

Efficacy of Screencast Versus Textual Feedback on IELTS Writing Task 2: A Qualitative Study of Bangladeshi Test-Takers

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Abstract

It has been generally established that feedback serves an important purpose in developing second language learners' writing skills. Screencast feedback is a new breed of feedback, whereas the most traditional mode of providing L2 writing feedback has been textual feedback. In the context of Bangladesh, research is scarce regarding screencast feedback in general, and IELTS writing feedback in particular. To fill that gap and compare screencast feedback with traditional textual feedback, this study adopts a qualitative approach by conducting an experiment on prospective and experienced Bangladeshi IELTS test-takers, and then interviewing them to gauge their attitudes toward the feedback modes. In a four-phase research framework, twenty-two participants wrote a pre- and post-feedback IELTS Writing Task 2 essay, with half receiving textual feedback, and the rest receiving screencast feedback. Finally, semi-structured interviews were conducted to explore their perceptions. The essays were marked using the official IELTS Writing Task 2 rubric to ensure score validity and reliability. The experimental results revealed that both feedback modes, especially screencast feedback, led to significant score increases, particularly in the rubric elements of task response and coherence and cohesion. The perceptions of the Bangladeshi IELTS test-takers were remarkably positive for screencast feedback, to the point that all eleven screencast feedback receivers called for it to be introduced into curricula. To minimize teacher effort and boost efficiency, participants recommended teachers provide screencast feedback to selected students and upload the videos anonymously so that other students can benefit from them.

Keywords: IELTS Task 2, Formative Assessment, L2 Writing, Multimodal Feedback, Screencast Feedback.

Introduction

It is often heard that one of the most dreaded aspects of a teacher's job is script checking. When script checking involves giving feedback as well, then the task is even more taxing. As difficult as the provision of feedback is to students, it is also extremely beneficial for language learning. In fact, Hyland and Hyland (2006) say that feedback is particularly beneficial for second language (L2) writing development. Over the years, various modes and types of writing feedback have been elaborated in the literature, with the traditionally default feedback mode being textual feedback, whereas a relatively newer one is screencast feedback. This study aims to explore any potential differences between textual

and screencast feedback used to evaluate Bangladeshi people's IELTS Writing Task 2 attempts. To that end, an experimental study is used, where two groups of an equal number of participants are provided textual and screencast feedback and then interviewed post-experiment to get their perceptions as well.

A brief overview of IELTS Writing Task 2 is given here, mostly drawing on the official IELTS website. There are two types of IELTS: IELTS General Training and IELTS Academic, the former for immigrants or workers from non-English speaking countries and the latter for students who seek higher studies in an English-speaking country (IELTS, n.d.-b). Both IELTS types contain four components—reading, writing, listening, and speaking—but the types vary in the testing of reading and writing. IELTS scores are referred to as band scores and range from 0 to 9. IELTS Academic Writing comprises two tasks and has a duration of 60 minutes in total. Task 1 contains one-third of the writing band score and recommends at least a 150-word answer within 20 minutes. In IELTS Academic, test-takers have to write a report on graphs, charts, or diagrams, and compare the major data, while the IELTS General Training Writing Test 1 calls for a formal or informal letter. As for Task 2, it carries two-thirds of the writing band score and is to be written in at least 250 words within a suggested 40-minute time frame. In both IELTS General Training and IELTS Academic, Writing Task 2 is a composition prompt requiring test-takers to write an essay on “a point of view, argument or problem” based on a prompt (IELTS, n.d.-a, paragraph 3). The candidates should also relate their writing to examples from their own lives for high band scores. Detailed rubrics are present for all four components of the IELTS, and also for Writing Tasks 1 and 2 separately. For Writing Task 2, the assessment criteria are as follows (IELTS, n.d.-a):

- Task response: the extent to which the instructions have been followed to produce a sufficient answer with relevant and extended examples
- Coherence and cohesion: the degree to which the ideas and language elements are organized
- Lexical resource: the accuracy and range of appropriate vocabulary
- Grammatical range and accuracy: the flexibility of grammar use and how accurate it is

Problem Statement

The status of English in the EFL context of Bangladesh is quite prestigious, as competence in English can serve as a sigil of high education, manifest respect, and act as a gatekeeper to several white-collar jobs (Awal, 2022). Despite this highly valued position of English in the country, the general English proficiency of Bangladeshi people is quite low when compared to that of neighboring countries. Various issues such as the exam-obsessed nature of the country, its corruption-filled scene, and lack of long-term policies are perpetuating this underwhelming proficiency in English (Rahman et al., 2019). Another area requiring significant concern is effective writing feedback. Despite the appeal of English within the country's borders, a sizable portion of the populace aims to go abroad for higher studies and even settle their afterward. For moving to most developed countries from

Bangladesh, one requirement is a standardized language proficiency test, with the single most widespread of these in Bangladesh being the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). There are numerous IELTS centers in Bangladesh where 15,000 or more people take the IELTS every year, and numerous coaching centers guarantee a high IELTS band score such as 7 out of 9 (Kabir, 2018). Despite the mainstream status of IELTS, the writing module's score is the lowest, with an average band score of 6.0 in 2025 (IELTS, 2025). Thus, the massive popularity of IELTS in Bangladesh warrants a study on how feedback is given on IELTS writing. Since the research field of feedback in writing is also quite sizeable, this study focuses on only two feedback modes: textual and screencast feedback.

Research Questions

Based on the above discussion, the following are the research questions of the study:

1. What are the differences, if any, between textual and screencast feedback as reflected in Bangladeshi IELTS test-takers' IELTS Writing Task 2 attempts?
2. What are the perceived benefits and challenges of textual and screencast feedback according to IELTS test-takers in Bangladesh?

Literature Review

Benefits of L2 Writing Feedback

Feedback is considered an integral component of L2 writing by most scholars. According to Ur (1996), L2 writing feedback helps learners in error correction. A big name in the field of L2 writing feedback research, Dana Ferris, considers feedback to be beneficial to language teaching and learning overall (Ferris, 2003). Several studies—such as Farrah (2012), Kahyalar and Yilmaz (2016), Kamberi (2013), and Ruegg (2016)—have found that writing quality is enhanced by the process of written feedback. Most teachers also perceive feedback to be helpful (Ali, 2011). Even beyond language teaching, L2 writing feedback is important for education in general since other subject teachers may significantly penalize students for their poor writing skills in contexts where English is used as the medium of instruction (Janopoulos, 1992).

Three other benefits of feedback are explored by Kulhavy and Wager (1993): a) feedback serves as a motivating factor in the form of praise; b) both positive and negative feedback can develop writing skills; c) positive feedback can reinforce good writing habits, and negative feedback can influence the discontinuation and modification of writing habits. Indeed, though L2 writing feedback alone is not responsible for long-term writing development, "it is almost certainly a highly significant factor" (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p. 4).

Challenges of L2 Writing Feedback

Despite the numerous benefits of L2 writing feedback discussed, there also exist several challenges and side effects in implementing it. Indeed, feedback may not necessarily lead to uptake or L2 writing development, and several studies have, in fact, found limited success rates of feedback (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris, 1997; Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992). One early detractor of feedback, John Truscott—in Truscott (1996)—said that L2 writing feedback has so little benefit that teachers should abolish it and try to develop L2 writing in other ways. Even some L2 feedback proponents like Carless (2006), Ferris (2007), and Hyland and Hyland (2006) highlight how teacher-given feedback can be considered authoritarian and thus be perceived negatively by students, lowering students' confidence and leaving them overwhelmed (Carless, 2006).

Carless (2006) also mentioned that feedback may often lack clarity and specificity. Most studies have established that the majority of students prefer comprehensive feedback (Grami, 2005; Lee, 2005; Leki, 1991; Norouzian & Farahani, 2012; Pearson, 2022; Radecki & Swales, 1988; Ravand & Rasekh, 2011; Rennie, 2000). Unfortunately, students are often dissatisfied with the process of feedback (Ekşi, 2012). Of course, when it comes to the teacher, giving detailed feedback requires a lot of time and effort, which is a definite challenge (Liu & Brown, 2015). Finally, a cultural barrier may reduce the effectiveness of feedback, as students who come from non-Western cultures may passively incorporate teacher-given feedback without sufficiently reflecting on it (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990).

Where to Focus the Feedback

The focus of feedback can be both narrow and broad. According to Ellis (2009), whereas unfocused feedback is indiscriminate feedback on every error type, focused feedback can zoom in on one or a few language errors such as spelling, punctuation, grammar, writing style, and vocabulary—as per the language learner's most immediate need. Most scholars tend to value focused rather than unfocused feedback (Sheen et al., 2009). When mechanical error correction was superseded by the communicative revolution in the field of language teaching, many language practitioners and scholars began thinking that meaning-focused is more effective than form-focused feedback (Harmer, 2015). In other words, according to several late-1990s language teaching experts, feedback was mainly important for functional or global errors like writing style, not for purely linguistic or local errors like spelling and grammar.

On the other hand, Hyland and Hyland (2006) stress L2 writing feedback for mainly local errors, and disregard the notion that simply focusing on meaning-focused feedback is sufficient for L2 writing development. Master (1995) and White et al. (1991) are also of the view that form-focused L2 writing feedback is important. Several longitudinal studies—such as Chandler (2003), Fathman and Whalley (1990), Ferris (2011), and Ferris and Helt (2000)—found that grammatical accuracy is improved due to continuous L2 writing feedback. However, not everyone subscribes to the duality of form-focused and meaning-focused feedback. For instance, Hyland and Hyland (2006) go so far as to claim, "In fact, the

separation of form and content is largely an artificial one, of dubious theoretical value, and impossible to maintain when responding to writing" (p. 4).

Likewise, the IELTS Writing Task 2 rubric also contains a focus on both form and content. In particular, though some of the marking criteria have a dual focus, the focus on form is in the rubric element of grammatical range and accuracy—whereas the focus on function is in the rubric elements of task response, coherence and cohesion, and lexical resource (IELTS n.d.-a).

Screencast Feedback: A New Breakthrough?

Screencast feedback, also known as video or audio-visual feedback, is a relatively new phenomenon that has considerable pedagogical potential regarding L2 writing feedback. Screencast feedback is not a type of feedback, but rather a mode. The traditional mode of writing feedback is either textual feedback, as handwritten notes on scripts, or oral feedback, given by the teacher's mouth in the classroom (Solhi & Eginli, 2020). A more recently developing feedback mode is voice, voice-based, or audio feedback, which is voice-recorded oral feedback using a mobile phone or an audio recorder (Solhi & Eginli, 2020); this feedback mode has the inherent advantage of being more personal and dialogic due to the idiosyncratic vocal features of the teacher such as stress and intonation (Parkes & Fletcher, 2019). As for screencast feedback, it is when the feedback provider records their screen while giving feedback (Alharbi, 2022). Such screen-recorded feedback has great potential since it combines the benefits of audio feedback with screencast technology, where text, audiovisual media (such as photos, videos, and animations), and the feedback giver's own voice and mouse-pointer can theoretically work in harmony to provide feedback (Alharbi, 2022; Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024; Penn & Brown, 2022). Therefore, although in principle textual feedback can have the same level of thoroughness as that of screencast feedback, the mode—video as opposed to textual—almost always means that the latter is more comprehensive than the former.

Research on screencast feedback is still inconclusive (Bakla, 2020; Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024; Penn & Brown, 2022), with only a handful of studies attempting to compare the efficacy of screencast feedback in comparison to textual feedback. For example, in a meta-analysis on screencast or audiovisual feedback in 2022, Penn and Brown (2022) identified 502 peer-reviewed articles either focusing on or at least alluding to screencast feedback on writing, out of which only 6 methodically compared both textual and screencast feedback. In a more recent meta-analysis that used a more restrictive selection process, the number was merely 2 out of 457 articles (Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024). Only Xie et al. (2022) contrasted screencast feedback and textual feedback in terms of IELTS Writing preparation. Their findings corroborated previous research about screencast feedback catering to global errors compared to local errors (Din Eak & Annamalai, 2025). However, there are methodological flaws in the study, as the student participants merely revised the IELTS Writing essay they received feedback on, as opposed to writing an essay on a different topic.

Though meta-analyses (Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024; Penn & Brown, 2022) do not conclude with a full confidence in adopting screencast feedback, they do cite a vast number of advantages over disadvantages. Regarding advantages hitherto not mentioned, scholars such as Alharbi (2022) found that, in both quantity and quality, screencast feedback is significantly superior to text feedback, and is also the most impactful feedback mode alongside oral feedback. Moreover, screencast feedback promotes higher-order skills in writing as well, as teachers are more inclined to focus on higher-order rubric elements like content, organization, and clarity as opposed to local errors like grammar and spelling (Alharbi, 2022; Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024; Penn & Brown, 2022; Xie et al., 2022). Screencast feedback is also more convenient for students to follow since feedback is given both aurally and visually, which caters to learners with visual and aural intelligence (Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024; Edwards et al., 2012; Penn & Brown, 2022). Due to its multimodal nature, screencast feedback is also perceived and argued to make teacher comments more akin to a conversation rather than authoritative and objective comments (Zahro, 2023). Li et al. (2024) found that the conversational nature of screencast feedback also develops student-teacher relationships. Multimodality is also cited to lessen the cognitive load on learners. According to cognitive load theory, there is only so much information, or load, that is retained from short-term memory to long term memory (van Nooijen et al., 2024). Feedback can both help and hinder the process, as a cluttered manner of providing feedback may overwhelm the student, whereas a streamlined, bulleted point list can facilitate uptake (Brummer et al., 2024). Scholars have argued that screencast feedback—despite being spontaneous and spoken, and so not as streamlined as neat comments—reduces the cognitive load on students due to its conversational nature, alongside the mouse pointer and the teacher’s voice guiding the feedback (Marsovna et al., 2024). As for perceived challenges, there is the obvious technological barrier that teachers need to overcome. Fortunately, screencast technology has become, if not mainstream, at least somewhat common due to the COVID-19 pandemic due to Zoom and Google Meet (Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024). These and many other software applications have the facility to record one’s screen, and so if a teacher has Zoom on their phone or personal computer, and digital scripts to check, then not much barrier remains for at least trying out screencast feedback. Another challenge of incorporating screencast feedback is the apparent time investment required by both the feedback provider and the receiver (Zahro, 2023; Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024; Penn & Brown, 2022). However, from the researcher’s own experience, a typical screencast feedback video on a 1000-word assignment does not take over 7 minutes, which is a similar time investment when compared to textual feedback (personal communication). Finally, much of the criticism of writing feedback is that students do not take it seriously (see, for example, Truscott, 1996), and so if they are compelled to spend more time on feedback due to it being a screencast video, then it is far from a disadvantage from a pedagogical perspective.

Relevant Studies in the Bangladeshi Context

There exist some studies regarding L2 writing feedback in Bangladesh. For example, Mohiuddin and Sultana (2016), in a quantitative study, found that tertiary-level students perceive writing feedback to be essential to writing development, and that both positive and negative feedback are important. The authors also found that the majority of students preferred meaning-focused feedback to form-focused feedback. Other findings of the study included a preference for feedback to be direct, unfocused, and comprehensive. This also correlates with another Bangladeshi quantitative study (Zaman et al., 2012). However, one finding—that the students ‘strongly agreed’ to the existing feedback practices being helpful (Mohiuddin & Sultana, 2016, p. 179)—is unusual and does not match other qualitative studies in the context of Bangladesh (such as Sayma, 2020).

Regarding IELTS research on Bangladeshi people, many studies—such as Al Amin and Greenwood (2018)—focused on the appropriacy of IELTS as a standardized language test that should be used to remodel the existing high-stakes exams in the country. The official IELTS website holds that the average score of a Bangladeshi on the IELTS Academic in 2025 was 6.0 in writing, and 6.18 overall (IELTS, 2025). However, Islam and Stapa (2021) have found worse results, claiming that the average private university student in Bangladesh would receive an IELTS band score of merely 5. Unfortunately, an overall IELTS score of 6 or 6.5 at least is required for admission into most universities in developed English-speaking countries, resulting in the massive popularity of IELTS coaching centers and superfluous promises like ‘IELTS 7+ guaranteed’ (Kabir, 2018). Thus, there is a need to address this significant lack of English proficiency in a country where high IELTS band scores are heralded as such a precious prospect.

In summation, though some studies have been conducted in Bangladesh regarding feedback, and even less regarding IELTS writing, a dearth of research exists regarding feedback mode in Bangladesh. Moreover, very few studies in any part of the world (one of them being Xie et al., 2022) have differentiated feedback modes in IELTS Writing Task 2 preparation, with not a single study on screencast feedback.

Methodology

Research Design

A qualitative, inductive research approach has been taken in this study. The researcher himself designed a pseudo-experimental design that followed a four-phase model: a writing session, a feedback session, post-feedback writing session, and, in the final phase, a semi-structured interview. Participants, divided into two groups, were put into two experimental groups: one group was given textual feedback in the second phase, and the other group was given screencast feedback. No control group was used in this study based on the rationale that all feedback modes—whether textual or screencast or otherwise—have been established to have positive impacts on at least short-term learning. To clarify, the researcher himself marked all the writing attempts in Phase 2 using the official IELTS writing rubric. The research design model is portrayed below for convenience.

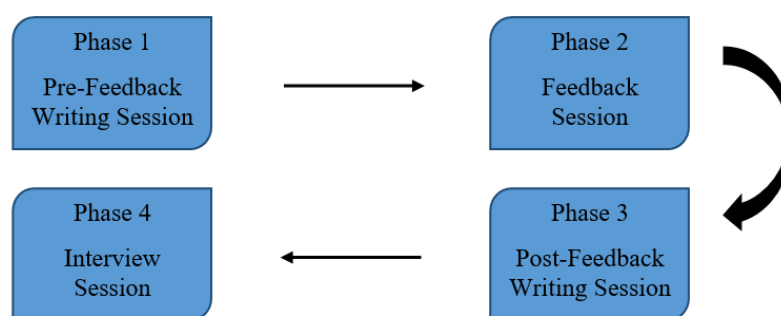


Figure 1: Four-Phase Research Design

Participants

22 participants in total were selected for this study via purposive sampling and snowball sampling methods. Participants were selected if they fulfilled either of the criteria: a) they sat for their IELTS within the past five years (since any earlier may lead to difficulty in remembering), or b) they are currently preparing to sit for the IELTS. The reason for selecting experienced IELTS-takers, or at least those that took preparation for the IELTS, is that such participants are familiar with the test format; otherwise, weaker performance in the experiment could have to do with their unfamiliarity rather than other variables. The male-female ratio of the participants is 1:2. Among them, nine have taken the IELTS, with T₄ having taken it twice, and the rest are currently preparing for it. For the participants who took the IELTS, their IELTS writing score is given in the table. All but one took IELTS Academic. Each participant's medium of English is also accounted for, as those from an English medium background might have an advantage in English essay writing. As shown in the table below, the participants are referred to by a letter between T and S—corresponding to textual and screencast feedback receivers—and a numeric—between 1 and 11.

Table 1: Participant Profile

Name	Gender	Age	Educational Background	Taken the IELTS or Not	IELTS Academic / IELTS General Training	Obtained Writing Score
T ₁	Female	27	Bangla	Yes	IELTS Academic	6.5
T ₂	Female	27	Bangla	Yes	IELTS Academic	6.5
T ₃	Female	26	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
T ₄	Male	31	Bangla	Yes	IELTS General Training	8.5; 7.0
T ₅	Male	27	English	Yes	IELTS Academic	5.0
T ₆	Female	27	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
T ₇	Male	26	English	Yes	IELTS Academic	6.0
T ₈	Female	27	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
T ₉	Female	24	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
T ₁₀	Female	24	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-

Name	Gender	Age	Educational Background	Taken the IELTS or Not	IELTS Academic / IELTS General Training	Obtained Writing Score
T11	Female	24	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
S1	Female	27	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
S2	Female	26	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
S3	Female	25	English	Yes	IELTS Academic	6.5
S4	Female	26	English	Yes	IELTS Academic	6.5
S5	Male	26	English	Yes	IELTS Academic	6.5
S6	Female	26	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
S7	Female	24	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
S8	Male	26	English	Yes	IELTS Academic	6.5
S9	Male	27	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
S10	Female	18	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-
S11	Male	24	Bangla	No	IELTS Academic	-

Data Collection

From the four-phase research design (see Figure 1), phases 1, 2, and 4 concern data collection. In Phase 1, the students' IELTS Writing Task 2 attempts constituted research data. Feedback on these attempts was individually given to the students in Phase 2, after which the participants attempted an IELTS Writing Task 2 (on a different topic) in Phase 3. Finally, in Phase 4, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants to gauge their perceptions of the overall experiment and the feedback modes.

Experimental Data

No significant challenge was faced during the data collection procedure besides having to repeatedly remind some participants to submit their tasks for phases 1 and 3. The IELTS writing task chosen for all twenty-two participants in Phase 1 is the same. This was done to ensure everyone had the same question to answer. An effort was taken to ensure the same quality—or, specificity and complexity—of the feedback. The L2 writing feedback in Phase 2 was thus unfocused and comprehensive to ensure that every possible mistake in the writing was highlighted and commented on. Nonetheless, since screencast feedback combines audio and visual modes, the feedback input, though the same as the textual mode in theory, is inherently more detailed than textual feedback. In the third phase, a different IELTS Writing Task 2 from Phase 1 was given. Phases 1 and 3 had discussion and opinion essay prompts. General topics were chosen so as to ensure validity.

Interview Data

The interview process—which constituted the final phase—was conducted online on Zoom since it is a free video conferencing software with the facility to record. Though the participants were asked to incorporate the feedback for only Phase 1 and not Phase 3, their Phase 3 attempts were also marked and provided with feedback. Phase 3 attempts were

marked so that the researcher could gauge the uptake, if any, from Phase 1. Getting the interviews done was unfortunately a taxing process as the researcher had to reschedule interviews for several participants. At the end of the interviews, the participants were provided their marked scripts if they desired them.

Data Analysis

Thematic analysis, as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006, as cited in Maguire & Delahunt, 2017), was used for data analysis. The data gathered in Phase 1 was analyzed first, since feedback had to be given based on it in Phase 2. Similarly, the post-feedback writing attempts were also analyzed. Both pre- and post-feedback writing attempts were marked according to the publicly available official IELTS Writing Task 2 rubric (see 1.3). Data from the final phase constituting the interviews were analyzed thematically from codes and subsequent themes. Finally, the themes are presented as subsections in this report.

Researcher Positionality

As evident throughout this methodology section, the researcher plays a significant role in this study. The researcher has not only conducted the semi-structured interviews in Phase 4, but also selected the IELTS Writing Task 2 questions, as well as, most importantly, assessed the writing attempts in Phase 2 and analysed them. As a full-time lecturer in English linguistics, having secured an overall band score of 8.5 and a band score of 8 in Writing, as well as being a part-time IELTS instructor, the researcher feels suited to mark writing prompts following a rubric. Nevertheless, he is not an official IELTS instructor affiliated with either British Council or IDP, the two official IELTS providers (British Council, n.d.).

However, the researcher can ensure that significant attempts were made to boost the validity and reliability of the data analysis. First, the researcher adhered to the publicly available official IELTS Writing Task 2 rubric, which is a marking scheme containing four separate linguistic criteria. Therefore, there were clear guidelines that the researcher followed, which limited the scope of erroneous or irrelevant feedback comments. Reliability was further enhanced through cross-validation with an Associate Professor of English at the researcher's graduate university. Moreover, samples of the collected and analysed data are provided in the Appendices, which can be requested by emailing the researcher. As for the screencast feedback videos, they are available on YouTube and thus transparent. Of course, anonymity has been ensured by removing any hints, such as abbreviations, of the participants' names, both in the Microsoft Word softcopy as well as in the file name.

Ethical Considerations

Throughout the study, numerous ethical considerations were taken into account such as not forcing anyone to participate, making sure they know what they have to do as participants, letting them know their rights as participants, and using pseudonyms for anonymity. To ensure these, informed consent was taken from willing participants.

However, during the grouping of the participants into either textual or screencast feedback receivers in Phase 2, the participants did not have a choice in picking their preferred feedback mode. This was done to prevent feedback mode preference from entering the picture.

Findings

This section is divided into the four phases of the framework. The findings of phases 1, 2, and 3 constitute the experimental data, whereas the outcomes of Phase 4—the interview procedure—are presented upon thematic analysis.

Phases 1 and 2: Pre-Feedback Writing Attempts

This section compares and contrasts the pre-feedback Writing Task 2 band scores the participants received. Both the overall band scores and the individual rubric element scores are provided.

Table 2: Phase 1 scores

Participants	Writing Band Scores				
	Task Response	Coherence and Cohesion	Lexical Resource	Grammatical Range and Accuracy	Overall
T1	5	6	6	7	6.0
T2	7	7	8	7	7.25 = 7.0
T3	7	7	8	6	7.0
T4	6	8	8	8	7.5
T5	6	6	6	4	5.5
T6	8	7	7	8	7.5
T7	9	8	8	9	8.5
T8	8	7	7	7	7.25
T9	8	7	6	7	7.5
T10	7	7	7	7	7.0
T11	7	7	7	6	6.75
S1	7	8	7	6	7.0
S2	6	5	6	4	5.25 = 5.0
S3	6	6	8	7	6.75 = 6.5
S4	7	6	8	9	7.5
S5	6	6	8	8	7.0
S6	8	9	6	6	7.25 = 7.0
S7	7	5	6	7	6.25 = 6.0
S8	9	7	6	6	7.0
S9	6	5	6	5	5.5
S10	6	5	7	6	6.0
S11	9	7	6	6	7.0

Variation in Strengths and Weaknesses

As Table 2 shows, the language proficiency of the participants varied widely. Each participant had characteristic strengths and weaknesses in their writing. For example, grammar was the strong point of T₄, T₇, and S₄, but a weakness of T₅, S₂, and S₉. In S₁ and S₃'s cases, their score in grammar brought down their overall band score—whereas, in S₄'s case, her grammar score raised her overall score from 7 to 7.5. Moreover, grammar was the rubric element that had the most variation out of the four, with the score range being 4 to 9.

Two main reasons led to low scores in grammar: inaccurate grammar usage and a lack of variation in sentence structure. Regarding inaccurate grammar, most were slips and careless mistakes such as using the singular form instead of the plural form (such as "reason" instead of "reasons"), missing prepositions (such as "of" missing between "importance money"), lack of punctuation (such as no comma after "no matter what"), and inappropriate placement of articles (such as "the both" instead of "both the"). As for grammatical range, many participants were unaware that they had to display their knowledge of using a variety of sentences by mixing simple, complex, and compound sentences. In other words, they thought about solely grammatical accuracy, and disregarded grammatical range. Especially for T₃, this was an issue because her lack of complex sentences diminished her score despite her overall accurate grammar use.

The criterion with the second highest variation was coherence and cohesion, which ranged from 5 to 9. Coherence and cohesion issues concerned the lack of discourse markers and effective paragraphing. Discourse markers or linking words and phrases were used by all participants, but most were advised in the feedback to use even more. The following snapshot shows S₂ having paragraphing issues:

Answer			
The real meaning of happiness varies from one person to another. Some people argue that economic prosperity has a direct influence on happiness while others encourage to build good interpersonal relationships, family bonding, healthiness and socialization to become happy.		USER	building
		USER	health
Firstly, there is no doubt that people with good jobs have more prosperous lives than ordinary citizens in our society. These people hold prestigious position in our society because they have financial support to fulfill their desires. They are free to purchase expensive things of their own interest for instance, smartphone, laptop, car etc. People with good jobs can lead a wealthy lifestyle and for this reason they cannot pay much attention and care towards their family members. Besides good jobs there are some other factors which have strong influence on happiness.		USER	positions
		USER	, or -
		USER	,
		USER	Use synonyms
		USER	Use this as the beginning
Good health is another factor which can bring happiness in peoples' lives. A healthy person can participate in various easy and difficult activities which can be a source of happiness for him. Moreover, friendly relations among family members and other people can make life happier than before. For example, children feel happy when they play with their friends, women like to gossip with other women about shopping, Hindi TV serials etc. They find peace in these activities. In addition, family relationships and peaceful mind these are also important aspects which can bring happiness in our lives. To sum up the discussion, I would like to say that, besides economic prosperity other factors also play pivotal role in our happy lives.		USER	people's
		USER	, and
		USER	,
		USER	Repetition of a main point:
		USER	Remove 'these'
		USER	,
		USER	roles

Figure 2: Coherence and Cohesion Issues: Snapshot of S₂'s Phase 1 Attempt

Here, the number of paragraphs is merely three. Although an entire paragraph is dedicated to the introduction, the same is not true for the conclusion. Another issue with the paragraphing of this script is that the third paragraph—besides including the conclusion—contains two main ideas: one being the importance of health and the other being friendly

relationships. Since each body paragraph in academic essays should have one fully developed idea instead of more than one (Al-khazraji, 2019), this penalizes marks in coherence and cohesion. Besides S2, S1 also had this issue of writing in only three paragraphs. S1 did dedicate an entire paragraph to her conclusion, but she wrote all her central ideas in simply one paragraph.

Patterns of High and Low Scorers

The rubric element, task response, had a wide range—from 5 to 9—with an error pattern that almost every low scorer made. The mistake lay in following the question prompt which had two requirements: discussing two views and then giving one's own opinion. Several participants only responded to either of these two. For instance, T2 only discussed one view, and S2 did not provide her opinion. In fact, T4 received 6 in task response though he received 8 in the other three components. An anomaly was S9, who received 9 in task response but an overall score of 7.5.

As for lexical resource, nobody received less than 6, and the highest score was 8. Participants who received 7 or 8 used topic-specific vocabulary and an appropriate writing style, with expressions such as "brain drain" and "generic and shallow narrative." The most common reason for low scores in lexical resource was inappropriate diction. For instance, S1 wrote, "... the most common influence of happiness" instead of "... the most common element/factor/determinant of happiness." Another trait that diminished lexical resource scores was the lack of synonym use. S2, for example, kept using "good jobs," and T1 repeatedly used "economy." A final noteworthy finding was that those who received high scores in lexical resource also scored well overall.

In short, different participants excelled in different rubric criteria, and some, like T4, suffered due to one particular criterion. Some of the errors committed by the participants, especially on task response and coherence and cohesion, appear to be easy to solve, whereas others like overall grammatical competence and vocabulary may require more thorough practice.

Phase 3: Post-Feedback Writing Attempts

Table 3: Phase 3 Scores

Participants	Writing Band Scores				
	Task Response	Coherence and Cohesion	Lexical Resource	Grammatical Range and Accuracy	Overall
T1	6	7	7	7	6.75 = 6.5
T2	8	7	7	8	7.5
T3	6	8	8	6	7.0
T4	8	9	8	9	8.5
T5	7	7	7	3	6.0
T6	8	8	8	7	7.75 = 7.5
T7	8	8	9	9	8.5

Participants	Writing Band Scores				
	Task Response	Coherence and Cohesion	Lexical Resource	Grammatical Range and Accuracy	Overall
T8	7	8	8	6	7.25 = 7.0
T9	8	7	7	8	7.5
T10	8	9	8	7	8.0
T11	9	8	8	7	8.0
S1	9	9	8	8	8.5
S2	7	9	7	7	7.5
S3	7	7	7	7	7.0
S4	5	7	9	9	7.5
S5	6	8	9	9	8.0
S6	8	8	8	8	8.0
S7	8	7	8	8	7.75 = 7.5
S8	8	7	8	9	8.0
S9	8	7	6	5	6.5
S10	6	7	7	6	6.5
S11	7	5	8	7	6.75 = 6.5

Table 4: Mean Scores Pre- and Post-Feedback

Group		Pre-Feedback Mean	Post-Feedback Mean	Mean Increase
Textual	Feedback	7.07	7.52	0.45
Receivers				
Screencast	Feedback	6.59	7.45	0.86
Receivers				

Apart from S11, who had a score decrease of 0.25, every single participant either retained or increased their scores in Phase 3. Some had massive score increases, especially screencast feedback receivers such as S1 and S2, who went from 7 and 5.25 to 8.5 and 7.5 respectively. Textual feedback receivers also received gains, as T1 upgraded from 6 to 6.75, T4 increased his score by 1, and T11's score rose by more than an entire band. As for the anomaly S11, he unfortunately made a blunder in the areas of task response and coherence and cohesion. This point is further discussed in the interview analysis section.

Going into more specifics, coherence and cohesion had the most upward spikes, as T4, T10, S1, and S2 received 9 in this criterion. This rise was due to them keeping one separate paragraph for each central idea besides the introduction and conclusion. However, not all participants adhered to coherent and cohesive writing techniques. For example, T2 attained the same score—7—as she had paragraphing issues. Moreover, although T1 increased her score by nearly one band, she used no linking words in her second paragraph, which was something she also had problems with during Phase 1. Finally, S11's score in coherence and cohesion was unfortunately two points below his Phase 1 score.

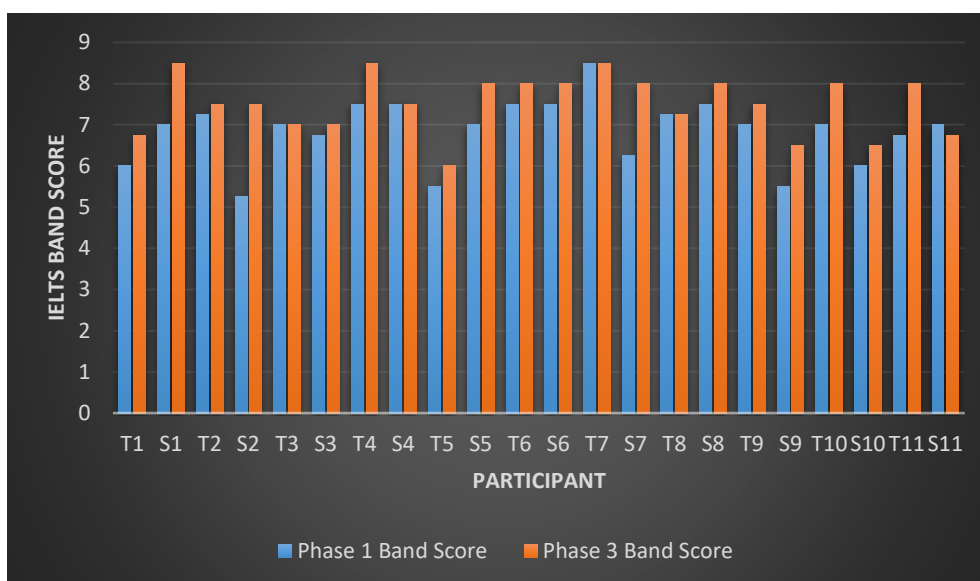


Figure 3: Bar Chart of Phase 1 and Phase 3 scores

Scores in task response for most participants also saw significant increases, with almost every participant increasing their score in this criterion by at least 1. S1 achieved a perfect 9 in this criterion, increasing her band score by 2. Despite this, there were still problems. For example, though T1 increased her score by 1, it is still only 6 since she has not followed the instruction for fulfilling both task requirements. The same issue of sufficiently addressing the prompt was faced by S3. As for S4, she regressed from a score of 7 in task response to 5, the reason being that while she incorporated the feedback of addressing both the views in the question, she refrained from fulfilling another task requirement—giving her own opinion—which she fulfilled well in the pre-feedback writing attempt. A similar fate befell S11, whose score decreased from 7 to 5 in Phase 3 due to a lack of coherent paragraphs and linking devices.

Regarding grammatical range and accuracy, some participants boosted their scores significantly, while others received the same score. For instance, S2 increased her score in this criterion from 4 to 7, and S1 from 6 to 8. Both participants not only reduced careless grammatical mistakes but also put forward sufficient effort to use more complex sentences. For example, S2 used the conditional grammar item for the sentence, “To elaborate, if a person is not able to sustain his remuneration in his/her own country, then the best option is to look for job opportunities in other countries.” On the other hand, some participants like T1 and S3 could not bring any increase to their score in this criterion, and each made slips like “aboard” instead of “abroad” and “easy” instead of “essay.”

Scores in the rubric element, lexical resource, however, fluctuated minimally. The highest score difference was only 1, and while four participants did increase their score, two performed even worse. Besides this criterion, however, all participants generally improved post-feedback.

When it comes to differences between the impact of textual and screencast feedback, it is clear from Figure 4 that the majority of participants who received screencast feedback had

bigger spikes. In particular, no textual feedback receiver witnessed a score increase of more than 1.25, and the majority had a score increase of below 1. On the other hand, the average score increase of screencast feedback receivers is around 1, with the highest being a staggering 2.25. Even the screencast feedback receivers whose overall scores did not increase much, if at all, had significant boosts in their individual scores. For instance, S10's overall score only increased by 0.5 in Phase 3, but her score for the rubric element of coherence and cohesion jumped by 2 band scores (see Table 3). As for S11, who unfortunately scored less in Phase 3, he improved significantly in lexical resource (an increase by 2 points) and grammatical range and accuracy (an increase by 2 points).

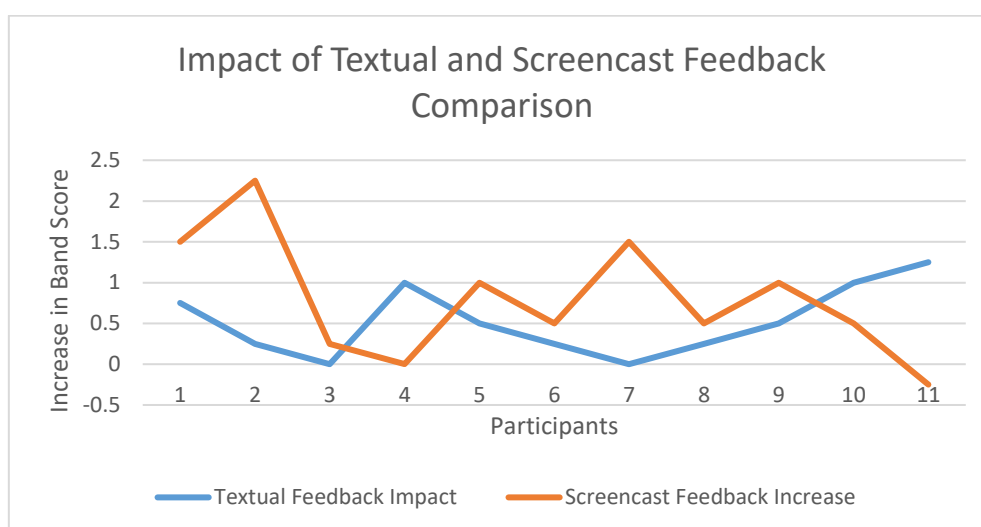


Figure 4: Line Graph Displaying the Impact of Textual and Screencast Feedback on Phase 3 Scores

In short, the most substantial score increases were observed in participants who received screencast feedback, particularly in the areas of task response and coherence and cohesion.

Phase 4: Semi-Structured Interviews

While Phases 1, 2, and 3 were experimental and measured by marking the scripts, Phase 4 was an attempt to explore the perceptions of the test-takers regarding the feedback they received through semi-structured interviews conducted at the end of the experiment.

Both Feedback Modes Beneficial, But Screencast Feedback Unanimously Preferred

Every single participant, whether they received textual or screencast feedback, had positive attitudes about the experiment and particularly the feedback they received. T₁, for example, said she found the feedback “very helpful,” and that “if [she] work[s] on the feedback, then [her] writing skills will improve.” T₃, T₄, and S₄ also said that they believe the experiences they gathered from this study will aid them in the future, particularly when they take or retake the IELTS.

Moreover, all 22 participants claimed to prefer detailed feedback. S₁, for example, claimed to “always be a fan of detailed feedback” as she “always [tries] to improve.” T₃, an ambitious student who plans to take the IELTS soon, said that when vague feedback like “you have to improve sentences or grammar” is given, then it is not as “clear and effective” as more specific feedback comments like “use more complex sentences and more synonyms.” T₃ also echoed this sentiment. Even for less ambitious and serious students such as T₂ and S₃—particularly S₃ as she has no plans of studying in the present—comprehensive feedback was not only appreciated but also preferred. Though T₁ did prefer detailed feedback, she admitted to feeling “a loss of confidence” due to the amount of mistakes she found in the feedback. Still, upon receiving the news that she had increased her score in Phase 3, she was “feeling good.” Moreover, T₂ was “feeling confident” upon hearing that her score also increased.

Except for one anomaly, all participants who received screencast feedback voiced their preference and support for it. For instance, S₁ said that screencast feedback is primed for her since she always prefers comprehensive and hands-on feedback. S₁₁ claimed that screencast feedback is “miles better” than traditional feedback. S₂ and S₄ went so far as to say that teachers should learn about screencast feedback and adopt it in their pedagogy. S₃, someone who is unsure if she wants to continue her studies in the future, said, “I would like to receive screencast feedback if I ever come back to study.” According to S₄, screencast feedback should at least be used at universities, and even at schools and colleges if technological access permits it.

Screencast Feedback: A New Experience with Multiple Benefits

For all of the participants, this study was the first that they had been exposed to screencast feedback. When asked if they had even heard of the term before, S₁ and S₃ said that they had watched some YouTube videos where live feedback is being provided on the screen, and S₄ said that she had heard of some PhD students receiving screencast feedback during the pandemic, but she had not thought about screencast feedback in the Bangladeshi context, let alone having personal experience of receiving it.

As discussed in 4.3.1, all but one participant had positive attitudes toward screencast feedback, and although the term and the function of screencast technology were new to them, all of them were quick to point out its positives: re-watchability, rewind-ability, and flexible accessibility anywhere and anytime. S₁ also mentioned the ability to fast-forward the video. When the researcher countered with the notion that textual feedback may be even more convenient in that respect since it does not need to be fast-forwarded and that the desired feedback placement can instead be instantly sighted in textual feedback, S₁ reasoned the following about storage convenience:

I can watch again to remember if I forget. In contrast, in traditional writing feedback, it is also possible if you can carry the answer script which has been commented on by the teacher. However, screencast feedback videos can be kept on the phone or on a website. So, [it is] better.

Afterward, S1 brought up the point that textual feedback is only catered to the individual and cannot be accessed by another person without the consent of the student or the teacher. Even if the script is distributed, it needs to be printed. Thus, according to S1, "Screencast videos stored on a website or uploaded online can help other students besides the student who is addressed by the feedback. The name should be anonymized, though." S4 also echoed this sentiment.

Even more advantages of screencast feedback were outlined by the participants. S2, for instance, said that the addition of voice and the screen recording facility help make the feedback "more comprehensible." This point was elaborated on by S11, who said that the tone and emphasis of the screencast provider's voice "adds to the importance" of screencast feedback. For instance, if one or more mistakes are major, and if the teacher records their voice in the screencast video by pointing this out, then it is far more noticeable and effective than textual feedback. On the other hand, though textual feedback can also contain written comments to emphasize certain mistakes, it is not as effective according to S11.

S2 also mused that teacher often overlook many mistakes such as grammatical errors when giving textual feedback, but if they use screencast feedback where they are recording their screen, they may tend to be more cautious and more thorough with their feedback due to the pressure of their feedback process being recorded and subsequently shared. Finally, S3 said that, since most teachers give pen-and-paper feedback instead of digital feedback on Microsoft Word or Google Docs, the use of screencast feedback will eliminate the difficulty of students having to read teachers' potential poor handwriting.

Silver Lining Even in Perceived Challenges of Incorporating Screencast Feedback

A few challenges in incorporating screencast feedback have also surfaced from the interviews. However, most of them turned out to be blessings in disguise. First, the participants needed to invest a lot of time to view their screencast feedback videos, and even more time to incorporate them in comparison to textual feedback. However, after receiving such detailed screencast feedback in Phase 2, S4 studied the feedback video meticulously and even studied sample IELTS Writing Task 2 essays online so that she could incorporate the feedback she received. Due to her independent hard work, she scored higher in some components. Though she received the same overall band score in Phase 3, she claimed to have learned many lessons from the study, and desires to receive detailed feedback in the future to further improve her writing.

In addition, some participants perceived that providing screencast feedback demands a lot of time for the teacher as well. S1 opined that many teachers would not spend much time recording their screens to mark every student's scripts. However, as the conversation followed, her perspective altered: "Yes, the teacher does not need to give screencast feedback to every student. He or she can make at least one anonymously and make it available for others to see." S4 also recognized that the teacher will not have to waste much time in giving screencast feedback when compared to giving textual feedback. She said,

"It's so convenient. The teacher can simply record their screen and give feedback. No preparation is needed. The video doesn't have to be scripted, either. They can simply press record and check as they usually do."

Though teachers may not theoretically require more time to provide screencast feedback in comparison to textual feedback, the fact remains that there are additional elements of providing screencast feedback not present in textual feedback: a) possession of the required digital device (such as a personal computer) which is capable of handling screencast videos with sufficient RAM and ROM; b) screencast technology installed on the device; c) the willingness and the digital literacy of the teacher to provide screencast feedback; d) the requirement for the student scripts to be available in digital copies such as in Microsoft Word or Google Docs instead of being handwritten. Out of these challenges, the last one is significant as even today, much university coursework in Bangladesh is done via pen and paper instead of being assignment-based.

In summation, there are far more perceived benefits of screencast feedback than challenges. Out of the perceived disadvantages, two—more time and energy required by students and teachers—do not hold up to logical scrutiny and are even acknowledged by the participants. As for the lingering disadvantages—the teacher's digital literacy, willingness, and device availability—they should also not be considered entirely negative as it is expected in various modern jobs for employees to have digital literacy, and even in the general teaching career, basic computer literacy is taken for granted. Indeed, when considering the enormous benefits of feedback in general and screencast feedback in particular, these disadvantages—with the sole exception of requisite softcopies of student scripts—are arguably trivial.

Table 5: Perceived Advantages and Disadvantages of Screencast Feedback

Perceived Advantages	Perceived Disadvantages
Re-watchable	Digital copies of student scripts required
Re-windable	Time and energy required by the teacher
Can be watched anywhere and at any time	Time and energy required by the students
More comprehensible as it is multimodal	Access to relevant devices and software required
Can be stored on a personal computer or mobile phone	Technological barrier for some teachers
Can be easily distributed to the masses who can also benefit from watching	
Tendency to be more detailed since teachers may be conscious of their voices being recorded and shared	
No need to decipher poor handwriting	

Discussion

Both the experimental and the interview phases have revealed the benefits of both feedback modes on writing. Since writing was enhanced as observed in Phase 3 scores compared to those of Phase 1, the findings confirm previous studies—such as Farrah (2012), Kahyalar and Yilmaz (2016), Kamberi (2013), and Ruegg (2016)—which point to the benefits of writing feedback. Furthermore, some participants like T₃ and S₃ claimed that the feedback they received in the study, and such continued feedback, would be beneficial to them in other fields of education besides language learning. This confirms Janopoulos's (1992) study.

As discussed, many participants have expressly stated their rise in confidence upon receiving feedback, though one participant—T₂—became overwhelmed at the beginning, before regaining her confidence by the end of the study after hearing about her score increase. This initial feeling of being overwhelmed is a common disadvantage of unfocused feedback (Carless, 2006). However, on the whole, Kulhavy and Wager's (1993) view that feedback acts as an incentive was more pronounced in this study. Moreover, every single participant claimed to prefer detailed feedback despite the time and effort it takes for teachers to provide and students to incorporate. This finding supports that of other researchers like Grami (2005), Lee (2005), Leki (1991), Mohiuddin and Sultana (2016), Norouzian and Farahani (2012), Pearson (2022), Radecki and Swales (1988), Ravand and Rasekh (2011), Rennie (2000), and Zaman et al. (2012). In line with the preference for detailed feedback, every single participant also said that they are not satisfied with the existing feedback practices they have received or are currently receiving. This refutes Mohiuddin and Sultana's (2016) finding of Bangladeshi students being satisfied with traditional writing feedback.

Regarding the comparison of meaning-focused feedback with form-focused feedback, meaning-focused feedback appeared more effective. The rubric elements that saw the highest gains in scores were task response and coherence and cohesion which resulted from meaning-focused feedback. This coincides with Zahro's (2023) study on feedback particularly aiding task response and coherence and cohesion. Although the uptake of grammar-related feedback—coinciding with form-focused feedback—was slightly higher than vocabulary-related feedback—reflecting meaning-focused feedback—the difference is not significant enough to make a conclusion regarding this matter. Thus, the previously established knowledge about meaning-focused feedback being more positively valued (Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024; Mohiuddin & Sultana, 2016; Penn & Brown, 2022) is confirmed to some extent by this study. A more definitive conclusion is that easier-to-correct sub-skills in writing are relevance (corresponding to the rubric element, task response) and organization skills (corresponding to the rubric element, coherence and cohesion), whereas improving the sub-skills of grammar and, more so, vocabulary requires more time and effort and is not solved with a single feedback session, no matter how comprehensively it is given and how sincerely it is incorporated. This corresponds to cognitive load theory and multimodal feedback research that state that extraneous load processing is reduced due to

the conversational and less hierarchical nature of screencast feedback (Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024; Penn & Brown, 2022; Zahro, 2023).

As opposed to previous research on the low proficiency standards for the average Bangladeshi citizen (such as Rahman et al., 2019), this study found that the average pre-feedback IELTS test score was around 6.8, with post-feedback scores being around 7.5. Such high scores are quite different from the band score of 5 predicted by Islam and Stapa (2021). However, there were concerns raised by some participants (see 4.3.4) that exam-taking techniques like learning essay templates impact the score significantly. This reflects the test techniques taught by 'IELTS 7+ guaranteed' coaching centers which are quite common in Bangladesh (Kabir, 2018). Such above-average meta-knowledge of IELTS possessed by some participants may have resulted in a higher average IELTS band score in this study.

Finally, the study contributes to the literature by being the first to explore screencast feedback in Bangladesh (Bakla, 2020), especially in relation to IELTS Writing preparation. The impacts of screencast feedback were found to be much more positive than textual feedback both in the experimental and interview data. In fact, if not for some Phase 3 blunders made by some screencast feedback receivers like S₄, the results of screencast feedback receivers would be unanimously higher. Thus, the overall highly positive results support emerging research on screencast feedback (Alharbi, 2022) and recommend screencast feedback to be used widely in the education curriculum for its multiple benefits (see Table 5) like being significantly more comprehensive due to its multimodal nature (Edwards et al., 2012).

Conclusion

Summary

In summation, both feedback modes—textual and screencast—have been found to be beneficial to IELTS Writing Task 2 test-takers in both the experimental and the interview phases. When comparing the feedback modes, screencast feedback was superior on both accounts: it showed significantly higher score increases and was perceived more positively than textual feedback. The advantages of screencast feedback far outweighed the perceived disadvantages, and even the disadvantages had a silver lining. The attitudes were so positive that, in fact, many participants expected and desired screencast feedback to gain popularity in the Bangladeshi education curriculum.

In particular, the first research question yielded the result that screencast feedback is superior to textual feedback according to the score increase in the post-feedback essays. The areas where both feedback modes—screencast feedback and textual feedback—led to the highest improvements were task response and coherence and cohesion. As for the answer to the second research question, it was found that the majority of participants preferred screencast feedback due to its multimodal nature and because it promotes autonomous learning. Even the participants who are not generally studious expressed interest in receiving screencast feedback in the future, and are willing to put more effort

into incorporating screencast feedback though it generally requires more time than textual feedback.

Limitations

Due to the lack of methodological restraints put on the participants, some unethical and unfortunate events transpired. Instead of replicating the official IELTS exam conditions—such as by boosting reliability by having participants complete Phase 1 and Phase 3 in a quiet and comfortable room or hall, and also by ensuring that the participants cannot take additional help from their mobile phones or other gadgets and also complete the phases in a strict time limit of 40 minutes—the participants were given around a week to complete each phase. This resulted in many participants looking for sample answers online and attempting the phases in more than one sitting. In addition, T₃ and T₄ were at the office when completing one of their phases. Furthermore, despite the suggested time limit for IELTS Writing Task 2 being 40 minutes, S₁ took 52 minutes to complete Phase 3, and S₄ could only afford around 15 minutes in Phase 1 as she claimed to be busy.

Another limitation manifested due to the fact that word processing software like Microsoft Word has an in-built spelling checker and some grammar checking tools as well. For example, T₅ conceded that spelling is his biggest area of concern, but when he types on his computer, incorrect spelling is automatically detected, with the correct spelling suggested by the software. This was also confirmed by this study: spelling was among the least problematic of any participant's writing in both phases, meaning that many of the participants' genuine band scores would be slightly less than the ones found in this study.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made in light of the study findings and the understanding of the literature:

- Future researchers are recommended to take steps to ensure the participants can be convinced to complete the phases in real-time in front of them, such as in a workshop.
- No need to script for checking digital scripts: As one participant has mentioned, the teacher does not need to make a script or read the student script prior to providing screencast feedback on it. In case there is a call of nature or some other emergency, the teacher can simply pause the recording instead of having to record it all at once.
- Anonymous uploading of screencast feedback: If anonymous screencast feedback videos are uploaded to a cloud server or on other platforms made accessible to the students of the class, they can learn from others' mistakes.
- It is practical for the teacher to make screencast feedback videos of only one or two scripts that contain common errors instead of making one video for every student.
- It is advised for feedback to primarily focus on teachable error correction more, like task response and organization skills, instead of lexical resource and grammatical range and accuracy, as the latter two require more time and effort to be improved;

merely one feedback session cannot hope to remedy a deficiency in this. Of course, with gradual feedback, those writing sub-skills should also develop.

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