

The Effect of Video Feedback on Adult ESL Learners' Paragraph Writing Skills

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Abstract

Writing and the provision of feedback in English as a Second Language classrooms are crucial factors. Feedback provision is one of the productive approaches to improving learners' writing performance in the ESL context. With the continuous evolution of technology, the methods of feedback have also varied and advanced. Even though teacher-written feedback is the most frequently used type of feedback, studies have discovered the use of teacher-written feedback is indecisive since the learners face difficulties in comprehending the teacher's feedback. Therefore, there is a continuing dispute over the efficacy of teacher-written

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feedback. The present study addresses the dearth of research in the provision of video feedback for ESL writings in Sri Lanka and aims to contribute to the areas in which further research is needed. For this, an experimental quantitative research design was used. The empirical data for the study was gathered through the comparison of 20 participants' multiple drafts of writing paragraphs over a five-week period and error analysis sheets were employed to track the errors in their writings. The results reveal that the participants in the experimental group incorporated higher levels of correction from two respective video feedback into their proceeding drafts than the participants in the control group who received two particular written feedback for two written texts during the study. The findings obtained from this study convey that video feedback is a pertinent practice in ESL writing. Hence, the requirement for more research to recognize cause and effect relationships of video feedback for writing is highlighted in the present study.

Keywords: ESL learners, writing skills, paragraph writing, teacher feedback, video feedback

Introduction

Writing is a process that involves thinking, planning, and evaluating using language to express exact meaning. Feedback is a counterpart that always accompanies writing and which might help in future improvements of learners' writing skills (Wang, 2006 as cited in Klimova, 2015). Feedback provision is often seen as one of the teacher's most important tasks in the ESL classroom. According to research, students prefer to follow their teachers' comments and pay attention to teachers' feedback (Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Teachers tend to provide written feedback, written feedback with oral explanations, and conferencing. However, in ESL writing classrooms, teachers use peer feedback as a method of providing feedback to promote students' independent learning (Bao, 2015) as well.

Although Bao (2015) states that in the process of providing feedback through written formats with oral explanations learners receive detailed written feedback, and they have opportunities to ask questions face-to-face if they do not know how to correct the mistakes. Yet, at present, ESL teachers neither have the capacity nor the time to provide individual feedback mainly due to the fact that the time frame allocated for a particular subject is limited.

Similarly, with the continuous evolution of technology, the methods of feedback have also differed and advanced. Consequently, computer technology can also offer ways to improve the effectiveness of the provision of feedback for writing activities. In this respect, ESL teachers used to provide feedback via audio and video content. Syncox (2003) mentioned that audio feedback endorses students' clear understanding of the teacher's feedback and improves students' awareness of instructor feedback. On the other hand, video feedback is perceived as being more personal, caring, conversational (Anson, 2015; Turner & West, 2013), and more engaging than other types of feedback (Hope, 2011; Seror, 2012). Considering the gap in research exploring the pedagogical and practical appropriateness of video feedback in ESL learners' paragraph writing in Sri Lanka, the present study has aimed to examine the impact of video feedback as a teacher feedback method for the paragraphs written by ESL undergraduates in Sri Lanka. Moreover, it attempted to discover whether the learners who receive video feedback incorporate higher levels of correction into their written work when compared to students who receive written feedback.

Literature Review

Writing in English in a Second Language Classroom

In the English as a Second Language classroom, there are four language skills to be learned: listening and reading skills as receptive skills and speaking and writing skills as productive skills. Amongst them, writing is a predominant skill for ESL learners to master (Jing, 2010). Hence, writing is a salient communication skill and has a vital role in the second language learning process

(Chastain, 1988 as cited in Simin & Tavangar, 2009). Moreover, writing skill is one of the most difficult skills that second language learners are expected to acquire as it requires the mastery of a variety of linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural competencies (Barkaoui, 2007).

Scholars have interpreted writing in different ways. “Writing is a thinking process which demands intellectual effort and it involves generating ideas, planning, goal setting, monitoring and evaluating what is going to be written as well as what has been written and using language for expressing exact meanings. According to Komariyah (2015), the fact is that “writing consists of some stages that should be done by the writer in conveying the message of writing” (p.7). Further, writing skill has been seen as the most complex skill among other skills (Kolade, 2012). As such, it is carried out in accordance with certain principles which underlie the use of language in communication. Syameducation (2011) argues that a written product is the final outcome of a teaching and learning process.

Feedback in writing

Feedback has become an obvious necessity in ESL writing. According to Lightbown & Spada (2006), feedback manifests to learners that their target language output is inaccurate (as cited in Su & Tian, 2016). In general, feedback is the most accepted approach to support students during the application of their recently acquired knowledge and a moment when they lack enough understanding to know if they are executing it correctly (Borup et al., 2015). Overall, Kulhavy & Wager (1993) probed three broad meanings for feedback. First, in a motivational sense, some feedback like praise could be considered as a motivator that increases the writing or revision activities. Second, in a reinforcement sense, feedback rewards or amerces prior efforts like spelling errors or a particular approach to a concluding paragraph (Thorndike, 1927). Third, in an informational sense, feedback consists of information used by a learner to change performance in a particular direction (Pressey, 1927). In the context of ESL writing, all three elements are prominent.

Parthasarathy (2014) voiced that students are required to engage in a great deal of writing in the ESL classroom. Yet, unless they are given reliable feedback on their writing, the positioned writing tasks may not help them much in improving their writing skills. Nevertheless, students' ability to incorporate the provided feedback into their drafts is a decisive aspect for better revisions (Ozkul, 2014). Hence, not only the provision of feedback but the manner in which they should be incorporated into the written text should also be taught to the learners.

Effective feedback should be focused, clear, applicable, and encouraging (Lindemann, 2001). When students are provided with this type of feedback, they are able to think critically and self-regulate their own learning (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Strake & Kumar, 2010). Moreover, Stern & Solomon (2006) identified three possible features of efficient feedback whereby the instructor should provide positive as well as negative points, narrow down the feedback to several selected areas, and mention patterns of strengths and weaknesses. Moreover, the fact that an educator should contemplate facts such as the provision of immediate or delayed feedback, the amount and frequency of feedback, and the type of feedback (Brookhart, 2008). These reflections fluctuate according to the circumstance and depend upon the instructors' as well as the learners' feedback preferences as there is no single method of feedback that has proven convenient in all contexts (Tasdemir & Arslan, 2018). Accordingly, the source of feedback is a crucial component.

Teachers' response to students' writing is a significant technique in developing the writing process (Seow, 2002). As teachers spend a lot of their time responding to learners' work, teacher feedback has been a main area of research in literature (Ozkul, 2014). Prior research on teacher feedback considered it a useful tool to promote students' revision and to foster the writing process (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Silver & Lee (2007) asserts that teacher feedback is crucial to pinpoint students' strengths and weaknesses as well as to motivate them during the writing process. Hence, Harmer (2007) highlights the role of the teacher as a "feedback provider"

(p.261). Park (2006) demonstrates how teacher feedback has different focuses. Teacher feedback can be summative feedback, formative feedback, form focused, content focused, or integrative. With regards to this distinction, Ferris (2003) explains that feedback should be on content focused on preliminary drafts followed by form focused feedback on the final draft. Hadzic (2016) mentions that it is crucial for teachers to be aware of feedback channels in order to make improvements in their own teaching. Hence, it is evident that the provision of feedback should be well-thought and methodical for it to be efficient and useful for the learners.

As Agbayahoun (2016) stated teachers provide feedback in two different methods; namely, written and oral feedback. Teacher-written feedback can be “questions, error corrections, praises, suggestions, or criticisms” (p.1896). Previous studies on teacher written feedback investigated the nature of teacher-written feedback, positive facts as well as its pitfalls.

Prior studies claim that teacher-written feedback is a beneficial artifact for students’ writing. Montgomery & Baker’s (2007) study investigate the quality and the quantity of teacher feedback integrated into learners’ work and the procedure of teacher feedback. The findings of the study reveal that learners appreciate teacher-written feedback, although teachers do not always provide the same amount of feedback to learners and they prioritize local feedback over global feedback. Furthermore, prior studies declare that written feedback provides a potential value in motivating students to revise their draft (Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994; Zhang, 1995) and in improving their writing (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995; Ferris et al., 1997). Hyland & Hyland (2006) determined teacher-written feedback as purely informational with its position as a teacher to advertise responses and advice in assisting students’ enhancement. Teacher-written feedback promotes students’ revision of their texts in the context of the L2 when the feedback given is more specific, idea - based and meaning level in multiple drafts (Paulus, 1999). This is because written feedback from the teacher highlights the most important aspects

of students' writing that need to be enhanced. Through this, students would be able to make adjustments to improve their grades (Vardi, 2009). Silver & Lee (2007) confirm in their study that teacher-written feedback is crucial for ESL students' revision process as it helps to pinpoint their strengths and weaknesses. Other than helping students to revise their texts, teacher-written feedback allows students to be better motivated in writing.

Even though written feedback is the most commonly used teacher feedback form, it is disadvantageous for certain reasons (Ozkul, 2014). This is further corroborated in the sense that Truscott (2007) admits that there is a minute possibility that teacher-written feedback actually has many advantages. According to Hyland & Hyland (2006), teacher written feedback is frequently misinterpreted by learners, ambiguous, inconsistent and authoritarian. Further, such feedback mostly considers errors and often functions to fit student texts by being too direct. Zamel (1985) emphasizes a similar perception in that learners often find teacher comments unclear, confusing and inconsistent or vague. In addition, Hyland (2003) questioned whether students "understand the corrections made by their teachers" (p, 179). Hence, it is evident that teachers' written feedback consists of advantages as well as disadvantages.

In addition, teacher oral feedback was suggested as another method to provide feedback for learners' written work. Mahdi & Saadany (2013) defined oral feedback as "one of many communication forms where students receive feedback from their teacher who either corrects them implicitly or explicitly or asks them to clarify what they say" (p. 7). Hawe, Dixon & Watson (2008) explore four types of oral feedback during writing classes which specify attainment and improvement, construct achievement, and the way forward. Previous research studies have identified positive as well as negative explanations about the role of oral teacher feedback in ESL writing classrooms.

Besides the benefits, there are drawbacks to using this technique. Oral feedback is time-consuming, especially when the learners are

unfamiliar with the process (Rahmawati, 2017). Gulley (2009) states that oral feedback does not seem to have any appreciable effect on the development of students' revision of content, structure, grammar or style in their writing. Further, Hawe et al. (2008) claims a similar perception to the aforementioned interpretation stating that oral feedback does not address substantive, profound characteristics of the writing. According to Abdulkhaleq (2013), oral feedback may even be harmful to weak or struggling students. Therefore, the necessity to move towards an effective and less advantageous method of feedback provision is highlighted.

Computer technology in providing feedback for learners' writings

Computer technology has found its place in ESL classrooms in different forms (Ozkul, 2014). According to Dudeney & Hockly (2007), there is nothing more natural than adopting computer technology into ESL classrooms since "our learners are digital natives" (p.9). Accordingly, most of the ESL classrooms in Sri Lanka are computer integrated at present. Thus, in a context where students mostly prefer computer integrated technology, ESL teachers intend to relate learner feedback via computer integrated technology (Ozkul, 2014). Therefore, it is evident that there are avenues for the provision of feedback with the support of computer technology.

Video feedback in writing

The provision of video feedback for learners' written work is associated with many advantages. Borup, West, Thomas & Graham (2014) conducted a study on the provision of video feedback for learners' writing. This study indicates that instructors' perceptions of the use of video feedback were positive.

Video feedback helps instructors to know their students on a personal level (Griffiths & Graham, 2009 as cited in Borup et al., 2014). Yet, the students' perceptions of the video feedback were not considered in this study. Moreover, Henderson & Phillips (2015) conducted research to propose an alternative in the form of

individualized video recordings of the lecturer discussing each assignment. The findings of this study substantiate the positive perceptions of video-based assessment. In particular, video feedback is rendered as being “individualized, personal, supportive, clear, prompting reflection and constructive” (p.58). An analysis of student interviews on the use of video feedback found that students’ abilities to hear and see their instructor made students feel more real (Borup, West & Thomas, 2015). Further, ESL teachers can offer conversational, natural feedback and use humour, thereby simulating a conversation, and fostering a personal connection through video feedback (Anson, Dannels, Laboy & Carneiro, 2016; Borup et al., 2014). Moore & Filling (2012) state that the use of screencasts serves instructors in creating feedback that is more detailed, targeted, and tailored for each individual student. Additionally, the use of video feedback permits the instructor to provide an in-depth explanation of why something is working or is not within the writing. Therefore, video feedback is a productive mode to eliminate these pitfalls (Dagen et al., 2008). Prior studies have found that ESL instructors enjoy providing video feedback and that it may prompt a renewed enthusiasm for providing feedback (Henderson & Phillips 2015; Lamey, 2015; Parton et. al, 2010). Henderson & Phillips’s (2015) study declares that video feedback “no longer felt like an exercise in defending a grade but rather providing valuable advice” (p.63).

Students also consider video feedback to be more extensive and informative than written and oral feedback (Anson et al., 2016; Borup et al., 2015). Furthermore, Vincelette & Bostic (2013) explored whether learners could make more effective revisions from video feedback than from written comments because hearing why something was a mistake from their instructor made it easier for learners to understand how to revise their writing. Students typically favour video feedback and consider it to be beneficial to their learning and report a preference for video feedback over written feedback (Chiang, 2009; Crook et al., 2012; Grigoryan, 2017; Henderson & Phillips, 2015; Jones, Georghiades & Gunson, 2012). Hence, the literature mentions that provision of video feedback is advantageous for both learners and teachers.

On the other hand, previous studies identify that there are certain drawbacks to using video feedback as a teacher feedback method in ESL learners' written work. Some learners might have been in different developmental stages and sometimes it is difficult to understand and interpret the teacher feedback correctly (Ozkul, 2014). Henderson & Phillips (2015) identified potential weaknesses of using video feedback including the "initial anxiety" about seeing the assessor's face while receiving feedback as well as difficulty in matching feedback to assignment (p.58). Armagan et al. (2016) highlight, one potential pitfall in using video feedback which is the high expectations of students. Despite these drawbacks, the literature suggests that video feedback has already found its place in ESL classrooms, serving different purposes.

When considering the Sri Lankan context, Mudiyanse (2013) conducted a study on students' perceptions of teacher feedback and the educational environment in a medical faculty in Sri Lanka. He employed the Dundee Ready Education Environment Measure (DREEM) framework to analyse the feedback and the students' perceptions. Furthermore, two studies related to peer feedback were conducted by Pushpakumara (2012) and Kaduwela (2017). However, Pushpakumara's study examined how peer assessments (feedback) are more effective than teachers' feedback while Kaduwela (2017) conducted a study on how peer feedback impacts developing Academic Writing at a private higher education institution. Moreover, Marambe et al. (2020) conducted a study on feedback provided by clinical teachers during undergraduate medical training in Sri Lanka. In addition, Mendis, Wickramasinghe & Hettiarachchi (2021) conducted a study on a mobile-based feedback system for the Sri Lankan higher education system. Yet, this study does not focus on the ESL context and learners' learning. Hence, the prior research on this aspect highlights the dearth of research in this respect in Sri Lanka and this study aims to contribute to these areas in which further research is necessary.

Methodology

Research questions

Though written feedback is the most commonly used mode of teacher feedback, recent studies have found that the teacher-written feedback method is disadvantageous for several certain causes. Therefore, as a preferable alternative to the identified drawbacks and limitations, video-based feedback offers several new ways of addressing the aforementioned drawbacks and limitations. Hence, this study aims to explore whether video feedback has an impact on learners' paragraph writing in ESL writing classes. To investigate whether video feedback has an ascendancy on ESL learners' paragraph writing, the present study probed answers to the following research questions.

1. What is the impact of video feedback as a teacher feedback method in ESL undergraduates' paragraph writing in a state university?

1.1. Do students who receive video feedback report higher levels of correction in their written work as compared to students who receive written feedback?

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to check whether the null hypothesis (H_0) would be rejected or not. The hypotheses are as follows:

H_0 : Students who receive video feedback do not report higher levels of correction into their written work as compared to students who receive written feedback.

H_1 : Students who receive video feedback report higher levels of correction in their written work as compared to students who receive written feedback.

Research design

In order to address the aforementioned research questions, the present study adopted a true experimental research design. In accordance with the basic concepts of a true experimental design, the present study was conducted in an authentic setting. The subjects for the study were randomly selected based on their regular turn up for the lectures from the Department of Industrial

Management and the sample was separated into the treatment group and the control group based on a random assignment. Thereby, each participant was given a number and then, a random number generator was used to place each participant in one of the two groups. The study manipulated feedback as the dependent variable and teacher written feedback and video feedback were the independent variables. Furthermore, the current study occupied the quantitative research approach to expand and strengthen the conclusions of the study.

Setting and sample of the study

A sample of 20 undergraduates from the Faculty of Science, Department of Industrial Management of a state university in Sri Lanka was employed for the present study. Cohen et al. (2007) stated that it is important to specify that the “experimental methodologies demand at least 15 participants” (p.102) and the experimental methodologies requisites at least 15 participants (Cohen et al., 2007). Due to the prevalent epidemic in the country, students’ attendance was not systematic and caused a constraint when selecting the sample. The undergraduates belonging to the intermediate proficiency level were selected for the study because the study focused on learners belonging to CEFR benchmarks B1 and B2 (“Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR): Learning, teaching, assessment”, 2001). Since most courses offered at state universities are taught in the English language, undergraduates are supposed to attend English language courses conducted by the Department of English Language Teaching (DELT) of the university and the medium of instruction at the university for this particular selected sample is English. The study was conducted during different times when the learners were free and was not conducted during the teaching hours allocated for the DELT.

Research instruments

Research instruments are able to produce a form of data appropriate to address the research questions and to test the research hypotheses (Yaya, 2014). Accordingly, there were two sets of instruments used in the study; namely, the instruments that

were used to collect data and the instruments that were used to analyse the collected data.

Data collection instrument

The empirical data for the study was gathered from the participants' multiple drafts of paragraphs written over a five-week period. Students were asked to develop a descriptive paragraph and a narrative paragraph in two respective weeks. The first writing was a descriptive paragraph. As Oshima & Hogue (2006) suggested, students were supposed to select one topic from the given topics including "A place from my childhood", "The view from my window", "My ideal room or apartment" and "A scene from a dream" with a 100-to-150-word limit during 20 minutes (p.73). The second writing was a narrative paragraph and students were called upon to write a paragraph on one of the given topics including "An unpleasant personal experience", "The best achievement you have ever accomplished", "A person you are afraid to lose the most" and "If you had a time machine" with a 100 to 150-word limit during 20 minutes ("Good narrative essay writing topics", n.d.). The foremost basis to provide these topics was as a result of the participants falling under CEFR benchmarks B1 and B2 levels. According to the CEFR framework, learners who belong to B1 and B2 levels should be able to write clear, detailed texts on a variety of subjects related to his/her field of interest. Furthermore, they should be able to synthesize, and evaluate information and arguments from a number of sources and can write straightforward connected texts on a range of familiar subjects within his/her field of interest. The learners are also expected to link a series of shorter discrete elements into a linear sequence. The researchers considered the aforementioned CEFR expectations when designing and marking the paragraphs of the learners.

The provision of video feedback is always associated with the integration of technology. Therefore, the technology employed in the study involved a screen capture software named 'Screencast-O-Matic' and a Learning Management System (LMS) named 'Edmodo'.

The researcher focused on both the content and the form of the writing. Accordingly, feedback for the writings was provided under three criteria as content and organization, grammar and vocabulary, and mechanics. The first criterion, content and organization, focused on the development of the topic sentence, clearly established supporting sentences and the development of the closing sentences in the paragraphs. The second criterion, grammar and vocabulary focused on the demonstration of the mastery of CEFR benchmark A1, A2 and B1 grammar topics and the usage of a variety of lexis. Eventually, participants' mastery of CEFR benchmark A1, A2 and B1 spelling control, correct use of punctuation marks, and capitalization were marked under the mechanics. Feedback for the control group was delivered in the form of endnotes and side notes in participants' writings itself. On the other hand, feedback for the experimental group was delivered in the form of videos with the help of Screencast-O-Matic screen capture recorder and the LMS. The writings of the participants from the experimental group were checked and the writings were captured in a snapshot so the drafts were ready to process digitally. Then, the Screencast-O-Matic screen capture recorder was used and the researcher created a personalized video with the researcher's detailed feedback about the writings.

Data analysis instrument

The pivotal data analysis instrument was IBM SPSS Statistics. The fact that it comes with an open-source version fairly serves the process of statistics and formulation of data manipulation techniques based on the employment of this method ("Differences between SPSS and Excel", 2019).

Data collection procedure

The participants were instructed about the research procedure. Along with that, a guideline sheet for each participant with further details about the study and instructions to follow when engaged in the study was provided. Subsequently, each participant was asked for his/her consent to use, present and publish the findings.

The sample of 20 participants was separated into the treatment group and the control group based on random assignment. Afterward, the e-mail addresses of the participants in the experimental group were collected so that the researcher could add the participants to the LMS. Subsequently, participants were called upon to develop a descriptive paragraph on one of the given topics.

Written feedback was provided to the control group and video feedback was shared with the experimental group. The writings of the participants were marked according to the rubrics developed by adapting the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR): Learning, teaching, assessment and Descriptive Paragraph Scoring Rubric. Accordingly, feedback for the writings was provided under three criteria as content and organization, grammar and vocabulary and mechanics (See Appendix A).

Feedback for the control group was delivered in the form of endnotes and side notes in participants' writings themselves. On the other hand, feedback for the experimental group was delivered in the form of videos with the help of the Screencast-O-Matic screen capture recorder and the LMS. The writings of the participants from the experimental group were checked and the writings were captured in a snapshot so the drafts were ready to process digitally. Then, the Screencast-O-Matic screen capture recorder was used and the researcher created a personalized video with detailed feedback about the writings. Subsequently, invitations to join the LMS were sent to the participants so the researcher could upload the individualized video feedback to the LMS.

In the second week, all the participants in both the control and experimental groups were provided feedback for their first writing, and copies of their writings were taken for data analysis. Simultaneously, video feedback was uploaded to Edmodo. Hence, the participants of the experimental group could receive their

respective feedback. Then, they were requested to submit their second drafts in the third week.

The researcher obtained the second drafts by the following week. An error analysis sheet was used for each participant to track how participants interpreted and used different feedback forms. The error analysis sheet included six categories including content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and capitalization to trace how each participant has used the feedback in their second drafts. Error analysis was used to fathom whether participants have redrafted their writings using the feedback provided.

The second drafts were collected by the third week and participants were called upon to develop a narrative paragraph on one of the given topics. The same procedure was followed in the feedback provision process. So, the control group received written feedback while the experimental group received video feedback on their third writing in the fourth week, and participants were requested to submit their second drafts in the fifth week.

Error analyses were employed for two drafts and they only recorded the number of feedback items provided in the first drafts and how the addressed feedback items were corrected in the second drafts by each participant. The new errors that occurred in the second drafts were reported separately.

The following figure shows the process of data collection for one cycle.

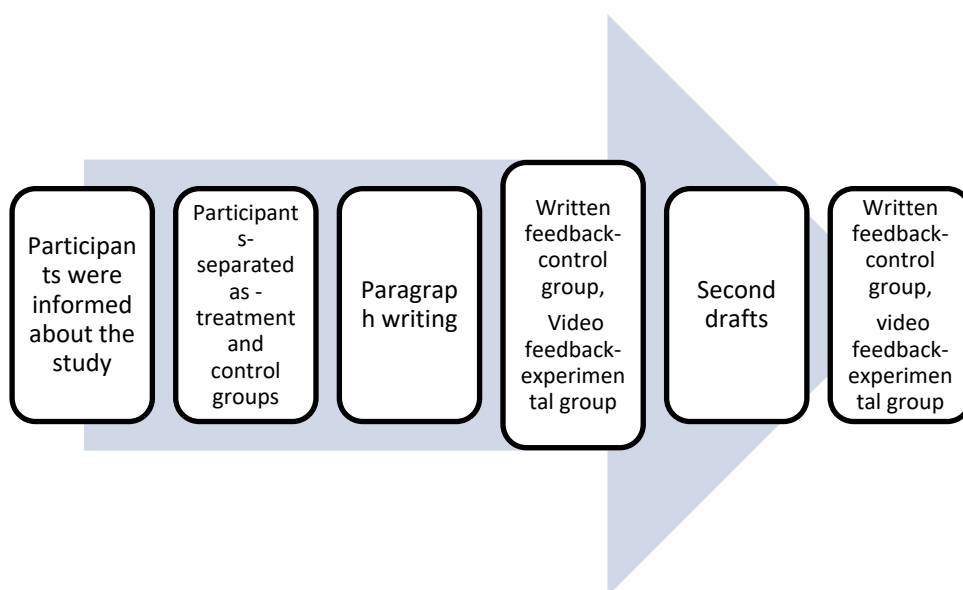


Figure 1. Data collection procedure

Ethical consideration

Initially, the purpose of the study was explained to the participants verbally. The participants were then given the guideline sheet which also explained the purpose of the study. To comply with ethical considerations in conducting the current research, all participants were provided with an informed consent form prior to the study. It was composed in English, Sinhala and Tamil languages. Since the researcher was not aware of the participants' ethnographic details, the consent form was prepared in all three languages. Then, the informed consent form was administered to every participant to affirm that they did not have any objection to information collected in the study for future use, presentation or any publication.

Data analysis and discussion

In order to respond to the research question, two hypotheses were suggested and their validity was examined with the parametric test, Independent Samples T-test. The foremost basis to select this parametric test for the present study was due to the study comparing the means of two independent variables in order to

determine whether there was statistical evidence that the associated means are significantly different. The test investigated whether the null hypothesis would be rejected or not according to the comparison of how adequately the experimental and the control groups incorporated the feedback they were provided.

As for the initial phase, the total amount of feedback provided and the total amount of feedback incorporated correctly into the proceeding drafts were retrieved. Then, the total number of incorporated feedbacks in the second draft out of the total number of feedbacks provided in the first draft was used to calculate the percentage as to what extent the feedback provided by the researcher took place in its corrected form in learners' second drafts. The following formula was used to calculate the achievements of each participant.

$$\frac{\text{The total amount of incorporated feedback in the second draft}}{\text{The total amount of feedback provided in the first draft}} \times 100$$

These percentages were used as performance values in the overall analysis. Finally, the data were entered into SPSS to investigate whether there were any significant differences between the two feedback channels. The data analysis employed A to T block letters to define each participant and the same participant will be defined by the same block letter in both writings. The incorporation of feedback in proceeding drafts in two separate writings by the two groups will be addressed individually.

Data analysis and discussion of the first writing

The total amount of feedback provided in the first writing and the total amount of incorporated feedback in the proceeding drafts of each participant were recorded in the error analysis sheets. Table 1 shows the total number of feedbacks provided for each participant in their first writing and their performance in the proceeding draft as a percentage.

Table 1.

Total number of feedbacks provided in the first writing and participants' performance in proceeding drafts

Control group (10 participants)			Experimental group (10 participants)		
Participant	Number of feedbacks provided	Performance in the second draft	Participant	Number of feedback provided	Performance in the second draft
A	11	54%	K	10	80%
B	14	57%	L	10	70%
C	07	71%	M	13	92%
D	09	67%	N	14	71%
E	14	50%	O	09	100%
F	08	63%	P	12	83%
G	12	75%	Q	10	60%
H	11	54%	R	11	82%
I	09	67%	S	13	69%
J	08	63%	T	23	87%

As shown in Table 1, the calculated percentages were then entered into SPSS to investigate whether there were any significant differences between written feedback and video feedback. The statistical results of the first writing obtained from the Independent Samples T-Test are as follows:

Table 2.
Independent Samples T- Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Differen ce	Std. Error Differen ce	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
										Lower Upper
Incorporation of feedback as percentage	Equal variance assumed	1.369	.257	-3.785	18	.001	-17.400	4.598	-27.059	-7.741
	Equal variance not assumed			-3.785	15.819	.002	-17.400	4.598	-27.156	-7.644

Note. $p = 0.05$

As shown in Table 2, in the output of the pooled t-test, Levene's Test for Equality Variances perceives whether the variance of the two samples is equal or not. If Levene's test indicates that the variances are equal across the two groups (equal variance is represented with a p-value (denoted as "Sig") greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$)), then one has to rely on the first row of output, Equal variances assumed and focus on the results for the actual Independent Samples t-test under t-test for Equality of Means. If Levene's test indicates that the variances are not equal across the two groups (unequal variance is represented with a p-value (denoted as "Sig") smaller than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$)), then one needs to rely on the second row of output, Equal variances not assumed and consider the results of the Independent Samples t-test under the t-test for Equality of Means.

According to the output of the present study, Levene's test evinces that the p-value is 0.257, so that the variance of the two samples is equal as the p-value is greater than 0.05 ($0.257 > 0.05$). Therefore, the study relies on equal variances assumed so that it demands to focus on the p-value of the t-test for Equality of Means. The p-value is then denoted as "Sig. (2-tailed)". Most studies are performed on a 95% confidence interval; thus, a p-value less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$) is to be taken as significant meaning that there is a significant difference in the means of the two sample populations tested. According to the output of the present study, the p-value is 0.001 ($0.001 < 0.05$), which reveals that the p-value is smaller than 0.05. Hence, there is a significant difference between written feedback and video feedback.

Accordingly, these findings imply that participants in the experimental group incorporated higher levels of feedback into their second drafts than the participants in the control group, which means that the null hypothesis (H_0); students who receive video feedback do not report higher levels of correction into their written work as compared to students who receive written feedback and video feedback, is rejected and the finding is statistically significant.

Data analysis and discussion of the second writing

The total amount of feedback provided in the second writing and the total amount of incorporated feedback in the proceeding drafts of each participant were recorded in the error analysis sheets. Table 3 shows the total number of feedback provided for each participant in their second writing and their performance in the proceeding drafts as a percentage.

Table 3.

Total number of feedbacks provided in the first writing and participants' performance in proceeding drafts

Control group (10 participants)			Experimental group (10 participants)		
Participant	Number of feedbacks provided	Performance in the second draft	Participant	Number of feedback provided	Performance in the second draft
A	04	50%	K	06	100%
B	10	53%	L	12	67%
C	03	100%	M	13	69%
D	06	33%	N	07	71%
E	09	44%	O	08	75%
F	17	59%	P	09	78%
G	09	56%	Q	08	63%
H	11	64%	R	09	67%
I	04	75%	S	10	80%
J	10	50%	T	13	77%

As shown in Table 3, the calculated percentages were then entered into SPSS to explore whether there were any significant differences between written feedback and video feedback. The statistical results of the second writing obtained from the Independent Samples T-Test are as follows:

Table 4.
Independent Samples T- Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
										Lower Upper
Incorporation of feedback as a percentage	Equal variances assumed	1.506	.236	-2.429	18	.026	-16.300	6.710	-30.398	-2.202
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.429	14.246	.029	-16.300	6.710	-30.669	-1.931

Note. $p = 0.05$

Proceeding with the same approach applied for the first writing, according to the output of the second writing, Levene's test indicates that the p value is 0.236, so that the variance of two samples is equal as the p value is greater than 0.05 ($0.236 > 0.05$). Therefore, reliance on Equal variances assumed and focus is given to the p value of the t-test for Equality of Means.

In accordance with the output of the second writing, the p value is 0.026. Accordingly, the p value is smaller than 0.05 ($0.026 < 0.05$). Hence, there is a significant difference between written feedback and video feedback.

Accordingly, these findings denote that participants in the experimental group incorporated higher levels of feedback into

their second drafts than the participants in the control group, which means that the null hypothesis (H_0), students who receive video feedback do not report higher levels of correction into their written work as compared to students who receive written feedback and video feedback, does not convey an effect on students' written work and is, thus, rejected and the finding is regarded as being statistically significant.

In accordance with the statistical findings obtained from the two writings, both writings signify that the p value obtained from the Independent Sample T-test is lower than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). It expresses that the participants in the experimental group incorporated higher levels of correction into their proceeding drafts than the participants in the control group who received written feedback in two writings throughout the study so there is a statistically significant difference between these two folds.

Therefore, the statistical results investigated that the null hypothesis (H_0), students who receive video feedback, does not report higher levels of correction in their written work as compared to students who receive written feedback. Thus, it is rejected according to the comparison of how adequately the experimental and the control groups incorporated the feedback they were provided.

To conclude, the null hypothesis (H_0), that students who receive video feedback do not report higher levels of correction in their written work than students who receive written feedback is rejected. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis (H_1), students who receive video feedback report higher levels of correction in their written work as compared to students who receive written feedback validates the claim that video feedback has a positive effect on ESL learners' paragraph writing skills.

The outcomes presented indicate that video feedback can be used as a potent feedback channel to eliminate the drawbacks of teacher written feedback. Thereby, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H_1) is validated in the sense that video

feedback can be used as an alternative to teacher written feedback. To conclude, the results of the present study convey that video feedback, as a teacher feedback method, has a statistically positive impact on ESL learners' paragraph writing achievement.

Conclusions

According to the outputs of the first and second writings, Levene's test revealed that the p values were 0.257 and 0.236 respectively so that the variance of the two samples was equal as the p values were greater than 0.05 ($0.257 > 0.05$, $0.236 > 0.05$). Therefore, depending on Equal variances assumed the present study focuses on the p-value of the t-test for Equality of Means. In statistical analysis, most studies are performed on a 95% confidence interval; thus, a p-value less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$) is to be taken as significant meaning, that there is a significant difference in the means of the two sample populations tested. It is apparent that the p values of Equal variances assumed in the first and second writings were 0.001 and 0.026 respectively ($0.001 < 0.05$, $0.026 < 0.05$) and the p-values were smaller than 0.05. Accordingly, the results of the first and second writings conveyed that there is a statistically significant difference between written feedback and video feedback in terms of incorporating feedback into their respective writings.

In addition, the present work corroborated that the experimental group incorporated the feedback items provided to their writings with a mean value of 79.40 in their first writing. In contrast to that, the control group incorporated the provided feedback items with a mean value of 62.00 in their first writing. Further, in relation to the second writing, it can be declared that the experimental group has incorporated the feedback provided to their writings with a mean value of 74.70. On the contrary, the control group incorporated written feedback with a mean value of 58.40. Hence, the results grasped from the independent sample t-test and mean values can convincingly support the rejection of the null hypothesis (H_0): Students who receive video feedback do not report higher levels of correction in their written work as compared to students who receive written feedback is rejected.

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Appendices

Academic writing correction symbol

Symbol	Meaning
Ab	- Abbreviation inappropriate/incorrect
adj	- Adjective missing/incorrect
Adv	- Adverb missing/ incorrect
Art	- Article error
Awk.	- Awkward
Cap	- Capitalization error
coh	- Sentences are not well connected
Coll	- Slang/Colloquialism
comb	- Sentences should be combined
cl	- Clarity
Dic	- Inappropriate word choice
dev	- Development needed
frag	- The sentence is not complete. Group of words is a fragment
focus	- Paragraph lacks a clear focus
nsw	- No Such Word
NS	- Not a sentence
om	- Omit
org	- Organizing problems
pos	- Possessive lack/incorrect
Prep	- Preposition error
P	- Punctuation incorrect
q	- Quotation or quotation marks mishandled
red	- Redundancy
Rep.	- Repetitive
S/V	- Subject/Verb error
S/P	- Singular/Plural error
Sp	- Spelling error
sub	- Subordination needed
tr	- Lack of transitions
VF	- Verb Form error
VT	- Verb Tense error
var	- Variety lacking
WF	- Word Form error

WM	- Word Missing
WO	- Word Order error
WW	- Wrong word
Wordy	- Sentences are short
weak	- Sentence is vague or general
??	- Difficult to understand
¶	- Problems with paragraphing
!	- Silly mistake
#	- Space needed
+	- Excellent beginning, ending, use of detail and word choice
//	- Similar ideas are not expressed in identical grammatical constructions

Retrieved from

[http://www2.vobs.at/ludescher/testing/correction%20symbols.h
tml](http://www2.vobs.at/ludescher/testing/correction%20symbols.html), <https://www.rong-chang.com/correctionsymbols.pdf> and
[https://www.kau.edu.sa/Files/0007198/Files/60170_writing%2
0correction%20symbols.pdf](https://www.kau.edu.sa/Files/0007198/Files/60170_writing%20correction%20symbols.pdf)

Appendix A

Component	Marks			
Content and organization	15 marks			
1. Topic sentence (TS) (The roadmap for the paragraph. Introduces main idea and tells reader what to expect from rest of paragraph in terms of content)	The TS opens the paragraph clearly establishing the target of the description. It grabs attention and invites to continue reading.	The TS is dull and uninviting (e.g., "In this paragraph, I am going to describe my grandmother") and/or does not provide the reason why the description is relevant/necessary.	There is no TS establishing the target of the description. Instead, the writer jumps directly into description.	
	4.5 marks	2.5 marks	0 mark	
2. Supporting sentences (SS) (The body of the paragraph: SSs develop TS with facts, details, and/or examples. All SSs must relate to TS (i.e., no irrelevant facts, details, or examples should be included). Relationship	There are two to four fully developed SSs (with relevant facts, details, and/or examples). The relationship of each SS to the TS and to other SSs (prior or next) is clearly established via the corresponding	The SSs are unequally developed. Some are neatly packed with relevant facts, details, and/or examples while others resemble neutral statements instead of descriptive sentences.	There are more than four SSs but they are not sufficiently or clearly developed with relevant facts, details, and/o	The body of the paragraph is constituted by one, excessively long SS or, on the contrary, of a series of short and/or disconnected SSs (e.g., no connecting words or incorrect connecting words are used). The SS(s) do not

p of each SS to TS must be clearly indicated with connecting words. Same applies to relationship of one SS to next or previous one.)	connecting words.	The candidate has aimed at establishing a relationship between the SSs and the TS and among the SSs themselves, successfully in some cases and unsuccessfully in others (i.e., correct or incorrect use of connecting words).	re examples. There is no attempt (i.e., no use of connecting words) to establish the relationship between the SSs and the TS or among the SSs themselves.	provide enough facts, details, or examples to develop the TS or they seem unrelated to it. The relationship of each SS and the TS and among the different SSs is not established or is not clear enough.
	6 marks	4.5 marks	3 marks	0 mark
3. Closing sentence (CS). (CS ends paragraph reminding reader of person, thing, or place described in SSs. Must clearly show that the	The CS adequately reformulates the TS and/or elements of the SSs and leaves the reader with a lasting image of the person, thing, or place	The CS a) fails to show or does not clearly show its relationship to the TS and/or to the SSs, and b) does not seem to provide a sense of closure to	There is no CS. The paragraph ends while still providing information about the target of the description and without	

writer has completed the message presented in TS restating it with different words and/or leaving the reader with a lasting image of the person, thing, or place described. Does not include new ideas.)	described. It neatly closes the paragraph.	the paragraph (e.g., details / facts / examples that are new or unrelated to the TS/SSs may have been introduced).	adding a final sentence to wrap it all up and close the paragraph.	
	4.5 marks	2.5 marks	0 mark	
Grammar and vocabulary	20 marks			
4. Grammar (Candidates must demonstrate mastery of A1, A2, and B1 grammar topics. Two (or more) instances of the same error will be penalized only once).	No “penalizable” errors.	One to three “penalizable” errors.	One to three “penalizable” errors.	Six or more “penalizable” errors.
	10 marks	7.5 marks	5 marks	2.5 marks
5. Vocabulary (Candidates must use a variety of lexical items).	A wide variety of precise, vivid, sense-reaching words/phrases is used. These	A variety of vivid, sense-reaching words/phrases is used. These words/phrases draw	Sense-reaching words/phrases have not been sufficiently	No sense-reaching words or phrases are used, or they are used incorrectly.

	words/phrases draw pictures in the reader's mind and linger there. Their placement in the sentence seems accurate, natural and not forced. At least one simile or metaphor has been used.	pictures in the reader's mind and may even linger there. Occasionally, however, some of those words/phrases are used inaccurately or seem overdone.	developed (i.e., there are not enough of them to capture the reader's interest, or their use is incorrect). Word choice is vague, mundane, and/or repetitive (i.e., words/phrases communicate clearly, but the paragraph lacks variety, punch, and/or flair).	Word choice is bland, repetitive, limited, and fails to accurately describe the target person, object, or place. It also fails to communicate meaning at the denotative/representative level.
	10 marks	7.5 marks	5 marks	2.5 marks
Mechanics	5 marks			
6. Spelling (Supposedly already acquired words (A1, A2,	No "penalizable" errors.	One or two "penalizable" errors.	Three "penalizable" errors.	Four or more "penalizable" errors.

B1) must be correctly spelled (i.e., A1, A2 and B1 lexical items are consider ed “penaliz able”).				
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Note 01 - Candidates must demonstrate mastery of CEFR bench mark A1, A2, and B1 grammar topics

B1	generally good control though with noticeable mother tongue influence. Errors occur, but it is clear what he/she is trying to express.
	Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used "routines" and patterns associated with more predictable situations.
A2	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes for example tends to mix up tenses and forget to mark agreement; nevertheless, it is usually clear what he/she is trying to say.
A1	Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a learnt repertoire.

Note 02 - Candidates must demonstrate mastery of CEFR benchmark A1, A2, and B1 spelling control.

B1	Can produce continuous writing, which is generally intelligible throughout. Spelling, punctuation and layout are accurate enough to be followed most of the time.
A2	Can copy short sentences on everyday subjects - e.g. directions how to get somewhere Can write with reasonable phonetic accuracy (but not necessarily fully standard spelling) short words that are in his/her oral vocabulary.
A1	Can copy familiar words and short phrases e.g. simple signs or instructions, names of everyday objects, names of shops and set phrases used regularly. Can spell his/her address, nationality and other personal details.