experiment group. In addition, both groups showed far more progress than the control group. Exposing students to detailed feedback influences the learning process; however, technology-enhanced feedback opportunities may be considered the best option due to the new generation's dependency on technological instruments.

The findings of this study could be considered positively by teachers and institutions. It was found that students' performance increased more when using video and technology as intermediaries. Thus, since electronic channels, instruments, and opportunities are available in each educational setting for teachers, it is highly recommended that they utilise these opportunities to engage themselves and their students more in digital types of feedback. This motivates learners as they receive more comments and recommendations on their tasks without time or place restrictions. Institutions, in collaboration with teachers and their students, can update their existing electronic platforms and move forward with advanced technological devices to provide encouraging and improved learning environments. It enables teachers and students to create and receive constructive feedback quickly and efficiently.

This study is not without limitations. The following areas may warrant further research. The study's target population consisted of undergraduate students with pre-intermediate English proficiency at a university in northern Oman. These limitations limit generalization of the results, so targeting more higher education institutions from various parts of Oman with students of all English proficiency levels would provide a better understanding of the feedback status. The second limitation of the study was the types of feedback focused mainly by the researchers. This study covered two types of feedback, CWF and VF, while other types of feedback are active in the current learning context. Therefore, further studies are recommended to implement various types of feedback in the learning context and thoroughly monitor their effects on students. This study did not consider the teachers` and students` perceptions of digital-enhanced feedback sessions, which could be another limitation of the study. Therefore, further research studies could be conducted to elicit the perceptions of the participants, in addition to examining the effect of digital feedback on learners' autonomy. This study primarily focused on constructive feedback in writing; therefore, further studies could be considered to investigate the role of feedback on other skills and subskills as well.

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