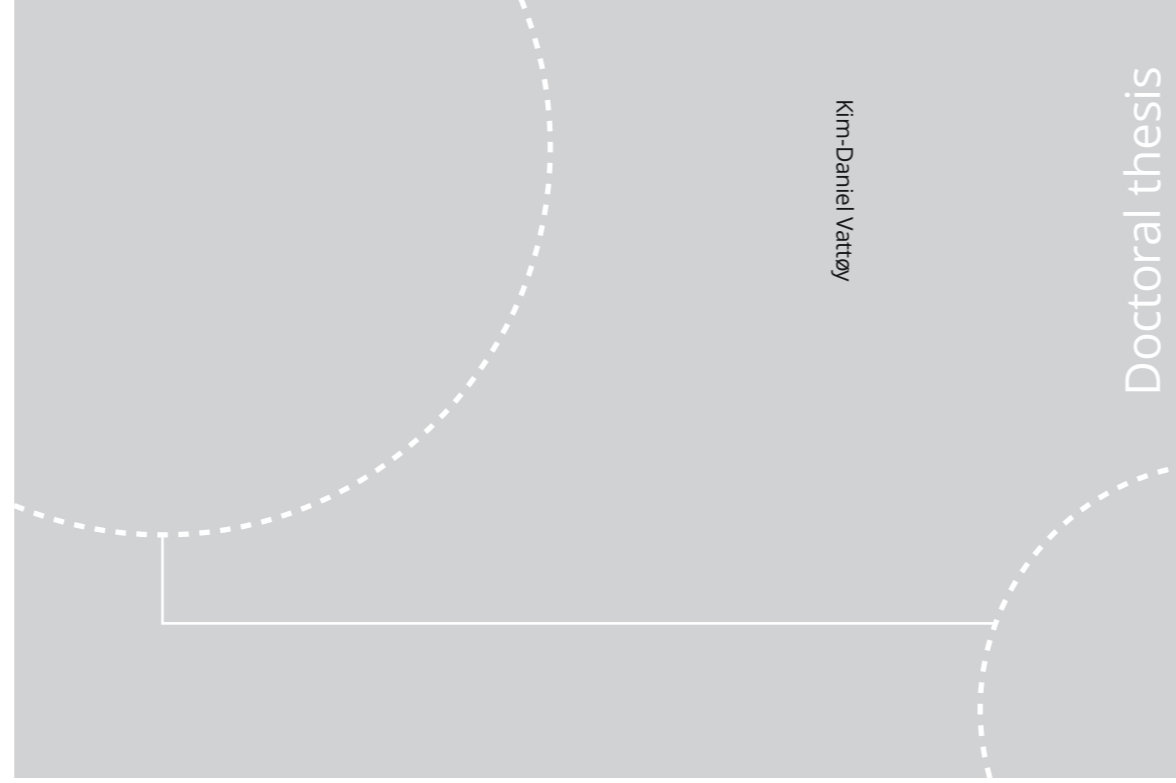


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Thesis for the Degree of
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Kim-Daniel Vattøy

Feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching English as a foreign language

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Thesis for the Degree of Philosophiae Doctor

Trondheim, October 2020

Norwegian University of Science and Technology
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Extended abstract

The objective of the thesis is to examine conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). The thesis comprises three articles and a meta-text. The research is conducted in Norwegian lower secondary school and considers three distinct perspectives: the classroom perspective (art. I); the student perspective (art. II); and the teacher perspective (art. III). Feedback practice is understood as how feedback is exercised in classroom settings based on the beliefs teachers and students hold about feedback. Responsive pedagogy is conceptualised as a recursive dialogue between the learner's internal feedback and external feedback provided by significant others, focused on self-regulation and self-efficacy. The overarching research question is: 'What are conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching English as a foreign language?'. The overarching research question is answered by three sub-questions, corresponding with each of the three articles of the thesis.

The theoretical framework of the thesis considers feedback practice as responsive pedagogy embedded in learning-oriented assessment and social cognitive theory. Social cognitive theory highlights students' self-regulation and self-efficacy. A social cognitive view of responsive pedagogy posits that students exercise agency in feedback dialogues recursively between internal and external feedback through three phases of self-regulation: forethought; monitoring; and self-reflection. In this perspective, students' behaviour is neither externally controlled nor mechanically shaped as students' exercise personal efficacy through a system of triadic reciprocal causation. Learning-oriented assessment recognises the joint involvement of teachers and students in feedback processes. Assessment as learning is a concern of responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL as the external target language (L2) feedback dialogue activates the internal L2 feedback dialogue of the learner.

Data consisted of three samples and three data collections: i. video observation (65 lessons; two schools); ii. student surveys (1137 students; six schools); and iii. teacher interviews (10 teachers; two schools). Through an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, classroom, student, and teacher perspectives were studied by use of quantitative and qualitative methods. Instruments were the Classroom Assessment Scoring System–Secondary Manual (CLASS-S), the Responsive Pedagogy Questionnaire (RPQ), and the Responsive Pedagogy Interview Guide (RPIG). All instruments and procedures were piloted prior to data collection.

Four conditions for feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL were identified: i. a shift in thinking towards L2 feedback dialogues; ii. fostering internal L2 feedback; iii. a culture for self-efficacious feedback in EFL; and iv. capitalising on students' EFL competence.

First, the relevance of L2 feedback dialogues was emphasised in the exploration of the first sub-question, although feedback was often controlling or resembling Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) interactions in the first language (L1). High perceived self-efficacy, external goal orientation, and opportunity to self-regulate learning were considered important for feedback dialogues in the analyses of the second sub-question. Yet, the findings associated with the third sub-question identified a structural constraint in terms of a hidden summative system that hindered the full potential for formative feedback practices with teachers experiencing difficulties with dialogic feedback.

Second, supporting students' own internal L2 feedback indicates an important move for self-regulated learning in teaching EFL. However, the general absence of facilitation of self-regulated learning and great variation of teacher L2 use related to the first sub-question highlighted that this was an area of improvement. The results from the exploration of the second sub-question suggested that aspects of self-regulated learning and self-efficacy were crucial for students' perceived usefulness of feedback. However, the beliefs of the interviewed EFL teachers from the analyses of the third sub-question indicated that the teachers were divided as to whether self-regulated learning was useful for students. In addition, some of the teachers expressed that more L2 use was an improvement aspect of their teaching.

Third, a culture for self-efficacious feedback in teaching EFL recognises that feedback should not only accelerate learning but also strengthen students' self-beliefs and confidence in the L2. The results from the exploration of the first sub-question indicated that teachers' feedback was more approving/disapproving than self-efficacious. The path analysis related to the second sub-question strengthened the understanding of how students' self-efficacy was associated with their perceptions of feedback practice, but that they also had to experience the EFL teaching as enjoyable and have opportunities to self-regulate their learning along with an awareness of learning goals. The findings from the analyses of the third sub-question showed that teachers had different beliefs of the relevance of self-efficacy facilitation. For some teachers, adjusting students' expectations and beliefs to fit with the summative examination system was more important.

The fourth condition for feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL is related to capitalising on students' EFL competence. This is a realisation that students possess knowledge and skills that can be utilised in classroom teaching. The analyses of the first sub-question, however, pointed in the direction that teachers only to a low extent recognised students' EFL competence or interests. The great variation in L2 use for teachers highlighted teacher differences in the willingness to communicate in the L2, which consequently affected students' L2 use. The results associated with the second sub-question suggested that students were divided as to whether they found the teaching of EFL enjoyable with a generally low mean score. The analyses of the third sub-question indicated a theory-practice gap in teachers' beliefs as the ideal was fostering L2 communicative competence, but that practices often consisted of correction and testing.

The thesis suggests that feedback practice as responsive pedagogy might be embedded in a learning-oriented assessment framework and social cognitive theory. The theoretical framework highlights how feedback dialogues could be facilitated in a way that might foster students' self-regulation, self-efficacy, and L2 communicative competence. The explanatory sequential mixed methods design was used to examine feedback practice as responsive pedagogy from classroom, student, and teacher perspectives. Basing the teaching of EFL more in L2 feedback dialogues might develop teachers' and students' feedback literacy, as both teachers and students need to be feedback literate and actively participating in responsive pedagogy.

Utvida samandrag

Føremålet med denne avhandlinga er å undersøkje vilkår som legg til rette for tilbakemeldingspraksis som responsiv pedagogikk i engelskundervisninga. Avhandlinga består av tre artiklar og ein meta-tekst. Forskinga er gjennomført i norsk ungdomsskule og ser på tre distinkte perspektiv: klasseromspektivet (art. I), elevperspektivet (art. II) og lærarperspektivet (art. III). Tilbakemeldingspraksis er forstått som korleis tilbakemelding vert praktisert i klasseromskontekstar basert på dei forståingane lærarar og elevar har om tilbakemelding. Responsiv pedagogikk er definert som ein rekursiv dialog mellom elevens interne tilbakemelding og ekstern tilbakemelding gitt av signifikante andre med fokus på sjølvregulering og meistringsforventing. Den overordna problemstillinga er: «Kva er vilkår som legg til rette for tilbakemeldingspraksis som responsiv pedagogikk i engelskundervisninga?». Den overordna problemstillinga er svara på ved hjelp av tre underspørsmål som korresponderer med kvar av dei tre artiklane i avhandlinga.

Det teoretiske rammeverket for avhandlinga forstår tilbakemeldingspraksis som responsiv pedagogikk som del av læringsorientert vurdering og sosial-kognitiv teori. Sosial-kognitiv teori legg vekt på elevs sjølvregulering og meistringsforventing. Eit sosial-kognitivt syn på responsiv pedagogikk hevdar at elevar utøver agentskap i tilbakemeldingsdialogar rekursivt mellom intern og ekstern tilbakemelding gjennom tre fasar av sjølvregulering: førehandsvurdering, overvaking og refleksjon. I dette perspektivet er elevs atferd korkje eksternt kontrollert eller mekanisk forma, sidan elevar utøver personleg påverknad gjennom eit system av triadisk gjensidig kausalitet. Lærings-orientert vurdering anerkjenner den gjensidige involveringa av lærarar og elevar i tilbakemeldingsprosessar. Vurdering som læring er ein del av responsiv pedagogikk i engelskundervisninga sidan ekstern målspørsmål(L2)-tilbakemeldingsdialogar aktiverer den interne L2-tilbakemeldingsdialogen til eleven.

Dataa bestod av tre utval og tre datamateriale: i. video-observasjon (65 undervisningstimar; to skular); ii. elevspørjeundersøking (1137 elevar; seks skular) og iii. lærarintervju (10 lærarar; to skular). Gjennom eit forklarande sekvensielt mixed methods design, vart klasseroms-, elev- og lærarperspektiva undersøkt ved bruk av kvantitative og kvalitative metodar. Instrumenta som vart nytta var Classroom Assessment Scoring System–Secondary Manual (CLASS-S), responsive pedagogikk-spørjeskjemaet og responsive pedagogikk intervjuguiden. Alle instrument og prosedyrar vart piloterte før gjennomføringa av datainnsamlinga.

Fire vilkår for tilbakemeldingspraksis som responsiv pedagogikk i engelskundervisninga vart identifisert: i. eit tankeskifte mot L2 tilbakemeldingsdialogar; ii. fremjing av intern L2 tilbakemelding; iii. ein kultur for meistringsforventingsprega tilbakemelding og iv. gjere nytte av elevars engelskkompetanse.

For det fyrste vart relevansen av L2 tilbakemeldingsdialogar understreka i undersøkinga av det fyrste underspørsmålet, sjølv om tilbakemelding var ofte kontrollerande eller likna initiering–respons–evaluering (IRE)-interaksjonar på fyrstespråket (L1). Høg oppfatta meistringsforventing, ekstern målorientering og moglegheit for sjølvregulering av læring vart sett på som viktige for tilbakemeldingsdialogar i analysane av det andre underspørsmålet. Likevel, funna som var assosiert med det tredje underspørsmålet identifiserte ei strukturell avgrensing når det gjaldt eit skjult summativt system som hindra det fulle potensialet for formative tilbakemeldingspraksisar med lærarar som hadde vanskar med dialogiske tilbakemeldingar.

For det andre indikerer å støtte elevars eigne interne L2 tilbakemelding eit viktig steg for sjølvregulert læring i engelskundervisninga. Likevel så framheva det generelle fråværet av tilrettelegging av sjølvregulert læring og stor variasjon i lærars L2 bruk at dette var eit utviklingsområde, i tråd med resultat relatert til det fyrste underspørsmålet. Resultata frå undersøkinga av det andre underspørsmålet antyda at sjølvregulert læringsaspekt og meistringsforventing var avgjerande for at elevar skulle oppfatte tilbakemelding som nyttig. Likevel indikerte oppfatningane til dei intervjua lærarane frå analysane av det tredje underspørsmålet at lærarane var delt når det gjaldt kor vidt sjølvregulert læring var nyttig for elevar. I tillegg uttrykte nokre av lærarane at meir L2 bruk var eit utviklingsaspekt ved deira undervisning.

For det tredje anerkjenner ein kultur for meistringsforventingsprega tilbakemelding i engelskundervisninga at tilbakemelding ikkje berre skal akselerere læring men også styrke elevars sjølvsikkerheit og sjølvtilitt i L2. Resultata frå undersøkinga relatert til det fyrste underspørsmålet indikerte at lærarars tilbakemeldingar var meir godkjennande/avvisande enn prega av meistringsforventingar. Stianalysane relatert til det andre underspørsmålet styrka forståinga av korleis elevars meistringsforventing var assosiert med deira oppfatningar av tilbakemeldingspraksis, men at dei også trengte å oppleve at engelskundervisninga var triveleg og ha høve til å sjølvregulere eiga læring samt medvit om læringsmål. Funna frå dei analysane som var knytt til det tredje underspørsmålet viste at lærarar hadde ulike oppfatningar av relevansen av tilrettelegging av meistringsforventing. For nokre lærarar så var det viktigare å

justere elevar sine forventingar og oppfatningar til å passe med det summative eksamenssystemet.

Det fjerde vilkåret for tilbakemeldingspraksis som responsiv pedagogikk i engelskundervisninga handlar om å nyttiggjere seg av elevars engelskkompetanse. Dette er ei erkjenning av at elevar har kunnskapar og ferdigheiter som kan bli nyttiggjort i klasseromsundervisninga. Likevel peika analysane av det fyrste underspørsmålet i retning av at lærarar berre til ei lågare grad anerkjente elevar sin engelskkompetanse og interesser. Den store variasjonen for L2 bruk for lærarar framheva lærarskilnadar når det gjaldt vilje til å kommunisere i L2, noko som følgeleg påverka elevane sin L2 bruk. Resultata som var assosiert med det andre underspørsmålet antyda at elevane var delt når det gjaldt kor vidt dei opplevde engelskundervisninga som triveleg med eit lågt gjennomsnitt. Analysane av det tredje underspørsmålet indikerte eit teori-praksis gap når det gjaldt lærarar sine oppfatningar sidan idealet var å fremje L2 kommunikativ kompetanse, men at praksisane ofte bestod av korrigering og testing.

Denne avhandlinga antydar at tilbakemeldingspraksis som responsiv pedagogikk kan vere fundert i eit læringsorientert vurderingsrammeverk og sosial-kognitiv teori. Det teoretiske rammeverket vektlegg korleis tilbakemeldingsdialogar kan bli tilrettelagt på ein måte som kan fremje elevars sjølvregulering, meistringsforventing og L2 kommunikativ kompetanse. Det forklarande sekvensielle mixed methods designet vart nytta for å undersøkje tilbakemeldingspraksis som responsiv pedagogikk frå klasserom-, elev- og lærarperspektivet. Å basere engelskundervisninga i L2 tilbakemeldingsdialogar kan utvikle lærarars og elevars tilbakemeldingsliteracy, sidan både lærarar og elevar treng å vere tilbakemeldingskyndige og aktivt deltakande i responsiv pedagogikk.

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The road towards a PhD has been an academically challenging yet highly rewarding journey. The opportunity of working full time with research has been a unique experience. I have benefited greatly from the many opportunities of presenting my research nationally and internationally along the way. I have been fortunate to have been given resources and opportunities to develop and foster my research competence. Thus, there are several people and institutions that deserve a sincere and heartfelt gratitude.

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Volda, May 2020

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List of articles

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- I Vattøy, K.-D., & Gamlem, S. M. (2020). Teacher-student interactions and feedback in English as a foreign language classrooms. *Cambridge Journal of Education*. 1–19.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764X.2019.1707512>
- II Vattøy, K.-D., & Smith, K. (2019). Students’ perceptions of teachers’ feedback practice in teaching English as a foreign language. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 85, 260–268.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2019.06.024>
- III Vattøy, K.-D. (2020). Teachers’ beliefs about feedback practice as related to student self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills in teaching English as a foreign language. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 64, 100828. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2019.100828>

List of abbreviations

CFI	The comparative fit index
CLASS-S	Classroom Assessment Scoring System–Secondary Manual
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
IRE	Initiation–Response–Evaluation
IRF	Initiation–Response–Follow-up
L1	First language (here, Norwegian)
L2	Target language / foreign language / second language (here, English)
NESH	The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities
NSD	Norwegian Centre for Research Data
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
RPQ	Responsive Pedagogy Questionnaire
RPIG	Responsive Pedagogy Interview Guide
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRMR	Standardised root mean square residual
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index

1. Introduction

1.1. Background and objectives

The quest to examine feedback practice as responsive pedagogy emerges from an international urgency to educate students for a future where the need for types of knowledge and skills is rapidly changing (Black & Wiliam, 2018; OECD, 2019; Smith, Gamlem, Sandal, & Engelsen, 2016). Formative assessment reviews have emphasised that feedback can have a positive effect on learning (e.g. Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Shute, 2008). Feedback as dialogue has been related to a more substantial student role (Carless, Salter, Yang, & Lam, 2011; van der Kleij, Adie, & Cumming, 2019). However, feedback has been identified as a problematic and challenging area of research, policy, and practice (e.g. Gravett, 2020; Henderson et al., 2019). Much of the empirical research documents student dissatisfaction with feedback (Carless & Boud, 2018; Noble et al., 2020), and students and teachers have expressed divergent opinions of the usefulness of feedback (Carless, 2006; van der Kleij & Adie, 2020). In secondary education, teachers have been found to voice more positive attitudes towards the facilitation of feedback than students (van der Kleij, 2019). To meet future demands, students' capability to self-regulate and efficacy to shape their future are crucial (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 1990). International proposals to fuse formative assessment with self-regulated learning have contributed to a new emphasis on the relationships between feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy (e.g. Butler & Winne, 1995; Panadero, Andrade, & Brookhart, 2018; Panadero & Romero, 2014; Zimmerman, 1995).

Feedback practice is understood as how feedback is exercised in classroom settings based on the beliefs teachers and students hold about feedback (Askew & Lodge, 2000; Gamlem, 2015). A contemporary notion is that feedback practice should focus more on how students make sense of and use feedback and less on what teachers do in terms of providing comments (Winstone & Carless, 2020). Conditions for successful feedback practice have been found dependent on feedback capacity, feedback design, and institutional culture (Henderson et al., 2019). Feedback practice as responsive pedagogy revolves around the recursive dialogue between internal and external feedback, highlighting the relationships between feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy (Gamlem, Kvinge, Smith, & Engelsen, 2019; Smith et al., 2016). Feedback practice in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) is more complex as it presupposes a willingness to communicate in the target language (L2) for the promotion of

learners' communicative competence (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998; Shirvan, Khajavy, MacIntyre, & Taherian, 2019).

Although self-regulated learning programmes have shown to be effective (Barr & Askill-Williams, 2019; Dignath, Buettner, & Langfeldt, 2008), a puzzling gap between teachers' beliefs and practices related to the promotion of students' self-regulation has been found (Lawson, Vosniadou, van Deur, Wyra, & Jeffries, 2019). A meta-analysis concluded that relevant aspects of self-regulated learning can be effectively fostered in primary and secondary school (Dignath & Büttner, 2008), which supports the relevance of strategic training at lower school levels. Thus, one might find it perplexing why there is not a widespread teaching of self-regulated learning strategies in classrooms (Lawson et al., 2019). To achieve lasting effects, however, self-regulated learning principles might become a part of teachers' feedback practice and pedagogy, as students who believe in their abilities and regulate their own learning have higher perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Dweck, 2006; Zimmerman, 1995). Recent research has placed an emphasis on feedback as an internal process because students constantly plan, monitor, and evaluate their own learning (Nicol, 2019). How teachers might tap into students' internal feedback processes whilst at the same time strengthening their self-efficacy through external feedback is a central issue in responsive pedagogy (Smith et al., 2016). The present thesis examines conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL from three different perspectives, that is, the classroom, student, and teacher perspectives, expressed through its three sub-questions.

Formative assessment has been suggested to be embedded in pedagogy (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Hayward, 2015; Smith, 2015). The model of assessment, proposed by Black and Wiliam (2018), considers the influences of educational assessment activities within pedagogy, instruction, and learning as related to specific subject disciplines as well as the wider educational context. Responsive pedagogy is conceptualised as a learning dialogue with feedback as a central component that aims to foster students' self-regulatory processes and students' beliefs in their abilities (Smith et al., 2016). Responsive pedagogy is defined as 'the recursive dialogue between the learner's internal feedback and external feedback provided by significant others, for example, teachers, peers, parents throughout the three phases of self-regulation; forethought, monitoring and reflection' (Smith et al., 2016, p. 9). This definition places responsive pedagogy in the juxtaposition of dialogic feedback (Carless, 2013; Gamlem & Smith, 2013), self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 1989, 2002), and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977a, 1982). Responsive pedagogy has an initial emphasis on the process of iteratively

engaging with students' thoughts and reflections in relation to the information and comments provided by a teacher or a parent (Smith et al., 2016). In the instructional encounter between a student and a teacher, internal and external feedback processes are cumulatively emphasised and strengthened. Responsive pedagogy might be of importance to students, teachers, parents, school administrations, policy makers, and educational researchers due to its emphasis on feedback dialogues, self-regulated learning, and self-efficacy.

Feedback practice as responsive pedagogy depends on the extent to which teachers succeed in engaging with learners' internal feedback and how teaching is ultimately planned on supporting feedback dialogues (Smith et al., 2016). In this view, feedback is not understood as a static and isolated process, but as an instructional encounter that pushes learning forward. Teachers' ability to respond to moments of contingency (Black & Wiliam, 2009), namely, critical instances where learning changes direction, is hypothesised to strengthen students' self-regulation and self-efficacy. Therefore, it is useful to observe real-time feedback interactions between teachers and students in the context of the classroom (Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Pennings et al., 2014; Pianta, Hamre, & Mintz, 2012). Knowledge about receiving and delivering effective feedback to support learning has been essential in developing the formative assessment field (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). However, there is an increasing research interest related to students' use and engagement with feedback (Handley, Price, & Millar, 2011; Winstone, Nash, Parker, & Rowntree, 2017). Focus on feedback processes has further given more emphasis to how learners make sense of, respond to and act upon feedback (Carless, 2018; Carless & Boud, 2018; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Winstone & Carless, 2020), particularly as it contrasts the view that feedback is a 'gift' from the teacher to the learner, namely, a one-way communication from an expert to someone who is usually in a less powerful position (Askew & Lodge, 2000). Nonetheless, importantly, the present thesis conceptualises feedback as information *within* a process (See section 1.3 for further conceptual considerations). The thesis further employs a learning-focused assessment framework embedded in a social cognitive view of feedback in which interacting personal, behavioural, and environmental influences affect and are affected in feedback processes (Bandura, 1989).

The focus on the relationship between assessment and learning has been a central driver for research-based knowledge on student learning (Baird, Andrich, Hopfenbeck, & Stobart, 2017; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hayward, 2015). The *Assessment for Learning initiative* in Norway (2010-2018) was a national school development initiative that supported teachers' assessment practices in Norwegian compulsory education (Norwegian Directorate for

Education and Training, 2011, 2018). A report for the period 2010-2014 found that implementation processes related to assessment for learning were successful when there were dialogue and trust between actors along with adaptations to the local context (Hopfenbeck, Flórez Petour, & Tolo, 2015). A later report showed that school leaders who participated in the assessment for learning initiative reported more extensive work with assessment practices than school leaders who did not participate despite small changes over time (Larsen, Vaagland, & Federici, 2017). The final report of the national assessment for learning initiative found evidence for a more learner-driven assessment culture but warned reducing assessment for learning to a set of mechanical procedures (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2018). In responsive pedagogy, assessment for learning practices might be further strengthened through teacher-student feedback interactions that utilise students' internal feedback dialogues whilst strengthening their self-efficacy beliefs in teaching EFL.

The aim of the thesis is to examine conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in EFL for teachers and students. In other words, conditions that enable feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL are studied from three perspectives: classroom, student, and teacher perspectives. The research is conducted in Norwegian lower secondary schools (13-16-year-olds). The contribution of the thesis is to increase the empirical research-based knowledge about teaching and learning processes related to teaching EFL within the field of assessment and pedagogy, yet problematise aspects that might be negative for students' learning and development. The evidence from the data material aims to provide insights about classroom teaching and feedback practice as responsive pedagogy, as well as identify critical aspects for pedagogical reflection. The video observation contributes with an increased understanding of measures to enhance L2 teacher-student feedback interactions that support responsive pedagogy with focus on first language (L1, Norwegian) and L2 (English) use. The survey material identifies the relationships of variables important for students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice in teaching EFL. The interview material provides in-depth insights of teachers' beliefs related to feedback, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills. In total, examining feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL from different aspects of classroom activities has the potential of giving all the agents a voice. In terms of policy, the results have practical implications for measures required to implement feedback practice as responsive pedagogy along with reasons to exercise caution when implementing pedagogical innovations.

1.2. Teaching English as a foreign language in Norway

Internationally, claims have been made against viewing language teaching as primarily a method, but rather a set of principles and procedures related to teachers' practical situated experience (Ur, 2013). In the Norwegian context, subject methodology has been defined as theory and practice related to teaching and learning in a specific subject (Gundem, 2008). Subject teaching methodology was introduced in teacher education with the study plan of 1974, which gave birth to English teaching methodology as a research field. Gundem claimed that subject teaching methodology saved teaching methodology as a field, due to the emphasis on pedagogical content knowledge related to a specific subject. English teaching methodology as an expanding research field is reflected in the many doctoral dissertations, some of which are focused on assessment (e.g. Burner, 2019; Horverak, 2019).

Research on teaching and learning EFL has been studied in the field of English teaching methodology in Norway (Rindal & Brevik, 2019a). Rindal and Brevik (2019a) revisited 19 of the 23 doctoral dissertations published in the field of English teaching methodology from 1988 to 2017. The six main research categories, identified by Rindal and Brevik (2019b), are: a) the development of English as a school subject; b) English writing; c) digital English competence; d) reading in English; e) culture and literature; and f) oral proficiency. These categories are influenced by a focus on skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking), as well as historical, cultural, literary, and technological developments related to the English school subject. Two of the dissertations explored the role of formative assessment and feedback in English, for example, formative assessment in lower secondary school writing (Burner, 2019) and English writing instruction and feedback in upper-secondary school (Horverak, 2019). Both had a written skill focus.

The thesis employs the term, EFL, which is a conceptualisation used by many other scholars who study English as a school subject in the context of teaching English in Norway (e.g. Abney & Krulatz, 2015; Bakken & Lund, 2018; Burner, 2015; Drew, Oostdam, & van Toorenborg, 2007). Norwegian is the official language in Norway, and English is taught as the main foreign language. However, the frequent use of English in social media, films, tourism, and in international trade, gives it a different status than in other countries. The present thesis refers to English in Norway as 'EFL' to reflect the status of English in Norway, although it acknowledges that English is a second language (ESL) for many students. For many Norwegian students English would be considered as a second language. However, English in Norway does neither have similar status as in post-colonial countries, such as India, Kenya or Singapore, nor

does English have an official status in Norway (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). Yet, English as a school subject has received increased attention. Some scholars have however adopted the term, ESL, to explain the transforming status of English in Norway (e.g. Brevik, 2019; Røkenes & Krumsvik, 2016). Recent research has found that teachers alternate by using L2 and L1 in teaching EFL (e.g. Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Burner, 2015; Krulatz, Neokleous, & Henningsen, 2016), which seems to be an important contextual feature of EFL teachers' feedback practice in Norway.

The status of English as a subject in lower secondary school is affected by political decision making. Before 2015, there were no formal requirements in terms of study credits required to teach English in lower secondary school, except formal teacher qualifications. In the reform and legislation from 2015, teachers are required have 60 ECTS in English, Norwegian, and mathematics to teach at the lower secondary levels (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2015). Currently, there is a ten-year dispensation from this requirement for teachers who already teach English at the requirements that were effective before the new requirements. However, all new EFL teachers must meet the new requirements.

1.3. Definitions of central terminology

To understand the conditions for feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL, the thesis employs four core concepts which are defined before further discussion: responsive pedagogy; feedback; self-regulation; and self-efficacy. As already mentioned, responsive pedagogy is conceptualised as the recursive dialogue between a learner's internal feedback and external feedback provided by an external source, for example, teacher, peer, parent, etc. (Smith et al., 2016). The focal point for the teacher is to prompt the learner's internal dialogue and capitalise on this with the teaching approach and external feedback. An example is a dialogue between a teacher and a student where the teacher supports the student's self-regulatory learning processes by asking questions for critical reflections or suggesting strategies, whilst at the same time strengthening the student's self-efficacy beliefs.

Since responsive pedagogy defines feedback in the format of a dialogue, it is initially useful to conceptualise feedback broadly, in accordance with Askew and Lodge (2000): 'all dialogue to support learning in both formal and informal situations' (Askew & Lodge, 2000, p. 1). Conceptualising feedback as a dialogue positions feedback as occurring through interactions within a classroom context (Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Pianta et al., 2012). However, a more

specific definition of feedback is useful to examine the relationship between the information and the process components of feedback. The thesis defines feedback as ‘information provided by an agent (e.g. teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one’s performance or understanding’ (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 81) with the aim to support further learning and development (Askew & Lodge, 2000; Sadler, 1989). In a social cognitive view of feedback, students exercise agency and self-regulate their learning processes (Bandura, 1991; Harris, Brown, & Dargusch, 2018). As such, the new paradigm of feedback processes is emphasised with focus on the learner’s sense-making and future actions (Winstone & Carless, 2020).

Self-regulation is defined in accordance with Zimmerman’s (2002, p. 65) definition: ‘Self-regulation is not a mental ability or an academic performance skill; rather it is the self-directive process by which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills.’. Self-regulation has a metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural component (Zimmerman, 1989). Self-regulatory processes are often structured in three phases: forethought phase, performance phase, and self-reflection phase (Zimmerman, 2002). When defining feedback within a process, it becomes clearer why feedback and self-regulation are useful in combination. Responsive pedagogy is built around this self-directive process where the learner negotiates between internal and external feedback across these three self-regulatory phases (Smith et al., 2016). A further distinction between self-regulation of learning and self-regulation of performance can be made in which the goals for the former involve learning (Schunk & Greene, 2018). The thesis has an initial focus on the self-regulation of learning but does not exclude the dimension of self-regulation of performance.

Self-efficacy refers to personal judgements of one’s capabilities to exercise influence and execute actions to reach desired goals (Bandura, 1977a, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000b). Bandura formally defined perceived self-efficacy as ‘beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments’ (Bandura, 1997, p. 3), which is the general definition used in the present thesis. The term, ‘self-efficacy’, as used in the thesis will therefore refer to ‘perceived self-efficacy’ as this is the most important and pervasive agent in the personal agency (Bandura, 1991). In the thesis, self-efficacy refers to students’ self-efficacy, although it does not neglect the aspect that teachers’ self-efficacy plays a pivotal role (Zee, de Jong, & Koomen, 2016). In the thesis, self-efficacy is construed alongside the concept of teacher expectations (Babad, Inbar, & Rosenthal, 1982; Rosenthal & Jacobsen,

1968; Rubie-Davies, 2007; Rubie-Davies, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2006), because it highlights how students' perceived self-efficacy is negotiated in dialogues with their teachers.

1.4. Research questions

The overall research question for the thesis is provided here:

What are conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching English as a foreign language?

The overall question is answered by three sub-questions, corresponding with the three articles of the thesis:

- i. What characterises teacher-student interactions and feedback practice in EFL lessons in lower-secondary school?
- ii. What are the relationships of students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice with perceived external goal orientation, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and EFL teaching?
- iii. How are teachers' beliefs about own feedback practice related to their beliefs about students' self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills in teaching English as a foreign language?

The three above-stated research questions examine feedback practice as responsive pedagogy from three central perspectives: (1) the classroom perspective through video observation; (2) the student perspective through surveys; and (3) the teacher perspective through interviews.

1.5. Thesis outline

The thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 has introduced the background, objectives, context, definitions, and research questions. Chapter 2 elaborates on the theoretical framework for understanding responsive pedagogy as embedded in learning-oriented assessment and social cognitive theory, emphasising feedback, self-regulation, self-efficacy, teaching EFL, and L2 learning. Chapter 3 introduces the methodology and research design of the thesis. Context, samples, instruments, data collections, analyses, validity, reliability, and ethics are considered. Chapter 4 presents the results by briefly describing each of the three articles before synthesising the key findings of the thesis. Chapter 5 discusses the results with respect to the overall research question. Theoretical, methodological, and practical implications are considered in chapter 6 in addition to limitations and concluding remarks.

2. Theoretical background

The theoretical background for the thesis is feedback practice as responsive pedagogy embedded in learning-oriented assessment (Earl, 2013; Hayward, 2015) and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 1991; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 1989). Feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy are considered as essential components for a responsive pedagogical practice in teaching EFL and the development students' L2 communicative competence. In responsive pedagogy, learning is considered a social, dialogic process in which learners actively regulate their own learning and are made to believe in their own abilities and skills (Smith et al., 2016). The hierarchical structure of the theoretical framework of feedback practice as responsive pedagogy is presented in Figure 1. When responsive pedagogy is embedded in a wider learning-focused assessment framework, the fusion between assessment and learning becomes evident.

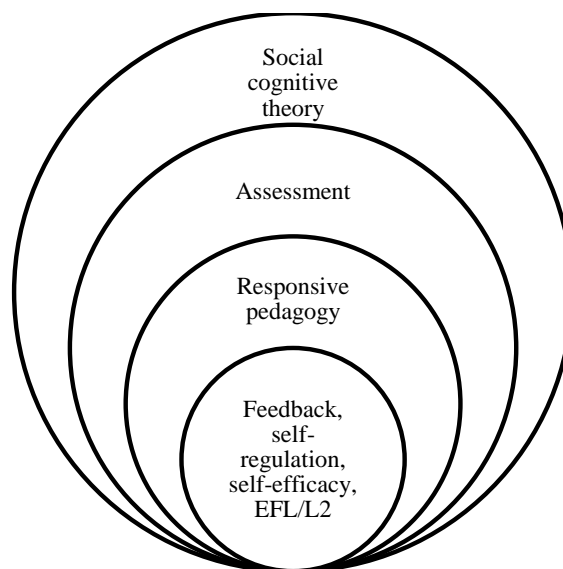


Figure 1. Responsive pedagogy framed in assessment and social cognitive theory in teaching EFL

2.1. Social cognitive theory

Social cognitive theory is an extension of Bandura's social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b) and views human functioning as reciprocal interactions between personal (i.e. cognitive, affective, motivational), behavioural, and environmental influences (Bandura, 1989; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 1989). Figure 2 illustrates human functioning as a three-way reciprocal,

causal relationship among the three influence processes. The causal aspect signifies that factors exercise influence on one another, and reciprocal indicates that the relationships are two-directional. For example, people exercise influence on their environment as well as being influenced by the environment.

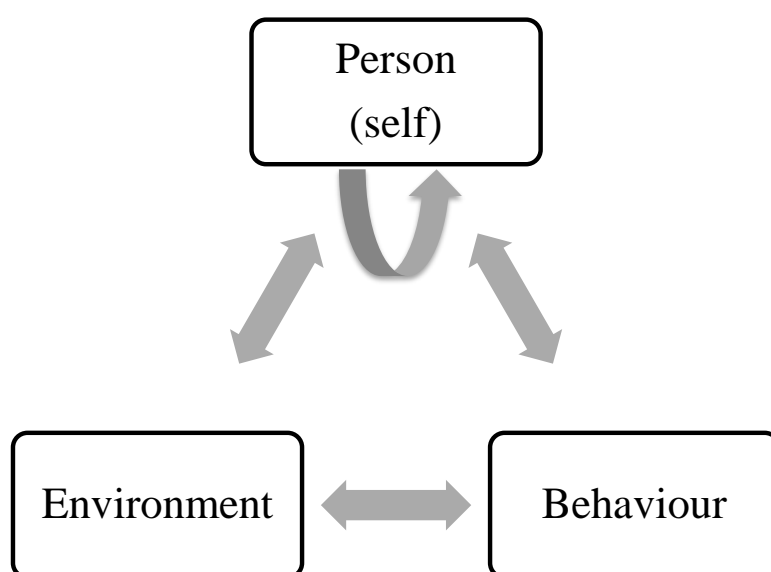


Figure 2. A triadic, reciprocal relationship of human functioning (adapted model).

Note: The figure is based on illustration/theory by Bandura (1989), Schunk (1989), and Zimmerman (1989). The recursive arrow illustrates the internal feedback loop.

Human agency is at the core of the triadic relationship, with the interacting personal, behavioural, and environmental influences (Bandura, 1989). Behavioural influences are related to how people act and respond. Personal influences comprise cognitions, affective influences, and motivational influences. Most of human behaviour is purposive and thus regulated by forethought (Bandura, 1993). People plan and assess possible outcomes of events before they execute their own actions. Environmental influences are all factors external to people. In the context of the thesis, environmental factors are the classroom, teachers, the school arena, and out-of-school contexts. An environmental factor in teaching EFL might be teachers' use of L1 and L2, as examined in the present thesis. In responsive pedagogy, there is an ongoing internal feedback loop, as illustrated in Figure 2. This is what Zimmerman (1989) called covert self-

regulation. The internal feedback is mediated between the teacher's external feedback (environment) and person (self), and the output is the learner's behaviour. Bandura (1993) posited that people's beliefs in their own efficacy to control own level of functioning is the most pervasive mechanism of the human personal agency to make causal contributions between the triadic reciprocal mechanisms.

Social cognitive theory assumes that learning is related to observing others through social interactions (Bandura, 1977b). Observational learning thus is a key concept to be applied when interpreting this model. Expectations also come from vicarious experience which refers to insight from seeing or observing other people, which in turn forms and modifies expectations (Bandura, 1977b). In this view, learners do not need to learn everything from direct experience but learn vicariously by observing others. Through the cyclical process of self-observation and observation of others, learners observe peers or significant others and compare to their own learning. The observational process is important for the development of students' understanding and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). The interactionist perspective of social cognitive theory emphasises that social factors affect how the self-regulatory system is operated (Bandura, 1991).

Usher and Schunk (2018) contrasted the social cognitive view with behaviourist, psychodynamic, and humanist theories. They argued that people's actions, thoughts, and emotions are neither simply products of external influence or reinforcements (behaviourist theories), nor guided by hidden drives or impulses (psychodynamic theories), nor products of their own free choice (humanist theories). Instead, behavioural, personal, and environmental factors are co-determinants of human experience (Usher & Schunk, 2018). Triadic reciprocal relationships between these influences are also interactional as Figure 2 illustrates.

Social cognitive theory endorses a model of emergent interactive agency (Bandura, 1989), and further posits that human behaviour is neither externally controlled nor mechanically shaped (Bandura, 1986). A basic premise for emergent interactive agency is that people have personal efficacy to exercise influence over the events that affect their lives through a system of triadic reciprocal causation (Schunk, 1989). This view is reflected in responsive pedagogy in which learners are empowered as active agents in their own learning. As such, feedback is not merely something that happens to the learner, but learners exercise agency in feedback processes (Harris et al., 2018). Through the explicit focus on feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy, learners are strengthened in their own capabilities to exercise influence on their own

learning processes. The social aspect is the interactions between students and teachers. The cognitive part is the mediation between the social interactions and the students' cognitive feedback loops in which students regulate their cognitions, behaviours, and motivation.

There are five basic capabilities which social cognitive theory identifies as central to human functioning, these are: symbolising, forethought, vicarious, self-regulatory, and self-reflective capabilities (Bandura, 1986). The symbolising capability suggests that people transform their experiences into internal models and create new meanings by symbolising. The forethought capability means that people plan their behaviour and think about different outcomes related to prospective actions, as human behaviour is purposive. The vicarious capability denotes that people do not need to suffer through trial and error to achieve their goals but can learn vicariously by observing others. The self-regulatory capability indicates that people do not only behave according to the wishes of others (Bandura, 1986). Instead, behaviour is regulated by internal standards and self-evaluative reactions. Finally, the self-reflective capability is a distinctly human feature for reflective self-consciousness. The self-reflective capability enables people to analyse their own experiences and thought processes, which in turn affects people's action. Bandura (1986) argued that the human judgement of own capabilities to deal effectively with different realities is the most central self-reflective thought, as it determines actions, perseverance in the face of difficulties, and levels of anxiety and stress.

Social cognitive theory views self-regulation as comprising of three subprocesses: self-observation, self-judgement, and self-reaction (Bandura, 1986; Schunk, 1989). Self-observation provides the learner with important information to regulate own cognitions, motivation, and behaviours. In responsive pedagogy, this self-observation takes place when the learner engages in internal feedback loops (Gamlem et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2016). When learners engage in new tasks, they monitor own cognition. For example, a learner may think, 'Am I doing this right, or do I need to handle it differently?'. The second subprocess, self-judgement, involves the capacity to judge own competence and capabilities in relation to internal and external criteria (Usher & Schunk, 2018). Some significant others, such as teachers or parents, set very high standards related to achievement for their children (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In such circumstances, the learner may adopt external criteria as its own internal criteria or discard them. Similarly, within the framework of responsive pedagogy, learners internalise or reject external criteria set by the teacher. The final subprocess of self-regulation, namely the self-reactive influence, entails the capacity to react to own cognitions, emotions, and behaviours (Bandura, 1995a, 1997). Based on this capacity, learners exercise self-directed changes. A

learner can for example exercise influence on own learning processes and make changes based on that information. In the EFL context, a learner may judge the relevance of a reading strategy and choose a better suited one. If the task is to find specific information about hobbies in a book, then scanning is a better reading strategy compared to close reading. Self-directed changes are also adjustments learners make when for example directing own attention to learning tasks.

Social cognitive theory is theoretically relevant to discuss feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy in a responsive pedagogical assessment framework. Human functioning is explained as a triadic, reciprocal relationship between personal, behavioural, and environmental influences. Human agency is at the core of this relationship, and people exercise influence on the events that affect their lives. This view is reflected in responsive pedagogy in which learners are active agents who self-regulate, exercise influence in feedback dialogues, and take ownership of learning processes.

2.2. Assessment

In the foreword of the book, *The Power of Assessment for Learning*, Wiliam emphasised that the development of teachers' formative assessment practices has proved more difficult than once thought, as it involves a process of habit change rather than knowledge acquisition (Wiliam, 2020). The present thesis is concerned with the relationship between assessment and learning. The theoretical framework of the thesis embeds learning-oriented assessment in social cognitive theory, as it assumes that the pedagogical aspects of assessment are interconnected with the psychological mechanisms of self-regulated learning. The emphasis on formative assessment at the turn of the 21st century marked a shift towards an emphasis on interactions between assessment and classroom learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998). The focus in the present thesis is on classroom assessment and what teachers and students do, emphasising assessment as vital in students' learning processes as described by Earl (2013) here:

Assessment *as learning* goes even deeper, however, and draws on the role of personal monitoring and challenging of ideas that are embedded in the learning process and the role of both the students and teachers in fostering this self-regulation process. (Earl, 2013, p. 4)

Assessment as learning involves a fundamental shift in thinking about teaching and assessment (Earl, 2013; Hayward, 2015). In this perspective, the student is not only a *contributor* in the

assessment as learning paradigm but the *link*; assessment starts with the learner and where the learner is.

Summative assessment has often been thought to contrast learning-oriented assessment as it is concerned with summarising the achievement status of a learner (Sadler, 1989). The present thesis, however, does neither consider summative and formative assessments as contradictory nor opposites. Instead, the thesis relies on Taras's (2005) idea of formative assessment as a linear extension of summative assessment with emphasis on feedback bridging the gap between the actual level of work and required standard. A summative-formative continuum focuses on both judging and supporting learning (Adie, Willis, & van der Kleij, 2018). The summative-formative notion alludes to Vygotsky's (1978) concept of the proximal zone of development and the gap between the actual level and proximal level. The idea of feedback as closing the gap was adopted by Sadler (1989) who argued that learners need to judge the quality of what they are producing in order to regulate their learning processes. In this manner, assessment and learning are interconnected in terms of the learner's internal feedback processes and capacity for self-assessment (Harris & Brown, 2018).

The internal feedback process of responsive pedagogy captures students' self-assessment processes. Although self-assessment might not be part of a teacher's pedagogical practice, students are self-assessing all the time (Harris & Brown, 2018), as self-assessment is also a daily activity (Boud, 2013). In this regard, it is important to note the distinction between self-assessment as a learning strategy and self-assessment as a pedagogical strategy (Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2013). The view of assessment as a pedagogical tool is applied for strengthening a broader concept of learning (Smith, 2015). The term, assessment capability, has also been used to describe teachers' situated professional knowledge (DeLuca, Willis, et al., 2019). Assessment for learning has been claimed to be embodied in teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (Engelsen & Smith, 2014). Sense-making in assessment processes is important for students and promoted through teachers' assessment literacy.

One of the first conceptualisations of assessment literacy was concerned with knowing the difference between a sound and unsound assessment (Stiggins, 1995). Assessment literacy has predominantly been discussed for teachers but less for learners and stakeholders (Engelsen & Smith, 2014). However, there appears to be a need for the promotion of students' feedback literacy (Carless & Boud, 2018; Chong, 2020). For example, van der Kleij and Adie (2020) found that secondary school students were not used to verbalising their thoughts and feelings

regarding feedback. Feedback literacy has been traditionally defined as ‘the ability to read, interpret and use written feedback’ (Sutton, 2012, p. 31). In a more recent conceptualisation, Carless and Boud (2018) defined student feedback literacy as ‘the understandings, capacities and dispositions needed to make sense of information and use it to enhance work or learning strategies’ (p. 1316). Four dimensions of feedback literacy were identified: appreciating feedback; making judgments; managing affect; and taking action (Carless & Boud, 2018). The three first dimensions are inter-related and prerequisite for the final dimension, ‘taking action’. Feedback literate students appreciate feedback, make judgements, and manage affect before acting on feedback. The dimensions highlight students’ metacognitive, affective, and motivational processes. Another recent conceptualisation defined student feedback literacy as ‘students’ cognitive, emotional and behavioural engagement with feedback’ (Chong, 2020, p. 9).

Feedback practice as responsive pedagogy is concerned with how teachers facilitate feedback dialogues and how students seek and engage with feedback. Recently, a learner-focused approach to feedback practice has been emphasised (Winstone & Carless, 2020). The focus on feedback practice in the present thesis involves a narrower focus than assessment practice. A formative assessment practice involves a range of practices that encourages teachers and students to seek evidence to inform learning (Heritage & Harrison, 2020). For example, formative assessment practice transcends feedback practice as it involves attention to learning goals and facilitation of student involvement in classroom settings. However, there are some critical voices in terms of assessment as learning and the notion that educational practices can improve and foster better learning. As such, assessment as learning as the goal of education might not be unproblematic. Biesta (2010a) contested the use of strong language in education that depicts education as something that can be secure and effective, as this could turn education into an evidence-based profession. This critique relates to assessment and measurement, as Biesta opposed educational productiveness and effectiveness through measurement (Biesta, 2015b; Heimans & Biesta, 2020).

Over the past decades, there has been an international trend towards increased accountability and assessment (Cumming, van Der Kleij, & Adie, 2019; DeLuca, Willis, et al., 2019). The Scottish programme, Assessment is for Learning, has been an example of a curriculum implementation of a learner-oriented assessment programme (Hayward & Spencer, 2010). The Norwegian context for formative assessment and feedback is unique with its clear policy focus (Hopfenbeck et al., 2015). The Regulations to the Norwegian Education Act state

the student's right to assessment (Norwegian Ministry of Education, 2009), and Norway has made assessment for learning a statutorily grounded practice. Section 3–11 declares that the student has a right to continuous assessment, and 'the continuous assessment in subjects shall be used as a tool in the learning process [...]'. In the Norwegian lower-secondary context, feedback has been studied through different types of data: for example, video-observation data (Gamlem, 2019; Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Klette, Blikstad-Balas, & Roe, 2017), student interviews (Gamlem & Smith, 2013), and portfolio assessment texts (Burner, 2014). Feedback has also been studied in relation to EFL writing (Burner, 2015; Horverak, 2019) and changes in teachers' practices and beliefs (Gamlem, 2015). Dilemmas that have been discussed are, for example, related to the efficacy of the assessment for learning initiative (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2011), particularly that the initiative did not show any effect on students' learning outcome (Hopfenbeck et al., 2015). The lack of effect has partly been discussed in terms of challenges related to changes in teachers' feedback practice, which is not unique for the Norwegian context. Both national and international research has indicated that changes take time and that lower secondary school teachers' beliefs about formative feedback in a summative assessment system seem to inhibit changes for teachers' feedback practice (e.g. Gamlem, 2015; Lee & Coniam, 2013; Looney, 2011; van der Kleij, 2019).

2.3. Responsive pedagogy

The background of responsive pedagogy can be traced back to the notions of a Vygotskian recursive dialogue between internal and external dialogue (Vygotsky, 1978). The early definitions of responsive pedagogy were socio-culturally framed and appeared in Smith (2015), who stated: 'There is an ongoing dialogue between the person's internal dialogue (intramental) and the interactive dialogue with other people in the same context (intermental) (Vygotsky, 1978)' (pp. 741-742). The more recent definition of responsive pedagogy is found in Smith et al. (2016) and conceptualised as a recursive dialogue between learners' internal feedback and external feedback provided by significant others. The adoption of the terms 'internal and external feedback' appeared in Butler and Winne (1995), and the terms were used to connect feedback and self-regulated learning: 'For all self-regulated activities, feedback is an inherent catalyst. As learners monitor their engagement with tasks, internal feedback is generated by the monitoring process' (Butler & Winne, 1995, p. 246). A central background of responsive pedagogy is the paper by Black and Wiliam (2009) in which moments of contingency for the purpose of regulation of learning processes were considered essential to formative assessment.

The concept of pedagogical thoughtfulness, as theorised by van Manen (1995), was employed in conjunction with responsive pedagogy, emphasising the improvisational knowledge in interactions.

The early conceptualisations of responsive pedagogy grew out of work on responsive teaching which were related to responding to students' thinking in classroom interactions (Hammer, Goldberg, & Fargason, 2012). There are numerous examples of responsive teaching in literature. The concept, 'culturally responsive teaching' (sometimes referred to as 'culturally responsive pedagogy'), focuses on instructional encounters but is framed within multicultural education (Gay, 2018), emphasising cultural knowledge and ethnicity (Gay, 2002). Although responsive pedagogy as employed in the present thesis does not focus on multicultural education, differentiation is an aspect that is central both in responsive pedagogy and culturally responsive teaching. Responsive instruction presupposes differentiation (Strahan, Kronenberg, Burgner, Doherty, & Hedt, 2012). The fusion between feedback and self-regulated learning as conceptualised in responsive pedagogy makes out part of the rationale for why a social cognitive theoretical perspective is employed to encapsulate responsive pedagogy in the thesis.

The present thesis does not equate feedback practice and responsive pedagogy. Equating responsive pedagogy with feedback practice might be problematic as this would mean that feedback practice by default was inspired by a recursive dialogue between internal and external feedback with the aim to foster students' self-efficacy. The thesis upholds that teachers' feedback practice can be consisting of various practices (e.g. controlling feedback), and consequently may not be informed by responsive pedagogy. In the thesis, feedback practice is considered neutral by default. However, teachers' feedback practices have been an area of persistent difficulty (e.g. Carless, 2006; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; van der Kleij, 2019). Therefore, another question is whether responsive pedagogy can be realistically implemented in teachers' pedagogical practices. Responsive pedagogy is connected to assessment literacy for both teachers and students. It is important that teachers and students develop the same language of assessment. Nonetheless, a shared language of feedback has been an aspect of considerable challenge for teachers' feedback practices (e.g. Jónsson, Smith, & Geirsdóttir, 2018; van der Kleij & Adie, 2020).

Politicians want education to be strong, predictable, and secure (Biesta, 2015a). Responsive pedagogy can be problematised on the grounds of being an attempt to capture best practices in the classroom. Critics have pointed out that responsive teaching has predominantly

been exercised by an unusual teacher with unusual expertise (Hammer et al., 2012). The implementation of responsive pedagogy, as an aim of education, risks constraining educational practices to relate to achievement outcomes, measurable learning gains, and something that is effective. This stands in contrast to the idea of responsive pedagogy as something that is improvisational, interactional, and acknowledges the professional judgements of teachers (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Smith et al., 2016; van Manen, 1995; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2013).

Critics to educational effectiveness have argued that such practices could lead to an educational culture of testing and focus on effectiveness (Biesta, 2015b; Heimans & Biesta, 2020). Education always involves a risk (Biesta, 2015a). The main idea behind this criticism is that rather than trying to achieve utopic scenarios on how to maximise student learning, teachers could, in a different scenario, let go and let learning happen by itself. Forcing students to engage in higher order thinking skills and unnecessarily troubling the natural learning processes might be criticised for being more harmful than constructive. Teachers, students, or the environment in which the learning takes place might fail. Responsive pedagogy cannot be a failsafe recipe for a successful, effective, and engaging encounter between a learner and significant others. This is because responsive pedagogy is an instructional encounter between human beings (Smith et al., 2016). A learning-oriented assessment framework embedded in a social cognitive perspective recognises that learners exercise agency in assessment situations (Bandura, 1986), which means that learners might also reject feedback (Harris et al., 2018). A teacher-dominated instructional encounter rids the learner of personal agency to control own learning processes. A social cognitive framing of responsive pedagogy aims to be more equitable and allow for risk in the pedagogical encounter between learners and teachers. As responsive pedagogy is something that relies on pedagogical tact and thoughtfulness (van Manen, 1991), the learning dialogue is something that really cannot be measured. The success or usefulness of moment-to-moment interactions are contextually dependent and require differentiation as part of pedagogical tact (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Smith et al., 2016; Strahan et al., 2012; van der Kleij & Adie, 2020). This might be referred to as the pedagogical risk of interactions. As such, responsive pedagogy recognises teachers' professional judgement and students' evaluative expertise (Sadler, 1989; Wyatt-Smith & Adie, 2019). Teachers' judgement may be considered professional when informed by knowledge and experience from training and work setting (Allal, 2013). Teachers' professional judgement is interactive and responsive, allowing for teacher autonomy (Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2013).

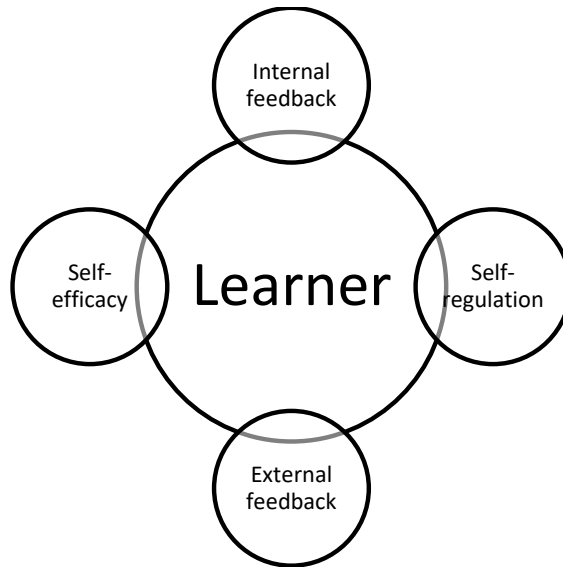


Figure 3. The learner at the centre of responsive pedagogy as a recursive dialogue between internal feedback, external feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy

Responsive pedagogy is something that occurs in pedagogical moments between learners and their environment (Smith, 2015). As such, responsive pedagogy is embedded in the feedback culture. Figure 3 considers the elements of responsive pedagogy when the learner is placed at the centre of responsive pedagogy. When the learner is acknowledged as the primary driver of feedback processes (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Earl, 2013; Hayward, 2015; Winstone & Carless, 2020), then feedback does not risk of being dominated by teachers and top-down. In this model, learners negotiate between their own internal feedback and external feedback whether this is positive or negative. In this perspective, responsive pedagogy occurs recursively within the feedback culture, regardless of whether the teacher engages in high quality and effective feedback practices, and learners learn and self-regulate with engagement from low-quality feedback as well as high-quality feedback. Feedback loops are better understood as developing feedback spirals, consistent with Carless (2018). The model in Figure 3 recognises the recursive, constant interactions between internal and external feedback along with the interacting self-regulatory and self-efficacy processes, in accordance with the conceptualisation of responsive pedagogy (Smith et al., 2016).

2.4. Feedback

There has been a transition from discussing feedback in the field of formative assessment (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Shute, 2008) to a wider field of pedagogy (Black & Wiliam, 2018; Hayward, 2015; Smith, 2015). Feedback as a dialogue is a particularly well-suited conceptualisation when discussing classroom feedback (Carless, 2013; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; van der Kleij, 2019). To achieve responsive pedagogy as a recursive dialogue in the classroom, a sensitivity to unplanned pedagogical moments is required (van Manen, 1991). Black and Wiliam (2009) introduced the concept, ‘moments of contingency’, understood as crucial pedagogical moments where learning changes direction. Moments of contingency can be synchronous, such as real-time adjustments, and asynchronous, such as feedback information made when assessing written work (Black & Wiliam, 2009). van der Schaaf, Baartman, Prins, Oosterbaan, and Schaap (2013) emphasised three important features of feedback dialogues that are conditional to foster student involvement. First, feedback should be based on assessment criteria and aimed to close the gap between criteria and performance (Ramaprasad, 1983; Sadler, 1989). Second, feedback occurs through interactions between teachers and students (Adie, van der Kleij, & Cumming, 2018; Gamlem & Munthe, 2014). Third, the type of feedback should match the learning needs of students (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Shute, 2008). Adie, van der Kleij, et al. (2018) further elaborated on the third feature of feedback dialogues and argued that teachers modify their responses continuously in the dialogue based on students’ responses. Adie, van der Kleij, et al.’s (2018) coding framework acknowledges both teachers’ and students’ contributions in feedback dialogues.

The relationship between assessment criteria and performance seems to be an important characteristic of feedback dialogues (Sadler, 1989; van der Schaaf et al., 2013). Goal orientation denotes a learner’s orientation towards a purpose or a goal of conducting an activity or task (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Pintrich, 2000). Learners internalise or reject external goals due to the exercise of agency (Butler & Winne, 1995; Harris et al., 2018; Hattie & Timperley, 2007), which is why a distinction between internal and external goal orientation is made in the thesis. Internal goal orientation is understood as internal goals (e.g. mastery goals or performance goals) that learners set for themselves and has been connected to self-regulated learning (Kitsantas, Steen, & Huie, 2009). The term, external goal orientation, is used to refer to a learner’s adoption or rejection of external assessment criteria set by the teacher. External criteria may also be tacit knowledge in the classroom and not articulated as explicit points chalked on the blackboard. Research has stressed the importance of explicit learning goals and assessment

criteria as important to promote students' self-regulation (Balloo, Evans, Hughes, Zhu, & Winstone, 2018; Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Panadero, Jonsson, & Botella, 2017).

Different conceptualisations have made feedback a contested territory (Carless, 2018). Winstone and Carless (2020) explained the transition from an 'old feedback paradigm' to a 'new feedback paradigm' in terms of a transition from cognitive to socio-constructivist. Similarly, in social cognitive theory, Bandura (1993) criticised 'austere cognitivism' for neglecting self-regulatory processes of learning and development, as learning requires more than understanding factual knowledge and reasoning. The different paradigms have different implications for teacher and student roles. Whereas the 'old feedback paradigm' places the teacher at the centre with focus on delivery, the 'new feedback paradigm' aims for a partnership between teachers and students, acknowledging the active role of the learner. The new teacher role involves designing feedback processes to foster student involvement (Winstone & Carless, 2020). Boud and Molloy (2013) made a distinction between two models of feedback: a) the engineering model, and b) the sustainable model. The engineering model positions the teacher as the driver of feedback, whilst the sustainable model positions the learner as the driver of feedback. In the engineering model, the cycle of feedback needs to be completed, and places the responsibility on the teacher. Boud and Molloy (2013) claimed that the main limitation of the engineering model of feedback is the assumptions it makes about the nature of learners, namely that it assumes that learners require others to identify and provide the information they need. The sustainable model of feedback understands feedback as a process by learners to facilitate their own learning (Boud & Molloy, 2013). Boud and Molloy (2013) argued that feedback as a steam regulator or electronic device breaks down and addressed a more active and participatory view of the learner: 'As soon as the active role of learners is acknowledged, then conceptions of feedback need to move from the mechanistic to the responsive' (Boud & Molloy, 2013, p. 703). The present thesis argues that the role of students as active and agentic learners is essential and conceptualises feedback as information within a learning process, as defined in the introduction.

Butler and Winne (1995) distinguished between internal and external feedback which are pivotal terms employed by the present thesis. With the fusion of formative assessment and self-regulated learning, internal and external feedback processes are prominent in empirical and theoretical research (Nicol, 2019; Panadero et al., 2018). External feedback refers to the feedback provided by significant others, such as teachers or peers, whilst internal feedback denotes the internal self-regulatory processes of the learner, explained in the self-regulation

section. In the present thesis, external feedback is further operationalised as taking place in teacher-student interactions (Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Pianta et al., 2012). Feedback is an inherent catalyst of self-regulated activities, as internal feedback is generated in the processes of self-regulated learning (Butler & Winne, 1995). Butler and Winne (1995) explained self-regulated learning as a judgemental, adaptive process. Feedback is concerned about making judgements in new circumstances and contexts, which highlights the relationship between feedback and self-regulated learning.

Central to the conceptualisation of feedback in the thesis is Hattie and Timperley's (2007) three questions, 'Where am I going? How am I going? Where to next?', which operate on four levels: the task level, the process level, the self-regulation level, and the self-level. First, feedback on the task level refers to feedback information about the task, work, or a product, such as whether a task or an answer is correct or incorrect. In the EFL classroom, feedback about the task could be: 'Teacher: Yes, that's right. Tea is the most popular drink in Britain' or 'Teacher: You need to write more about wildlife in Australia'. Second, feedback may be about the process of the task. This relates to the processes that the learner engages in to proceed. An example from the EFL classroom is: 'Teacher: Use a mind map to brainstorm the topic, the seasons, and see if you can come up with sentences with wind, lightening, snow, and sun'. Third, feedback about self-regulation involves information that stimulates metacognitive skills and boost self-confidence. Hattie and Timperley (2007) argued that the self-regulation level is important for students' self-efficacy. An example of feedback about self-regulation in the EFL classroom is: 'Teacher: I'm certain that you'll be able to solve this task, because last week you used those writing strategies. Do you remember the four B's? – Student: Sure, the 'brain, book, buddy, boss'. I'll check the book before I ask my peer, and think about different ways, then'. Finally, feedback about the self relates to feedback about the student as a person. An example from the EFL classroom is: 'You're smart' and 'You're a top student and I know it'. Empirical research has shown that classroom feedback is often about the task and self (e.g. Gamlem & Munthe, 2014), even though these are least effective for student learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Feedback is a key concept in responsive pedagogy as it is concerned with the internal and external feedback which take place in the recursive dialogues of responsive pedagogy. Feedback as information within a learning process is the conceptualisation applied in the thesis. Feedback at the task, process, self-regulation, and self-level are used to connect feedback to self-regulation and self-efficacy.

2.5. Self-regulation

The role of feedback practice in supporting self-regulated learning has highlighted how learners self-regulate when engaging with feedback (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016; Butler & Winne, 1995; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Self-regulated learners are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active in own learning processes (Zimmerman, 1989). However, there has been a call for research on what formative practices that are considered essential to support self-regulated learning (Panadero et al., 2018). Self-regulated learning is a conceptual framework to understand cognitive, behavioural, motivational, and emotional aspects of learning, which has resulted in several models of self-regulated learning (Panadero, 2017). The concept of co-regulation has particularly highlighted the interplay between individual and social aspects of regulation (Allal, 2016; Andrade & Brookhart, 2019). In responsive pedagogy, internal and external feedback processes are co-regulated by significant others (Smith et al., 2016). Despite findings that strongly suggest the importance of student self-regulation, studies have shown that teachers rarely prepare students to learn on their own (e.g. Barr & Askill-Williams, 2019; Lawson et al., 2019; Zimmerman, 2002). There has further been identified a lack of promotion of self-regulation in learning, and common beliefs held by teachers are: ‘leave the self-regulation to the students’, ‘self-regulation is only for some students’, and ‘self-regulated learning is likely to be unteachable’ (Lawson et al., 2019). How self-regulation is facilitated at the classroom level, how students understand self-regulation in relation to the feedback from the teacher, and how teachers themselves understand working with self-regulation are all of importance.

In a self-regulated learning view of feedback, students exercise agency by following or not following assessment expectations or protocols (Harris et al., 2018). As such, feedback can be rejected by students for various reasons (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996), and this can be an act of assessment resistance (Harris et al., 2018). Feedback valence agency has also been found to play an important role for growth mindset and how learners exercise agency when receiving confirmatory or critical feedback (Cutumisu, 2019). Feedback valence has been identified as the intrinsic attractiveness or aversiveness of receiving positive or negative feedback and considered an important part of lower secondary students’ emotional reaction to classroom feedback (Frijda, 1986; Gamlem & Smith, 2013).

Self-regulated learners have been characterised as confident, diligent, and resourceful individuals who are aware of their own strengths and weaknesses (Zimmerman, 1990). A later definition of self-regulation focused on the cyclical nature of human functioning: ‘Self-

regulation refers to self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals' (Zimmerman, 2000a, p. 14). In the EFL classroom, a self-regulated learning perspective assumes language learners as involved participants who monitor and adjust their learning. In this perspective, self-efficacy plays a crucial part as it determines whether a learner engages in learning activities (Zimmerman, 2002). In responsive pedagogy, this cyclical process takes the form of a recursive dialogue between internal and external factors. Zimmerman (1995) emphasised that metacognitive knowledge and skills alone do not ensure success, and highlighted that self-efficacy, sense of agency, as well as motivational and behavioural factors are important determinants to explain students' achievements and failures. Figure 4 shows Zimmerman's cyclical phases model of self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 2002).

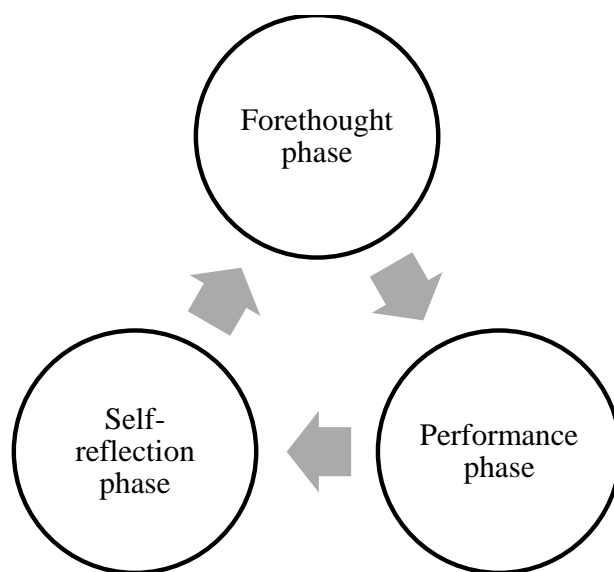


Figure 4. Zimmerman's cyclical phases model of self-regulated learning (adapted, Zimmerman, 2002, p. 67)

In responsive pedagogy internal feedback is generated across the three phases of self-regulation proposed in Zimmerman's cyclical phases model: forethought, performance, and self-reflection (Panadero, 2017; Smith et al., 2016; Zimmerman, 2002). There are two main subprocesses of each phase. The forethought phase consists of two subprocesses, *task analysis* and *self-motivation* (Zimmerman, 2002). Zimmerman (2002) argued that self-motivation comes

from students' beliefs about learning, for example self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). Internal feedback is generated continuously as the learner strategically and adaptively plan how to execute tasks whilst simultaneously monitoring own motivation and interests in accomplishing the tasks. The learner analyses and plans different ways of completing the tasks but also thinks about the price he or she is willing to pay to achieve it (Smith, 2007).

During the performance phase of self-regulation, Zimmerman (2002) addressed *self-control* and *self-observation* as the two subprocesses. Internal feedback is continuously generated by use of strategies for directing own attention to the task. Imagery is mentioned as a strategy for foreign language learners in which learners exercise self-control in the performance phase through imagery. For example, EFL learners can self-control by combining and comparing words and mental images in the L1 and L2. Self-observation relates to the overt process of paying attention to the processes related to the performance phase. An EFL learner may self-observe and find that using mind maps before writing a text considerably reduces the time to write a coherent text. Self-monitoring is the covert form of self-observation (Zimmerman, 2002).

The final self-reflection phase consists of the two subprocesses, *self-judgement* and *self-reaction* (Zimmerman, 2002). In the self-judgement phase, the learner judges whether the planning and performance phases were successful. The learner then ascribes successes or failures to ability or to circumstances. The self-reaction phase involves affective processes such as presence or absence of self-satisfaction. Based on such affective processes the learner may adopt an open or defensive reaction. Therefore, the self-reflection phase is decisive for students' self-efficacy and beliefs in future achievements.

In Norway, 2009 saw some important changes related to student self-assessment in the Regulations to the Norwegian Education Act (Norwegian Ministry of Education, 2009). Section 3–12 expresses that student self-assessment is part of the continuous assessment with focus that the student 'reflects on and become aware of own learning'. The inclusion of self-assessment as a part of students' right to continuous assessment highlighted the metacognitive aspects of feedback which is central in responsive pedagogy. Responsive pedagogy has a special focus on the internal feedback of the student and how feedback practices are targeted at eliciting this internal feedback through extended opportunities for dialogues teacher-student as well as among students (Smith et al., 2016). The focus on self-regulated learning has been prominent in Norway after the start of the PISA surveys at the start of the millennium with its focus on

learning strategies which was seen as connected to self-regulated learning (Hopfenbeck, 2012, 2014). In the beginning of the 2000s, the concept of ‘responsibility for own learning’ (Bjørngen, 1991) was misunderstood in the Norwegian context and connected with teacher abdication and laissez-faire practices (Bjørngen, 2008). The concept of ‘responsibility for own learning’, drew its inspiration from the broader theoretical concepts of learner autonomy (Holec, 1981) and self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 1990). In Norwegian lower secondary school, students with performance goals have been found to seek feedback as self-regulated learning (Gamlem & Smith, 2013). However, Gamlem and Smith (2013) found that dialogic feedback interactions in which students engaged in feedback-seeking was the least used feedback practice in classrooms, which suggests that a focus on self-regulated learning might be useful.

Self-regulated learning is concerned with how learners metacognitively, behaviourally, and motivationally regulate their own learning processes (Zimmerman, 1989). Central to the internal feedback dialogues of responsive pedagogy is Zimmerman’s cyclical phases model which divides self-regulation into three phases: forethought, performance, and self-reflection (Zimmerman, 2002).

2.6. Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has been found to interact with self-regulated learning processes (Zimmerman, 2000b). To understand the premises for self-regulation more in detail, it is useful to study the concept of self-efficacy, as it is the most central mechanism in personal agency (Bandura, 1991). Self-efficacy beliefs are significant because they influence people’s motivation and persistence, how people ascribe failure, and how much stress and depression people experience (Bandura, 1997). Both students’ self-efficacy beliefs and teachers’ facilitation of student self-efficacy are important aspects of successful classroom practices (Bandura, 1993). Self-efficacy beliefs are domain specific (Bandura, 1997; Zee et al., 2016), and in school self-efficacy beliefs are related to subjects (Smith et al., 2016; Street, Malmberg, & Stylianides, 2017). In social cognitive theory, self-efficacy is understood in a framework of reciprocal determinism, which means that behaviour shapes and is shaped by interacting factors (Talsma, Schüz, Schwarzer, & Norris, 2018). There have been disputes among scholars whether self-efficacy is a determinant of academic performance (self-efficacy → performance) or if self-efficacy is only a reflection of past performance (performance → self-efficacy) (Talsma et al., 2018). A social cognitive view makes room for a two-way process in which self-efficacy and performance

affect one another recursively with persistent feedback loops (Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991). Yet, the focus of the thesis is to consider self-efficacy as fundamental for determining students' self-regulation and persistence in accomplishing goals (Bandura, 1993).

The thesis highlights students' self-efficacy and how teachers stimulate students' beliefs in their personal abilities and skills. Responsive pedagogy focuses on self-efficacy at two levels: a) a general level; and b) a domain-specific level (Smith et al., 2016). At the general level, the teacher strengthens students' overall self-esteem and belief in their capabilities. At the domain-specific level, the teacher provides feedback to support students' self-efficacy in the context of a subject or domain. While the thesis also discusses self-efficacy at the general level, it has a special focus on self-efficacy beliefs at the domain-specific level, as it examines responsive pedagogy exclusively in terms of teaching EFL in lower secondary school.

As metacognitive actions and processes by the learner are in themselves insufficient when determining the level of success in a variety of achievements, self-efficacy is a critically important aspect of responsive pedagogy. In social cognitive theory, self-efficacy assumes a sense of agency (Bandura, 1989), meaning that the individual is able to influence and control own volitional actions and processes: 'Among the mechanisms of personal agency, none is more central or pervasive than people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives' (Bandura, 1991, p. 257). Thus, perceived self-efficacy is a crucial motivational component since it is the individual's own perception of own ability that determines the probability of success or failure (Bandura, 1993). In the context of the EFL classroom, perceived self-efficacy is important when it comes to L2 communicative competence. This is because communication in the L2 is an important part of the identity formation of Norwegian learners of English (Rindal, 2010). Taking Bandura's notion of perceived self-efficacy into account, it does not matter if an EFL learner has the knowledge, skills, and metacognition to regulate own thoughts and processes between the L1 and the L2. If the learner does not believe that he or she can communicate in English or participate in classroom discussion, the low self-efficacy belief might be a decisive component determining the outcome. Consequently, a learner's view of own efficacy is more important than the actual efficacy: 'Students' beliefs in their efficacy to regulate their own learning and to master academic activities determine their aspirations, level of motivations, and academic accomplishments' (Bandura, 1993, p. 117). In this perspective, students who do not believe in their own capabilities are likely to be in danger of lower aspirations, poorer motivation, and less academic mastery of tasks.

Theories of teacher expectation might be used as a supplement to understand how teachers stimulate self-efficacy in their students (Rubie-Davies, 2007; Rubie-Davies et al., 2006). Rosenthal and Jacobsen's (1968) theory of a Pygmalion effect in the classroom explains that students' performance is enhanced when teachers expect enhanced performance. The Pygmalion effect is a self-fulfilling prophecy as the expectations cause the expected behaviour (Merton, 1948). Galatia effects are positive effects caused by high expectations. Conversely, Golem effects are negative effects that are caused by low expectations from teachers (Babad et al., 1982). Studies have found student differences as result of teacher expectations, for example, high-achieving students receiving more praise and support and boys having more interactions with the teacher than girls (Brophy & Good, 1970; Rubie-Davies, Peterson, Sibley, & Rosenthal, 2015). Teachers with high expectations have been found to provide feedback more frequently than teachers with low expectations (Rubie-Davies, 2007). In the thesis, teacher expectations are connected to students' self-efficacy, and the link between these two concepts are of relevance to the discussion of teaching EFL.

Central to the Norwegian Education Act is the idea of students' self-efficacy for learning and participation (Norwegian Ministry of Education, 1998). In section 1-1, it is stated that students should gain knowledge, skills, and attitudes to master their lives and participate in work and community in society. This requires teachers to facilitate for learning situations in which students are made to believe in their own capacity for knowledge and skills. Such beliefs can become attitudes that are shared and developed throughout students' lives. In a study of 240 lower secondary school students in Norway, a path analysis showed that students' perceptions of self-efficacy functioned as an important mediator for basic need support (competence, autonomy, relatedness) on performance and mastery goal orientation, which in turn predicted achievement level and life satisfaction (Diseth, Danielsen, & Samdal, 2012). However, the study did not examine possible links to perceived feedback practice or self-regulation, although Hattie and Timperley's (2007) three feedback questions were proposed as possible research trajectories: 'Where am I going? How am I going? Where to next?' (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 87).

Self-efficacy is a central mechanism of the personal agency and determines how people self-regulate personal, behavioural, and environmental influences (Bandura, 1986, 1991). Learners' beliefs to exercise influence over the events that affect them are influential in terms of how learners ascribe their successes and failures (Bandura, 1997). In the thesis, self-efficacy is discussed at the general and domain-specific level of EFL.

2.7. EFL teaching methods

Historically, there have been many approaches and methods regarding foreign language teaching with implications for teachers' language use and feedback practice. The grammar-translation method was the principal method for teaching foreign languages in several centuries until the 1960s (Drew & Sørheim, 2016). The grammar-translation method has been called the classical method, as it originates from methods used for studying Latin and Greek, and the purpose was helping students appreciate literature in foreign languages (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Accuracy and academic status were considered important aims. As the name suggests, the grammar-translation method had an emphasis on grammar and translation. Grammar exercises were frequently given to students and learning rules by heart was considered important. Students read texts in the L2, translated to the L1 and vice versa (Harmer, 2015). The teacher spoke mostly in the L1 during lessons, except when asking comprehension questions. In terms of feedback practice, the grammar-translation method was concerned with providing corrective feedback to learners about the accuracy of their grammar and translation (Harmer, 2015).

The direct method had its inception in the US in the 1860s and was introduced into language schools by Lambert Sauveur and Maximilian Berlitz, two European immigrants with teaching background (Harmer, 2015). This method arose from the need of European immigrants to America to learn English as quickly as possible. Translation between L1 and L2 was not allowed and the focus was on oral L2 language use. The direct method was introduced in a Norwegian context by Carl Knap in the 1920s. This was at a time when teachers still used the grammar-translation method (Drew & Sørheim, 2016). Regarding teachers' feedback practice, feedback was provided exclusively in the L2 to immerse students in the language (Harmer, 2015).

The audio-lingual method was based on structuralist views of language learning with behaviourist pedagogical principles and was introduced in Norway in the 1950s-60s. The basic focus on language skills were on listening and speaking through imitation and language drills. Students would listen, repeat, and read aloud specially constructed texts (Harmer, 2015). L2 use was only for the constructed texts and communication was not emphasised. For teachers' feedback practice, corrective feedback was provided mechanically and with behaviourist principles for the audio-lingual method. For example, 'T: It's a what? S1: A bear. T: A what? S2: A bear' etc.

The era of the communicative approach (also referred to as communicative language teaching) started in the 1970s and has continued onto present day language teaching pedagogy with modified versions (Harmer, 2015; Ur, 2013). The concept, communicative competence, was introduced by Hymes (1972), and the importance of language use in communication was emphasised. Popular teaching techniques of the 1970s and 1980s were role-play activities and information-gap activities in which communicative language contexts were considered important. A purpose for the communicative approach was to encourage students in L2 use with the teacher as a role model in the L2. The communicative approach saw the beginning of teachers' providing feedback in a more communicative context as dialogue with students became increasingly important.

Although many language teaching methods have replaced one another, the knowledge from the different ones have built the present day understanding of how to teach foreign languages. Foreign language teaching should be informed by research, theory, and practice related to teaching and learning in different subjects (Ur, 2013). As such, English teaching methods have gradually developed. Whilst some techniques related to each method have later been discarded, some techniques have been brought on and modified to meet the needs of the learner. The progression from the grammar-translation method to the communicative approaches of current teaching methodology marks a development from language as an academic exercise to language use in real-time communicative contexts. Drew and Sørheim (2016) claimed that there are strengths and weaknesses with each method to language teaching and argued for a balanced approach as the best one. Responsive pedagogical methods of teaching English as a foreign language have focus on L2 communicative competence through the format of learning dialogues that tap into students' internal feedback dialogues in teacher-student interactions (Smith et al., 2016).

2.8. L2 learning

Classroom feedback practice in EFL is distinguished by the presence of an L2. L2 use has been studied in the field of second language acquisition. Internationally, 'L2' often signifies either target language, foreign language, or second language. In Norwegian classrooms, L2 use has been suggested to be dependent on the teacher rather than the students or school (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). L2 communication has been associated with several variables (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Learner identity is one such variable and learners construct their L2 identity with choice

of L2 pronunciation (Rindal, 2010). Rindal (2010) found that Norwegian EFL students not only made choices based on English accents in general, but that their Norwegian peers influenced their choices. How learners wish to present themselves in classroom settings has implications for their L2 use (Rindal, 2010). A wish for a 'neutral' accent has been expressed by Norwegian adolescent L2 learners which might indicate a desire to disassociate from the formal British English (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). L2 identity is context-based both for teachers and students. The role of L2 in EFL lessons is a problematised area of different opinions. It is generally acknowledged that the younger the students, the more L1 is appropriate to speak. It is important to emphasise that for the present thesis, L2 pronunciation and identity also pertain to EFL teachers who communicate in either the L1 or L2.

Willingness to communicate in the L2 is more complex than in the L1, as willingness to communicate in the L2 is affected by a number of different variables (e.g. L2 competence level) (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Indeed, for the conceptual model of variables influencing willingness to communicate, the top of the pyramid (i.e. 'L2 use') represents the point to which a learner is able to communicate in the L2 (MacIntyre et al., 1998). In order to reach that point, other variables such as personality, intergroup climate, intergroup attitudes, social situation, communicative competence, L2 self-confidence, willingness to communicate, etc. are influential and call for immediacy (MacIntyre et al., 1998). In an EFL classroom setting, there is reason to believe that EFL teachers as L2 learners are subject to similar mechanisms. Perceived communicative competence is the learner's appraisal of own communicative competence and has been identified as an important predictor of the willingness to initiate communication in the L2 in previous studies (e.g. Ghonsooly, Khajavy, & Asadpour, 2012; Öz, Demirezen, & Pourfeiz, 2015). A meta-analysis indicated that perceived communicative competence had the strongest significant effect on L2 willingness to communicate of the studied variables (Shirvan et al., 2019). This points to the relevance of EFL teachers believing in their students' L2 competence.

Although emotions are of critical importance to L2 learning, L2 research has mainly ignored or underestimated its relevance (Boudreau, MacIntyre, & Dewaele, 2018). The most frequently examined emotion is L2 anxiety (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Sampson, 2018), and L2 enjoyment has been identified as a critical variable in preventing L2 anxiety (Boudreau et al., 2018; De Ruiter, Shirvan, & Talebzadeh, 2019). A study by De Ruiter et al. (2019) examined moment-to-moment changes for anxiety and enjoyment in the L2 learner and the foreign language teacher's emotional support. The results from their study challenge the notion of stable

descriptors, for example, ‘supportive’ teachers and ‘interested’ students, but rather suggest that real-time teacher-student affective (here, enjoyment and anxiety) patterns are co-constructed and dynamic (De Ruiter et al., 2019). As students’ L2 enjoyment and L2 anxiety have been suggested to be associated with a specific teacher (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2020), there are reasons to believe that these factors are connected to foreign language teachers’ feedback practice. The present thesis examines L2 learning and EFL competence with variables of responsive pedagogy, which is novel to the L2 research.

2.9. Chapter summary

To understand the mechanisms of feedback practice as responsive pedagogy, a learning-oriented assessment framework embedded in social cognitive theory has been applied as the theoretical basis on which to discuss theories of feedback, self-regulation, self-efficacy, EFL teaching, and L2 learning. Social cognitive theory understands human functioning as a triadic reciprocal causal relationship between personal, behavioural, and environmental influences. Social cognitive theory is relevant to discuss responsive pedagogy since internal and external influences are regulated by human agency. A learning-oriented assessment framework considers the learner as the link between assessment and learning, and an aim is the development of teacher-student partnerships in feedback processes. Feedback as information within a learning process operate through internal and external processes and feedback is a central driver for learning. The internal feedback processes are explained by using Zimmerman’s cyclical phases model. Self-efficacy is fundamental in social cognitive theory as it determines personal, behavioural, and environmental influences. Domain-specific self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) is in the thesis understood as students’ self-efficacy in EFL. The teaching of EFL has developed gradually over the century up to the communicative teaching methods of today. An important aspect of students’ perceived L2 competence is the willingness to communicate in the L2 for teachers and students.

3. Methodology

The methodological approach for the thesis is an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design with pragmatic grounding (Greene, 2007; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In this chapter, the philosophical background related to the methodology of the thesis is discussed before the research design is presented. Samples, instruments, piloting, data collections, procedures, and data analyses are discussed. Aspects of validity, reliability, and ethics are discussed towards the end of this chapter.

3.1. Pragmatism as a philosophical background to mixed methods research

The philosophical assumptions of the methodological orientation of the thesis emanate from a pragmatic paradigm (Greene, 2007; Mertens & Tarsilla, 2015). The ontological assumption is that '[r]eality is continually created through experience in interaction and transaction with the "world".' (Mertens & Tarsilla, 2015, p. 437). Social reality is not objective but is continually constructed through interactions and interpretations. The epistemological view of pragmatism is that 'ideas and knowledge are evaluated according to their consequences' (Mertens & Tarsilla, 2015, p. 437). Importantly, knowledge is neither something that exists objectively nor transferred from the research field to knowledge in a one-way transmissive process. By contrast, knowledge is generated and constructed through interactions among actors in the research field. The pragmatic paradigm highlights the relevance of context, as classroom practices in one context may not translate to another. Instead of searching for '*the* truth', different knowledge assumptions arise from different ways of engaging with the social world (Mertens & Tarsilla, 2015). In pragmatically oriented mixed methods studies, knowledge is constructed in the reflexive and rational interpretations of a community of researchers employing different tools (e.g. methods, theories) to answer specific research questions (Harrits, 2011).

Part of the rationale for selecting pragmatism as the philosophical background to mixed methods research for the thesis is the flexibility of research questions; the researcher asks the questions that are most pertinent and not the questions that are dictated by choice of data collection methods (Maxcy, 2003). Methodological pluralism is why many scholars within the field of mixed methods research adopt pragmatism as a philosophical background (Biddle & Schafft, 2015; Greene, 2006; Hathcoat & Meixner, 2017; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). However, there are different opinions of whether pragmatism should be *the* philosophical background, or if it should act as support (Biesta, 2010b). Traditionally, social-scientific

researchers have tended to identify their research and themselves in the qualitative or quantitative research tradition. To varying degrees, this has affected their choice of research questions, methods, and philosophical perspectives.

3.2. Research design

The research design applied in the thesis is an explanatory sequential mixed methods design in which the phases come sequentially and build upon each other (Creswell, 2014; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The overall purpose of an explanatory sequential design is to have the qualitative data help explain the initial quantitative results in more detail (Creswell, 2014). Figure 5 displays the explanatory sequential mixed methods design of the thesis.

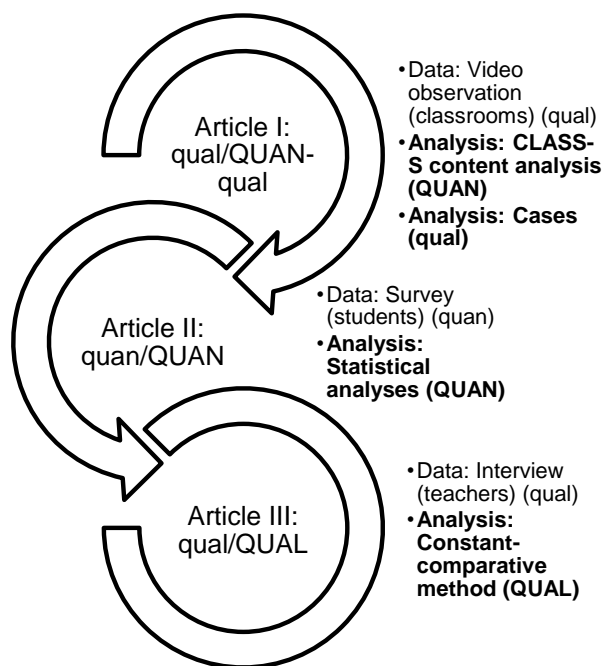


Figure 5. An explanatory sequential mixed methods design

Note: Timing, weighting, and mixing are represented in the figure. Lower-case letters (e.g. quan) placed initially before the oblique strokes (/) refer to data and upper-case letters (e.g. QUAN) after the oblique strokes refer to analyses. In the first article, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were performed, but the QUAN received more emphasis.

First, the classroom perspective as represented by the video material granted access to teacher-student interactions. As such, the video material provided a context for the subsequent data collections. Second, student perspectives at a large scale provided a broad view on how students perceived teachers' feedback practice in teaching EFL. Overall, the two first data collections and analyses lay the foundation for the third phase, which consisted of in-depth interviews with ten EFL teachers.

Timing, weighting, mixing, and theorising were four important aspects of the mixed methods procedures in the thesis (Creswell, 2009). First, the timing of the mixed methods design involved sequential data collections occurring at different points of time. The nature of the explanatory design further indicated that the quantitative phases preceded the qualitative phases (Creswell, 2014; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Second, the weight or priority given to qualitative or quantitative method differed in terms of data collection and analysis. For the data collection, the qualitative data material received more emphasis with video material (qual), survey data (quan), and interview data (qual). However, the data analysis weighting received more quantitative emphasis: article 1 (QUAN-qual), article 2 (QUAN), and article 3 (QUAL) (See Figure 5). Third, the mixing occurred both at the intra level (within a single article and research question) and inter level (between studies and research questions) (Johnson & Turner, 2003). Intra-level and inter-level mixing are sometimes referred to as integration and can occur at several levels (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013), although the thesis considers integration as a more fundamental and overarching concept, as explicated below. The final aspect related to whether a larger, theoretical perspective guided the design (Creswell, 2009). In the thesis, social cognitive theory with its focus on learners' relation to the environment, own behaviour, and person, was a founding platform on which to design the different perspectives (i.e. classroom, student, teacher) related to feedback practice as responsive pedagogy. This meant choosing the sequential design where the first phase (classroom perspective) affected the second phase (student perspective) and culminated in an in-depth exploration of teachers' beliefs (third phase). The weight shift from quantitative to qualitative emphasis was also fundamental in capturing more in-depth aspects of teachers' beliefs about responsive pedagogical practices.

An overarching principle of the research design is integration. Integration is defined as using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study, and true integration is achieved when there is an integration of the findings and inferences within the study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2008). Integration relates to the different choices and methodological measures which make out the craft of mixed methods research (Frederiksen,

2013). When there is no true integration of the findings and inferences, a mixed methods design is often referred to as quasi-mixed (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2008). The thesis has true integration within a single article (i.e., article 1). Further, true integration, consistent with Teddlie and Tashakkori (2008), is achieved by the integration of the findings and inferences associated with all three sub-questions of the thesis. Integration should thus not only be understood as an element of a design but the very method that makes interconnection possible (Frederiksen, 2013).

3.3. Context

The context of the studies of the thesis is lower secondary education in Norway. Lower secondary education is compulsory, and students are 13-16 years old in this period from Year 8 to Year 10. A difference between primary and lower secondary school is that students in lower secondary school receive marks and undertake high-stakes examinations in Year 10. In Norway, marks are not introduced until the lower secondary level, and a dilemma has been for teachers to be perceived as supportive by low-performing students whilst giving them low marks (Bru, Stornes, Munthe, & Thuen, 2010). Students thus are more frequently tested and assessed for documentation and marking purposes. By the end of Year 10, students receive their final marks and have examinations. The introduction of marks is an important characteristic of the transition from primary to secondary school in Norway (Bru et al., 2010). The marks have consequences for whether students are admitted to studies of their own choice in upper secondary education. The context of the participants of the thesis is also characterised by the fact that the schools have, to varying degrees, been involved in the assessment for learning initiative (2010-2018), as mentioned earlier.

3.4. Sample

The samples for the thesis were three distinct samples from lower secondary schools in Norway that corresponded to the three perspectives of the thesis (i.e., classroom, student, and teacher). The same two schools (nine teachers) were featured in sample I and III, but four new schools were added in sample II. Sample I consisted of nine EFL teachers and their 13 classes at two lower secondary schools and participated in all data sets. Sample I contributed with video material for article 1 ($n = 65$ lessons). Five lessons were video recorded from each classroom. Two of the nine EFL teachers taught two classes which were both included in the sample. One

teacher had to withdraw from participation due to leave from work after one recorded lesson, and the recorded lesson was discarded from the video material altogether as it did not meet the requirement of five recorded lessons per classroom. All Year levels (8-10) were represented in the three samples.

Sample II comprised 1137 students from 51 classrooms in six lower secondary schools. Four of six schools had representation from all year levels. The distribution between boys and girls resembled a representative distribution of the gender balance in Norway (boys: 48.8%; girls: 51.2%). All the students included in the sample had a relatively high percentage of Norway as place of birth (91.2%) and as to whether they had lived in Norway their whole life. The five first schools were rural schools (school sizes of about 300 students each), whereas the sixth school was a city school (school size of about 400 students).

10 EFL teachers participated in sample III with individual interviews. Nine of the EFL teachers were included from sample I. Additionally, one EFL teacher had been on leave during the video observation but wished to participate in the individual interviews. Table 1 shows the overview of the three samples of the thesis.

Table 1. Overview of samples

Sample	I	II	III
No. of classrooms	13	51	-
No. of schools	2	6	2
Years	8-10	8-10	8-10
Mean size of classes (no. students)	18.9	-	-
No. of lessons	65		
Lesson length units (not actual time)	55 min x 8; 45 min x 5	-	-
No. of lessons per class	5	-	-
No. of students	-	1,137	-
No. of teachers	-	-	10

Note: I = classroom; II = student; III = teacher. Some columns are left blank because the category/information is not relevant for the unit of analysis related to the data material of the sample (i.e., video, survey, and interview, respectively). Two of the schools in the samples were featured in all the samples, and four schools were added in sample 2.

Purposive sampling techniques, defined as selecting units based on specific purposes associated with answering research questions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2008), were conducted to select the three samples. First, the schools were invited due to their representative results

from a national Year-8 test in English. Second, the schools had participated in the national *Assessment for Learning* initiative (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2011, 2018). Third, the school sizes consisted of approximately 300 students, which is more representative of smaller rather than larger schools. The rationale for sample expansion for sample II was due to the benefits from a higher number of participants in relation to the sub-question of the thesis, as the article employed multiple regression and path analyses.

3.4.1. Instruments and piloting

All instruments were piloted separately before the data collection started. Testing the measures and equipment in lower secondary contexts was done to strengthen validity and reliability, as teachers and students provided personal feedback on items and questions used. Both the questionnaire and interview guide were originally developed for use in mathematics in the *Responsive Pedagogy in Mathematics* project (Gamlem, 2019; Gamlem et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2016). However, the instruments were designed as cross-discipline instruments and thus apt for changes. The three instruments, Classroom Assessment Scoring System–Secondary (CLASS-S) manual, Responsive Pedagogy Questionnaire (RPQ), and Responsive Pedagogy Interview Guide (RPIG), are discussed below.

The CLASS-S manual (Pianta et al., 2012) was used to score the quality of teacher-student interactions. The instrument has been validated in a Norwegian lower-secondary school setting (Westergård, Ertesvåg, & Rafaelsen, 2019) and targeted to students in Years 8-13. The CLASS-S has also been validated in Finland (Virtanen et al., 2018) and United States (Pianta et al., 2012). Interaction quality is operationalised as consisting of three broad domains: emotional support, classroom organisation, and instructional support (Hamre et al., 2013). These domains are further operationalised into dimensions, indicators, and behavioural markers that are observed and rated on a 1-7 scale, with 1-2 expressing low range, 3-5 mid range, and 6-7 high range (Pianta et al., 2012).

Video observation of two EFL lessons (one Year 8 group and one Year 9 group) at a pilot school was carried out to test the video equipment and time needed to prepare cameras before lesson start. Data were collected by use of two video cameras with wide-angle lenses. The cameras were thoroughly tested for sound, angles, placement, and set-up efficiency. The cameras used were high-quality, small, and compact which made them less conspicuous. The rationale for using two video cameras was to capture two different perspectives of the

classroom. The handheld camera was operated by the researcher and connected to a wireless audio receiver to a collar clip microphone attached to the teacher. This ensured high quality audio of teacher-student interactions. The teacher could flexibly move around the classroom. The other camera was placed on a tripod in a front-corner facing the students. Subsequent pilot analyses and scrutiny of the video data with the CLASS-S were done to ensure that EFL lessons could be reliably analysed.

The RPQ was used as a data collection instrument for the survey material. The RPQ was originally developed and validated by a research team for use in mathematics in lower secondary school (Gamlem et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2016). Some of the items related to learning strategies and affective dimensions of self-regulation were inspired by the Norwegian version of the Cross-Curricular Competencies questionnaire (Lie, Kjærnsli, Roe, & Turmo, 2001). Other items related to emotions were inspired by the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (Pekrun, Goetz, & Frenzel, 2005). 85 items were featured in the RPQ and were related to feedback, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and other aspects of teaching EFL, such as parents' attitudes, peer feedback, emotions, etc. There were an additional 14 items related to background information. The overarching structure of the RPQ is divided into three phases: pre-, while-, and post-, reflecting the three phases of self-regulation (Zimmerman, 2002). The RPQ for mathematics had items, such as: 'The teachers explain clearly what I should learn in mathematics' (Gamlem et al., 2019). The word, 'mathematics', was replaced with 'English' for many of the items: 'The teachers explain clearly what I should learn in English. 24 items were used in the adapted version of RPQ for teaching EFL (Vattøy & Smith, 2019, p. 264).

The RPQ for teaching EFL was piloted in two EFL classrooms (one Year 8 group and one Year 9 group). The procedures of the survey were first explained, and students were encouraged to ask questions and provide comments before, while, and after the survey. Students were not given a time limit during the pilot because an aim was to measure how much time students needed for completion. In the first group (Year 9), the completion time ranged from 14 min to 36 min. In the second group (Year 8), the completion time ranged from 12 min to 29 min. The teacher had agreed to spend a whole lesson for the completion of the piloting in order to make sure students could ask questions and provide feedback to the researcher. As the completion time for the students in the pilot survey varied, teachers in the subsequent data collection were informed to minimise down time in lessons for early finishers by facilitating additional work. The students in the pilot marked and commented survey items that were difficult to understand. The post-completion discussion with the students was useful to the

researcher. Smaller adjustments were made to items as a result of the piloting. For example, one of the items were originally (for mathematics): ‘If I decide to get correct answers in maths, I can do it’, was changed to ‘If I decide to *achieve tasks* in *English*, I can do it’ (changes in italics).

The RPIG was developed, piloted, and employed by a research team examining responsive pedagogy in mathematics (Smith et al., 2016). In the study of the thesis, the RPIG was piloted with a lower secondary EFL teacher. After the pilot interview, a new session followed in which the EFL teacher was given a copy of the interview guide. The EFL teacher commented on own experiences of the interview situation, questions, and ideas for improvement. Both sessions were audio recorded and transcribed. Comments and issues raised were important in the development from the RPIG to the RPIG EFL adapted version, particularly regarding the development of the language skills theme. Some of the comments were about the comprehensibility of the interview questions whereas other concerns were related to the repetitiveness of some questions. 23 questions were featured in the final version (Vattøy, 2020, pp. 8-9). The questions were divided into four themes: language skills, feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy, with a synthesis questions at the end.

3.4.2. Data collection

First, the data collection for the video observation commenced September 2017 and ended December 2017. The aim of the video observation was to examine EFL teacher-student interactions in a naturalistic setting, independent of content, time of year, and teaching methods. The CLASS-S measure captures what teachers do with the materials they have and the interactions they have with students rather than teachers’ plans and intentions (Allen et al., 2013; Pianta et al., 2012). The initial testing of the equipment and procedures allowed the data collection to be carried out effectively with minimal extra work for the EFL teachers. The researcher was in contact with each of the nine EFL teachers who provided available lessons for video observation.

Second, data collection for the surveys commenced February 2018 and ended June 2018. The survey data collection was carried out after the video observation to reduce the research load for the teachers and students. The two schools from sample 1 participated in the survey data collection. The recruitment of the remaining four schools started in January 2018. The researcher travelled to all classrooms at each school with written informed consent forms.

Teachers, students, and head teachers were invited to ask questions and discuss. After all students had provided written informed consent forms back to their teachers, the researcher visited the schools again with printed copies of the RPQ. The teachers carried out the survey at an optional time of the day. The teachers were instructed not to look at the surveys of their students but collect, seal, and return the survey responses. Overall, four of six schools had full participation and the latter two schools included a Year 8 and a Year 10 cohort. The researcher also modelled how to fill out the survey forms. Personal contact and careful planning contributed to a very low percent of missing values in the completed surveys and the overall survey response was 89%.

Third, semi-structured individual interviews with teachers were carried out from April to May 2018. A research journal was kept continuously throughout the data collection phases to document all research activities, strengthen reliability, and record the choices made. The interviews were carried out from April to May 2018. The interviews were recorded in a room with only the researcher and the individual participant present in their lower secondary school. Before the voice recorder was turned on the researcher briefed the teachers about the procedures of the interview (e.g. the structure of the interview guide and estimation of time). Voluntary participation and withdrawal at any time were reiterated. The teachers were also informed that if they were to withdraw, it would have no consequences for them, and the data material would be deleted.

3.4.3. Data analysis

Various analyses were applied for the different data materials and to answer the three sub-questions of the thesis. Statistical analyses were employed to analyse the results related to the first and second sub-question. Four cases were also analysed related to the first sub-question. The constant comparative method was used in the process of answering the third sub-question.

CLASS has been defined as a content analysis for quantifying audio-visual material with explicitly defined and reliable categories (Munthe, 2005). Content analysis with the CLASS-S manual was conducted to score quality of teacher-student interactions for the video observation data (Pianta et al., 2012). CLASS-S dimensions have indicators with behavioural markers to be observed and rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1–2 = low quality, 3–5 = medium quality, 6–7 = high quality). All videos ($n = 65$ lessons; 3325 min of recording) were scored in three cycles for each lesson (cycles, 0–20 min) of all the dimensions in the CLASS-S, resulting in 196

cycles/observation scores. Subsequently, the mean scores of each lesson were calculated. In addition, all videos were analysed by use of time sampling of teachers' L1 and L2 use. The procedure implied using two timers to measure the overall language use. Since the teachers only engaged in speaking two languages (i.e. Norwegian and English), there were only three alternatives in the 65 videos: 1. Norwegian (L1 use); 2. English (L2 use); and 3: Silence/Other sounds. Students were not time sampled for L1 and L2 use, as they were not equipped with individual collar-clip microphones. Silence/other sounds was calculated by subtracting L1 and L2 use from the total time of each sequence. The timers were only activated when the EFL teacher used the L1 or L2.

For the survey data analyses, students who answered less than 66% of the survey were discarded from the sample. Remaining missing values comprised a minimal role in the data set with only 2% on average across all items. Mean imputation at the item-level was conducted to replace these values to the mean of surrounding points for the subsequent regression, factor, and path analyses. Descriptive statistics were analysed to determine the characteristics and general trends of the data set. Items that related to one another, such as perceived teacher feedback practice, were grouped together. Means, minimum-maximum values, standard error, and standard deviation were examined. Skewness and Kurtosis values were examined and controlled on the basis of an acceptable range of +/- 1.96 (Field, 2009). Pearson's *r* product-moment correlations were performed between all scales to examine correlations. Confirmatory factor analyses and path analyses were performed with Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Amos and the measurement model was estimated using maximum likelihood estimation. Three absolute goodness-of-fit indices were used: the chi-square test (χ^2), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR). The comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were used as comparative goodness-of-fit indices to evaluate model fit further. Multiple regression analyses were run with both SPSS and SPSS Amos. The factors from the confirmatory factor analyses were used as latent variables in both multiple regression analyses and path analyses. The R-square, F-test, t-test, and p-value were used to examine the results from the multiple regression analyses. The hypothetical model had to be altered based on the empirical fit. After more complex path analyses, the final model explained the relationships between the variables and with perceived teacher feedback practice as dependent variable.

The constant comparative method was used as a data analysis method for the interview data. The data were analysed through initial, focused, and axial coding (Boeije, 2002; Charmaz,

2011; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). NVivo was used to manage and code the material and other data processing software, such as Microsoft Word and use of tables to perform several horizontal and vertical analyses across the teacher interviews. In constructivist grounded theory the phases of the coding process develop recursively and allow for creativity when studying the phenomena in depth (Charmaz, 2011; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2017). Memo writing was used as a strategy and important analytic notes drove the codes forward in the process (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The coding process continued until saturation was reached, which was the point when no new codes emerged. Core stories for each of the teacher beliefs were also analysed. Sub-themes represented the final codes for each of the four main themes (i.e. feedback, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills). The four main themes were decided before the data collection commenced. The sub-themes, by contrast, emerged slowly and recursively through deep and thorough scrutiny and analysis using the constant comparative method. Finally, the sub-themes were controlled in terms of representation. Proportions of teachers signalled the percentage of how many teachers who believed or supported a sub-theme. The cut-off percent was 40%, which meant that sub-themes with three or less teachers were not included in the results.

3.5. Validity and reliability issues

Validity and reliability were important issues throughout the entire research project. For the video observation data, validity was strengthened by using the CLASS-S (Pianta et al., 2012) which is, as mentioned, validated for the Nordic lower secondary setting (Virtanen et al., 2018; Westergård et al., 2019). The CLASS-S has also been used as an observation tool in many studies in lower secondary school in Norway (Gamlem, 2019; Gamlem & Munthe, 2014). To support reliability, two video cameras were used to collect data. The researcher became a certified CLASS-S observer which implied passing a certification exam after initial training. To secure reliable scoring, 10% of the data material (7 out of 65 videos) was double scored by one of the supervisors for the PhD who was a certified coder of the CLASS-S. Inter-rater reliability refers to the consistency between two or more coders (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2014), and was calculated and above 80% in accordance with the CLASS-S manual (Pianta et al., 2012).

For the survey data, the RPQ was validated for use in mathematics (Gamlem et al., 2019) and piloted in two EFL classes to strengthen validity, as mentioned above. Cronbach's alpha

(α) was calculated to test the reliability of the scales used in the analyses, and all scales had strong inter-item reliability. The results from the confirmatory factor analyses pointed to the presence of one factor in each of the analyses, which strengthened the correspondence between each factor and the items. Factor loadings were provided in the article to support transparency. Histograms with a normal curve were used to examine if there were any significant outliers in the scales, which was not the case. Homoscedasticity was measured by analysing scatterplots and use-of-fit lines, and the plot had a random scatter which indicated normality. Previous validation in lower secondary school contexts strengthened the accuracy and comprehensibility of the items. The items were provided in Norwegian, which was the L1 of most of the students, since 91.2% reported Norway as their birthplace. The piloting of the adapted EFL version was important for receiving valuable feedback from students about the comprehensibility of the RPQ items. The researcher instructed all teachers who administered the survey about information to give to the students (e.g. answer all items on both sides of all pages; place only one cross inside one box for each item). The close personal contact with teachers and students might have been important for the high response rate.

For the interview data, the RPIG had previously been validated by a research team examining responsive pedagogy in mathematics (Gamlem et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2016). The RPIG is based on research literature about feedback practice (Gamlem, 2015; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Hattie & Timperley, 2007), self-regulation (Butler & Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 1989, 2000a), and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977a, 1982, 1995a). The fourth EFL theme was based on research literature related to language skills (Harmer, 2015; MacIntyre et al., 1998). The adapted RPIG for EFL teaching was also based on the observations from the video observation and piloted with an EFL teacher prior to the ten interviews. To have the piloting of instruments inspire the development of subsequent instruments is a strength of explanatory sequential mixed methods designs (Creswell, 2014; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Although it has been argued that there is not one, objective, and true transformation from the oral mode to the written mode (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015), the audio data were transcribed as accurately and carefully as possible. The transcription process involved re-listening to the interviews to check for correct transcriptions. To bolster reliability throughout the data analysis process, an audit trail was recorded by an extensive use of researcher journal with memos. The audit trail also included recording examples of the coding process and rationale for the development of codes.

3.6. Ethical considerations

To strengthen the scientific integrity of the research project, ethical considerations permeated all processes of the research. Informed consent, freedom of participation, and right to confidentiality were aspects that were communicated to all research participants prior to data collection, in keeping with the guidelines of the National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities (NESH, 2016). All head teachers, teachers, students, and parents/caregivers gave their written consent to participation in the research project.

The Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) was notified prior to the commencement of the research project, which entailed detailed description and documentation of informed-consent letters of invitations and other materials, such as questionnaire and interview guide. The approval from the NSD is presented in Appendix A and the informed consent letters are referred to in Appendix B/C. Social-scientific research comes with a special responsibility for protecting human dignity and integrity (NESH, 2016). When conducting video observation in compulsory education, section 12 of NESH's guidelines is important: 'Children's right to protection', and it reads: 'Parental consent is usually required when children are under the age of 15 will be taking part in research' (NESH, 2006, p. 16). Due to the young age of the students, both students and their parents/caregivers had to sign and return the informed consent sheet prior to data collection, which is in accordance with the recommendations of the NSD. Free participation and the right to withdraw at any point of the study without any consequences were emphasised. All research data were stored externally and locked in a safe to ensure research participants' right to confidentiality and privacy. Code-keys were stored separately from the other research data to further strengthen this aspect.

Prior to the video observation, personal contact was established with teachers and students. Students were notified each time the lessons were video-recorded, and the focus of the handheld camera of analysis (camera I) was on the teacher, whilst camera II facing the students was used as a backup. One student, who had provided informed consent and parental approval, contacted the teacher prior to video observation of a lesson with the wish to withdraw from the video observation due to personal reasons. Therefore, the student was moved out of filming range yet still ensuring full participation in lessons without the camera following interactions with the student.

For the data collection of student surveys, several measures were made facilitate voluntary student participation. Personal contact was made during classroom visits with

information and consent forms prior to the survey. Visiting the classrooms in person as opposed to sending e-mail as invitations to digital surveys has several benefits. Personal communication with teachers and students allowed for a more detailed account of information about voluntary participation with focus on questions and answers. Measures were also made to provide students with options on the day of survey completion; for example, students could carry on with other tasks instead of participating.

For the individual interviews with teachers, detailed information provided prior to the interviews about the structure, roles, and ethical concerns of the interviews. Emphasis was given to the wish to understand teachers' beliefs about own feedback practice as related to different aspects of feedback practice as responsive pedagogy. Teachers' beliefs were central to the interview interactions and the researcher's questions were of a supportive nature. Open questions were asked with ample time for teachers to extensively account for their beliefs and practices. Follow-up questions were asked to confirm the researcher's interpretations of teachers' beliefs. Proportions of teachers behind subthemes were clarified in the interview analyses to highlight variability within the interview material as an ethical concern.

Ethical considerations were integrated throughout the three phases of the mixed methods project. An awareness of the participants' rights and roles in each of the phases of the research was important. As described above, conducting social scientific research projects should be in accordance with NESH's and NSD's guidelines.

3.7. Chapter summary

In this chapter, the research design and methodological concerns were presented and discussed. Pragmatism as a philosophical background to mixed methods research posits that knowledge is constructed and measured by its consequences and relevance to context. The explanatory sequential mixed methods design comprised three phases with use of quantitative and qualitative data and analyses, in which the qualitative phases helped explain the quantitative results more in detail. The context, sample, instruments, piloting, and analyses of the three articles of the thesis were discussed. Finally, validity, reliability, and ethical issues related to the thesis were considered for each of the three phases.

4. Results

The overall research question of the thesis was: ‘What are conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching English as a foreign language?’ This chapter presents the results related to the three sub-questions of the thesis, which are discussed in depth in the three articles. In the thesis, conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy were examined from three distinct perspectives: the classroom perspective with focus on teacher-student interactions (article 1); the student perspective with focus on students’ perceptions (article 2); and the teacher perspective with emphasis on teachers’ beliefs (article 3). Table 2 provides an overview of the research questions, articles, and the results.

Table 2. Overview of research questions, articles and results (I-III)

	Research question	Data / Analysis	Results
I	What characterises teacher-student interactions and feedback practice in EFL lessons in lower secondary school?	Video-observation data ($n = 65$ lessons) CLASS-S content analysis, sampling, and case analyses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The video data emphasised the relevance of feedback practice for responsive pedagogy in the EFL classroom, but it was challenging for teachers to engage in L2 feedback dialogues - Mid quality emotional support; high quality classroom organisation; low quality instructional support - Strongest correlation between quality of feedback and instructional dialogue - Feedback interactions typically characterised by IRE interactions and feedback about the task - Analysis and inquiry dimension had the lowest mean score - Difficulties in supporting students’ internal feedback and self-regulation - Great variation in L2 use - The teacher with the highest percentage of L2 had the lowest percentage of L1 and vice versa - The four cases had low-mid quality of feedback and instructional dialogue
II	What are the relationships of students’ perceptions of teachers’ feedback practice with perceived external goal orientation, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and EFL teaching?	Survey data ($n = 1137$ students) Statistical analyses (descriptive, correlation, multiple regression, path analysis)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students’ perceptions of variables of responsive pedagogy (external goal orientation, self-efficacy, self-regulation) were related to feedback practice in teaching EFL - Students perceived feedback practice as useful when mediated by several variables - Perceived self-efficacy and EFL teaching positively predicted teachers’ feedback practice when mediated by self-regulation and external goal orientation - Perceived external goal orientation was the strongest predictor of students’ perceptions of teachers’ feedback practice - The students reported strongly positive perceptions of self-efficacy in EFL - The students were divided in the perceived usefulness of EFL teaching

III	How are teachers' beliefs about own feedback practice related to their beliefs about students' self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL)?	Individual interview data ($n = 10$ teachers) Constant comparative method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teachers' beliefs about feedback practice were related to aspects of responsive pedagogy - Feedback practice was connected to assessment for learning and the teaching of language skills - Challenges were related to marking, student involvement and feedback dialogues - The teachers were divided in terms of feedback and strategy training - Self-efficacy was considered important to feedback practice, but teacher expectations were sometimes low-expectancy communications
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Note: Article I: Vattøy and Gamlem (2020); Article II: Vattøy and Smith (2019); and article III: Vattøy (2020). The research questions are the sub-questions of the thesis.

4.1. Article I: Vattøy, K.-D., & Gamlem, S. M. (2020). Teacher-student interactions and feedback in English as a foreign language classrooms. *Cambridge Journal of Education*.

The research question for article 1 was: ‘What characterises teacher-student interactions and feedback practice in EFL lessons in lower secondary school?’ The research question examined the classroom as an arena for feedback practice as responsive pedagogy. The CLASS-S content analysis was used to analyse the quality of teacher-student interactions across the 65 EFL lessons. The results indicated mid quality of emotional support, high quality of classroom organisation, but low quality of instructional support. The highest correlation was found between the dimensions, quality of feedback and instructional dialogue, indicating an interdependence between feedback and dialogue in the empirical data. The dimension, analysis and inquiry, had the lowest mean score, and together with results from the low instructional support domain, indicated difficulties in supporting students’ internal feedback and self-regulation. Four cases were selected based on the sampled L2 use in lessons. The four cases varied from low to mid quality for the quality of feedback and instructional dialogue dimensions. Feedback interactions of the cases were typically characterised as Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) interactions and feedback about the task. Feedback about the process and self-regulation were rarer. The combination of high L1 use and low L2 use in teaching EFL suggested low expectations of students’ EFL competence and skills. L2 use was identified as an important additional dimension when studying feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teacher-student interactions in teaching EFL. Facilitating extended feedback

dialogues with focus on students' internal feedback dialogues in the L2 seemed to be the most challenging aspect of teachers' feedback practice.

4.2. Article II: Vattøy, K.-D., & Smith, K. (2019). Students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice in teaching English as a foreign language. *Teaching and Teacher Education*.

The research question for the second article investigated students' perceptions of feedback practice as related to variables of responsive pedagogy: 'What are the relationships of students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice with perceived external goal orientation, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and EFL teaching?' Statistical analyses were applied to examine the perceptions of 1137 students. The article hypothesised that there were other important variables of responsive pedagogy that were vital when examining students' perceptions of the usefulness of teachers' feedback practice. The descriptive statistics showed that perceived self-efficacy was the variable in which students mostly agreed that they had high self-efficacy in EFL. Conversely, perceived EFL teaching was the dimension in which students were most divided. The hypothetical model of the article assumed that perceived external goal orientation, perceived self-regulation, perceived self-efficacy, and perceived EFL teaching all affected perceived teacher feedback practice positively when correlated. The correlation analyses showed positive and significant relationships of varying degrees. However, the multiple regression analysis suggested that perceived self-efficacy had a slightly negative relationship, which was contrary to expectation. Perceived external goal orientation was the strongest predictor of perceived teacher feedback practice. Path analyses were conducted as it was suspected that there might be mediators in the relationship between perceived self-efficacy and perceived teacher feedback practice. A path analysis with good model fit was calculated with perceived self-efficacy and perceived EFL teaching as predictors, perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation as mediators, and perceived teacher feedback practice as dependent variable. The path analysis found a positive relationship between perceived self-efficacy and perceived teacher feedback practice when mediated by perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation. Perceived EFL teaching also had positive significant paths with the two mediators. Nonetheless, perceived EFL teaching also positively predicted perceived teacher feedback practice in a direct relationship in the path model.

4.3. Article III: Vattøy, K.-D. (2020). Teachers' beliefs about feedback practice as related to student self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills in teaching English as a foreign language. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*.

The research question for the third article analysed teachers' beliefs about feedback practice as responsive pedagogy: 'How are teachers' beliefs about own feedback practice related to their beliefs about students' self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL)?' The constant comparative method was used to analyse the 10 teacher interviews. The themes pointed towards a feedback practice with elements of assessment for learning principles, but in which marks and exams seemed to be indicators of more summative traits. Focus on correction inhibited more dialogic feedback practices. A focus on feedback for self-regulation was practised by half of the teachers. Although self-efficacy was considered important for feedback practice by most teachers, the actual beliefs behind a good self-efficacy practice marked a divide in beliefs. Marks and unrealistic expectations were perceived as impediments to student learning by half of the teachers, and half of the teachers also sometimes saw the relevance of low expectations to adjust student expectations to fit with the summative examination system. Teachers' beliefs about feedback practice were associated with their teaching of language skills in EFL. The assessment for learning practices that were particularly emphasised were use of formative peer feedback for the promotion of oral skills in EFL and formative teacher feedback for the development of students' writing skills during the process of writing.

4.4. Synthesis of the three sub-questions and articles

Overall, the findings related to the sub-questions and three articles contributed to answering the overall research question: 'What are conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL?'. The synthesis is presented in Figure 6 with the four conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL. The four conditions identified by the present thesis are: i. a shift in thinking towards L2 feedback dialogues; ii. fostering internal L2 feedback; iii. a culture for self-efficacious feedback in EFL; and iv. capitalising on students' EFL competence.

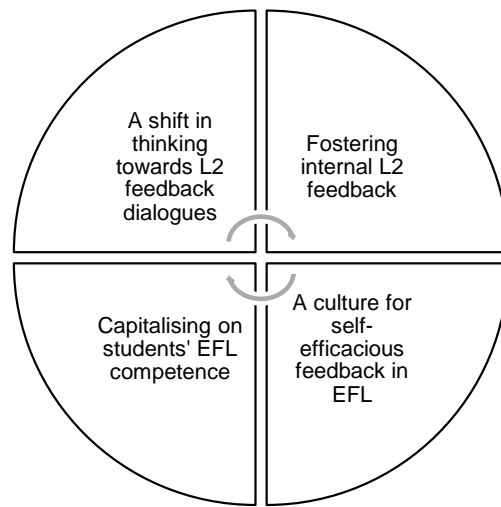


Figure 6. Conditions that facilitate feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL

First, a shift in thinking towards L2 feedback dialogues is not a superficial change but a fundamentally different way of thinking of feedback in EFL. Feedback as dialogue in EFL interactions implies that feedback should be provided dialogically in interactions. The results from the video data suggested that feedback and dialogue were strongly associated but that feedback dialogues represented an area of difficulty for teachers. The results from the survey data also suggested the need for two-way feedback dialogues with students providing feedback to teachers. The results from the interview data emphasised that feedback dialogues were challenging for teachers due to a summative accountability focus. The implications pointed to a shift in thinking towards L2 dialogic feedback. Feedback language in EFL should be in the L2 as much as possible as this is the language to be learnt. The time sampling of the video data suggested that EFL feedback interactions varied in terms of L2 use. The survey data found that students were divided in the perceived usefulness of EFL teaching. The interview data found that half of the interviewed teachers experienced challenges with using the L2 in the EFL classroom and feedback interactions.

Second, fostering internal L2 feedback is important for the development of students' self-regulation in the L2. Activating internal L2 feedback dialogues in lessons is crucial for responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL. The feedback should involve students in verbalising their own learning experiences. The results from the video data found that teacher-student feedback

interactions to a lesser degree fostered self-regulation and L2 use. The results from the survey data emphasised that students' self-efficacy predicted their perceptions of teachers' feedback practice when mediated by external goal orientation and self-regulation. The interviewed teachers were divided in their focus on self-regulatory feedback which suggested that the practice for self-regulatory feedback was fragmented and might be trained.

Third, a culture for self-efficacious feedback in EFL implies strengthening students' self-beliefs as an important interactional turn. Self-efficacious feedback is not merely feedback that pushes learning, but feedback that fosters students' confidence in their L2 communicative competence. The video data found that feedback interactions were often corrective and controlling rather than fostering students' self-efficacy. The feedback was also frequently approving/disapproving rather than self-efficacious and acknowledging the active role of the student. The survey data indicated that students had an initial high self-efficacy in EFL but that they were divided in the perceived usefulness of teaching EFL. Feedback for self-efficacy was discussed as important by most of the interviewed teachers but marking practices and low expectations were impediments. Some EFL teachers reported to adjust students' expectations to fit with the summative system and feedback as an attempt to justify the marks.

Fourth, capitalising on students' EFL competence highlights that students have knowledge and skills that may be squandered in classroom teaching. Acknowledging and capitalising on students' EFL competence is important for teaching to have relevance. The video observation data found that much of the teacher-student interactions were in the L1, which was the opposite of utilising students' L2 communicative competence. The frequent IRE interactions also supported that feedback was more controlling and telling rather than cumulatively building and capitalising on students' interest, skills, and competence. The survey data indicated that students initially had high self-beliefs of own skills in EFL but that they were divided as to whether they benefited from EFL teaching. This pointed towards a discrepancy between the classroom English teaching and the outside-of-classroom English learning. The hidden accountability system of testing and examinations that was found in the interview data supported the notion that teachers prepare mainly students for exams and tests rather than utilising students' varied EFL competence from engagement with media, technology, and spare time life.

5. Discussion

This chapter discusses the key findings of the thesis, based on the results from the exploration of the three sub-questions of the thesis. Four conditions that facilitate and foster teachers' feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL were identified: i. a shift in thinking towards L2 feedback dialogues; ii. fostering internal L2 feedback; iii. a culture for self-efficacious feedback in EFL; and iv. capitalising on students' EFL competence. The key findings recognise the role of collaboration between teachers and students for the benefits of more equitable feedback practices, as emphasised in responsive pedagogy. The feedback dialogues should acknowledge and capitalise on students' internal L2 feedback by focusing on self-efficacious feedback that fosters students' EFL competence.

5.1. A shift in thinking towards L2 feedback dialogues

A first condition for feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL is a shift in thinking towards L2 feedback dialogues. Feedback practice as responsive pedagogy places the learner as a central contributor in feedback processes yet recognises the need for teacher-student partnerships in feedback dialogues (Carless, 2019). The focus on feedback dialogues is in keeping with the present general paradigm shift from information delivery towards feedback processes (Henderson et al., 2019; Winstone & Carless, 2020). The shift involves moving from monologic feedback-as-telling to engaging in learner-initiated teachers-student and peer feedback dialogues (Ajjawi & Boud, 2017; Sadler, 2010). A focus on feedback dialogues has the potential to involve students as equal partners in feedback processes (Ossenberg, Henderson, & Mitchell, 2018), and this is evident in a learning-focused assessment paradigm (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Winstone & Carless, 2020). However, it is far too easy to think of assessment as learning and more learning-focused forms of assessment as *laissez-faire* for the teacher. Contrary to the idea of teacher distancing, the teacher role in a more dialogic feedback environment should be consisting of designing feedback processes that maximise student engagement with feedback (Winstone & Carless, 2020). However, the findings related to the third sub-question identified the constraints of a summative examination driven system, consistent with previous studies (e.g. Birenbaum et al., 2015; Cumming et al., 2019; Lee & Coniam, 2013). The challenges of the implementation of formative feedback practices accorded with studies that have found teacher resistance when perceived as extra work (e.g. Gamlem, 2015; Hopfenbeck et al., 2015). The teachers also reported difficulties in engaging in dialogic

feedback interactions with their students, which was in keeping with previous research (e.g. Gamlem & Smith, 2013; van der Kleij et al., 2019).

A culture of learning-focused forms of assessment is required if assessment should be used as a pedagogical tool (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Smith, 2015), as feedback dialogues are crucial for the establishment of a strong formative assessment culture in secondary school (Jónsson et al., 2018). Supporting teachers' assessment literacy might be important for the teachers' decision-making regarding teacher engagement in feedback dialogues with students (Engelsen & Smith, 2014; Smith, 2015). Further, how teachers facilitate assessment environments has consequences for students' feedback literacy (Carless & Boud, 2018). Lack of trust and mutual respect may cause students to refrain from participating in feedback dialogues with teachers (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Steen-Utheim & Wittek, 2017). A shared language of assessment and feedback might have the potential to encourage the development of teacher-student partnerships in feedback processes (Jónsson et al., 2018; Winstone & Carless, 2020).

A relevant goal for L2 learning is to increase learners' willingness to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 1998), involving both students and teachers. L2 feedback dialogues may occur with teachers or peers. Uses of both L1 and L2 have been identified as resources in foreign language teaching (e.g. Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Illman & Pietilä, 2018; Then & Ting, 2011). As the EFL teacher is a central role model of L2 use in the EFL classroom, an explicit aim for EFL instruction should be that dialogues are mostly in the L2. The EFL teacher's use of L1 or L2 might communicate the teacher's belief in the students' capabilities to understand the language. In addition, the lack of teacher use of L2 might signify that the EFL teacher lacks personal L2 confidence. In addition to promoting L2 learning, feedback dialogues invite learners to join in and exercise feedback agency (Vattøy, Gamlem, & Rogne, 2020).

Students should be involved in the feedback conversations through partnership of feedback language (Carless, 2019; Jónsson et al., 2018). L2 feedback dialogues are relevant, as L2 learners benefit from increased opportunities for interaction to strengthen their communicative competence (Öz et al., 2015). The language of feedback should be learnt by students and shared by teachers, peers and parents. Second, a shared feedback language in EFL is a language that builds EFL competence. A shared L1 has been connected to the reduction of cognitive load and anxiety levels for students (Bruen & Kelly, 2017). Still, if teachers are only engaging in L1 feedback interactions, then this can be an impediment for the development of

students' L2 communicative competence. Students need opportunities to acquire new skills and knowledge, as well as demonstrate the skills they have learnt outside the four walls of the classroom. The EFL classroom does not need to be thought of as constrained by four walls.

Attention to learning goals is an important task for the teacher (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016; Gamlem & Munthe, 2014). If students do not know goals or criteria for feedback, then that might exclude them from being part of the feedback processes. Feedback dialogues are important for learners to identify criteria and goals as well as support one another to foster student learning. The results related to the second sub-question indicated that external goal orientation and self-regulation were important variables for students' perceptions of feedback practice. Feedback practice as responsive pedagogy has a focus on the educational dialogue between a teachers and students (Smith et al., 2016), yet requires a habit change for teachers (Wiliam, 2020). The strong association between feedback and dialogue that was identified in the results connected with the first sub-question highlighted the relevance of an emphasis on dialogic feedback in classroom interactions, consistent with research literature (e.g. Adie, van der Kleij, et al., 2018; Ajjawi & Boud, 2017; Steen-Utheim & Wittek, 2017). The results of the first sub-question found that feedback interactions were mainly characterised by IRE exchanges with focus on asking for known information (Mehan, 1979). These summative dialogue patterns are traditional for teaching and have the purpose to hold students' accountable for acquired knowledge. Yet, these patterns do not resemble a dialogue in the format that is informed by responsive pedagogy. In that respect, the results accorded with previous research in lower secondary school that has found that feedback is often more affirming and controlling rather than dialogic and learning-oriented (e.g. Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Gamlem & Smith, 2013).

5.2. Fostering internal L2 feedback

A second condition for feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL is fostering internal L2 feedback. Feedback that promotes self-regulation has generally been scarce, but dialogic feedback has been connected to students' self-regulation (e.g. Adie, van der Kleij, et al., 2018; Ajjawi & Boud, 2017; Panadero et al., 2018). An important reason appears to be lack of knowledge about the benefits of activating students' internal feedback dialogues. In teaching EFL, learners benefit from activating their internal L2 feedback (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Vattøy, 2015). The internal feedback dialogue is something that EFL teachers can prompt. The findings from the interviews with teachers showed that there was less knowledge about feedback

practice as related to self-regulation, consistent with previous research on teacher knowledge and self-regulated learning (e.g. Barr & Askill-Williams, 2019; Lawson et al., 2019). There was a general absence of self-regulated learning in teacher-student interactions of the findings associated with the first sub-question. This absence was consistent with previous studies conducted in a Norwegian lower-secondary setting in terms of the low instructional dimensions with emphasis on low score for analysis and inquiry (e.g. Gamlem, 2019; Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Westergård et al., 2019). EFL teachers need to pedagogically differentiate their instructional encounters with students when activating internal L2 feedback, consistent with literature that has emphasised that feedback depends on the student's interpretation and thus needs to be individualised (e.g. Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Strahan et al., 2012; van der Kleij & Adie, 2020).

Activating students' self-regulation in the L2 with use of self-regulatory feedback can be an important way to realise students' own L2 regulation processes. Facilitating conditions for all EFL students to engage in similar strategies is what would matter a lot to many students' L2 competence. The results related to the first sub-question suggested that teacher-student interactions were to a low extent targeted on metacognition, higher-order thinking, and self-regulation. Whilst previous research has found a direct relationship between self-efficacy and feedback (e.g. Ekholm, Zumbrunn, & Conklin, 2015; Zumbrunn, Marrs, & Mewborn, 2016), the results related to the second sub-question suggested that students needed awareness of learning goals and opportunity for self-regulation to find teachers' feedback more useful. Further, the perceived usefulness of feedback has been related to aspects of self-regulated learning in empirical studies (e.g. Kyaruzi, Strijbos, Ufer, & Brown, 2019; Zumbrunn et al., 2016).

The utility of external goal orientation accorded with literature that has emphasised the importance of assessment criteria for self-regulation (e.g. Andrade & Brookhart, 2016; Balloo et al., 2018; Panadero et al., 2018). As such, the results related to the second sub-question agreed with formative assessment reviews that have highlighted the important function of students' comprehension and orientation towards learning goals and criteria (e.g. Black & Wiliam, 1998; Shute, 2008). The results also emphasised the relevance of students' agency and self-regulated models of feedback (Harris et al., 2018; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Rubrics have been identified as useful tools for students' external goal orientation and support students in judging the quality of their own work in self-assessment and self-regulated learning in EFL learning (e.g. Vattøy, 2015; Wang, 2017). Yet, rubrics have been criticised for being used for high stakes

testing and summative assessment practices (Panadero & Jonsson, 2020). The use of rubrics to support students' external goal orientation and criteria knowledge might be important in formative assessment designs. Student involvement in pedagogical designs is important for students' feedback literacy, yet the complexities of context might cause challenges for students' feedback engagement (Noble et al., 2020; van der Kleij & Adie, 2020). One context does not resemble the other, and designs that are successful in specific contexts might not be successful in others.

The belief that self-regulation is not for everyone, as voiced by some of the EFL teachers in the findings related to the third sub-question, was grounded on the claim that students are too immature to self-regulate. The results associated with the third sub-question were consistent with research in which teachers have pointed out that self-regulation is only for some students (e.g. Lawson et al., 2019). Such claims are problematic considering the research literature on self-regulated learning and could have consequences for the facilitation of students' internal L2 feedback. Formal training of self-regulated learning has been found crucial for students' academic success (e.g. Dignath & Büttner, 2008; Zhu & Mok, 2018). A learner does not necessarily become a self-regulated learner as he or she grows older (Fletcher & Shaw, 2012; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990). Some of the teachers who were interviewed in the exploration of the third sub-question reported a top-down approach in which self-regulatory feedback needs to be something difficult and only involve gifted children. Feedback practice as responsive pedagogy, by contrast, is by nature differentiated and requires teachers' pedagogical thoughtfulness and improvisational knowledge (Smith et al., 2016; Strahan et al., 2012).

5.3. A culture for self-efficacious feedback in EFL

A third condition for feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL is a culture for self-efficacious feedback in EFL. Self-efficacious feedback is not only feedback that drives learning forward, but feedback that strengthens the student's belief and confidence in the mastery of tasks. According to Bandura (1993), learning environments that construe ability as an acquirable skill are central for personal improvement rather than competitive social comparison. The feedback provided has a central function: 'Performance feedback that focuses on achieved progress underscores personal capabilities. Feedback that focuses on shortfalls highlights personal deficiencies.' (Bandura, 1993, p. 125). The path analysis from the results connected with the second sub-question suggested that students' self-efficacy was related with teachers' feedback practice, but that students also needed to find the teaching enjoyable and to

promote their self-regulation and awareness of learning goals. Strengthening the aspect of L2 enjoyment appears to be important for students' perceived self-efficacy, which accords with research in which L2 enjoyment has been important in decreasing L2 anxiety (e.g. Boudreau et al., 2018; De Ruiter et al., 2019).

Self-efficacious feedback seems important for students' feedback literacy, as feedback literate students appreciate feedback and manage affect (Carless & Boud, 2018). Students' perceptions of self-efficacy have been associated with their openness to receiving feedback in previous studies (Zumbrunn et al., 2016). The results related to the first sub-question suggested that teachers mainly provided corrective feedback with the aim to control that students were doing what they should be doing, evoking the ghost of the feedback practices of the audio-lingual method (Drew & Sørheim, 2016; Harmer, 2015). The teachers provided approving or disapproving feedback, which was also reported by Gamlem and Smith (2013). Such a feedback encounter may involve high verbal interaction, but the student is still a passive recipient of teacher feedback (Gamlem & Smith, 2013). This is the opposite of self-efficacious feedback, which by contrast recognises the achievement level of the student and encourages the student to be persistent (Bandura, 1995b).

Providing self-efficacious feedback can strengthen the students' own expectations to mastery of tasks, as the student are made to believe in his or her abilities (Bandura, 1982). The results related to the second sub-question suggested that students' perceptions of the usefulness of feedback was not associated with their self-efficacy perceptions, when considering other variables of their learning. As such, the results accorded with the results from Rakoczy et al. (2019), who found that secondary school students' perceptions of usefulness of feedback unexpectedly were not related to their self-efficacy, when initial self-efficacy was taken into account. In other words, the feedback provided was not connected to students' confidence and how they judged their competence. A possible explanation in both studies might be that the feedback provided was not helpful for students' self-beliefs. This pointed to the relevance of providing self-efficacious feedback as a third condition of feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL. In the book, *Self-efficacy: the exercise of control*, Bandura emphasised that self-efficacious learners are known for persistence when faced with adversity: 'Those with low perceived efficacy quickly give up when their efforts fail to produce results. But self-efficacious individuals intensify their efforts and, if necessary, try to change inequitable social practices' (Bandura, 1997, p. 21).

Previous research has found that teachers' expectations influence students' self-beliefs and achievement (Rubie-Davies et al., 2006). Self-efficacious feedback is feedback that strengthens students' self-confidence and beliefs in own capabilities. Teachers communicate high expectations and support students' motivation when they provide self-efficacious feedback. Teacher expectations and beliefs exist in specific feedback cultures. Feedback cultures have been conceptualised as 'representing the beliefs, values and practices that typically characterise and influence feedback processes within a given educational setting' (Winstone & Carless, 2020, p. 10). The interviewed teachers related to the exploration of the third sub-question often discussed their practices in relation to the teams they belonged to (e.g. a Year 8 team of EFL teachers). A feedback culture with focus on self-efficacious feedback emphasises practices that foster students' self-beliefs and confidence in EFL skills.

High self-efficacy has been connected to the emotion of confidence, whereas low self-efficacy has been associated with the emotions of frustration and discouragement (Miele & Scholer, 2018). When exploring the first sub-question, differences were found in terms of feedback practice in teaching EFL with some teachers having more a controlling EFL classroom of controlling that students were doing tasks. The results connected with the second sub-question emphasised that the 1137 students from the six lower secondary schools were divided as to whether they found EFL teaching to be enjoyable. This might point in the direction that the individual EFL teacher's approach creates the conditions for students' emotions. Such tendencies accord with findings from Dewaele and Dewaele (2020) that students' L2 enjoyment or L2 anxiety are not merely reflections of the individual student's low L2 self-confidence, but that specific teachers cause emotions of enjoyment and anxiety in their foreign language classrooms. Findings related to the third sub-question supported the EFL teachers' different beliefs about feedback for self-efficacy. Many of the teachers connected self-efficacy to them having expectations to students. Yet, this did not entail that EFL teachers provided self-efficacious feedback and strengthened the students' expectations. Some of the work involved teachers having to engage in the cumbersome job of lowering students' expectations to themselves to prepare them for the summative examinations and testing. This shows that some of the EFL teachers viewed feedback as an attempt to justify a mark (Carless & Boud, 2018). Some of the teachers contested the notion that students should think highly of themselves, pointing out that students could become disappointed with receiving results at a lower achievement level than expected. However, there were teachers who explicitly focused on

strengthening students' self-efficacy by showing them their improvement since their past performance.

5.4. Capitalising on students' EFL competence

A fourth condition for feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL is capitalising on students' EFL competence. In Norway, students are exposed to English in spare-time activities through media, television, music, and games (Bakken & Lund, 2018; Burner, 2015). As such, there seems to be a great potential for bridging the world of the students and the world of teaching when it comes to adolescents' perspectives and interests in teaching EFL. However, to capitalise on students' EFL competence, EFL teachers first need to acknowledge that many students in their classroom possess a wide variety of knowledge and skills of learning English. In this sense, capitalising on students' EFL competence is the opposite of presupposing that students come as 'tabula rasa'. Consistent with EFL studies that have identified difficulties with capitalising on students' background, interests, and EFL competence (e.g. Brevik, 2019; Burner, 2015; Illman & Pietilä, 2018; Krulatz et al., 2016), findings presented in the three articles indicated similar tendencies. Dialogues that provide space for adolescent perspectives have been identified as indispensable to learning (Bru et al., 2010; Eccles et al., 1993). The video material associated with the first sub-question pointed at challenges concerning teachers' regard for adolescent perspectives and activation of students' EFL competence in lessons. The results from the exploration of the second sub-question suggested that students were divided in terms of perceiving the EFL teaching as enjoyable and exciting, despite that many students had an initial strong self-efficacy. Such results indicated that teaching EFL only to some degree capitalised on students' EFL competence and out-of-school interests.

Although acquiring communicative competence in the L2 is an aim for teaching EFL (Brevik & Rindal, 2020), focusing on L2-only-environments might pose an emotional strain for some students. The relatively low levels of L2 that were found in the results related to the first sub-question might be an indication that EFL teachers construct their L2 identity in classroom settings. Perhaps the fact that lower secondary school teachers have multiple L1 identities (e.g. history, social science, and PE teachers) is part of the reason why some of the teachers from the first sample refrained from speaking in the L2 almost at all. However, how learners perceive their own communicative competence has been found strongly associated with their willingness to communicate in the L2 (Ghonsooly et al., 2012; Shirvan et al., 2019). Students' L2

communicative competence may range from low to very high and affect their willingness to communicate in the L2 (MacIntyre et al., 1998). It should be taken into account that Norwegian students' exposure to English varies from home to home and might be dependent on socio-economic factors (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). The results from the exploration of the first sub-question, nevertheless, pointed towards the prevalence of variables influencing EFL teachers' willingness to communicate in the L2. Lack of L2 self-confidence might be one possible variable explaining why some of the EFL teachers only spoke L2 to a bare minimum.

The interviewed EFL teachers associated with the third sub-question were all asked how they worked with fostering students' communicative competence in English. Most teachers emphasised that they encouraged students to use the L2 as much as possible, yet the findings connected with the first sub-question appeared to be contradictory in that regard. Such results might underscore a theory-practice gap for the teachers. On the one hand, EFL teachers voiced a desire to foster students' L2 communicative competence. But on the other, EFL teachers were constrained by the examination-driven system of correcting grammar and focus on reproducing factual knowledge. In the end, the latter aspect received the most emphasis for students due to the high-stakes nature of summative assessment systems, consistent with other EFL studies (e.g. Lee & Coniam, 2013). The findings pointed to a need to move from having a script to a spirit of assessment for learning in EFL, which has also been addressed by previous EFL research (e.g. Burner, 2015). Some of the interviewed EFL teachers related to the third sub-question seemed aware of their students acquiring English knowledge and skills at home but missed the opportunity of capitalising on those resources due to the competing focus on cramming glossary and grammar rules. Even though the conditions for EFL learning have changed drastically with the advent of digital technology and media, the EFL teaching has not changed accordingly. Perhaps this might be due to the focus on summative assessment and the fact that grammar and correcting is a relatively time-efficient assessment practice. A continued desire for a summative assessment practice seems to be evident in Teacher 9's thoughts about digital technology and assessment:

They have so much help now. There are spell-checkers in the documents, so the students don't need to have learnt how the words are spelled correctly. As long as they write half-correctly, there will be word suggestions with correct spellings, right? And now we even have a programme that allows you to record spoken English, and then the computer writes for you.' (Teacher 9, article 3)

Working with fostering communicative competence through L2 use in the EFL classroom might be important for the development of students' foreign language learning and development. In this manner, the communicative approach that saw the crack of dawn in the 1970s appears to have relevance for modern-day pedagogy with emphasis on L2 use in the classroom and fostering students' perceived L2 communicative competence. Building on students' interests and perspectives seem to be an important point of departure into promoting EFL competence.

5.5. Chapter summary

The four conditions of feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL all strengthen the rationale of embedding responsive pedagogy in a learning-oriented assessment framework and social cognitive theory. The first condition recognises the relevance of dialogic feedback in the L2, yet stresses the difficulties related to two-way feedback dialogues in teaching EFL. The second condition acknowledges how students' internal L2 feedback can be strengthened but emphasises that awareness-raising of self-regulatory training seems to be necessary. The third condition highlights the need for self-efficacious feedback to strengthen students' L2 communicative competence to combat a heavy reliance on marking and adjusting student expectations to fit with the summative assessment system. The fourth condition recognises students' EFL competence and encourages to acknowledge and capitalise on this competence in teacher-student interactions. The four conditions function as enablers of feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL. However, a change in attitudes to what feedback practice and teaching EFL should consist of is an important step towards a feedback practice in which students' agentic engagement is central (Winstone & Carless, 2020; Winstone et al., 2017). Feedback practice understood through a social cognitive theoretical lens recognises students' feedback agency in feedback processes (Vattøy et al., 2020). In addition, feedback practice as responsive pedagogy embedded in a learning-oriented assessment framework has a focus on both teachers' and students' feedback literacy (Carless & Boud, 2018; Engelsen & Smith, 2014; Smith et al., 2016), rather than viewing feedback as a 'gift' or something that is done *to* students (Askew & Lodge, 2000; Winstone & Carless, 2020).

6. Limitations, implications, and concluding remarks

6.1. Limitations

Some limitations of the thesis should be mentioned. First, expanding the original sample during the data collections could be considered as both a strength and a limitation. In all the three samples there was a core of nine teachers from two schools and their classes. Four schools were originally contacted but two schools withdrew from participation. The samples reflected the different perspectives (classroom, student, teacher) and were adapted to the different data collection techniques and analyses. The perspectives related to the samples focused on different units of analysis (i.e. lessons, students, and teachers). One might argue that a single sample would have enabled more detailed comparisons across the classrooms, students, and teachers. However, due to the explanatory nature of the sequential mixed methods design, it became necessary to implement changes to the sample after the first data collection. The rationale for the sample expansion was made due to the commitment to answer each sub-question as adequately as possible, consistent with guiding principles of pragmatically grounded mixed methods designs.

Another limitation is related to the generalisability for the Norwegian population of EFL classrooms, students, and teachers. The samples were not randomly selected and cannot be said to represent the entire population of Norway. Yet, the results provided research-based insights about potentials and challenges for feedback practice and teaching EFL in a Norwegian lower-secondary school setting. The samples were made purposively based on school results and size as well as participation in the *Assessment for Learning* initiative (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2011). The three perspectives of the thesis were delimited by the three distinct data collection techniques: video observation, survey, and interviews. Without the constraints of time and resources, conducting surveys and interviews for both students and teachers might have provided more insights into student and teacher perspectives of the thesis.

6.2. Theoretical implications

A dilemma in the assessment literature has been the sole focus on the teacher as the driver of learning by the closing of control loops (Boud & Molloy, 2013). An important choice for employing the framework of social cognitive theory was to highlight students' agency, self-regulation, and self-efficacy in feedback processes. Previously, researchers have disagreed whether self-efficacy is a determinant of future performance or if self-efficacy merely reflects

past performance (Talsma et al., 2018). Social cognitive theory has a focus on the interdependence of different factors of students' agency, which means that self-efficacy and performance are considered as mutually influential rather than one-directional, as captured in the title of Talsma et al. (2018): 'I believe, therefore I can achieve (and vice versa)'. In a social cognitive view, however, feedback does not need to entail a positive, powerful impact on student learning, as this would undermine student agency altogether. In self-regulated learning, students might exercise agency as a form of assessment resistance by rejecting feedback provided externally (Cutumisu, 2019; Harris et al., 2018; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Sometimes, feedback is unwanted by the learner, yet the teacher disagrees, and the learner's ownership of the learning process is lost. In this view, assessment resistance, for example, might be considered a component of self-regulated learning. A student who seeks or refrains from seeking feedback from a teacher or a parent might do so as a result of self-regulatory processes. Consequently, the absence of feedback-seeking from a teacher is not necessarily a result of lack of feedback-seeking strategies.

Recent literature has conceptualised formative assessment within socio-constructivist and socio-cultural perspectives of learning (e.g. Baird et al., 2017; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008; Rust, O'Donovan, & Price, 2005). For example, Nieminen and Tuohilampi (2020) adopted a socio-cultural framework with an ecological standpoint to understand student agency as capacity for purposeful and autonomous action in contemporary assessment environments. Both socio-constructivist theories and socio-cultural perspectives of learning have highlighted student agency (Carless, 2018). The present thesis has theorised feedback practice as responsive pedagogy within a social cognitive perspective to highlight students' self-regulation and self-efficacy in learning processes. Whereas a social cultural perspective indeed highlights learning as a social and communicative process (Hennessy, Howe, Mercer, & Vrikki, 2020), a social cognitive perspective seems to be better equipped to bridge the cultural aspects of formative assessment and the psychological and individual aspects of responsive pedagogy (i.e. self-regulation and self-efficacy) (Smith et al., 2016). Previously, formative assessment has been theorised in a socio-cultural perspective emphasising assessment as a social discursive practice (Pryor & Crossouard, 2008), and research on dialogic feedback has been informed by a socio-cultural perspective (Steen-Utheim & Wittek, 2017). Feedback has also been examined using a socio-constructive perspective in which dialogue, sense-making, and co-construction are emphasised (Carless, 2018; Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Price, Handley, & Millar, 2011). The social cognitive perspective on feedback practice as responsive pedagogy puts an equitable

emphasis on students' voices and choices when engaging in feedback dialogues and is used to highlight students' feedback agency (Vattøy et al., 2020).

An important theoretical implication is to exercise a balanced approach to feedback practice as responsive pedagogy in teaching EFL. Responsive pedagogy should neither be considered narrowly nor treated as the only aim of education, but as a pedagogical framework that supports classroom feedback practices. There is reason for concern regarding research that indirectly emphasises that teachers are either the problem or solution to everything (Biesta, 2015b). Focus on educational effectiveness might lead to increased testing and accountability (Heimans & Biesta, 2020). A responsive pedagogical framework embedded in learning-oriented assessment and social cognitive theory acknowledges the active and independent role of the learner. Tapping into learner's internal feedback dialogues might pose a privacy concern if it is pedagogically unsound. It is important to exercise responsive pedagogy with caution to avoid pedagogical totalitarianism in which the teacher knows everything about students' internal feedback dialogues. Because of students' right to independence and free thought, education should entail a risk (Biesta, 2015a). A risk means that learning is not necessarily measurable or standardised. Moment-to-moment feedback interactions should similarly involve a risk pertaining to the unknown, as is central in moments of contingency (Black & Wiliam, 2009).

6.3. Methodological implications

The thesis has contributed to increased methodological insights when conducting an explanatory mixed methods study in classroom contexts (Creswell, 2014; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). To examine the three perspectives of the thesis, the aim was to move from the broader trends of the data to the more detailed analyses of central results from the analysed sequences. For the thesis, the move from quantitative to qualitative phases occurred sequentially from the classroom perspective, student perspective, and to in-depth analyses of central themes related to the teacher perspective based on the accumulated results from the two previous sequences. Overall, the results related to the first and second sub-question lay the foundation for more detailed insights in the exploration of the third sub-question. As such, there was an important interplay between the methodological design and the sub-questions of the thesis. However, the move from quantitative to qualitative also occurred within a single article (i.e., for article 1). When exploring the first research question, there was a transition from quantitative to qualitative analyses with an initial quantitative starting point. Methodologically,

mixed-methods researchers should aim to achieve intra-mixing when possible as this adds rigour to research designs.

Systematic observation of classroom interactions was used as a method to examine teacher-student interactions in the thesis. Coding classroom interactions is a cognitively demanding activity (Hennessy et al., 2020), yet using observation systems with dimensions of teaching might ease the cognitive strain (Bell, Dobbelaer, Klette, & Visscher, 2019). The use of systematic observation allows for standardised approaches to measuring strengths and weaknesses of teaching behaviour (Allen et al., 2013). Whereas teachers' beliefs about own teaching behaviour were captured by the third sub-question and students' perceptions of teachers' teaching behaviour were captured by the second sub-question, the observed and analysed teacher-student interactions related to the exploration of the first sub-question made out an important perspective into the observed practice of teachers. Yet, teacher-student interactions are understood as a multifaceted construct with the domains of the CLASS-S having a clear delimitation of focus related to emotional support, classroom organisation, and instructional support (Hamre et al., 2013; Pianta et al., 2012).

The thesis has demonstrated the importance of systematic piloting of instruments before each data collection. First, piloting strengthened the efficiency and accuracy of video observation procedures. By careful testing the video observation procedures in advance, the subsequent data collection was conducted without difficulties or interferences. Second, the extended dialogues with teachers and students about items of the RPQ at the pilot schools identified difficult items of the questionnaire that were adjusted before the data collection. Third, the RPIG benefited from the two previous data collections for the advancement of the interview questions and aspects of interest, consistent with the explanatory nature of the sequential mixed methods design (Creswell, 2014).

6.4. Practical implications

One of the main practical implications of the thesis is the relevance of increased teacher knowledge of feedback dialogues as related to students' self-regulated learning and self-efficacy in teaching EFL. Developing teachers' knowledge related to self-regulated learning has been identified as a central aspect of improvement in the research literature (e.g. Barr & Askell-Williams, 2019; Lawson et al., 2019). However, a major issue with teacher professional programmes is that decay or loss of teacher knowledge after such programmes have been found

to be quite substantial (Liu & Phelps, 2019). Novel pedagogical and instructional innovations seldom lead to any changes in practice (Hayward & Spencer, 2010), because changes are often top-down and fail to impact classroom practice (Hayward, Priestley, & Young, 2004). The final report of the assessment for learning initiative suggested that teachers' assessment practices had improved due to the initiative in Norway (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2018), although relatively small improvements over time (Larsen et al., 2017). Studies have indicated that teachers have generally low levels of assessment knowledge and skills despite national and international initiatives (e.g. DeLuca, Willis, et al., 2019). However, the results from the thesis add evidence to previous tendencies that there are two competing paradigms in Norway – one explicit paradigm of assessment for learning and one hidden paradigm of increasing testing regimes (Birenbaum et al., 2015). It might be futile to blame teachers for lack of knowledge or interest considering greater structural constraints. Instead, a climate of shared responsibility between teachers and students seems to be of importance (Nash & Winstone, 2017).

Although formative assessment practices have been associated more to the letter than the spirit of assessment for learning (Burner, 2015; Marshall & Drummond, 2006), the EFL teachers related to the exploration of the third sub-question had to varying degrees reflected over their assessment practices. Some of the EFL teachers expressed the wish to leave past practices behind. In the same vein, teacher professional programmes might support teachers' awareness of how their feedback practice is related to responsive pedagogy and aspects of self-regulated learning. Yet, the relation between feedback and dialogue does not merely mean that dialogues need to be longer but more cognitively challenging for students (Kirkegaard, 2019). A seven-month intervention study in mathematics on developing teachers' responsive pedagogy for Year 9 students in Norwegian lower secondary school found short-term effects on student learning, for example, students' self-efficacy, but not on students' mathematics achievements (Gamlem et al., 2019). Such results indicate that responsive pedagogy might not yield achievement results in the short term, because teachers' conceptions of own pedagogical practices are resistant to change and require more fundamental processes. A professional learning continuum of assessment for learning has been suggested to encompass several stages where the spirit of assessment for learning does not only include *adopting* the spirit of assessment for learning but *leading* the spirit of assessment for learning (DeLuca, Chapman-Chin, & Klinger, 2019). Feedback as responsive pedagogy in the EFL classroom should ultimately lead to the development of students' evaluative expertise (Sadler, 1989; Wyatt-Smith

& Adie, 2019) and teachers' professional judgement (Allal, 2013; Wyatt-Smith & Klenowski, 2013). Feedback practice as responsive pedagogy should contribute to the development of students' feedback literacy through a shared language of feedback between teachers and students (Carless & Boud, 2018; Jónsson et al., 2018).

The discrepancy between the students' relatively high self-efficacy and the low expectations related to teaching EFL and teachers' feedback practice linked to the second sub-question seemed to support the great variation of L2 use related to the examinations of the first sub-question. The implications of lack of EFL interest and relevance might lead to an awareness to increase teachers' L2 use in classroom interactions. Although there is evidence that alternating between two languages in foreign language dialogues can be effectful, the low L2 use in some of the EFL classrooms in the results associated with the first sub-question addressed a national urgency to educate EFL teachers in becoming confident and solid role models of L2 use, whilst using the L1 as a resource when necessary for differentiated instruction. Such results suggest that EFL teachers might increase L2 exposure whilst at the same time fostering students' self-regulation and self-efficacy in responsive pedagogical feedback dialogues.

6.5. Concluding remarks

Feedback practice as responsive pedagogy embedded in a learning-oriented assessment framework and social cognitive theory has been applied in the present thesis. The theoretical framework has explained how L2 feedback dialogues that foster students' self-regulation and self-efficacy might be promoted by the utility of the four enabling conditions of feedback practice as responsive pedagogy. This requires a shift in thinking towards L2 feedback dialogues for EFL classroom teaching, as well as stimulating students' L2 internal feedback by engaging in self-efficacious feedback and building students' EFL competence. Developing professional knowledge of teaching EFL is important, but teachers' professional judgement should be recognised in the process. The structural barriers of the hidden accountability system of testing in English might prevent the full potential for learning-focused assessments in teaching EFL. The measures for changes are neither clear-cut nor dependent on one agent. Instead, learning-oriented assessment systems might change the conditions for EFL teachers to focus less on testing and more on L2 learning. As such, embedding the teaching of EFL more in feedback dialogues might foster teachers' and students' feedback literacy, as both teachers and students need to be feedback literate and actively participating in responsive pedagogy.

7. References

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8. Appendices

8.1. APPENDIX A: Research approval from the NSD



Kim-Daniel Vattøy

7491 TRONDHEIM

Vår dato: 09.08.2017

Vår ref: 54900 / 3 / LAR

Deres dato:

Deres ref:

Tilbakemelding på melding om behandling av personopplysninger

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 26.06.2017.
Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

54900	<i>Responsiv pedagogikk og elevlæring i engelsk språkundervisning</i>
Behandlingsansvarlig	<i>NTNU, ved institusjonens øverste leder</i>
Daglig ansvarlig	<i>Kim-Daniel Vattøy</i>

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet, og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger vil være regulert av § 7-27 i personopplysningsforskriften. Personvernombudet tilrår at prosjektet gjennomføres.

Personvernombudets tilråding forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget [skjema](#). Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en [offentlig database](#).

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 01.08.2020, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Dersom noe er uklart ta gjerne kontakt over telefon.

Vennlig hilsen

Marianne Høgetveit Myhren

Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.

8.2. APPENDIX B: Informed consent letter of invitation to teachers



Invitasjon til lærarar om deltaking i forskingsstudie med fokus på tilbakemeldingspraksisar i engelsk

Bakgrunn og føremål

Underteikna er stipendiat ved Høgskulen i Volda og er knytt opp til doktorgradsprogrammet «Profesjonsforskning med innretning mot lærerutdanning og skole», ved Institutt for lærerutdanning (ILU) ved NTNU, Trondheim. I samband med stipendiatarbeidet skal eg gjennomføre ein studie ut frå temaet: «Responsiv pedagogikk og elevlæring i engelsk språkundervising». Eg ønsker derfor å invitere inn deg som engelsklærer til å delta i denne svært interessante forskingsstudien.

Føremålet med undersøkinga er å forstå elevar og lærarar si oppleving av tilbakemeldingar, sjølvregulering og meistringsforventingar når det gjeld undervising av engelsk i ungdomsskulen. Den overordna problemstillinga for forskingsprosjektet er: «Kva er forbindelsen mellom læraren sin responsive pedagogikk og elevane si læring i undervisinga av engelskferdigheiter?». Responsiv pedagogikk blir her definert som tilbakemeldingspraksis.

Kva inneberer deltaking i studien?

Deltaking i studien inneberer at du som lærar deltek i ei spørjeundersøking som tek føre seg bakgrunnsopplysingar om deg og din undervisningssituasjon. Som forskar vil eg også samle inn videoopptak frå avtalte undervisingsøkter. Vidare vert det intervju med deg og andre engelsklærarar om dykkar forståing av tilbakemeldingspraksisar i engelsk.

Kva skjer med informasjonen om deg?

Alle personopplysingar vil bli handsama konfidensielt. Det er kun forskaren som handsamar desse. Personopplysingar vil bli oppbevart trygt frå uvedkomande. Observasjonane som blir gjort i klasserommet vil være skildringar av hendingar og situasjonar mellom lærar og elev. Deltakarane i denne studien vil ikkje bli identifisert ved publikasjon. Forskingsprosjektet vert avslutta den 01.08.2020. Forskingsdata blir oppbevart i tre år til liknande forskingsføremål før det blir anonymisert 01.08.2023.

Frivillig deltaking

Det er frivillig å delta i studien, og du kan når som helst trekke ditt samtykke utan å oppgi nokon grunn. Dersom du trekker deg, vil alle opplysningar om deg bli anonymisert.

Dersom du ønsker å delta eller har spørsmål til studien, ta kontakt med Kim-Daniel Vattøy via telefon (arbeid): 700 75338 eller e-post: kdv@hivolda.no . Hovudrettleiar for studien er Prof. Dr. Kari Smith (NTNU) kari.smith@ntnu.no og bi-rettleiar er Dr. Siv Måseidvåg Gamlem (HVO), sivmg@hivolda.no .

Studien er godkjent av Personvernombudet for forskning, Norsk senter for forskningsdata.

Med venleg helsing,

Kim-Daniel Vattøy
Ph.d.-stipendiat
Avdeling for humanistiske fag og lærarutdanning
Høgskulen i Volda
Tlf.: +47 700 75338
E-post: kdv@hivolda.no



Samtykke til deltaking i studien

Eg har mottatt informasjon om prosjektet, og er villig til å delta

(Signert av lærar/prosjektdeltakar, dato)

Set kryss:

- Eg samtykker til å delta i spørjeundersøking
- Eg samtykker til å delta i intervju
- Eg samtykker til at videoobservasjonar kan bli gjort i klasserommet

8.3. APPENDIX C: Informed consent letter of invitation to students



Invitasjon til elevar om deltaking i forskingsstudie med fokus på tilbakemeldingspraksisar i engelsk

Bakgrunn og formål

Eg er stipendiat ved Høgskulen i Volda og er knytt opp til doktorgradsprogrammet «Profesjonsforskning med innretning mot lærerutdanning og skole», ved Institutt for lærerutdanning (ILU) ved NTNU, Trondheim. I samband med stipendiatarbeidet skal eg gjennomføre ein studie ut frå temaet: «Responsiv pedagogikk og elevlæring i engelsk språkundervising». Eg ønsker derfor å invitere inn deg som elev til å delta i denne svært interessante forskingsstudien.

Føremålet med undersøkinga er å forstå elevar og lærarar si oppleving av tilbakemeldingar, sjølvregulering og meistringsforventingar når det gjeld undervising av engelsk i ungdomsskulen. Den overordna problemstillinga for forskingsprosjektet er: «Kva er forbindelsen mellom læraren sin responsive pedagogikk og elevane si læring i undervisinga av engelskferdigheiter?». Responsiv pedagogikk blir her definert som tilbakemeldingspraksis.

Kva inneberer deltaking i studien?

Deltaking i studien inneberer at elevane deltek i ei spørjeundersøking. Om nokon foreldre/føresette ønsker å sjå spørjeskjema, kan dette skje på førespurnad. Det vil også bli gjort videoopptak av om lag fem undervisingsøkter. Gi melding om du ikkje vil at eleven skal vere i klasserommet under desse opptaka.

Kva skjer med informasjonen om deg?

Alle personopplysingar vil bli handsama konfidensielt. Det er kun forskaren som handsamar desse. Personopplysingar vil bli oppbevart trygt frå uvedkomande. Deltakarane i denne studien vil ikkje bli identifisert ved publikasjon. Forskingsprosjektet vert avslutta den 01.08.2020. Forskingsdata blir oppbevart i tre år til liknande forskingsføremål før det blir anonymisert 01.08.2023.

Frivillig deltaking

Det er frivillig å delta i studien, og du kan når som helst trekke ditt samtykke utan å oppgi nokon grunn. Dersom du trekker deg, vil alle opplysningar om deg bli anonymisert.

Dersom du ønsker å delta eller har spørsmål til studien, ta kontakt med Kim-Daniel Vattøy via telefon (arbeid): 700 75338 eller e-post: kdv@hivolda.no. Hovudrettleiar for studien er Prof.

Dr. Kari Smith (NTNU) kari.smith@ntnu.no og bi-rettleiar er Dr. Siv Måseidvåg Gamlem (HVO), sivmg@hivolda.no.

Studien er godkjent av Personvernombudet for forskning, Norsk senter for forskningsdata.

Med venleg helsing,

Kim-Daniel Vattøy
Ph.d.-stipendiat
Avdeling for humanistiske fag og lærarutdanning
Høgskulen i Volda
Tlf.: +47 700 75338
E-post: kdv@hivolda.no



Samtykke til deltaking i studien

Eg har mottatt informasjon om prosjektet, og er villig til å delta

(Signert av elev/prosjektdeltakar, dato)

(Signert av foreldre/føresette på vegne av elev/prosjektdeltakar, dato)

Set kryss:

Eg samtykker til å delta i spørjeundersøking

9. The articles of the thesis (I-III)

ARTICLE I: Vattøy & Gamlem (2020)

Teacher-student interactions and feedback in English as a foreign language classrooms

Kim-Daniel Vattøy and Siv M. Gamlem

Faculty of Humanities and Teacher Education, Volda University College, Volda, Norway.

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Teacher-student interactions and feedback in English as a foreign language classrooms

This study focuses on the quality of teacher-student interactions and feedback in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). Data consisted of 65 video-recorded lessons from 13 classrooms in two lower-secondary schools, and were coded with Classroom Assessment Scoring System–Secondary. Four cases were selected and analysed for feedback practice based on teachers' use of first language (L1: here, Norwegian) and target language (L2: here, English) in EFL lessons. Teacher-student interactions were characterised by mid quality of emotional support and high quality of classroom organisation, but relatively low quality of instructional support. The results revealed an interdependence between quality of feedback and instructional dialogue, yet there appeared to be difficulties in supporting students' internal feedback and self-regulation. Engaging in extended feedback dialogues in the L2 seemed to be a central challenge facing the EFL teachers. The results provide knowledge for teacher education and teachers' facilitation of student learning.

Keywords: Classroom feedback, Formative assessment, Classroom interactions, Classroom Assessment Scoring System Secondary, Systematic observation, English as a foreign language

Introduction

Real-time interactions are fundamental to the formation of teacher-student relationships (Hafen et al., 2015; Pennings et al., 2014). As such, interactions lie at the heart of understanding potentials and impediments to student learning. For more than a century, classroom interactions have been analysed by using systematic observation, and important contributions to the research-based knowledge of educational and pedagogical practices have been made (Hardman & Hardman, 2017). Observation systems are suitable for identifying quality dimensions of teaching but vary to the degree all aspects of a dimension are captured (Bell, Dobbelaer, Klette, & Visscher, 2019), for example classroom feedback. Although feedback has been identified as a core component in formative assessment (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Sadler, 1989), an explicit focus has been devoted to dialogic feedback for the benefit of the regulation of students' learning processes (Adie, van der Kleij, & Cumming, 2018; Black & Wiliam, 2009; Steen-Utheim & Wittek, 2017). In this article, feedback is defined as 'information provided by an agent (e.g. teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding' (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 81) with the aim to support further learning and development (Sadler, 1989).

For assessment to be formative, information about a gap between the actual level and the target level should be used to alter the gap (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Ramaprasad, 1983; Sadler, 1989). An integrated understanding of the relationship between formative and summative aspects for assessment is important, and formative assessment has been suggested to be meaningfully embedded in pedagogy (Black & Wiliam, 2018). Whilst summative assessment involves summarising the achievement status of a student, formative assessment is related to how judgements about the quality of a student's performance or work are used to shape and improve student learning (Sadler, 1989).

When examining feedback and teacher-student interactions in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms, teachers' use of target language is relevant. Foreign language teachers have the opportunity of alternating between languages, especially if there is a shared first language, which has the potential to reduce anxiety (Bruen & Kelly, 2017) and foster learning (Then & Ting, 2011). Foreign language teaching is characterised by the presence of two (or more) languages (Ellis, 2012), namely, L1 (first language; in this study: Norwegian) and L2 (target language; in this study: English). EFL teachers provide feedback to students in both the L1 and L2 (Burner, 2015). However, the second language acquisition literature has mainly researched the role of corrective feedback (Li, 2010). Second language acquisition research has also been conducted with focus on the relationship between explicit and implicit corrective feedback and found benefits of metalinguistic explanation (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). However, recent research has found that the absence of a shared L1 could pose challenges as well as create opportunities in multilingual classrooms (Illman & Pietilä, 2018).

Standardised measurement tools for coding interaction quality are hypothesised to benefit from being analysed in combination with time sampling of L1 and L2 use when studying foreign language teaching interactions and feedback practice. The present study uses a systematic observation tool to study the quality of teacher-student interactions and feedback in teaching EFL. The tool, Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS), is a framework that describes levels of quality in classroom interactions to enhance student learning across subjects from early childhood education to secondary education (Pianta, Hamre, & Mintz, 2012; Pianta, La Paro, & Hamre, 2008). The CLASS Secondary (CLASS-S) was originally developed for educational contexts in the US (e.g. Casabianca et al., 2013; Hafen et al., 2015), but usage has extended internationally (e.g. Gamlem, 2019; Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Malmberg, Hagger, Burn, Mutton, & Colls, 2010). Validation studies of the CLASS-S have been conducted in Finland (Virtanen et al., 2018) and Norway (Westergård, Ertesvåg, & Rafaelsen, 2019).

Previous CLASS-S studies have identified a need to study the quality of interactions between teachers and students during lessons and what teachers do with the material they have (Allen et al., 2013). Interactions that foster autonomy and cognitive stimulation have been identified as central when measuring interaction quality (Malmberg et al., 2010). This has led researchers to develop observation systems for different purposes and with varying degrees of subject specificity (Bell et al., 2019; Hardman & Hardman, 2017). Former CLASS-S studies have typically included emphasis on mathematics and science (Allen et al., 2013; Casabianca, Lockwood, & McCaffrey, 2015; Culp, Martin, Clements, & Lewis Presser, 2015; Gamlem, 2019; Malmberg et al., 2010) and a mix of a variety of subjects (Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Virtanen et al., 2018). Nevertheless, a few studies have an explicit focus on a subject discipline or sub-discipline, for example, algebra (Bell et al., 2012; Casabianca et al., 2013). A few studies have included EFL lessons (Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Virtanen et al., 2018) and emphasised feedback quality (Gamlem & Munthe, 2014). Yet, there seems to be a gap in knowledge about the quality of teacher-student interactions to support learning combined with time sampling of L1 and L2 to understand foreign language interactions and feedback in lessons. Thus, this study examines the quality of teacher-student interactions in EFL lessons with focus on feedback practice, analysed with the CLASS-S and cases of L2 use:

What characterises teacher-student interactions and feedback practice in EFL lessons in lower-secondary school?

Teacher-student interactions and feedback in EFL classrooms

In past decades, feedback in educational research has been discussed predominantly in the field of assessment (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Sadler, 1989; Shute, 2008). More recently, however, scholars have called for a fusion between formative assessment and self-regulated learning (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016; Panadero, Andrade, & Brookhart, 2018). The marriage between these two traditions evokes the centrality of self-regulatory

processes of feedback. Self-regulated learning is defined as ‘a self-directive process by which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills’ (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 65). This is particularly pertinent in responsive pedagogy, defined as ‘the recursive dialogue between the learner’s internal feedback and external feedback provided by significant others’ (Smith, Gamlem, Sandal, & Engelsen, 2016, p. 1). The concept of responsive pedagogy encompasses a feedback practice that is concerned with activating students as active agents of their own learning processes (Smith et al., 2016; Vattøy & Smith, 2019). Teachers (and peers) are identified as significant others in responsive pedagogy, as they are important facilitators of learning processes (Gamlem, 2019).

Much of the literature on feedback in foreign language and second language literature has been concerned with corrective feedback in which a learner is informed by positive and negative input regarding what is acceptable in the L2 (Li, 2010), although more recent studies have a focus on formative assessment. The implementation of feedback practices informed by assessment for learning has been found challenging in an examination-driven system in Hong Kong (Lee & Coniam, 2013). In a Chinese context, prospective EFL teachers’ perceptions of an assessment for learning experience have been connected to their tendency to adopt a deep approach to learning (Gan, Liu, & Yang, 2017). In Norwegian lower-secondary schools, a gap has been identified between EFL teachers’ intentions and students’ experiences of assessment for learning. A shared language of assessment for learning and opportunities for teachers and students to interact during feedback processes have been suggested as possible bridges (Burner, 2015).

The impact of feedback can be both positive and negative for student learning, which makes it important to identify the criteria for feedback with positive effects on students’ learning. Hattie and Timperley (2007) proposed a model of feedback to enhance learning on the claim that effective feedback answers three questions: ‘Where am I going? How am I going?

Where to next?’ These questions work at four levels (task, process, self-regulation, self). Hattie and Timperley argued that feedback about the processing of the task and self-regulation appear to be the most effective in terms of deep processing and mastery of tasks. As feedback interactions are often realised in moments of contingency (Black & Wiliam, 2009), they can be difficult to measure. The web of classroom interactions and communications is an inherently complex one. Therefore, observing and interpreting classroom interactions with accuracy pose a considerable challenge (Archer, Kerr, & Pianta, 2015). Yet, the use of observation systems provides scholars with an approach to measure teacher-student interactions and teaching as basis for further improvement (Bell et al., 2019; Hardman & Hardman, 2017).

The moments in which feedback occurs are critical moments where students’ self-beliefs are formed. In teaching EFL, self-efficacy beliefs can be connected to capabilities related to academic success or failure in the face of subject-specific tasks, for example, speaking in the L2 in lessons. Self-efficacy refers to personal judgements of one’s capabilities to exercise influence and execute actions to reach desired goals (Bandura, 1997). The domain-specific level opens to the notion that students’ cognitive, affective and behavioural patterns might differ in a specific subject or discipline because of its nature or characteristics. Furthermore, students’ capacities for self-regulation and self-efficacy are interconnected because the cognitive aspects of self-regulation cannot be separated from motivational aspects of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Students’ beliefs in their capabilities to exercise influence over events that affect their lives are central to their sense of agency (Bandura, 1989). Teachers, as significant others, thus play a crucial role in providing students with feedback and support (Smith et al., 2016).

The study

Sample

The sample consisted of nine EFL teachers (aged 30-59 years; $M_{\text{age}} = 40.2$; $SD = 8.7$) and their classes ($n = 13$). Eight of the nine teachers were female. The average teaching experience was 9.3 years (Min: 3.5 years – Max: 20 years), and the average amount of credits in higher education English for teachers was 44 credits (Min: 0 credits – Max: 65 credits). The teachers were recruited from two lower secondary schools (i.e. Year 8-10; 13-15-year-olds) in Norway.

Initial contact was made with the head teachers, and invitation was passed on to the teachers and the students. Further, a letter of invitation with an informed consent form was sent to the teachers, students and parents/caregivers. In total, 13 classes (represented by the nine teachers) voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. Observations of five EFL lessons from each classroom ($n = 65$ lessons) were made. All observations were video recorded. The length of recorded lessons ranged from 39 minutes to 62 minutes ($M = 50.06$, $SD = 5.53$, $SE = .69$). On average, the class sizes consisted of 24 students (ranging from 23 to 26 students). One student withdrew from the study and was seated outside the frame of the cameras.

Procedure

An ethical approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data was obtained before the start of data collection. Data were collected using two video cameras. The primary camera of analysis was a handheld wide-angled lens camera with high resolution and balanced-optical stabilising functions, which secured high-quality footage. The second video camera was placed on a tripod, facing the students and capturing the whole class. The handheld camera was operated by the researcher and followed the teacher with close attention to teacher-student interactions, whilst simultaneously paying attention to the classroom context. The researcher moved in the back of the classroom, following the teacher's movement by zooming and carefully moving around. The handheld camera was connected to a wireless audio receiver from

a collar-clip microphone which was connected to the teacher. The collar-clip microphone allowed high-quality audio recordings of the teacher's speech (teacher-student interactions) during lessons. Thus, the collar-clip microphone allowed teacher-student conversations to be collected. Use of two video cameras strengthened the reliability of the audio-visual material, because the researchers accessed the full class context as well as interactions at individual levels.

The teachers were asked to carry out their teaching as normal, ensuring that lessons were authentic in terms of the teachers' daily practice and to minimise additional workload. The data collection included a wide range of EFL lessons in terms of curriculum, content, learning aims, contexts, seating plans and activities. The rationale behind the minimal-interference model was based on considerations that classroom feedback interactions occur in a multitude of situations and require no planning or means of facilitation. However, observations (both live and video-recorded) might cause changes in teacher behaviour, reducing the validity of the ratings (Curby, Johnson, Mashburn, & Carlis, 2016).

Measure

The CLASS-S manual (Pianta et al., 2012) was used to score the quality of teacher-student interactions in the EFL classrooms ($n = 65$ lessons). The CLASS-S operationalises teacher-student interactions to enhance student learning into three broad domains: emotional support; classroom organisation; and instructional support. The domains are divided into 11 dimensions (Pianta et al., 2012), explained in Table 1. In addition, a global measure, student engagement, measures students' overall activity level in lessons. The CLASS-S dimensions have indicators with behavioural markers that make the basis for scoring on a 7-point Likert scale. Score 1-2 express low quality, 3-5 express mid quality and 6-7 express high quality. The 65 video-recorded lessons were scored for three cycles for each lesson (approx. 15 minutes

each), resulting in 195 score cycles for each of the 11 dimensions of the CLASS-S (Table 1). The mean values for the time range of the three cycles were: Cycle 1, $M_{\text{time}} = 16.77$ minutes ($SD = 1.77$); Cycle 2, $M_{\text{time}} = 16.68$ minutes ($SD = 1.80$); and Cycle 3, $M_{\text{time}} = 16.63$ minutes ($SD = 2.13$).

One of the researchers was CLASS-S certified and the other researcher became certified during the coding process. A random selection (10%) of the videos were double scored. Double scoring strengthens inter-rater reliability, and inter-rater score was above 80% in accordance with the CLASS-S manual.

Cronbach's α was calculated to determine reliability of the CLASS-S dimensions. Cronbach's α estimates for all CLASS-S dimensions was calculated to be: $\alpha = .85$. This shows overall strong inter-item consistency.

Table 1. Descriptions of Classroom Assessment Scoring System Secondary domains and dimensions (Pianta et al., 2012).

Domain	Dimension	Description
Emotional support	Positive climate	The enjoyment and emotional connection that teachers have with students, as well as the nature of peer interactions
	Teacher sensitivity	The level of teachers' responsiveness to the academic and social/emotional needs and levels of individual students
	Regard for adolescent perspectives	The degree to which teachers meet and capitalise upon the social and developmental needs and goals of adolescents for decision-making and autonomy, relevance, having their opinions valued, and meaningful interactions with peers
Classroom organisation	Behaviour management	How well teachers encourage positive behaviours and monitor, prevent and redirect misbehaviour
	Productivity	How well a classroom runs with respect to routines, how well students understand the routines and the degree to which teachers provide activities and directions so that maximum time can be spent in learning activities
	Negative climate	The level of expressed negativity such as anger, hostility, aggression, or disrespect exhibited by teachers and/or students in the classroom
Instructional support	Instructional learning formats	How teachers engage students in and facilitate activities so that learning opportunities are maximised
	Content understanding	What teachers emphasise and approaches used to help students understand both the broad framework and key ideas in an academic discipline

Analysis and inquiry	How teachers promote higher-order thinking skills (e.g. analysis and integration of information, hypothesis testing, metacognition) and provide opportunities for application in novel contexts
Quality of feedback	How teachers extend and expand students' learning through their responses and participation in activities
Instructional dialogue	How teachers use structured, cumulative questioning and discussion to guide and prompt students' understanding of content
Student engagement	The overall engagement level of students in the classroom

Note: Indicators and behavioural markers are not included in the table.

The CLASS-S dimensions, quality of feedback and instructional dialogue were examined to analyse feedback practice in the four cases of the present study. Quality of feedback is in CLASS-S defined as ‘the degree to which feedback expands and extends learning and understanding and encourages participation’ (Pianta et al., 2012, p. 93). Further, quality of feedback is based on the following indicators: feedback loops; scaffolding; building on student responses; and encouragement and affirmation. For example, the indicator, building on student responses, has the behavioural marker ‘expansion’, in which the teacher expands on students’ responses. An example of such an interaction in the mid-range is provided here.

Student: So, there are both freshwater and saltwater crocodiles in Australia?
Teacher: Yes, and did you know saltwater crocodiles can reduce their heartrate to two or three beats a minute and stay underwater for more than an hour?
Student: You mean they can’t breathe underwater?
Teacher: No, they breathe air just like people.

Feedback loops that lack persistence and follow-ups are scored in the low range. An Initiation–Response–Evaluation (IRE) loop typically asks for known information and has the function of testing students’ knowledge (Mehan, 1979). By contrast, an Initiation–Response–Follow up (IRF) pattern will be more formative as it will push the conversation forward (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

Instructional dialogue is defined as ‘the purposeful use of content-focused discussion among teachers and students that is cumulative, with the teacher supporting students to chain ideas together in ways that lead to a deeper understanding of the content’ (Pianta et al., 2012, p. 101). The indicators are cumulative content-driven exchanges, distributed talk and facilitation strategies.

Data analysis

The data analysis consisted of descriptive analyses with emphasis on mean, minimum and maximum scores, standard deviation, standard error, and skewness and kurtosis values. Subsequently, Pearson’s r product-moment correlations were performed to check for significant relationships between the dimensions of CLASS-S (Pianta et al., 2012).

The time sampling procedure for language use (L1 and L2) was conducted using two digital timers: one for first language use (L1) and one for target language use (L2). The distribution of minutes and seconds was calculated in percentages. First, the mean values of all the cycles were calculated. Second, the mean values of the individual teacher’s language use across the three cycles was calculated. None of the teachers spoke an L3 or L4 during the recorded lessons.

Further, four cases were selected based on the amount of L2 use in lessons. These cases were selected based on minimum and maximum mean values of L2 use and further analysed for feedback practice. In addition, the CLASS-S dimensions and the model of feedback to enhance learning by Hattie and Timperley (2007) were used to analyse teacher-student interactions and feedback levels in the four cases.

Results

The descriptive statistics of the CLASS-S dimensions for the 65 lessons are presented in Table 2. The mean scores ranged from 1.06 (negative climate) to 5.85 (productivity). A low score for the negative climate dimension indicated low levels of negativity (e.g. sarcasm, anger, irritability) in the lessons. All the dimensions, except from productivity and negative climate, had acceptable skewness and kurtosis values. The mean scores for each of the three domains, emotional support ($M = 4.12$, $SD = .68$), classroom organisation ($M = 6.18$, $SD = .55$) and instructional support ($M = 2.81$, $SD = .63$), were in the mid, high and low range, respectively. High scores for behaviour management and productivity, as well as a low score for negative climate, showed that teacher-student interactions were characterised by good behaviour and where learning time was maximised with little down time and little negative behaviour. Two of the dimensions for emotional support, positive climate and teacher sensitivity, were scored in the mid-range, yet the regard for adolescent perspectives dimension was scored lower. For the instructional support dimensions, the analysis and inquiry dimension had the lowest score. Instructional dialogue and content understanding were scored in the low range, whilst quality of feedback and instructional learning formats scored in the low end of mid. The low scores for the instructional support domain indicated a struggle to engage in teacher-student interactions that facilitate and activate clear learning goals, deep understanding of the content, opportunities for self-regulation and higher-order thinking, as well as feedback dialogues that expand student comprehension.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for CLASS-S dimensions.

CLASS-S dimensions	<i>M</i>	Min	Max	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	Skew	Kurtosis
Positive climate	4.78	2.67	6.67	.78	.10	.11	.34
Teacher sensitivity	4.61	2.67	6.67	.88	.11	.15	-.57
Regard for adolescent perspectives	2.98	1.33	5.67	.89	.11	.39	.11
Behaviour management	5.75	3.00	7.00	.84	.10	-.92	1.11
Productivity	5.85	2.33	7.00	.85	.11	-1.74	4.3
Negative climate	1.06	1.00	2.00	.17	.02	3.74	15.79
Instructional learning formats	3.64	2.00	5.33	.73	.09	.40	-.29
Content understanding	2.66	1.33	4.67	.82	.10	.52	-.36
Analysis and inquiry	1.99	1.00	4.33	.69	.09	.66	.63
Quality of feedback	3.11	2.00	5.33	.82	.10	.69	-.12
Instructional dialogue	2.64	1.00	5.00	.85	.11	.58	-.17
Student engagement	3.83	2.33	5.00	.49	.06	-.27	.56

5. Productivity	.42*	.55*	.12	.74*	–							
6. Negative climate	–	–	–	–	–	–						
7. Instructional learning formats	.51*	.42*	.25*	.37*	.47*							
8. Content understanding	.27*	.44*	.31*	.39*	.47*	–	–					
9. Analysis and inquiry		*	*	*	*	.27*						
10. Quality of feedback	.26*	.33*	.49*	.19	.33*	–.23	.61*	–				
11. Instructional dialogue		*	*		*		*					
12. Student engagement	–.01	.11	.58*	–.01	.05	–.07	.42*	.61*	–			
			*				*	*				
	.46*	.55*	.44*	.16	.25*	–	.35*	.63*	.42*	–		
	*	*	*				.33*	*	*	*		
							*					
	.45*	.45*	.60*	.12	.22	–.18	.41*	.73*	.52*	.78*	–	
	*	*	*				*	*	*	*		
	.64*	.65*	.47*	.50*	.53*	–	.56*	.43*	.21	.44*	.47*	–
	*	*	*	*	*		*	*		*	*	
						.55*						
						*						

Note: $n = 65$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. (two-tailed).

Cases representing L2 use and feedback practice

Four teachers were selected as cases and further analysed in terms of feedback practice. Teachers A and B had the lowest use of L2, whilst Teachers C and D had the highest uses of L2, which means that Teachers C and D spoke significantly more English in their EFL lessons. The cases were analysed specifically regarding the two dimensions of quality of feedback and instructional dialogue, which were the dimensions with the highest correlation. The data material showed that the teacher with the highest percentage of L2 had the lowest percentage of L1 (Teacher D), whereas, conversely, the teacher with the lowest percentage of L2 had the highest percentage of L1 (Teacher A). Figure 1 illustrates the language use of the four teachers combined with the quality score in the CLASS-S dimensions.

From Figure 1, the two teachers with lowest use of L2 also had the highest use of L1: Teacher A (L1: 40.86%; L2: 5.92%) and Teacher B (L1: 45.53%; L2: 10.61%). The percentages only accounted for teachers' language use during lessons (e.g. Teacher A was silent or produced

non-speech sounds 53.22% of the mean of lessons). Quality of feedback and instructional dialogue scores are discussed later.

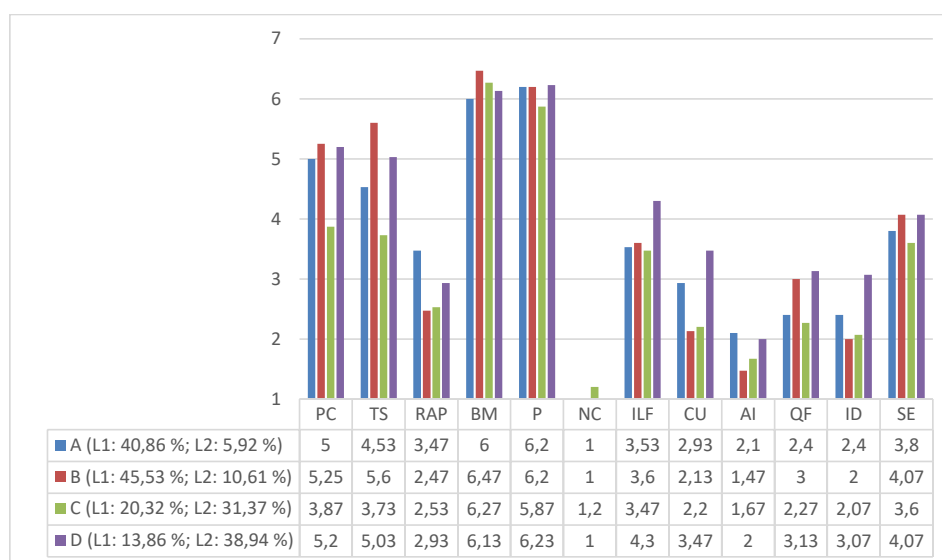


Figure 1. Comparison of CLASS-S dimensions and cases of L1 and L2 use ($n = 4$ cases, 25 lessons).

Note. CLASS-S scores: 1-2 (low range); 3-5 (middle range); 6-7 (high range). PC = Positive climate; TS = Teacher sensitivity; RAP = Regard for adolescent perspectives; BM = Behaviour management; P = Productivity; NC = Negative climate; ILF = Instructional learning formats; CU = Content understanding; AI = Analysis and inquiry; QF = Quality of feedback; ID = Instructional dialogue; SE = Student engagement; L1 = first language (here, Norwegian); L2 = target language (here, English).

- TA: Til dømes så er inuitane dei einaste som bur i igloar. [*For example, the Inuit people are the only ones living in igloos.*]
- S1: Gjer dei det? [*Do they?*] (Student looks surprised)
- TA: Men det er ikkje sikkert dei bur i igloar heile tida. [*But they probably don't live in igloos all the time.*]
- S2: Er det kaldt inne i den? [*Is it cold in there?*] (Student looks up at teacher)
- TA: Går det an å finne ut det. Korleis det går an å bu inne i ein iglo? [*It's something you could find out. How is it possible to live inside of an igloo?*]
- S2: Ja. [*Yes.*]
- TA: Kvifor bur du inne i iglo da? [*Why would you live inside of an igloo?*]
- S1: Fordi det liksom er i le mot vinden? [*Because it's like sheltered from the wind?*]
- TA: Ja, og kva finst mest av på Grønland? [*Yes, and what is in very large quantities in Greenland?*]
- S1: Igloar. [*Igloos.*]

- S2: Snø. [Snow.]
- TA: Ja, is og snø som er hardpakka. Så dei tek i bruk av ein av ressursane fordi det er ikkje så frykteleg mykje tre der. [Yes, hard-packed ice and snow. So, they utilise one of their resources, because there isn't an awful amount of trees there.]
- S1: Men bur dei – Finst det Eskimoar framleis då? [But do they live – Does there still exist any Eskimos?]
- TA: Det – det kan du søkje om, veit du. Sjå om du klarar å finne ut. Men det bur nok – Men folketalet på Grønland.. [That – that is something you could search for, you know. See if you can figure it out – But the population of Greenland –]
- S1: – går ned. [– is declining.]
- TA: – er nok ikkje – er nok ikkje så kjempestort i forhold til kor stort landet er i størrelse. Og det er fordi det er dekkja av is. [– is probably not – probably not vast compared with how large the country is in size. And it's because it's covered by ice.]
- S1: Men er der nokon som bur der i igloar? [But is there anyone living there in igloos?]
- S2: Her har dei vindauge og alt. [Here they have windows and everything.] (Student looks at a picture of an igloo)
- TA: Ja, mhm. Altså korleis du skal bygge ein iglo. For den er ganske stor. Kan du stå oppreist i den eller ligg du i den som i ei snøhole? Lagar du mat i den? [Yes, mhm. So how do you build an igloo. Because it's quite big. Can you stand upright inside of it or do you lay down in it like a snow cave? Do you cook in it?]

Analyses highlighted that Teacher A (TA) was below the average mean score of the 65 lessons in terms of quality of feedback ($M = 2.4$) and instructional dialogue ($M = 2.4$). The excerpt, however, was scored in the mid-range and collected from a lesson where the aim was to find facts about an indigenous people and later present one fact for two minutes each. Student 1 and Student 2 were working on the topic of the Inuit people. Teacher A visited the group who were working on their computers and immediately started with an example, referring to a picture of an igloo on Student 1's screen. Feedback was predominantly provided at the task level (correctness, and control that work is completed), whilst feedback about the processing of the task (process level) remained unclear and generic although the teacher asked the students to search for information online and asked scaffolding questions. However, the teacher provided extended opportunities for dialogue and both students joined in the conversation. The excerpt showed evidence that feedback was provided at the self-regulation level in terms of the questions that were being posed by the teacher and the students. The teacher also asked supportive questions for extended opportunities for reflection. The extract exemplified a formative assessment practice in teacher-student feedback interactions in the L1. However, the

whole dialogue was entirely in the L1, which provided students with little exposure to L2 use and opportunities for talking.

- S1: Og ein tur til Stockholm der hovudkvarteret til Nobelprisen er. [*And a trip to Stockholm where the headquarters of the Nobel Prize are located.*]
- TB: Ja, flott. [*Yes, great.*]
- S2: Han er – er – kva heiter det? [*He is – is – what is it called?*]
- S1: Eh, spent? [*Er, excited?*]
- S2: Spent etter å ha besøkt det. [*Excited after the visit*]
- TB: Veldig fint at de kan spørje kvarandre. Det er veldig bra. For då kan de bruke – [*Very nice that you can ask each other. That's very good. Because then you can use –*]
(Teacher abruptly terminates conversation, and goes on to next group)
- TB: Ferdig? [*Done?*]
(Students 3 and 4 nod)
- TB: Og det var greitt? Det var ikkje nokon ord som var vanskelege? De forstod innhaldet og det var greitt? [*And it was okay? No words you found difficult? You understood the content and it was okay?*]
(Students 3 and 4 nods)
- TB: Ja. De kan starte med å skrive ned glosene i arbeidsboka dykkar. [*Yes. You can start writing down the glossary in your rough books.*]
(Teacher quickly moves on to a new group)
- TB: De er også ferdige? [*You too are done?*]
- S5: Mhm.
- TB: Og det gjekk heilt fint? Det var ikkje nokon ord som gjorde at de ikkje forstod innhaldet og –? Det var greitt? [*And it was fine? There wasn't any words that made you not understand the content and –? It was okay?*]
- S6: (Student has his eyebrows raised, looks at Student 5 before answering:) Ja. [*Yes.*]
- TB: Bra. Då kan de også byrje å skrive ned glosene i arbeidsboka dykkar. [*Good. Then you can also start by writing down the glossary in your rough books*]
(Teacher moves on to next group)

Teacher B (TB) had the highest percentage of L1 use (45.53%) and scored in the lower mid-low range for quality of feedback ($M = 3$) and in the low range for instructional dialogue ($M = 2$). Teacher B occasionally monitored the learning of students and provides encouragement, but the dialogues were not cumulative or content-driven with frequent follow-ups. The feedback interactions were rarely in the L2, which was the language to be learnt in the lesson. In the excerpt, which scored in the low range, Teacher B encouraged peer scaffolding, but the feedback patterns were characterised by IRE loops. The aim of the lesson was to translate texts before continuing with writing down glossary. Teacher B walked up to Student 1 and Student 2, who were translating a text from L2 to L1 in pairs. The feedback provided was at the task level and with the aim to control. The feedback was generally more controlling and

approving/disapproving rather than fostering learning, and the students were passive in teacher-student interactions. This exemplified a summative assessment practice which was more concerned with summing up the achievement status of students in the L1. The conversation was also entirely in the L1.

The two teachers with the highest L2 were Teacher C (L1: 20.32%; L2: 31.37%) and Teacher D (L1: 13.86%; L2: 38.94%), and they were the teachers with the lowest use of L1 of the four cases.

- S1: (Student 1 rolls the dice and looks puzzled at the verb [to be]) Okay. Erm – Ah! To be, was, been.
TC: I would like you to make a sentence, [Student 1].
S1: I was on a road trip yesterday. (Student does not look at teacher)
TC: She *was*, yes.
S1: Okay, ein, to, tre. [*one, two, three*] (rolls dice again and counts the squares). Build. Build, built, built. Var det rett? [*Is that correct?*] (Student 1 asks Student 2, ignoring the teacher who stands behind her)
S2: Ja. [*Yes*]
TC: In a sentence, please.
S1: Arg! (Student slaps her own head)
TC: You hurry too much!
S1: I built my sentence correct.
TC: Yes, you did. You're a kind girl. A kind girl.
– (Teacher moves on to next group) –
S3: (Student rolls the dice) Keep, kept, kept. Er det ikkje? [*Is it not?*] (Student looks at teacher)
TC: Do you agree with her? (Teacher looks at other students in the group) I do. Mm. In a sentence?
S3: Erm, I keep –
TC: – keep all the secrets to myself. (Teacher interrupts Student 3)
S3: I keep my letters –
TC: You keep your letters – Where do you keep your letters?
S3: I keep my letters on my shelf.
TC: Yes. Good.

Teacher C had a high use of L2, but quality of feedback ($M = 2.27$) and instructional dialogue ($M = 2.07$) were both scored in the low range. Both dimensions were below the average value of the nine teachers in the 65 lessons. The quality of feedback dimension requires follow-up exchanges that drive learning forward. Teacher C had many IRE-sequences when engaging in conversational exchanges with students. The content of these exchanges was typically on the surface. The students were working in groups of four on an irregular verb game. The game consisted of conjugating irregular verbs and providing a sentence. This activity came

at the end of the lesson as a reward from the teacher to the students for their efforts, but the students seemed bored and uninterested. Student 1 rolled the dice and looked puzzled at the verb. Teacher C's response, 'You're a kind girl!', is an example of feedback about the self as a person instead of feedback about the task, and Student 1 slapping her own head indicated irritability in teacher-student interactions. Feedback was mostly approving/disapproving and controlling, and very little information was provided as to how students could process the task, despite that the full conversation was in the L2. Overall, the extract exemplified a summative assessment practice for teacher-student interactions occurring in the L2.

- TD: Okay, S1, you can start telling about *Romeo and Juliet*.
S1: Erm, okay, it was a gunfight at the start of the film at the gas station. Romeo's friends were there, and they were going to fill the tank on the car.
TD: Mm.
S1: And then Tybalt and his friends came and start a gunfight with them.
TD: Okay, why did they start a gunfight with them?
S1: Er – Okay, eg veit ikkje. [*I don't know*]. (Student 1 looks frustrated)
TD: Well, were they – Why do you start shooting at someone?
S1: Their family names *wasn't friends –?
TD: No, they were –
S1: – enemies.
TD: Enemies. Yes, they were actually lifelong enemies. [*Tells the other student Student 2*]: So, [Student 2], what I'm doing now to [Student 1], I want you to continue doing. You are going to continue asking questions.

(*Note.* The asterisk * marks the structure as ungrammatical)

Teacher D had the highest average mean value of quality of feedback ($M = 3.13$) and instructional dialogue ($M = 3.07$) of the four cases and scored in the lower part of the mid-range. Teacher D also had the highest amount of L2 use (38.94%). Teacher D was persistent in the attempts of engaging students in L2 peer dialogues, and often encouraged with 'In English, please' when students talked in the L1. At one point, Student 1 switched to L1, but Teacher D continued in the L2 with follow-up questions. The students were retelling the plot from the 1996 film, *Romeo + Juliet*, to each other in pairs. There were some cumulative content-driven exchanges as follow-ups in the L2, and the teacher monitored the groups. The teacher scaffolded the dialogues and had high expectations of use of L2 for the students. The final utterance

showed that feedback was not only given about the task but also about the process. Engaging students in peer dialogues in this manner showed that Teacher D acknowledged and supported the students as active participants. The excerpt illustrated characteristics of a formative assessment practice in teacher-student interactions in the L2.

Discussion

This study examined the quality of teacher-student interactions and feedback in EFL lessons and suggests that teachers' L2 use in lessons is vital for understanding feedback interactions to support learning in teaching EFL. The interdependence between feedback and dialogue found in this study supports the relevance of extended feedback dialogues to enhance student learning (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Steen-Utheim & Wittek, 2017). However, the results showed that analysis and inquiry, the dimension for higher-order questions, problem-solving and metacognition, was the dimension with lowest score in the instructional support domain, consistent with previous studies (e.g. Gamlem, 2019; Westergård et al., 2019). This points to difficulties in facilitating opportunities for self-regulation by attention to students' internal feedback through classroom dialogues as conceptualised in responsive pedagogy (Smith et al., 2016). The low overall score for instructional support of the present study also indicates a struggle to facilitate clear learning goals, deep understanding of content, and feedback dialogues that expand on student learning. Teachers' involvement in the facilitation of students' goal setting might be critical for students' self-regulated learning processes, in which students set goals and systematically carry out the actions needed to attain them (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016; Zimmerman, 2002).

There are indications of challenges concerning teachers' regard for adolescent perspectives. As such, the teacher-student interactions seem to be of less relevance to students' current lives and perspectives. This finding suggests that teachers might not sufficiently

capitalise on students' EFL competence, background and interests, in keeping with other EFL studies (e.g. Burner, 2015; Illman & Pietilä, 2018; Vattøy & Smith, 2019). The association between analysis and inquiry and regard for adolescent perspectives found in this study also relates to previous research that has connected teachers' sensitivity to adolescent perspectives and facilitation of higher-order thinking skills to student achievement (Allen et al., 2013). Learning goal orientation and opportunities for self-regulation have further been identified as critical aspects for students' self-efficacy and perceptions of teachers' feedback practice in EFL teaching (Vattøy & Smith, 2019).

This study found that EFL teachers were to varying degrees role models for L2 use. Responsive pedagogy in EFL teaching consists of bolstering students' self-confidence by using the L2 actively in feedback interactions. Whilst multilingualism and codeswitching have been identified as resources in foreign language teaching (e.g. Illman & Pietilä, 2018; Then & Ting, 2011), the results of the present study suggest that an overreliance on L1 might inhibit student learning, consistent with previous EFL studies (e.g. Burner, 2015). In EFL feedback interactions, the teacher's L2 use might indicate the teacher's belief in students' capabilities to comprehend and respond in the L2. Use of L2 also signals students' possibilities or lack of possibilities to practise the language central to the foreign language learning. However, this study indicates that some of the teachers struggle to facilitate the learning process in English and provide feedback in a way that positively affects students' learning. Although some of the excerpts from the cases show feedback at the process and self-regulation level, the overall tendency in the descriptive statistics indicates low scores for feedback quality and opportunities for self-regulation. Nevertheless, teachers' L2 use in feedback interactions as identified in this study appears to add to the relevance of a shared language of feedback between teachers and students (Jónsson, Smith, Geirsdóttir, 2018).

The feedback quality of teacher-student interactions in the present study was often characterised by IRE interactions and feedback about tasks (Mehan, 1979). Nonetheless, the analyses of the cases show that traces of summative and formative assessment practices are carried out in both the L1 and L2. For example, the excerpt of Teacher A shows examples of a formative assessment practice in the L1, whilst Teacher D exemplifies some formative assessment practices in the L2. By contrast, Teacher B and C show that summative assessments are made in both the L1 and L2. These patterns seem to indicate some challenges for teachers in providing high-quality feedback that stimulates regulation of learning processes in the L2. Additionally, the feedback provided by the nine teachers ($n = 65$ lessons), is frequently provided to control that students are completing tasks. This accords with findings from Gamlem and Munthe (2014) that feedback is often more encouraging and affirming, rather than promoting information about learning in lower-secondary classrooms (Gamlem & Munthe, 2014; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In such situations, students do not receive feedback on how to strengthen their learning processes, nor the regulatory processes needed to achieve set learning goals. The dimension, quality of feedback, has also been scored in the low-mid range in previous studies (e.g. Gamlem, 2019; Virtanen et al., 2018; Westergård et al., 2019), which points to a greater tendency and challenge for quality in teacher-student interactions in lower-secondary schools.

The present study found that the teachers provide feedback mostly as ‘approving–controlling–disapproving’ (Gamlem & Smith, 2013), which makes students passive recipients rather than active participants. The challenge lies in supporting feedback as ‘constructing achievement–dialogic feedback interaction–constructing a way forward’ (Gamlem & Smith, 2013), which could support students’ self-regulatory capacities as well as building self-efficacy beliefs (Gamlem, 2019; Vattøy & Smith, 2019). Further, feedback to the self as a person with little task-related information was found in one of the cases of the present study. Such personal

feedback is often ineffective and may even be counterproductive for student learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

There is great variation in terms of the amount of L2 exposure for the students in the EFL classrooms of the current study, and L2 use seems to be a predictor for L1 use. In teaching EFL, one of the aims is to learn the language by using it, which makes exposure to L2 and opportunity for practice crucial. Although a shared L1 has been connected to a reduction of the cognitive load and anxiety levels among students (Bruen & Kelly, 2017), the teacher as a role model for L2 use in EFL teaching is important for communicating teacher expectations. Teacher expectations are powerful, and research emphasises that expectations influence students' confidence and achievement (Rubie-Davies, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2006). Teachers with high expectations provide a framework for students' learning, give more feedback and ask higher-order questions (Rubie-Davies, 2007).

In responsive pedagogy, dialogues are realised as instructional encounters between teachers and students where teachers follow up students recursively (Smith et al., 2016). Follow-up interaction patterns (IRF) foster students' internal feedback dialogues and self-regulatory processes through multiple exchanges. Thus, self-regulation entails more than merely an inert mental ability, but a dynamic transformational process (Zimmerman, 2002). Responsive pedagogy is concerned with the capitalisation on unplanned pedagogical moments to utilise students' internal feedback processes through external feedback dialogues in teacher-student interactions. However, this study indicates that several chances of utilising pedagogical moments are squandered.

Implications, limitations and future research

The language of feedback seems to be an important characteristic of teacher-student interactions in teaching EFL. Feedback practice in EFL classrooms, understood as responsive

pedagogy, manifests itself through learning dialogues with an emphasis on student learning and L2 use. The results of the present study are comparable with research studies that have used the CLASS-S (e.g. Gamlem, 2019; Virtanen et al., 2018; Westergård et al., 2019), but extend the discussion of what characterises quality in foreign language teacher-student interactions with its added focus on the language of feedback in language teaching classes. The findings of the present study have implications for teacher education programmes. Teacher candidates might need training in developing their responsive pedagogy in foreign and second language contexts with focus on using the L2 and providing feedback to enhance students' self-regulated learning. Teachers also need to revisit their practices both in terms of L2 use and feedback practices as these have implications for student learning in EFL classrooms.

The main implication of responsive pedagogy for the teacher is to tap into and capitalise on the learner's internal dialogue with appropriate teaching approaches and external feedback (Smith et al., 2016). Focus on higher-order thinking and metacognition in teacher-student interactions seems to represent an aspect of struggle, as it was frequently neglected in the teacher-student interactions of the present study. The results also indicate that the quality of the dialogue and questions asked are important indicators to achieve a feedback practice that make students believe in their own foreign language abilities.

A few limitations in the study need to be addressed. The video-recorded material consisted of EFL lessons of various teaching situations, across different content, and teaching contexts. Teachers respond differently in terms of L1 and L2 use depending on context and situations (Then & Ting, 2011). A teacher who spends a lot of time tutoring students (e.g. low-achieving students) one to one will be prone to more L1 use than a teacher who teaches traditionally in a lecturing form. Such behaviours are consistent with the ones found by Burner (2015) where teachers adapted their teaching by using the L1 to low-performing students, particularly at the start of lower-secondary school. Furthermore, dialogic schemes for studying

classroom dialogue across educational contexts, such as the Scheme for Educational Dialogue Analysis (SEDA), have been developed (Hennessey et al., 2016). The choice of the CLASS-S as observation manual was made due to its explicit focus on students' age, quality in teacher-student interactions, and relevant dimensions to understanding feedback to support the regulation of students' learning processes.

The present study suggests that feedback practice in EFL lessons are characterised by both quality dimensions of teacher-student interactions as well as L2 use. However, more research is needed to map teachers' L2 use in foreign language teaching as related to the specific teaching contexts, as well as how teachers can aid students' self-regulatory processes through feedback dialogues in EFL teaching. Further research is also needed to understand teachers' aims and beliefs about their own feedback practice and choice of language in foreign language teaching lessons, as well as how this could support students' learning and well-being.

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ARTICLE II: Vattøy & Smith (2019)

Students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice in teaching English as a foreign language

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Students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice in teaching English as a foreign language

Abstract

This study focused on the relationship of students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice with students' perceived external goal orientation, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching. Data were collected from a student survey ($n = 1137$) administered to students in Norwegian lower secondary schools. Multiple regression and path analyses were performed. The results indicated that the students who were aware of learning goals perceived the teachers' feedback as more useful. Path analyses suggested that students' perceived self-efficacy and EFL teaching positively predicted their perceptions of teacher feedback practice when mediated by perceived external goal orientation and self-regulation.

Keywords: feedback, goal orientation, self-regulation, self-efficacy, English as a foreign language, responsive pedagogy.

Highlights

- The students perceived feedback practice as more useful when predicted and mediated by several variables.
- Perceived self-efficacy and EFL teaching predicted feedback when mediated by external goal orientation and self-regulation.
- Perceived external goal orientation was the strongest predictor of students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice.
- The students reported strongly positive perceptions of self-efficacy in English as a foreign language.
- The students were divided in the perceived usefulness of the EFL teaching.

1. Introduction

Reviews of formative assessment have recognised that feedback, used appropriately, has powerful, positive impacts on students' learning and performance (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kingston & Nash, 2011; Shute, 2008; Winstone, Nash, Parker, & Rowntree, 2017). Recently, various authors have suggested that formative assessment is embedded in pedagogy (Black & Wiliam, 2018; Hayward, 2015; Smith, 2015). The concept of responsive pedagogy, in particular, draws attention to assessment embedded in pedagogy and explicitly focuses on the complex relationship between learners' internal feedback and external feedback provided by significant others (Smith, Gamlem, Sandal, & Engelsen, 2016). Responsive pedagogy requires pedagogical tact and thoughtfulness, which have been described as a keen sensitivity and orientation that manifest in unplanned pedagogical moments (van Manen, 1991). The utility of feedback depends on how learners perceive it (Handley, Price, & Millar, 2011; Kyaruzi, Strijbos, Ufer, & Brown, 2019). International research has examined the relationship between learners' perceived feedback and critical aspects of self-regulated learning (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Zumbunn, Marrs, & Mewborn, 2016). Fusing formative assessment and self-regulated learning has been proposed (Panadero, Andrade, & Brookhart, 2018), and the significance of self-assessment in students' self-regulation and self-efficacy has been stressed (Panadero, Jonsson, & Botella, 2017).

However, empirical research has largely neglected the mediating functions related to feedback perceptions and the role of the perceived usefulness of feedback (Harks, Rakoczy, Hattie, Besser, & Klieme, 2014). For example, perceived scaffolding and feedback delivery significantly predicted feedback use on mathematics performance for secondary school students in Tanzania (Kyaruzi et al., 2019). Nevertheless, the same study found negative effects of perceived monitoring on feedback use despite initial positive correlations between the variables, which could suggest that there might be mediating effects when predicting feedback use. The

complex relationship among feedback, self-regulation and self-efficacy also requires further investigation (Smith et al., 2016). Accordingly, the present study focused on variables important to feedback practice in the domain of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). Our research question explored perceived teacher feedback practice in relation to four aspects (perceived external goal orientation, perceived self-regulation, perceived self-efficacy, and perceived EFL teaching):

What are the relationships of students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice with perceived external goal orientation, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and EFL teaching?

To answer this research question, multiple regression and path analyses were performed to investigate the roles of different variables in predicting and mediating the relationships of perceived teacher feedback practice. The literature has reported that the interactions of feedback with other variables create the conditions for learning (e.g., Ekholm, Zumbrunn, & Conklin, 2015; Handley et al., 2011; Kyaruzi et al., 2019; Zumbrunn et al., 2016).

1.1. Feedback at the heart of responsive pedagogy

As mentioned, responsive pedagogy consists of a 'recursive dialogue between the learner's internal feedback and external feedback provided by significant others' (Smith et al., 2016, p. 1). In this view, feedback involves more than the one-directional transmission of information, and the focus on internal feedback highlights the role of students' self-regulation and self-efficacy (Smith et al., 2016; Butler & Winne, 1995). In responsive pedagogy, students have the opportunity to take an active role in feedback dialogues as feedback is regarded as jointly co-constructed through interactions among the teachers, students, peers, and materials. Recent research has focused on the dialogic aspect of feedback conversations, particularly self-regulated learning (Adie, van der Kleij, & Cumming, 2018; Gamlem & Smith, 2013), and has

found that students' agentic engagement and proactive recipience of feedback are as critical to learning as the feedback provided (Handley et al., 2011; Winstone et al., 2017). Despite the current rhetoric on dialogic feedback (Adie et al., 2018; Gamlem & Smith, 2013), a gap has been identified in the understanding of what is needed to engage students as equal partners in feedback processes (Ossenberg, Henderson, & Mitchell, 2018). In an Icelandic study comparing teachers' and students' perceptions of feedback in secondary school, one of the main findings highlighted that the teachers overestimated how much students were involved in feedback dialogues (Jónsson, Smith, & Geirsdóttir, 2018). Van der Schaaf, Baartman, Prins, Oosterbaan, and Schaap (2013) stressed three important characteristics of feedback dialogues: they are a) aimed at closing the gap between performance and intended criteria; b) take place in interactions between teachers and students; and c) match students' needs. In their study, students who had engaged in feedback dialogues with their teachers perceived feedback as more useful.

Teachers' feedback practices are related to their beliefs about students' learning, and in some cases, these beliefs and practices can be resistant to change despite the use of formative interventions (Gamlem, 2015). Beliefs about the roles in teacher-student interactions are relevant as they determine the extent to which students also give feedback to the teacher. In feedback dialogues, the teacher can allow students to become feedback providers and simultaneously draw students' attention to learning goals, and this goal orientation has been found to enhance academic achievement (Lerang, Ertesvåg, & Havik, 2018).

1.2. Teachers' feedback practice and students' external goal orientation

Goal orientation refers to an individual's general orientation and purpose for approaching, doing and evaluating a task (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Butler & Winne, 1995; Pintrich, 2000). In classroom contexts, goal orientation frequently involves attention to criteria for achieving goals (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016). However, students may either internalise or

reject the external goals and criteria selected by the teacher (Butler & Winne, 1995; Harris, Brown, & Dargusch, 2018). The teacher plays an important role in directing students' attention to learning goals and criteria (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016). The present study employed the construct of perceived external goal orientation to refer to students' comprehension and activation or rejection of external goals set by the teacher.

The implementation of learning goals in instruction has been highlighted as central to students' development of self-regulatory capacities (Panadero et al., 2017), while explicit learning goals and assessment criteria have been identified as significant factors in facilitating students' self-regulation (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016). However, it has been noted that the move towards criterion-referenced assessment with more transparent learning goals has promoted criteria compliance and award achievement as assessment has replaced learning (Torrance, 2007). When assessment obstructs learning, assessment practices achieve the opposite of their intent for student learning (Sadler, 2007). Although it has been argued that the use of explicit assessment criteria is essential to promote students' self-regulatory capacity (Balloo, Evans, Hughes, Zhu, & Winstone, 2018), successfully fostering this self-regulatory capacity depends in part on the extent to which teachers elicit students' thoughts about self-regulation (Smith et al., 2016).

1.3. Teachers' feedback practice and students' self-regulation

Learning is considered to be self-regulated to the extent that students metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally regulate their own learning processes (Butler & Winne, 1995; Panadero et al., 2018; Zimmerman, 1989). The field of self-regulated learning has developed rapidly in recent decades. A meta-analysis on intervention studies at the primary and secondary school levels analysed 357 effect sizes with an average effect size of 0.69, which is high for educational contexts (Dignath & Büttner, 2008). This points to the relevance and benefits of

training self-regulatory strategies through explicit training, although the forms of training remain disputed. A literature review on self-regulated learning found that all self-regulated learning models are goal driven as students' goals direct their self-regulatory actions (Panadero, 2017). The various models of self-regulated learning share similar characteristics: 1) students are active, constructive participants; 2) students monitor, control, and regulate aspects of cognition, motivation, and behaviour; 3) regulation is related to criteria and goals; and 4) self-regulatory activities serve as mediators between achievement and personal and contextual characteristics (Pintrich, 2000). The present study employed perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation as self-regulatory mediators of students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice.

Butler and Winne's (1995) model of self-regulated learning considers self-regulation to be a cycle between internal feedback and external feedback. Responsive pedagogy capitalises on this feedback cycle, by focusing on the recursive learning dialogue between students' internal feedback and external feedback provided by significant others (Smith et al., 2016). Integrating formative assessment and self-regulated learning has gained increased attention (Panadero et al., 2018). The co-regulation of students' learning in classrooms, or the joint influence of students' self-regulation and external regulation, has shifted more emphasis to regulation through interactions (Allal, 2016). Current trends thus have transformed the view on self-regulated learning from an isolated activity within the student to a co-constructed activity (Gamlem & Smith, 2013).

Furthermore, self-regulation is connected to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1991). Self-efficacy beliefs are important sets of proximal determinants of the self-regulatory processes in human agency as learners' belief in their efficacy influences the choices they make and how they regulate their cognition (Bandura, 1993). Previous studies applying mediation regression analyses have found that improving students' self-efficacy and feedback perceptions has the

potential to also improve their self-regulation skills (Ekholm et al., 2015; Zumbunn et al., 2016).

1.4. Teachers' feedback practice and students' self-efficacy

The self-efficacy beliefs of both teachers and students affect the classroom context (van Dinther, Dochy, Segers, & Braeken, 2014; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Students' self-efficacy beliefs and their means to regulate their own learning determine their motivation and achievement (Bandura, 1989, 1993). Simultaneously, teachers' beliefs in their efficacy at motivating and stimulating learning processes influence how they create and facilitate learning environments (Gamlem, 2015). A review of 40 years of research on teachers' self-efficacy suggested that teachers' self-efficacy is positively associated with students' academic adjustment (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Van Dinther et al. (2014) found that students' perceptions of the quality of feedback is the best predictor of students' self-efficacy. Self-efficacy beliefs thus are one of the most fundamental mechanisms of human agency and affect motivation, emotions, and action (Bandura, 1989).

Low self-efficacy typically is associated with the emotions of frustration and discouragement, while high self-efficacy is associated with the emotion of confidence (Miele & Scholer, 2018). Children who perceive ability as an acquirable skill are much more likely to persevere when they face obstacles and to judge their own capabilities positively than those children who regard ability as an inherent capacity (Bandura, 1993). It has been suggested that students' readiness to engage with the feedback they receive depends on their self-efficacy (Handley et al., 2011). Responsive pedagogy is related to self-efficacy at: a) a general level, strengthening students' self-esteem; and b) a specific level, influencing students' self-efficacy within a specific domain or task (Smith et al., 2016). The present research focused on the domain-specific level, or the extent to which students' self-efficacy expectations are related to

the subject domain of EFL and how teachers provide feedback that strengthens students' perceived self-efficacy.

1.5. Teachers' feedback practice and EFL teaching

Teachers' feedback practice is important for students' learning of foreign languages, as EFL learning involves subject-specific challenges for students related to language, grammar, and curriculum (Burner, 2015). In Norway, EFL teachers provide feedback to students in Norwegian and English (Burner, 2015), and students are highly exposed to English in their leisure time (Bakken & Lund, 2018). Bakken and Lund (2018) showed that Norwegian EFL teachers are influenced by non-communicative practices that emphasise controlling students' work, such as collective reading, translation, and pronunciation practices. The distinction between acquisition and learning proposed by Krashen (1982) is relevant here. Acquisition is a more subconscious, natural process, similar to the process of acquiring a mother tongue, whereas learning entails more conscious processes. Acquisition does not necessarily need to exclude participation (Sfard, 1998), as the acquisition process in out-of-school activities often require students to be active and participate.

Responsive pedagogy is relevant to equitable feedback practices in EFL teaching, as it opposes feedback as a one-way transmissive process (Smith et al., 2016). Much research on feedback in foreign- and second-language contexts has studied the one-way transmissive process of corrective feedback (e.g., Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Li, 2010). This study's contribution is valuable to the field of foreign and second language teaching research as it adopts a responsive pedagogical teaching framework, and since it examines the relationship between students' perceptions of EFL teaching and other critical aspects of their learning, as explored through the variables in this study.

2. Methods

2.1. Sample

The sample comprised 1,137 students (ages 13–16 years) in six lower-secondary schools, who responded to a survey. In total, 51 classes participated (Year 8: 415 students; Year 9: 343 students; and Year 10: 379 students). All the school cohorts participated at four schools, while all the students in Year 8 participated at one school, and all the students in Year 10 at another school. Schools in western Norway were strategically selected based on Year 8 results for national, Year-8 test in English (EFL) over 2014–2018. The schools' results were representative of the overall national results. One school was urban, while the others were rural schools. The gender distribution was close to the standardised variation (boys: 48.8%; girls: 51.2%). Of the students, 91.2% reported Norway as their birthplace. The response rate for the student survey was 89%.

2.2. Procedure

Data were collected from February to June 2018 after we had received an ethical approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data. The head teachers of the lower-secondary schools were contacted, and invitations were sent to the EFL teachers who gave their consent to participate. A letter of invitation with informed consent forms was provided to the students and their parents or care-givers, and the students who delivered signed, informed consent were invited to participate in the study. The first author visited all the participating classrooms to deliver the invitation letters. The first author also gave a presentation of the project and held a discussion with the teachers and students in each of the 51 participating classrooms. The students were encouraged to ask questions about the implications and practicalities of participation, and the voluntary nature of participation was emphasised.

The teachers administered the survey and were handed printed questionnaires in an envelope to be sealed upon completion. The researcher's presence likely was one reason for the

high response rate, as well as the use of printed questionnaires instead of digital versions. The survey was conducted during class time, but the students had the right to refuse to participate. This right was communicated to the students and teachers before and during participation, and the students could continue other tasks as the survey was conducted during teaching hours. Care was taken to keep the teachers' presence to a minimum when the students were responding to the survey.

2.3. Responsive Pedagogy Questionnaire

The Responsive Pedagogy Questionnaire (RPQ) is a cross-disciplinary questionnaire originally developed for use in mathematics in Norwegian lower-secondary schools by a research team (Smith et al., 2016). For the present study, the questionnaire was adapted for the EFL subject. The cross-disciplinary RPQ was adapted by replacing the word *mathematics* with *English*. Research on feedback practice (Gamlem, 2015; Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Hattie & Timperley, 2007), self-regulation (Butler & Winne, 1995; Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 1989), and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1989, 1993) formed the theoretical basis of the questionnaire.

The RPQ uses a four-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree). The questionnaire consists of 85 items related to students' subject learning, feedback practice, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and perceptions of various aspects of teaching (e.g., homework and tests), as well as other factors (e.g., parents' attitudes). The questionnaire consisted of three parts related to the phases of working with the subject: 1) pre-working; 2) while-working; and 3) post-working. These three parts are also related to the three phases of self-regulated learning: 1) forethought; 2) performance; and 3) self-reflection (Zimmerman, 2002). There were fourteen additional items for background variables. The RPQ was administered to the students in Norwegian due to the high percentage of Norwegian-born students in the sample.

Table 1 shows the operationalisation of the constructed scales with examples of the items included. Perceived teacher feedback practice is operationalised as students' perceptions of the usefulness of the teachers' feedback practice. Perceived external goal orientation refers to students' comprehension and activation or rejection of external learning goals provided or mediated by teachers. Perceived self-regulation is understood as students' capability for metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural self-regulation in learning processes. Perceived self-efficacy describes students' self-efficacy beliefs in their own abilities and skills in EFL. Perceived EFL teaching refers to students' perceptions of EFL teaching. No items were used in more than one scale.

2.4. Data analysis

There were a few missing values in the data set ($M_{all\ items} = 2\%$). Only students who answered at least 66% of the items were included in the data set. Based on this criterion, missing values were replaced with the mean of the valid surrounding values, in other words, the number of valid values above and below the missing value were used to compute the mean. The mean imputation was done for the missing values at all item-level responses before conducting any other analysis.

Below is the hypothetical model of how the variables of the present study were hypothesised to relate to perceived teacher feedback practice and the research question. The rationale for the hypothetical model is based on the evidence presented above, emphasising the predictive roles of other variables on students' feedback perceptions (e.g., Ekholm et al., 2015; Kyaruzi et al., 2019; Zumbunn et al., 2016). Initially, we hypothesised that the variables, perceived external goal orientation, perceived self-regulation, perceived self-efficacy, and perceived EFL teaching, would have significant positive impacts on perceived teacher feedback practice (See Fig. 1).

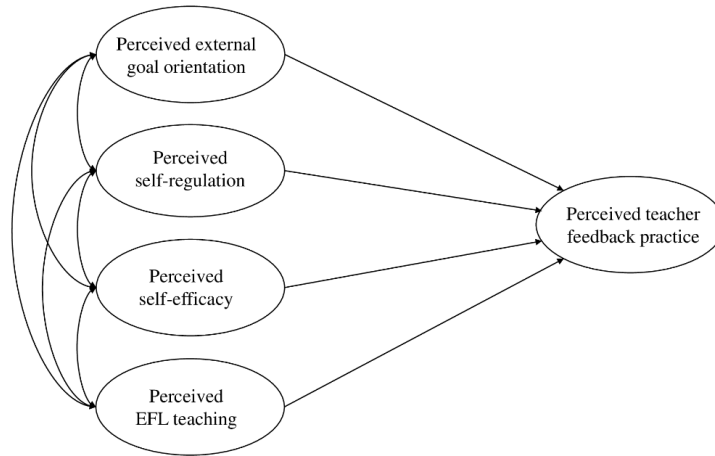


Fig. 1: Hypothetical model of factors affecting perceived teacher feedback practice.

To address our research question about the relationships between the variables employed by this study, we ran descriptive and correlation analyses to detect these initial relationships. Descriptive statistics analyses were conducted for all the variables, and the values for standard error, skewness, and kurtosis were acceptable. We proceeded with confirmatory factor analyses to test a measurement model of the latent variables, before running the correlation analysis with the latent variables. Correlation analyses showed that all the scales were significantly correlated at the $p < .01$ level. We performed a confirmatory factor analysis with the five factors: perceived teacher feedback practice, perceived external goal orientation, perceived self-regulation, perceived self-efficacy, and perceived EFL teaching, to make sure that the items confirmed each factor. The latent variables were used in the subsequent multiple regression analyses and path analyses.

The measurement models for the confirmatory factor analyses and path analyses were conducted using SPSS Amos version 25, and the parameters of the measurement models were estimated using maximum likelihood estimation. The estimated models' goodness of fit was

evaluated using the following three absolute goodness-of-fit indices: the chi-square test (χ^2), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR). We also used two comparative goodness-of-fit indices to evaluate model fit: the comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI).

For the multiple regression analyses, we added the variables one by one to see patterns developing. The R-square, F-test, t-test, and p-value were used to determine the overall fit and variance explained. Multiple regression analyses using perceived teacher feedback practice as the dependent variable were conducted to examine the influence of perceived external goal orientation, perceived self-regulation, perceived self-efficacy, and perceived EFL teaching. However, perceived self-efficacy did not positively predict perceived teacher feedback practice, when including all independent variables in the multiple regression analysis, despite initial significant positive correlations. Perceived external goal orientation reduced the positive strength of the other variables when all were included, as it explained much of the variance in contributing to a high R² value. We thus performed a path analysis to explore how perceived self-efficacy could explain the variance in perceived teacher feedback practice when mediated by other latent variables, as this would help us to understand more of the role of perceived external goal orientation as mediator.

The scales used in the hypothetical model were restructured, as we suspected that there were one or more mediators when determining the relationships between perceived self-efficacy and perceived teacher feedback practice, when all scales were included in a single measurement model. We restructured the way the variables related to one another and decided to have perceived self-efficacy and perceived EFL teaching as independent variables. Perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation were used as mediators in predicting perceived teacher feedback practice.

2.5. Validity and reliability

The scales on perceived teacher feedback practice ($\alpha = .89$), perceived external goal orientation ($\alpha = .83$), perceived self-regulation ($\alpha = .74$), perceived self-efficacy ($\alpha = .89$), and perceived EFL teaching ($\alpha = .88$), all had strong inter-item consistency. Three scales had four items (perceived external goal orientation, perceived self-regulation, and perceived EFL teaching), and two scales had six items (perceived teacher feedback practice and perceived self-efficacy).

For the regression analyses, histograms with a normal curve showed there were no significant outliers in the scales. Homoscedasticity was assessed by analysing scatterplots and use-of-fit lines, and normality was found as the plot had a random scatter.

3. Results

3.1. Measurement model

The results from the single-level five-factor model (perceived teacher feedback practice, perceived external goal orientation, perceived self-regulation, perceived self-efficacy, and perceived EFL teaching) showed a good fit with the empirical data: $\chi^2(239) = 801.68$, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.05, and SRMR = 0.04. Inspection of the modification indices showed that model fit was improved by correlating the error terms for the following items: 1) TFP5 and TFP6; 2) EGO1 and EGO2; and 3) SR2 and SR4. The factor loadings are reported in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and factor loadings for items in scales of the RPQ

Scales	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skew	Kurt	Load
Perceived teacher feedback practice	Perceived teacher feedback practice (scale; $\alpha = .89$)	2.83	.61	-.56	.57	–
	TFP1: The feedback I receive from English teachers helps me understand the task better.	2.84	.77	-.49	.09	.75
	TFP2: The feedback I receive from English teachers is provided in a way that I learn something from working on it.	2.77	.74	-.40	.01	.75

	TFP3: The feedback I receive from English teachers tells me how I can do better next time.	2.94	.76	-.59	.36	.77
	TFP4: The feedback from English teachers makes me better understand what I am going to learn.	2.80	.73	-.53	.34	.82
	TFP5: When I receive back tests or tasks in English, I am told what I need to practise more to do better next time.	2.85	.79	-.54	.11	.73
	TFP6: My teachers make me aware of what I need to work more on to achieve a better learning result.	2.76	.78	-.40	-.09	.74
Perceived external goal orientation	Perceived external goal orientation (scale; $\alpha = .83$)	2.88	.61	-.40	.57	–
	EGO1: The teachers explain clearly what I should learn in English.	2.92	.75	-.34	-.16	.74
	EGO2: I receive enough help to understand what I need to learn in English.	2.94	.76	-.47	.08	.81
	EGO3: The teachers help me set learning goals in English.	2.67	.78	-.18	-.34	.69
Perceived self-regulation	EGO4: I most often understand what the learning goals in English are.	2.99	.71	-.51	.45	.68
	Perceived self-regulation (scale; $\alpha = .74$)	2.74	.58	-.26	.45	–
	SR1: When there is something I do not understand in English, I try to find information that could make it clearer.	3.08	.73	-.61	.45	.64
	SR2: When I work with English, I force myself to check if I remember what I have learned.	2.48	.79	.19	-.41	.65
	SR3: When I work with English, I often stop to check if what I have done is correct.	2.76	.77	-.25	-.23	.65
	SR4: When I work with English, I practise by repeating the material to myself again and again.	2.65	.81	-.15	-.46	.56
Perceived self-efficacy	Perceived self-efficacy (scale; $\alpha = .89$)	3.15	.58	-.59	.50	–
	SE1: I am confident that I understand the most complicated material taught by the teacher.	3.06	.80	-.55	-.22	.70
	SE2: If I decide to get good marks in English, I can achieve them.	3.22	.71	-.64	.19	.74
	SE3: If I want to learn something in depth in English, I can do it.	3.16	.68	-.48	.16	.78
	SE4: When I decide to manage something really difficult in English, I can do it.	3.04	.72	-.52	.30	.79
	SE5: I am confident that I can do a good job on tasks and tests in English.	3.07	.74	-.50	.00	.81
	SE6: If I decide to achieve tasks in English, I can do it.	3.32	.66	-.73	.54	.69
Perceived EFL teaching	Perceived EFL teaching (scale; $\alpha = .88$)	2.47	.75	-.04	-.50	–
	EFLT1: I look forward to teaching of English.	2.38	.85	.14	-.59	.85
	EFLT2: I like teaching in English.	2.66	.93	-.29	-.75	.87
	EFLT3: English is fun, so I will not quit it.	2.64	.90	-.18	-.73	.80
	EFLT4: I like English because the content of the teaching is exciting.	2.19	.83	.28	-.47	.68

Note. $n = 1,137$ students. M = mean; SD = standard deviation; skew = skewness; kurt = kurtosis; load = factor loadings; α = Cronbach's alpha. A high mean indicates a high level of agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree).

3.2. Descriptive statistics

Overall, the descriptive statistics for the scales in Table 1 show that perceived self-efficacy was the scale with the highest mean score ($M = 3.15$), indicating that the students generally reported high expectations for their own EFL abilities and skills. The lowest mean score was the moderate score for perceived EFL teaching ($M = 2.47$). The standard deviation for this scale was also higher ($SD = .75$), indicating great spread whether the students enjoyed English teaching.

Of the 24 items comprising the scales presented in Table 1, the descriptive statistics show that ‘I like English because the content of the teaching is exciting’ (EFLT4) had the lowest mean value ($M = 2.19$), indicating that most students did not find EFL teaching to arise great interest or excitement in them. Conversely, the statement ‘If I decide to get good marks in English, I can achieve them’ (SE2) had the highest maximum mean value ($M = 3.22$), signifying that the students had high self-efficacy in their EFL competence. The item, ‘I like teaching in English’ (EFLT2), had the highest standard deviation ($SD = .93$) and a mean score of 2.66, indicating that the students were divided over whether they perceived English teaching as an enjoyable or pleasurable activity.

Pearson’s product-moment correlations between the scales in Table 2 show that all the scales (variables 1–5) used in the measurement model had positive, statistically significant correlations. The highest correlation was found between perceived teacher feedback practice and perceived external goal orientation ($p = .71$). There was also a moderate-high correlation between perceived self-efficacy and perceived EFL teaching ($p = .59$).

Table 2. Pearson’s product-moment correlations

Scale	1	2	3	4	5
1. Perceived teacher feedback practice	–				
2. Perceived external goal orientation	.71**	–			
3. Perceived self-regulation	.44**	.41**	–		

4. Perceived self-efficacy	.41**	.53**	.38**	–	
5. Perceived EFL teaching	.51**	.53**	.44**	.59**	–

Note. $n = 1,137$. ** $p < .01$. (two-tailed).

3.3. Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis was performed to predict perceived teacher feedback practice based on students' perceptions of four independent variables: perceived external goal orientation, perceived self-regulation, perceived self-efficacy, and perceived EFL teaching (See Table 3). A significant regression equation with an R^2 of .55 was found ($F_{4,1132} = 103.91$, $p < .001$). All the independent variables were significant predictors of perceived teacher feedback practice. However, perceived self-efficacy had a slightly negative correlation, which contrasted with the results from the positive correlations in Table 2. The model shows that perceived external goal orientation ($\beta = .59$, $p < .001$) was the strongest predictor of perceived teacher feedback practice.

Table 3. Multiple regression analysis with perceived teacher feedback practice as the dependent variable

Scale	B	$SE B$	β	t	p
Perceived external goal orientation	.59	.03	.59	23.31	.000
Perceived self-regulation	.16	.02	.16	6.79	.000
Perceived self-efficacy	-.06	.03	-.05	-2.01	.044
Perceived EFL teaching	.13	.02	.16	5.97	.000

Note. $n = 1,137$ students. B = unstandardised beta; $SE B$ = standard error for unstandardised beta; β = standardised beta; t = t test statistic; p = probability value.

3.4. Path analysis

We conducted several path analyses to examine how the variables related. The final model was calculated by doing a path analysis with perceived self-efficacy and perceived EFL

teaching as independent variables, mediated by perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation, with perceived teacher feedback practice as dependent variable (see Fig. 2). The results showed a good fit with the empirical data: $\chi^2(1) = 4.06, p = 0.04, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.05,$ and $SRMR = 0.01$. A closer look at the modification indices showed that model fit was improved by considering the direct effect of perceived EFL teaching on perceived teacher feedback practice. R^2 for perceived teacher feedback practice in the model was .55, suggesting that 55% of the variance in perceived teacher feedback practice can be explained through this model. R^2 for perceived external goal orientation was .36 and .24 for perceived self-regulation. As Fig. 2 shows, the mediators have different functions and the second mediator is affected by three variables, whilst the first mediator is affected by two. In a previous analysis, when perceived self-regulation was used as the first mediator, it predicted the second mediator with a .17 in standardised beta. However, when perceived external goal orientation was used as the first mediator the standardised beta value between perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation was higher, i.e. .21, as shown in the final model in Fig. 2.

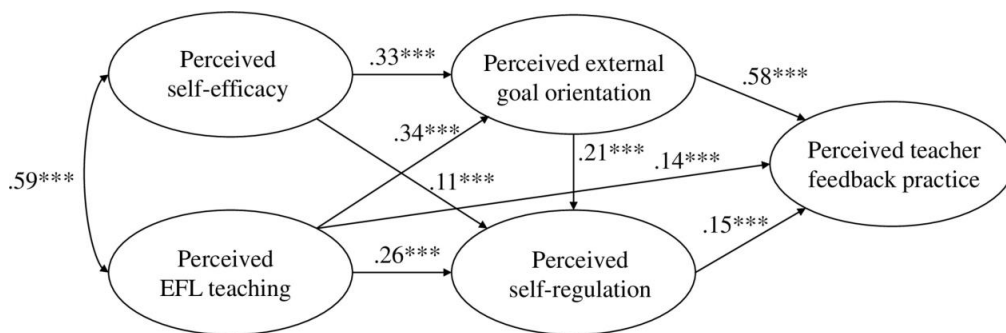


Fig. 2: Path analysis of factors predicting and mediating perceived teacher feedback practice.

4. Discussion

The aim of the present article was to examine students' perceptions of teachers' feedback practice as related to perceived external goal orientation, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and EFL teaching. The hypothetical model predicted that there was a linear relationship between all variables affecting perceived teacher feedback practice. However, the results from the multiple linear regression model showed that perceived self-efficacy did not fit the model, and we suspected that there might be mediators. The lack of direct relationship between perceived self-efficacy and perceived teacher feedback practice is important as it contrasted results of early analyses and the hypothetical model, and contrasted findings of earlier research (e.g., Ekholm et al., 2015; Zumbrunn et al., 2016). The results of the present study thus suggest that students do not perceive teachers' feedback practice as useful despite an initial strongly positive perceived self-efficacy, when disregarding the mediating variables (i.e., perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation). These findings further suggest that students need to know the learning goals related to the teachers' feedback, and feel capable of self-regulating, to experience teachers' feedback practice as useful. Students' perceived self-efficacy thus seems to be insufficient, per se. The final model of the path analysis showed that there was a good fit when perceived self-efficacy and perceived EFL teaching were used as predictors for perceived teacher feedback practice mediated by perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation.

First, the relationships identified in Fig. 2 suggest that perceived self-efficacy and perceived EFL teaching positively and strongly predict perceived teacher feedback practice when mediated by perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation which is in line with research that has underlined the importance of assessment criteria on self-regulation (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016; Panadero et al., 2017). The complex relationships between all variables employed by this study are in line with the conceptual framework of responsive pedagogy (Smith et al., 2016).

Second, the model suggested the strongest prediction of perceived teacher feedback practice when mediated by perceived external goal orientation. The paths that go solely through perceived self-regulation, without going via perceived external goal orientation, have slightly lower positive beta weights. This suggests that students with high self-efficacy and high perceptions of their EFL teaching experience perceive teachers' feedback practice as high when they know external goals provided by the teacher and have strongly positive perceptions of their own self-regulation. The results of the present study thus are in line with previous research which has shown that students' perception of teachers' feedback practice is mediated by other variables (Ekholm et al., 2015; Kyaruzi et al., 2019; Zumbrunn et al., 2016), for example, that students' perceived self-efficacy is related to their level of openness to receiving feedback (Zumbrunn et al., 2016).

The results from the present study point to an overall significance of students' perceptions of self-efficacy, self-regulation, knowledge of external goals, and enjoyment of attending EFL teaching when judging the usefulness of teachers' feedback practice. Fig. 2 suggests that students perceive feedback provided by the teacher as useful when they are active and equally participating. To achieve this, the feedback discourse needs to go beyond how students engage with feedback and examine how students can be involved in reciprocal, dialogic feedback processes in which they provide feedback to teachers, thereby facilitating more equitable feedback dialogues. The notion of equal partners in responsive pedagogy requires greater involvement by students in providing feedback to teachers on how to adjust teaching to match students' competence and interests. The practice of students giving feedback back to teachers is an important area of focus for future studies. Equitable feedback practices could further reduce students' maladaptive assessment agency (Harris et al., 2018), and ensure that the external goals provided by teachers become students' internalised goals. Adoption of equitable feedback dialogues as students provide feedback to teachers could reinforce students'

ownership of learning processes, in accordance with research documenting more constructive feedback dialogues between teachers and students due to a stronger formative assessment culture (Jónsson et al., 2018). Students who feel ownership of and, therefore, value their work and the feedback received exercise greater control of their own learning, which is related to their academic self-regulation (Handley et al., 2011).

The strong predictive effect of perceived external goal orientation on perceived teacher feedback practice has several implications. First, effective feedback from teachers is important for students' comprehension and activation of assessment criteria (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Shute, 2008). The present study's results show that students aware of the learning goals perceive teachers' feedback practice as more useful. Second, students' understanding of criteria and goals are important to their self-regulation (Balloo et al., 2018; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Panadero et al., 2017). Without a common understanding of the learning goals to achieve the desired results, students lack the criteria to be able to adequately plan, monitor, and assess their own work and performance. Third, responsive pedagogy also includes the dimension of self-efficacy (Smith et al., 2016), which suggests that teachers need to strengthen students' self-efficacy beliefs in the learning process. Guessing criteria is an unsustainable strategy for students when no learning goals are set, and ignorance of criteria can have harmful effects on students' self-efficacy (Andrade & Brookhart, 2016; Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

The results from the present study indicate that perceived external goal orientation and perceived self-regulation were important mediators when predicting students' perceptions of feedback practice. The concept of responsive pedagogy has the explicit aim to develop students' self-regulatory capacities through recursive learning dialogues in internal and external feedback loops as teachers lead students to believe in their own competences (Smith et al., 2016). These mindful and pedagogical dialogues strengthen students' beliefs in their ability to achieve their goals (Smith, 2015). Students' engagement and use of feedback has been underrepresented in

academic research, leading researchers to investigate students' engagement with feedback processes (Carless & Boud, 2018; Handley et al., 2011; Winstone et al., 2017).

Although creating an academically stimulating and engaging classroom that resonates with students' interests and competences is an admirable goal, the descriptive statistics showed that the students were divided in finding EFL teaching exciting, despite reporting high levels of self-efficacy in EFL. Moreover, the results showed that students' perceptions of self-efficacy and EFL teaching are strongly associated. These results imply that EFL teaching only to some extent reflects students' competence levels or spark their interest. A low level of competence was also reflected in one student's comments on the survey responses (unsolicited by the RPQ): 'English is absolutely a language worth knowing.' 'The teacher has a very low competence level.' 'The teacher just prints off material from the Internet'. 'I make my own learning goals.'. This example demonstrates that EFL teaching can fail to motivate students despite their initial motivation to learn English. In Norway, students are highly exposed to English through media, music, television, and games (Bakken & Lund, 2018). The results of the present study suggest that EFL teaching has more potential to further capitalise upon students' competence and out-of-school interests related to their foreign-language competence. The results thus suggest a need to fuse the world of acquisition and the world of learning, and a two-way dialogue in feedback practices is central in this quest.

5. Limitations

It is important to consider the limitations of this study when interpreting the results. Due to the ethical considerations of voluntary participation, this study's sample was not randomly selected and, therefore, cannot be said to represent the general population of Norwegian lower-secondary school students. Nonetheless, the sample included 51 full classes from six lower-secondary schools with an even gender distribution. The high response rate also strengthened

the validity of the results. Data from all the students were analysed collectively, but the influence of student grouping in classes and schools was not explored through multilevel analyses due to scope limitations and focus on examining relationships of variables related to perceived teacher feedback practice at the general level.

The scales captured some dimensions of the complex processes and many characteristics of the concepts studied. We sought to be transparent by presenting all the items used in the scales in Table 1. Self-regulation was divided into three phases: forethought, performance, and self-reflection (Panadero, 2017; Zimmerman, 2002). The perceived self-regulation scale emphasised the performance phase of self-regulation, during the middle of a work process.

The RPQ collected self-report data from the students. Although the RPQ had a clear focus on EFL teaching, it might have been difficult for the students to separate the processes of English teaching and learning. Another potential weakness was that the length of the RPQ could have caused fatigue as the students completed all the items. The teachers' involvement in administering the survey was also a limitation as it could have imposed social pressure or teacher flattery, despite measures to mitigate these risks.

The cross-disciplinary RPQ was originally developed for mathematics, and perhaps it would have been more suitable to make further modifications to the items in the perceived teacher feedback practice scale, as these presuppose a directive relationship between teachers and students. However, it was our contention that feedback practices can be directional in school teaching in general and across all school subjects. We acknowledge the limitation of the directive relationship between the teachers and students in the items for perceived teacher feedback practice but argue that the other scales used in this study and the relationships between them, as explored by multiple regression analyses and path analyses, contribute to highlighting students' agency, efficacy, and regulation.

6. Implications and further research

The present study addresses a need for change in teachers' attitudes and openness to listening to students' feedback on how they experience teaching. This study has importance for teacher education and professional development programmes as it shows that students' perceived self-efficacy and perceptions of EFL teaching positively predicted perceived teacher feedback practice when mediated by perceptions of external goal orientation and self-regulation. While the final model of the present study accounted for the direct relationship between students' perceptions of EFL teaching and perceived teacher feedback practice, the same cannot be said for students' self-efficacy perceptions. For teaching practices, this study indicates that students' own perceptions of self-efficacy in EFL teaching do not relate to how they perceive teachers' feedback practice as useful. By contrast, this study implies that teachers should facilitate explicit attention to learning goals and criteria for students in a manner that supports student comprehension, alongside explicit attention to students' self-regulatory processes through extended and recursive learning dialogues, as highlighted by responsive pedagogy. It, therefore, is the task of teacher education and professional development to facilitate feedback practices that enhance students' belief in their capabilities to regulate their own EFL learning. The present study indicates that some of the students who use English as a second language in out-of-school contexts learn English and feel confident in English, not because of, but despite school. The purpose of responsive pedagogy is to empower students through learning dialogues to actively shape the contingencies of their lives (Smith et al., 2016; van Manen, 1991). The results of the present study show a need to promote and discuss teachers' awareness of the power of feedback in initial and in-service teacher education. Teachers also need training in theories and models of self-regulation to understand how it can support students' learning (Panadero, 2017). This study also suggests that a key to helping students use feedback effectively is to enhance their self-efficacy in EFL.

There is a major risk that prepositions linking assessment to learning—*as, for, and of* learning—draw attention away from the key construct that assessment *is* learning (Hayward, 2015) as assessment is an important pedagogical tool (Smith, 2015). Classroom assessments embedded in pedagogy as a theoretical framework, therefore, consider both the formative and the summative aspects of assessment and classroom learning, which, in turn, have the potential to reduce misinterpretations during realisation in policy and practice (Black & Wiliam, 2018). However, whether teachers are successful in linking assessment to learning seems to depend on students' self-regulation, which can be stimulated through work with assessment criteria and language strategy training, as indicated by the final model in this study. At the same time, we presume that there are other important mediating variables not consulted by this study (e.g., students' motivation and skills in EFL).

Further studies are needed to understand how responsive pedagogy and dialogic feedback are related to students' learning in EFL teaching. There is a need for two-way dialogues in feedback processes in which students provide feedback to teachers about instruction and their own learning. Teachers need to revisit how their practices activate and influence students' feedback literacy. In addition, the use of responsive pedagogy should be investigated in other subjects and with older children. Future studies should be conducted on the relationship of responsive pedagogy with students' internal goal orientation and academic performance, in addition to relationships between feedback, motivation, and achievement. More qualitative and mixed-method studies are needed to gain a more detailed understanding of the mechanisms of feedback processes, self-regulation, and self-efficacy in foreign-language teaching.

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ARTICLE III: Vattøy (2020)

Teachers' beliefs about feedback practice as related to student self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills in teaching English as a foreign language

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Teachers' beliefs about feedback practice as related to student self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills in teaching English as a foreign language

Abstract

This study examines lower-secondary teachers' beliefs about feedback practice as related to beliefs about student self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills while teaching English as a foreign language. Data analysis of ten individual interviews was carried out using the constant comparative method. Most of the teachers connected own feedback practice to an awareness of assessment for learning through the teaching of language skills. However, a hidden accountability system seemed to overshadow the full potential of assessment for learning for the teachers with its emphasis on testing. Aspects of marking, student involvement, and dialogic feedback were considered challenging to the feedback practice of half of the teachers. The teachers were further divided as to the relevance of feedback for self-regulation and strategy training. Although most teachers discussed feedback as important for students' self-efficacy, unrealistic expectations and marks were considered impediments to student learning. Implications for teaching and professional learning are discussed.

Keywords: teacher beliefs; feedback; self-regulation; self-efficacy; language skills, English as a foreign language; responsive pedagogy, assessment for learning

Highlights

- Feedback practice was connected to assessment for learning and language skills.
- A competing accountability system seemed to disrupt assessment for learning.
- Challenges were related to marking, student involvement, and feedback dialogues.
- The teachers were divided regarding a focus on self-regulated learning.
- Facilitation of student self-efficacy was related to teacher expectations.

1. Introduction

Feedback, combined with effective instruction, can have a powerful influence on accelerating students' learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Sadler, 1989; Shute, 2008), and a critical determinant of whether feedback is effective is how students engage in feedback processes (Carless & Boud, 2018; Sadler, 2010; Winstone, Nash, Parker, & Rowntree, 2017). A prerequisite of student engagement in feedback processes is how teachers actively facilitate involvement (Havnes, Smith, Dysthe, & Ludvigsen, 2012), and more equitable feedback practices imply that students are also welcomed to provide feedback to teachers about various aspects concerning their learning and development (Vattøy & Smith, 2019). Internationally, research on fusing formative assessment and self-regulated learning has identified important processes in how learners internalise and engage with feedback (Butler & Winne, 1995; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Panadero, Broadbent, Boud, & Lodge, 2018). In addition, self-efficacy has been recognised as a central aspect associated with feedback and self-regulation (Panadero, Jonsson, & Botella, 2017; Smith, Gamlem, Sandal, & Engelsen, 2016). Nonetheless, research examining the relationship between feedback and other aspects related to student learning has largely been missing (Harks, Rakoczy, Hattie, Besser, & Klieme, 2014), despite an increasing number of studies with focus on students' perceptions. For example, feedback has been perceived as more useful in the formative condition with increases in self-efficacy and interest among German secondary students (Rakoczy et al., 2019). Self-regulation and self-efficacy have also been identified as mediators for feedback quality perceptions of Australian secondary students (Van der Kleij, 2019). Vattøy and Smith (2019) employed a responsive pedagogical framework to feedback practice and found that Norwegian secondary students' awareness of learning goals and perceived self-regulation were important mediators when predicting self-efficacy on students' perceptions of teacher feedback practice in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). Such findings advocate against examining feedback in

isolation and as one-way transmissive process. Yet, there is need to examine similar aspects related to teachers' beliefs about feedback practice, as feedback practice is also dependent on teachers' beliefs about student learning and the purpose of feedback (Gamlem, 2015). A meta-review connects a substantial student role to a dialogic model of feedback (Van der Kleij, Adie, & Cumming, 2019). This paper construes feedback as a learning dialogue that occurs in relation to self-regulation and self-efficacy, as conceptualised in responsive pedagogy (Gamlem, Kvinge, Smith, & Engelsen, 2019; Smith et al., 2016; Vattøy & Smith, 2019).

In addition to self-regulation and self-efficacy, the present study also focuses on how feedback practice is related to EFL teachers' beliefs about language skills. The context of Norwegian teachers of EFL is characterised by students who increasingly engage in out-of-school activities with more exposure to the English language and opportunities for engagement (Bakken & Lund, 2018; Vattøy & Smith, 2019). Research in lower-secondary school has documented that teachers link EFL reading almost exclusively to the development of language skills (Bakken & Lund, 2018). Upper-secondary school teachers have reported applying subject-specific reading strategies to their own teaching, despite experiencing difficulties in articulating tacit knowledge related to strategy instruction (Brevik, 2014). Research on formative assessment of EFL writing in lower-secondary school has also shown that there is a tendency that teachers show low expectations of their low-performing students by providing feedback in the first language rather than the target language (Burner, 2015). Thus, studying language skills can have an explanatory power in understanding beliefs about EFL teachers' feedback practice.

Teachers' and students' belief systems are constantly evolving structures that inform action and practice (Lawson, Vosniadou, Van Deur, Wyra, & Jeffries, 2019). In secondary education, belief systems take place in specific assessment cultures. A culture of assessment for learning has been suggested to develop over time and requires leadership and mutual feedback

(Havnes et al., 2012; Hill, 2011). However, assessment cultures vary across educational contexts. A study by Brown, Lake, and Matters (2011) found that primary school teachers perceived assessment as a method to improve teaching and learning, whereas secondary school teachers agreed that assessment made students more accountable for their schoolwork. Norway has had fewer accountability mechanisms compared to countries such as the USA and England, despite an increased focus on testing and accountability (Birenbaum et al., 2015; Hopfenbeck, Flórez Petour, & Tolo, 2015). An accountability focus is manifested in assessment practices that are characterised by marking and placing students into categories for documentation purposes (Tveit, 2014). Finland has been an exception to this idea, with its emphasis on intelligent accountability with a focus on mutual professional responsibility and on building trust among students, teachers, school leaders, and educational authorities (Sahlberg, 2007). Alternative intelligent accountability systems seem to recognise more thoroughly the purposes, conditions, modes, and contexts of assessment (Klenowski & Wyatt-Smith, 2012).

Recent research has indicated a disconnect between the types of feedback students are looking for and the feedback teachers believe they are providing (Chalmers, Mowat, & Chapman, 2018). A discrepancy between teachers' and students' perceptions of feedback has been consistently found in secondary education in Norway (Havnes et al., 2012), Iceland (Jónsson, Smith, & Geirsdóttir, 2018), and Australia (Van der Kleij, 2019). In Havnes et al.'s study, students did not feel that they were welcomed as active partners in the feedback process, while the teachers felt satisfied with the feedback they provided and blamed students for not using this information. The same study also indicated that the feedback practice within secondary schools was more subject-related than school-dependent (Havnes et al., 2012). A key implication for classroom practice seems to be for feedback to occur through dialogue (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Van der Kleij, 2019), yet there is limited evidence of how teachers assist students to increase their agency and involvement in feedback dialogues (Van der Kleij et al.,

2019). Jónsson et al. (2018) identified that a stronger formative assessment culture entailed stronger dialogue between teachers and students.

The national *Assessment for Learning* initiative (2010-2018) in Norway was originally planned for a four-year period but was extended to a second period (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2011). The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training was inspired by international initiatives, particularly the Scottish government programme, *Assessment is for learning* (Hayward & Hedge, 2005; Tveit, 2014). The final report of the Norwegian national *Assessment for Learning* initiative concluded that there was substantial accumulated evidence for a more learner-driven assessment culture because of the initiative (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2018). Norway has further been unique in making students' right to assessment for learning a right by law (Hopfenbeck et al., 2015), which makes the context for assessment for learning familiar to teachers' beliefs and practices in Norway. Globally, shifting teachers' feedback practice in a formative direction has proved challenging considering the prevalence of testing regimes (Birenbaum et al., 2015; Hayward & Hedge, 2005; Klenowski & Wyatt-Smith, 2012). A growing concern has been that contesting educational agendas might have negative consequences for teachers' own professional judgement, community trust in teachers, and viable conditions for assessment for learning (Cumming, Van der Kleij, & Adie, 2019). However, a few studies have shown secondary school teachers' successful formative practice (e.g., Gamlem, 2015; Hill, 2011), emphasising the importance of leaders' influence, teachers' willingness to change, and school context. Whilst many studies have examined assessment for learning internationally, there have been less studies with focus on teaching English as a foreign language (Lee & Coniam, 2013). Since teachers' belief systems influence their classroom practices (Lawson et al., 2019), exploring feedback in relation to self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills can provide pathways into understanding how teaching practices can be understood and improved. The dimensions,

feedback, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills, are examined in relation to teachers' perceived feedback practice in the following research question:

How are teachers' beliefs about their own feedback practice related to their beliefs about students' self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL)?

1.1. Feedback as dialogue in responsive pedagogy

The definition of feedback is contested territory (Carless, 2018). Feedback has been defined as information provided by one agent regarding aspects of another agent's performance or understanding (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Shute, 2008). Sadler (1989) introduced an alternative definition of feedback to highlight its formative function. Drawing on the definition by Ramaprasad (1983), he maintained that 'information about the gap between actual and reference levels is considered as feedback *only when it is used to alter the gap*' (Sadler, 1989, p. 121). For feedback to enhance learning processes, feedback should be sensible and encourage thinking (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Perrenoud, 1998; Sadler, 1989). More recent definitions have continued this line of conceptualisation, and feedback has been defined as processes in which learners make sense of information to promote their learning (Carless, 2018; Carless & Boud, 2018; Henderson, Ajjawi, Boud, & Molloy, 2019). New conceptualisations of feedback come with the potential risk of excluding research reviewed by various meta-analyses on the topic of feedback, as a third of feedback interventions have previously been found to have debilitating or negative effects on performance (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). The notion that feedback must be sensible to the learner and promote learning might neglect its ability to be ineffective, as feedback, for example, can be rejected by learners for various reasons (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). However, definitions that emphasise the formative and dialogic functions of feedback might provide significant contributions to the development of the research field. The importance of the participant role in feedback has been

emphasised by the conceptualisation of feedback as a process and dialogue (Van der Kleij et al., 2019).

Internationally, there have been research developments within teaching pedagogy leading to a renewed focus on dialogic feedback (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Van der Schaaf, Baartman, Prins, Oosterbaan, & Schaap, 2013) and feedback engagement (Carless & Boud, 2018; Winstone et al., 2017). The focus on student feedback uptake (Carless & Boud, 2018) and agentic engagement (Winstone et al., 2017) have contributed to an extended discussion on the relationship of feedback practice with other aspects that are considered important for student learning. A dialogic model of feedback is connected to a substantial student role in which students are active in feedback processes (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Van der Kleij et al., 2019). The present study defines feedback as information within a recursive dialogic process as conceptualised in responsive pedagogy (Smith et al., 2016). Responsive pedagogy is centred on the feedback dialogue between learners and significant others, which addresses the proposal to embed formative assessment within pedagogy (Black & Wiliam, 2018). Responsive pedagogy is defined as the ‘recursive dialogue between the learner’s internal feedback and external feedback provided by significant others’ (Smith et al., 2016, p. 1), with an emphasis on the relationship between feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy to support learning and development (Gamlem et al., 2019; Vattøy & Smith, 2019).

Over the past decade, formative assessment has been concerned with the creation and utilisation of moments of contingency (Black & Wiliam, 2009), defined as critical points where learning changes direction because of feedback. Such moments can be synchronous or asynchronous, where synchronous moments of contingency are often realised as real-time adjustments and are part of teachers’ classroom feedback practice and responsive pedagogy (Jónsson et al., 2018). More attention has been given to these synchronous moments of contingency in recent research, with studies focused specifically on feedback dialogues (Ajjawi

& Boud, 2017; Van der Kleij et al., 2019). A quasi-experimental study on feedback dialogues in secondary schools, by Van der Schaaf et al. (2013), showed that students who had an additional feedback dialogue with their teachers perceived the teachers' feedback as more useful. Feedback as dialogue in responsive pedagogy calls for more opportunities for learning dialogues and improvement of teachers' practices which requires pedagogical tact, thoughtfulness, and the provision of constructive feedback (Smith et al., 2016).

1.2. Feedback practice and self-regulated learning

The capacity to monitor the quality of one's own work throughout the learning process has been acknowledged as a central driver of effective feedback processes (Butler & Winne, 1995; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Sadler, 1989). Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback model distinguishes between four levels of feedback: the task, the process, the self-regulatory, and the self. Feedback regarding the task, without any accompanying feedback about the process, tends to be related to whether a task is correct or incorrect. Hattie and Timperley (2007) also pointed out that feedback about the self is ineffective and potentially harmful for students' self-efficacy, as the primary focus is on the student and not on the task or the performance; for example, 'You're smart'. Feedback regarding the process and self-regulation seem to be the most effective in terms of deep processing and self-efficacy, as the feedback information answers three important questions: 'Where am I going?', 'How am I going?', and 'Where to next?'.

Despite the growing body of literature regarding the benefits of self-regulated learning, there is a puzzling lack of promotion and use of self-regulated learning strategies (Lawson et al., 2019). This has been explained as a lack of uptake by teachers of class-based initiative fostering students' self-regulated learning (Barr & Askill-Williams, 2019). This seems to suggest that teachers' practices might be changed to become more dialogic in nature by

increased teacher knowledge and training in facilitating self-regulated learning strategies for teachers. The fusion between formative assessment and self-regulated learning entails processes related to both self-regulation and co-regulation (Panadero et al., 2018). Self-regulation is often defined as the way in which learners metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally regulate their own learning (Zimmerman, 1989), and is divided into three phases: forethought, performance, and self-reflection (Zimmerman, 2002). The concept of co-regulation is relevant in the juxtaposition of feedback and self-regulation and can be further defined as the joint influence of a learner's processes of self-regulation and the sources of regulation within the learning environment (Allal, 2016; Andrade & Brookhart, 2019). In responsive pedagogy, co-regulation is enabled by significant others (teacher, peer, etc.) (Vattøy & Smith, 2019). In addition, the ability to judge one's own work as well as the work of others, also referred to as evaluative judgement (Panadero et al., 2018), has been identified as a key component in fostering self-regulation. The initial internal feedback component of evaluative judgement has also been highlighted as vital towards promoting self-regulated strategies and self-efficacy (Panadero et al., 2017).

1.3. Self-efficacy and teacher expectations

Self-efficacy lies at the core of responsive pedagogy, and its objective is to help teachers make their students believe in their own abilities and strengthen their overall self-concept (Smith et al., 2016; Vattøy & Smith, 2019). A seven-month instructional intervention study informed by responsive pedagogy yielded significant short-term effects on student self-efficacy and overall self-concept (Gamlem et al., 2019). Self-efficacy beliefs about one's own ability to achieve one's goals are considered fundamental, as they determine human motivation (Bandura, 1989). A student who does not believe in his or her own ability to exert influence on the achievement of his or her goals is likely to fail. The teacher's facilitation and encouragement within a learning environment that supports high self-efficacy are important, as '[p]eople with

high efficacy approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than threats to be avoided' (Bandura, 1993, p. 144).

Teachers' expectations have been found to have a significant effect on their students' achievements and self-efficacy (Gamlem et al., 2019; Rubie-Davies, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2006), though expectations do not always lead to positive outcomes. Teachers' judgements of student achievement have also been associated with academic self-concept and pride in EFL learning (Zhu, Urhahne, & Rubie-Davies, 2018). There are two major self-fulfilling prophecies, often referred to as *Galatia effects* and *Golem effects* (Babad, Inbar, & Rosenthal, 1982). Galatia effects are positive and are observed in high-expectancy students who consistently perform better than their peers. In contrast, Golem effects are negative and are caused by low expectations. From this perspective, teachers' low expectations are hypothesised to have a detrimental effect on students' beliefs about their self-efficacy (Rubie-Davies et al., 2006). Responsive pedagogy, therefore, highlights the centrality of the expectations that teachers have for their students, as well as how teachers communicate their expectations and convince their students to believe in themselves (Gamlem et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2016).

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The participants in this study were ten EFL teachers ($M_{\text{age}} = 40.8$; $SD = 8.42$; range 30-59). The teachers were employed by two separate lower-secondary schools (Year 8 through 10; students aged 13-15 years) in Norway. All EFL teachers at these two schools were invited purposively ($n = 16$). Schools were invited based on the results from a national EFL test for Year 8 conducted over the years 2014-2018, which were representative for the national results. At School 1 all EFL teachers from Year 8 and Year 9 participated ($n = 7$), and all EFL teachers at Year 10 participated at School 2 ($n = 3$). The EFL teachers from the year levels who did not

participate suggested that it would be all or no teachers participating, which might be because the teachers were working in teams and involved in joint activities. Face-to-face interviews were conducted and recorded by the researcher (author) from April to May 2018. The researcher has previous relevant experience of conducting interviews in school contexts. The average recording time was 58.8 minutes (minimum: 39 minutes; maximum: 90 minutes).

Head teachers were initially contacted, and a letter of invitation containing an information consent form was subsequently extended to the teachers who agreed to participate in this study. Choosing full-year levels for the study was especially important, as the teachers worked in teams based on the year being taught and reported doing much of the planning work together. The gender distribution shows that nine out of ten teachers were female. The average teaching experience among participants was 10.35 years (minimum: 3.5 years; maximum: 20 years), and the average number of ECTS credits was 45.8 credits (minimum: 0 credits; maximum: 65 credits). A year course of study equals 60 ECTS. On average, classes were comprised of 22 students (minimum: 15 students; maximum: 26 students). Teaching two EFL classes was done by four of the ten teachers, whereas six of the ten teachers taught one. The data from the teachers also shows that six of the ten teachers had an additional teacher or assistant present in their EFL classrooms on a daily basis to assist with students with special needs. All teachers reported participating in the *Assessment for Learning* initiative (2010-2018), a national school development project to support teachers' assessment for learning practices (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2011, 2018).

2.2. Measure

The Responsive Pedagogy Interview Guide (RPIG) was originally developed by a research team for use in mathematics instruction (Smith et al., 2016). The appendix of the cross-disciplinary RPIG provides an adapted version for use in EFL instruction, replacing the word

mathematics with English, and consisted of 19 questions divided into three themes: feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy (See Appendix A). The adapted RPIG for EFL also consisted of an additional theme: language skills. There was a total of 23 questions in the adapted RPIG for EFL. The RPIG was piloted by one EFL teacher at a separate lower-secondary school, which was not included in the sample, prior to data collection. This piloting ensured that the questions contained in the interview guide were comprehensible and strengthened the validity of the guide for use by EFL teachers. The piloted interview guide consisted of 26 questions. After the interview, the pilot teacher provided helpful feedback in terms of reviewing the interview questions. This session was also recorded, transcribed, analysed, and used as support for improvements. Some of the questions were redundant and removed for the final RPIG adapted version. Other questions had to be condensed and focused more on the theme of ‘language skills’, for example, ‘What would you say are core practices in EFL?’ and ‘What are subject-specific practices in teaching EFL?’. The final question was one of synthesis, allowing the participants to elaborate on their holistic understanding of the themes. Construct validity was strengthened by checking for and examining sources of invalidity throughout the course of each interview to ensure that participants understood the questions and terminology. For most teachers, the open-ended nature of the RPIG allowed them to speak broadly before narrowing on certain issues, as is the natural progression of the RPIG.

Prior to the analyses, the audio files were transcribed carefully. The researcher also re-listened to the interviews to strengthen the reliability of the transcribed text. An audit trail was recorded throughout the coding process to ensure transparency and reduce researcher bias. A researcher journal with memos was also used to bracket the researcher’s own analyses from the actual transcribed data. The transcripts were not returned to participants for comments or correction, but follow-up confirmation questions were frequently asked in the interviews.

2.3. Data analysis

Data were reviewed by the researcher using the constant comparative method of analysis, in which data were systematically analysed through initial, focused, and axial coding (Boeije, 2002). NVivo was the software used to manage and code the data. Initial coding entailed a careful reading and sorting of the transcribed data, while the focused coding reduced the data material into codes. Axial coding included horizontal and vertical analyses of the data material to investigate similarities and differences. Finally, core stories were extracted from the axial coding. Constructivist grounded theory was the methodological orientation of the study (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2017). Constructivist principles of the constant comparative method emphasise flexibility throughout the different phases of the coding process, while highlighting the co-construction of knowledge. Although Braun & Clarke (2019) warn against any blend between reflexive thematic analysis and grounded theory, it might be worthwhile to consider the aspect of reflexivity when coding the qualitative interview material in both approaches. In reflexive thematic analysis, coding is considered an open and recursive process, yet it aims not to accurately summarise the data nor minimise researcher subjectivity (Braun & Clarke, 2019). The present study, by contrast, aimed to bolster reliability issues and reduce researcher bias, as mentioned above.

Four main themes were selected prior to the data analysis and sub-themes arose from the data material after recursive work with the initial, focused, and axial coding. The researcher recursively progressed through the different coding phases until the point of saturation was reached at the point when no new data were emerging. Finally, the proportions of teachers who believed, supported or did not understand something were calculated in percentages, and the order of sub-themes were weighted from high to low percentages. The cut-off percentage was 40%, so any sub-themes with less than four out of ten teachers represented did not make it to the final sub-themes. The main themes and sub-themes are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. Main themes and sub-themes.

Main themes	Feedback	Self-regulation	Self-efficacy	Language skills
Sub-themes	Assessment for learning and past practices	Self-regulatory strategies	Self-efficacy and teacher expectations	Communicative ideal
	The role of marks	Neglect and immaturity	Feedback for self-efficacy	Oral skills and formative peer feedback
	Correcting errors	Feedback for self-regulation	Marks and unrealistic expectations	Written skills and formative teacher feedback
	Student involvement in feedback		Low expectations	Target language use challenges
	Challenges within the feedback dialogues			Textbook as a straitjacket

3. Results

The results for each of the four main themes (feedback, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills) are presented below.

3.1. Feedback

Table 2 provides a selection of extracts and examples from the feedback theme. The sub-themes are: ‘assessment for learning and past practices’, ‘the role of marks’, ‘correcting errors’, ‘student involvement in feedback’, and ‘challenges within the feedback dialogue’. The sub-themes point to a culture of assessment where teachers have an active notion about assessment for learning practices, but with a focus on correcting students’ errors and on form as it relates to the teachers’ focus on marks and exams. Although seven of the ten teachers reported that assessment for learning principles were important for their feedback practice, six

of the ten teachers mentioned the role of marks as an impediment to formative assessment practices. The focus on correcting errors as an important aspect for feedback and language skills was communicated by six of the ten teachers. Equitable feedback dialogues were considered particularly difficult, as six of the ten teachers found it challenging to invite in or encourage students to provide oral or written feedback back to them. Feedback dialogues were also a subtheme of struggle. Feedback dialogues and the feedback teachers provide in oral communication were found challenging by four of the ten teachers.

Table 2. The sub-themes of feedback (examples).

Assessment for learning and past practices	We try to provide feedback frequently because that is what we have been taught during the <i>Assessment for Learning</i> initiative. We have also been told not to give the students marks because it is not that motivating for students. So, I haven't done that yet. (Teacher 4)
	I feel that I've been wrong earlier. I've focused on everything at once. I've corrected everything. I think if I had received feedback comments like that myself, I'd be discouraged and would have just thrown my work away. (Teacher 2)
	I think I've crushed a lot of poor young teenagers by giving them a thousand things back. Devastated. 'Everything was wrong'. *Knocks on the table.* Oh, the things you've done wrong. (Teacher 6)
The role of marks	If it were up to me, I would have used the formative assessment much more, and I would have let the students write texts in another way. Different genres and focused more on different things, and the texts wouldn't have to be long. And they could have used radio programmes, films, and so on. But we're chased by marks in Year 10. [...] And some of the students don't look at anything other than the mark. They don't read our comments. This means that the marks, in fact, cast a shadow on students' self-efficacy. (Teacher 1)
Correcting errors	I have perhaps been a little bit caught up with students writing correctly. I think it's very important that the basic grammar is in place. It's important that students don't feel stupid when they start working. [...]. If you write an opinion piece, you shoot yourself in the foot if you have too many spelling errors and people lose respect for you. (Teacher 3)
	They have their own books where they write short texts about [topics including] 'What's your favourite meal?', 'What's the best film you've seen? Tell us about it'. Then I say, before they start, 'This time you're

going to write in the past tense, and I'm going to look at your verbs', for example. (Teacher 5)

Student involvement in feedback I could become much better at student involvement. That students can provide oral and written feedback to me, you know. It's something that I know students are probably missing. I haven't given them too many chances to do that. I have to be honest and say that I haven't. (Teacher 4)

We're not good at letting students provide feedback to us here, really, and we get so stressed during Year 10, and then we'd like them to have some involvement during autumn, in some matters. I mean, we do want them to have more involvement, but this year, there hasn't been a lot of it. (Teacher 1)

Challenges within the feedback dialogue The feedback that I provide in real-time classroom situations is difficult to carry out successfully. It is the most difficult task of all the tasks that I do. In terms of assessment for learning, I have to provide feedback that is both precise and motivates them to keep on working. When we're in a classroom situation and we have 25 students, and five have their hands raised simultaneously, it's difficult. I often feel that I don't succeed as well as I would have liked to. (Teacher 10)

The feedback I provide orally and in dialogues is much more spontaneous. I don't know if the feedback has that much of a forward dimension compared to the written feedback I provide. The comments pop up there and then, such as: 'Great', or that I use the old one: 'This work was good'. And not so well-prepared, maybe. *laughs* (Teacher 3)

3.2. *Self-regulation*

Table 3 displays the sub-themes of self-regulation. The sub-themes are: 'self-regulatory strategies', 'neglect and immaturity', and 'feedback for self-regulation'. Even though six of the ten teachers expressed that self-regulation was an important area to teaching EFL, four of the ten teachers emphasised that they did not intentionally work with student self-regulation or train self-regulatory strategies in teaching EFL. For these teachers the theme of self-regulation seemed to be a neglected area within each teacher's practice and perceived as a static entity rather than a dynamic regulatory mechanism which might be stimulated within EFL teaching. Many strategies were proposed, such as awareness of English learning at home, use of mind

maps, and the development of ownership to learning processes. Awareness of assessment criteria was mentioned as a self-regulatory strategy, although the issue of spoon-feeding was discussed. Metacognitive awareness through dialogue was also mentioned as a self-regulatory strategy. The ‘feedback for self-regulation’ sub-theme specifically connected feedback to self-regulation and was expressed by four of the ten teachers.

Table 3. The sub-themes of self-regulation (examples).

Self-regulatory strategies	<p>I try to make students aware of the assessment criteria and work with it, but students are being served too much on a silver platter as it is, these days. But that’s a different discussion. (Teacher 8)</p> <p>The students need to be trained in such strategies. I try to raise awareness by asking: ‘What do we do if we get stuck, students?’. I try to make them reflect in all subjects: ‘What do you do if you don’t know something? What can you do to find out?’ (Teacher 2)</p>
Neglect and immaturity	<p>I don’t work with self-regulation. I’m not making them aware of that, I think. It is a task I probably will get back to. But I could have worked in a completely different way. And I have sometimes. There are many reasons to why you don’t do certain things. When students struggle, it is important with a clear leader in the classroom. Because they simply do not have the capacity to take the responsibility they should. (Teacher 1)</p> <p>I would have really liked if students were self-regulated, you know, but there are so many subjects competing for their time. I can’t really say, ‘Now, we’re working on self-regulation’, either. We don’t. But then again, it’s spring of Year 10 and they are fully trained. Even before Christmas, we consider it like, ‘Now you’ve learnt what you should, and now it’s time to make sure you know how to prepare for a possible exam’. (Teacher 6)</p> <p>And you need to remember that they’re children. This is an age group where they’re children. You can’t treat them as adults, because they don’t have the self-regulation and self-efficacy that’s mature enough to take responsibility for themselves. (Teacher 3)</p>
Feedback for self-regulation	<p>Self-regulation is very important in terms of actually using the advice they receive from their teacher. That they’re capable of doing something with it. Giving feedback becomes very futile if students do not have the insight to actually act on it. But that’s something that comes with age. They’re very young still. When they get to Year 10, they’re more capable of doing it. (Teacher 7)</p>

Everything is interconnected. It is important for the students to have a sense of safety. So, when I give feedback and they follow up and regulate, it constantly strengthens interplay that occurs between the teacher and the student. (Teacher 9)

3.3. *Self-efficacy*

Table 4 presents the sub-themes of self-efficacy. The sub-themes are: ‘self-efficacy and teacher expectations’, ‘feedback for self-efficacy’, ‘marks and unrealistic expectations’, and ‘low expectations’. The distinction between student self-efficacy and teacher expectations when defining self-efficacy was made by eight of the ten teachers who also argued for the importance of both. Feedback was also discussed as important for fostering self-efficacy by seven of the ten teachers. However, self-efficacy as a matter of teachers’ expectations to students and the issue of unrealistic expectations when it came to marks and grades were discussed by six of the ten teachers, rather than a primary focus on the facilitation of student self-efficacy. Low expectations for the students were also sometimes communicated by five of the ten teachers.

Table 4. The sub-themes of self-efficacy (examples).

Self-efficacy and teacher expectations	<p>I think about both my students’ self-efficacy and my expectations to them. Because I have expectations about the self-efficacy of my students. Otherwise, I would not have entered the classroom. They should know that I have expectations of them and that I believe in them. Self-efficacy is key if you have established rapport with the students. (Teacher 6)</p> <p>The students always need to be aware of my expectations to them. If they in any way feel that they have reached the peak of what they can accomplish, they give up. So, it is crucial that I always push them further to learn more. That they understand and that I as a teacher also express that I am also continually learning. I can also always improve, so I think the relationships between teacher and student is important. (Teacher 9)</p>
Feedback for self-efficacy	<p>By giving feedback in a way that identifies strengths with the work, students will hopefully experience increased self-efficacy regardless of their language level. At least that is the goal. (Teacher 3)</p>

	<p>I think that self-assessment becomes a very important part of it [fostering students' self-efficacy in English]. That they see how far they have reached and learn to see what they have achieved. To find concrete examples of it when they speak or when they write, so you can say: 'Look here, you did it'. And build on that the next time. (Teacher 7)</p>
Marks and unrealistic expectations	<p>Self-efficacy is important. I think it's especially important to communicate, 'D is not a bad mark', 'C is not a bad mark'. Many of the students come from primary school thinking that they're going to get the highest marks. I remind them, 'This is a practice. This mark doesn't mean a thing. The most important final examination mark you'll get in Year 10'. (Teacher 5)</p> <p>It's so important that students have realistic expectations of themselves. I had a girl who became terribly disappointed at a mock exam, and she got a B. And she came up to me and said, 'Why didn't I get an A?' And then I had to regulate her self-efficacy and say, 'You have written a very good paper. You are very good, and you must understand that a B is a very good mark. But your vocabulary doesn't quite do it, but...' You know what I mean? So be realistic, but don't crush them and say, 'You are a D, and that's you. You have to accept that'. (Teacher 3)</p>
Low expectations	<p>I'm thinking low expectations of yourself isn't always so bad, either, because it might be right. We have students who have just arrived here a couple of years ago, and they haven't had any English teaching, so then we have to adjust their expectations to the extent that they match what they actually are capable of achieving. (Teacher 7)</p> <p>*Sighs* I would have liked to have equal expectations for everyone, but I do not expect as much from an E candidate compared to a B candidate. (Teacher 4)</p>

3.4. Language skills

Table 5 shows the sub-themes for language skills. The sub-themes are: 'communicative ideal', 'oral skills and formative peer feedback', 'written skills and formative teacher feedback', 'target language use challenges', and 'textbook as a straitjacket'. Communicative skills were found to be the ideal of teaching EFL by seven of the ten teachers when asked about the most important skill in teaching EFL. Two trends were identified when analysing teachers' beliefs about written and oral skills in teaching EFL. First, when discussing how the teachers fostered

students' oral skills in EFL, seven of the ten teachers mentioned formative peer feedback as a work method. This was sometimes referred to as a method that the teachers had started working with after the national *Assessment for Learning* initiative. Second, when asked about how they teach written skills, six of the ten teachers pointed at providing formative teacher feedback during the process of writing. Half of the teachers reported that they found target language (English) in the classroom as a challenge. The textbook and textbook series were perceived to be a straitjacket by four of the ten teachers in their work related to teaching language skills.

Table 5. The sub-themes of language skills (examples).

Communicative ideal	Communication is the most important skill. The capability to make yourself understood and to communicate orally and in writing is fundamental. Then everything else comes second. (Teacher 4)
Oral skills and formative peer feedback	<p>With assessment for learning we have had more focus on students speaking with their peers. Then we sum up afterwards in full class. Before you would only have two or three students answering each teacher question in full class, you know. (Teacher 6)</p> <p>I find working with peers to be a very useful method when working with speaking. And there are rules when they are seated together with their peer. They should respect what their peer says and does, as well as help and support each other. (Teacher 1)</p>
Written skills and formative teacher feedback	<p>All the writing we do, really, is process oriented. So, after the students started writing shorter texts, they have had more opportunities to repeat text structure and revise errors collectively. And they work together in pairs with their peer. (Teacher 10)</p> <p>Writing is what we have worked most on since we started working with assessment for learning. This means that students write a first draft, receive feedback, and then the final evaluation at the end. I still correct grammar errors, but not as many as I used to before. (Teacher 3)</p>
Target language use challenges	<p>I see that I often switch to Norwegian. I really want it to be in English, but the upcoming mock exam is too comprehensive, and I want everyone to understand, right? You have to talk Norwegian if you're going to reach out to everyone. (Teacher 4)</p> <p>I keep the dialogues mostly in English in the classroom. It's not always successful so we switch to Norwegian and then back to English. But it is a totally constructed situation, really, for a</p>

Norwegian student to sit in a Norwegian classroom with Norwegian peers and speak English. It's not logical at all. But we try to make it natural and as a daily-life activity as possible. (Teacher 2)

Textbook as a straitjacket How do we work with reading? Well, we work with a textbook. A textbook that I'm not very fond of. (Teacher 8)

We have tried to move away from the textbook material, because we feel that the texts are not good enough thematically and that they do not spark interest. But it's difficult to find authentic texts that relate to them and their lives. It's difficult. (Teacher 3)

4. Discussion

The objective of the present study was to explore teachers' beliefs about feedback practice as related to self-regulation, self-efficacy, and language skills while teaching EFL. The findings suggest that most of the teachers' beliefs about feedback practice were related to assessment for learning principles or experiences. However, half of the teachers found assessment for learning practices to be challenging considering the push for accountability with an emphasis on examinations, testing, and marking students. This finding is consistent with previous research indicating that teacher resistance and challenges arise when teachers experience assessment for learning as extra work for documentation purposes (Gamlem, 2015; Hopfenbeck et al., 2015). Such tendencies further suggest that the potential of feedback is spoilt due to lack of opportunities for student use (Gamlem & Smith, 2013; Van der Kleij, 2019). Increased pressure put on teachers to account for school improvement is linked to unintended negative consequences for teaching and learning (Klenowski & Wyatt-Smith, 2012). The findings of the present study indicate that assessment for accountability might prevent successful implementation of assessment for learning practices, in agreement with recent literature (Birenbaum et al., 2015; Cumming et al., 2019).

The emphasis on accountability and examination identified in the present study is consistent with EFL studies internationally. For example, EFL teachers in Hong Kong were constrained to adhere to conventional summative assessment practices due to assessment for learning implemented in an examination-driven system (Lee & Coniam, 2013). Testing regimes are further linked to top-down accountability and have been found to limit EFL teachers' autonomy and freedom to choose material (Bakken, 2019). *Assessment for Learning*, as a professional learning and developmental programme, was aimed to lead to changes in teachers' practices in Norway (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2011). The final report identified a general risk that assessment practices might be reduced to a set of rehearsed and mechanical procedures that do not promote learning and development (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2018). The present study suggests that a fundamental summative examination-driven accountability system seems to overshadow the full potential of assessment for learning for EFL teachers in lower-secondary school. This finding accords with literature that emphasises that there are two competing paradigms in Norway – one explicit paradigm of assessment for learning and one hidden paradigm of increasing testing regimes (Birenbaum et al., 2015). A hidden paradigm of testing might explain why research with EFL teachers in Norway seem to identify that teachers have a script but not the spirit of assessment for learning (Burner, 2015).

The teachers of the present study were also divided in terms of the extent to which they involve students in providing feedback to them. There seems to be a relation between challenges related to students providing feedback to teachers and feedback dialogues, and the teachers were divided in terms of experiencing challenges with feedback dialogues. A possible reason is that feedback dialogues are less effective when students are not invited to provide feedback to teachers. This finding is consistent with recent literature emphasising a need for extended opportunities for dialogic feedback where students are welcomed as co-constructive partners

(Ajjawi & Boud, 2017; Gamlem & Smith, 2013), as active engagement in feedback processes is a prerequisite in a dialogic model of feedback (Van der Kleij et al., 2019; Winstone et al., 2017). Challenges with feedback dialogues and student involvement also point to difficulties in engaging in responsive pedagogical practices in which teachers tap into students' internal feedback and invite students to equitable feedback dialogues, as previous research in EFL in lower-secondary school has identified (Vattøy & Smith, 2019).

The teachers in the current study were divided in emphasising the use and relevance of self-regulatory strategies. Two of the strategies that were discussed were awareness of assessment criteria and questions that elicit student metacognition. Awareness of assessment criteria has been found to be important for students' self-regulatory capacity in other studies (Balloo, Evans, Hughes, Zhu, & Winstone, 2018; Vattøy & Smith, 2019), but the results from the present study address a need to develop teacher knowledge about self-regulatory strategies across subject areas, as suggested by previous research (Barr & Askill-Williams, 2019). Despite research suggesting that students with more self-regulated learning strategies report higher levels of self-efficacy in EFL (Bai & Guo, 2018), half of the teachers included in the present study lacked a focus on self-regulated learning strategies within their teaching. This accords with research that has identified that EFL teachers find the articulation of strategies challenging (Brevik, 2014). A belief presented by half of the teachers in the present study was that students cannot take responsibility for their own learning, and that lower-secondary students are not old enough to self-regulate. These findings are in accordance with recent literature (Lawson et al., 2019). The teachers' belief about immaturity indicates that the ideal of self-regulation is a static and linear process, as opposed to a dynamic, interactive, and co-constructive process. In cases where self-regulation is neglected as an aspect of teachers' understanding and practice, learning is not facilitated in a manner that effectively promotes dialogue within the three phases of forethought, performance, and self-reflection (Panadero et

al., 2018; Zimmerman, 2002), which are central to the learning dialogues of responsive pedagogy (Smith et al., 2016). Further, perceived self-regulation has been identified as crucial to whether students perceive teachers' feedback practice as useful in teaching EFL (Vattøy & Smith, 2019). The belief that students are too immature for self-regulation has been identified in previous research, through the statement that self-regulation is only available to some students (Lawson et al., 2019).

Most of the teachers in the current study saw the relationship between teacher expectations and students' self-efficacy. Awareness of the relationship between feedback practice and students' self-efficacy is important as it indicates that most of the teachers perceived own feedback to either increase or decrease students' self-efficacy. This awareness could be critical for teachers' ability to strengthen students' beliefs in own abilities, consistent with literature on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1989, 1993). However, half of the teachers were more concerned with their students' knowledge of the teachers' expectations than they were with their work with student self-efficacy. For half of the teachers, marking was also connected to their feedback practice in a detrimental way for their formative assessment practice. Marking and examinations seem to have negative effects for how the teachers provide feedback to facilitate for student self-efficacy. This agrees with literature that has suggested that marking, and particularly anonymous marking, might undermine the learning potential of feedback as well as reducing the rapport between teachers and students (Pitt & Winstone, 2018). Furthermore, half of the teachers saw the relevance of low expectations to own abilities and achievements in EFL. These teachers argued that low expectations could counteract unrealistic expectations for students. When teachers work in teams, the entire assessment culture might become characterised by low expectations, threatening to cause negative Golem effects in the classroom (Babad et al., 1982). Although most of the interviewed teachers were aware of own feedback for student self-efficacy, there seems to be a further potential strengthening of

students' self-efficacy beliefs through mindful use of teacher feedback. Research has suggested that teacher expectations significantly impact students' achievement and self-efficacy in EFL learning (Rubie-Davies et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2018).

Teachers' beliefs about feedback were strongly connected to their beliefs about the teaching of language skills. Issues of assessment for learning were further connected to the teaching of written and oral skills. Consistent with the literature (Burner, 2015; Gamlem, 2015; Hill, 2011), this study also showed that secondary teachers respond in different ways to the assessment for learning emphasis. Process-oriented writing with less focus on correcting errors and peer work for the promotion of oral skills were important reported consequences of the teachers' involvement in the *Assessment for Learning* initiative. Even though most of the teachers had communicative ideals of the importance of teaching EFL, there were also some obstacles to the implemented practice. The teachers were divided in terms of their roles as models of target language use for their students, and half of them mentioned frequently translating messages from the target language to the first language to ensure students understood what was being said. Considering the large amount of target language (English) that Norwegian students are exposed to (Bakken & Lund, 2018; Vattøy & Smith, 2019), translation can be interpreted as communicating low expectations. This is consistent with previous research that has identified that EFL teachers communicate to students in Norwegian rather than the target language (e.g., Burner, 2015). The textbook as a straitjacket to teaching was also emphasised by half of the teachers, which might be a serious issue as Norway has a strong textbook tradition of teaching subjects (Bakken, 2019; Bakken & Lund, 2018).

5. Limitations

The aim of this study was to highlight the beliefs of ten individual teachers and the study does not represent the beliefs of the many lower-secondary EFL teachers in Norway. The

themes identified in this study should therefore be interpreted with caution, yet still as significant aspects for critical scrutiny for the betterment of student learning and wellbeing. Although six of the 16 invited EFL teachers at the two lower-secondary schools did not consent to participation, the ten interviewed teachers provided thick descriptions of their beliefs about own feedback practices. In terms of saturation, the ten interviewed EFL teachers contributed to an in-depth understanding of opportunities and challenges related to feedback practice at the two schools.

The cut-off percent at 40% regarding the sub-themes meant that it needed to represent at least four of the ten teachers. This was an important delimitation considering the many themes and sub-themes. However, all the data had been analysed recursively and systematically, and smaller but possibly significant themes were constantly considered as exceptions to the rule. Other beliefs that individual teachers made contributed to the global understanding of the findings and provided an important context for the themes. More longitudinal studies with a larger sample size are needed to track how teacher beliefs might change over time. Responsive pedagogy as a learning dialogue can be a locus where teachers support students' self-regulation and believe in students' abilities to master tasks (Gamlem et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2016).

6. Implications and further research

Despite the reported benefits of assessment for learning as reported by the lower-secondary EFL teachers in this study, traces of a summative assessment culture that relies heavily on marks and examinations were identified. The identification of a hidden testing paradigm that went alongside the implementation of assessment for learning provides an important backdrop (Birenbaum et al., 2015), and is important for understanding the EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in the present study. The EFL teachers in this study found themselves, like the EFL teachers in Hong Kong (Lee & Coniam, 2013), constrained during the

implementation of assessment for learning, although the teacher beliefs seem to have also had a positive effect on their practices. A heavy reliance on summative assessment practices can have a detrimental effect on students' self-efficacy and opportunities for self-regulated learning (Gamlem, 2015; Gamlem & Smith, 2013). In responsive pedagogy, teachers act as mediating agents who strengthen or weaken students' beliefs in their own abilities to achieve success (Gamlem et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2016; Vattøy & Smith, 2019). The lack of teacher knowledge related to how self-regulated learning can benefit student learning indicates a need for further knowledge building for teachers to improve their practices, which has been suggested by recent literature (Barr & Askell-Williams, 2019). Strategy training for the benefits of increased teacher knowledge can support teachers' own learning processes in terms of facilitating environments that benefit self-regulated learning. Teachers also need training in how explicit assessment criteria can allow students to self-assess as part of self-regulation (Balloo et al., 2018). A focus on intelligent accountability with trust-based professionalism can be adopted to build a culture of trust and value teachers' feedback practices in judging and reporting what is best for their students' learning (Sahlberg, 2007).

Feedback is a powerful tool that can both promote and hinder students' learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Shute, 2008). The current study has provided empirical evidence to show how EFL teachers' beliefs inform their perceived feedback practices, their perceptions of students' self-regulation, self-efficacy, and teaching of language skills in EFL. A propensity to problematise one's own practice is a prerequisite for changing teachers' beliefs and practices (Gamlem, 2015), which can further lead to improved practices. The teachers who participated in the current study indicated several ideals for how a good formative assessment practice might look but some of the teachers struggled to come to terms with how to successfully implement these ideals. Consequently, the fundamental setting for students' learning appears to be an assessment culture, where exam preparation begins on the

first day of lower-secondary education. However, this study suggests that formative assessment practices need time to develop over time and trusting teachers' professionalism seems to be key in an upward trajectory.

Further studies are needed to examine the complex relationship between teachers' and students' belief systems, as well as how responsive pedagogy and teachers' feedback practice are related to other important aspects of student learning. More research-based knowledge is needed to identify factors to create lasting conditions for formative assessment practices, and how teachers can better activate their students' internal feedback processes in feedback dialogues.

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Appendix A. Responsive Pedagogy Interview Guide (RPIG, EFL version)

Language skills

1. What do you think are important skills in English?
2. How do you work with the following skills in English?
 - a) Reading
 - b) Writing
 - c) Listening
 - d) Speaking
3. In what types of situations do you and your students communicate in English in the EFL teaching?
4. How do you work with fostering students' communicative competence in oral and written English?

Feedback

5. What is your understanding of the term, 'feedback'?
6. What do you think of the importance of providing feedback in English?
7. What characterises the oral feedback you provide in English?
8. What characterises the written feedback you provide in English?
9. How do you follow up on the feedback you have provided in English?

10. How do you familiarise your students with the relevant learning goals when providing feedback in English?
11. What types of feedback do students seek from their English teachers?
12. What steps do you take to encourage students to provide you with oral and written feedback to adjust your teaching methods?

Self-regulation

13. What is your understanding of the term, 'self-regulation'?
14. What do you think of the importance of self-regulation in the teaching of English?
15. How do you work with self-regulation in English?
16. What kinds of self-regulation strategies do you deem important for students to acquire English skills on their own?
17. How do you train students in such strategies?

Self-efficacy

18. What is your understanding of the term, 'self-efficacy'?
19. What do you think of the importance of self-efficacy in the teaching of English?
20. How do you work to promote students' self-efficacy in English?
21. Do you have different expectations for each student?
22. How do you support students emotionally and academically in English?

Synthesis

23. How do you see the topics we have discussed (language skills, feedback, self-regulation, and self-efficacy) playing a role in your work to enhance students' learning of EFL?

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