

Vague feedback in English L2 classrooms

*A study of feedback practices in seven video
recorded classrooms in lower secondary
school*

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IV

Abstract

This MA study presents an analysis of video recorded English instruction lessons taught by seven teachers in seven classrooms at different lower secondary schools (9th grade). The video recordings were analyzed to identify what characterizes vague feedback in English L2 classrooms. The data were collected as part of the *Linking Instruction and Student Experiences* (LISE) project, led by Professor Kirsti Klette and with Associate Professor Lisbeth M. Brevik as coordinator. The data were analyzed to identify different types of feedback in vague feedback as well as the situations the feedback occurs in. Observing and analyzing 30 hours of English lessons, in seven different classrooms, has proved to be challenging. Still, this is something I regard as very important, as I was able to contribute with an overview of the characteristics within the phenomenon *vague feedback*.

I found that the feedback type students are mainly provided with, when the feedback is vague, is feedback about the task. The students were also provided with feedback about the processing of the task and feedback about the self as a person, but these types were provided considerably less than feedback about the task in total. Feedback about the self as a person is the least provided feedback type. The observed English instruction lessons are dominated by *classroom discussions*, as situations used for providing feedback, in addition to *group work situations* and *individual work*. Furthermore, the results showed that feedback about the task dominates classroom discussions and feedback about the processing about the task dominates group work situations, while feedback about the self as a person dominates individual work situations.

Based on these findings, I argue that further investigation of vague feedback in English L2 classrooms may be warranted in order to provide an even deeper understanding of what vague feedback consists of and why the occurrence of it is so high.

Sammendrag

Denne studien presenterer en analyse av videoinnspilte undervisningstimer i engelsk i syv forskjellige klasserom på niende trinn på forskjellige skoler. Analysen av datamaterialet hadde som mål å identifisere karakteristikken av vage tilbakemeldinger i klasserom hvor engelsk blir undervist som fremmedspråk. Datamaterialet ble samlet inn i forbindelse med prosjektet *Linking Instruction and Student Experience* (LISE), ledet av professor Kirsti Klette og med førsteamanuensis Lisbeth M. Brevik som koordinator. Datamaterialet ble analysert med mål om å identifisere forskjellige typer tilbakemeldinger i vage tilbakemeldinger, i tillegg til ulike klasseromssituasjoner disse tilbakemeldingstypene ble gitt. Observasjon og analyse av 30 undervisningstimer i engelsk, i syv forskjellige klasserom, har vært utfordrende. Likevel er dette noe jeg anser som viktig, da jeg har muligheten til å bidra med en oversikt over karakteristikken til fenomenet *vage tilbakemeldinger*.

Analysen avdekket at elever blir hovedsakelig gitt tilbakemeldinger som omhandler selve oppgaven. Elevene blir også gitt tilbakemeldinger som omhandler både prosess og person, men totalt sett, i betydelig mindre grad enn tilbakemeldinger som omhandler selve oppgaven. Tilbakemeldinger som omhandler person er den tilbakemeldingstypen som blir gitt minst til elevene. Analysen viste at engelsktimene domineres av klasseromssituasjonen *klasseromdiskusjon*, etterfulgt av *gruppearbeid* og *individuell arbeid*. Videre viser resultatene at tilbakemeldinger som omhandler selve oppgaven dominerer klasseromssdiskusjoner, og at tilbakemeldinger som omhandler prosess dominerer gruppearbeid. Individuell arbeid er dominert av tilbakemeldinger som omhandler person.

Basert på disse funnene, argumenterer jeg for videre forskning av vage tilbakemeldinger i klasserom hvor engelsk blir undervist som fremmedspråk for å gi en dypere forståelse for hva vage tilbakemeldinger består av og hvorfor forekomsten av de er så høy.

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1 Introduction

During my experience as a teacher of English and Norwegian in the Norwegian upper secondary school, one thing that I have noticed is that feedback plays an important role for both teachers and students in the classroom. Perhaps the most important role it plays is that it directly effects the students' learning. Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.139) clearly state that there is clear evidence that supports formative assessment as an essential part of classroom work, as well as it supports that the development of formative assessment has the possibility to raise achievement standards. As teachers, we are all aware that learning inside of a classroom is achieved by the actions of teachers and students who are able to collaborate. If we are going to achieve successful learning, there is a necessity for interaction between these two parties (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, p.139).

Previous research has shown that students are often provided with vague and repetitive feedback which usually contains much praise (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Gloppen, Dobson, Andersen, Christiansen, & Sofienlund, 2014; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Hawe, Dixon & Watson, 2008; Klette, 2003). The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (UDIR) has had a focus on assessment for learning for almost ten years now, and the Education Act in Norway (Forskrift til opplæringslova, 2009, p. § 3-11) was implemented. The Education Act states that students are in need of being provided with more substantial feedback than vague and repetitive feedback and have therefore developed principles for good *assessment for learning* based on previous research concerning feedback. Still, approximately 80 per cent of feedback provided in Norwegian classrooms today is vague (Brevik & Rindal, 2017).

Considering the fact that feedback is known to have an important impact on students' learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, p.141), and that most of the feedback provided in Norwegian classrooms is vague (Brevik & Rindal, 2017), I wanted to investigate what characterized orally provided vague feedback in an attempt to say something about the quality of vague feedback, and more specifically what good feedback within vague feedback looks like. I have therefore taken a closer look on vague feedback in Norwegian classrooms to investigate how the provided feedback aligns with theoretical models that will be presented in this MA study. Additionally, I also wanted to examine whether or not feedback practices have improved after the Education Act in Norway was implemented. This will be discussed in section 5.5

Feedback practices improved?

This study is an investigation of what characterizes vague feedback in English L2 (second language) classrooms in lower secondary school in Norway (9th grade), and what type of feedback situations vague feedback occurs in.

1.1 What is good feedback?

What qualifies as good feedback? It could be argued that the answer to this will be different depending on who is asked. While someone might say that good feedback is good because it shows a teacher who does his or her job well, others might say that good feedback is only good when it helps students realize what they need to improve in their learning, as well as how they can achieve this. To determine what good feedback in fact is, it is necessary to identify the purpose of feedback in general.

This MA study will try to answer what constitutes as good feedback, as well as the quality of feedback practices in English L2 classrooms. What are the important aspects of good feedback that a Norwegian teacher of English needs to consider for him or her to be able to use feedback practices in classrooms to achieve learning within the students, and what are the students' needs from an educational point of view? There is a possibility to answer these questions by assessing the unique role of feedback, as well as feedback practices in today's pedagogy in Norwegian classrooms that concerns assessment for learning. Brevik & Gunnulfsen (2016) suggest that by using video recordings to observe classrooms, we are able to provide insight into how teachers provide feedback in the classroom, which is what I aim to do in this MA study.

1.2 The purpose of feedback

As feedback is important for students' learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, p.141), the purpose of feedback should be to yield further learning within the students (Bloom, Hastings & Madaus, 1971, cf. Newton, 2007, p.152; Wiliam, 2011, p.10). This is known as *assessment for learning* (AfL). The concept of *assessment for learning* is any assessment designed to promote a student's learning (Wiliam, 2011, p.10). This means that feedback should provide the student with information about *what* the student needs to improve and *how* he or she can achieve this improvement. That way, the feedback can, in fact, be successful and an

assessment for learning (William, 2011, p.10). AfL is different from *assessment of learning* in the way that it differs from serving only one purpose, which is usually certifying competence by for example only a grade (William, 2011, p.10). Various activities that are linked to assessment have a possibility to enhance learning if it can provide the students with information they can use to assess themselves. The teachers can simultaneously use the same information to modify feedback they provide their students with (William, 2011, p.10).

1.3 English as a school subject

English was the first foreign language taught in schools in Scandinavia (Simensen, 2010). With this in mind, it is not hard to imagine that learning English has a long tradition in Scandinavia, and that there was a need for proficiency in a ‘larger’ language than the Scandinavian languages (Simensen, 2010). Hence, the apparent need for English as a school subject has been obvious in the educational sector, as well as the motivation for learning the subject has been strong (Simensen, 2010).

The National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion (KD, 2013) refers to English as “a universal language” (KD, 2013). It enhances the fact that if students are to succeed in a world where English is leading the way for international communication, they need to be able to use the English language, as well as have the knowledge of how the language is used in diverse contexts (KD, 2013). Therefore, it is necessary for students who are learning the language, to develop “skills in using the systems of the English language” and “to be able to adapt the language to different topics and communication situations” (KD, 2013). English as a school subject is presented as both a tool and a way of gaining knowledge, as well as personal insight (KD, 2013). It is also mentioned that part of its purpose is that the subject should help the students “express oneself fluently and coherently, suited to the purpose and situation” (KD, 2013), as well as it should help students “express and justify own opinions about different topics” and “introduce, maintain and terminate conversations on different topics by asking questions and following up on input” (KD, 2013). If the students are to achieve these aims, it is a necessity that they receive feedback from their teachers that provides them with the opportunity to do so. While providing feedback is necessary, it is just as necessary that the feedback students are provided with is actually helpful in enhancing their learning.

Reading, writing, speaking and listening are considered as basic skills in a language, and these skills are incorporated in the competence aims for the English subject (KD, 2013). As this thesis will be concentrating on feedback practices provided orally in Norwegian classrooms and the quality of these practices, the basic skills that are the most relevant for this thesis are *written and oral skills*, which include writing and speaking. However, this study does not investigate the quality of feedback practices that assess written or oral skills in itself, but rather it investigates the feedback practices that assess the students' work where they express their knowledge by either using written or oral skills in the English subject.

1.4 The LISE project

In this MA study, I am using video recordings from English L2 lessons to provide insight into what characterizes vague feedback and what type of feedback situations vague feedback occurs in. My MA study is part of the *Linking Instruction and Student Experience* (LISE) project¹, which I was invited to join prior to starting my MA study. The LISE project builds on the LISA (Linking Instruction and Student Achievement) design (Blikstad-Balas, Klette & Roe, 2017).

To the best of my knowledge, there is no prior research that specifically investigates what characterizes vague feedback and in which classroom situations vague feedback occurs. Based on the need to learn more about the quality of feedback in English L2 lessons in Norwegian lower secondary school, I have analyzed all English L2 lessons across seven 9th grade classrooms that contained vague feedback. The LISE project had already collected the data I needed for my study, which contained English L2 lessons that were coded by what type of feedback occurred in them. From these lessons, I only concentrated on those that were coded for vague feedback. How the quality of feedback in English L2 lessons are coded in the LISE project will be reviewed in Chapter 3 on methodology.

1.5 Research question

¹ For details, see: <http://www.uv.uio.no/ils/english/research/projects/lise/>

Based on the research gap concerning the characterization of vague feedback and in what feedback situations vague feedback occurs in, my research question for this MA study is:

What characterizes vague feedback in English L2 classrooms and what type of situations does said feedback occur in?

In order to answer this research question, I have observed and analyzed video recordings from English L2 classrooms.

This MA study will therefore be an investigation of feedback practices and offer new insight into the quality and characterization of vague feedback in English L2 classrooms in the Norwegian school.

1.6 Structure of the thesis

In addition to this introductory chapter, the thesis consists of Chapters 2-6. Chapter 2 presents the theoretical framework and previous research relevant to my MA study. Chapter 2 is also where Hattie & Timperley's (2007) model of feedback is presented. This model presents a framework for understanding different types of feedback, which is essential for this thesis. In Chapter 3, the methodology in this study is presented, which is video observation of English L2 classrooms. In Chapter 4, the findings from the video observation are presented before I discuss them in Chapter 5 in light of the presented theoretical framework and previous research. Finally, Chapter 6 provides concluding remarks and implications of my findings for vague feedback in English L2 classrooms, as well as suggestions for further research. The appendixes include English translations of examples provided in Chapter 4, as well as a signed consent form for the LISE project.

2 Theoretical framework and previous research

In this chapter, the theoretical framework of my MA study will be presented, based on the overall topic of feedback in English classrooms. The theoretical framework will concentrate on assessment for learning (commonly known as AfL), different types of feedback and how feedback can play a part in motivating the students to learn. First, a general overview of what assessment is will be presented (2.1). Second, I will illustrate the different types of feedback that are observed and analyzed in the video recordings by using Hattie & Timperley's (2007) model of feedback (2.2). Third, feedback concerning motivation is elaborated on (2.3). Then, I focus on assessment in the English subject (2.4), and the PLATO rubric (2.5) before I elaborate on relevant previous research (2.6).

2.1 Principles of assessment

Black and Wiliam (1998a) define formative assessment as following:

We use the general term assessment to refer to all those activities undertaken by teachers – and by their students in assessing themselves – that provide information to be used as feedback to modify teaching and learning activities. Such assessment becomes formative assessment when the evidence is actually used to adapt the teaching to meet student needs (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, p.140).

If feedback is to function formatively, the feedback practices have to be adjusted by the teachers to fit the teaching and learning that happens in classrooms (Black & Wiliam, 1998a). It is important to provide the students information on *what* they need to improve and give them information on *how* they can achieve this improvement if the feedback is to be formative. Black & Wiliam (1998b) also state that several studies have shown that innovations, such as formative assessment, created with the purpose to strengthen the feedback students are provided with concerning their work, yield substantial learning gains.

Since feedback and feedback practices is an everyday practice for students and teachers, Black & Wiliam (1998, 2009) state that concrete and professional comments are much more

effective for the students, than if they were only given in-general comments on their work. When seen in relation to the Norwegian school, the assessment regulations in the Education Act state that the students learn best when they are aware of the things they need to learn; the expectations teachers have for them and when they get feedback on the quality of their work. In addition to this, they also learn better when they get advice on how they can improve and develop, as well as when they are involved themselves in assessing their own work (Brevik & Blikstad-Balas, 2014). Based on previous research concerning feedback, including Black and Wiliam's seminal work (1998), the Education Act in Norway (Forskrift til opplæringslova, 2009, § 3-11) presents four basic principles for AfL. These are as follows:

- (1) Goal and criteria
- (2) Feedback
- (3) Feed forward
- (4) Self-assessment

As it will be mentioned in the methodology chapter, this MA study will be focusing on vague feedback provided orally in English L2 classrooms. Because of the focus in this MA study, it is important to know which of these four principles characterizes the vague feedback practices. Goal and criteria concerns itself with providing the students information about what they need to learn and what is expected of them. Feedback concerns itself with giving feedback that provides the students with information about the quality of their work, while feed forward concerns itself with giving the students advice on what to improve and how to do so. Self-assessment is when students themselves are involved in assessing their own work and development. In the following, I will look more closely at Hattie & Timperley's (2007) division of Feedback and feed forward into different types of feedback.

2.2 Types of feedback

Hattie and Timperley (2007) claim in their article "The Power of Feedback" that "feedback is one of the most important powerful influences on learning and achievement, but this impact can be either positive or negative" (p.81). However, they also claim that the influence feedback has on learning and achievement depends on what type of feedback is given and not

least, how it is given. If wrong feedback is given to students, the feedback may affect their learning negatively. Hattie and Timperley (2007) also note that it is up to the teacher to choose when, how and on which level the feedback should be given for it to be efficient. These levels will be presented in Figure 1.

However, they claim that feedback has no effect in itself. For feedback to be powerful in its effect, it is necessary that there is a learning context to which the feedback is addressed. Feedback is only a part of the teaching process, and it is that which happens second that matters, meaning feedback that is given *after* a student has responded to the initial instruction. This essential situation occurs when the feedback that is given concerns some aspect of the student's task performance. Furthermore, Hattie and Timperley (2007) state that feedback is most powerful when it addresses incorrect interpretation, and not only an absence of understanding on the student's part.

According to Hattie and Timperley (2007), the main purpose of feedback is to diminish discrepancies between existing understandings and performance, and a learning goal. The strategies that are used to reduce these discrepancies may be more or less effective in increasing students' learning, so it is essential to understand the circumstances that result in different student outcomes. In their article Hattie and Timperley (2007) present a model of feedback, which is used as a framework to comprehend why some specific types of feedback promote student learning effectively, and why some do not. This is illustrated in the following model (Figure 1).

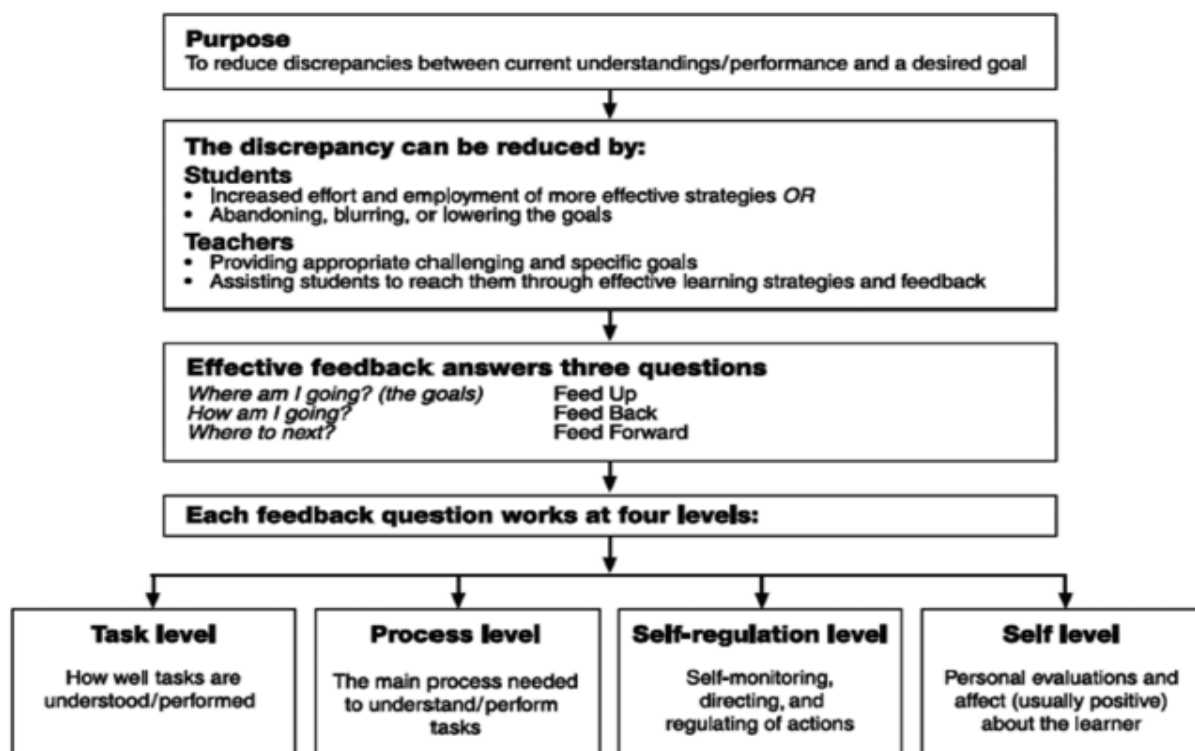


Figure 1: *A model of feedback to enhance learning* (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 87).

Hattie and Timperley’s (2007) model of feedback is closely related to assessment for learning. It illustrates that for feedback to be effective, it needs to answer three major questions: *Where am I going? How am I going?, and Where to next?* As shown in the model, these questions are linked to the concepts of Feed Up (also known as goal and criteria), Feed Back and Feed Forward. As mentioned earlier, these correspond to the four basic principles for assessment in the Norwegian school system (Forskrift til opplæringslova, 2009, § 3-11). I will now elaborate on the major questions related to these principles.

The first question related to effective feedback is *Where am I going?* This question is related to goals, and a significant aspect of feedback is the information the students receive about the achievement of learning goals related to a task or performance (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). The goal has to be clearly defined if the gap between the current state of understanding and the desired state of understanding is to be filled. If not, the students will not see a gap or the need to fill it. Another problem that can arise when feedback is not directed towards the achievement of a goal, is that the feedback given is not related to achieving success on significant aspects of the goal. For example, the teacher can give the students feedback on their spelling on a writing task, even though the criteria for success require “creating mood in a story” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 89). Such feedback is not efficient in diminishing the

gap relating to the purpose of creating a certain mood in a story. Since the feedback is not specific and related to the goal, the feedback will not help the students do the task of “creating mood in a story” better. The feedback will therefore not help with getting the students closer to achieving the initial goal (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

According to Hattie and Timperley (2007, p.89), the question *How am I going?* concerns itself with a particular task the student is resolving. Here, the feedback given to students by teachers are considered as effective if the feedback contains information about the student’s progress or on how the student should proceed. Bangert-Drowns, Kulik, Kulik and Morgan (1991) claim that specific feedback which tells students in detail what they have done right or wrong is more likely to enhance learning than feedback that simply tells students if they have done something right or wrong. This coincides with Black and Wiliam (1998b) and their interpretation on what good feedback is and how it differs from *bad* feedback.

The question *Where to next?* concerns itself with giving the students feedback on what they need to improve further. According to Hattie and Timperley (2007), the answer to this is often that the student should do “more” of what they already have done and know how to do. However, they state that teachers should tackle this situation by offering their students information that leads to greater possibilities for learning. Some of the examples they give are such as providing the students with greater challenges, further self-regulation over their learning process and additional information about what they have yet to understand. Hattie and Timperley (2007) also claim that the question *Where to next?* is the question that “can have some of the most powerful impacts on learning” (p. 90).

Exactly how well the answers to the questions *Where am I going?* *How am I going?* and *Where to next?* assist in reducing the gap between current understanding and a goal, depends partly on the level at which the feedback is given. These feedback levels consist of “the level of task performance, “the level of process of understanding how to do a task”, “the regulatory or metacognitive process level”, and/or “the self or personal level (unrelated to the specifics of the task)” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 86). The effect of feedback differs across these levels.

2.2.1 The four feedback levels

Hattie and Timperley (2007) state that each of the earlier discussed questions can work on the four levels of feedback. Hattie and Timperley (2007) also claim that “the level at which feedback is directed influences its effectiveness” (p. 90). The levels will now be presented and include the following levels: *feedback about the task* (FT), *feedback about the processing of the task* (FP), *feedback about self-regulation* (FR) and *feedback about the self as a person* (FS), as shown in Table 1 beneath:

Level 1	Task level: Feedback about the task: How well tasks are understood/performed.
Level 2	Process level: Feedback about the processing of the task: The main process need to understand/perform tasks.
Level 3	Self-regulation level: Feedback about self-regulation: Self-monitoring, directing and regulating of actions.
Level 4	Self level: Feedback about the self as a person: Personal evaluations and affect (usually positive) about the learner.

Table 1: *Four major types of feedback* (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 90).

Level 1 – Feedback about the task

On this level, teachers provide feedback about how well a task is being accomplished, such as giving information on whether an answer is correct or incorrect. This type of feedback may or may not include directions to acquire more, different or, in the case the answer is wrong, correct information. Research has shown that approximately 90 per cent of the feedback given by teachers is aimed at task level (Hattie & Timperley, 2007), which tells us that this type of feedback is the most common form of feedback. Hattie and Timperley (2007) also use the term “corrective feedback” when talking about feedback about the task. However, as it will be elaborated more on in section 2.4.1 The meaning of “corrective feedback”, because Ellis (2009) defines “corrective feedback” in a different way than Hattie & Timperley (2007), I will not use this term when referring to feedback about the task in this MA study.

Level 2 – Feedback about the processing of the task

The feedback provided on this level is related to deep understanding of learning. Such feedback involves the construction of understanding and the possibility to relate it to cognitive processes, in addition to transfer the feedback to new and more challenging tasks (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Hattie and Timperley (2007) claim that feedback about the processing of the task seems to be more successful than feedback about the task when it comes to achieving deep learning, as well as it can improve students' understanding and learning.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) also note that a major part of feedback about the processing of the task is related to students' strategies to detect error and thereby provide oneself with feedback. When students detect error by themselves while solving a task, they are in need of finding new strategies to solve the task. According to Hattie and Timperley (2007), the feedback given on this level, can act as clues and lead the students to more efficient task strategies, for example when follow-up questions are provided. Follow-up questions can thereby be used to show the students how they can improve.

Level 3 – Feedback about self-regulation

Hattie and Timperley (2007) describe feedback about self-regulation as an interaction between “commitment, control, and confidence” (p. 93). The feedback on this particular level focuses on the way students control, lead and regulate own actions towards a learning goal (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In order to manage this, the students have to possess, among other things, self-direction and self-discipline. However, Hattie and Timperley (2007) separates between effective learners and less effective learners within this level. The difference between the two of these is that effective learners produce internal feedback and cognitive procedures while they are involved in tasks while less effective learners hold minimal self-regulation strategies and are much more contingent on external factors such as the teacher or the task for feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Feedback on this level is therefore characterized by the fact that the students ask for clues on how to solve a task, and not the answer itself.

Level 4 – Feedback about the self as a person

Feedback on this level is frequently used in classroom situations, and often instead of other levels of feedback. This type of personal feedback such as “well done” or “great effort” usually conveys positive assessments and affect about the student. Hattie and Timperley (2007) claim that feedback about the self as a person is the least effective level of feedback because it is often too weak and too vague about task performance and is rarely transformed into “more engagement, commitment to learning or understanding about the task” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.96). However, it is possible for feedback about the self as a person to effect students’ learning if the feedback provided guides the students to enhance their “effort, engagement, or feelings of efficacy in relation to the learning or to the strategies they use when attempting to understand tasks” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.96).

2.3 Motivation and feedback

2.3.1 Motivation and the willingness to learn

Previous research (Burnett & Mandel, 2010; Hattie & Timperley, 2007) states that feedback about the self, also known as praise, is not effective in enhancing learning within students because it relates to the student as a person, and not specifically to their work. However, previous research also states that praise is often provided instead of other types of feedback (Burnett & Mandel, 2010; Klette, 2003; Gloppen et.al., 2014; Hawe et.al., 2008; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Nevertheless, praise can have a positive effect on students’ learning if the feedback provides motivation within the students for future task performances (Gloppen et.al., 2014; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). The following paragraphs will elaborate on how feedback about the self can motivate students for future learning and create a willingness to learn, which in turn can enhance the students’ learning.

In the “Quality Framework” of the Knowledge Promotion in Norway (Kunnskapsløftet, 2006), the following is stated:

Motivated pupils want to learn, have stamina and curiosity and demonstrate the ability to work towards their goals. Experiencing mastering strengthens one’s stamina both in times of success and adversity (National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion in Primary and Secondary Education and Training, 2006, p.3).

Smith (2009) states that before motivation can occur, the willingness to learn must be present. The willingness to learn means that students are emotionally ready and open for learning, and that the students themselves feel they can achieve something positive from engaging in a learning activity (Smith, 2009). Every time a student engages in learning activities, there is a risk for the learner and a challenge of their self-esteem. The students' own understanding of themselves as students, in light of previous experiences with similar learning activities, is what decides if the student is willing to engage in a new task. If the students feel their self-esteem is in danger of being damaged because they lack faith in themselves, they will usually choose not to engage in the learning activity. If this willingness to engage is not present, it is natural for the students to avoid participating in learning (Smith, 2009). Smith (2009) also states that a teacher that has an understanding of the important role willingness to learn plays with students' motivation to learn and their learning process, chooses to work with the students' belief in themselves by reinforcing their faith in themselves through feedback that shows the students that they too are able to answer correctly.

However, motivation is more than just willingness to learn (Manger, 2013). Reeve & Isen (2005) define motivation as an inner condition that provides energy to and controls the behavior in certain directions. Manger (2013) states that it is normal to divide between inner and outer motivation. Inner motivation concerns itself with the interest in a learning activity, while outer motivation concerns itself with the fact that the learning activity is a means to an end, such as praise from others for example (Manger, 2013).

2.3.2 The behaviorist learning theory

Behaviorist learning theory states that the use of outer aid such as praise can be a way to motivate students to learn (Skinner, 1953, cf. Manger, 2013). It is therefore briefly presented in this thesis. The term *reinforcement* is central within this theory. Reinforcement is the event that follows an act, such as systematic praise, and makes it more likely that the act will repeat itself. In other words, reinforcement is any stimulus or any event that follows an act which leads to the act being reinforced (Manger, 2013). Skinner (1953, cf. Manger, 2013) highlighted the fact that teaching is a question about arranging reinforcement terms, as stated in the following quote:

Students learn without teaching in the natural environment, but teachers arrange special reinforcements that expedite learning, hastening the appearance of behavior that would otherwise be acquired slowly or making sure of the appearance of behavior that might otherwise never occur (Skinner, 1953, cf. Manger, 2013, p.166).

The main view in this learning theory is that if students, after accomplishing a task, experience consequences they like, such as praise, it is more likely that the act will repeat itself. However, if the same act does not lead to such positive consequence, it makes it less likely to repeat itself.

2.4 Assessment in the English subject

As in any other language, the assessment practices in English have developed over time. Chvala and Graedler (2010) state that “*Traditional testing practice* evolved as a practical method to measure competence, and has often been grounded in written text, irrespective of which type of communicative competence is assessed”. Assessment practices concerning oral skills usually tested and assessed these skills by letting the students read aloud, answer questions or translate a text (Chvala & Graedler, 2010). However, from the 1980’s and onward, principles from the *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT) came in use in Norwegian classrooms (Chvala & Graedler, 2010). This meant that the assessment practices shifted from reading and translating, to a more meaning-oriented language in context, where the aim was to create authentic situations for the students in which their communicative competence could be assessed (Chvala & Graedler, 2010). To be able to assess this communicative competence, there has been done a lot of work concerning “formulating procedures, explicit assessment criteria and level descriptors for different types of proficiency and communicative competencies, such as the Council of Europe’s *Common European Framework for Reference of Languages (CEFR)*” (Chvala & Graedler, 2010, p. 76-77).

There has also been a development towards formative assessment in the English subject. Chvala and Graedler (2010) state that by using guiding questions, teachers can “guide pupils in either the assessment of their own performance (self-assessment) or in the assessment of other pupils’ performance (peer assessment)” (p. 82). If used in this way, the questions can be used as “assessment as learning” (Chvala & Graedler, 2010), and thereby help students monitor, adjust and challenge their own learning.

2.4.1 Corrective feedback

Feedback has a place in most second language (L2) learning theories. Both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning considers feedback as a contribution to language learning (Ellis, 2009). Ellis (2009) states that “in both structural and communicative approaches to language learning, feedback is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy” (p. 3), in addition to stating that corrective feedback can either be positive or negative. Positive feedback confirms “that a learner response to an activity is correct” and “it may signal the veracity of the content of a learner utterance or the linguistic correctness of the utterance” (Ellis, 2009, p. 3). Ellis (2009) also divides between positive feedback in pedagogical theory and in second language learning (SLA). In pedagogical theory, positive feedback is seen as important because it provides support to learners and can impact their motivation to continue learning. In SLA, however, positive feedback is often vague with comments such as “Good” and “Yes”, which does not necessarily signal that the learner has answered correctly because the feedback provided might simply be a correction or modification of the learner’s answer (Ellis, 2009). “Negative feedback”, however, “signals, in one way or another, that the learner’s utterance lacks veracity or is linguistically deviant. In other words, it is corrective in intent” (Ellis, 2009, p.3).

Hattie and Timperley (2007) use the term “corrective feedback” but define it in another way than Ellis (2009). Because of this, I have chosen not to use the term “corrective feedback” in order to avoid confusion when referring to different types of feedback in this thesis which are based on Hattie and Timperley’s model of feedback (2007).

2.5 Previous research related to feedback internationally and nationally

Previous research has shown that much of teachers’ feedback based on students’ work is vague, repetitive and too general, often with much praise and few substantial comments (Klette, 2003). Research concerning feedback in Norwegian lower secondary school shows that approximately 80 per cent across Year 9 and 10, is vague and repetitive (Brevik & Rindal, 2017).

2.5.1 Types of feedback

Hawe et.al. (2008) did a classroom study in Australia concerning oral feedback. Their research objective was the following: “What types of oral feedback are used to support student learning, during written language?” (Hawe et.al., 2008, p.47). Hawe et.al. (2008) collected data from three classrooms from different primary schools over an eight-week period. All of these classrooms were working with language learning, and specifically writing. Their focus was on feedback that is used to support student learning and found that feedback that specified attainment was the feedback type that was used most often (Hawe et.al., 2008). This type of feedback can be compared to feedback about the task. This coincides with Hattie and Timperley’s (2007) statement that feedback about the task is the type that is most common in classrooms, as well as with my own results that show that feedback about the task occurs the most in English L2 classrooms.

Gamlem and Smith (2013) did a study in Norway on how students in lower secondary school understand the feedback they are given by their teachers. The main topic of their study is “students’ perception of the feedback they receive or give”, and their main research question is “What are adolescent perceptions of useful classroom feedback?” (Gamlem & Smith, 2013, p.150). To investigate this, Gamlem and Smith (2013) interviewed 11 different students from four different schools among Norwegian lower secondary schools. As many other researchers, Gamlem and Smith (2013) also divided feedback into four types of feedback. Their results showed that students were often given feedback on how to improve their work after they had completed a task, and that the feedback they were provided with the most was what Gamlem and Smith (2013) called Type B feedback. This type of feedback can be compared to feedback about the task (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Dåsvatn (2016) conducted a similar MA study in Norway using video recorded data. Dåsvatn (2016) did a video study of five classrooms where the research objective was *oral feedback in Norwegian instruction lessons*. The video recorded data material Dåsvatn (2017) is a part of the LISA project (Blikstad-Balas, Klette & Roe, 2017). This study’s research question is “What characterizes good oral feedback in Norwegian instruction lessons?” (Dåsvatn, 2016, p.2). Dåsvatn (2016) used Hattie and Timperley’s (2007) model of feedback as a theoretical framework to identify the four major levels of feedback when analyzing own results. The results from Dåsvatn’s (2016) study showed that the type of feedback provided in Norwegian

instruction lessons depended on the teacher providing them. However, the results also showed that the one thing all teachers had in common was that the feedback they provided most frequently, was feedback about the task (Dåsvatn, 2016). Dåsvatn (2016) also states that the results in her study have shown that classroom discussions contained little feedback, but when it occurred it was usually feedback about the task.

2.5.2 Praise and motivation

Gloppen et.al. (2014) did a study in Norway about the teachers' assessment practice. Their research objective was "to develop knowledge about teachers' assessment practices and which affect this practice has on students' motivation for learning" (Gloppen et.al., 2014, p.9). This study observed two classrooms at the same school where both teachers were clear and consistent in giving their students feedback. The results showed that teachers usually gave "a mix between common praise and specific comments on what the students had accomplished" (Gloppen et.al., 2014, p.45-46). Hattie & Timperley (2007) are skeptical of feedback given on a personal level as it holds "little task-related information". But both Hattie and Timperley (2007), and Gloppen et.al. (2014) claim that feedback on a personal level can have a positive effect on students' learning if the feedback provides motivation within the students for future task performances. However, Gloppen et.al. (2014) state that even though feedback provided to students has the possibility to affect their motivation, it is important that there is a good relationship between the teacher and student if that is to happen.

2.5.3 Related studies using video observational data

Bentsen (2017) conducted a MA study in Norway that combined video recordings from English lessons at seven different lower secondary schools (Year 9) by seven different teachers. The video data material used in this study is also collected by the LISE project. The research question for this study is "How do English teachers approach grammar instruction in lower secondary school, and which grammar mistakes are observed in English among the students in their oral communication?" (Bentsen, 2017, p.5). The results in this study have shown that students in the observed lessons rarely made oral grammar mistakes, as well as that teachers rarely correct mistakes. However, when the rare correction of oral grammar mistakes did occur, they were implicit and focused more on students' communicative competence than on correctness.

Iannuzzi (2017) is another MA study conducted in Norway by using video recorded data, previously collected by the LISE project, in order to answer the research question of the study: “How do teachers approach English pronunciation in lower secondary school?” (Iannuzzi, 2017, p.18). The results of this study showed that the English pronunciation by students in six different English L2 classrooms is highly intelligible. In addition, the results have also shown that even though the students’ mispronunciations are rare, teachers rarely offer correction on these. When they do offer corrections, the majority of these are linked to specific teaching situations while the rest are provided seemingly sporadic.

3 Methodology

In this section, I will present the methodology I have used in order to answer my research question: *What characterizes vague feedback in English L2 classrooms and what type of situations does said feedback occur in?* I will first address the link between my MA study and the LISE video project (3.1) and my research design (3.2) before I introduce the sample chosen for this MA study, including information about the participants (3.3). I will then identify the data I have used and how the data was collected (3.4), as well as elaborating on how I have analyzed the data (3.5). Finally, I will address the research credibility (3.6) of the study in terms of reliability, validity, ethical considerations and limitations.

3.1 The LISE video project

I was fortunate enough to be invited to participate in the *Linking Instruction and Student Experiences* (LISE) research project at the Department of Teacher Education and School Research, University of Oslo. As mentioned, the LISE project builds on the LISA project (Linking Instruction and Student Achievement) design (Blikstad-Balas et al., 2017). LISE links video observations from classroom instruction with student questionnaires. The LISE project analyzes the quality of instruction in seven lower secondary schools, in the school subjects English, Norwegian, French, mathematics, science, and social studies. The LISE project offers new insight in classroom instruction that we have not had much of until now. LISE was initiated in 2015 and is led by Professor Kirsti Klette and Associate Professor Lisbeth M. Brevik. The aim of LISE is to follow classroom instructions across two school years (Year 9 and 10) in selected classrooms. The data has been collected by the LISE project team in seven different classrooms at seven different schools. This was done throughout 2015-16 (Year 9) and 2016-17 (Year 10), filming four to six consecutive lessons in each subject in each classroom, which in total amounts to 290 filmed lessons.

To investigate my research question, I have used video observation data from the English classrooms (Year 9) collected by the LISE research team. Since student questionnaires and student achievement data linked to classroom instruction did not concern itself with different types of feedback within vague feedback, they were not relevant for my MA study. In the

following, I elaborate on how my choice of video observations influenced my research design.

3.2 Research design

Since this study is based solely on video observations as data material, it uses qualitative methods by investigating the characterization of vague feedback in English classrooms for a limited period of time (Cohen et.al., 2011). Creswell (2014) notes that “qualitative researchers tend to collect data in the field at the site where participants experience the issue or problem under study” (p. 185). This is accurate for the participants for this MA study, as the video data I have used have recorded the participants in English classrooms. Creswell (2014) also notes the following, specifically concerning qualitative research:

qualitative researchers collect data themselves through examining documents, observing behavior, or interview participants [...] they may use a protocol – an instrument for collecting data – but the researchers are the ones who actually gather the information. They do not tend to use or rely on questionnaires or instruments by other researchers. (p.185)

This qualitative MA study is therefore characterized by the analysis of video data. The purpose of this MA study is to identify different feedback types within vague feedback, and the feedback situations these types of vague feedback occur in. A qualitative approach therefore seems appropriate in order to characterize what vague feedback looks like in the classroom. In addition to analyzing these videos qualitatively, I have also chosen to quantify the observations in terms of the number of lessons and lesson segments in which vague feedback is observed. I will return to this in my data analysis. Table 2 provides an overview of my research design, including method, research aim, sample, data material, data analysis, and analytical concepts.

Table 2. Overview of my qualitative research design, based on video recorded observation

Sample	Data material	Data analysis	Analytical concepts
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Seven English classrooms at seven different schools in Year 9.	video recorded English lessons from the LISE project.	Qualitative analysis of video recorded data and transcriptions. Quantification in terms of number of lessons and number of lesson segments including vague feedback.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Feedback about the task. 2) Feedback about the processing of the task. 3) Feedback about the self as a person.
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As shown in Table 2, I was provided with 30 video recorded English lessons from seven different classrooms at the seven different schools in the LISE project.

In these English lessons, my aim was to observe vague feedback and attempt to analyze its characteristics. With this in mind, I compared the video data from the different schools and created an overview of how and when vague feedback occurred. I analyzed the video data by watching the video recorded lessons, as well using my own notes and transcripts from the lessons. The video recordings enabled me to look at the collected data from different perspectives and compare them. The results from the video recording were thus interpreted and discussed to answer my research question and to find implications for further research.

3.3 Sample

This section will introduce the participating schools relevant for this MA study. The LISE project has recorded seven different schools in Year 9, where one English classroom from each of the seven schools was video recorded. Since my MA study focuses on oral feedback in the English classroom, I needed to use data from all seven schools that offer video recordings from English classrooms. However, as mentioned, I only observed and analyzed the 15-minute segments that contained vague feedback.

3.3.1 Introduction of the seven schools

The schools will be referred to as following: *School 2*, *School 7*, *School 9*, *School 13*, *School 17*, *School 50* and *School 51*. I will now introduce each school shortly, focusing on the observed situations when vague feedback is provided by the teacher to the students, before the

results the schools have provided this study with, will be elaborated on in Chapter 4: Findings.

School 2

In *School 2*, the students were mostly reading and working on tasks individually or in pairs. These situations led to the teacher providing repetitive and vague feedback often. However, when the feedback was being provided, this was mostly done in classroom discussions.

School 7

All feedback situations in *School 7* contained classroom discussions. The teacher provided his students with much feedback about the task and feedback about the processing of the task, but with relatively little feedback about the self as a person.

School 9

School 9 does not include as many different feedback situations as the other schools for the reason that this school spent most of their lessons reading and presenting in front of the class. The main part of feedback about the task was provided in situations where the students were reading or immediately after students had given individual oral presentations.

School 13

School 13 also had students presenting in front of the class. However, this school contained different feedback situations, such as group work and classroom discussions, both before and after students' presentations. Most of the feedback provided was still feedback about the task.

School 17

School 17 consisted mainly of the feedback situations classroom discussions and group work. In both feedback situations, the teacher provided the students with feedback about the task the most. However, when feedback about the processing of the task was provided, this was done in group work.

School 50

School 50 consists for the most part of classroom discussions. In this feedback situation, the teacher mainly provides feedback about the task. There is some group and individual work, where different types of feedback are provided.

School 51

School 51 consisted mainly of one specific feedback situation, namely group work. This was due to the fact that the students were working in groups on a project. However, this school also contained some classroom discussions. Nevertheless, the feedback that was provided the most was feedback about the task.

3.4 Data collection

Data collection refers to the methodology used to gather data for the study and explains why the particular methodology was chosen (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorenson, 2006). In order to attempt to say something about the characterization of vague feedback in English L2 classrooms, I needed to look at several classrooms where English as an L2 is taught. The LISE project had already collected enough data which I could use. The video recordings in the LISE project consists of 290 lessons in total, whereas 60 of these are in English, with 30 available lessons in Year 9 in lower secondary school (see Table 3).

Table 3. Overview of the data material (Year 9 in lower secondary school). Video recorded English lessons in Year 9 (N=30), divided into schools

S02	S07	S09	S13	S17	S50	S51	Total
6 lessons	4 lessons	6 lessons	4 lessons	2 lessons	4 lessons	4 lessons	30 lessons

3.4.1 Video recordings

In qualitative research, video recordings can “offer a more “unfiltered” observational record than human observation, and the record can be viewed several times; it is not a “once-and-for” all observation” (Cohen et.al., 2011, p. 470). Video recorded data can help overcome the partialness when viewing the recorded event and gives the researcher the opportunity to analyze the material in a way that reduces the dependence on prior interpretations (Cohen et.at., 2011). This is to say that when using video recorded data, one has the advantage to rewind and re-watch recordings to observe specific events or details without the interference of other researchers and their earlier research based on the same data (Dalland, 2011). In addition to this, I myself found it to be easier to compare and analyze the collected data when I had the possibility to re-watch the data as many times as I needed to.

There is a standard procedure for how the videos that are linked to the LISE project, are recorded. For every classroom, there are two cameras. One camera is directed towards the teacher and the board, while the other camera is directed towards the students in the classroom. When the cameras are positioned this way, it makes it possible for all the informants to be present in the video recordings. If some students are not supposed to participate for whatever reason, but follow the lesson regularly, these students will then be placed outside the camera angles. In addition to the cameras, there are also two microphones in use when recording. One microphone is placed in the middle of the classroom and the other microphone is carried by the teacher (Blikstad-Balas, et.al., 2017).

One of the advantages of using video recorded data is that the researcher is provided with the opportunity to look at what is actually taking place in classrooms (Blikstad-Balas, 2016). Through the video recordings from the LISE study, I was able to observe the interaction between teachers and students in classrooms. Another advantage of the video-observation method is that I can observe what the teachers and students say in the classroom, rather than what they do (Cohen et.al., 2011). For the most part, video observation is unobtrusive for the participants. However, this depends on the role the researcher holds. If the researcher engages in roles, rather than just observing, it may be disruptive for the participants and affect responses (Creswell, 2014). Regarding this study, the LISE team did not participate in the observed situations, and the result therefore became recordings of classroom situations with

interactions between teachers and students as close to a “natural” behavior as possible (e.g., Blikstad-Balas, 2016; Blikstad-Balas et.al., 2017).

Video recordings provide other advantages as well. For example, the researcher has the opportunity to re-watch the same recordings multiple times, which opens up for different interpretations of the same data material, as well as strengthening the credibility and validity of the study. Table 4 beneath presents an overview of the advantages and disadvantages of using video observations.

Table 4. Overview of advantages and disadvantages of video observations

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Opportunity to rewind recordings. - Opportunity to re-watch the data and scrutinize the data more fully. - Overcome the partialness of the observer. - Opportunity to observe the classroom from different angles. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The quality of the audio and video might vary, making it difficult to interpret. - If the camera froze, the lack of video may change the interpretation of the situation the conversation was happening in.

3.4.2 The reuse of data collected by others (secondary data use)

According to Dalland (2011), it is not common to use qualitative data collected by others for your own research. However, it is possible to re-use data, and especially video data, collected by others with a completely different research question in mind. For me, as an MA student, it was clearly an advantage to join the LISE project and have the ability to use secondary data.

Considering the fact that I did not have to find informants myself or contact schools to find relevant classes I could observe, using secondary data was certainly time-efficient. Seeing as the LISE data was collected in order to observe naturally occurring instruction, I had the chance to observe how and in what vague feedback was provided in classrooms where English was. Furthermore, I had the opportunity to contact researchers that were connected to the LISE project, and my supervisors, who could validate my analysis if there was anything I was unsure of.

Given that I am re-using the qualitative data collected by others, I have the chance to find new perspectives of already analyzed data (Dalland, 2011). However, using secondary data involves the risk of receiving data without satisfactory information (Dalland, 2011). For example, I experienced that this particular video data I was re-using did not give me the adequate information to be able to answer my initial research question. Because I was not able to collect a new data set, I had to change my research question in order to get adequate results. Furthermore, there are ethical guidelines that are particularly necessary to consider when re-using data collected by others, which will be elaborated on in section 3.7.3 Ethics and privacy.

3.5 Data analysis

According to Cohen et.al. (2011), there is “no one single or correct way to analyze or present qualitative data” (p.537). It is important to be aware of the fact that qualitative data analysis is often heavy on interpretation, and that there are often numerous interpretations to be made of qualitative data (Cohen et.al., 2011). I analyzed the collected video data in a qualitative manner. In this section, I will clarify the procedures I used to analyze the data and how the data can be linked to different types of feedback given in diverse English lessons.

In order to analyze the video recorded material in the LISE project, the LISE research team used the Protocol for Language Arts Teaching Observation Manual (PLATO), developed by Pamela Grossman and colleagues (2013). PLATO is a relevant tool for my MA study, as it is designed to assess quality aspects of English teaching. PLATO consists of 13 elements that are considered to represent effective teaching in English lessons, and one of these is of particular importance to my study, namely Feedback.

Seeing how I am using video data to observe what type of feedback is given in different situations, I used the PLATO coding manual for this exact purpose. The PLATO coding manual is a system of codes to use when observing English instruction. I have observed English L2 instruction lessons from Year 9 where all the lessons were coded for feedback. It is significant to state that the PLATO coding manual is not intended to capture all the different areas that are important in a classroom, but that it is designed to capture feedback and different types of feedback.

Each 15-minute segment of the recorded video data was previously coded for PLATO elements on a scale from 1-4 to pinpoint to which degree these elements described the feedback given. According to the methodology used in the LISE project, I split each lesson into 15-minute segment, and then only watched the ones that were coded as a code 2 on the PLATO coding manual.

Within this component, feedback is coded on a scale from 1-4, whereas score 1 means that there is no feedback, score 2 means the feedback is vague or repetitive, score 3 consists of specific feedback and feed forward, and score 4 consists of frequent, consistent and specific feedback and feed forward. The concept of feedback builds on already presented theoretical framework in this thesis.

The PLATO manual characterizes vague feedback (score 2), as follows:

Teacher and/or students provide feedback that is vague, repetitive, perfunctory, or misleading (e.g., “Good job”, “Right”, “No”). Suggestions for how to improve student performance are procedural rather than substantive. Teacher questions that imply next steps or suggestions for improvement fall at this level (e.g., “Have you thought about adding more details?” or “Have you asked your neighbor what they think?”).
(PLATO 5.0)

This definition only describes the vague feedback I analyzed in this thesis. The PLATO manual offers the following clarification of terms of relevance for the vague feedback I analyze in my MA thesis: *Feedback* is verbal comments from the teacher or students regarding students’ performance. Feedback evaluates or describes students’ work. Feedback provides guidance on how students may improve their work. (PLATO 5.0)

Vague feedback does not identify what the student has done poorly and/or well and does not communicate what the teacher perceives in the student’s work. Feedback that is procedural in nature (repeating steps for the task) constitutes vague feedback, as it does not address a student’s work specifically. (PLATO 5.0)

Procedural suggestions for how to improve student performance tend to focus on the instructions or steps of the activity rather than the underlying skills. When teachers ask students whether they have completed a particular step or check to make sure that students are following directions, they are providing procedural guidance to students. (PLATO 5.0)

Substantive suggestions for how to improve student work focus on the skills underlying an ELA practice. These suggestions may prompt students to make use of specific strategies or may draw student attention to resources that will help them develop their ideas. Such suggestions may involve brief instruction where the teacher explains how the student may improve their practice. (PLATO 5.0)

Step 1: Analysis by the LISE research team

I started the entire process by being permitted access the LISE project and being provided with an overview of the video recorded data of 30 English lessons throughout seven different classrooms at seven different schools. As these 30 English lessons were split into 15-minute segments, those containing vague feedback were of relevance for my MA study. Table 5 gives an overview of the English lessons in Year 9, and the number of segments in each lesson containing vague feedback (score 2).

Table 5. An overview of lessons and segments that contain vague feedback

	School 2	School 7	School 9	School	School	School	School
				13	17	50	51

Number of English lessons and segments	6 lessons: 24 segments	4 lessons: 19 segments	6 lessons: 24 segments	4 lessons: 16 segments	2 lessons: 12 segments	4 lessons: 18 segments	4 lessons: 16 segments
Number of segments with vague feedback	21 segments	18 segments	14 segments	10 segments	12 segments	13 segments	11 segments

Table 5: Note: The first row gives an overview of how many English lessons each school contains of and how many 15-minute segments these lessons are divided in. The second row gives an overview of how many segments at each school are coded as vague feedback (score 2).

Step 2: Feedback level and situation

My second step was to watch all of the 15-minute segments that were coded for vague feedback (see Table 5). I analyzed the segments and identified what characterized the vague feedback that was provided in these segments. I made a note of these observations manually by hand in my own notebook. When I identified the vague feedback being given, I categorized it by what type of feedback it was. In order to do this, I used Hattie and Timperley's (2007) model of feedback (see Figure 1).

Step 3: Focus schools

After I had categorized whether the feedback observed was feedback about the task, feedback about the processing of the task or feedback about the self as a person, I began to categorize in which feedback situations the different types of feedback occurred in. The different feedback types occurred in either classroom discussions, group work situations or individual work. I also read through the transcripts (which I was given access to by the LISE research team)

from the lessons at the seven schools (where they were available) as a way to ensure that my interpretations and own observations of the video data were as correct as they could be.

In order to present how different types of feedback were provided in different feedback situations, I will provide examples from transcripts in Chapter 4. Some of these examples were written in English, while some were written in Norwegian. The examples in Norwegian have been translated into English by me (see Appendix 1) and I will only present the translations in Chapter 4. The reason I have chosen to present the examples in this way is because the focus is on the content of the examples and not the language use.

3.6 Research credibility

In this section I will start by presenting the reliability (3.6.1) and the validity (3.6.2) of this MA study, before I elaborate on what type of ethical issues and privacy threats (3.6.3) can occur when using secondary video observation data. Finally, I will present the limitations of this MA study (3.6.4).

3.6.1 Reliability

Cohen et.al. (2011) states that for research to be reliable, it must “demonstrate that if it were to be carried out on a similar group of respondents in a similar context (however defined), then similar results would be found” (p.199). Furthermore, Cohen et.al. (2011) states that reliability is “a necessary precondition of validity” (p. 179). Reliability can be divided into inter reliability and intra reliability.

Inter reliability measures the agreement within numerous researchers’ findings. According to Cohen et.al. (2011), if more than one researcher is participating in a specific research project, then there must be achieved an understanding between all researchers by ensuring that each researcher records data in the same way. For observational data, “reliability is addressed in the training sessions for researchers where they work on video material to ensure parity in how they enter the data” (Cohen et.al., 2011, p.200-201). When observers are analyzing their data using the PLATO rubric, there are strict producers that have to be followed. For the observers to achieve an accurate scoring of the video data, the observers must complete a PLATO-training program in advance and be certified in using PLATO, in additions to the fact

that the PLATO coding manual is a carefully validated instrument (Blikstad-Balas et.al., 2017). Furthermore, in the LISE project, 25% of all observed video data are coded by two certified observers in order to increase the reliability. However, it is imperative to note that I am not certified in using the PLATO coding manual. Therefore, my observation did not include coding video data, but watching video data with already coded segments. My observation functioned as an extra assessment on the already coded data and that it was in fact coded correctly, as well as my observation was meant to discover what type of vague feedback occurs in different situations in English instruction.

Intra reliability measures to what degree multiple repetitions of a particular test yields similar results. Cohen et.al. (2011) states that this type of reliability can be attained by using equivalent forms of a test or data-gathering instrument, such as video data. If, for example, the equivalent of a data-gathering instrument is generated and yields similar results, then it can be assumed that the instrument will validate this form of reliability. With video observations, the researcher has the chance to rewind recordings and re-watch certain events numerous times (Cohen et.al., 2011). Video recordings also create the possibility for observers to transcribe the recordings and discover details one could not have discovered if one were merely an observer in a classroom. Furthermore, since I am connected to the LISE project, I have the possibility to discuss my interpretation of the findings with my supervisors and other researchers linked to the LISE project.

3.6.2 Validity

It is a known fact that it is impossible for any research to be 100 per cent valid. According to Cohen et.al. (2011), the subjectivity of respondents, their opinions, attitudes and perspectives among other things, together contribute to a degree of bias in qualitative data. Therefore, validity should rather be perceived as a matter of degree than as an absolute state. Maxwell (2013) states that “the validity of your results is not guaranteed by following some standard, accepted procedure” and that instead “it depends on the relationship of your conclusions to reality, and no methods can completely assure that you have captured this” (p.121).

One of the most common threats to validity concerning video data observations in qualitative studies is “the effect of the researcher on the individuals studied” (Maxwell, 2013, p.124), also known as *reactivity*. The threat concerning video data has to do with the fact that the

participants' awareness of being observed might have had an impact on the participants' actions in front of camera (Blikstad-Balas, 2016; Cohen et.al., 2011). Researchers connected to the LISE project who went to the schools that were being recorded, recommended to the teacher and the students that they should try to act as normal as possible for the purpose of gathering dependable data. However, according to Maxwell (2013), reactivity is not usually as serious a validity threat as some people may think. In natural settings, an observer is usually much less of an impact on participants' conduct than the setting itself. Furthermore, using the carefully validated PLATO observation manual reinforced the accurateness of my observations of the video recordings (Blikstad-Balas et.al., 2017).

Since I chose a qualitative approach to my MA study, my data is limited to the video recordings from Year 9 in seven different Norwegian lower secondary schools from English (L2) second language instruction lessons. However, I do have transcripts from some of these lessons that have been transcribed from several different individuals. These transcripts can be helpful in strengthening my interpretations of the same video recorded data. Considering the entire data collection was from video recordings, it provides a certain validity by itself (Maxwell, 2013).

3.6.3 Ethics and privacy

It is important to be aware of the fact that there are ethical concerns that may arise between me as a researcher and the research participants. Ethical principles in research are as follows: the researcher is required to collect signed informed consent forms from the participants, the research is not supposed to harm the participants, the researcher is required to protect the participants' privacy and the researcher is required to present his or her data as it is (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015; Cohen et.al., 2011). In the LISE project, following the ethical guidelines of the Norwegian Center for Research Data, written and informed participation consent was provided by teachers, students, and parents, since some students were under the age of fifteen (NESH, 2006). The teachers and students in the observed classes were willing and able to participate. Second, peer-debriefing was employed during the analyses (see also Blikstad-Balas et.al., 2017).

In addition, before I watched any of the video recorded classrooms with English L2 instruction, I signed an Agreement of Confidentiality and Non-Disclosure. However, since I

am observing pre-recorded video data, I have the role of an entirely independent observer, and with that, I do not have the opportunity for any contact with the participants of the LISE study. Teachers, students and their parents have given the LISE project their written voluntary consent to participate in the LISE study and to give other researchers within the project, access to the recorded data. Nonetheless, the ethical guidelines should be followed in all areas of research. As expected for any research project, the video recorded material from schools connected to the LISE project are stored in a proper and legal manner and can only be found on particular computers. Furthermore, the researchers who use this material are required to sign a statement where they agree to not abuse the data they have been given access to or disclose personal information, as well as keep all participants unidentified (Dalland, 2011).

3.6.4 Limitations

This MA study has its limitations. Because this particular study is based on my interpretation of a small amount of collected data, it is not my intent to generalize the research results to a greater population. Seeing how I observed a small number of individuals in a single setting and used purposeful sampling which is not random, it is not even possible to generalize the results to a greater population (Maxwell, 2013). The aim of this MA study, however, was to analyze the phenomena of vague feedback further in an attempt to describe and explain what characteristics vague feedback consists of.

4 Findings

This chapter will present my findings. I have identified three patterns in the data material I have observed. First, I found out that feedback about the task occurs in all 15-minute segments I have analyzed. It often occurs with feedback about the processing of the task and sometimes also with feedback about the self as a person (4.1). Second, I found that English L2 instruction lessons mainly consist of classroom discussions (4.2). Third, the majority of the three types of feedback occur in classroom discussions (4.3). Figure 2 beneath presents the frequency of occurrence of different types of feedback within each 15-minute segment in the different schools.

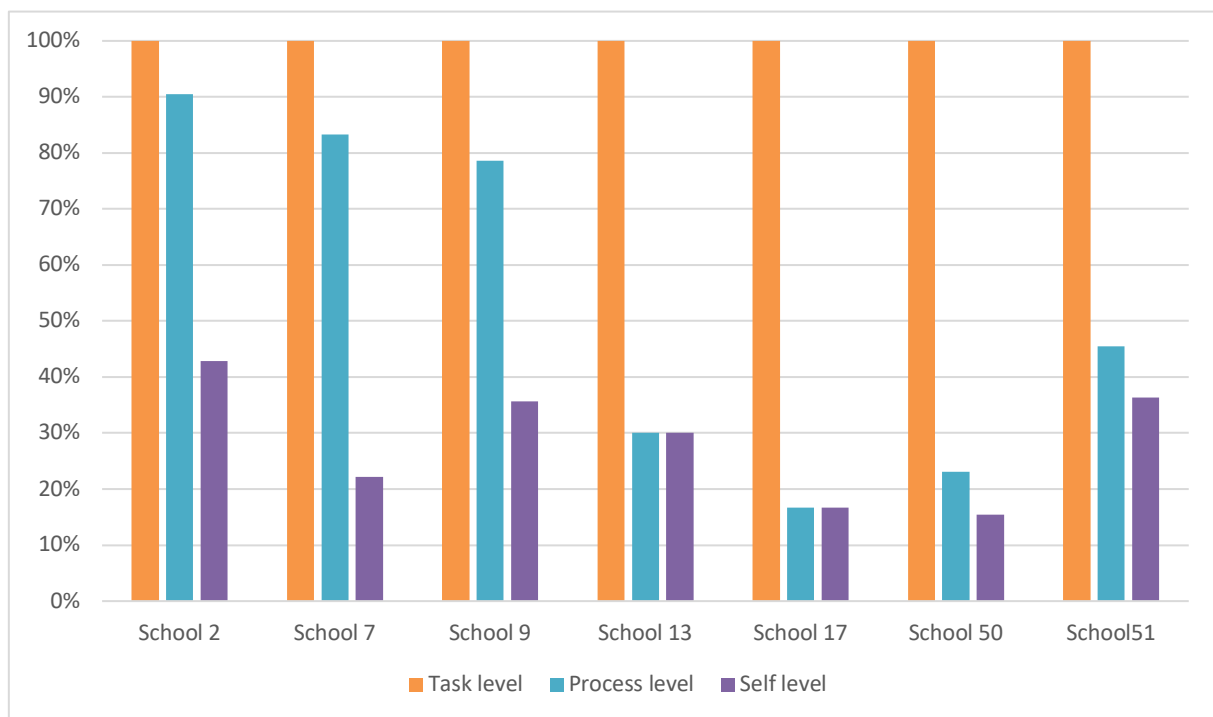


Figure 2: Different feedback types: The frequency of different feedback types per 15-minute segment illustrated in percentage. Some segments can contain more than one type of feedback.

4.1 The occurrence of different types of feedback

Figure 2 illustrates a similar impression of the results from all seven schools, with differentiation within the occurrence of different types of feedback. The one thing that all seven schools have in common, is that feedback about the task occurs the most and that feedback about the self as a person occurs the least.

4.1.1 Feedback about the task

As mentioned, all the 15-minute segments I have analyzed have a 100 per cent occurrence of feedback about the task. In this MA study, feedback about the task is characterized by teachers asking their students questions, mostly in classroom discussions, and then confirming they have answered correctly. There are two varieties of how this type of feedback is provided. The first example illustrates a typical example of feedback about the task where the teacher briefly confirms the student's answer as correct, while the second example illustrates how feedback about the task is provided when the teacher confirms the student's answer and in addition elaborates on the answer him- or herself rather than asking the student to elaborate. Both of the following examples are from *School 7*.

Example 1: Repetitive feedback, task level (S7)

Teacher: Do you know what they think about the pope? Why is he so important?

Student: Because he's the leader.

Teacher: Yes, he's the leader.

Example 1 illustrates how typical repetitive feedback on task level is provided by the English teacher. Repetitive feedback on task level in different feedback situations is provided in a similar matter.

Example 2: Vague feedback, task level (S7)

Teacher: Well, two good suggestions, because you are hoping for Ireland to become independent. Well, that's not it, it has to do with a vegetable. The next bullet point has to do with a vegetable, that we like in Norway. That you often eat with meat balls. What do we often eat with meat balls in Norway? The kind of vegetable you don't like, but are forced to eat anyway.

Student: The potato.

Teacher: Yes, and what is it about Ireland and potatoes?

Student: I don't know.

Teacher: Well, do you know, [student's name]?

Student: The Potato Famine.

Teacher: Right, we have what we call the potato famine, or the great famine. The Great Potato – Potato Famine leads to one million people dying because of starvation, another million people go to the USA, the land of opportunities. Eh, at this point, there are five million people living in Ireland, after the potato crisis, only 3 million are left. 40 per cent of the population disappears. Eh, it is called the great potato famine, simply because the crops, *altså avlingene*, eh, didn't work out too well these years, so people starved. Since the potato is important in Ireland, this was a crisis. That's an easy way, to remember how, or what Ireland went through, it had to do with potatoes [...].

Example 2 of feedback about the task illustrates how the teacher provides a big part of the answer to the questions himself, instead of letting the students elaborate on the correct answers they have already provided. This is a typical example of how vague feedback on task level is provided.

4.1.2 Feedback about the processing of the task

School 2 has the highest percentage (90%) of feedback about the processing of the task, while *School 17* has the lowest (17%). This type of feedback often relates to deeper understanding of learning and is in this study related to giving the students the possibility for reflection. This type of feedback is often presented to students as follow-up questions on their answers, as shown in the following examples. Example 3 is from *School 2* and example 4 is from *School 7*, while example 5 illustrates how feedback about the processing of the task is provided in *School 9*.

Example 3: Vague feedback, process level (S2)

Teacher: And this term, cruelty, do you know what that means?

Student: Yes.

Teacher: What does it mean?

Student: Ehm it means if you're cruel you're not necessarily evil but if someone is lying, for example [...] you let them [...] you're a cruel person. It's not usually describing evil people, not like [...] fairytales or in...

Teacher: But you can be cruel in different ways, can't you? It can be violence, or it can just be oral cruelty as well. You have various ways of being cruel. So I would like you to discuss that.

[Students discuss].

Example 3 shows a typical example of how follow-up questions are used to get the students to justify the answers they provide.

Example 4: Repetitive feedback, process level (S7)

Teacher: Who is it, [student's name], that are living there?

Student: Protestants.

Teacher: Protestant. But only Protestants?

Student: No also eh, suppressed Catholics.

Teacher: Right. Suppressed Catholics. Good point.

Example 4 shows that the repetitive feedback on process level is provided in the same way as repetitive feedback on task level (see Example 1).

Example 5: Teacher uptake, process level (S9)

Teacher: Because, what about the culture now?

Student: Ehm, they are more modern, ehm. But they don't use ehm, any electronic things, ehm, phones and things like that.

Teacher: Do you know how they live today? Are they still a free people using the sea and hunting and things?

Student: I think so. But all of them, some of them lives in houses. Like normal people.

Teacher: So things have changed since to old old Native Americans lived as they wanted to. You know. Is it easy to live out the culture today?

Student: Ehm.

Teacher: In the modern world? Have you been to the USA?

Student: No.

Teacher: No, you haven't no. I haven't either.

Student: It's hard to keep the way their culture. But I think the try to do their best.

As explained, feedback about the processing of the task usually asks the students to give a deeper explanation by asking them follow-up questions where they have to think further for themselves. Example 6 illustrates how this type of feedback is provided in *School 17*. The teacher is trying, by asking leading follow-up questions, to lead the students to the correct answer.

Example 6: Teacher uptake, process level (S17)

Teacher: What could "setting" be?

Student: We think it may be something like settings ("instillinger" in Norwegian), but we're not sure.

Teacher: Yes, it could mean settings ("instillinger"), but in this context with movies, acting and stuff like that. What could setting be then? Because, yes, settings is settings ("instillinger") but in this context it is something different. What could it be?

All of the examples above show that even though the different teachers all provide their students with feedback about the processing of the task in form of follow-up questions, the thing that differs is the way they provide the feedback.

4.1.3 Feedback about the self as a person

School 2 also has the highest percentage (43%) of feedback about the self as a person, while *School 50* holds the lowest (15%). This type of feedback often relates to positive evaluations

and affect about the students. In this MA study, feedback about the self as a person is often presented as praise. There are two different ways in which feedback about the self as a person can be provided. One way is when teachers praise students about their personal accomplishment, while the other is when teachers praise students for effort or task accomplishment (for example answering correctly). Example 7 presents a typical example of feedback about the self as a person that praises the student's personal accomplishment, while example 8 and 9 provide typical examples of feedback about the self as a person that praises the student's effort and/or task accomplishment. Example 7 is from *school 50*, while example 8 and 9 are from *School 2* and *School 50*, respectively.

Example 7: Vague feedback, self level (S50)

Teacher: And how about you?

Student: I got 24 ½ out of 25.

Teacher: Yes. That's good then.

Student: Yes.

Teacher: That is very good then.

Example 7 is a typical example of feedback about the self as a person when the praise is targeted at students' personal accomplishment, not related to effort or task accomplishment. In this case the praise is given based on the fact that the student had done well on a test and the teacher was praising the student because of this.

Example 8: Vague feedback, self level (S02)

Teacher: Raise your hand if you finished the text and the questions to the text.

[2 students raise their hands].

Teacher: You two? Very good.

Example 9: Vague feedback, self level (S50)

Teacher: Yeah, it's okay.

Student: And the Americans drove ... [unclear].

Teacher: Why did they do that?

Student: Because they don't want to have a [unclear].

Teacher: Ok, åja, so they lived in the country. Mhm. Okay. Very good.

Both example 8 and 9 illustrate how typical examples of feedback about the self as a person that praises the student's effort and/or task accomplishment are provided.

4.1.4 Reasons for the varying occurrence of different types of feedback

However, it is important to note that a reason for the varying occurrence of different types of feedback within each school might be related to the fact that the lessons contained different working methods when they were video recorded. For example, *School 17* has low occurrence of both feedback about the processing of the task and feedback about the self as a person. This could be related with the fact that the students at this school mostly worked on a group project and there was less opportunity for the teacher to provide these types of feedback.

4.2 The occurrence of different feedback situations

Within all feedback situations, classroom discussions have the highest occurrence of feedback about the task, group work situations have the highest occurrence of feedback about the processing of the task, and individual work has the highest occurrence of feedback about the self as a person. When using the word *situations*, I am referring to different working methods used in classrooms such as classroom discussions, group work and individual work.

I have analyzed 99 15-minute segments altogether and confirmed whether or not one or several of the classroom situations occur. Therefore, one 15-minute segment can contain more than one classroom situation. It is important to note that I did not count how many times each classroom situation occurred per segment, but only confirmed whether or not it *occurred* in each 15-minute segment. Out of the 99 15-minute segments at all seven schools, 85 segments

contained classroom situations, 24 segments contained group work situations and 17 segments contained individual work. Figure 3 beneath illustrates these results.

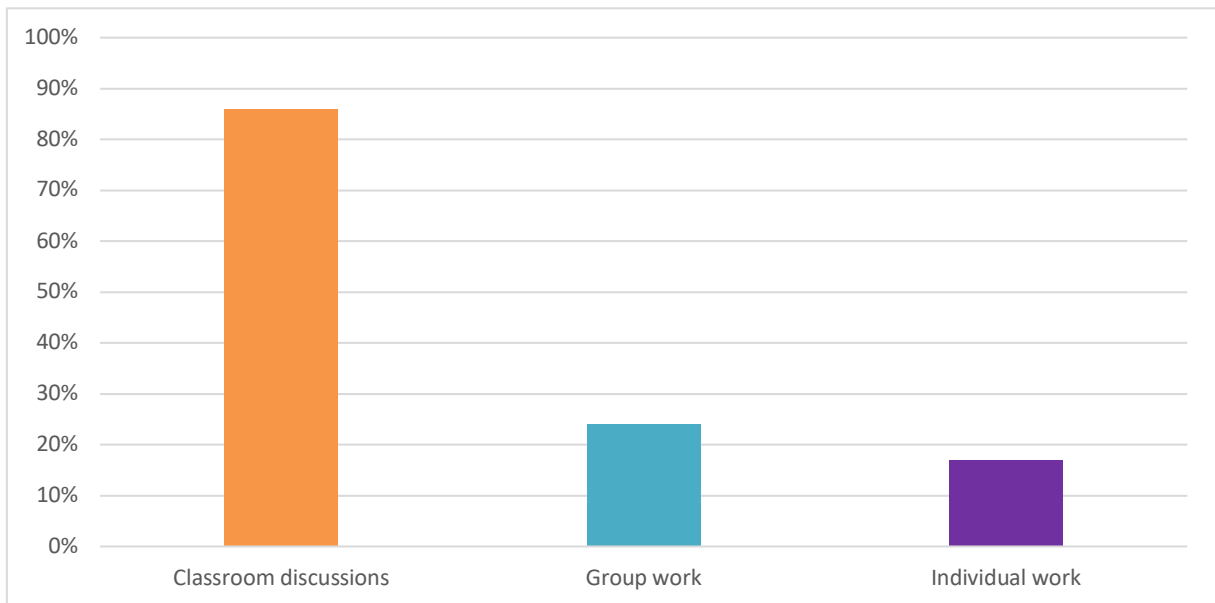


Figure 3: Feedback situations. *Note:* The number of feedback situations (in percentage) in all 15-minute segments at all seven schools combined. Each segment can contain several feedback situations.

The results clearly show that the feedback situation that occurs the most is classroom discussion, followed by group work and individual work. In the 15-minute segments of English L2 instruction lessons consisting of three different feedback situations, 86 per cent are classroom discussions and 24 per cent are group work, while only 17 per cent are situations where the feedback was provided individually to students. The reason why these numbers do not add up to a 100 per cent altogether is because one 15-minute segment can contain more than one feedback situation.

While Figure 3 shows the percentage of feedback situations in all 15-minute segments at all seven schools combined, Figure 4 provides the same results but within *each* of the seven schools.

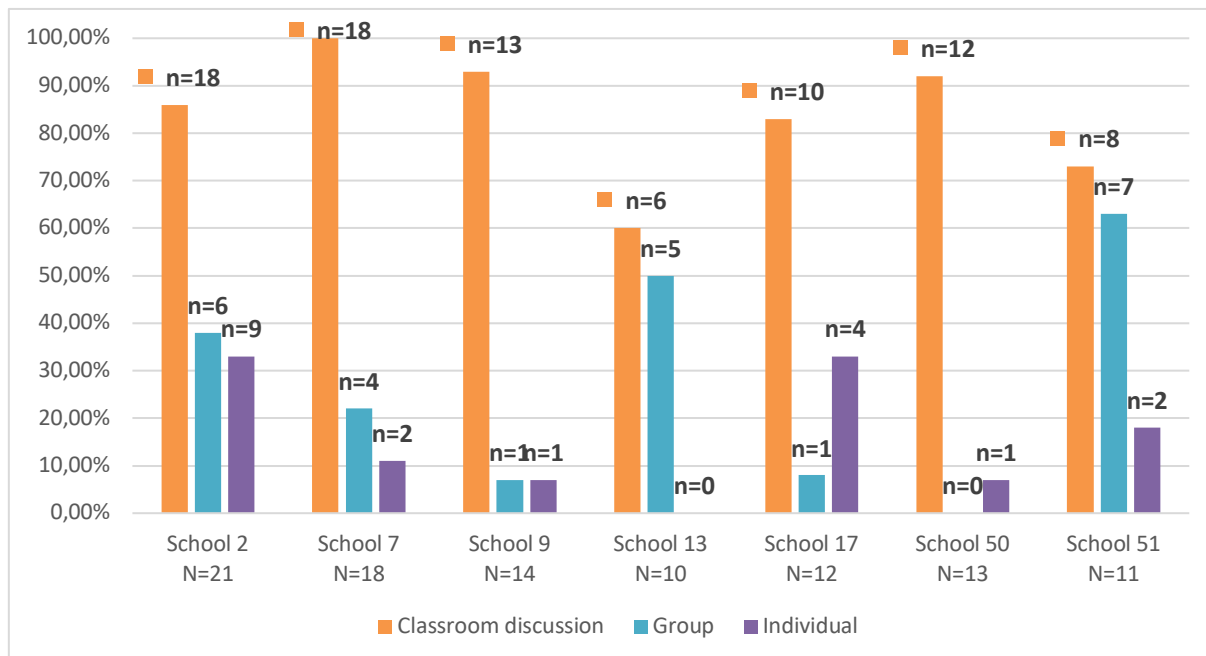


Figure 4: The number of feedback situations (in percentage) in all 15-minute segments at each of the seven schools. *Note.* N=the total number of segments with vague feedback per school. n=the number of segments containing one or several of the different feedback situations. Each segment can contain several feedback situations.

4.2.1 Classroom discussions

Classroom discussions is the feedback situation that occurs the most in all of the observed 15-minute segments. This does not necessarily mean that classroom discussions occur in every segment. *School 7* is the only school where each 15-minute segment contains classroom discussions. Classroom discussions in this MA study are characterized by situations in a classroom where the class provides answers to questions the teacher has asked. The teacher then usually picks the student who answers. The majority of feedback provided in classroom discussions is usually positive and given as feedback about the task. It plays a role in providing the students with information that tells them whether or not their answers are correct and if their contributions are good. However, classroom discussions also include other types of feedback. The different feedback types are provided in similar ways in classroom discussions, as illustrated in the following examples:

Example 10: Feedback about the task in classroom discussion (S09)

Teacher: Yes. So, what do they resemble, what do they look like that we know from this country? Do we have any native people in our country?

Student: Yes

Teacher: Which ones?

Student: Sami

Teacher: Yeah. And how do they, or how did they live traditionally.

Example 10 is a typical example of how vague feedback on task level is provided to students in class discussions.

Example 11: Feedback about the processing of the task in classroom discussion (S09)

Teacher: And we understand that when he's criticizing in a way your father, and your father's people. Ehh. What is actually Trump aiming at? What's his aim?

Student: He's. He don't wanna have. He wants to have equal, he wants to have ehm. He wants to make sure that America is safe from danger, and he thinks that danger are the people from other countries.

Teacher: And how's he going to, ehm. How's he going to achieve this aim?

Student: As I said he wants to make a mass deportation.

Teacher: Yeah, being who?

Student: Being president.

Teacher: A president. Ok. So, he's heading for the presidency.

Example 11 gives a typical example of how English teachers provide the students with feedback about the processing of the task in class discussions.

Example 12: Feedback about the self as a person in classroom discussion (S02)

Teacher: Mm exactly what do you think? did you like it? Yes? [student's name], you had one too?

Student: Ehm yeah ehm ehm it's a little bit ehm cliché.

Teacher: Ok?

Student: Ehm I said a taste of heaven.

Teacher: A taste of heaven! Wow! Hmhm, a taste of heaven. Very good. I like it. Why did you choose this one?

Student: Ehm I don't know? ehm she maybe ehm when she sees Thomas before she dies.

Teacher: Yes right.

Student: And how. Yes. She's gonna be ehm happy after her life? Or so?

Teacher: Yes, and it doesn't reveal too much either, because in the beginning of the text we have this sunlight and ja well I think it's already from the beginning you have a taste of at least something really nice, there is a good atmosphere in the beginning of the text as well. [student's name]?

Student: Slowly falling apart?

Teacher: Slowly falling apart why did you chose this one?

Student: Because Martha gets old and like she can't eh she can like remember things harder she can hardly remember thing it's hard for her to walk and she's getting like by time she's getting more and more...

Teacher: Ill maybe. She has more ehm...

Student: Limits.

Teacher: Oh, ok yes, mm, good! I think that one is a good title as well. Very good.

Example 12 shows a typical example of feedback about the self as a person when the praise is targeted at students' effort or task accomplishment. In this case the praise is given based on the fact that the teacher was pleased with the students' answers and therefore their accomplishment of the task was praised.

4.2.2 Group work

Group work is the feedback situation that has the second highest occurrence in almost all schools. *School 51* has the highest occurrence (63%) of group work in its segments of all schools, while *School 50* is the only school in which none of the 15-minute segments contain group work situations. However, *School 9* has the same amount of occurrence of group work as individual work.

Group work situations are characterized by situations in a classroom where students work together in groups consisting of at least two students. In this feedback situation, the students work and discuss together in order to accomplish different tasks. Teachers often use these group situations to talk to students individually within the groups as well as to the group itself. The feedback provided in group situations is often positive, and even though there is much feedback about the task, this is where teachers provide students with feedback about the processing the task the most. The following examples illustrate how the different feedback types are provided in group situations.

Example 13: Feedback about the task in group work (S13)

Teacher: Where is he? Is he in England or is he in America?

Student: England?

Teacher: Yes.

Feedback about the task in Example 13 shows that this type of feedback is provided in a similar way, no matter what situation it is provided in (see examples 1, 2 and 10).

Example 14: Feedback about the processing of the task in group work (S07)

Teacher: I'm not sure if [teacher's name] talked about in religion class. What's up? So, what did you find out?

Student: Nothing

Teacher: Nothing. So, what did you talk about for two minutes?

Student: The popes and the churches

Teacher: There is only one Pope. But who is he leader for?

Student: I don't know

Teacher: Come on!

Student: The Catholic.

Teacher: Yeah. Good. Then you did know something.

Student 2: We also talked about the pope, and Martin Luther.

Teacher: And, [student's name]?

Student: The Protestants, it is a different branch. They have different view.

Teacher: Yeah. Do you know some of the differences? I know for a fact that they believe in the same God. But how do the views differ?

Student: I know that one is in Northern parts and the other in the south.

Teacher: One more time?

Student: [repeats]

Teacher: It is actually. But it is good.

Example 14 shows a typical example of how follow-up questions are used to get the students to elaborate on the answers they provide.

Example 15: Feedback about the self as a person in group work (S13)

Teacher: Yeah, it's okay.

Student: And the Americans...[incomprehensible]

Teacher: Why did they do that?

Student: Because they don't want to have a...[incomprehensible]

Teacher: Ok, oh, so they lived in the country. Mhm. Okay. Very good.

Example 15 illustrates the teacher providing a student with praise based on effort or task accomplishment. In this case the student accomplished providing a correct answer and was praised for it.

4.2.3 Individual work

Individual work is the feedback situation that occurs the least of all three situations in all schools, except for *School 17*. *School 2* and *School 17* have the same amount of occurrence (33%) of individual work situations. *School 13*, however, does not have any individual work. Individual work is characterized by situations in a classroom where students work by themselves when working towards solving a task. Individual work situations provide teachers with the opportunity to provide their students with more personalized feedback. However, the majority of feedback provided in individual work is feedback about the self as a person in the form of praise. How the different types of feedback are provided to students in individual work, is presented in the following examples:

Example 16: Feedback about the task in individual work (S50)

Teacher: So, what would you put in this sentence here? These are the chains...

Student: Which.

Teacher: Which. Yes. Exactly.

Example 16 illustrates a typical way to provide feedback about the task.

Example 17: Feedback about the processing of the task in individual work (S02)

Teacher: Mhmm how can you say that she loves him? how can you see in the text that she loves him?

Student: [unclear] so she can take care of him instead of the welfare lady.

Teacher: She takes care of him.

Example 17 shows how teachers can provide their students with feedback about the processing of the task and get them to elaborate their contributions.

Example 18: Feedback about the self as a person in individual work (S07)

Teacher: Did you find the text interesting?

Student: Yeah, but a bit, yes, but a bit hard to read.

Teacher: Oh, you can do it in English, come on, you tried.

Example 18 shows how the teacher uses feedback about the self as a person to praise to student for trying, in order to enhance his or her motivation.

4.2.4 How feedback is provided

All of the examples above are chosen randomly from the seven schools that were observed in this MA study. The examples show that teachers provide the same type of feedback in similar ways no matter which feedback situation the feedback is provided in. This indicates that how feedback is provided is based on what type of feedback is being provided and not the situation it is being provided in.

4.3 Different types of feedback in different feedback situations

How much each type of feedback occurs in each feedback situation, differs. After observing and analyzing all the 99 15-minute segments, the results have shown that feedback about the task occurs the most in all three feedback situations with the highest occurrence (96 per cent) in classroom discussions, followed by 87 per cent in group work and 82 per cent in individual work. Feedback about the processing of the task occurs the most in group work (45 per cent), followed by 42 per cent in classroom discussions and 35 per cent in individual work. Feedback about the self as a person is mostly provided in individual work (41 per cent), less in group work (33 per cent) and the least in classroom discussions (17 per cent). Figure 4 beneath illustrates these results.

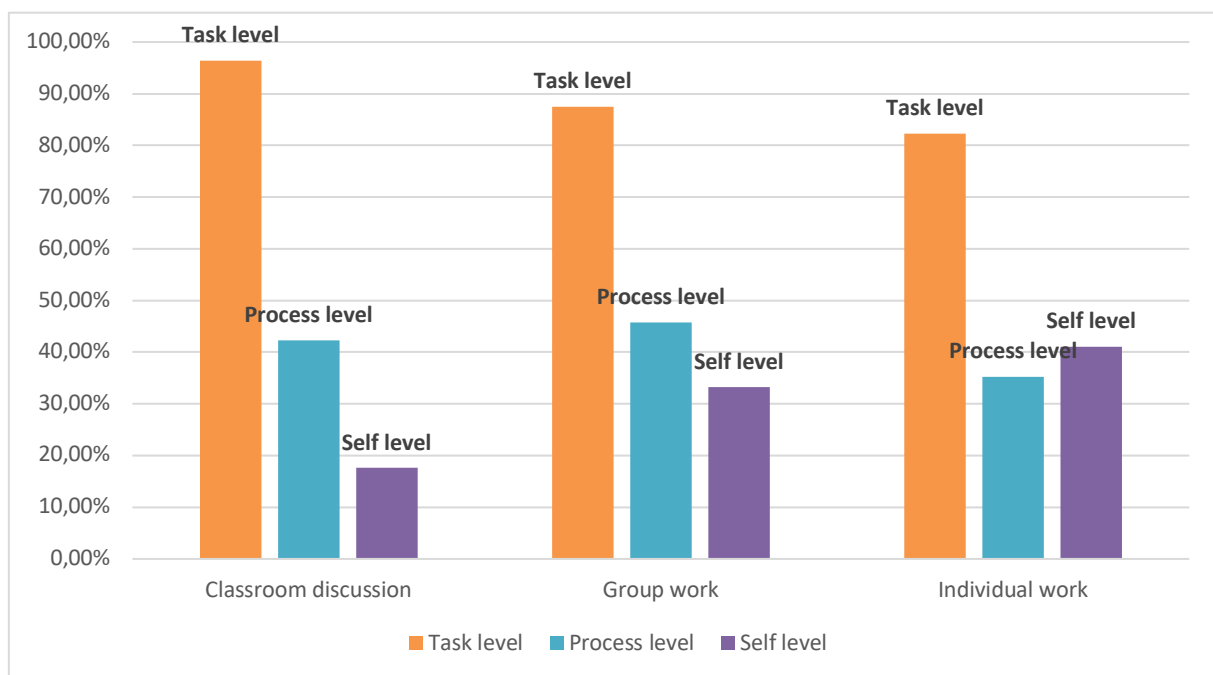


Figure 5: Feedback types in different feedback situations: This figure shows how much (in percentage) each type of feedback occurs in the different feedback situations.

4.4 Summary

In this chapter, I have provided results that attempt to answer what characterizes vague feedback as well as what types of feedback situations occur in English L2 instruction lessons. The different types of vague feedback identified are *feedback about the task*, *feedback about the processing of the task* and *feedback about the self as a person*. The different feedback situations identified are *classroom discussions*, *group work* and *individual work*. The presented results have shown that feedback about the task is the only feedback type that

occurs in every 15-minute segment of each school. The results have also shown that the second highest occurring type of feedback is feedback about the processing of the task, while feedback about the self as a person is the lowest occurring type of feedback in all schools. Additionally, the characterization of the different types of feedback and feedback situations have shown that the way feedback is provided depends on what type of feedback is being provided and not on the feedback situation.

5 Discussion

In this chapter, I will combine the introduced concepts and theories of this thesis with my findings in order to answer my research question: *What characterizes vague feedback in English L2 classrooms and what type of situations does said feedback occur in?* In order to answer this, I have investigated what types of feedback occur in English L2 classrooms and in which situations these types of feedback occur.

Assessment for learning is something that has been in focus in teaching and learning for several years now (Black & Wiliam, 1998a; Black & Wiliam, 1998b) due to the fact that previous research shows that much of feedback provided is vague and not substantial enough (Klette, 2003). Based on this research, the Education Act of Norway (Forskrift til opplæringslova, 2009, § 3-11) implemented assessment regulations in 2009 that are meant to guide teachers on how they can provide assessment that can enhance students' learning. Research from Brevik and Rindal (2017) show that about 80 per cent of feedback provided is vague and repetitive. The results from this MA study have shown that there is a variation within this high percentage of vague feedback. This variation will be discussed in the different sections below. I would also like to note that because previous research (Gloppen et.al., 2014; Hattie & Timperley, 2007) shows that feedback about the self in the form of praise can have an effect on students' motivation for learning, this type of feedback will therefore be discussed in section 5.3.2 Feedback about the self as a person as motivation.

Before I begin my discussion concerning the most common type of feedback (5.1), I would like to address Hattie and Timperley's (2007) fourth level of feedback, namely *feedback about self-regulation*. This feedback type will not be discussed in this MA study because my results showed that it did not occur in the video data recordings I have analyzed. However, I did not expect this feedback type to occur; the video recordings I observed were 15-minute segments coded as vague feedback, while feedback about self-regulation is typically specific and is to be found in substantial feedback provided to students.

I will now start by discussing different aspects of the most common type of feedback in English L2 classrooms (5.1), followed by the elaboration and discussion on how feedback about the processing of the task can guide the development of deeper understanding (5.2).

Finally, I will discuss how feedback about the self relates to learning (5.3) and if feedback practices might have improved in the last years (5.4).

5.1 The most common type of feedback

Previous research has shown that feedback about the task is the most common form of feedback in classrooms in general (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.91; Smith, 2009, p.34). Another MA study (Dåsvatn, 2016) has provided results that show that feedback about the task is the feedback type that occurs the most. Both Bentsen (2017) and Iannuzzi (2017) did studies concerning the English subject in Norwegian lower secondary schools. Both of these studies provided results that suggested that English teachers rarely offered corrections on students' mistakes or mispronunciations. The findings from this MA study coincide with these statements by providing results that show that each 15-minute segment of vague feedback that was observed, contained feedback about the task which rarely provided corrections. This means that this feedback type was usually provided in form of positive confirmations after a student had provided the right answer.

5.1.1 Feedback about the task in classroom situations

The results in this MA study have shown that feedback about the task is provided in all classroom situations during English instruction. However, this type of feedback is mostly provided in classroom discussions. Feedback about the task is characterized by the teachers' utterances which let the students know they have answered correctly. The feedback is provided with comments such as "yes", "great", "good", "absolutely" and/or repetition of the student's answer. This characterization coincides with Hattie & Timperley's (2007) definition of feedback about the task.

Feedback about the task can be related to theory about assessment for learning. Within the concept *assessment for learning*, we have three major questions concerning feedback, whereas feedback about the task concerns itself only with the question *How am I going?*, also known as Feed Back. Because feedback about the task only lets the students know if they have accomplished a task correctly or incorrectly, this type of feedback is *not* regarded as assessment for learning. Black and Wiliam (1998a) state that if feedback is to be formative,

and thereby assessment for learning, teachers have to adjust it to fit the teaching and learning that happens in classrooms.

Of the three types of feedback presented in the results, feedback about the task is the one type that occurs the most in every classroom situation, but mostly in classroom discussions and less in group work and individual work compared to other feedback types. This could be related to the fact that teachers have different opportunities to provide students with different types of feedback in each classroom situation. Possible reasons for why feedback about the task is mostly provided in classroom discussions will now be discussed below.

Possible reasons for the high occurrence of feedback about the task in classroom discussions

A reason for why classroom discussions in English lessons mostly contain feedback about the task could be because teachers may perceive this type of feedback as less invasive towards the students. (Littleton & Mercer, 2007). Feedback about the task typically only lets the students know if their answer is correct or incorrect and does not involve the student personally. It may therefore seem as the most convenient type of feedback to provide in whole-class discussions. Based on the English teachers' experiences, one can argue that another reason for the high occurrence of feedback about the task might be that when feedback is given in classroom discussions it can work as feedback for both the student it is intended for, as well as for the rest of the students in the class. For example, if the teacher asks a question that only one student knows the answer to and this student gives the right answer, the teacher's feedback, which confirms the student's correct answer, will also provide an opportunity for the other students to get feedback on what the right answer is, and in this way also acquire learning.

Another reason for why there is such a high occurrence of feedback about the task in classroom discussions might be that the English lessons are usually made up of teachers asking questions and students answering. In most classrooms around the world, students seem to accept the fact that teachers ask quite a lot of questions (Littleton & Mercer, 2007). Perhaps by using classroom discussions and providing feedback about the task, teachers try to involve students by creating a learning environment where the students contribute and get positive feedback. Hattie and Timperley (2007) claim that if students are certain they can answer correctly, they will usually answer the teacher's questions. However, for the students to

actually be willing to answer questions, teachers have to provide positive feedback on correct answers. Not providing feedback on students' correct answers may lead to them not answering questions at all (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Knowing positive feedback will yield contributions from students, teachers may use questions and feedback about the task to encourage this type of learning environment.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) claim that students' willingness to contribute when they know the correct answer indicates that positive feedback about the task to students who already know the correct answer will not have any effect on further learning. Yet, receiving feedback on errors and learning from them are rarely welcomed by students (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In addition, Littleton and Mercer (2007) also claim that because teachers' questions are intended to receive a brief and correct answer from students, which is usually just repetition from a teacher's lecture, this will limit and suppress the students' contributions in the "dialogic process of teaching-and-learning" (p.35), or if you will, classroom discussions. In light of this, Littleton and Mercer (2007) claim that teachers' questions to which the students know the answer to, or questions that have a right-or-wrong answer, should be discouraged in dialogue with students. Still, the results in this MA study has shown that this exactly what happens.

Weaknesses concerning feedback about the task

Hattie and Timperley (2007) also note that feedback about the task has its weaknesses. They claim that one of the weaknesses with feedback about the task is that it is often not possible to generalize the feedback to other tasks. Feedback about the task only leads to students improving on tasks directly related to the feedback which was given, and not used to improve other tasks. Feedback which is aimed to move students from task level to processing level, and from processing level to self-regulation level prove to be most effective. This is interesting because the results of this MA study show that the majority of feedback types provided within vague feedback in English L2 classrooms, is feedback about the task while feedback about self-regulation is non-existing. Hattie and Timperley (2007) also state that too much feedback within one level may reduce performance. In light of this, the large amount of feedback about the task provided can be considered as bad for increasing performance within students as well as enhancing learning. Another weakness with too much feedback about the task is that if the feedback provides very specific information about the correctness of the

details of tasks, while at the same time not offering information about the processing needed to complete the task, it can lead attention beneath the level that is necessary for high-level performance and consequently interfere with task accomplishment (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

5.1.2 Feedback about the task in relation to motivation

One could argue that the usage of feedback about the task which lets the students know they are correct, can encourage students to want to learn more. If students are aware that they know the correct answer, it can enhance their sense of achievement. As we all know, sense of achievement is closely connected to motivation, as well as motivation is connected to the willingness to learn. Smith (2009) claims that the willingness to learn is a basic factor for motivation for learning. In that sense, providing positive feedback about the task can clearly be beneficial for learning. In light of this, one could argue that the seven classrooms analyzed yield learning even though they mostly consist of feedback about the task. Hattie and Timperley (2007) also state that “student engagement in learning is likely to be constrained by the evaluative dimensions of classroom lessons because there is personal risk involved in responding publicly and failing” (p.100). If the feedback students receive in classroom discussions is positive, it can encourage students to participate as their experience of answering correctly increases. Thereby, students’ experience of answering correctly can encourage them to make their thoughts and knowledge explicit more often, as well as share them with the rest of the class (Littleton & Mercer, 2007).

5.2 Guiding the development of deeper understanding

5.2.1 Feedback about the processing of the task in English L2 classrooms

Even though students receive a considerable amount of feedback about the task, their teachers also provide them with feedback that allows the students to express their current state of understanding (Littleton & Mercer, 2007). This type of feedback is known as feedback about

the processing of the task and is often provided by teachers when they ask students “why”- and “how”-questions so that they can give reasons for their answers, as well as when teachers wish to provide their students with opportunities to make longer contributions (Littleton & Mercer, 2007). The results from this MA study coincide with previous research relating to feedback and show that feedback about the processing of the task occurs the most in group work situations, and that teachers usually provide this type of feedback by asking students “why”- and “how”-questions which are meant to make the students elaborate their answers.

There are a lot of different reasons for why feedback about the processing of the task is mostly provided in group situations. The experience one gets as a teacher can indicate that a possible reason for why this type of feedback occurs the most in group work situations could be that teachers have more time for this type of feedback when students are in groups. It could be it is more time efficient to let each student express their understanding and make longer contributions in groups because the rest of the class is not waiting for one student to answer. It could also be easier to express longer contributions when the whole class is not listening in, while also not being completely alone and having the group as moral support or to help out if one does not have an answer one perceives as good. It could be that students see groups as safer environments to express their opinions and therefore also provide these contributions there. However, we have to note that group work situations are also where the English teacher provides the students with the opportunity to do this the most. We cannot know whether or not they would provide these contributions in classroom discussion in the same scale if the teachers provided the students with the opportunity in a larger scale. Another possible reason for why feedback about the processing about the task is mostly provided in group work, could be that feedback about the self as a person is usually saved for individual work and teachers tend to give personal praise individually. Individual praise and feedback about the self as a person will be further discussed in section 5.3 Feedback about the self as a person.

Teachers have the ability to use language to guide students’ learning (Littleton & Mercer, 2007). In classroom discussions, teachers can use questions to guide students’ development of understanding (Littleton & Mercer). To accomplish this, teachers provide feedback about the processing of the task. Results from this study show that teachers provided feedback about the processing of the task with the help of follow-up questions which gave the students an opportunity to express their thoughts further, as well as show their understanding about a topic during a classroom discussion. Littleton & Mercer (2007) state that teachers make use of

“why”-questions in order to get the students to “reason and reflect about what they were doing” (p.40). By making use of questions in order to make the students reason for their views and actions, teachers help them, not only to “reflect on their reasoning” but also to “see how and why to seek reasons from others” (Littleton & Mercer, 2007, p.56). Teachers in this study used both “why”- and “how”-questions to accomplish this. Furthermore, Hattie and Timperley (2007) state that “feedback at the process level appears to be more effective than at task level for enhancing deeper learning” (p.93). In light of this, one could argue that feedback about the processing of the task in form of follow-up questions provided by teachers is able to enhance students’ learning. However, the results in this MA study suggest that teachers could provide more of this type of feedback in order to enhance students’ performance.

5.2.2 The effect of feedback about the processing of the task

Hattie & Timperley (2007) also state that if feedback is directed at the right feedback level, it can guide students to understand, engage and acquire strategies they need to be able to process the information that is intended for them to learn. If teachers provide students with opportunities to elaborate on their task performances, it can give them an indication that the teacher believes them to be capable of more. Thereby, the teacher can further guide the students’ learning with feedback about the processing of the task in form of follow-up questions by influencing their sense of achievement and motivation for learning in a positive way.

5.3 Feedback about the self as a person

Broadly speaking, feedback is mentally reassuring, and people enjoy getting feedback on their performance whether or not the feedback has any impact on said performance. It is therefore important to bear in mind that there is a distinction between wanting feedback and wanting feedback that benefits performance (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In other words, feedback is always welcomed, at least positive feedback, even when it does not improve performance. However, Burnett and Mandel (2010) state that most children, when receiving praise or feedback about the self as a person, want it to be done individually and quietly. Burnett and Mandel (2010) suggested this could be because some students could find praise

uncomfortable or punishing if other students use teacher's praise to bully the students outside of the classroom. The results from this study showed that feedback about the self as a person is usually provided to students individually, followed by in group situations and not so much publicly in front of the entire class. These results coincide well with Burnett and Mandel's (2010) statement that most students wish for individual praise.

5.3.1 The effect of feedback about the self as a person

Bø and Hovdenak (2011) state that about 80 per cent of students claim that their relationship to their teacher is crucial for their learning. Personal support from teachers from a student's perspective is about feeling they are understood and listened to, as well as feeling that the teacher's interest is directed personally towards them and that they are appreciated for the person that they are with their personal characteristics and distinctiveness (Bø & Hovdenak, 2011). This is where feedback about the self as a person can play an important role. This MA study shows that teachers usually provide feedback about the self to students individually. A reason for this could perhaps be that this situation provides them with the opportunity to nurture the teacher-student relationship, which is crucial for students' learning (Bø & Hovdenak, 2011).

Hattie and Timperley (2007) claim that "at the self level [...], it has already been noted that no praise is more effective than praise if accompanied by [feedback about the task]" (p.98-99). They also state that teachers often mix feedback about the task with feedback about the self as a person, which in turn weakens the power that feedback about the task possesses. A reason for why the power of feedback about the task is weakened could be because students tend to focus too much about the personal feedback which is usually positive and not enough about the feedback that concerns their work (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, 91; 98-99). In other words, it is better providing students with only feedback about the task than with both feedback about the task and the self as a person. One could therefore argue that vague feedback is more than enough because it seems that it is better to provide the students with less feedback. Furthermore, this view could indicate that it is not necessarily about how much feedback is provided, but rather about what type of feedback is provided.

Burnett and Mandel (2010) state that general, non-targeted praise is the type of feedback that is the most common in classrooms, but that it is not effective because "it is not linked to a

specific behavior or targeted to the successful completion of a task” (p.145). Hattie and Timperley (2007) claim that even though feedback about the self as a person, which usually consists of praise, has the possibility to be powerful to the point that it can guide students to greater engagement into a task, it is rarely effective because praise rarely addresses the three major questions (*Where am I going? How am I going? and Where to next?*) relating to feedback and is thus ineffective in enhancing learning. However, if this type is to have any impact on students’ learning, it would have to lead to “changes in students’ effort, engagement, or feelings of efficacy in relation to the learning or to the strategies they use when attempting to understand tasks (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.96). If feedback about the self as a person consisted of this and is able to increase students’ involvement, praise could then enhance learning. In light of this, feedback about the self does not necessarily need be seen as a “bad” thing.

The results in this study have shown that most of feedback about the self as a person occurs in situations where teachers can talk to students individually. Because Burnett and Mandel (2010) claim this is what most students wish for, one could argue this is a reason for why most personal feedback is provided individually. However, another reason might also be, in contrast to other types of feedback that can serve as feedback for both the student it is intended for and the rest of the students in the classroom, that feedback about the self as a person cannot be transferred to other students and is therefore not used as much in classroom discussions.

5.3.2 Feedback about the self as a person as motivation

Hattie and Timperley (2007) have stated that the most common type of feedback is feedback about the task, but also that when feedback is provided, it is usually feedback about the self as a person. Burnett and Mandel (2010) also state that the results in their study as well shows that “general, non-targeted praise was the most commonly used in the classroom” (p. 145). Both Hattie and Timperley (2007, p.96) and Burnett and Mandel (2010, p.145) claim that this type of feedback is not effective “because it is not linked to a specific behavior or targeted to the successful completion of a task” and because it “often deflects attention from the task”. However, feedback about the self as a person could be effective if it affects the students’ motivation for learning.

Ideally, interest for learning is the best stimulus for the learning itself and works better than outer motivation (Manger, 2013). However, this is not always the case and teachers often need to help their students to find motivation for learning. Still, inner and outer motivation do not need to contradict each other. Motivation often consists of both inner and outer elements at the same time. A teacher can for example create inner motivation by engaging students in discussions or providing students with feedback that makes them believe in themselves. However, inner motivation is often a result of previous outer motivation which means that praise from teachers, for instance, can reinforce the interest for a subject. If students have had a bad experience in their schooling previously, they may be quite dependent of outer motivation in order to increase their performance (Manger, 2013).

Skinner (1953. cf. Manger, 2013) highlighted the fact that teaching is a question about arranging reinforcement terms, as “students learn without teaching in the natural environment, but teachers arrange special reinforcements that expedite learning, hastening the appearance of behavior that would otherwise be acquired slowly or making sure of the appearance of behavior that might otherwise never occur” (Manger, 2013, p.166). Use of outer aid, such as systematic praise, can, according to this theory, be a way to motivate the students to learn (Manger, 2013).

5.4 Feedback practices improved?

Considering the fact that the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (UDIR) have had a focus on assessment for learning for almost ten years, one could argue that feedback practices have improved based on the fact that the results from this study do not coincide with previous research which states classrooms are full of feedback about the self as a person. Several researchers (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Gloppen et.al., 2014; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Hawe et.al., 2008; Klette, 2003; William, 2011), as well as the Education Act in Norway (Forskrift til opplæringslova, 2009, § 3-11), claim that students are provided with much vague and repetitive feedback, while needing substantial feedback on their work for it to yield learning gains. Assessment regulations concerning *assessment for learning* in the Education Act have therefore provided guidelines to increase substantial feedback.

Results from this MA study have shown that within the vague feedback that was observed, personal feedback was the least provided type of feedback. Furthermore, feedback about the

self as a person does not occur without feedback about the task which is related to the subject or topic the students are studying. This could indicate that feedback practices might have improved from the way they were before. Previous research has shown that feedback provided in lower secondary schools is usually general praise, often related to the self as a person, instead of other types of feedback (Klette, 2003; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). It is therefore interesting that feedback about the self as a person is less common at the participating schools from this study. The results show that even though feedback about the self as a person is still often present in feedback situations, it is always provided with other types of feedback that are known for yielding learning. Perhaps this might be the result of the country's and teachers' focus on *assessment for learning* and what type of feedback should be provided to students in order to increase their performance. This may be a positive consequence of the guidelines and assessment regulations from the Education Act (Forskrift til opplæringslova, 2009, § 3-11).

5.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed the main results of the present study in relation to the theoretical framework as well as previous relevant research. It has argued that although teachers provide their students with different feedback types, the type of feedback provided and the situation it is provided in, differs. The English teachers mostly provide their students with feedback about the task, and based on previous research, the results coincide with each other. Feedback about the task is the type of feedback that occurs the most in classroom discussions, while feedback about the self as person is usually provided in individual work situations. Feedback about the self as a person is the type of feedback the teachers provide their students the least with. Based on earlier research that claims this is the teachers' go-to type of feedback, the results of this MA study indicate that there is a possibility that the feedback practices have changed in the last several years.

6 Conclusion

6.1 Main findings and conclusion

In this study, seven different English classrooms in seven different lower secondary schools in Year 9 have been investigated and analyzed, with the purpose to identify what characterizes vague feedback, and in what feedback situations different types of vague feedback occurs. Feedback practices are possible to investigate by using video recordings and observing classrooms where feedback is provided. This has been the methodology for this MA study. The use of video recordings made it possible for this study to analyze feedback practices within vague feedback thoroughly. As I was fortunate to use data already collected by the LISE project, the schools were already chosen, the lessons were already coded for vague feedback, and the data material was ready to be analyzed.

Theoretical framework and analytical concepts were created beforehand in order to analyze the data from the video recordings. These were based on previous relevant research, and the use of them was adapted to fit the purpose of this MA study. The theoretical framework and analytical concepts involved Hattie and Timperley's (2007) model of feedback (Figure 1, see section 2.2), which was essential for the analysis of the different feedback types within vague feedback. The data program *InterAct* made it possible to split video recordings of English instruction lessons into 15-minute segments and only observe and analyze those that were coded for vague feedback. The results of the video observations of seven different English classrooms were presented in order to answer the main research question of this MA study:

What characterizes vague feedback in English L2 classrooms and what type of situations does said feedback occur in?

In the following, I will summarize my main findings, before I conclude and consider the implications of this MA study and elaborate on the need of further research.

First, I found that feedback about the task is the feedback type that occurs in all 15-minute segments of the analyzed video recorded data. The occurrence of feedback about the task is the most common and coincides with previous research on this (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, Klette, 2003). However, the lowest occurring feedback type is feedback about the self as a

person, which does not coincide with previous research that states that when feedback is provided it is usually personal feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Second, I found out that of all the 15-minute segments observed, 86 per cent of them included classroom discussions, 24 per cent included group work and 17 per cent included individual work. It is clear that classroom discussions dominate vague feedback in English L2 instruction lessons.

Third, I found that feedback about the task dominates in classroom discussions, while group work situations have the highest occurrence of feedback about the task. Individual work, however, consist mainly of feedback about the self as a person.

6.2 Implications for teaching

The results of this MA study suggest that even though there is mainly vague feedback provided in English L2 classrooms, this vague feedback has potential to yield learning for students. The feedback is divided into three different types of feedback, where feedback about the task, feedback about the processing of the task and feedback about the self as a person occurs in three different feedback situations in English L2 classrooms. These situations are classroom discussions, group work and individual work. Results have shown that the classrooms mainly consist of classroom discussions, which might be a reason for the high amount of feedback about the task. However, even though vague feedback has the potential to yield learning within students, we should all strive to provide substantial feedback to students as much as we can, considering previous research (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007) has shown that substantial feedback yields the most learning within students.

Another implication for this MA study, is that, because the results have shown that feedback about the self as a person is the most infrequent feedback type, it is possible that feedback practices may have improved since the assessment regulations in the Education Act in Norway were implemented in 2009. Previous research, in the years before these regulations, claimed that when feedback is given, it tends to be personal, too general, and often instead of other types of feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, Klette, 2003). However, this MA study

provides results that show that when feedback about the self is provided, it is never alone and always with feedback that can yield further learning, such as feedback about the task.

Hopefully, the implications mentioned here can help raise the awareness of providing oral feedback in the English subject. Several findings in this MA study can be seen as directly relevant for English teachers' feedback practices. These findings suggest that teachers could provide more of feedback about the processing of the task, and less feedback about the task. Feedback about the self as a person seems to be reducing itself, but it is still important to keep in mind that this type of feedback provides the least learning gains, and other types of feedback should be provided instead whenever possible. Providing feedback about the processing of the task is especially important, because previous research (Hattie & Timperley, 2007) shows that teachers *should* provide more of this type of feedback, while this MA study's results suggest that teachers *could* provide more of this of feedback.

6.3 Future research

This has been a video study investigating the different types of vague feedback in English L2 classrooms as well as what kind of situations these feedback types are provided in. In this study, I have taken a closer look at the phenomenon *vague feedback* and described exactly what happens when vague feedback is provided by English teachers. By doing this, I have found that some of the different types of feedback within vague feedback has the potential to yield learning for students. However, not all feedback types yield learning for students, and therefore only feedback types that proved to be performance enhancing, should be used as examples for improvement of feedback practices.

My suggestion for further research would be to investigate the characterization of vague feedback the situations it occurs in, in different subjects. As I only studied seven classrooms in only the English subject, I see a need to research more about this in several different subjects, which will perhaps strengthen my findings. I suggest investigating this by using the same video recorded data to see how feedback is actually provided in classrooms. I also suggest further investigation of the occurrence of feedback about self-regulation. This was the feedback type I did not find in the results of my MA study. However, this was not surprising since this type of feedback is not considered as vague and therefore not a part of my research material. Nevertheless, I do see a need to investigate if this type of feedback occurs, and if so,

when and how does it occur. Considering that 80 per cent of all feedback provided is still vague, we can safely say that feedback about the self-regulation is not the most dominant feedback type and could use further investigation. Additionally, it would be useful to conduct similar analyses of feedback that is *not* vague in order to get a closer look on how principles for assessment are actually implemented in classrooms.

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Appendix 1: English Translations

Examples in Norwegian	Translation into English
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teacher: Hva kan setting være for noe? [00:07:28.25] STUDENT: Vi tror det er noe sånt instillinger eller noe men vi er usikre - Teacher:: Ja det kunne selvfølgelig vært instillinger, men i sammenheng med film, skuespill og sånne ting. Hva kan setting være da? For ja, settings er instillinger men i denne sammenhengen her er det noe annet. - Teacher: Hva kan det være for noe? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teacher: What could “setting” be? - Student: We think it may be something like settings (“instillinger” in Norwegian), but we’re not sure. - Teacher: Yes, it could mean settings (“instillinger”), but in this context with movies, acting and stuff like that. What could setting be then? Because, yes, settings is settings (“instillinger”) but in this context it is something different. - Teacher: What could it be? <p>(see example 6: Teacher uptake, process level (S17))</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teacher: Og du da? - Student: Jeg fikk 24 ½ av 25. - Teacher: Ja. Det var jo bra da. - Student: Ja. - Teacher: Det er jo veldig bra da. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teacher: And how about you? - Student: I got 24 ½ out of 25. - Teacher: Yes. That’s good then. - Student: Yes. - Teacher: That is very good then. <p>(see example 7: Vague feedback, self level (S50))</p>

- Teacher: Så hva ville du putta i den setninga her? These are the chains...
- Student: Which.
- Teacher: Which. Ja. Nettopp.

- Teacher: So, what would you put in this sentence here? These are the chains...
- Student: Which.
- Teacher: Which. Yes. Exactly.

(see example 16: Feedback about the processing of the task in individual work (S50))

Appendix 2: Signed consent form

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Dato: 01.07.2018

Erklæring ved tilgang til LISE (Linking Instruction and Student Experiences) sine forskningsdata

Forskningsprosjektet LISE (Linking Instruction & Student Experiences) har forpliktet seg til å følge personopplysningslovens retningslinjer ved all registrering, lagring og bruk av det innsamlende datamaterialet. Ved tilgang til dette materialet er du forpliktet til å gjøre deg kjent med og følge disse retningslinjene (se: <http://www.lovdata.no/all/ul-20000414-031.html>). Datamaterialet skal ikke under noen omstendighet deles med tredjepart eller fremvises til andre.

Jeg bekrefter herved at jeg har gjort meg kjent med personopplysningslovens retningslinjer, og lover å følge disse i mitt arbeid med datamaterialet tilhørende forskningsprosjektet LISE.

Undertegnede plikter også å referere eksplisitt til at LISE prosjektet bygger på LISA (Linking Instruction and Student Achievement) designet (ved prosjektleder og dataeier Professor Kirsti Klette) ved all bruk av data/ design, kodeskjema og tekniske løsninger som bygger på dette prosjektet, jf. Forskningsetiske komiteers krav til God Forskningspraksis/ Henvisningsskiltet (<http://www.etikkom.no/Forskningsetikk/God-forskningspraksis/>). En typisk standardhenvisning er for eksempel: Klette, K., Blikstad-Balas, M. & Roe, A. (2017). *Linking Instruction and Student Achievement. A research design for a new generation of classroom studies. Acta Didactica, Vol 11*, Nr 3, DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5617/adno.4729>

Enhver situasjon der datamateriale som tilhører LISE bonyttes i analyser i publikasjoner skal være kjent for prosjektleder og dataeier professor Kirsti Klette før publisering.

Sted	Dato	Underskrift
<u>Oslo</u>	<u>11/5-18</u>	<u>Maja Ivancevic</u>
For LISE		
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