Effective feedback in English lessons in Norway

A video study of feedback practices in seven lower secondary classrooms

Mette Brenno Hvalstad

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Abstract

This Master's thesis investigates oral feedback practices in lower secondary school by analyzing video recorded English lessons to identify what characterizes effective feedback. The video data were collected by the research project *Linking Instruction and Student Experiences* (LISE) at the University of Oslo, designed by Professor Kirsti Klette and led by Associate Professor Lisbeth M. Brevik. I identified 12 lessons in six classrooms where effective feedback occurred, both in 9th and 10th grade. These lessons were analyzed to investigate characteristics of effective feedback practices, the content of the feedback, and the classroom setting where the feedback was provided.

My findings indicate that effective feedback was mainly provided in individual one-on-one situations between the teacher and student during the process of writing. Further, this feedback was provided predominantly when both teacher and students participated actively in the feedback process. I identified a four-point structure within these feedback situations: (1) the teacher providing assessment criteria, (2) the teacher using these criteria during individual feedback, (3) the students using the criteria during peer assessment, and (4) the teacher following up the peer assessment by checking the use of the criteria. Moreover, teachers gave specific feedback on the students' texts, and used both follow-up questions and reflective questions in dialogue with the students before offering suggestions for further improvement. Last, my findings showed that effective feedback was provided when the teachers answered task-related questions or gave information by using model texts, handouts, or by repeating and elaborating on the students' answers to specific tasks.

Based on these findings, I argue that English teachers should consider providing more dialogic feedback situations, involving both teacher and peer feedback, to enhance students' understanding of feedback and its uses in developing a deeper understanding of learning. Moreover, introducing critical questions and model texts can help students' learning processes.

Sammendrag

Denne masteroppgaven undersøker muntlige tilbakemeldingspraksiser i engelsk på ungdomstrinnet, ved å analysere videoopptak av engelsktimer for å identifisere hva som karakteriserer effektiv tilbakemelding. Videodataene er del av forskningsprosjektet *Linking Instruction and Student Experiences* (LISE) ved Universitetet i Oslo, designet av Professor Kirsti Klette og ledet av førsteamanuensis Lisbeth M. Brevik. Jeg identifiserte 12 timer i seks klasserom hvor effektive tilbakemeldinger ble gitt, både på 9. trinn, og 10. trinn. Disse timene ble videre analysert for å undersøke hva som karakteriserte effektive tilbakemeldinger, innholdet i tilbakemeldingene, og de klasseromssituasjonene der disse tilbakemeldingene ble gitt.

Mine funn indikerer at effektive tilbakemeldinger ble gitt mest i individuelle en-til-en situasjoner mellom læreren og eleven i løpet av en skriveprosess. Videre, ble disse tilbakemeldingene hovedsakelig gitt når både læreren og elevene var aktive i tilbakemeldingsprosessen. Jeg identifiserte en fire-punkts struktur i disse tilbakemeldingssituasjonene, som besto av at: (1) læreren gir elevene vurderingskriterier, (2) læreren bruker disse kriteriene i sine individuelle tilbakemeldinger, (3) elevene bruker kriteriene i hverandrevurderinger, og (4) læreren følger opp hverandrevurderingen ved å sjekke elevenes bruk av vurderingskriteriene. Dessuten ga lærerne spesifikke tilbakemeldinger på elevenes tekster, og brukte oppfølgingsspørsmål og reflekterende spørsmål i dialog med elevene før de ga fremovermeldinger med forslag til forbedringer. Til slutt, viste funnene mine at effektive tilbakemeldinger ble gitt når lærerne besvarte oppgaverelaterte spørsmål eller ga informasjon ved å bruke modelltekster, annet materiell, eller ved å repetere og utdype elevers svar på spesifikke oppgaver.

Basert på disse funnene, argumenterer jeg for at engelsklærere bør vurdere å ta i bruk flere dialogiske tilbakemeldingssituasjoner som involverer både lærer og hverandrevurdering for å utvikle elevenes forståelse av tilbakemeldinger og dens bruksområder til å utvikle en dypere forståelse for læring. I tillegg kan det å introdusere kritiske spørsmål og modelltekster hjelpe elevens læringsprosess.

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1 Introduction

> Right, so down to the nitty-gritty here, persuasive text, what is it? The goal of writing a persuasive essay or text […] is to persuade or convince the reader to believe something, you know this already, of course. Writers usually do this through the use of logical arguments and emotional appeals like [student 1]. So, logical arguments, like [student 1] and emotional appeals, like [student 2], and there is no correct way of writing these essays but there are some things you can think about (Tessa, School 51).

This quote is taken from one of the classrooms in my data material. What I found so interesting about this quote is that Tessa gave the whole class an introduction to and ideas for writing a persuasive essay, by using examples from a previous oral task, while at the same time intertwining feedback to two students. This quote establishes that there are many ways of including feedback and still providing students with specific task information and resources.

The research field has been concerned with effective feedback for a long time, and specifically, the effect that assessment practices, including feedback, has on student learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998, 2009, 2018). Hattie and Timperley (2007) state that providing substantial feedback within the classroom can be challenging and claims that the quality of feedback is much more important than the quantity. Research shows that to promote student learning through assessment, four main principles should be included; goals and criteria, feedback, feedforward, and self-assessment (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Brevik & Blikstad-Balas, 2014; Hattie & Timperley, 2011). These principles make up what Wiliam (2011) describes as assessment *for* learning (AfL). AfL should include all four principles for the students to gain insight into *what* to develop and *how* their work could be improved. In this Master's (MA) thesis, I understand effective feedback in line with Hattie and Timperley's (2007) model presented in Chapter 2.

The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (UDIR) increased the focus on assessment when implementing the Education Act (2009), introducing an increased focus on AfL, including the four principles. Teachers in Norway have for more than ten years been required to include AfL in their feedback practices and many teachers have participated in AfL courses during this ten-year timeframe. Interestingly, prior research on feedback in Norwegian lower secondary classrooms show practices that include a considerable amount of vague feedback (Dåsvatn, 2016; Ivancevic, 2018), but also some examples of substantive and effective feedback (Olafsrud, 2019). Somewhat surprisingly, there are few studies of AfL practices in Norwegian classrooms, particularly in English (see section 1.3). When I began working in the

field of English didactics and was introduced to the research project *Linking Instruction and Student Experiences* (LISE), I appreciated the opportunity to study AfL practices in English, to find out more about effective feedback practices, thus inspiring my research question.

1.1 Research question

The focus on AfL to promote student's learning in Norwegian schools, inspired this overreaching research question: *How is effective feedback provided in English lower secondary classrooms and in which situations does such feedback occur?*

The English subject has two overall achievement grades at the end of the last year of lower secondary school (10th grade), one written and one oral grade, both determined and set by the English teacher. In addition to these two grades, the students may be drafted to complete a written and/or oral examination at the end of lower secondary school. These grades play a significant role in the students' access to upper secondary school. Thus, the teachers' AfL practices towards the end of lower secondary school will contribute to the students' understanding of what is required to demonstrate their English competence. For these reasons, I have focused on teachers' AfL practices in 9th and 10th grade, as the importance of these practices have significant implications for the students' access to further education. In order to answer my research question, I will use video-recorded classroom data from the LISE project and focus on teachers that have been identified to provide effective feedback in line with AfL practices.

1.2 The LISE project

The *Linking Instruction and Student Experience* (LISE) research project was initiated in 2015, designed by Kirst Klette and led by Lisbeth M. Brevik, at the Department of Teacher Education and School Research at the University of Oslo. The LISE project's goal is to examine naturally occurring instruction in Norwegian lower secondary classrooms, through systematic video observation (Brevik, 2019). The LISE project has recorded classroom instruction in seven lower secondary school classrooms. In total, 290 lessons were recorded over two school years in 9th grade (2015–16) and 10th grade (2016–17) in six subjects, including English, where four to six consecutive lessons were recorded each school year. Thus, using LISE data allowed me the opportunity to study a considerable amount of data in order to observe what characterizes effective feedback in Norwegian lower secondary English lessons.

Using video observation data provided me the opportunity to gain access to several feedback situations that occurred both simultaneously and sequentially within the same lesson, such as teacher-student feedback and peer feedback. The value of video observation data lies in the opportunity to watch the same material several times focusing on specific situations that are more difficult to observe *in situ* (Blikstad-Balas, 2017). There is a need for more research on video observation in order to compare practices across classroom and school years to demonstrate how effective feedback practices are communicated in these classrooms.

1.3 English in Norwegian schools

The English subject has a long tradition in Norwegian schools as it was the first foreign language to be taught (Simensen, 2010). In Norwegian schools, English is now a compulsory subject taught from the 1st to the 11th grade. The English subject includes five basic skills; reading, writing, oral skills, numeracy, and digital skills (UDIR, 2012). All teachers of English are required to develop students' competence within these basic skills, as students are expected to be able to communicate in the English language in several contexts both inside and outside the English classroom, such as higher education, work, abroad and everyday life, thus, making the development of the basic skills crucial in the classroom context.

For the students to meet the requirements of developing and using the English language, the feedback given by teachers in a classroom context is of importance. It is central that their feedback provides students with information that enhances their learning and develops their English proficiency "through listening, speaking, reading, and writing" (KD, 2013, my translation). My MA thesis investigates oral feedback provided to the students in the English classroom and the effectiveness of these practices when assessing students' work.

1.4 Assessment in the English subject

In addition to UDIR and schools actively focusing on AfL during the last decade, researchers have contributed to developing AfL as a research field in Norway. Whereas some studies have focused on the general practice of assessment (Gamlem, 2013; Gamlem & Munthe, 2013; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Sandvik et al., 2012; Vattøy et. al, 2020). Other studies provide insight into assessment practices in the English subject (Brevik, 2015; Burner, 2019; Bøhn, 2019;

Horverak, 2019; Vattøy & Gamlem, 2019, 2020; Vattøy & Smith, 2019). Most of this research has been conducted using interviews and questionnaires to study assessment practices, and while such methods are valuable, there is a lack of assessment research using video observation data.

The few studies that have used video observation to investigate AfL practices in the English classroom, have shown how effective feedback is used in dialogues between the teacher and students. and the studies have found that teachers commonly initiate specific feedback directed at the tasks students work with, and less substantial AfL dialogues with students (Gamlem & Munthe, 2013; Vattøy & Gamlem, 2019, 2020). Research using the video recorded LISE data shows that of the feedback provided in English lessons, only 6% is substantial (Brevik & Rindal, 2017; Olafsrud, 2019), with a majority of teachers' feedback being vague (Ivancevic, 2017).

Generally, research shows that students appreciate specific feedback from the teacher and in dialogue with the teacher, and that they desire more opportunities to revise their work after receiving feedback (Burner, 2019; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017; Vattøy, Gamlem & Rogne, 2020). These studies indicate that teachers' feedback practices should aim to offer students feedback that includes specific and substantive suggestions of how to improve their work, and preferably be given in dialogue between the teacher and the students. In this MA study, I want to contribute with insight into practices in the English subject, by investigating what characterizes effective feedback practices in seven lower secondary classrooms in Norway across 9th and 10th grade. Since the LISE project has identified that such practices exist (Brevik & Rindal, 2017; Olafsrud, 2019), my contribution will be to unpack how it is done.

1.5 Outline of the thesis

In addition to this introductory chapter, this MA thesis consists of chapters 2-6. Chapter 2 presents the theoretical framing and elaborates on prior research of relevance to this MA study. In Chapter 3, the methodology of the MA study is presented, including a detailed account of how I conducted my video observation and analysis, in addition to reflecting on research credibility, and ethical considerations. In Chapter 4, I present my findings, before discussing them in light of relevant theory and prior research in Chapter 5. Finally, Chapter 6 presents the concluding remarks and suggestions for further research.

2 Theoretical framing and prior research

In this chapter, I present the theoretical framing of my study, discussing the perspectives I have used to analyze effective feedback in English classrooms. The framing is based on a sociocultural standpoint, as my focus on feedback concerns how it is formed, expressed, and negotiated in the social context of the classroom. I will first present Vygotsky's (1986, 1987) sociocultural theory (2.1). The next section concerns the general concept of assessment for learning (AfL) framed by Black and Wiliam's (1998, 2009, 2018) theoretical perspectives (2.2), followed by a detailed account of feedback in the classrooms as expressed by Hattie and Timperley's (2007) model of feedback levels (2.3). The next section (2.4) links these frameworks specifically to feedback in English lower secondary classrooms. Finally, I present prior research relevant to this MA study regarding the topic of feedback in the English classroom in Norway (2.5).

2.1 Feedback and sociocultural learning

In this MA study, I argue that the innate nature of why and how feedback is used in the classroom is rooted in a sociocultural approach to learning. Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) theory is based on the idea that learning happens through social and cultural experiences. In this MA study, the social experiences take place in the classrooms, and relate to the dialogues between the students, the teacher and peers. Within a Vygotskian perspective, learners are expected to take an active role in the social environment instead of being passive receivers of information from the teacher or more competent peers in the process of learning and developing their ideas (Brevik, 2015). This perspective is relevant for my MA study, in order to analyze to what extent and how the students participate in the AfL process as observed in the English classroom.

Considering that learning takes place both on a social and an individual level, a central mediation tool that connects these levels in the classroom, is language (Vygotsky, 1986), and in the social classroom interactions, the teacher plays a particularly central role (Brevik, 2015), in addition to peers. This position can be explained through Vygotsky's (1987) theory of the *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD). The key concept of ZPD is that learners have the potential to solve more advanced tasks and develop their learning through social situations with the help from a teacher or other more competent peers (Vygotsky, 1978). However, the guidance that the teacher or peers can offer the learner, has certain limitations and can even be redundant or insufficient to promote development. This balance inherent in Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD is illustrated in Figure 1.
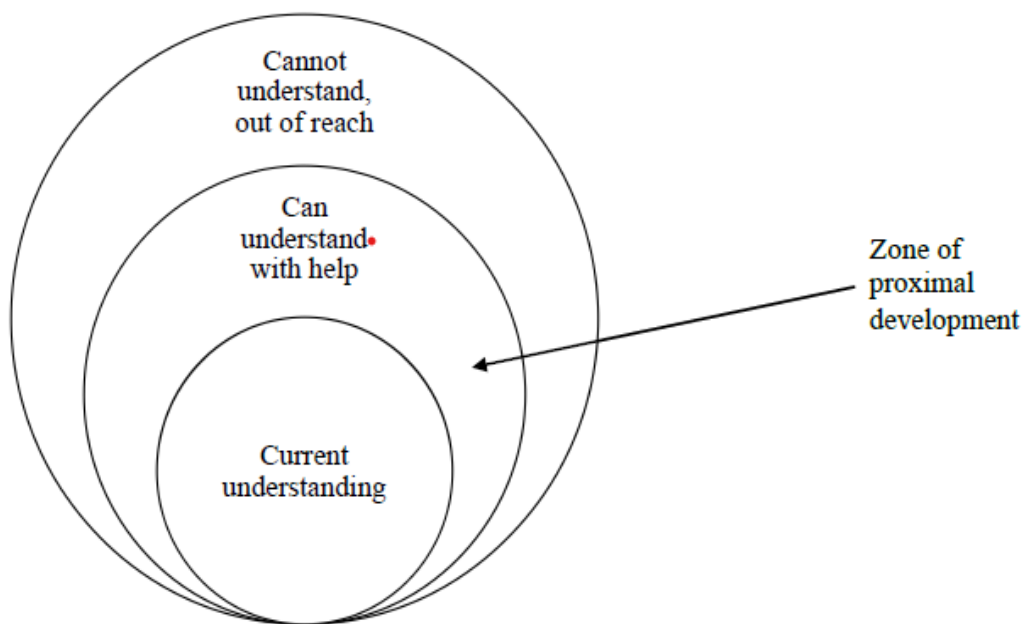
Figure 1. Model based on the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978).

Figure 1 illustrates how to identify the learners' level of understanding and potential for development. The inner circle (current understanding) refers to what a learner already knows and tasks the learner can complete on his or her own without assistance from others. The outer circle (cannot understand, out of reach) refers to knowledge or tasks the learner is currently incapable of understanding or solving even with the guidance of a teacher or a more competent peer. The middle circle (can understand with help) is the ZPD and refers to the knowledge and tasks the learner can solve with assistance from either a teacher or another more competent peer (Vygotsky, 1978). The ZPD thus illustrates that through receiving guidance in social interactions, the learner has the potential to develop his or her competence, thereby, expanding his or her reach and proceed to the next stage of development (Dysthe, 1999).

Central here, for my MA study, is to identify how teachers, peers, and the students themselves use feedback as support in students' learning processes in the English classroom. Particularly teachers, but also peers, need to assess the individual student's level of understanding and potential for development in relation to ZPD and try to provide feedback that can promote the students to reach the next step in their development of English. In addition, it is essential to observe the students' active role in the feedback process as it is highly relevant to learn how

students develop an understanding of the feedback they receive and how they use this information to further their own learning process.

2.2 Feedback and assessment

To frame feedback practices theoretically, I use Black and Wiliam's (1998, 2018) general theory on formative assessment. I have chosen to use their original publication from 1998 and their revised version from 2018 as they have developed parts of their original framework after twenty years of new research. Despite there being other theoretical models of assessment, my focus is on Black and Wiliam (1998), as their framework is the foundation for the assessment regulations in the Norwegian Education Act (2009) and thus highly relevant for the classrooms that I study. In addition, I use Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback model to analyze the video material. Their theoretical framework is relevant when investigating processes inside classrooms and therefore commonly used in classroom research.

Assessment is at the center of developing learning in the classroom (Black & Wiliam, 2018), particularly formative assessment. In their seminal article on assessment, Black and Wiliam (1998) defined formative assessment as, "all those activities undertaken by teachers – and their students in assessing themselves – that provide information to be used as feedback to modify teaching and learning activities" (p. 140). Black and Wiliam (1998) specified assessment situations that aimed to support student learning as formative assessment and assessment situations used mainly for grading purposes as summative assessment. Their definition of formative assessment aligns with aspects of Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD model. The teacher, who is the one designing and commonly enacting the assessment practices, elicits information from the students to be used as information to base formative assessment on, to support them in their learning process. However, in later publications, Black and Wiliam (2009; 2018) stressed that an assessment situation is neither formative nor summative by nature. Instead, it depends on how the teacher chooses to use the assessment information, whether the assessment functions as formative or summative assessment. Hence, whether an assessment situation supports learning is not determined by the teacher in the design process, but whether the teacher uses the assessment information to improve their teaching and develop students' learning (formative) or to summarize students' competence (summative). Thus, the teacher's classroom practice is essential in deciding to what extent an assessment situation promotes student learning.

Black and Wiliam (1998) further argued that feedback is at the core of the learning effect of formative assessment. Its function is to provide students with tailored information about what they master to help them achieve the next level of competence, thus echoing the ZPD model (Vygotsky, 1978). The feedback has a formative function when it provides students with information on *what* they need to improve, as well as *why* and *how* they can achieve the improvement (Black & Wiliam, 1998, 2009, 2018). In line with this description, what characterizes formative feedback in the classroom is assessment situations where the teacher or peers provide information on both the student's current level of understanding and suggestions on procedures that might enhance what the student can understand with help. Black and Wiliam (1998, 2009) further argue that the feedback is more effective when tailored to the student's needs, rather than given as general comments on the student's work.

The positive effect of feedback on student learning has been recognized by policy makers in the Norwegian education system. When the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research (KD) introduced the new assessment regulations in 2009, they increased the emphasis on formative assessment. The Education Act (2009) states that teachers should prioritize AfL practices, which in turn build on Black and Wiliam's (1998) assessment framework. At the core of AfL is that assessment situations in the classroom should be done to promote students' learning. In line with Black and Wiliam (1998), four AfL principles are included; stating that students learn best when they are provided with: (1) goals and criteria, (2) feedback, (3) feedforward, and (4) self-assessment. The assessment regulations (KD, 2009) state that information about the goal and criteria of an assessment situation serves to help the students become aware of what they need to learn and the teacher's expectations. Feedback serves as the teacher's assessment of what the students master and their work in progress, whereas feedforward is intended as suggestions on how to improve their work and help the students achieve the next level of learning. Self-assessment concerns the student's reflections on and enactment of his or her development. For the purpose of my MA study, the concepts of *goals and criteria*, *feedback, feedforward,* and *self-assessment* are highly relevant for the video-observations conducted. As I will elaborate in the methods chapter (chapter 3), the social interactions between the teacher and the students in the classroom, enable the observation of how feedback situations occur in daily classroom practices.

2.3 Types of feedback

Both Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural view of learning and literature on formative assessment indicate that feedback from more competent others has the potential to positively affect learning when it occurs *during* the learning process and targets misunderstandings that can help the student develop and achieve the next level of learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998, 2009, 2018). Still, all types of feedback are not equal or offer equally positive effects. Hattie and Timperley (2007) stress that feedback can have both positive and negative effects on learning. In line with Black and Wiliam's (1998, 2009, 2018) view on formative assessment, Hattie and Timperley (2007) argue that the effect of the feedback is determined by the teacher's practices, e.g., when, how, and what the teacher gives feedback on. For example, feedback given after the students have finished the learning activity aligns with summative assessment rather than formative assessment and seems to have little effect on student learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). They argue that the main purpose of the feedback should be to fill the gap between the student's current level of understanding or fulfilment of the learning goal set by the teacher. In supporting student learning through feedback, Hattie and Timperley (2007) developed a model that nuances different aspects and levels of feedback (Figure 2).
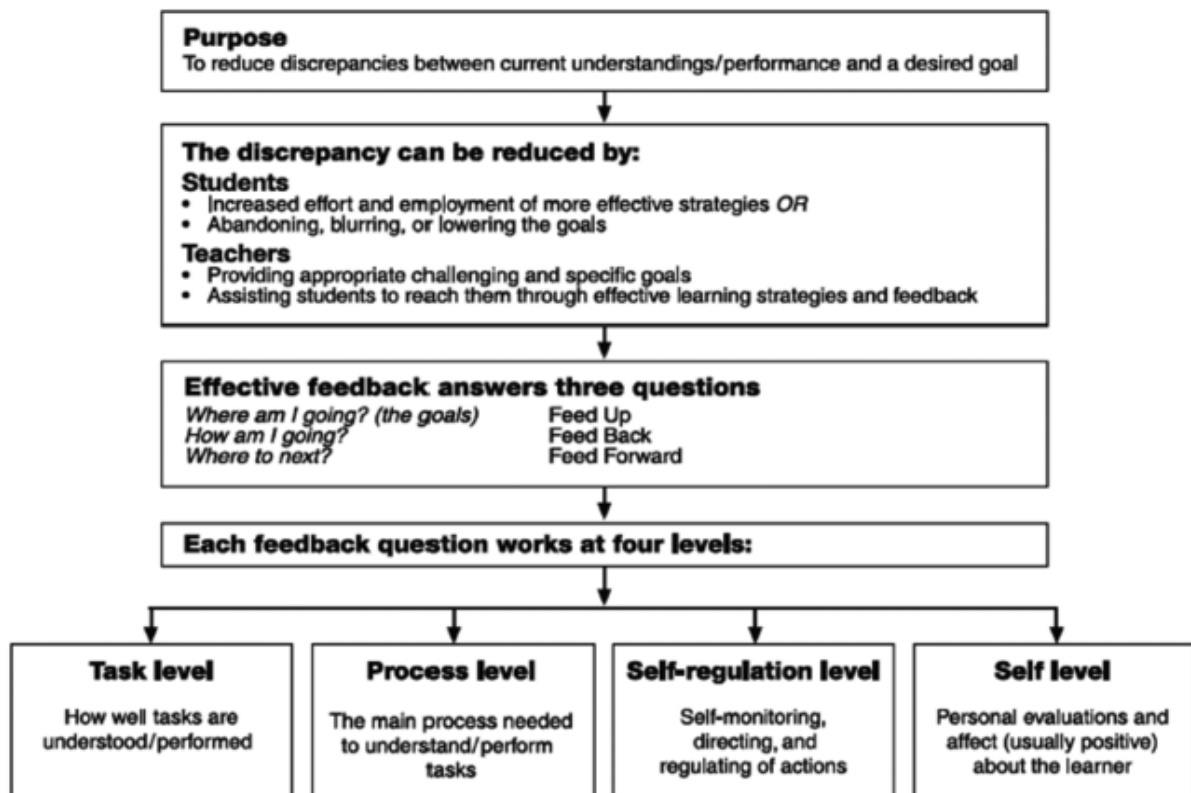
Figure 2. A model of feedback to enhance learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 87).

Figure 2 illustrates three central questions connected to effective feedback: *Where am I going? How am I going?* and *Where to next?* Each question matches a core concept of feedback; *Feed Up, Feed Back, and Feed Forward*, respectively, which also align with the first three of the four AfL principles represented in the Norwegian Education Act (KD, 2009). In addition, the fourth principle (self-assessment) covers all four of Hattie and Timperley's (2007) questions.

The question, *Where am I going?* aims to elicit information about the goals set by the teacher related to the task or performance to be assessed. Hattie and Timperley (2007) divided such goals into two dimensions: challenge and commitment. Challenging goals are described as "success criteria" and aim to inform students about the expected level of performance to direct their work accordingly and engage in self-assessment. According to this model, effective feedback should inform students about the gap between their current understanding and the learning goal, thus the goal needs to be clearly defined in order to recognize the gap and reduce the discrepancy based on the feedback. A challenge occurs when the feedback focuses less on the attainment of the goal, and instead on general aspects of the work. Hattie and Timperley (2007) exemplified this use by explaining that if the goal is to "create a mood in a story" (p. 89), the feedback should give students information about their creation of this mood and not unrelated information, such as spelling or grammar in their writing.

How Am I Going? is the more specific question related to the feedback dimension and feedback situations (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Information given to the students about their work performance in connection to the learning goal is provided by a teacher or peer. To be effective, it should include feedback on both the progress and further advice on how to proceed. Such feedback information is in line with Black and Wiliam's (1998, 2009, 2018) formative assessment practice recommendations that also stress the importance of *what* and *how.* The feedback offered should aim to improve students' performance.

The final question, *Where to next?* relates to the concept of feedforward, and can according to Hattie and Timperley (2007), "have some of the most powerful impacts on learning" (p. 90). However, they claimed that the aspect of *where to next* is often understood as *more,* resulting in students doing more of the same type of work that they already had undertaken or accomplished. Hattie and Timperley (2007) therefore encouraged teachers to focus on giving students more challenging tasks that have the potential to develop the student's metacognitive awareness about the present task as well as future work. Implementing such practices, students will benefit from greater possibilities for learning and development.

2.3.1 The four levels of feedback

The level of feedback is central to the students' learning as it directly influences its effect (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). As illustrated in Figure 2, in order to effectively close the discrepancies gap, the three feedback questions work differently on four levels of feedback; task level, process level, self-regulation level, and self level (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 90).

Feedback about the task (task level)

Feedback at this level provides the student with information about their task accomplishment, often restricted to more surface information about the work, such as distinguishing between correct and incorrect answers on a task. Hattie and Timperley (2007) classify it as "corrective feedback" (p. 91). Research shows that this is the most common feedback level in Norwegian lower secondary classrooms (Brevik & Rindal, 2017; Dåsvatn, 2016; Ivancevic, 2018). For example, the teachers' responses to tasks may provide the students with confirmation on whether or not they have understood the task, which is sometimes necessary to continue their immediate work. However, Hattie and Timperley (2007) argue that solely giving feedback on the task level might cause students to focus more on immediate goals and less on developing metacognitive strategies to attain the goal. Thus, the feedback is often not generalizable to other tasks.

Feedback about the processing of the task (process level)

Hattie and Timperley (2007) state that this level is recognized by more specific feedback during the process of conducting the task or extended tasks. The feedback focuses on giving the students information and strategies that provide a deep understanding of learning through "the construction of meaning (understanding) and relates more to the relationships, cognitive processes, and transference to other more difficult or untried tasks" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 93). A central aspect of this feedback level is the student's engagement in self-assessment by using different error detection strategies, such as asking for help and using strategies actively while working. While error correction also depends on the individual student's motivation, Hattie and Timperley (2007) claim that process level feedback proves to be more effective in contributing deeper learning than the task level feedback. When predominantly surface information feedback is given, it can be effective if the focus is on improving strategies and processes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). For example, the teacher's use of model texts may provide the students with exemplified information on the expectations of the task during their work, as

well as contributing to an understanding of content, language and structure of the task that have the potential to be transferred to future work. Hattie and Timperley (2007) argue that the most effective formative assessment practices concern situations where the teacher provides feedback on the process or self-regulation level, as these are the levels where effective feedback is most valuable in terms of students' academic understanding and development.

Feedback about self-regulation (self-regulation level)

Self-regulation is defined as "an interplay between commitment, control, and confidence. It addresses the way students monitor, direct, and regulate actions toward the learning goal" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 93). To achieve self-regulation, students must acquire a level of self-control and self-direction and Hattie and Timperley (2007) separate between two types of learners; effective and less effective ones. What separates the two are their use of cognitive self-regulation strategies. Effective learners have internal feedback strategies and cognitive routines, while the less effective learners focus more on external factors in order to self-regulate, such as the teacher or the task, thus failing to incorporate own strategies to future learning. Effective learners have the metacognitive skills of self-assessment through self-monitoring "their abilities, knowledge states, and cognitive strategies" and regulate their work "through planning, correcting mistakes, and using fix-up strategies" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 94). Effective learners use the teacher as a resource for instrumental help seeking while less effective learners rely on the teacher initiating help or providing executive help. In either situation, the teachers help students' self-regulation practices by exemplifying or asking questions, thus hinting at the answer, but letting the students conclude how to solve the task on their own.

Feedback about the self as a person (self level)

This feedback level is recognized by personal feedback conveying mainly positive aspects about the student. Self level feedback occurs when teachers or peers provide feedback such as "great effort" or "good girl" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Typically, such feedback is recognized as vague information about the task accomplishment. Thus, giving personal feedback is considered the least effective feedback level, although Hattie and Timperley (2007) argue that self level feedback will encourage learning if it contributes to the student's motivation and effort to further understand the task by being "directed to the effort, self-regulation, engagement, or processes relating to the task and its performance" (p. 96). This argument indicates that the self level of

feedback needs to combine praise with self-regulation to further learning and comprise effective feedback.

2.4 Feedback on errors and mistakes

The way in which teachers use feedback is especially relevant to investigate in the context of the English classroom. With the current and forthcoming curricula in the English subject (KD, 2013; 2019), the education government states that the English subject is to promote communicative competence in students, which implies that teachers have to foster both linguistic competence and communicative skills at the same time in the English classroom. These dual tasks that teachers face in the classroom forces them to reflect on what aspects of English learning they should provide feedback on when assessing students' written and oral work. One commonly debated topic, concerns to what extent teachers should use feedback for error correction.

In the literature on second language acquisition (SLA), learners' errors are divided into global and local errors (Ellis, 2009). Global errors refer to errors concerning structure, content, sentence connectors, and sentence organization in general. Local errors are errors done in individual words on the sentence level (Ellis, 2009). In short, local errors are commonly misspelling or grammar mistakes, while global errors are errors in structure or the content of the oral or written language use. It is worth mentioning here that Ellis (2009) distinguishes between the terms: "error" and "mistake". Errors are described as misunderstandings or a lack of knowledge regarding a certain aspect of the learned language. Mistake, on the other hand, refers to, "a performance phenomenon, reflection processing failures that arise as a result of competing plans, memory limitations, and lack of automaticity" (Ellis, 2009, p. 6). Ellis (2009), therefore, argues that educators should prioritize providing feedback on errors, as this is where the learning potential is.

In SLA, errors are linked to the interlanguage theory (Selinker, 1972). Interlanguage is a linguistic system that all language learners have, and is created by combining features from first or additional languages that the learner knows. In line with the principles of formative assessment, a second language learner benefits from effective feedback from a teacher to become aware of errors in their interlanguage to proceed to the next level of learning (Langseth, 2012). Interlanguage errors that go unaddressed by a teacher can become what Selinker (1972) calls fossilized, implying that the error becomes a part of the student's permanent language.

The theory on SLA provides some useful guidelines to what defines effective feedback in the context of the English classroom in Norway. As the students develop both communicative and linguistic competence in English at the same time, different sets of errors are bound to occur in the learning process, which the teacher can address through feedback. First, both the teacher and students need to be familiar with the goal of the assessment and the assessment criteria; it ensures that students receive and understand the teacher's feedback (Black & Wiliam, 1998, 2009; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Also, the awareness of the assessment criteria can determine what errors the teacher's feedback should address and be closely connected to the student's learning goal (Ellis, 2009). Finally, the teacher's feedback should only focus on student errors, either global or local errors. Since errors in the context of SLA are considered to occur when students show misunderstandings or lack of knowledge about a certain topic or a linguistic feature, receiving feedback on errors can promote learning and heighten the chance of the students not repeating the same error the in future assessments (Ellis, 2009; Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

2.5 Review of prior research

In the following section, I present a review of prior research, attempting to provide an overview of the field of feedback research specifically in lower secondary English classrooms in Norway. Thus, despite there being a considerable amount of international research on feedback, I have chosen to focus on Norwegian studies in this MA thesis. In the following, I give an overview of relevant research and their various findings relevant to investigating the aspect of effective AfL practices in lower secondary school and specifically in English lessons. In general, research on feedback practices in Norway show that these are predominantly given on the task level, where students receive feedback on a completed and already graded text, and where the feedback contains emotional support and checking that the task has been completed (Gamlem & Munthe, 2013; Horverak, 2019; Ivancevic, 2018; Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017, 2019; Vattøy & Rogne, 2020).

2.5.1 Studies on teachers' and students' perspectives on feedback

In the following, I attempt to highlight in what aspect prior studies contribute to our knowledge of effective feedback practices in the English classroom. Few studies have used video data to study feedback practices, however, the few studies that used video observations have studied effective practices. These studies are highly relevant for this MA study.

One video study of teacher practices that investigated the quality of learning support in feedback interactions, is Gamlem and Munthe (2013). They found that dialogic teaching was a central tool when working with AfL. Within two distinct classroom environments, one positive and one negative, they found that positive environments consisted of emotional support, which they argued is central for high feedback quality, but that within these classrooms there was a lower quality on instructional support. This study this shows that including dialogic teaching within an emotional and supportive environment is crucial for the development of effective feedback.

A study by Vattøy and Gamlem (2019) investigated feedback dialogues between students and teachers by using the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS). The least supportive feedback was recognized as giving right/wrong answers and lacking active student discussions in dialogue with the teacher, while supportive feedback interactions focused on follow-up questions and active teacher involvement. This finding showed, in line with Hattie and Timperley (2007), that feedback in the classroom ranged from task level to process level and self-regulation level. The supportive feedback interactions that occurred are central to understanding how to identify effective feedback practices in this MA study.

Another study by Vattøy and Gamlem (2020) that also used the CLASS manual, investigated the quality of classroom interactions in English lessons and the teachers' use of Norwegian and English in assessment situations. They used CLASS manual to score the teacher-student interactions which "operationalizes teacher-student interactions to enhance student learning into three broad domains: emotional support; classroom organisation; and instructional support" (p. 375). Their results showed, in line with their previous study, that the teachers predominantly provided feedback on the task level by checking students' completion of task instructions, and found that there were less substantial "quality feedback in supporting students' internal feedback and self-regulation" (p. 1). These results showed that there is a need for more effective feedback practices in English lessons, thus it is important to understand how such effective feedback practices occur in my investigation in this MA study.

Previous MA theses have also investigated feedback in the English classroom (Ivancevic, 2018; Olafsrud, 2019). Ivancevic (2018) used data material from the LISE project and investigated through video-observation what characterized vague feedback practices in seven lower-secondary school classrooms in 9the grade. Her results indicated that vague feedback was predominant in these classrooms, and that the vague feedback was most frequently related to the task level, although feedback on the self level also tended to dominate situations of individual work.

Olafsrud (2019) also used video-recorded data from the LISE project, and she investigated writing instruction in 9th and 10th grade, including feedback as a scaffolding practice. Her results indicated that when feedback was offered on written texts in process, the feedback was specific and substantial, and related to student's writing skills. She concluded that such feedback was central for the students' perceptions of their texts and writing development. Dåsvatn (2016) is yet another MA study that investigated teachers' feedback practices using video-recorded data. Her study was conducted within Norwegian language arts lessons. In line with Ivancevic (2018), her results also indicated that feedback about the task was most frequent and that feedback was mainly provided on an individual level, while the students were writing texts in the classroom.

In addition to video observation studies, other studies have contributed to the research field in Norway, by studying teachers' perspectives on formative assessment in the English classroom. Burner (2019) completed an intervention study using portfolios as a formative assessment tool. He found that both teachers and students appreciated the process, and the teachers specifically saw the value in the process of text revision as well as self and peer assessment activities. In this study, he also investigated upper secondary school teachers' and students' perspectives on formative assessment of written texts. Here, Burner (2019) found that both teachers and students to have various views related to how feedback was perceived and acted on. On the one hand, teachers and students expressed appreciation of oral feedback practices, and the students particularly appreciated positive and specific feedback from their teachers. On the other hand, some students reported discontentment with the feedback practices in the classroom, stating that they lacked the opportunities to revise their work after receiving feedback and that they needed more support and modelling from the teacher.

Similar findings were found by Saliu-Abdulahi, Hellekjær, & Hertzberg (2017), who combined classroom observation and interviews. Results showed that the teachers tended to provide feedback after the students had submitted their texts and did not provide opportunities for revision or resubmission. In addition, the teachers tended to use the feedback to explain the grade rather than promote learning, and the corrective feedback offered was primarily on grammatical errors (e.g. local errors). In contrast, Horverak (2019) observed and interviewed eight teachers about what feedback strategies they used in writing instruction, and found that the teachers showed a shift towards formative assessment practices with an emphasis on providing the students with feedforward on their written texts. In addition, the teachers tended to focus on global issues in the student texts (e.g., formality, structure, and the use of sources). The students

in Horverak's (2019) study were provided the opportunity to revise their texts before resubmitting them and receiving a grade.

Finally, Bøhn (2019), is relevant for this MA study, as it contributes insight into oral feedback practices in English, despite the focus being on summative assessment. Bøhn (2019) studied how teachers understood *what* was to be tested in an oral exam situation, by showing different teachers a video-clip of an oral exam and asking them to score the performance. He found that the teachers had similar understandings of the main constructs. They emphasized cognitive skills in their assessment, meaning that the focus lies in the student's ability to reflect on their own knowledge. Still, the teachers had separate views on sub-criteria, such as pronunciation and content. Bøhn's (2019) research indicates a need for common criteria and rater training in Norway. He stressed the need for increased focus on the development of cognitive thinking skills in English lessons, as this was central for earning a high grade during the oral English exams.

2.5.2 Studies on students' perceptions of feedback

While some of the studies above examined both the teachers' and the students' perspectives on feedback, other studies highlight the students' perspective more explicitly. Gamlem and Smith (2013) investigated what kind of feedback the students found most useful in the classroom. By conducting interviews with eleven students from lower secondary schools, they found that the students reported most of the feedback to be given after the task was completed, thus not providing them with the opportunity to revise their work based on the feedback. As a consequence, the feedback was summative rather than formative, as formative assessment requires the use of the feedback. Moreover, they categorized the feedback as *type B*, meaning feedback that approves, controls, and disapproves work. This categorization compares to Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback about the task. Gamlem and Smith (2013) further specified that the students wanted dialogic feedback situations, where feedback was specific and the students had the opportunity to be active and ask questions concerning the feedback, which compares to Hattie and Timperley's (2007) process level and self-regulation level.

Similar wishes from students were found by Saliu-Abdulahi (2017), who combined classroom observation and interviews. She found that although the students were appreciative of the teachers' feedback, they expressed different views on its application. Some students reported that they were happy with receiving feedback explicitly on grammatical errors, while other students reported that they wanted more time to work with the feedback and the opportunity to revise and

resubmit texts. Additionally, the majority of students expressed a wish to discuss the feedback with the teacher, which implied in line with Gamlem and Smith's (2013) findings that these students also wanted more dialogue-based feedback of their written texts. Another study by Saliu-Abdulahi (2019) provides further insight into the formative assessment perspectives of students. Based on a survey on students' self-reported engagement with feedback in upper secondary school among 14 first-year English classes (*N=329*), the study indicated that although various formative assessment strategies were employed in the English classrooms, feedback was primarily given on finished and graded texts. Specifically, the students reported more engagement with feedback and more effective follow-up of formative feedback when the texts were not already graded.

Similarly, Horverak (2019) used a national survey to map general program students' perspectives (*N=522*) on writing instruction and assessment practices. The results showed that 28% of the students seldom or never had the opportunity to revise their written texts and were not generally confident in their ability to write in English. Vattøy and Smith (2019) also found through a survey study that the students did not find feedback useful, unless they were aware of learning goals, and were actively and equally participating in the feedback dialogue. Similar results were found by Vattøy et.al (2020), who investigated student teachers' feedback engagement in their teacher education, and examined assessment experiences through questionnaires and interviews. The results showed that the combination of the quality and quantity of feedback was an important aspect for them. Moreover, the student teachers' reported that central for the quality of the feedback was that it was specific, useful, and applicable, and that it was process-oriented. Finally, the student teachers highlighted that being able to reflect in dialogue with the teacher was more useful than being provided corrections only.

2.5.3 Summary of review

What the previous studies on feedback in the English classrooms show, is that the assessment practices tend to be dominated by summative assessment. Moreover, the studies show a tendency of the teacher giving students feedback and grades on finished texts, whereas effective feedback is more likely to occur when students are allowed to revise and resubmit their texts (Burner, 2019; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Horverak, 2019; Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017, 2019; Saliu-Abdulahi et al, 2017; Vattøy et.al, 2020). Also, some studies show that feedback is given predominantly on the task level (Dåsvatn, 2016; Ivancevic, 2018; Vattøy & Gamlem, 2020). Whereas Burner's

(2019) study showed that the teacher provided oral feedback while the students were working with texts, Horverak's (2019) study also showed examples of teachers providing effective feedforward and offered opportunities for students to revise their text before resubmitting. The key here, was that the students could implement the feedback before receiving a grade.

Thus, some of these studies show traces of what can be described as effective feedback in line with the principles of formative assessment. For instance, Hattie & Timperley (2007) argue that the timing of the feedback is crucial for it to promote learning outcomes. Moreover, the teacher feedback should be specific, implying that the teachers tailor their feedback according to the students' needs (Black & Wiliam, 1998, 2009). As Black and Wiliam (2009) argued, combining grades and, "feedback can inhibit the learner's attention to any substantive advice on improvement" (p. 24), consequently reducing or annulling the potential positive effect of the feedback (Black & Wiliam, 1998).

From the reviewed studies, there is an evident need for students to be engaged in the feedback practice in dialogue with the teacher, as several studies highlight the need for dialogic feedback situations where the feedback can be discussed with the teacher (Gamlem & Munthe, 2013; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017; Vattøy et al, 2020). Creating opportunities for the students to be engaged in the feedback process is part of providing effective feedback. My MA study set out to investigate what characterizes effective feedback that naturally occurs in the classroom, thereby, contributing to the research field of feedback practices in English classrooms in Norwegian lower secondary schools.

3 Methods

In this chapter, I present the methods I have used to examine my research question: *How is effective feedback provided in English lower secondary classrooms, and in which situations does such feedback occur*? The data I have used for my MA study is based on pre-recorded English lessons from the LISE project. In this chapter, I first describe my research design (3.1). Following this, I present the data material (3.2), before elaborating on the sample (3.3), and the data analysis (3.4). Finally, I discuss research credibility and ethical considerations (3.5).

3.1 Research design

My MA study investigated how feedback is communicated by English teachers and in what situations feedback occurred across 60 lower secondary English lessons in the 9th and the 10th grade. In order to investigate the research question, a qualitative approach using video observation data was most suitable. Qualitative research using video observations data is beneficial when investigating characterizations of classroom practices because they capture the social practices and interactions as a real-time sequential medium (Blikstad-Balas, 2017). In the following, I will discuss the advantages and challenges in using secondary data material from the LISE project (e.g., Dalland, 2011).

3.1.1 The LISE project

The LISE project is designed by Professor Kirsti Klette and led by Associate Professor Lisbeth M. Brevik, aiming to capture naturally occurring classroom instruction (Brevik, 2019). The LISE team collected video recordings from 60 English lessons, combined with student questionnaires and interviews with students and teachers, during 2015-2018 (Brevik 2019; Brevik & Rindal 2020). The video design in the LISE project (Brevik, 2019; Klette et.al 2017) relies on two cameras placed in the classroom; one camera in the back of the room facing the teacher and another camera in front of the classroom facing the students. The structure of this camera setup is beneficial for different analytical foci, as the possibility to switch between the two cameras gives room to focus on either the teacher's practices or the students' practices. When investigating effective feedback in the classroom, this structure offers the opportunity to observe different feedback situations from different angles, focusing specifically on the participants. Furthermore, two microphones were used, one connected to the teacher and one fixed in the center of the

classroom to capture student talk. This placement is beneficial when investigating feedback practices, as the teacher's microphone makes the student talk clearer and provides the opportunity to hear details in the conversation, which are central when analyzing the level of the feedback given. Cameras and audio recordings thus captured feedback in whole-class and individual interactions. Table 1 provides an overview of the research design of this MA study, including method, research question, secondary data, data analysis, and analytical concepts.

Table 1. An overview of my research design

Method	Research question	Secondary data	Data analysis	Analytical concepts
Qualitative video observation (see 3.1.2).	How is effective feedback provided in English lower secondary classrooms and in which situations does such feedback occur?	Video recordings from LISE English lessons in 9th and 10th grade, containing effective feedback practices (see 3.1.3). Sample: 12 lessons (see 3.2).	Content analysis of video recorded data and transcriptions of the video data (see 3.3).	Specific feedback Procedural suggestions Substantial suggestions Feedback on the task level Feedback on the process level Feedback on the self-regulation level Feedback on the self level

3.2.2 Qualitative video observation

Qualitative research using video observation is both beneficial and challenging when investigating characterizations of classroom practices. Using video observation to answer my research question arguably had several advantages. One advantage was the possibility of repeatedly re-watching the same material with different analytical foci (Blikstad-Balas, 2017). Since I wanted to investigate *how* effective feedback was communicated, video observation enabled me to observe feedback interactions several times to pick up on details and patterns that would be lost *in situ* (Blikstad-Balas, 2017; Cohen et.al., 2011). A related challenge might the audio quality, if the microphones do not pick up student utterances, especially during group discussions among several students. However, being able to re-watch segments and discuss with other researchers was beneficial to capture and understand the dialogues.

Moreover, having the opportunity to re-watch assessment episodes secured transparency, and using the video material to make detailed transcriptions of the conversations also strengthened the

validity of the study. Thus, the combination of re-watching the material and reading the transcriptions gave me information to build my analysis of the feedback practices on a more precise level than what for instance field notes would have offered, as they are perceived to be less rigorous (Blikstad- Balas, 2017). The transcriptions and results in my study were all based on direct video observation and was not affected by the researcher's memory. Being able to analyze the actual accruing feedback interaction on a word level through video observation was beneficial in order to answer the research question, as "it enables more precise, complete, and subtle analyses of teaching/learning processes" (Klette, 2016, p. 1). Thus, the video recordings allowed me to follow specific feedback dialogues and situations that occurred in the sampled English lessons. My aim was to analyze how feedback was communicated by studying the individuals' active participation in the feedback interaction, as an independent observer.

3.1.3 Use of secondary data

Being part of the LISE project and using their pre-collected and pre-coded material for this MA study, my data material is considered secondary data (Dalland, 2011). There are several advantages for me to use secondary data material. One of the main benefits is that the material is already accessible, which gives me the opportunity to observe many classrooms without the time-consuming requirements of data collection. Also, the LISE project provided access to material from a larger sample than I would have managed to collect myself. Moreover, using the LISE videos provided access to data that was already analyzed by the LISE team, thus prompting the opportunity to discuss and analyze my sample with other LISE researchers and at the same time contribute with new perspectives on the LISE material (Dalland, 2011).

However, using secondary data also entails some challenges and limitations. Since the video recordings have been collected by other researchers; I was not present in the classrooms when the material was recorded. A potential effect is the loss of contextual information (Dalland, 2011), another, is the risk of "systematically missing out on relevant information–not only in all the settings they do not record but also in all the data that never get scrutinized" (Blikstad-Balas, 2017, p. 517). The analysis that I have done, is based on a sample of the 60 English lessons, which was already coded as effective feedback situations and therefore I did not analyze the remaining lessons. However, the data material gave me targeted, sufficient and beneficial information adequate to answer my research question.

3.1   Sample

In the LISE project, the seven participating schools were chosen based on variations in student achievement, demographic and geographic variables (Brevik, 2019; Brevik & Rindal, 2020).I used a purposive sampling approach to identify lessons that included effective feedback practices, as purposive sampling is useful in qualitative research when selecting samples specific to a particular case (Bryman, 2016). Since the focus of my research question was specific to the case of effective feedback, I further used criterion sampling, where the exclusion criterion was lessons that did not contain effective feedback. These lessons were consequently excluded from my sample. As I will show in the sampling procedure below, I aimed to identify lessons that provided me with clear examples of effective feedback practices in English lessons. This approach allowed me to study the same phenomenon across classrooms and lessons.

3.1.1   Analysis conducted by the LISE research team

In the LISE project, all English lessons had been divided into 15-minute segments and each segment was coded using the PLATO observation protocol. The coding of these segments was done by certified coders and I used this coding overview to select my sample. PLATO is a system of codes developed by Grossman (2015), specifically for observing language teachers' effective instruction. The observation protocol consists of four instructional domains; (1) Disciplinary demand of classroom talk & activity, (2) Contextualizing and representing content, (3) Instructional scaffolding, and (4) Classroom environment (Grossman, 2015).

These domains are further divided into a total of thirteen core elements where effective instruction is identified. Each of these core elements is scored separately for each 15-minute lesson segment by using PLATO's detailed description and a scoring scale of 1-4. One of the core elements is feedback (FDB), which examines "the quality of feedback provided in response to student application of English Language Arts skills, concepts, or strategies" (PLATO, 5.0). I used this core element to identify my sample.

In Table 2, the scores of 3-4 indicate effective feedback, in terms of the feedback being specific and gives procedural and substantive suggestions for further improvement on students' task-related work. Effective feedback in line with PLATO aligns with Hattie and Timperley's (2007) effective feedback criteria and also KD's AfL principles, by requiring both feedback (i.e. specific) and feedforward (i.e suggestions for how to improve).

Table 2. The Protocol for Language Arts Teaching Observation (PLATO 5.0): Feedback element

	1 Provides almost no evidence	2 Provides limited evidence	3 Provides evidence with some weaknesses	4 Provides consistent strong evidence
FDB	The teacher does not provide feedback to students.	The 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 the 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?").	The teacher and/or students provide some feedback specific to the features of students' work or ideas. Feedback is constructive and clear. Suggestions for how to improve work are a mix of procedural and substantive.	The teacher and/or students frequently and consistently provide specific feedback. Suggestions for how to improve work are largely substantive. It is reasonable to infer that feedback helps students with the activity

Note. FDB= feedback. For definitions of procedural and substantive feedback, see Table 5.

3.1.2 Sampling procedure

The first step in my sampling procedure was to ensure that my understanding of the feedback scores was in line with the coding done by the certified coders in the LISE team. Ivancevic (2018) looked at vague feedback (PLATO score 2) and used 99 video-recorded segments from 9th grade English lessons. I watched these segments even though I was not going to use PLATO score 2 for vague feedback. This procedure was mainly important in order to double-check that I agreed with the coding. Fortunately, I agreed with all the scores, thus demonstrating that I had understood characteristics of feedback practices that were *not* deemed effective. Olafsrud (2019) looked at eight English lessons in her MA study, both in 9th and 10th grade. Since her focus was on extended writing opportunities in English lessons, feedback practices was considered a scaffolding practice during these writing opportunities, which were assigned scores of 2 and 3. I watched these 32 segments and agreed with her interpretation of vague and effective feedback, demonstrating that I had understood not only characteristics of vague feedback practices, but also effective ones. I reached 100% inter-rater agreement as a result of this procedure.

As a second step in my sampling procedure, I was given access to the LISE teams' analysis of all segments across the 60 English lessons, including double-coding of 25% of the segments (Brevik, 2019). The analysis included comments from the raters, and these showed that the team had identified four segments they suggested should be recoded. These were originally scored as 2, and subsequently changed to 3 and 4. I was granted access to all four segments and agreed that three of them were in line with PLATO score 3 and one in line with score 4. I made detailed notes concerning my interpretation, which I presented to the LISE team. Based on our discussion, the LISE team decided to change these four segments to the higher scores.

As the third step in my sampling procedure, I created Table 3 as an overview of the lessons and segments that were scored 3 and 4. Although these segments are scored 3 or 4 on feedback, it does not necessarily indicate that these practices are provided throughout the lesson, nor that the teachers exclusively provided effective feedback in these segments. The effective feedback practices were incorporated into several classroom situations, and included both teacher and peer feedback. This information provides valuable insight into characteristics of effective feedback, how effective feedback can be incorporated into different classroom situations, and what these feedback practices contribute in terms of students' English learning.

Table 3. The sample of this MA study

School	Grade	Filmed lessons	Lessons with scores 3-4	15-min segments with scores 3-4	PLATO feedback score	My MA sample: lessons (segments)
S02	9th	6	0	0	-	0
S07	9th	4	1	1	3	1 (1)
	10th	4	2[1]	2	3	2 (2)
S09	9th	6	1	1	3	1 (1)
	10th	5	0	0	-	0
S13	9th	4	2	2	3	2 (2)
	10th	4	0	0	-	0
S17	9th	4	0	0	-	0
	10th	5	1[1]	1	3	1 (1)
S50	9th	5	0	0	-	0
	10th	5	2[1]	3	3	2 (3)
S51	9th	4	1	2	4	1 (2)
	10th	4	2	4[2]	3 and 4	2 (5)
Total		**60**	**12**	**17**		**12 (17)**

[1]Lessons in Olafsrud's (2019) material
[2]Lessons changed from a PLATO code 2 to a 3 or 4

As shown in Table 2, four of the twelve lessons, marked with uppercase [1] were already included Olafsrud's data material, and the lessons marked with uppercase [2] were the four segments changed from a PLATO score 2 to the scores 3 and 4. I looked through the remaining five lessons for a final check to secure that I agreed with the scores 3 and 4 there as well, which I did.

In sum, Table 3 shows that the sample for my MA thesis comprises 12 of the 60 video recorded English lessons in the LISE material. In these 12 lessons, a total of 17 15-minute segments were given the scores 3 or 4, which indicated effective feedback. Table 2 further shows that effective feedback was identified in six of the seven classrooms, both in 9th grade and 10th grade. Specifically, effective feedback was identified in five English lessons in 9th grade (S07, S09, S13, S51) and seven English lessons in 10th grade (S07, S17, S50, S51). The 17 15-minute segments across the 12 English lessons in six classrooms represent my final sample (Table 2).

3.1.3 Teachers

Table 3 provides background information about the English teachers in the classrooms that provided effective feedback, as they are also part of my sample (Brevik, 2019; Brevik & Rindal, 2020). The information was provided by the teachers to the LISE research team as a standard procedure in connection with the video recordings. The sampled teachers represent different sexes and age groups, they have various academic backgrounds and teaching experience.

Table 4. Background information of the sampled English teachers.

School	Grade	Teacher	Pseudonym	Age	Education in English	Teaching experience
S07	9th- 10th	Male	Michael	20-29	61-90 ECTS	6 years
S09	9th	Female	Petra	60+	31-60 ECTS	25 years
S13	9th	Female	Emma	20-29	31-60 ECTS	3 years
S17	10th	Female	Thea	40-49	61-90 ECTS	20 years
S50	10th	Male	Ragnar	40-49	31-60 ECTS	18 years
S51	9th	Male	Henry	20-29	300 ECTS (MA degree)	3 years
S51	10th	Female	Tessa	50-59	31-60 ECTS	6 years

Note. S = school. ECTS = European Credit and Accumulation System. MA = Master's.

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3.3. Data analysis

In this section, I present the analytical steps I completed when analyzing the 12 lessons that comprise my sample (Table 2) and how I have worked with this sample. Although the sample was identified based on quantitative PLATO scores, I analyzed the sampled segments qualitatively. My main analytical approach was structured observation and I engaged in a deductive research approach in line with directed content analysis (Fauskanger & Mosvold, 2014; Hsiu-Fang & Shannon, 2005). Using direct content analysis means that prior research (e.g., Grossman, 2015; Hattie & Timperley, 2007) helped me develop the analytical components that determined what interactions were relevant to answering my research question, thus structuring my data analysis (Kleven, 2014). The nature of feedback practices in the English classroom is multifaceted and, to understand its characteristics, it is necessary with thorough analyses.

Below, I present my in-depth analysis of the 17 segments with PLATO scores 3 or 4 in order to identify how effective feedback was communicated and in which situations such feedback occurred. In the following, I include an explanation of the analytical concepts that I used; building on the PLATO criteria of (A) specific feedback, (B) procedural suggestions, and (C) substantive suggestions, in addition to Hattie and Timperley's (2007) theoretical categories of, (1) task level, (2) process level, (3) self-regulation level, and (4) self level. I combined these seven categories to identify characteristics of effective feedback in my material.

3.3.1 Step 1 – Analyzing feedback practices

After acquiring an overview of the sampled segments, I wrote detailed field notes about the feedback practices that I observed, including the feedback situations and feedback interactions, based on the three PLATO criteria for effective feedback practices. I then used Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback model to identify the feedback levels relevant for each feedback situation. Table 5 provides a brief explanation of the analytical concepts.

Table 5. Descriptions of the analytical concepts

Analytical concepts	Explanation
Specific feedback	Specific feedback helps students understand how elements of their work are executed. This type of feedback evaluates and describes aspects of their work to improve the student's work relevant to the specific task (PLATO 5.0).

Procedural suggestions	Procedural suggestions focus on the instructions connected to the activity rather than giving suggestions connected to the underlying skills of the task. Examples of this practice are asking students about the completion of particular steps and checking if their work is in line with the directions of the task (PLATO 5.0).
Substantial suggestions	Substantive suggestions focus more directly on suggestions working towards improving the skills underlying an English language learning practice. These suggestions focus on enlightening the students of specific strategies and resources that will help them develop their ideas. This practice may involve brief instruction explaining improvements the students may focus on to improve their overall practice (PLATO 5.0).
Task level	Task-based feedback is provided from the teacher or peers, such as task accomplishments, corrective feedback and further task instruction (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 91).
Process level	Feedback interactions related to student's development of a deep understanding of learning and further connection to cognitive processes. Specifically signs of the student's active construction of meaning during the feedback such as asking for specific help, strategies of error correction, and transferability to other tasks (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p 93).
Self-regulation level	The students are taking an active role in the feedback process by regulating their own actions to complete the learning goal either through self-appraisal or self-management. Moreover, the teacher's strategies concerning encouragement for self-reflection, give the students tools to engage in self-regulation (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 94).
Self level	The teacher's practice corresponded with personal feedback and praise to the students. I separated between praise that gave no information about the work and praise that was given as a starting point that further goes into an explanation of relevant positive aspects of the task-performance (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 96).

While analyzing the classroom videos, I developed a system, consisting of numbers (1-4) and letters (A, B, C). As illustrated in Table 6, the numbers represent the four feedback levels, whereas the letters represent the three effective feedback practices. The complete process was done in the TLVlab at the University of Oslo. When analyzing the dialogues involved in the feedback practices, each feedback provided was given a combination of a number and a letter that represented both the feedback level and the feedback practice. Thus, I was able to identify what characterized the effective feedback provided.

Table 6. Analyzing tool for feedback practices

	Specific feedback (A)	Procedural suggestions (B)	Substantive suggestions (C)
Task level (1)	1A	1B	1C
Process level (2)	2A	2B	2C
Self-regulation level (3)	3A	3B	3C
Self level (4)	4A	4B	4C

3.3.2 Step 2 - Identifying feedback situations

In the next step, I shifted my focus to the situations in which the effective feedback practices occurred. I investigated three specific situations; context (whole class, group work, individual work), skills (reading, writing, oral presentations, ideas), and activity (process or product). In order to identify the situations, I re-watched the material, used my descriptive field notes, and transcriptions of the video-recorded lessons to give me a clear overview of the situations.

3.3.3 Step 3 – Organizing and reviewing

The third step in my analysis was to organize my notes and get a complete overview of the effective feedback practices in each of the classrooms and each 15-minute segment, with a focus on context, skills, and activity. Then, I compared the segments across classrooms to look for similarities and differences in their effective feedback practices. I went back to the TLVlab on several occasions to verify the transcriptions and my overall analysis.

3.4 Research credibility

In this section, I discuss the reliability and validity of my MA study. Moreover, this section discusses ethical considerations relevant to the study.

3.4.1 Reliability

Cohen et.al. (2011) claims that to secure a study's reliability it needs to "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). This corresponds with Johnson and Christensen's (2017) definition stating that a study's reliability is secured if repeatability is achievable. In this study, I addressed two strategies to ensure reliability; inter reliability and intra reliability.

Inter reliability measures the agreement between researchers about the results of a study when using the same analytical framework (Bryman, 2016). I used the PLATO manual as analytical framework when observing the sampled video recordings. Since the data I have studied had already been coded by certified raters that followed strict procedures through the PLATO training program, reliability is addressed. In addition, reliability was further secured by double-coding 25% of the segments, to ensure high levels ($\geq 80\%$) of inter-rater agreement (see Brevik, 2019). In addition, although not being certified, I studied the PLATO element of feedback and rewatched all the segments in my sample, reaching 100% inter-rater agreement. Furthermore, the detailed descriptions of the analytical concepts in my MA study provides a means to ensure reliability, as researchers have the opportunity to apply the same concepts and obtain the same results. Moreover, video observation is beneficial when securing reliability as the material is recorded digitally and thus multiple researchers have the possibility to review the classroom situations several times (Blikstad-Balas, 2017; Cohen et.al, 2011). In addition, I am connected to the LISE project and this has allowed me to discuss the findings and my interpretations with my supervisor and other researchers in the LISE team.

Intra reliability measures to what degree repetitions conducted of one particular test or analysis reach the same results for the same researcher (Bryman, 2016; Cohen et.al, 2011). Using video observation as a method has ensured the intra reliability as it enables the possibility of not only watching each segment repeatedly, but also of watching the same segment from different angles using the two cameras. Thus, I was able to watch each segment several times, each time focusing on specific incidents, dialogues, utterances, and interactions that related to my research lens.

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3.4.1 Validity

According to Johnson and Christensen (2017), validity in a qualitative study relates to whether the research and findings are "plausible, credible, trustworthy, and therefore defensible" (p. 299). Thus, it is important in qualitative research, that the researcher defends the validity in the study by assessing the accuracy of the findings (Creswell, 2014; Johnson & Christensen, 2017). To ensure validity in my MA study, I used several strategies; internal and external validity, researcher bias, peer debriefing, rich descriptions and reactivity.

Concerning *internal validity*, a threat present in any study is *researcher bias,* which revolves around how the researcher's personal views may affect the interpretation of data and how the research is conducted (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). This happens when the researcher subconsciously searches through the material in order to find patterns consistent with what is expected to be found in the study. The secure way to avoid researcher bias is by engaging in self-reflection, thus, addressing possible biases and predispositions that could have influenced the findings and results of the study (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

My experiences from the classroom, knowledge about prior research and assessment theory, created some expectations of finding few examples of substantive feedback in the data material. However, the limited number of classrooms I have observed during my teacher education made me curious about what other practices were present in the English classrooms in the LISE material. Having reflected on my biases and using the PLATO manual addressed the validity of my study. PLATO also made it possible to engage in *peer debriefing* by discussing and comparing the results with other LISE researchers, thus reducing the room for subjectivity in my interpretation of the video material (Creswell & Miller, 2000). This strategy also included the validating process of the two former MA students (Ivancevic, 2018; Olafsrud, 2019), and the LISE team. I furthermore contributed with inter-rater agreement through the procedures described above. During the engagement in the inter-rater agreement procedures with the LISE team, I also contributed with *external validation* that ended up with a change in codes.

Moreover, to strengthen my findings and secure my data as plausible or probable, I have provided transcriptions as evidence to support my findings. This procedure secured a *rich description* of the classroom dialogues by providing as much detail about the feedback in the classrooms as possible (Creswell & Miller, 2000). This strategy prevented me from drawing the wrong conclusions and helped me as a researcher to ensure that my observations were defensible and

presented in a transparent way (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). A central threat to validity concerning video data is *reactivity*. Maxwell (2013) describes this as "the effect of the researcher on the individuals studied" (p. 124). In my MA study, the effect of being video recorded could cause an alteration in normal conduct, however, videos show that participants shortly forget that they were being recorded (Blikstad-Balas, 2017; Cohen et.al., 2011). Thus, I argue that observing video-recorded practices are effective ways of examining effective feedback practices occurring in the classroom segments.

Finally, concerning external and generalizing validity, this is a qualitative study that consists of a small collection of data material by using a purposeful sampling approach, thus, it is not the intention for this study to be generalizable, nor is it possible (Bryman, 2016). However, the segments are generalizable within the LISE material due to the PLATO coding and procedures across the material and the possibility of transferability by giving rich descriptions, which *can* provide other researchers with enough information to compare the results of the study to other samples. The condition is that the people and the setting present in the study share characteristics with the original study (Johnson & Christensen, 2017), and other material coded with PLATO.

3.4.2   Ethical considerations

Befring (2016) addressed four ethical steps that must be addressed by the researcher. First, consent and obligation to notify the purpose of the study needs to be in place before collecting data. Second, anonymity and safekeeping of data should be secured. Third, the protection of vulnerable groups needs to be secured. Last, protection from potential harm to the participants, either during the data collection process or as a strain due to research should be secured.

Using the LISE project as a source of data material, I have the role of being an independent researcher by observing secondary data (Dalland, 2011). This means that I personally have not been in contact with the participating schools or the observed teachers and students. However, as my MA study uses secondary data collected for educational research, it falls under the guidelines of the Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee's department for Social Sciences, Humanities, Law, and Theology (NESH, 2016), and the LISE project obtained ethical approval from NSD in advance. First, all participants in the LISE project have been given information about the purpose of the material and signed consent forms regarding the use of this data for research, thus written, voluntary consent was ensured from teachers, students and parents (Brevik, 2019; Brevik & Rindal, 2020). Second, the data material is securely saved at the TLVlab

and anonymity is secured by strict routines at the TLVlab and in the LISE project, in addition to using pseudonyms and/or codes for all schools and participants. Moreover, anonymity is secured as all researchers using the LISE material, myself included, have to sign a statement where one promises not to abuse or disclose personal information about the accessed data.

Third, concerning the protection of vulnerable groups, the students in LISE were 14 and 15 years old when the material was collected, who Befring (2016) argues need special considerations in research projects. Thus, I needed to bear in mind the superior role I have as my findings and interpretation of the material shapes the classroom narrative. Thus, I particularly considered the vulnerability of the young participants and protected their integrity through my presentation of the classroom practices in my MA thesis. Thus, I have made sure that I present my research on the teacher's and students' practices in a manner that respects and protects the participants' integrity (Befring, 2016). Finally, to protect the participants, the LISE team informed the participants that they had the option of leaving the study at any point in time.

4 Findings

In this chapter, I present the findings of this video observation study and how these findings inform my research question: *How is effective feedback provided in English lower secondary classrooms, and in which situations does such feedback occur?* The chapter is divided into two sections, each presenting one main finding in this study. The first main finding is that among the effective feedback identified in six of the LISE classrooms, four of the classrooms included feedback both from the teacher and from peers (4.1). Second, I identified that effective feedback was characterized mainly by Hattie and Timperley's (2007) process level and task level, particularly in individual writing situations in the English classroom (4.2).

4.1 The occurrence of effective feedback

In this section, I provide an overview of the feedback practices identified in the sampled lessons as well as the distribution of the teachers' effective feedback practices. I also address in which situations these feedback practices were provided. The 12 English lessons that contained effective feedback practices made up 17% of the recorded English lessons in the LISE project. These feedback situations were distributed across six of the seven classrooms where two classrooms (S07, S51) included effective feedback in both 9th grade and 10th grade lessons.

School	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 4	Lesson 5
S07 (9th grade)				Teacher feedback (SF)	
S07 (10th grade)		Teacher & peer feedback (SF)	Teacher feedback (SF)		
S09 (9th grade)	Teacher feedback (SF, PS)				
S13 (9th grade)		Teacher & peer feedback (SF)		Teacher & peer feedback (SF)	
S17 (10th grade)					Teacher & peer feedback (SF, PS)
S50 (10th grade)		Teacher & peer feedback (SF, SS)	Teacher & peer feedback (SF, SS)		
S51 (9th grade)		Teacher feedback (SF, SS)			
S51 (10th grade)			Teacher feedback (SF, SS)	Teacher feedback (SF, SS)	

Figure 3. English lessons with effective feedback practices. *Note*. Grey=lessons with effective feedback. Black=no recorded lesson. White=recorded lessons with vague or no feedback. SF=specific feedback. PS=procedural feedback. SS=substantial suggestions.

Figure 3 illustrates the distribution of effective feedback across these classrooms; five lessons in 9th grade (S07, S09, S13, S51), and seven lessons in 10th grade (S07, S17, S50, S51). Figure 3 also illustrates who provided the feedback during these lessons; six lessons involved solely teachers' feedback, three in 9th grade (S07, S09, S51) and three in 10th grade (S07, S51). Interestingly, peer feedback occurs in half the lessons; six lessons included both teacher and peer feedback; two in 9th grade (S13), and four in 10th grade (S07, S17, S50). The teachers' feedback in all 15-minute segments had occurrences of specific feedback on the students' work with substantive suggestions on how to improve, especially in classrooms S50 (10th grade) and S51 (9th and 10th grade), while classroom S09 (9th grade) and S17 (10th grade) had the most occurrences of procedural suggestions on how to proceed in general.

Next, I will present what characterized the teacher's effective feedback in the 17 segments and how these were provided in each situation. I identified three situations for the teachers' feedback: context, skills, and activity. Context refers to the structure of the classroom, thus determining how the students worked with the tasks and consequently if a single or several students were provided feedback from the teacher at the same time. The classroom context includes three distinct situations: individual work, group work, and whole class. Skills refer to the basic skills addressed, which include oral presentations, writing, reading and students' ideas. Last, activity refers to the state of the task when the feedback was given. I have separated between feedback during the work process (not completed) and feedback on the finished product (completed).

Figure 4 shows the distribution of these feedback situations across the 17 segments, and answers the second part of my research question: *in which situations does such feedback occur?* The figure shows that the dominant situation where effective feedback occurred, was during the process of writing tasks, mainly provided to individual students on their unfinished texts. In these 12 lessons and the 17 15-minute segments that were given the score 3 or 4, I found occurrences of all four of the feedback levels in Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback model.
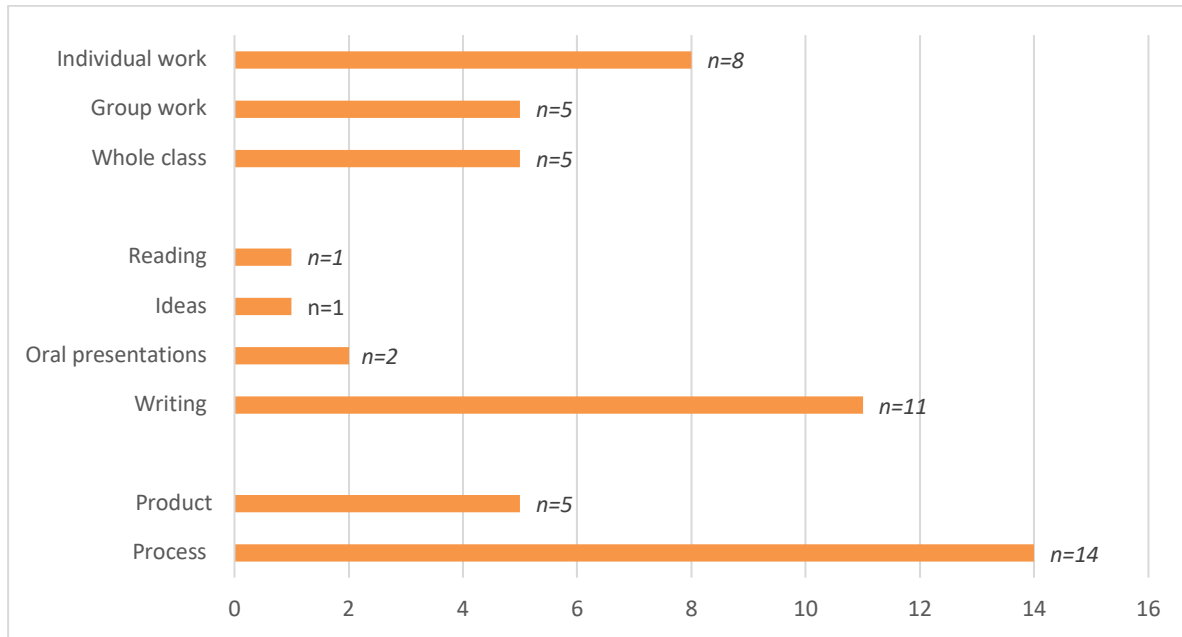
Figure 4. Overview of the feedback situations distributed across the 17 lesson segments; context (individual work, group work, whole class), skills (reading, ideas, oral presentations, writing), activity (product, process). *Note*. *n*=number of segments. One 15-minute segment can contain several situations.

4.2 Identified feedback levels

In this section, I address the feedback levels from Hattie and Timperley's (2007) model and what characterizes the feedback practices given at each level in these classrooms. Although I found evidence of all four feedback levels across the 12 lessons, all four levels did not occur in all lessons. Typically, effective feedback was provided at the process level and the task level. Figure 5 illustrates the teachers' effective feedback practices and the feedback level for which each of these practices was given. While reading the transcriptions, I counted the teachers' effective feedback practices in dialogue with the students. The practices are numbered on the Y-axis, for example, the number 15 for task level means that I have identified 15 occurrences of task-level feedback in S07 in 9th grade.

Figure 5. Overview of effective feedback situations across 12 English lessons.

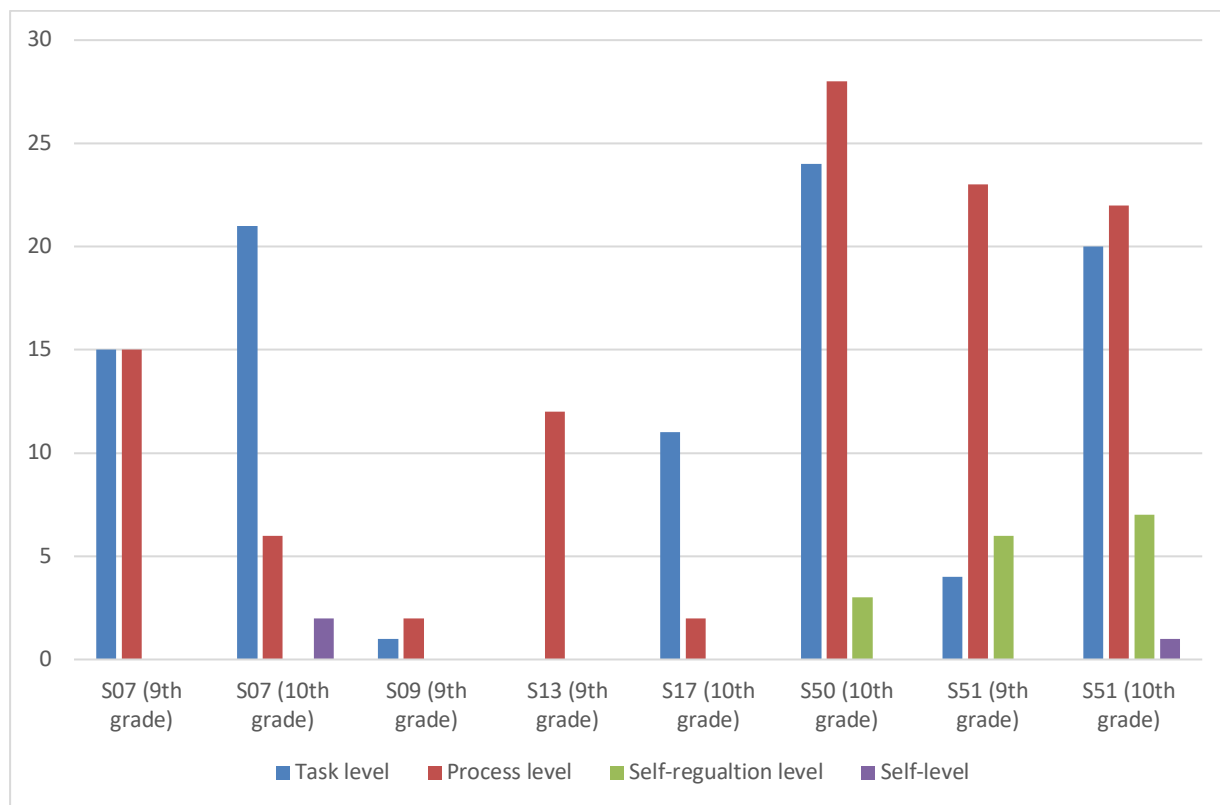Figure 5 shows the *process level* to be the dominant one (*n*=110, 49%), with all the teachers providing feedback on this level. The task level is the second most prominent one (*n*=96, 43%). Moreover, we see that there is a gap between these two most prominent ones and the other two. The self-regulation level was identified in three classrooms only (*n*=16, 7%) and the *self level* was the least used feedback level with only three occurrences (*n*=3, 1%) across two classrooms.

The *task level* characterizes feedback that give the students information on how well the students have understood a task, mainly by the teacher providing correct/incorrect answers and checking if the students are indeed completing the task. The *process level* characterizes effective feedback given during the work process and include information and strategies from the teacher and peers to further a deeper understanding, aiming at higher task achievement. The *self-regulation level* describes an interplay between students and teachers, where students self-regulate their actions by seeking feedback on their own initiative or the teachers provide effective feedback strategies to encourage students' self-regulation. Last, the *self level* refers to the teachers' or peers' feedback that provide praise to the student's self or person without any performance information about the task, work process or issues of self-regulation.

In the following, I first present the process level (4.2.1) and the self-regulation level (4.2.2), as these are most characteristic of effective feedback practices, according to PLATO (Grossman, 2015) and Hattie and Timperley (2007). Then, I present the two levels least characteristic of effective feedback, namely the task level (4.2.3) and the self level (4.2.4).

4.2.1 Process level

As shown in Figure 5, I found that effective feedback was largely provided on the process level (49% of occurrences). At the process level effective feedback occurred mainly in group situations in 9th grade and in individual situations in 10th grade. However, the process level feedback occurred mainly in writing situations where the students worked with a text in process across both grades and was primarily given to individual students and directed at the development of their texts. Specifically, feedback on the process level was characterized by teachers asking students follow-up questions to activate their own ideas for further writing (Figure 4). This feedback practice relates closely to a deeper understanding of learning by encouraging further reflection to construct meaning that can be related to developing cognitive processes, and transferred to future tasks. Another characterization of the effective feedback on this level was evident in a four-point feedback structure, in which the students as well as the teacher participated. This structure emphasized that, (1) the teacher informed the students about the task goals and the feedback criteria, (2) the teacher used these criteria individually by asking students follow-up questions to their questions, (3) the students used the criteria for peer assessment, and (4) the teacher followed up the peer assessment activity by checking the students' feedback contributions to each other. In the following examples, I aim to illustrate how this four-point feedback procedure was competed on the process level. I have used the codes presented in Table 6 (e.g., 2A, 2B, 2C) in the examples to illustrate how I analyzed the feedback practices based on a combination of Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback levels and PLATO's descriptions of effective feedback.

In the following, I present four examples from classroom S50 (10th grade), to illustrate how the four-point structure contributed to effective feedback practices at the process level, before I explain how a similar structure occurred in three other classrooms. First, the teacher Ragnar gave the students information about three specific criteria they were to focus on while giving and receiving peer feedback; structure, content, and language. While giving the information, he also engaged the students by asking questions about the feedback procedure and provided them with

models of how to use the criteria, as illustrated in Example 1. Typically, information about the feedback procedure was given in Norwegian (indicated by italics).

Example 1. Process level – procedure 1 (criteria and procedural feedback)

Ragnar: *Det er gjerne tre hovedområder man vurderer da. Det ene er innhold, er teksten i tråd med oppgaven, formidler den det man lurer på når man har lest oppgaven. Språket, alt som har med, med språk, altså grammatikk, rettskriving sånne ting også det om du er flink til å variere språket, det kommer innunder det (2B) Struktur, hva er struktur for noe da?*

Student 1: *Åssen teksten er bygd opp*

Ragnar: *Åssen teksten er bygd opp, har man innledning, hoveddel, avslutning (2B). Nå er det ikke sikkert alle har kommet så langt at de har skrevet en avslutning da. Men hva kan også struktur dreie seg om?*

Student 2: *Punkter med komma og så videre*

Ragnar: *Tegnsetting ja, og så nevnte du* [points to student]

Student 3: *Avsnitt*

Ragnar: *Avsnitt, ja. Så hvis teksten en stor smørje med tekst, så er det lurt å kanskje dele det opp i avsnitt, da (2B). Ja, så der har dere noen knagger å henge tilbakemeldingene på.*

Example 1 shows how Ragnar first, provided feedback criteria, thereby transferring his own feedback practices to the students and encouraged them to use the criteria themselves. The criteria informed the students about how to structure their feedback by giving procedural suggestions (2B) on the process level. Ragnar modelled what the feedback criteria entailed, while also structuring the peer assessment activity. Second, Ragnar used the criteria himself when providing students individual feedback in the classroom, as shown in Example 2:

Example 2. Process level – procedure 2 (specific and substantial teacher feedback)

Student: *Skrev jeg* "which" *riktig?*

Ragnar: *Det mangler en "h" etter her …* [reads text] *… akkurat den setningen der* [points to text]*, er det første ord?*

Student: *Ja*

Ragnar: *Så en setning begynner altså:* "Instead of doing something I don't enjoy and not be effective". *Hvis du bare leser den setningen, tenker du at det er en fullstendig setning som gir mening?* **(2A)**

Student: *Det er komma der forresten, bare du ser det ikke for jeg har viska ut*

Ragnar: *Ja, men setningen begynner der?*

Student: *Ja*

[Teacher reads]

Student: *Det mangler* […]

Ragnar: *Ja, det gir ikke mening med mindre jeg leser det som står foran* **(2A),** *så egentlig bør du slå sammen den setningen med den* [points to text] **(2C).**

Student: *Er ikke det litt mye?*

Ragnar: *Nei da, men du kan bruke komma i stedet for* **(2A)** [continues to read]. *Flott* [student name] *fint innhold, og så ville jeg kanskje kommentert at du gjerne kunne hatt litt lengre da, litt mer eksempler på hva som vil bli annerledes* **(2C).** *Men det her var en bra begynnelse.*

The dialogue with the student in Example 2, illustrates how Ragnar implemented the use of criteria in an oral feedback situation. He provided the student with specific feedback (2A) on content and language aspects of the written text in dialogue with the student, by asking follow-up questions and reflective questions to activate the student's ideas. Moreover, he also provided the student with substantive suggestions (2C) for improvement, thus, showing evidence of effective feedback practices. The third feedback procedure was evident by the students actively engaging in peer feedback and using the feedback criteria provided by Ragnar. Example 3 illustrates this feedback procedure through a dialogue between two students during peer assessment. The students talked about how language aspects influenced content aspects of Student 2's text, in which he wrote about his plans for upper secondary school studies.

Example 3. Process level – procedure 3 (peer and self assessment)

Student 2: I am looking to get drama? *Jeg ser til å få drama. Hva var der? Jeg hadde skrevet det der, ikke sant, jeg tenkte å bare fjerne hele ordet. Fordi… Jeg vet ikke, det var sånn, det har jeg jo skrevet der* **(2C).**

Student 1: *Jeg liker at du vet egentlig at det skrives ikke sånn, så når vi leser det så er du sånn: se det er feil* [continues to read the text].

This dialogue showed how Student 2 reflected on her own text as she explained her thoughts to Student 1, who provided a new view of her ability to self-reflect on content and language. By engaging in peer feedback, Student 2 provided herself with a substantive suggestion (2C), which indicated that peer interaction was an important part of peer feedback on the process level. This procedure thus provided evidence for active student construction of meaning through the correction of written mistakes. The fourth feedback procedure was evident as Ragnar actively ensured and confirmed the students' engagement in the peer feedback process and their use of the criteria. He circled the classroom while asking student pairs about their feedback process, as shown in Example 4:

Example 4. Process level – procedure 4 (criteria and peer feedback)

Ragnar: So [Student 1] what kind of feedback did [Student 2] give you?

Student 1: He said that I struggled with i's, small i's instead of capital I's **(2A).**

Ragnar: That's it?

Student 1: The text was probably like very…, it was not so good structure **(2A).**

Ragnar: Okay, so maybe you should add some paragraphs? (2C). What did he say about the content?

Student 1: Mm, he said it was good like I have…

Student 2: He filled the criteria **(2A).**

Ragnar: Very good, maybe it could have been a bit longer? **(2C)**

Ragnar: Okay, what kind of feedback did he [Student 2] give you [Student 1]?

Student 2: It was maybe a little bit short but as with [Student 1] it filled the criteria and eh **(2A)** it could probably have been a little bit better structure **(2C)** […], but everything was a bit short **(2A).**

Ragnar: Very well, okay, so if you, if this was something you were going to hand in to me, you would know what to work on to make it better? **(2B)** [Student 2 nods]. Fine.

The conversation between Ragnar and the two students illustrates how he asked them about the feedback criteria and their peer feedback. Moreover, it shows how the students gave each other specific peer feedback on language (2A) and structure (2C), and how Ragnar used the information to add a substantial suggestion (2C) by way of a follow-up question. As mentioned, I observed similar feedback procedures in three other classrooms (S07, S13, S17), where the

teachers and students also used a four-point structure. Effective feedback on the process level was mainly provided on students' ongoing texts, where the teachers had designed their English lessons as a combination of individual texts writing and peer feedback.

In S17 (10th grade), the students were given the task of writing a personal letter. The teacher Thea provided criteria for the feedback (point 1), which mainly concerned specific language features (2A). She gave individual feedback to the students, actively using this criterion (point 2), focusing on giving procedural suggestions (2B). In addition, there was evidence of the students using the criteria during peer assessment (point 3), and Thea checked that they had both given and received peer feedback (point 4). Here, the effective feedback practice was characterized by the combination of specific feedback and procedural suggestions, as well as teacher and peer feedback in line with the four-point procedure.

In S07 (10th grade), the students wrote argumentative essays about the US presidential election and the criteria concerned argumentation and text structure, in terms of ideas and the use of paragraphs (point 1). The teacher, Michael, gave individual feedback that focused on students' ideas and content, while actively providing follow-up questions and reflective questions to engage student thinking (point 2). The emphasis on the development of students' ideas resulted in Michael giving procedural suggestions in the form of a model text (2B), and also including specific comments on their texts (2A). In addition, there was clear evidence of the students using the criteria in their peer assessment (point 3), and Michael circulated the classroom checking that the students had indeed engaged in peer assessment (point 4). What is evident in the four-point structure is the encouragement of peer assessment in the classrooms, and these students also used the criteria independently during the process of writing. In addition, Example 5 illustrates Student 2's substantive suggestion (2C) and Student 1's use of a follow-up question to clarify textural elements:

Example 5. Process level (criteria and peer feedback)

Student 1: *Men det med Second Amendment, folk kan derfor bare […]*
Student 2: *Asså, jeg bruker det litt […]. Du får det, du får det jo til, men du kan også nevne at Donald Trump […]* **(2C).**
Student 1: *Ja ja, jeg syns det er ganske fett.*
Student 2: *Så lenge du får det til så er det jo, så er det jo […]*
Student 1: *Nå har jeg skrevet mye over det […], skal jeg ha det med i innledningen også?*

Student 2: *Det der* [points to text] *det er best*.

Thus, the effective feedback in S07 (10th grade), was characterized by the combination of specific feedback and procedural suggestions, involving teacher and peer feedback using the four-point procedure, and follow-up and reflective questions.

Reflective questions were also characterized by the teachers using student's past or current work to encourage idea development or thoughts that could contribute to developing the content in the task at hand. Therefore, I find it fitting to exemplify how these types of questions were used both by the teacher and by students. Example 6, from classrooms S51 (9th grade), shows the use of questions that included both specific feedback (2A) about the student's work and substantive suggestions (2C) for improvement:

Example 6. Process level (specific feedback and substantive suggestions)

Henry: Well, what we're missing is ... See, what you've done on "No Country for Old Men" [points to the students' poster], is that you've added details, what they are about, right? **(2A)**

Student 1: *Ja*

Henry: You know a coin is a symbol for what it might happen, right? You haven't done that here [points to poster]. Is there anything you remember about these pieces of literature? What happens? **(2A/C)**

Student 1: But we can ... down here ... make a new ...

Henry: Or you can pick one of them in detail down here [points to poster] **(2C).**

As Example 6 illustrates, Henry is engaged in the feedback process by first pointing out specific aspects of the students' poster (2A), before using follow-up questions and reflective questions to stimulate student ideas as a way to give substantive suggestions for improvement (2C). A similar use of questions as a way of offering substantive suggestions, were found in S51 (10th grade), and in S07 (9th grade).

Example 6 further illustrates another characterization that dominated the teachers' process level feedback in interactions with students; namely, "what" questions. "What" questions most commonly occurred when teachers wanted students to develop their ideas, define a theoretical term, or describe their thinking, as Henry does in the example above. In the material, follow-up

questions and reflective questions seemed like specifically effective strategies to encourage students' ideas and deeper learning. Such questions were used not only in these four classrooms, but also in other classrooms as part of the teachers' feedback practices, also using "why" and "how" to introduce such questions. These questions were offered in whole class situations, during group work, and for individual feedback.

Somewhat surprisingly, these interrogative words mainly occurred in situations where the teachers' feedback was on finished products, in contrast to the more typical process level feedback practices presented above. This practice occurred for instance, in classroom S13 (9th grade), where the students gave oral presentations. In S13 (9th grade), the students gave oral presentations on a prepared topic in front of the teacher, Emma, and the class. Emma, gave the students two criteria they were required to provide peer feedback on, (1) something interesting or something they had learned, and (2) something positive about the presentation (point 1). Before opening up for peer assessment, Emma asked several follow-up questions to the presentations and provided feedback (point 2) on specific elements in their presentations (2A). She then gave the students the chance to offer peer feedback in front of everyone, which focused on general aspects of the presentation (2A), using the two criteria offered (points 3 and 4). Thus, the feedback connected to the process level through Emma's extensive use of follow-up questions to activate students' ideas where she seemed to use these questions as a resource for hinting at improvements in line with substantive suggestions (2C). Although the oral presentation was a finished product in the sense that the students were not going to improve them and present them again, Emma asked several follow-up questions to encourage reflection and elaboration, demonstrating her feedback to be formative rather than summative. By doing so, her feedback could easily be transferred to future presentations.

4.2.2 Self-regulation level

In my sample, I identified three classrooms (7% of occurrences) that had effective feedback directed towards the self-regulation level (Figure 5). Feedback on the self-regulation level was characterized by students taking on an active role during the feedback situation and teachers giving the students strategies to engage in such self-regulation practices. Here, I separate between students that engaged in active help-seeking and subsequent self-regulation and students that self-regulated after the teacher had offered their feedback. As observed with feedback on the process level, the feedback practices on the self-regulation level occurred when the students were

engaged in a writing task. In the three classrooms where this practice occurred, one took place during individual work (S50, 10th grade), one in a group work situation (S51, 9th grade), and one during whole class discussion (S51, 10th grade).

Evidence of effective feedback concerning self-regulation practices in S51 and somewhat more often in 10th grade compared to 9th grade; specifically, as the students actively asked critical questions to Tessa, and used the information given as a resource to understand and regulate their task performance. Example 7 illustrates how a student used Tessa as a resource to develop a deeper understanding of how to write a persuasive essay, and the student asked questions as a strategy to evaluate her own level of understanding of the task at hand; namely how to persuade a reader. The feedback practice here was clearly transferable to future writing tasks and the underlying skills of writing essays in English:

Example 7. Self-regulation level (substantive feedback)

Student: Okay, just to repeat what I heard, you [Tessa] said that you cannot use that because you don't know what the reader might be on… which side of, like if you should wear or not wear, but aren't you supposed to persuade the reader into like, what *you* think?

Tessa: But you need to make a stand in the first paragraph **(3C),** okay?

Student: Yeah, but you're supposed to take, if they're against that, you're supposed to make them feel that they should be for [it]… right?

Tessa: Yeah, but you have five paragraphs to convince somebody of that, of your standpoint, so you need to go to a strong one **(3C).**

Student: Right, that's a good point.

Tessa: Right, because it tells you something about the standpoint that the author has.

Here, Tessa provided the student with substantive suggestions (3C) to the questions asked about the student's understanding of a persuasive essay, thus, giving the student ideas, strategies, and tools to use in order to complete the task. Evidence of similar self-regulation strategies also occurred in S51 (9th grade) and in S07 (10th grade), where teachers and students engaged in effective feedback on the self-regulation level during the process of writing. As in Example 7, the focus of these feedback practices were also to develop student ideas for writing. The main difference between these classrooms was that in S51 (9th grade), the students received feedback

from Henry without asking, whereas in S07 (10th grade) the students actively sought out specific feedback (3A) from Michael. Moreover, I identified evidence in all three classrooms that showed how teachers provided strategies and tools for the students to engage in self-regulation independently, as shown in Example 8.

Example 8. Self-regulation level (specific and substantive feedback)

Tessa: So, is that a statistic you can back up **(3A)?** Can you say [gives example]. Right, so you need to have some sort of backing, you have to quote some sort of quote that we believe in **(3C).** *Playboy* said "da da dada da", is different from *Wall Street Journal* says.

Henry: [points to a student-made poster] So a train and a river **(3A),** things like that. They normally are like symbols, underlying the theme of the story. So if you are able to connect that, to neighbors, to hills, like that's really good. I don't know if you want to add some sort of like a different thing or something, but it's uhm…something that's really good to have on the poster **(3C).**

Ragnar: *Hvis vi ser på bare den setningen:* "I love handball and wants to play it all the time" *hvis vi ser på verbene,* I love *og* wants, *det er jo* "I" *begge deler sant*, "I love and I wants"..s **(3A),** *hvorfor er det "s" der* [points] *og ikke der?* [points] *Skal det være "s" der?* **(3C).**

These examples illustrate three different ways of giving students self-regulatory feedback and strategies. Henry and Tessa (S51, 9th and 10th grade) both provided the students with strategies they could implement in their writing, thus giving them feedback that they can use when assessing and developing their work. While Ragnar (S50, 10th grade) gave specific feedback, he still provided the student with a strategy to help them to compare and understand how to assess their own text and correct mistakes. Thus, what characterized the feedback on the self-regulation level is that they all provided specific feedback with substantive suggestions in the form of examples and explanations on why and how their feedback could be beneficial for the students. In my analysis, the two feedback levels that according to Hattie and Timperley (2007) are the most significant ones in creating a deeper understanding, were indeed the two main feedback levels characteristic of effective feedback across the 12 sampled English lessons.

4.2.3 Feedback about the task

The second most frequent feedback practice (43% of occurrences) was provided on the task level (Figure 5). Task-based feedback is considered effective if it includes specific feedback used through the means of procedural suggestions (1B), in order for the student to move to a higher level of understanding. I have included such examples, to illustrate how these situations occurred in individual and group situations. For instance, in S17 (10th grade), the teacher Thea referred the students to a model text as a way to develop their ideas and understand the written genre of personal letter, which was the task they worked with. In S09 (9th grade), the teacher Petra referred to the use of sentence connectors to help vary their oral language:

Example 9. Task level – model text (procedural suggestion)

Thea: *Nei, du skal bare lage et, dette er bare eksempel på hvordan du kan skrive, hvordan brevet vårt skal skrives. Dette er et godt eksempel, sånn at du vet at dette er type høy måloppnåelse* **(1B).**

Example 10. Task level – sentence connectors (procedural suggestion)

Petra: Also, we're going to emphasize sentence connectives – connecters to connect sentences, cause when you're writing, think about it and use the books and your papers. You've got this... eh... extra information about sentence connectives. Keep this [holds up handout] about you when you're preparing your oral talk. So think a bit about how to vary your language **(1B).**

As Examples 9 and 10 illustrate, the teachers gave the students procedural suggestions on how to improve their written texts (S17) and oral presentations (S09). The same kind of practice occurred in S07 (10th grade), where Michael referred the students to handouts and other resources as ways to structure and develop their texts, and in S51 (10th grade), where Tessa included a brief elaboration on a student's answer, as specific feedback to the task at hand:

Example 11. Task level (specific feedback)

Tessa: [to student] What did your group have on… [discusses the task]. We're talking about attention getters […] will help you out.

Student:	Question: "Do you want to live in a filthy world full of garbage, dead plants, and polluted air?"
Tessa:	So, question and using some forceful pictures, right [as attention grabbers] for your listener or reader, excellent, also using repetition **(1A).** Very good.

Example 11 illustrates how Tessa gave task-based feedback in terms of correct/incorrect answers and used the situation to elaborate on what was good about the answer. Giving the students specific feedback of the suggested attention grabber may be a good way of offering feedback on the student's task accomplishment. Despite the fact that these examples include specific and procedural feedback (1A, 1B); using these suggestions may contribute to students' reflections and contribute to self-regulation. However, without explicit suggestions to this effect, the feedback on the task level might not be considered effective feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007), indicating that a large number of feedback in these classrooms may not contribute to the students' language learning.

4.2.4 Self level

The least used feedback level (3% of occurrences) was the self level (Figure 5), which according to Hattie and Timperley (2007) is the least effective feedback level. Still, in two of the classrooms (S07, S51) where effective feedback was identified, examples of feedback directed at the self level also occurred. However, these occurrences might have contributed to the completion of the task, thus possibly supporting a further understanding. Both occurrences took place in 10th grade. The first example is from S51 and shows how Tessa used a praising sentence to encourage the student to answer his own question:

Example 12. Self level (procedural suggestion)

Student:	Is it Fahrenheit or Celsius?
Tessa:	Being the intelligent young man that you are, you have already guessed it... **(4B)**
Student:	Fahrenheit
Tessa:	Yes… very good

As Example 12 illustrates, Tessa used praise as an entrance point for the student to answer the question himself, thus providing a possibility for self-assessment. Although the feedback was arguably vague, it was still effective in terms of raising the student's awareness (4B). The second

example shows how Michael in S07 (10th grade) used praise as an entrance point to raise the student's motivation and encourage their continued work with the argumentative essay concerning the US presidential election:

Example 13. Self level (substantive suggestion)

Michael: I'm sure you have a plan in your writing book or some ideas, and I'm pretty sure based on my history with you that you have an idea for who you would vote for. I mean you tend to make up your mind quite early, so I mean, just focus on the intro then, and then start with the main part *(4C),* and we'll work on this on Friday and next week as well.

As illustrated, the central aspect of this type of praise is the fact that it works as a starting point to encourage a student to develop his ideas. It also illustrates how praise can be used in effective feedback when it provides other specific and substantive suggestions as well (4C).

4.3 Chapter summary

This chapter addresses how effective feedback was provided in the sampled lessons and what characterized these feedback situations. The analysis of the video recorded material shows that in the 12 English lessons that included effective feedback, the teachers were the ones mainly giving feedback, but that there were also occurrences of peer assessment. Moreover, individual feedback on written texts was the main feedback situation, both from the teachers and from peers. Finally, the analysis showed that effective feedback occurred in all of Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback levels, but predominantly on the process level.

In section 4.1, I gave an overview of the distribution of effective feedback practices in the classrooms, in terms of how many lessons were involved, who gave the feedback during these lessons, and how the feedback utterances were distributed based on the classroom situations in which these feedback dialogues occurred. The video analysis suggests that feedback was provided predominantly by the teacher, but that effective feedback was also a shared practice among the students in half of these English lessons. In addition, effective feedback interactions primarily occurred in writing situations with students working on unfinished texts. Finally, the analysis showed that feedback was mainly given individually to students.

In section 4.2. I have provided the findings of what characterizes effective feedback in line with the model from Hattie and Timperley (2007). The video data analysis showed that effective feedback occurred most commonly on the process level (49% of occurrences) and that feedback at this level was characterized by four steps; (1) making the students aware of the assessment criteria, (2) the teacher using these criteria when giving individual feedback, (3) the students using them in their peer assessment, and (4) the teacher ensuring that the students used the criteria when engaging in peer assessment activity. In addition, the process level was characterized by two practices in the feedback dialogue; the teacher asking follow-up questions and reflective questions, and the students actively taking part in the feedback conversation. The video data analysis on the self-regulation level (7% of occurrences) showed that effective feedback was characterized by two situations; the students initiating self-regulation by asking the teacher for guidance, and the teacher initiating feedback to provide students with strategies to develop self-regulation. The teachers' practices showed that specific feedback with substantive suggestions in the form of examples end explanations were commonly used. At the task level (43% of occurrences), two main findings helped students develop their understanding, the teacher giving procedural feedback by referring to handouts and resources, and the teacher using the strategy of elaborating on students' answers. Last, the analysis showed that at the self level (1% of occurrences), praise was given as a minor part within an otherwise specific feedback situation.

To sum up, these findings indicate that effective feedback was mainly characterized by teachers giving individual feedback on students' written texts during the writing process. In the following section, I will discuss these findings in light of the theoretical framing and previous research.

5 Discussion

In this chapter, I will discuss my findings from the video-observation in view of theory and prior research, aiming to contribute to answering my research question: *How is effective feedback provided in English lower secondary classrooms and in which situations does such feedback occur?*

Research on *assessment for learning* (AfL) and the increased focus on how to implement these practices in the classroom is growing within the didactic fields of education. Within the educational field there are only a few studies investigating feedback practices in Norwegian classrooms that focus on effective feedback (Burner, 2019; Gamlem, 2013; Gamlem & Smith, 2011, 2012; Gamlem & Munthe, 2013; Horverak 2019; Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017, 2019; Saliu-Abdulahi et.al, 2017; Sandvik et al., 2012). These studies focus on feedback practices that occur in different school subjects and across various feedback practices and types of assessment. They also study feedback from both the teachers' and the students' views. Within the English subject in lower secondary classrooms there are only a few studies that have focused on the effect of feedback (Ivancevic, 2018; Olafsrud, 2019; Vattøy & Smith, 2019; Vattøy & Gamlem 2019, 2020). Since the Education Act (2009) implemented assessment regulations in Norway, UDIR has continuously provided teachers with resources to help guide them in developing their effective feedback practices, aiming to enhance students' learning. Although prior studies and the assessment regulations have contributed to developing knowledge about effective feedback, to the best of my knowledge, few studies have systematically identified effective feedback practices in the English subject across Norwegian lower secondary classrooms. Being part of the LISE project has made this possible. Thus, this MA study provides new knowledge about effective feedback practices within and across lower secondary classrooms in the 9th and 10th grade. Assessment theory suggests that that *how* feedback is provided affects the meaning of the feedback (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Grossman, 2015; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). The results in this MA study shows that there are both differences and similarities in how effective feedback practices are provided, both the classrooms situations in which they occur, and the characterization of how feedback provided through dialogues between the teacher and students.

In the following sections, I discuss what characterizes effective feedback practices identified in these classrooms and the implications of these practices (5.1). Second, I discuss how the teachers' effective feedback practices on the process and self-regulation levels may contribute to

developing students' deeper understanding (5.2). Next, I argue ways in which feedback on the task and self level may be combined with effective feedback on the other levels to encourage learning (5.3), before I suggest some didactical implications of my MA study (5.4).

5.1 What characterizes English lower secondary teachers effective feedback practices?

The analysis of the effective feedback practices identified in the video-observation showed that only 12 lessons (17%) out of 60 recorded English lessons contained effective feedback situations. These effective feedback practices occurred both in the 9th and the 10th grade classrooms and across six out of seven LISE classrooms.

Burner (2019) has argued that teachers viewed written assessment as more challenging than oral assessment. My study did not investigate written feedback practices, but the effective assessment practices identified showed that when teachers engaged in oral feedback practices, these efforts seemed both powerful and less challenging than what prior research might indicate. I will also argue that although 17% might seem like a low percentage, it is not necessarily low. If all English teachers provided oral assessment in 17% of their lessons, students would be assessed effectively in their English classroom close to every fifth lesson or every other week. Such a scenario would be optimistic and encouraging, especially considering that all lessons should not include assessment. Another optimistic aspect of the effective assessment in these classrooms, is the fact that half of the lessons involved peer feedback in addition to feedback from the English teacher.

Since the most common feedback situations occurred during individual text writing activities, the oral feedback occurred prior to or instead of written feedback on the finished texts. The benefit of providing oral feedback during process writing is to offer students the opportunity to receive feedback in dialogue with the teacher. Thus, the students have the opportunity to revise their texts while discussing the oral feedback with the teacher or peers, such as in S07 and S50 in my sample (see also Olafsrud, 2019). Prior research on feedback practices indicated that students desired dialogic feedback interaction (Burner, 2019; Gamlem & Munthe, 2013; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Vattøy et al, 2020) and the opportunities for text revision (Burner, 2019; Horverak, 2019; Saliu-Abdulahi et.al, 2017; Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017, 2019; Vattøy et al, 2020). Students' desire for more revision opportunities could be included as part of oral feedback practices as evidenced in my study. My analysis suggests that the feedback was mainly provided *during* the

writing process, providing the students with the opportunity to revise while actively engaging in the task and with students implementing the oral feedback *during* and not *after* the lessons.

Providing these opportunities could also be beneficial for students, as this activity may contribute to their engagement in correcting errors as they may see more value in revision during the writing process than after the text is finished (Burner, 2019; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017, 2019; Vattøy et.al, 2020). Saliu-Abdulahi (2017) argued for such practices as she found that students desired verbal clarification of the written feedback that the teachers provided on written texts. My analysis further showed that feedback to the individual student was most common in the sampled classrooms, indicating that individual feedback was prioritized in the classroom (of. also Olafsrud, 2019). The oral feedback given during the process writing focused on two specific criteria: ideas and language. This finding is an important contribution as research indicates that the use of dialogic feedback interactions is not commonly provided in classrooms (Gamlem & Munthe, 2013; Vattøy & Gamlem, 2019, 2020).

Oral feedback provided in groups and in whole class situations occurred equally in all the 12 lessons and these were also provided during process writing tasks. Saliu-Abdulahi (2017) and Saliu-Abdulahi et.al (2017) found that feedback in whole class situations was often characterized by the teacher informing students of common mistakes made on finished student texts, focusing on general mistakes that often occurred in these texts. Interestingly, in S51, the teacher introduced the writing task by including comments on students' previous work argumentative techniques offering specific feedback on some of the students' prior contributions, simultaneously explaining why such argumentative techniques were beneficial and how to use them in their current writing. As this occurred in whole class situations, the teacher provided both individual feedback to students and gave the other students tools and resources to use when writing their argumentative texts. The fact that effective feedback was offered in individual, group and whole class situations, suggests the possibility to integrate effective feedback into several situations. By implementing effective oral feedback in all such classroom situations, the teacher can provide several students with the same type of feedback, while also providing feedback more tailored to individual students' needs (KD, 2009).

The analysis showed that four teachers provided effective feedback across several lessons: Michael (S07, 9th and 10th grade), Emma (S13, 9th grade), Ragnar (S50, 10th grade), and Tessa (S51, 10th grade). This finding indicates that effective feedback practices are part of their instructional repertoires. For instance, in S07, Michael's feedback practices both in 9th and 10th

grade show evidence of him providing effective feedback across both school years. These findings suggest that Michael was consistent with his feedback practices and that the students were familiar with this procedure of receiving and giving effective feedback. Interestingly, these teachers' feedback practices provided effective feedback by both the teacher and peers except of Tessa (S51, 10th grade), where feedback was provided by the teacher only. My analysis showed that the effective feedback was provided almost as often by peers as by the teachers, with six teachers having lessons with feedback solely provided from the teacher and five with feedback from both the teacher and fellow peers. These findings align with Burner (2019) who emphasized that students should be involved in various assessment practices. Working continuously with oral assessment in dialogue with the students and including peer assessment in classrooms are in line with the Vygotskian perspective that students should be engaged and active in the social environment in order to develop their competence and proceed to the next stage of development (Brevik, 2015; Dysthe, 1999; Vygotsky, 1987). As shown in the findings chapter, there was a clear structure of how the teachers engaged the students in peer assessment, which will be further discussed in section 5.2.2 below.

5.2 Guiding a deeper understanding through effective feedback

The two most effective feedback levels in my study were the process level and self-regulation levels, based on the descriptions in Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback model. In this section, I address the characterization of the process and self-regulation levels. These are discussed in greater length and detail than the task level and self level, with the argument that the two former levels are the most relevant ones in developing learning for students, which is the target of effective feedback (Black & Wiliam, 1998, 2018; KD, 2009).

According to Hattie and Timperley (2007), the process and self-regulation feedback levels develop a deeper understanding of learning and contribute to reducing the knowledge gap between current and desired performance of tasks. Central to both of these feedback levels is the construction of meaning through cognitive processes and internalizing feedback to engage in self-assessment and more difficult tasks. This perspective aligns with Grossman (2015) who stated that feedback that evaluates and provides specific information and guides further improvement with substantive suggestions enables students to understand the quality of their performance and is central in verbal feedback. It is worth noting that Hattie and Timperley (2007) expressed the

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concern that feedback should preferably not be specific, as it might be challenging for students to transfer specific feedback to other tasks. According to Grossman's (2015) definition of effective feedback, however, feedback needs to be specific in order to be effective, thus indicating that effective feedback should be relevant both for the current and future work. The teachers in the observed video-recordings provided feedback that consisted of both specific aspects of the students' work and procedural and substantive feedback concerning language and genre, thus potentially making them transferrable to future tasks.

As the analysis in my study showed that the teachers provided feedback at both the process and the self-regulation level, it might suggest that the students need support during their learning process before being able to develop on a self-regulatory level. Another explanation might be that the teachers find the process level to be easier to provide feedback on in the classroom. This notion is further acknowledged by the fact that feedback at the self-regulation level only occurred in three classrooms a few times. The characterization of the effective feedback situations provided in these lower secondary classrooms, aligns with Hattie and Timperley's (2007) description of effective feedback levels, which is further discussed below.

5.2.1 Feedback provided at the process level

The most common type of feedback provided by the teachers occurred at the process level (49% of occurrences), where the students and teachers had interactions about the student's current work and about how to improve their work. In line with Hattie and Timperley (2007), the feedback on this level was characterized by the student's engagement with the feedback and the teachers providing substantive suggestions for how to improve the work as well as strategies to engage in the feedback and conduct corrections. Moreover, Hattie and Timperley (2007) express the significance of this feedback level as crucial for the development of students' deep understanding of learning which is highly important to understand how this level might be used in English lessons.

The most characteristic feature of the teachers' feedback on the process level was the use of follow-up questions and reflective questions to encourage the students to elaborate and reflect on their own work. The structure of these feedback situations was commonly that the teacher first provided specific feedback on the work in process and positive aspects of the work, in line with the goals and criteria given. According to Mercer and Littleton's (2007) the use of "why" and "how" questions to provide students with the opportunity elaborate and give reasons for their

choices. By doing so, the teachers also provide room for students to elongate their contributions and guide the students' development of understanding. The follow-up questions that occurred in the sampled classrooms align with Mercer and Littleton's (2007) descriptions of "why", "how" and "what" questions and their function as reasoning words for students to practice elaboration and reflection on their own work. Arguably, although such questions were mainly related to finished products in this study, they should also be relevant in situations where students are working with a task *in* process. However, a possible reason for these to be used less *in* process could be the fact that the teachers found them to be more relevant when trying to understand students' reasoning and as a possible strategy to encourage self-assessment and self-regulation.

Both follow-up questions and reflective questions have beneficial contributions to help the students understand their work and how to proceed, and also to develop their thinking in future tasks. Moreover, the active use and combination of follow-up questions and reflective questions may help guide students to develop a deeper understanding of the task requirements. My analysis indicated that the teachers often provided specific feedback about the task before engaging in substantive suggestions on how to improve. Thus, a gap occurred after the specific feedback was offered and before the substantive suggestions and this is where most feedback dialogues between the teacher and students occurred. First, the students were provided with specific feedback, and then encouraged to reflect, explain, and elaborate, and this feedback was a part of a dialogue between the student and the teacher. The teacher used the dialogue to listen to and guide the students and their contributions by using these follow-up questions and reflective questions before responding with a substantive suggestion for further task improvement. This practice allowed the students to participate in self-assessment and provided the teacher with information about individual students' perception of their work and help clarify these.

The analysis showed that all the sampled teachers used feedback interactions with students to provide both specific feedback and substantial suggestions, while also including students in the process by giving them strategies and the opportunity to reflect on and discuss with the teacher and peers when working. Gamlem and Munthe (2013) stated that, "feedback to support learning is dependent on quality dimensions of the feedback provided and the ability to (inter)act upon it. Dialogic teaching may, therefore, be considered the hinge for formative feedback to support learning" (p. 79). As mentioned, students' perspectives on feedback practices shows a desire for more one-on-one discussions with the teacher, where verbal clarification of feedback might occur (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Saliu-Abdulahi; 2017). Despite the desire for more dialogic interaction,

research on teachers' feedback practices show that such practices are rarely used and that when interaction does occur, there is a lack of teacher engagement with students' perspectives (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Vattøy & Gamlem, 2019). Interestingly, these studies indicate missed opportunities for teachers to engage in dialogic feedback interactions and express the need for more oral support for students during the work process. Interestingly, Ivancevic (2018) found that in 9th grade vague feedback on the process level occurred mainly in group situations. This finding aligns with my study where feedback at the process level was provided mainly in group situations in 9th grade, whereas feedback on the process level in 10th grade more often occurred as individual feedback. A possible reason for the shift from group to more individual feedback on the process level in 10th grade could be the emphasis of individual development during lower secondary school. The teachers' more direct focus on individual students might provide feedback fitted to their specific needs, as 10th grade is the final year of lower secondary school before applying to upper secondary school.

Thus, this finding may indicate that the teachers build on their students' former experiences with group related feedback and developing their strategies and understanding on an individual level to increase students' self-regulation before exams and final grades. Black and Wiliam (1998, 2009) argue that providing feedback more tailored to students' specific needs is indeed effective.

5.2.2 A four-point feedback structure on the process level

A dominant characteristic of the feedback on the process level in my study, was a four-point structure. The four-point structure consisted of, (1) the teacher informed the students about the task goals and the feedback criteria (2) the teachers themselves using the criteria when providing feedback to students, (3) the students using the criteria actively in their peer assessment, and (4) the teacher checking the students' engagement with criteria in the peer feedback. My study showed that four of the classrooms engaged in this four-point feedback structure. The only difference between the classrooms was the feedback situations that they were applied to and that some teachers used it more consistently than others. Vattøy et al. (2020) argue that students find specific, useful, and applicable feedback crucial to strengthening their learning possesses, underlying the relevance of this finding.

Specifically, in S07 (10th grade) and S50 (10th grade), both Michael and Ragnar provided their students with specific criteria they wanted them to use when engaging in the peer assessment activity. Michael also explicitly requested effective feedback by exemplifying vague feedback

comments that are commonly provided and that he wanted the students to avoid. Research on peer assessment has found that it does not occur systematically and that students express challenges with the trustworthiness and honesty when receiving and providing feedback to peers (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Sali-Abdulahi, 2017; Saliu-Abdulahi et.al, 2017). Thus, informing the students about such guidelines may help them to provide and receive feedback, and prepare them for the feedback that will and should be provided from the teacher as well as peers. It is thus highly beneficial for teachers to offer explicit feedback criteria to the students before they engage in peer assessment. Consequently, by discussing the criteria, the teachers emphasized what the students should focus on when providing peer feedback, which in turn may contribute predictability and structure in the peer assessment process. Hattie and Timperley (2007) label such criteria *challenging goals* or *success criteria* and argue that having such criteria will guide the students in their peer and self-assessment because they contribute to the students' understanding of task-level performance.

Moreover, Gamlem and Smith (2013) stated that the classroom climate contributes to the use and completion of peer feedback. They further argued that to develop effective peer assessment, the teacher needs to teach students feedback skills by providing clear criteria and engage in specific feedback interventions to ensure students' engagement in and the usefulness of the peer assessment. Self-engagement was exactly what occurred in the four classrooms where the four-point feedback structure was implemented.

The strategic use of effective feedback instruction could also encourage students to become more secure in peer feedback interactions and place a greater value on their contributions. Another possibility in order to address the value for peer assessment could be when the teacher actively checks the process of peer feedback interactions. This situation might cause the students to become more committed and develop a sense of predictability and security in the process, as the teacher validates the feedback provided by the peers. Thus, such teacher engagement may help contribute to the students' confidence in their own assessment ability and help them become more independent, further encouraging the development of self-regulation. The videos and the transcriptions show the students actively engaging in the peer assessment and using the criteria provided by the teacher, thus making it easier for the students to provide specific feedback relevant to the task. The assessment regulations in the Education Act (KD, 2009) states that offering the criteria of an assessment situation develops the students' understanding of the goals and expectations, and the desired learning outcomes. Similarly, Burner (2019) stated that students

"appreciate being involved in assessment practices" (p. 10), which aligns with dialogic feedback situations that include both teacher-student and peer interactions.

5.2.3 Feedback provided on the self-regulation level

Even though feedback on the self-regulation level only occurred in three of the LISE classrooms and only in a few feedback situations (7% of occurrences), the dialogues directed at the self-regulation level that did happen were unique in guiding students' deeper understanding. Hattie and Timperley (2007) point to the fact that during self-regulation feedback, students and teachers engage in feedback that regulates students' actions to achieve the learning goal. Vattøy and Smith (2019) stated that knowledge of the learning goals related to teachers' feedback is of importance for the students' own feelings of the capability to self-regulate.

Self-regulation practices do not seem very common in secondary classrooms in Norway. Ivancevic (2018) found zero occurrences of self-regulatory practices in her 9th grade material, probably because her study focused on vague feedback. This difference is to be expected as feedback on the self-regulatory level is considered effective feedback. However, since only three of the lessons in my study included either teachers or students using such feedback strategies, this could indicate that there is room for teachers to encourage self-regulation to build students' own independence by working with self-regulation feedback. Vattøy and Gamlem's (2020) study showed that teachers scored low on instructional support and that this result "indicate a struggle to facilitate clear learning goals, deep understanding of content, and feedback dialogues that expand on student learning" (p. 14). Their results confirm the need for development and more focus on guiding students' ability to self-regulate through feedback. Vattøy and Gamlem (2020) also stressed that the development of such practices is central as the teacher in such situations provides more self-regulation opportunities that will be crucial for the student's consideration of the value of feedback and their own learning.

Among the occurrences of self-regulation practices I did find, there is a difference between the students' own initiative to self-regulate and the teachers' encouraging of self-regulation practices by providing feedback. The students' own initiatives occurred only in S51 (10th grade), where the students actively addressed the teacher to confirm and ask questions to deepen their own understanding. The students' use of the teacher as a resource to develop their ideas and to understand the criteria can be considered instrumental help-seeking, which according to Hattie and Timperley (2007) occurs when students ask questions that provide them with hints of the

answer and not the answer itself, arguing that higher level of instrumental help-seeking is a sign of self-regulation feedback practices. The high occurrence of feedback on the self-regulation level suggests that the teachers in this study provided the students with opportunities in the classroom to expand on and increase their metacognitive skills.

The self-regulation practices identified in my study, were characterized by teachers' initiatives to encourage self-regulation through feedback, including both specific feedback and substantive suggestions. For instance, both teachers in S51 (9th and 10th grade) gave the students strategies on how to write on a global level, the main idea being that the teachers provided strategies to the students without using the questions that were often provided with feedback on the process level. Instead, students had to use the strategies to consider how to use them to develop their texts. I argue that the use of strategies and feedback at the self-regulation level help the students develop. By using this type of feedback, they may internalize what types of critical ideas and thinking may enhance their work without assistance from the teacher. On the other hand, the teacher in S50, Ragnar, gave individual self-regulation feedback to students' written work on a local level. He provided feedback that concentrated on a specific part of the text using reflective questions when providing specific feedback. This practice shows that questions can also be used to encourage self-regulation practices. Arguably, specific feedback could be less effective to this purpose, as Saliu-Abdulahi (2017) argued that feedback that is too text specific is less transferrable compared to more generic or global feedback, although, specific feedback is highly valued by students (Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017). However, using these types of self-regulation practices could help provide students with more confidence and encourage them to become more effective learners that possess the ability to incorporate strategies in their current and future tasks (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

My analysis shows a potential for the development of self-regulation feedback practices. Since all classrooms in my sample included occurrences of feedback on the process level, where the students were actively included to reflect on the feedback and not just passive recipients of feedback, there are indications that teachers value their students' reflections. Vattøy and Smith (2019) argued that students are participating equally in dialogic feedback when they are providing teachers with feedback as well as receiving it. Feedback practices that involves a focus on developing self-regulation has the potential to increase the occurrences of such dialogic feedback interactions in the classrooms. Moreover, most English teachers in my study included peer feedback, which could be highly beneficial to develop further, in line with the assessment

regulations (KD, 2009), particularly, if teachers actively stimulate and provide self-regulatory feedback practices throughout the school years. Hattie and Timperley (2007) state that when students are more experienced with self-regulation and self-assessment strategies, they will know "how and when to seek and receive feedback from others. Students' willingness to invest effort in seeking and dealing with feedback information relates to the transaction costs invoked at the self-regulatory level" (p. 94). The possibility of building on and elevating the already existing feedback practices provided on the process level, by the means of teacher's guidance in the form of strategies and tools, should be implemented in more classrooms, thus, helping to develop more independent students that actively engage in self-regulation.

5.3 The role of task level and self level in effective feedback situations

Hattie and Timperley (2007) argue that feedback about the task and feedback about the self as a person are the least effective forms of feedback. They argue that feedback about the task has the potential to be useful if the feedback provided contains task information when students have misunderstood or lack the necessary knowledge, and thus functions as further task instructions. Moreover, when teachers provide feedback on the task level that is less specific and more procedural, there is a chance of increasing the effect of such feedback. In my material, I found that feedback on the task level was the second most occurring feedback provided by the teachers. This is not surprising, as several researchers have found that this is the most common feedback type provided by teachers and that it is usually given at a specific level where they address students' completion of tasks (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Vattøy & Gamlem, 2020).

Two MA theses that further confirm these results are Ivancevic (2018) and Dåsvatn (2016), where both studies found that feedback about the task was most commonly used. Ivancevic (2018) argued that positive confirmation on students' correct answers was a characteristic of the teachers' vague feedback practices related to the task level in classroom discussions. The task-level feedback that I found in my study showed that teachers mainly provided feedback about the task to confirm correct/incorrect answers. However, what was notable, was the fact that most of the teachers added either reflective questions or elaborated on the student's answers in these situations, which might offer an explanation to how feedback about the task might be more effective in these situations. By repeating and elaborating on students' answers, this may contribute to the students' understanding of what is required in a task and thus function as further

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task instruction, thereby encouraging students' thinking. Moreover, I also found that teachers in three classrooms used procedural suggestions in the form of model texts and handouts when students asked task-related questions. Burner (2019) argued that students desired model texts in classroom situations, suggesting that the use of model texts in response to student's task questions could be a tool that may encourage students' own independent thinking and teach them how to use resources provided as a way to develop their work. For instance, in S17 (10th grade), Tassa used a model of a personal letter and referenced the model text several times throughout the lesson. Such practices might help teachers and students to create more opportunities for the development of a deeper understanding by providing formative feedback situations on the task level.

The self level feedback is stated by Hattie and Timperley (2007) to be the least effective type of feedback on its own, and it should therefore come as no surprise that it occurs very seldom in my material, which is specifically sampled because of its focus on effective feedback. However, the examples provided in my study show how teachers can use positive praise if it is included in other, more informative aspects of feedback on the student's work, or as an entry point to encourage ideas and beliefs in their thoughts and work. Thus, the self level is mainly beneficial for motivation and the possibility of encouraging learning in order for students to connect to the completion of tasks (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

5.4 Didactical implications

Based on my findings and the discussion above, I would like to present some didactical implications that are purposeful to address for English teachers in their instruction.

First, central to providing effective feedback, is the use of specific feedback and substantial suggestions for further improvement and a deeper understanding of learning (Grossman, 2015; KD, 2009). An implication is that students should not only be informed by feedback, but also be included in dialogic understanding and conscious use of the feedback. Teachers should actively focus on including students to partake in self-assessment. Moreover, peer assessment should be used as a systematic assessment practice that includes all students. By systematically exposing the students to peer assessment, it will increase their understanding of the role of feedback and may contribute to strengthening the belief in the value of feedback and text revision.

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Second, to develop in-depth learning, students should be exposed to tools and resources to help them become aware of strategies they can implement in their self and peer assessment. These are developed and provided at the process level and self-regulation level, where the use of follow-up questions and reflective questions, as well as model texts or other written resources, could help the students take part and understand the feedback as a resource to develop deeper knowledge. Moreover, by teachers specifying feedback criteria to the students and actively using these when providing feedback, the students may develop knowledge of how to read texts in a more structured and critical way, and by practicing these procedures actively, they might build a stronger foundation for self-regulation.

Third, I want to emphasize the value of developing effective feedback from the task level via process level to the self-regulation level. Since prior research and my MA study show that feedback on the task level is the most common feedback type, there is much potential in building on these feedback practices. One way of doing this, is by continuously providing feedback that elaborates on the students' answers, either by asking reflective questions or follow-up questions to their right/wrong answers, or directing and building on their ideas to train them in critical thinking, aiming towards self-regulation.

In this chapter, I have also discussed the ways in which English teachers provide effective feedback by including the students in dialogic feedback interaction. Thus, creating space for them to become independent thinkers and to benefit from the effective feedback practices by creating a deeper understanding of learning is imperative, not only concerning the educational knowledge they develop, but also an awareness of their own strategies and thinking tools transferrable to other tasks and situations. Such awareness is developed with the help and guidance of their teachers, helping them to become aware of strategies and the critical questions one could ask students. Specifically, English teachers should combine specific feedback and substantive suggestions to guide students' development. Finally, English teachers should encourage critical thinking among the students, of their own and others' texts through self and peer assessment practices.

6 Conclusion

In this final chapter, I conclude by summarizing my main findings and their contributions. Next, I give some suggestions for further research (6.1) before providing some concluding remarks (6.2).

My MA study aimed to answer the following research question: *How is effective feedback provided in English lower secondary classrooms and in which situations does such feedback occur?* I based my study on video recordings from 12 English lessons across years 9 and 10 in Norwegian lower secondary schools. I used secondary data collected by the LISE project and found that effective feedback occurred in six out of seven lower secondary classrooms. For each video recording, I examined what characterized effective formative feedback and the situation in which such feedback occurred. When presenting what characterized the effective feedback in these English lessons, I have shown how the distribution of the feedback was provided on the basis of feedback situations in the classroom.

My first main finding was that the effective feedback practices provided by the English teachers were characterized by three distinctive aspects. First, effective feedback was most commonly provided in individual interactions between the teacher and the student. Second, effective feedback was provided predominantly while students were working on writing tasks. Third, effective feedback in the English classroom was provided mainly *during* the process of conducting a task rather than on *completed* task performances. Providing feedback *during* the activity offered the students the opportunity to revise before submitting and re-submitting texts, which is beneficial for their involvement in the feedback process (Brevik & Blikstad-Balas, 2014; Horverak, 2019; Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017, 2019).

I identified Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback levels relevant for the effective feedback provided by the sampled teachers. My second main finding was that the most frequently occurring feedback level was the *process* level and at this level, I found a common four-point feedback structure that occurred in four classrooms. The four-point structure included, (1) setting criteria for peer assessment, (2) the teacher actively using these criteria when providing individual feedback, (3) the students using the criteria during peer assessment, and (4) the teacher checking the students' use of the criteria after the completion of peer assessment. An interesting finding in itself is the active use of peer assessment, which was observed in five classrooms. The effective feedback at the process level included frequent use of questions. These were follow-up questions and reflective questions aiming at providing the students with opportunities to elaborate

and reflect on their work. There was also a high occurrence of the self-regulation feedback level in the material. Within the field of feedback research here is a call for more student involvement in feedback situations (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Gamlem & Munthe, 2013; Saliu-Abdulahi, 2017; Vattøy & Gamlem, 2019). This MA thesis contributes to the research on effective feedback in English lessons and insight into how such feedback is conducted in naturally occurring instruction, specifically by showing how dialogic feedback occurred as part of instructional support.

The third main finding in this study was that feedback at the *task* level was the second-highest occurring feedback level, in line with other research studies (Ivancevic, 2018; Vattøy & Gamlem, 2020). Interestingly, although it was not the most frequently occurring level, task-based feedback was still greatly used in the sampled classrooms in my study. The English teachers provided feedback at the task level that included answers to the student's correct/incorrect answers by repeating and elaborating on the student's contributions. Moreover, some teachers referred to procedural suggestions in the form of model texts and handouts or giving task-related information. These practices indicate a development, starting with the task level, via the process level, to the self-regulation level, sometimes occurring during the same feedback situation.

6.1 Suggestions for further research

The limited research focusing specifically on what characterizes English teachers' effective feedback practices in English lessons in lower secondary classrooms in Norway, suggests a need for further research in this field. My first suggestion is that research may be conducted concerning *which* feedback strategies teachers implement in the classroom and *why.* The English teacher is significant in guiding and developing learning through the process of providing feedback, thus more research should be conducted on the reasoning behind effective feedback practices. By conducting, for example, stimulated recall interviews with teachers and showing them video segments of their feedback practices, it could contribute to more in-depth insight into the feedback practices and teachers' reasoning. Moreover, a larger sample may also be beneficial to further enlighten the oral feedback practices that occur in English lessons in Norway, or following the same teachers over time in a longitudinal design.

Since the English subject aims to develop both written and oral skills, and since my research showed that English teachers' oral feedback practices dominated in situations where students

were working on writing tasks, more research should investigate how teachers provide effective feedback on oral presentations and other oral contributions. Research concerning *how* and *why* teachers conduct the effective oral assessment, in addition to which feedback levels teachers direct most of their oral feedback on, would be interesting to investigate, both in lower and upper secondary school.

6.2 Concluding remarks

The experience of writing this thesis has been invaluable to my increased and deepened knowledge of the importance of effective formative feedback and how my role as an English teacher can influence students' learning through the feedback process. Having observed a vast number of English teachers and their oral feedback practices, I have come to realize that creating the opportunity for students to engage in feedback regularly is of curtail importance for their understanding and development in the English subject. Moreover, what has been the most educational is the newfound repertoire and understanding of the significance of the effective feedback and how this may be provided in different classroom environments and situations.

I have been inspired by the feedback practices observed by the English teachers in my study. They have shown, in various ways, how to include students in the feedback process and how to provide strategies and resources that could contribute to their current and future understanding and assessment of their own and others' work. This study has helped me understand the significance of my role as an English teacher and how my feedback practices can help students develop as learners. Hopefully, this study has brought focus to the importance of effective feedback and shown how effective feedback situations can help students develop deeper understanding of learning.

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