

Feedback as a Tool for Writing Progression

Researching upper secondary EFL students' writing progress and perceptions of written feedback in a social cognitive perspective

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Title: Feedback as a Tool for Writing Progression - Researching upper secondary EFL students' writing progress and perceptions of written feedback in a social cognitive perspective

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Abstract: This study takes its stance in the social cognitive theory investigating the writing progression made by students at upper secondary level in a nine week study. It comprises two groups, one experimental group given an introduction distinguishing the implicit theories (mindsets) we tend to hold, and one control group. The groups were treated in the same manner throughout the study except for the introduction to mindsets in the experimental group. Three research questions have been used asking (i) whether an introduction to the theory of mindsets will affect the students' self-efficacy; (ii) how the written feedback affects the students' writing processes and progress in developing content and form; and (iii) how the written feedback students' receive is perceived. The results show that (1) the introduction to mindsets affected the experimental group's self-perceptions in a positive manner and initially improved their writing; the control group showed no progression in self-perceptions and showed a slight upsurge in erratic formulations of their writing. (2) The experimental group improved their results greatly with the help of written teacher feedback, but showed no progress with the help of peer response; no significant improvement was found in the control group, instead they showed a slight increase of erratic formulations. (3) That the students tend to understand the feedback they receive but are hesitant about the meaning of some feedback given in codes, there was no particular distinction between the two groups in this aspect.

Key words: Implicit theories, mindsets, social cognitive theory, students' perceptions, writing, feedback, formative assessment, self-efficacy, self-regulation.

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1 Introduction

1.1 Introductory

When holding the perspective, as does the present study, that learning a new language entails learning a new culture and way of experiencing the world, then learning a new language is unsurprisingly perceived as an arduous task. To become proficient and fluent in a second or foreign language, students need to be open-minded to embrace the grammar, collocational preferences and other mechanical aspects behind and throughout the target language; even though these aspects cannot be facilitated by, and cross-referenced with, their first language. A vital component of learning a new language is learning to communicate in writing (cf. Bruning & Horn, 2000), an important skill regardless of the future plans the individual student might hold. One of the most useful aids in becoming a more proficient communicator in writing is the feedback a more skilled language user provides. The relationship between the learner and the teacher provides for that aid as the teacher typically is the more skilled language user able to support the learner with feedback, that is to say, information on where the student is in relation to the his or her goals, information on where to go next, as well as information on how to proceed (cf. Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Irons, 2007; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009). This study emphasises the importance of providing feedback nurturing student independency as well as proficiency in writing. Studies focusing on error types and teacher perspectives in formative assessment research lack the perspective of students being able to make use of the feedback they receive. What is needed from teachers in order for students at upper secondary level to become independent in their learning? Unfortunately, it seems that the EFL learning environments in Swedish schools are not near the students' out-of-school English usage enough (off the record conversation with student). Rather it seems that students are herded from one task to another replicating the previous, relying on teacher comments and other responses to be able to rethink and re-evaluate their work, a process far from the reality outside the walls of the classroom. One of the aspects which should be accounted for in every day teaching is the individual differences in students' perceptions of their own intelligence and ability. Bandura (1986) presents the concept of self-regulation and self-efficacy (see subsections 2.2 and 3.4), two concepts adapted by Dweck (1999; 2008) and presented as mindsets, a pragmatic adaptation focusing on intelligence, the views people adopt for themselves, i.e. mindsets, and the effect these mindsets might have on students' failures or achievements in academic contexts (see subsection 2.3).

Much research has been presented on the theoretical aspects of learning and writing in a social cognitive theory context (cf. Bandura, 1986; 1996; Schunk, 2003; 2008). Within this area, self-regulated learners are desired as they themselves regulate their learning processes towards the goal; in the same sense, learners with a strong sense of self-efficacy are desired for their confidence in their ability and their persistence overcoming obstacles towards their goals. These areas are at the core interest of the present study as well, no doubt. However, in previous research too much focus has been placed on theorizing, on corrective feedback and on feedback in the teacher perspective. This study aims to explore the students' progress in writing, lifting such aspects as attitude towards the feedback they receive but also the basic element of the ability students have to make use of the feedback they receive.

1.2 Organisation of the Study

In this, the first section, the reader is introduced to the most important concepts of the study presenting some of the most influential definitions offered by previous research and defining the concept as it is understood by the author of this study. The section is then concluded with the presentation of the study's aim and scope. Following, section two will explain the theoretical stance adopted by the author, that is, the perspective from which the results are understood and analysed. A thorough description of social cognitive theory as well as the author's epistemological beliefs can therefore be found in the subsequent section. Section three will present the previous research related to the central concepts of this study. The reader can thereby find summaries of research on formative assessment, feedback, the writing skill and writing self-efficacy in section three. Section four focuses on the methodology of the study explaining the choice of the questionnaire as method, a discussion of the interviews that were performed, the analyses of the essays, as well as the results found by the analyses of the essays, and the questionnaires, which are subsequently discussed in section 6. The complete study is then summarised in section 7.

1.3 Aim and Scope

As the author has taken a special interest in (written) feedback on students' written production, three research questions have been formulated aiming to investigate the students' perceptions of said feedback, the effect it might have on the written productions and, if any, the effect an introductory presentation on mindsets could have on the students writing progression.

- Can an introduction to the theory of mindsets affect the students' self-efficacy?
- How does the written feedback affect the students' writing processes and progress in developing content and form?
- How is the written feedback students' receive perceived?

Due to the restricted length of the present study some delimitation is in order. The study is limited to two classes learning English as a foreign language over a period of nine weeks; it can therefore only suggest how students tend to perceive feedback, how the feedback tends to affect the student writing process/progress, and how much an introductory presentation of mindsets might affect the student writing self-efficacy. Although implicit theories and self-efficacy, both highly relevant in the present study, belong to the research area of individual differences (ID), IDs as concept will not be explored to the extent it could be. There is plenty of research in the area which could engage the rest of this thesis, this was however, a delimitation made in favour of other important concepts.

2 Theoretical Stance

2.1 Ontological and Epistemological understandings

The present study understands the human as made, not born. The human and her very being are rather understood as a two-way causation of cognitive processes and social and historical influences. She is an artefact influenced by the time and cultural context she lives in, as explained by Bandura (2001) "by choosing and shaping their environments, people can have a hand in what they become" (pp. 10-11). The study further holds the perspective that what is reckoned as real varies over time and cultural context; furthermore, holding the perspective that the human is co-independent with her reality, thus reality is understood as subjective, entailing that reality itself is constructed by the individual child, man and woman; thus social contexts too are constructions, as noted by Packer and Goicoechea (2000):

Any social context – a classroom for example – is itself the product of human language and social practice, not fixed but dynamic, changing over time, in what we call history.

(p. 232).

However, we are not pure products of our environment and context, our cognitive preposition have a strong guiding function too:

Personal biases influence what is attended to and how the events given salience are constructed, as revealed in experiments demonstrating that believing is seeing. The extracted information is further altered as it is transformed and organized for memory representation. People operate as partial authors not only of their past experiences but of their memory of them as well.

(Bandura, 1996, p.326).

Packer and Goicoechea (Ibid.) mediate "[t]he self is not a purely cognitive construction, let alone the transparent source of action and cognition; it is formed in desire, conflict, and opposition, in a struggle for recognition." (p. 233). Although Packer and Goicoechea's main aim in their article is to find reconciliation between the sociocultural theory and the constructivist theory, strong implications of relationship can be found between the text and Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) wherein Bandura's concept of 'inner standards' (Bandura, 1991) is explained and onto which the individual person measures, evaluates and alters his or her behaviour (see subsection 2.3 for more details). Bandura, in concordance with Packer and Goicoechea, emphasizes the agentic perspective on human interaction where a person is characterised as being both a product as well as a producer of his or her society and its social structures (Bandura, 2006a).

[P]eople are not just onlooking hosts of internal mechanisms orchestrated by environmental events. They are agents of experiences rather than simply undergoers of experiences. The sensory, motor, and cerebral systems are tools people use to accomplish the tasks and goals that give meaning, direction, and satisfaction to their lives"

(Bandura, 2001, p. 4)

Thereby, learning, i.e. the internalization of information into new knowledge, is understood as constructed by the mind on the same terms as individual behaviour. It is paralleled in the sense that learning will influence and construct the individual person's ways of understanding the world and his or her own behaviour while simultaneously being constructed (i.e. a two-way causation is involved). In concordance with Packer and Goicoechea (2000) this study proposes that "learning entails both personal and social transformation" (p. 228). When learning concerns a new language this transformation is even more relevant as learning a new language entails not only learning new words, but new social and cultural structures, and ways of interpreting events and reality. This perspective on understanding reality and learning

is strongly connected to the research on individual differences (ID; see for instance Dörnyei, 2005; Sheen, 2011; Roberts & Meyer, 2012). IDs are thus acknowledged as always being accounted for in studies on student attitudes and school related issues. However, due to the restricted length of the present study they will not be elaborately accounted for. Instead, the student groups are given a few individual voices through interviewing, and IDs are recognized, although on a smaller scale since the groups are treated on group level.

2.2 Social Cognitive Theory

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) sees human behaviour as constructor and product of a triadic reciprocal model between personal cognitive traits (P), overt personal behaviour (B), and external factors (E), i.e. the environmental influences.

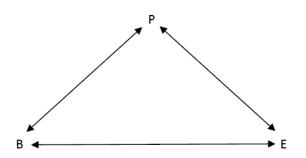


Figure 1 The Triadic Reciprocal Determinism Model (Bandura, 1986, p. 24)

The above figure represents a fundamental underpinning of the SCT. This model explains human functioning, i.e. behaviour, as reciprocally and interdependently constructed from personal, cognitive, traits (P) partly determining "which external factors will be observed, how they will be perceived [...] and how the information they convey will be organized for future use" (Bandura, 1978, p. 345); overt personal behaviour (B) reciprocally interactive with cognitive and environmental influences; and external environmental factors (E). The effects of these three sets of factors are relational and varying in distinction from person to person and different circumstances (Ibid.). Bandura (2001) expands the common perspective on environment while emphasizing the human agency in functioning:

The environment is not a monolithic entity. Social cognitive theory distinguishes between three types of environmental structures [...] They include the imposed environment, selected environment, and constructed environment. These different environmental structures represent gradations of changeability requiring the exercise of differing scope and focus of personal agency.

Human functioning, thus, is a complex construction of several reciprocal inter-correlated determinants on various levels. The most prominent feature of the SCT, in relation to learning, is self-efficacy which is constructed by information gathered from e.g. vicarious experiencing and social modelling (cf. Bandura, 1986; 1996; 2001; Schunk, 2003; Pajares, 2003), self-efficacy is further discussed in subsection 3.4. Another crucial aspect of learning is the students' self-regulation process, i.e. "the process of influencing the external environment by engaging in the functions of self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction" (Schunk, 2008, p. 465; cf. Bandura, 1986). Schunk (2008), referring to Zimmerman (1986), presents self-regulated learning as "the process whereby students activate and sustain cognitions and behaviors systematically oriented towards the attainment of their learning goals" (p. 465). The structure of the self-regulatory system is constructed of three sub functions, further summarized in figure 2 (from Bandura, 1986; further elaborated in Bandura 1991).

SELF-OBSERVATION

JUDGMENTAL PROCESS

SELF-REACTION

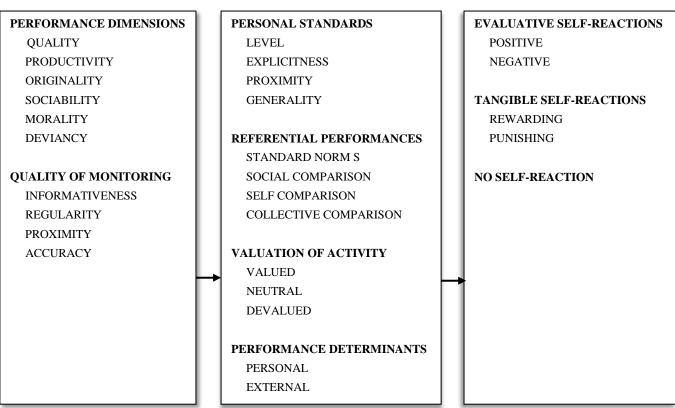


Figure 2 The Structure of Self-Regulation of Motivation and Action

According to Bandura (1991), self-regulation, lying at the very heart of causal processes, "operates through a set of psychological subfunctions that must be developed and mobilized for self-directed change" (p. 249). Self-regulation, thus, is an important aspect of the learningfor-life process, where a self-regulating student is desired. Self-regulation is a process of "deliberate planning, monitoring, and regulating of cognitive, behavioral, and affective or motivational processes towards completion of an academic task." (Hadwin, 2008, p. 3). It can be enhanced working attentively with its sub processes e.g. with modelling (cf. Schunk & Zimmermann, 2007), in order to do so we first need to understand how these sub processes function. The first step as described in figure 2 is self-observation (also referred to as selfmonitoring). Self-observation provides at least two important functions of self-regulation the self-diagnostic function and the self-motivating function which further helps altering the student's subsequent behaviour concerning the production of personal goals and selfevaluative reactions (Bandura, 1991). As mentioned by Bandura (1986), the self-monitoring acts are not simply audits of one's performances; the acts are dependent of e.g. fidelity and consistency to selectively attend to certain aspects that are important, and to discern those that are not.

Preexisting self-conceptions exert selective influence on which aspects of one's ongoing behavior are given the most attention, how they are perceived, and how performance information is organized for memory representation.

(p. 336)

Even mood is given an important role in affecting the self-observation act as a residing discontentment leads to reviewing events and experiences negatively, while a positive mood tends to interpret events and experiences favourably. Self-observation as represented in figure 2, is divided into two subsections representing the observation of the performance - its quality, its originality, and its productiveness; its sociability, its morality, and its deviancy to the prevailing norms. Self-observations are also influenced by the quality of monitoring regarding e.g. the level of information it carries, the regularity in which it is provided, the temporal proximity to the change-worthy behaviour, and naturally the accuracy of the observation.

The second step in acting upon these self-observations is played out in the judgmental subfunction. Within this judgmental process the personal standards play a crucial role, they are explained as inner templates onto which the individual measures and evaluates his or her own

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behaviour (Ibid.). They are constructed under three main influences – the perceived reactions of significant persons on the student's behaviour, the effect of the individual's evaluation of the social sanctions of the self and others, as well as being subjected to tuition (Bandura, 1991). Personal/inner standards are understood as invaluable, not only in constructing one's knowledge in various subjects, but for forming one's behaviour. They are influenced by inner standards which can be acquired through e.g. modelling significant persons. This modelling helps set the level and explicitness of the standard, and further the proximity and generability of the same. External standards, or referential performances as noted in figure 2, are constituted of standard norms (e.g. norms of society or a certain social constellation), social comparisons (comparing yourself and your ability to others, e.g. your peers in class), self-comparisons (comparing your behaviour and performance to previous deeds and actions), and collective comparisons (comparing yourself to the collective group and your contribution to the group accomplishment). In 2001 Bandura expanded his perspective on the relationship between the inner standards and self-reactions within the self-regulatory system:

By making self-evaluation conditional on matching personal standards, people give direction to their pursuits and create self-incentives to sustain their efforts for goal attainment. They do things that give them self-satisfaction and a sense of pride and self-worth, and refrain from behaving in ways that give rise to self-dissatisfaction, self-devaluation, and self-censure.

(p. 8).

As noted, the judgmental process is ensued by the self-reaction act, which is either positive or negative and can result in rewards or punishments (or in fact, no self-reaction at all). Self-reactions, also known as self-incentives, that are acted upon can also be either positive or negative and may e.g. consist of recreational activities after attainments; a preferable reaction as people who reward themselves after attainments tend to accomplish more than those who do not (Bandura, 1991).

These three processes of self-observation, the judgmental process, and self-reaction combine into self-regulation and self-influence. Students with a strong sense of self-regulation tend to be more independent in their learning, showing a more developed sense of motivation and impetus for learning. Promoting a progression in self-regulation should thus lie in the centre of a teacher's interest.

2.3 Implicit Theories

Bandura's (1986; 1991) concept of self-efficacy is closely related to the Implicit theories as presented by Dweck (e.g. 1999; 2008), which are also known as the concept of mindsets, entailing entity and incremental theory. Dweck's interest has, however, been focused to researching intelligence and perceived intellectual aptitude, an area of research which most certainly should be consulted and connected to SLA researching. According to Dweck, people could be divided into two categories, i.e. they either hold an incremental theory or an entity theory about their intelligence. Table 1 describes personal characteristics of entity and incremental theorists.

	Personal traits and intelligence	Motivation	Focus	Facing set backs	Reaction to setbacks
Entity	are seen as fixed,	external, driven by	ability and	setbacks are seen	negative emotions, lowering
	i.e. products of	focus on proving	effortless success,	as failures possibly	of expectations, avoiding
	genetic	competence	talent	threatening the	challenges, persistence is
	representation/			sense of identity	lowered
	innate ability				
Incremental	are seen as	internal, driven by	effort and	setbacks are seen	increasing effort and
	concepts subjected	focus on effort and	perserverance,	as challenges to	embracing the challenge as
	to change and	performance	success is built	learn and grow	improvement and success is
	growth by practice	-			believed to stem from
	despite genetic				persistence
	representation				

Table 1 Entity and Incremental Theory Characteristics

The entity and incremental theory are non-exclusive ends of a continuum where a certain perception can be hold as true in a particular area of life and the converse perception in another. People may hold a perception tending towards the incremental or entity theory but not quite fulfil the requirements to fully appertain to the one over the other. As can be understood from table 1, students holding an entity theory are less likely to succeed when facing challenges since success is seen as a product of innate ability, a personal property out of their control (El-Alayli & Baumgardner, 2003; Dweck, 1999). The focus lies on the talent one is believed to have for e.g. writing, rather than the time and effort that are put into it. The student is thus less likely to persevere in the face of a challenge, which is more likely to lead to a state of helplessness tinged with negative emotions, an avoidance of further challenges and effort put into future tasks. El-Alayli and Baumgardner concur, "Viewing personality as fixed drives individuals to try to demonstrate their competence, which generally results in feelings of helplessness when they are not able to do so" (2003, p. 120). Entity and incremental theories tend to lead to the pursuit of different goals (Ibid.), thusly having effect

on future task efforts. Incremental theorists, unlike entity theorists, believe that personal traits such as intelligence can change; challenges are thus embraced as opportunities of growth.

Failure is not as threatening for incremental theorists, who, unlike entity theorists, are more likely to make effort rather than ability attributions for their poor performances [...] Setbacks can actually enhance incremental theorists' motivation toward mastery because they believe that improvement and success stem from hard work.

(El-Alayli & Baumgardner, 2003, p. 120)

Dweck (1999) recognizing a mastery orientation after failure, found it to be characterized by positive emotions, strengthened self-instructions for improvement, and continued or enhanced effort. As mentioned previously, entity and incremental theories tend to lead to different goals. Entity theorists have a tendency to comply with performance goals oriented towards looking smart in comparison to their peers, whereas incremental theorists seem more likely to comply with learning goals and the increment of competence. The teacher can thus, indeed, affect his or her students and the theory to which they appertain by creating an environment favouring learning goals. This could be achieved by e.g. supplying process and learning goal feedback aiming to feed forward, and by emphasizing and valuing effort, learning, improvement and challenge. Again, citing El-Alayli and Baumgardner (2003)

If members of the group are encouraged to improve their analytical skills, are told that working hard will lead to such improvements, and are told that their scores or ability level would not be assessed, then the climate would be predominantly learning-oriented.

(p. 121)

Although an implicit theory seems brought by the student from e.g. previous experiences and from predominating theories in the home environment, it can be subject to change. This fact is however discouraged by the fact that most school environments, mirroring the predominating perspective on intelligence in society, seem to favour the entity theory (Dweck, 2008). This inauspicious perspective can be witnessed in concepts and ideas of intelligence and aptitude as innate. Consider e.g. the idiom "an ear for language" or the idea of a prodigy, then reflect over whether talent is assessed higher than effort or not. Dweck (2008) presents a vivid description of the common perception adopted on talent and geniality in people's perceptions of Thomas Edison and the invention of the light bulb. Dweck (2008), delivering a play of thought in her research asking people to imagine Edison and his invention, asked where he is, what he is doing and if he is alone. Contrary to what was replied Edison was not a lone genius

birthing one of our time's most important inventions, he was in fact operating with numerous assistants who worked around the clock in a state of the art laboratory (Ibid.). Although far from the subject at hand, the image presented mirrors the common perception on intelligence and the favouring of entity theory over incremental theory.

Out in the field, performing implicit theory manipulation in the upper secondary school environment, the students were introduced to a simplified form of the implicit theories. Entity theorists were thusly presented as people with a fixed mindset, whereas incremental theorists were presented as people with a growth mindset. Both concepts adopted from Dweck's research (cf. 1999; 2008) reflecting the basic attitude people might hold towards their intelligence and ability in academic purposes.

3 Previous Research

3.1 Formative Assessment

This section will touch upon the highly researched area of formative assessment aiming to discern the dissimilarities that formative assessment carries towards summative assessment. There is a discussion on what constitutes formative assessment what subsequently sets it apart from summative assessment, see e.g. Taras (2005) who, referring to Scriven (1967), claims formative assessment to be an umbrella term encompassing summative assessment plus feedback. Harlen and James (1997) on the other hand, explain formative assessment as "essentially feedback, both to the teacher and to the pupil about present understanding and skill development in order to determine the way forward" (Ibid., p. 369), an adaptation of their description is presented in table 2.

Formative Assessment	Summative Assessment
is essentially positive in intent, in that it is	takes place at certain intervals when achievement
directed towards promoting learning; it is	has to be reported and relates to progression in
therefore part of teaching	learning against public criteria
takes into account the progress of each	
individual, the effort put in and other aspects of	the results for different pupils may be combined
learning which may be unspecified in the	for various purposes because they are based on
curriculum; in other words, it is not purely	the same criteria
criterion-referenced	
has to take into account several instances in	
which certain skills and ideas are used and	
there will be inconsistencies as well as patterns	should be based on ouidence from the full renge of
in behaviour; such	should be based on evidence from the full range of
inconsistencies would be 'error' in summative	performance relevant to the criteria being used
evaluation, but in formative evaluation they	
provide diagnostic information	
	its purpose is to describe learning achieved at a
is owned by the learner in the sense that it	certain time for the purposes of reporting to
becomes a fundamental part of the way he or she	parents, other teachers, the pupils themselves
understands the world	and, in summary form, to other interested parties
	such as school governors or school boards
validity and usefulness are paramount in	requires methods which are as reliable as possible
formative assessment and should take	without endangering validity
precedence over concerns for reliability	
even more than assessment for other purposes,	
formative assessment requires that pupils have	pupils are possibly not the central audience for
a central part in it; pupils have to be active in	summative assessment other than at the end of a
their own learning (teachers cannot learn for	course
them) and unless they come to understand their	
strengths and weaknesses, and how they might	
deal with them, they will not make progress	

Table 2 Formative and Summative Assessment a Comparison

(Harlen & James, 1997, pp. 372-373)

Differences can thus be found in the intent and focus of the assessment forms giving the pupils and students a central role in formative assessment. Whereas summative assessment tends to be focused on reporting, either to a third party or as a finalized account on ability to the student him- or herself. Formative assessment thus seems the most appropriate for providing opportunities for pupils and students to work towards their goals. The present study understands formative assessment, in concordance with Irons (2007), as "any task or activity which creates feedback (or feedforward) for students about their learning" (p. 7). It thereby

recognizes formative assessment and feedback as interrelated in providing conditions for the learning process.

3.2 Feedback

Feedback has been defined at multiple occasions (cf. Schunk, 1983; Schunk & Swartz, 1993; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Ferris et al., 1997; Shute, 2008; Ellis, 2009; Van Beuningen, 2010; Sheen, 2011). One of the earliest definitions originates from Ramaprasad (1983) explaining feedback as "information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way" (p. 4). Hattie and Timperley (2007) offer an additional definition:

[F]eedback is conceptualized as information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. A teacher or parent can provide corrective information, a peer can provide an alternative strategy, a book can provide information to clarify ideas, a parent can provide encouragement, and a learner can look up the answer to evaluate the correctness of a response. Feedback thus is a "consequence" of performance.

(p. 81)

Hattie and Timperley (Ibid.) thus explain feedback as including directions for revision, what alternative strategies to use, encouragement, and clarification. Research has presented further tapered definitions, offered from a theoretical as well as pragmatic perspective, one of these is *formative* feedback defined as "information communicated to the learner that is intended to modify his or her thinking or behavior for the purpose of improving learning" (Shute, 2008, p. 154). The various definitions have since been adopted into the field of second language acquisition (SLA) research (with a main focal point on the education of Anglophone languages – English as a second language (ESL), or as in the Swedish context: English as foreign language (EFL)) (e.g. Van Beuningen, 2010). The focus on feedback has further been demarcated into written corrective feedback (WCF) and discussed in terms of the positive or negative effect it might pose on students' progression in written compositions, and what type of WCF is the most effective (cf. Truscott, 1996; Ferris, 1999; 2004; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Ferris et al., 2013). A short summary of written corrective feedback types, drawn from Ellis (2009), is presented in table 3, where it is co-introduced with the constructive feedback types, drawn from Dweck (2008).

Corrective		Constructive	
focused	unfocused	focused	unfocused
intensive correction	extensive error	intensive	extensive
focusing on a previously decided set of error	correction		
types			
direct cf	providing the correct form	aptitude	
indirect cf i. located	underlining and otherwise indicating w/o giving the correct form	i. appraisal	function varying but tending towards mitigation, commenting a state e.g. "You're good at this" also assuming sucess to be due to personal atrributes
ii. Indicated	indication in the margin that an error has occurred	ii. non-appraisal	function unknown, commenting a
meta-linguistic cf		performance	
i. error coded	e.g. 'sp' for spelling, 'wo' for word order, etc.	i. appraisal	function tending towards strengthening progress with praise esteem comes from striving and using effective strategies.
ii. brief description	brief description at the bottom or on a separate paper coordinated with the <i>numbered</i> error	ii. non-appraisal	neutral, task-oriented. E.g. "All, the labels are correct" and " There are hardly any spelling mistakes this time"
reformulation	reworking the text to make the language as native like as possible (w/o altering the content to any great extent)		
			(Ellis 2009: Dweck 200

(Ellis, 2009; Dweck, 2008)

Two strands of research on feedback have taken form – that of corrective feedback (CF, sometimes further defined as WCF) and that of 'constructive' feedback (CoF); thereby not implying that feedback is exclusively one or the other, they are complements of each other. A difference in the research focus is however acknowledged. Constructive feedback too has its strengths and weaknesses, despite the shift of focus from errors to ability. Although teachers might give aptitude feedback to students out of the kindness of their hearts and from their best knowledge, it has the power to teach students to interpret setbacks and difficulties as personal weaknesses (cf. Dweck, 2008). Feedback which is performance or effort orientated, on the other hand, has the power to teach students to interpret difficulties as lack of effort, or as inappropriate strategies, while still allowing for every student to earn praise. The present study acknowledges that labelling someone as talented or born with an aptitude for something by giving praise for their aptitude, might easily entail the reinforcement of a fixed mindset. People with a fixed mindset tend to ascribe their merits to genetic heredity and favour talent over effort (Ibid.), which are characteristics not desirable in a learning environment (for further details, see subsection 2.3).

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Feedback seems perceived as complicated but positive on student progress by the main part of researchers irrespective to the theoretical perspective the researchers have taken, e.g. in sociocultural theory feedback is seen as information which "offers the assistance of an expert, guiding the learner through the zone of proximal development" (Hyland & Hyland, 2001, p. 207), while in social cognitive theory feedback is seen as a tool to help students construct positive self-efficacy beliefs which then lead to an improved sense of self-regulatory learning process (Schunk, 1983; Schunk & Swartz, 1993; Raoofi et al., 2012; Ruegg, 2014).

Indeed, SLA research on feedback has historically tended towards favouring feedback and describing it as positive, in one form or another. However, more recent research has begun airing opinions questioning the effect of WCF (Truscott, 1996; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Ruegg, 2014). Where researchers historically sought the most effective type of feedback, Ruegg (2014), referring to Truscott's (1996) thoughts on the negative aspects of WCF, brings up the complexity and uncertainty of the feedback process in relation to student confidence which is highly related to student writing progression - and thereby the potential effect of stifling efforts made to increase writing ability (Ibid., p. 3). Other researchers, including Ferris (1999; 2004; together with Bitchener, 2012), who stood on the barricades of feedback defending the same in the often referred-to feedback debate (cf. Truscott, 1996; Ferris, 1999; Truscott; 1999; Ferris, 2004), have found teacher feedback to affect student confidence negatively if given too often or to too great an extent (see also Cleary, 1990; Andrade & Evans, 2013). Pajares (2003) further discusses the decrease in writing ability confidence among students in middle school and suggests that the students' confidence in their writing skills do not seem to be nurtured (enough) during their progression in their education. Pajares (Ibid.), echoing Whigfield, Eccles, MacIver, Reuman and Midgley (1991) as well as Pajares, Hartley and Valiante (2001), reports that students are found more confident in their writing ability in the first year of middle school than students in grade 7 and 8, although the latter are logically more skilled writers than their younger peers.

The source of feedback has also been discussed, and then so in terms of which source truly is *able* to give feedback. Hattie and Timperley on the one hand suggest that feedback can be given from teachers, peers, parents, or even literature, as feedback is defined as "a consequence of performance" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 81) and as such composing information functioning as a response to student action; while Harlen and James (1997) express that formative assessment (ergo feedback) "has to be carried out by the teacher"

because giving feedback is "always made in relation to where pupils are in their learning in terms of specific content or skills" (Harlen & James, 1997, p.370).

Regarding these ideas and thoughts on CoF/WCF, and for the purpose of this study, feedback is defined as (written) information produced to guide the learner in the purpose of reaching the goal as well as constructing and strengthening the student's sense of self-efficacy to produce independent learners (writers), supporting the claim from Black and William (2003) that "good feedback causes thinking" (p. 631).

3.3 The Writing Skill

When learning and mastering a new language the four skills – *listening*, *reading*, *speaking* and writing are often referred to. Each skill has its own set of difficulties in teaching and learning and each is important to master in order to become a proficient user of another language. If comparing their complexities, writing does seem to come out on top as the most complex skill as the writer cannot rely on turn-taking, facial expressions or body language, nor can he or she rely on pictures or textual aids presented by a finished piece of literature. Comparing the production of writing with the production of conversation provides further evidence for the complexity of writing as the aids given to a producer of speech, such as "contextual scaffolding for speech production and understanding" (Bruning et al., 2013, p. 27) simply are not given to the writer. On the contrary, the writer is left displaced from his or her reader leaving him or her to their own device in writing for an unseen audience (Bruning et al., 2013). Secondly, writing development is a slow process requiring an array of sub-skills where e.g. the novice writer is typically focused on choosing words and spelling them correctly in constructing sentences and paragraphs. This requires a conscious process with full attention (Ibid.) an activity which seemingly does not cater for the relaxed confidence sought in a writer with high self-efficacy beliefs:

Learning to write is an extraordinarily complex linguistic and cognitive task requiring close attention to the conditions for developing motivation and skill. Because it is typically further removed from experience, writing often lacks the accompanying web of context that supports oral discourse. The challenge for the writer is to recreate the experience—in other words, recontextualize it—without the immediacy of oral discourse.

(Bruning & Horn, 2000, pp. 26-27).

The challenge for teachers in EFL education lies in guiding students towards realizing the benefits of writing outweighing the considerable effort needed to be put forward in producing

a successful piece of writing (Bruning & Horn, 2000). This would have to be done simultaneously with teaching e.g. grammar, spelling, and the art of constructing a text, while not overloading the student with too much feedback lowering his or her sense of self-efficacy.

3.4 Writing Self-Efficacy

Ruegg (2014) explains (writing) self-efficacy as "one's confidence in one's abilities in English language academic writing at a specific point in time" (p. 1), thereby contextualizing the concept in line with Bandura's (1991) definition of self-efficacy as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives" (p. 257), which also correlates with Bandura's (1986) request for utilizing the concept in a contextualized manner. In the present study the concept is further narrowed down and contextualized into concerning English acquired as a second or foreign language. This is done because first and second/foreign language attainment processes are considered dissimilar in the learner's mental approach. Described in short, learning a language acquires an abundance of mental processes, but the learning of another language also requires the learner to learn through the filter of their first language, thereby making the process more intricate as negotiation of the own language culture could pose as a threat to the learner's sense of identity. All feedback quotes presented in this study are authentic quotations given as end comments on the students' first drafts of the first essays, although not all types of feedback presented in table 10 are end comments, some comments are positioned in the margin of the essay. Pajares (2003) further explains that self-efficacy is so influential in predicting outcomes of student writing processes - that its feature as a powerful predictor is persistent even in comparison to other highly influential covariates such as the individual ability to write successfully - and previous individual writing performances, 'mastery experiences' (cf. Raoofi et al., 2012). Pajares' statement of the importance of self-efficacy is congruent with the research presented by Ekholm et al. (2015). Ekholm et al. (Ibid.) presents a study providing more evidence on "the potent effects of writing self-efficacy on student writing beliefs and behaviors" (p. 203), further revealing indications for student writing selfefficacy, and perceptions of written feedback, both in relation to self-regulatory beliefs. Bruning et al. (2013) reinforces the critical importance of high student self-efficacy beliefs when performing demanding writing tasks and "motivational conditions are less than ideal" (p. 25). Pajares (2003) reflects on Bandura's definition of self-efficacy:

In all, Bandura painted a portrait of human behavior and motivation in which the beliefs that people have about their capabilities are critical elements. In fact, according to Bandura, how people behave can often be better predicted by the beliefs they hold about their capabilities, what he called self-efficacy beliefs, than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing, for these self-perceptions help determine what individuals do with the knowledge and skills they have.

(pp. 139-140)

Students' perceptions of their self-efficacy thus highly affect what and how they perform in writing, as self-efficacy beliefs affect the choices that are made, the amount of effort that is put into the work at hand, and the effort that is put into the process – in spite of environmental and emotional obstacles that might occur.

3.5 Concluding Thoughts on Previous Research

The preceding sections presenting previous research compile the most essential concepts of this study proceeding from the rather abstract level of formative assessment and feedback, to the practicalities of the writing skill and writing self-efficacy. Research has been presented on the well-established social cognitive theory and on entity versus incremental (implicit) theory; where the former focuses on human cognition which lately has begun trickling down to treating writing and writing self-efficacy, the latter primarily focuses on intelligence and perceptions of ability. Bruning and Horn (2000), help connect the two theories by acknowledging the substantial research on writing self-efficacy and asking for more knowledge on patterns of other beliefs on writing students hold.

Is there, for example, a parallel to the belief structures identified by Dweck and Leggett (1988), where some students take an entity view of writing, assuming that their writing ability is largely fixed? If so, are there negative motivational consequences, such as those that accompany a performative outlook (e.g., excessive concern with evaluation, risk aversion)?

(Bruning & Horn, 2000, p. 29)

As mentioned previously, the writing skill seems the most complex skill to learn in acquiring a new language, thereby constituting the most difficult skill to teach for an EFL teacher. An important task and a primary goal in teaching writing to EFL students should therefore lie in fostering "positive student perceptions of writing feedback" (Ekholm et al, 2015, p. 204) as even the most well-formulated feedback is not efficient if students do not welcome it.

4 Methodology

4.1 The Participants

4.1.1 The Students

The two following sections will define the material comprising descriptions of the participants starting with the participating students and then leading into a description of the two participating teachers. The study comprises two upper secondary groups of students, hereafter referred to as Group X (i.e. the experimental group) and Group Y (i.e. the control group). Both groups are situated at large schools in the south west region of Sweden with students from the region's larger cities as well as the near rural areas. Group X comprises 15 students (which is the full class) with 14 girls and 1 boy; whereas Group Y comprises 19 students with 18 girls and 1 boy (the full class size is 31). In consultation with Pajares (2003) who states that:

[...] gender differences in writing self-efficacy [are] rendered nonsignificant when gender orientation beliefs were controlled. Instead, holding a feminine orientation was associated with writing self-efficacy beliefs. These findings support the contentions of researchers who suggest that gender differences in academic motivation may in part be accounted for by differences in the beliefs that students hold about their gender rather than by their gender per se."

(p. 150).

The gender representation, which is unequally spread over the number of boys and girls in this study, will thus not be seen as an issue. Pajares (Ibid.) further suggests that in-class language education typically is associated with "a feminine orientation in part because writing is viewed by most students, particularly younger students, as being a female-domain." (p.151). Nevertheless, the study is focused on progression from point A (pre-survey) to point B (post-survey) and not how progress is represented between the sexes.

The students ages varied between eighteen and seventeen, those students who wanted to partake but who had not reached the age of eighteen were given a consent form to be signed by their legal guardians. Swedish was the mother tongue for all students but one in each group; these two students were however, in conference with the teachers, deemed good users of Swedish, the groups were thereby defined as homogenate. The two groups were also similar in levels of motivation (descriptions given by the teachers).

4.1.2 The Teachers

The two teachers were educated at the same university and had both been practicing their profession for three years. They thereby have the same education, and formal basis, when becoming teachers in English at upper secondary level. Before the gathering of material began, both teachers were given a very short introduction to the implicit theories, i.e. the concepts were loosely described. However, they had no prior knowledge of them. To investigate the teachers self-efficacy beliefs, and thereby the beliefs that they might pass on to their students, they were asked to answer a questionnaire (see Appendix E) at the time of the students first questionnaire, i.e. at the very beginning of the study. As was mentioned in subsection 2.3, most school environments tend to mirror society in favouring an entity theory or fixed mindset, it would thus not be surprising if the teachers tended to comply with the beliefs of talent or innate ability. However, the teachers seemed to agree on most every question responding in favour of the incremental theory, they were thus both understood to tend towards the growth mindset.

4.2 Material

4.2.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are a natural choice when searching for a tool that is efficient in terms of time, finances, and (researcher) effort (Dörnyei, 2010). A questionnaire has further benefits as a well-composed questionnaire carries the ability to reduce bias from interviewer effects (e.g. tone of voice or body language), and tap into attitudes and beliefs that the respondents are not even aware of (Bryman, 2008). The questionnaires were distributed at three separate occasions (see 4.1). The first questionnaire surveys the tendencies students show towards belonging to the growth or fixed mindset (see Appendix A.). It is an adaptation of Dweck's questionnaire on implicit theories which have been tested previously by Dweck on younger students, between the ages 6-12. The questionnaire was therefore deemed suited for the age group in focus (learning English as a second language) surveying students' beliefs of their intelligence, their academic efforts, and personal motivation levels. The second questionnaire delves into the attitudes of the students concerning learning to write in English, the feedback they receive on written assignments and general attitudes held towards the Anglophile culture (no distinction made). It was an adaptation from Dörnyei's (2010) questionnaire constructions, restructured to fit the focus of the present study. As the study at hand was to be

performed in a Swedish context, it was translated as to fit the students' first language (Swedish, see further discussion in subsection 4.1.1).

The questions in the third and final questionnaire dealt with a combination of 'postquestions' concerning students' mindsets and self-efficacy writing scales (SEWS, cf. Bruning et al., 2013). The self-efficacy writing scale is a tool for evaluating students' self-efficacy beliefs in writing in a second language. The basic concept of the writing efficacy scale was constructed by Bandura (cf. 2006b), emphasizing that the questions should be constructed in the present tense, asking the students to evaluate their capabilities 'as of now'. Bruning et al. (2013) adapted Bandura's concept and created the self-efficacy writing scale used in the present study. The statements are organized into three clusters of statements treating three dimensions likely occurring in the writing process: (1) ideation, i.e. the process of idea generation in basic pre-writing thoughts, for instance "I can think of many ideas for my writing" and "I can think of many words to describe my ideas". (2) Writing conventions, referring to the writing standards of a language, which in this case include punctuation, spelling, capitalisation and organisation of sentences. This particular cluster treats statements such as "I know exactly where to place my ideas in my writing", "I can spell my words correctly" and "I can write grammatically correct sentences". Being able to formulate ideas and then placing those ideas on a paper are to a large extent the main parts of the writing process, but it is not all. The third cluster treats (3) the writing self-regulation process, which seems crucial in finalizing the writing process. This cluster of statements treats the selfregulatory aspects of the ability to maintain a momentum, e.g. by discarding distractions while maintaining a certain level of motivation. Statements in this cluster included for instance "I can avoid distractions when I write", "I can focus on my writing for at least an hour", and "I can keep writing even when it's difficult".

The questions in this third questionnaire differ from those in the previous ones that were distributed in this study in that they are answered with a 0-100 scale (0 representing the subjective evaluation of a lack of ability for performing 'X', while 100 represents a strong conviction of being able to do 'X'), which Bandura (2006b) meant would provide a more accurate evaluation of perceived capability, a factor which has been confirmed by Pajares, Hartley and Valiante (2001). The complete questionnaire is found in Appendix C).

4.2.2 Essays

The material gathered for this study is authentic, meaning that the essays were written as parts of an already set curriculum, causing the instructions for the essays to be constructed to fit the curriculum (i.e. English 6) and the educational design constructed by each teacher for the semester. This fact raises some questions as the assignments thereby differed in construction and length. Table 4 presents a short summary of the frames for the two groups' assignments.

The First Tas	k		
Group X		Group Y	
Length	>300 words	Length	600-700 words
Structure	Analyse - Compare	Structure	Introduction - Analysis - Conclusion
			-
Instructions	What can you tell me about the	Instructions	Your assignment is to analyse a music
	different types of settings in Oliver		video, of your own choice, and its lyrics.
	Twist? Describe and give examples!		The video has to be in English, and your
	What can you tell me about the setting		focus should be on comparing the
	in which your life takes place? How does		message in the video to the message of
	it differ from Oliver's?		the lyrics. Are they the same? How is the
			video emphasizing the message of the
			lyrics? Or is it different?
The Second	Task		
Group X		Group Y	
Length	>300 words	Length	1000-1200 words
Structure	Personal Reflections - Compare	Structure	Introduction - Analysis - Conclusion
Instructions	Have gender roles changed through the	Instructions	Your assignment is to analyse the
	years or do boys and girls have to		photograph you have chosen. You
	behave in certain ways in our society		should write an analysis of the image
	today? How is society treating gender		and its context, not of the technique the
	roles in Sweden? Compare with other		photographer used or the structural
	countries if you like.		content of the image. It should be an
	·		analysis of your personal interpretation
			of the photo.
		I	

Table 4 Assignment Instructions

As can be seen, there is a clear difference in the requirements of the length of the assignments. The students in group Y is asked to produce twice the amount of words as the students in group X in the first assignment, and almost four times more than group X in the second assignment. The assignment itself too differs in structure and content as they were constructed to fit into the educational contexts. These differences, or variables, are accounted for when calculating the progression the students have made as the numbers presented in this, and the following sections, will be presented in a standardised format (see subsection 4.4 for further discussion).

4.2.3 Interviews

Since the author of the present study believes reality to be subjectively constructed by the individual person in relation to her setting, thereby involving social contexts to be constructions too, the interview is seen as a 'journey' in which knowledge is a construction. Using the semi-structured interview as a strategy to find answers through conversation with the interviewee, the interview is believed to be able to reveal information not given through e.g. a questionnaire. The semi-structured interview, using an interview guide (see Appendix F) with a clearly specified set of questions to be investigated, aids the researcher to ensure and maintain reliability and validity throughout the interviews (Bryman, 2012). The interviews (in total three individual interviews in each group on two separate occasions, see figure 3) were thus seen as complements to the three questionnaires that were employed in the study.

At the first session the students were asked to think aloud after receiving the first drafts of their essays from their teachers in order to investigate how they responded to the feedback they were given in a first-hand perspective. The second session focused on complementing knowledge gaps found when analysing the results from the questionnaires. The interviews were allocated in group rooms at the schools, aiming for a familiar surrounding for the students, taking approximately 20-30 minutes to perform. The students were introduced to the questions, and informed that the interview would be recorded, but for the strict purpose of the study. The students were further informed that although they would be referred to by name during the interview, their identity were, at all times, treated confidentially and withheld from any third party. Nor would their identities be revealed during the presentation of the results or at any time after the study was completed.

4.3 Design of the Empirical Study

The material for the present study was gathered from upper secondary students and their two teachers during a period of nine weeks in the spring semester of 2015. The consent forms (see Appendix D) were distributed in late December 2014, and later collected, by the teacher in each group in order to reach the students and their parents or legal guardians in good time before the study began. A personal introduction by the present author of the aim and purpose of the study given to the students was thereby not prioritized, instead favouring the potential to distribute and receive the consent forms before the study was to be launched. Figure 3 shows the planned and executed timeline for the study.

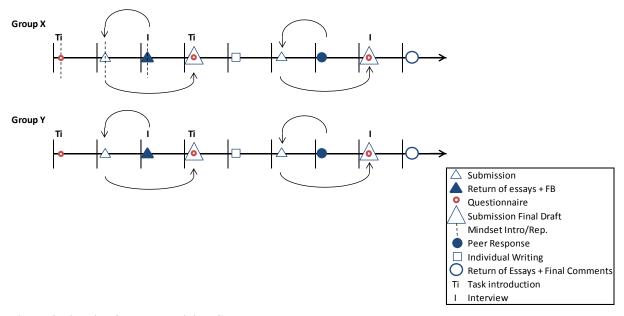


Figure 3 Timeline for the Empirical Study

Both groups were informed and introduced to the study again at the first class of the semester in the spring of 2015 by the present author. In addition to the task introduction (Ti) at the first occasion, the experimental group was given an introduction to the study explaining that the aim was to survey their motivation to learn writing composition in in-class English teaching in relation to their attitude towards the feedback they receive on their written compositions. They were then asked to partake in a questionnaire (see Appendix A) constructed for the sole purpose of surveying the students' implicit theories (described in subsection 2.3). Thereafter, prior to ending class and subsequent to the questionnaire, the students were given a short introduction to the implicit theories of growth and fixed mindsets. The students were introduced to the fact that, according to research (Dweck & Legget, 1988; Dweck, 1999; 2008), there are two types of mindsets represented in the world, the growth and the fixed mindset, and that these are views you adopt for yourself. They were also informed that these mindsets were non-exclusive but rather somewhat fluent and dependent on the context in which the person acts, and that the mindset a person complies with can change through the different stages of life, i.e. a mindset can be subjected to change. The growth mindset was explained as characterised by perseverance in the face of hindrances, by the embrace of challenges, by the conviction that "your basic qualities are things you can cultivate through your efforts" (Dweck, 2008, p. 7), and by the belief that failure is just another way of learning. The fixed mindset, conversely, was explained as characterised by the ambition to look smart in relation to their peers and by anxiety for failure. These characteristics were then

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broken down to more practical features closer to the students' conceptual worlds (Dweck, 2008, p. 245) and written (in Swedish) on the whiteboard:

If you are a student with a fixed mindset, you tend to:

- desire to look smart
- evaluate situations in terms of looking smart/dumb or success/failure
- connect setbacks with identity (feeling stupid)
- avoid challenges, get defensive or easily give up
- avoid effort, which is thought to not make any difference anyway
- feel threatened by the success of your peers: you succeed = I fail
- avoid or ignore criticism

If you are a student with a growth mindset, on the other hand, you tend to:

- take risks and learn from them
- evaluate situations in terms of how much can be learned
- connect setbacks with the desire to work harder the next time
- embrace challenges and persist "when the going gets tough"
- embrace effort from which you believe growth and learning come from
- find inspiration in the success of your peers
- Learn from criticism, how can this help me?

The students were then asked to consider their own views, and to remember that mindsets are changeable. After class the teacher was given three excerpts (Dweck, 2008, pp. 174-183; 193-202 & 218-221) describing characteristics of a "great teacher" such as the importance of keeping high standards, refrain from praising talent or intelligence but instead focus on giving feedback on effort, their use of strategies and their perseverance; and an example of a mindset workshop, in which learning is described as the brain creating new connections between neurons and thereby forming knowledge out of the repetition of information. As the teacher had been prepped with the literature and stated that she felt safe with repeating and developing the thoughts on mindsets in class the next week, next week's lesson was held without the participation of the present author.

Week three entailed a repetition of the characteristics (in Swedish) on the whiteboard by the students followed up by the distribution of short stories exemplifying the two types of mindsets (excerpts from Dweck, 2008, pp. 226-232). These short stories were discussed in groups of 3-4 students and presented orally in class, the purpose of this being the involvement of the students in defining the mindsets. As a final attempt to implement and reinforce the awareness of which mindset the individual student belongs to they were asked to describe educational situations connected to either the fixed or the growth mindset in order to discover

what mindset they comply with. The structure of the approach can be seen in figure 3. As have been described, the students spent the following weeks writing, getting feedback and revising. At the end of the study the students were given the third and final questionnaire encompassing a second measuring of the students' perceptions of their intelligence.

The control group was treated in the same manner, excluding the introduction to mindsets. Although an introduction to the implicit theories was excluded from the in-class treatment for the control group, these students were still asked to partake in the questionnaire on mindsets. This was done in order to survey any alterations in the students' mindsets in spite of not being subjects to the experimental treatment.

The second visit to the experimental group carried a repetition of the concept of mindsets. The properties of each mindset were yet again written on the whiteboard (in Swedish), this time by the students themselves. Short stories exemplifying both mindsets were distributed in groups of 3-4 students for them to read and present the characteristics of the implicit theories the protagonist of their texts possessed; thereby involving the students in thinking about mindsets, and in finding and defining the characteristics of them both. Throughout this session the students were also told that these mindsets are fluent and changeable, people do not necessarily belong solely to one or the other, and in becoming aware of which mindset you belong to you can begin to make changes in the way you act and think. The second questionnaire was subsequently distributed and three students were asked to partake in interviews (abbreviated as 'I' in the timeline; for more detail, see subsection 4.2.3). The control group was given the same type of questionnaire and three students were asked to partake in individual interviews.

During the following weeks (week five comprised voluntary individual sessions without tutoring, as students were asked to continue their essays during spring break) continuous contact was held with both teachers while the students were given time to write, edit and, in week seven, work with peer response. This model of feedback was used to relieve the teachers of some workload. However, as peer response is acknowledged as influential on student progression, it will be included in the analyses in section 5. The variables in the study that are accounted for have, for the sake of the scope of the present study, been reduced. The considered variables are student ability, type of text written, and type of in-class treatment (experimental or control treatment). Other valid and potentially affecting variables are student background, e.g. prior experience of feedback or preference of teaching style; inner

motivation level; and the individual learning style. These are acknowledged but cannot be accounted for in this relatively small scale study.

During the data gathering, students were given written feedback at three separate times, week three, six and nine, all occasions including the opportunity to revise the essays one more time. The students in both groups were given the chance to consult the teacher after each occasion of feedback if something was unclear. The third and final questionnaire was distributed during week eight, in this session the groups were treated in the same manner – students answered questionnaires and three individual interviews were held in each group.

4.4 Analysis

The questionnaires and the essays were analysed using diagrams and statistical calculations resulting in standardised scores. The sample of essays involves a total of 34 students (X=15; Y=19) at two occasions, which would result in 68 sampled essays over the period of nine weeks. However, because the essays were collected in an authentic context, and further, in a so-called 'real time' procedure, some students failed to hand in their essays in time resulting in a total number of 23 essays (X=9; Y=14) at two occasions (N=46). Because the groups varied in size, and in the length of produced texts the results are based on standardised scores, meaning that the statistics gathered from the questionnaires and the error rates (essays) were used for calculations of the so-called z-score. These calculations produce a standardised score allowing for comparison between numbers on different scales and from different occasions (cf. Cantos Gómez, 2013). The material from the questionnaires constituted by e.g. the Likert scale used in the first and second questionnaire and the writing self-efficacy 0-100 scale in the third questionnaire could thereby be compared

To answer the first research question of how students' progressions are affected by the written feedback an investigation was conducted as to what commentary types were given. For that purpose Ferris et al.'s (1997) article on teacher commentary types was consulted. Ferris et al. (Ibid.), in concordance with Searle's (1976) taxonomy of indirect speech acts, identify directives as the main type of comments with three different aims or intentions, i.e. (a) asking for information; (b) making suggestions or requests; and (c) giving information. Although grammar tends to be treated in the same manner as other errors when teachers correct essays they are given a category of their own because, as stated by Ferris et al (Ibid.). Ferris et al. also categorise four individual linguistic features of the commentary types: questions, statements, exclamations, and imperatives.

Table 5 Teacher Commentary Types

Α.	Aim or Intent of the Comment
	1. Directives:
	a. Ask for information
	b. Make suggestion/request
	c. Give information
	2. Grammar/Mechanics
	3. Positive Comments
в.	Linguistic Features of the Comment:
	1. Syntactic Form:
	a. Question
	b. Statement/Exclamation
	c. Imperative
	2. Presence/Absence of Hedge(s)
	3. Text-Specific/Generic
	(Ferris et al. 1997)

As can be seen in table 5, a definition of the intention behind the comment is made, as suggested in A1 a-c. A distinction is then made between grammar/mechanics and the previously mentioned directives, although defined as directives too grammar/mechanics are defined as short comments in the margin exclusively treating the spelling, punctuation and typing, i.e. treating form rather than content. This is a distinction supported, when aiming to define student progression, as in subsection 5.2, emphasis will be put on these erratic grammar/mechanic formulations. Another category defined and analysed separately within directives is positive comments, also referred to as praise or encouragement which Ferris et al. (Ibid.) suggest are "important to develop writers" (p. 166). Ferris et al. (Ibid.) further make notations on the syntactic form of each comment as statements, questions, exclamations, or imperatives, a method which too will be adopted by the study at hand (see for instance table 15).

To evaluate the effect of the written feedback on the students' writing each text was scrutinized in search for errors. The errors were then classified and placed into categories identified as typical for the students:

- Word order
- Vocabulary
- Spelling
- Preposition (mistake or missing)
- Article (a/an, the)
- Apostrophe (the genitive 's)
- Punctuation/Capitalisation
- Tense
- Concord

Each category is fairly straight forward and specific, word order for instance is the ordering of words within a sentence, while concord represents the correlation between noun and verb (she plays; not *she play). Other categories were more difficult to define. For example, a student's misspelling of 'to' into 'too' turning a preposition into an adverb and the meaning into a new word, could have been defined as either a misspelling (categorized as a spelling error) or as a wrong choice of words (categorized as a vocabulary error). In this study it was categorized as a misspelling. The vocabulary grouping was another category difficult to define as a vocabulary mistake can be either a simple choice of a wrong word (i.e. the student has misinterpreted its meaning), it could also be a stylistic error such as an unexpected overformalization, i.e. a word not suited in the context, but which is not wrong in meaning. Another stylistic error is the use of direct, word-for-word translation, that is, a translation of a Swedish expression into an erratic English wording, e.g. I saw in front of me a... when the proper translation should have been *I imagined a*.... After close consideration the vocabulary category was defined as 'the wrong word usage', without further distinction. This decision made the vocabulary category the largest of the nine, as it is the broadest in definition. The category of punctuation and capitalisation was merged although a word might need a capital first letter without being preceded by a full stop. This merger is explained by the fact that 47% of the capitalisation errors were located after full stops, both as a lack of a capital letter but also as an absence of proper punctuation although a capital letter was present.

Further, the questionnaires were constituted by both rating scales (1-4 and 1-100) and open-ended questions and were therefore analysed using statistical calculations aiding the possibility to compare the results. As the open-ended questions were responded to in lengthier wordings they were used as compliments supporting the numbers retrieved from the rating scales.

The study also encompassed twelve interviews held with the participating students (see figure 3). The first set of interviews was meant to reveal the students first-hand reactions to

the feedback they were given by their teachers. The students were given their essay drafts at the occasions of the interviews, and had thus not seen the feedback before sitting down with the present author. They were then instructed to read the essay again to refresh their memories and to reflect verbally on the feedback. Unfortunately, the author needs to acknowledge the fact that the students' ability to reflect verbally and to talk freely about their drafts was too greatly trusted. The students had had no prior practise in the so-called talk-aloud protocol strategy. These interviews, although performed in the study, are thusly not included in the material. The second set of interviews, however, was focused on closing gaps identified in the questionnaires (these questions can be seen in Appendix F). As was mentioned in section 4.2.3, the replies were recorded and during analysis meaning interpreted as to find the students' subjective understandings of their writing processes. The reader will find excerpts from these interviews in section 5.

Although the present study holds an understanding of ability and talent as curbing the learning rate and effect, the concept of ability will be encountered by the reader in the following section. The concept of 'ability' hereon after should therefore be interpreted as a measurement point separated from the notion of its stationary characteristics.

5 Results

5.1 Implicit Theory Manipulation

The first research question in this study referred to Dweck's (cf. e.g. 1999; 2008) research on children's implicit theories and the affect these theories might have on their motivation and the effort they expend in school assignments. At the beginning of the study the two groups were thus given a questionnaire in which they themselves reported their perceptions of their own intelligence (questions adopted from Dweck, 1999):

	Group X N=15	Group Y N=19
Your level of intelligence is one of your basic qualities which you cannot change	e 2 (13%)	0 (0%)
You can learn new things, but you cannot really change how intelligent you are	9 (60%)	8 (42%)
Despite your level of intelligence, you can always change how intelligent you are	e 1 (7%)	5 (26%)
You can always change your level of intelligence considerably,	3 (20%)	6 (32%)
despite how intelligent you are		

Table 6 Pre-Survey of Implicit Theories

Lindqvist - Feedback as a Tool for Writing Progression

The two first statements in table 6 represent the entity theory within which people tend to believe that intelligence is an innate ability to which nothing much can be done, you are born 'ingenious' or 'obtuse' (cf. section 2.3). The numbers show that most students, i.e. 11 students or 73%, in Group X believe intelligence to be inherited, while intelligence is explained as hereditary by only 8, i.e. 42%, of the students in Group Y. These results also show that approximately a third (27%) of the students in the experimental group tended to comply with the incremental theory, and so did a little over half (58%) of the students in the control group. Because research shows that entity theorists tend to prefer quick and simple assignments in which they can achieve success effortlessly, or assignments that are seemingly difficult but easy for that particular student (cf. Dweck, 1999; 2008), and in order to secure a higher level of reliability for these responses the students were also asked to define, or in those cases where one alternative was not sufficient, to rank the type of assignments they prefer (translation given here as all questionnaires were given and responded to in Swedish):

Finally, I want you to answer, in your own opinion, which of the following statements that fit your preferences the best. Multiple answers are okay if you cannot decide, but then I need you to rank the order from 1 (most preferred) to 4 (least preferred).

I prefer:

...difficult tasks, they spur me to learn and I learn by applying myself. It does not matter if I succeed or not.

 \Box ...tasks that are difficult for others but that are easy for me, I can manage them quickly and be effortlessly successful.

 \Box ...simple tasks that are quick and easy to do, the main goal is a good grade, not how much is learnt getting there.

 \Box ...challenging tasks in which I need to analyse and reflect on the subject, grades are less important, learning and improving are the main goal.

(From the first questionnaire, see Appendix A)

The first and the fourth statement reflect the incremental theory (IT) while the second and the third reflect the entity theory (ET). The students answered as follows:

	Group X N=15	Group Y N=19
(IT) difficult tasks, spuring the student to learn and applying themselves. Success not important	2 (13%)	6 (32%)
(ET) tasks difficult for others but easy for the particular student. Success more important than learning. Quick and effortless process allowing the student "shine"	8 (52%)	9 (47%)
(ET) simple tasks, quick and easy to do. The student's main objective is a good grade, not the learning process.	4 (27%)	-
(IT) challenging tasks spurring the student to analyse and reflect on the subject. Grades are less important; learning and improving are the main goal	1 (7%)	4 (21%)

Table 7 Student Preferences in Assignment Types

Table 8 Post-Survey of Implicit Theories

As can be read from the numbers, 79% (12) of the students in Group X seem to prefer tasks that are characteristic for the entity theory, whereas only 47% (9) of the students in Group Y prefer this type of tasks. In comparison to the previous measuring (see table 6) of students' implicit theories, the results seem consistent. Students in Group X tend to rely to a great extent on the entity theory, whereas the theories are more evenly represented between the students in Group Y. The incremental theory is understood as the most profitable theory to comply with for academic purposes.

In the latter part of the study, more specifically in the eighth week (see figure 3), the students were given the third and final questionnaire (see Appendix C), surveying, amongst other aspects, the implicit theories held by the students after participating in this study (table 8).

	Group X N=15	Group Y N=19
Your level of intelligence is one of your basic qualities which you cannot change	e 1 (7%)	0 (0%)
You can learn new things, but you cannot really change how intelligent you are	4 (27%)	8 (42%)
Despite your level of intelligence, you can always change how intelligent you ar	e 8 (53%)	8 (42%)
You can always change your level of intelligence considerably,	2 (13%)	3 (16%)
despite how intelligent you are		

Comparing the results of the pre-survey (table 6) and the post-survey (table 8), it becomes clear that, over the nine weeks of the study, as much as six students have begun to show compliance with the incremental theory (pre-survey 4 students, post-survey 10 students). Meaning that after the study was completed and three introductory presentations of the implicit theories were done 67% of the students in Group X showed tendencies to believe in intelligence as a concept subjected to change through effort and perseverance, in contrast to

the 27% noted in the pre-survey. The control group however, shows no progression at all, the total number of students tending towards the entity theory in the pre-survey and the post-survey both add up to eleven students. The third questionnaire also contained the self-efficacy writing scale, a numerical measurement of the students' writing self-efficacy beliefs.

		Group X			Group Y		
	Score	Standardized		Score	Standardized		
S1	115	0.45	S1	82	-1.19		
S2	117	0.55	S2	124	0.89		
S3	73	-1.64	S3	112	0.30		
S4	140	1.68	S4	107	0.05		
S5	74	-1.59	S5	77	-1.44		
S6	107	0.05	S6	85	-1.04		
S7	88	0.89	S7	138	1.59		
S8	105	-0.05	S8	93	-0.64		
S9	92	-0.69	S9	115	0.45		
S10	78	-1.39	S10	133	1.34		
S11	87	-0.94	S11	134	1.39		
S12	116	0.50	S12	124	0.89		
S13	124	0.89	S13	95	-0.55		
S14	108	0.10	S14	99	-0.35		
S15	84	-1.09	S15	143	1.83		
			S16	95	-0.55		
			S17	115	0.45		
			S18	133	1.34		
			S19	104	-0.10		

Table 9 Student Self-Efficacy Writing Scale Results

These results are interesting as the self-efficacy beliefs students tend to hold are understood to affect their academic endeavours. The self-efficacy beliefs are also closely related to the implicit theories students hold on their intelligence. This type of standardised score relates to the mean value of the numerical results, negative scores should therefore be interpreted as below the mean value and could thereby be understood as representing low self-efficacy beliefs relative to the results in this sample; while positive scores (above zero) can be interpreted as representing high self-efficacy beliefs relative to the results in this sample. They are a one-time measurement and thus do not contribute with enough measurement points to make a comparison of effect or progression. However, despite the fact that a little bit more than half of the students in the two groups (X no. 8 or 53%; and Y no. 11 or 58%) responded

in line with having higher self-efficacy beliefs, there is only a slight progression in their essay writing (see table 9 and table 13 & 14).

As was mentioned in 4.2.1, the questions in the third questionnaire were divided into three subsections (ideation, writing conventions and the writing self-regulation process). These three subcategories are all believed to be equally important in the writing process.

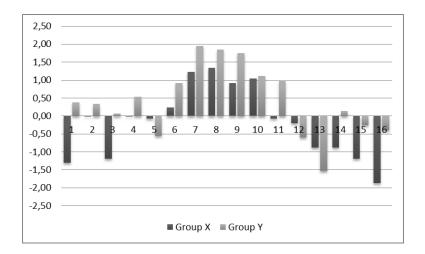


Figure 4 Self-Efficacy Writing Scale Results per Question

Figure 4 illustrates the standardised scores for each question, which are calculated based on the mean score for each question (1-16). As mentioned previously the self-efficacy writing scale was divided into three subcategories. One interesting aspect is that the two groups show consistency in the second (question 6-10, treating writing conventions) and third sections (questions 11-16, treating the writing self-regulation process), but are inconsistent in the first section which dealt with the ideation process. Figure 4 shows that Group Y estimated their self-efficacy for ideation above the average of this sample, while Group X were either right on average or much below. This could suggest that the students in Group Y were more proficient in creating ideas for their writing, as research has shown a clear correlation between self-efficacy beliefs and academic achievements (cf. Pajares, 2003; Eccles & Whigfield, 2001). Both groups estimated their ability to manage spelling, punctuation and other grammatical aspects concerning form highly; except in question six treating the statement: "I can spell my words correctly" where Group X seemed to be more insecure of their ability (scoring 0.23 whereas Group Y scored 0.92). The third section shows both groups to be more or less insecure of their ability to self-regulate their writing processes. Particularly notable is question 16, "I can keep writing even when it's difficult" where Group X seems to lack the ability to concentrate in a much greater extent than Group Y. Group Y seems to be more confident in their writing process generally, and only in question 13 *"I can start writing assignments quickly"* do the students in Group Y score lower than the students in Group X. This could perhaps be explained by Group Y's seemingly more developed ideation processes, which tend to also take time although perhaps not being included in the procedure as it often is a mental process rather than actual writing procedure.

It should be noted that although 'ability' has been used throughout this section as something a student either possesses or not, the concept is not believed as an either-or entity but as a factor that can be altered with practice.

5.2 Students' Writing Progression

As was mentioned in section 4.2.2 the essays differed in topic and size. Although, in an analysis of the standardised average amount of errors the students exhibited in their essays, see table 10, a comparison can be made between the essays, thereby measuring the progression the participating students have made.

Table 10 Score Survey - Group Average Writing Progression

	Gro	oup X		Gro		
	1st Draft	2nd Draft	Diff	1st Draft	2nd Draft	Diff
1st Task						0.52
2nd Task	50.00	50.01	0.01	50.01	50.04	0.03

As there is a difference between the number of students in each group as well as in the individual essay lengths a standardised score was calculated based on the error/text-length ratio. The numbers represent erratic elements meaning that a high score implies a low writing proficiency. As can be seen in table 10, the average error ratio on group level is fairly stable. However, the experimental group (X) exhibited a standardised mean error score of 58.85 on their first drafts, and the control group (Y) exhibited a standardised mean error score of 50. Relying on the predictability of errors to calculate the students' writing ability, there is thus a notable difference in the groups' aptitude in writing in English. A further look, however, reveals group X to be able to drastically reduce the numbers of errors with the help of teacher feedback, an ability group Y seems to lack. This could imply that group X are more susceptible to feedback, or that it is easier to greatly improve when there is an abundance of erratic formulations. Group Y scores a much lower error number at first but then shows a

slight upsurge, although, this group shows an overall consistency with only a 0.04 increase from the first draft of task 1 to the final version of task 2. In revising the essays both groups were unfailingly focused on correcting the errors the teachers identified and kept a consistency in not further editing the essays to any considerable extent.

The second essay was treated somewhat differently in the feedback process as written peer response was employed instead of teacher feedback. The students were grouped into three or four students per group. Each group was given the instruction to give feedback on three anonymized drafts, all essays were thus treated. The students were given approximately two hours to discuss and advise the anonymized essays (names were simply removed), a task they had been exposed to and had practised on at several occasions previous to this study. The students were further instructed not to reveal the author of the essay in the potential event of identification (due to anonymized essays the author him- or herself could be given their own essay). Despite the fact that the students had been taught to give and receive peer response the results represented in table 10 show no improvement, the scores rather imply a slight increase in erratic formulations (0.01 & 0.04).

Table 11 and table 12 show the overall average progression in the first task (given feedback from the teacher) and the second task (given peer response). The reader should be advised that the numbers presented in the table 11 and table 12 are not standardised, meaning that Group Y is likely to portray a much higher error value, this due to the considerable difference in the essay lengths (see description in 4.2.2). These numbers should therefore be used primarily as a visualisation of the development the feedback and the peer response contribute with. The value in these tables, thereby, does not lie in the comparison between the total amount of errors but in the visualisation of the increase and the reduction of errors within the groups.

Group X	Теас	her Fe	edback							
		WO	VOC	spelling	prepositior	article	apostrophe	capitalisation	tense	concord
	1st	5	75	32	17	10	17	21	7	33
	2nd	1	69	34	20	7	0	20	7	14
		-4	-6	+2	+3	-3	-17	-1	+-0	-19
	Peer	r Respo	nse							
		WO	VOC	spelling	prepositior	article	apostrophe	capitalisation	tense	concord
	1st	8	59	40	10	9	2	18	11	18
	2nd	8	68	28	14	7	4	13	15	11
		+-0	+9	-12	+4	-2	+2	-5	+4	-7

Table 11 Group X Categorised Mean Error Prog	gression
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Table 11 shows that the students in Group X seem to benefit from peer response in the traditional error types such as spelling, article errors and concord, while vocabulary, prepositions, tense, and apostrophe seem the most difficult error types to amend with this type of feedback. Considering the teacher feedback, great progression can be found in the apostrophe category as the seventeen errors found in the first draft all were amended in the second. Concord errors too seem easily amended with the aid of the teacher feedback. As can be seen in table 11, prepositions seem consequently difficult to amend independent of the type of feedback that is applied. This could perhaps be explained by the fact that some error categories, such as articles have a rule-base structure and are therefore easier to understand and correct, while other categories, such as prepositions are recognised as difficult to amend due to their item-base features (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2009). The feedback received in the first task seems pleasingly enough to have a continuous effect, i.e. from the first occasion of teacher feedback to the first draft in the second essay, in the vocabulary/preposition/capitalisation error categories. Other categories, such as the article/spelling/apostrophe/tense/concord categories, show a slight upsurge which could possibly be explained by simple mistakes. The word order category is the only one with an increase of errors higher than five (+7); the number is however still rather low spread over the fifteen students' essays.

Group Y	Teacher Fee	edback								
		WO	VOC	spelling	preposition	article	apostrophe	capitalisation	tense	concord
	1st	10	202	51	17	10	3	1	22	23
	2nd	9	161	17	11	16	4	4	12	17
		-1	-41	-34	-6	+6	+1	+3	-10	-6
	Peer Respo	nse								
		WO	VOC	spelling	preposition	article	apostrophe	capitalisation	tense	concord
	1st	26	304	57	29	36	10	10	10	17
	2nd	30	292	37	33	23	4	6	14	17
		+4	-12	-20	+4	-13	-6	-4	+4	+-0

Table 12 Group Y Categorised Mean Error Progression

As was mentioned before, the essays produced by Group Y were considerably lengthier; the error rates are therefore much higher than in Group X. Again, these numbers are meant to visualise the progression teacher feedback and peer response potentially contribute with. The

error rate progression in this group is inconsistent in comparison with Group X, this is visualised in figure 4.

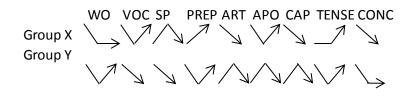


Figure 5 Comparison of Error Progression between the Groups

The figure shows the general progression, the increase and the reduction, of errors, e.g. Group X reduced the average amount of word order (WO) errors with the teacher feedback in the first essay, but stayed consistent in total number of errors in the second essay, despite being given peer response. The students in Group X reduced the number of errors in six categories (word order, vocabulary, article, apostrophe, capitalisation and concord) with the aid of teacher feedback, and in four categories with the aid of peer response (spelling, article, capitalisation and concord). The students in Group Y reduced their errors in five categories with the aid of the teacher's feedback (word order, vocabulary, spelling, prepositions and tense), and in three categories with the aid of peer response (article, apostrophe and capitalisation). These results indicate that the feedback given by the teachers was more efficient than peer response, but also that the improvement is inconsistent over the error categories when comparing the two groups. Although highly interesting, the material in this study does not provide for analyses of e.g. patterns of progression in specific error types in correlation with active work on mindsets. This is however believed to be an interesting topic for future research.

The scores on group level raise a few questions on how the individual students progressed. Again the scores are standardised based on error/text-length ratio, and again a high number implies a low writing proficiency. Table 13 and table 14 show the students in each group. As these essays have been collected from an authentic EFL educational context the gathering of essays was exposed to circumstances out of the author's control, some submissions were not handed in by the students and are therefore not represented. When a draft is missing in a student's submissions the entirety of draft submissions have been excluded as it is no longer possible to compare and evaluate any potential progress.

Grou	ир Х			Grou	ир Ү		
		1st				1st	
	Score	Score	Diff		Score	Score	Diff
S1	Х	Х	Х	S1	77.99	66.01	-11.98
S2	57.60	42.07	-15.53	S2	46.77	52.61	5.84
S 3	Х	Х	Х	S 3	40.99	37.71	3.28
S4	58.55	40.08	-18.48	S4	50.17	58.71	8.54
S 5	65.52	54.82	-10.70	S5	Х	Х	Х
S6	55.86	40.68	-15.19	S6	51.80	58.41	6.61
S7	61.79	67.57	5.78	S7	47.04	33.21	-13.83
S8	56.02	45.50	-10.52	S8	49.08	48.81	-0.27
S9	Х	Х	Х	S9	45.61	63.31	17.7
S10	Х	Х	Х	S10	44.32	40.01	-4.31
S11	62.36	63.71	1.35	S11	39.29	44.41	5.12
S12	Х	Х	Х	S12	41.46	41.41	-0.05
S13	56.58	46.85	-9.73	S13	53.10	59.91	6.81
S14	Х	Х	Х	S14	57.31	48.21	-9.1
S15	55.39	48,73	-6.66	S15	55.07	54.51	-0.56
				S16	Х	Х	Х
				S17	Х	Х	Х
				S18	Х	Х	Х
				S19	Х	Х	Х

 Table 13 Score Survey - Student Writing Progression First Draft Teacher Feedback

The numbers show a distinct heterogeneity of the groups' writing progression in the first task. Where some students show great improvement, e.g. student 2, 4 and 6 in the experimental group and student 1, 7 and 14 in the control group, others seem to not be helped by the written feedback they were given by their teachers.

Grou	ир Х				Group	Y	
		2nd				2nd	
	Score	Score	Diff		Score	Score	Diff
S1	Х	Х	Х	S1	47.25	72.58	25.33
S2	43.44	61.95	18.51	S2	37.63	42.47	4.84
S 3	Х	Х	Х	S3	55.89	56.91	1.02
S4	57.91	46.02	-11.90	S4	50.10	54.02	3.92
S5	50.27	50.00	-0.27	S5	Х	Х	Х
S6	44.82	44.02	-0.79	S6	69.03	60.10	-8.93
S7	72,11	69.92	-2.19	S7	51.45	46.91	-4.54
S8	43,17	56.65	13.48	S8	41.74	42.99	1.25
S9	Х	Х	Х	S9	67.63	39.07	-28.56
S10	Х	Х	Х	S10	37.97	33.51	-4.46
S11	54,64	48.01	-6.64	S11	39.08	55.57	16.49
S12	Х	Х	Х	S12	45.65	42.37	-3.28
S13	44,82	40.72	-4.10	S13	50.34	53.40	3.06
S14	Х	Х	Х	S14	47.78	48.35	0.57
S15	52,19	37.69	-14.50	S15	58.65	52.37	-6.28
				S16	Х	Х	Х
				S17	Х	Х	Х
				S18	Х	Х	Х
				S19	Х	Х	Х

Table 14 Score Survey - Student Writing Progression Second Draft Peer Response

The heterogeneity persists in the second writing process. Here too, some students seem to benefit greatly but from peer response, e.g. student 4 and 15 in the experimental group and student 6 and 9 in the control group, whereas some students seem less advantaged by this form of feedback, e.g. student 2 and 8 in the experimental group and student 1 and 11 in the control group. It should also be noted that some students continue to decrease the amount of errors in their essays, thereby increasing their level of writing proficiency, despite the form of feedback. Observe for instance student 4, 13 and 15 in the experimental group and student 7 in the control group. Some students seem to benefit from teacher feedback but not from peer response (student 2 and 8 in group X; student 1 in group Y); and others from peer response but not from teacher feedback (student 7 and 11 in group X; 6 and 9 in group Y).

The students were asked how much they agree to the statement *I consider myself to be a person who is good at writing in English* (see Appendix B), a statement to which 13 percent of the students in group X fully agreed, 40 percent agreed, 27 percent disagreed, and 20 percent completely disagreed. The numbers for the same statement in Group Y are 42%, 47%,

11% and 0%, in that order. Correlations between the students' lack of progress and their perceptions of their writing skills will be revisited in section 6.

5.2.1 The Teacher Feedback

Reporting results on the students' progression without presenting a more specified account of the feedback they were given would seem arbitrary. This section is thus dedicated to trying to cast some light on the feedback procedures the two teachers employ in responding to the first draft of the first essay (see timeline in figure 3).

	Group	Σ										Group	Y							
	2	Syntacti	ic forn	าร	Giving	info	Suggestion	Asking fo	or info			S	yntactio	form		Giving	info	Suggestion	Asking fo	orinfo
	State.	Quest.	Excl.	Imper.	Reader	Text	or request	unknown	known			State.	Quest.	Excl.	Imp.	Reader	Text	or request	unknown	known
S1	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х		S1	1	2	1	-	-	-	2	1	1
S2	6	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-		S2	5	2	1	-	-	-	4	2	-
S 3	Х	х	Х	Х	х	Х	Х	Х	х		S 3	7	2	1	-	-	1	3	2	-
S4	7	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-		S4	2	3	2	-	-	-	2	1	2
S5	7	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-		S5	х	х	Х	Х	х	х	Х	Х	х
S6	4	-	1	-	-	-	3	-	-		S6	1	4	2	1	-	-	4	1	3
S7	7	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-		S7	3	3	1	-	-	1	3	-	3
S8	6	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-		S8	2	1	3	-	-	1	4	1	-
S9	Х	х	х	х	х	х	Х	Х	х		S9	3	-	1	-	-	1	2	-	-
S10	Х	х	Х	Х	х	Х	Х	Х	х	5	S10	-	2	-	-	-	1	4	1	1
S11	5	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	9	S11	1	3	1	-	-	1	3	1	2
S12	Х	х	Х	х	х	Х	Х	Х	х	9	S12	1	3	3	-	-	-	3	2	1
S13	4	2	-	2	-	-	1	1	1	5	S13	-	1	1	2	-	-	2	-	1
S14	Х	х	х	Х	х	х	х	х	х	5	S14	3	4	-	-	-	1	7	1	3
S15	6	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	9	S15	2	3	2	-	-	1	4	2	1

Table 15 Teacher Written Feedback Types

As can be seen, table 15 lists Ferris et al.'s categorisation of the syntactic forms (statement, question, exclamation, and imperative) represented in the comments. The comments are also defined as either giving or asking for information. For instance, the teacher might give information from the perspective of a reader to the writer or; on the text, e.g. by commenting on erratic facts presented by the writer. Moreover, when asking for information, the teacher might ask the writer to develop the material because they simply do not know what the student is aiming for (e.g. personal experience, writer's intent); or, as an incentive, to develop the idea, e.g. a rhetoric question. As table 15 shows, there is a distinct difference in the two teachers' approaches when giving feedback. The reader should be aware that all feedback presented here are authentic quotations given as end comments on the students' first drafts of the first essays, although not all types of feedback presented in figure 4 are end comments, some comments are positioned in the margin of the essay. Reading the numbers it is indicated that the teacher in Group X (hereafter referred to as TX) seems to prefer using statements, adding suggestions or requests, for example:

"Thank you [Name], you have made a very interesting comparison with your life's setting compared to the one in the extract. It is clear from your explanations that it differs to a great extent! There are some comments about the language that I want you to go through, correct and send back in again. By making the grammar better your text will improve even further." (TX to S6)

"[Name], you analyse the text to some extent, which is good. You have also managed to add reflections about your own life, which was very interesting to read. Look at the comments. They focus on concord and grammar, correct the language and send back in again." (TX to S2)

"[Name], I agree with your thoughts about Oliver and his lack of knowledge about the surrounding world. You have tried to analyse and draw parallels to your own life, which is very interesting to read. There are some comments about the language that you may look at, correct and send back. Your language has really improved lately. Keep working with the grammar and you will see even better results." (TX to S15)

TX employs softeners, e.g. "you may", and positive comments, e.g. "which is very interesting to read". However, in accordance with Ferris et al (1997) who state that comments need to be specific (but not too specific so that the student cannot transfer the new information given with the feedback into the next writing assignment) (p. 167), these comments' effect can thus be questioned as they seem too generic. Since the feedback is formulated as statements there is also a question of how dialogic the feedback is, and how much it spurs the students in 'feeding forward'.

The teacher in Group Y (hereafter, TY) seems to use a more dialogic approach when giving feedback. This can be seen through the use of questions (often outnumbering the statements) asking for known or unknown information. TY also seems to use exclamations on a more frequent basis. Some examples (again, all feedback presented here are direct quotations given as end comments on the students' first drafts of the first essays):

"Well done [Name], a very interesting analysis! Looking forward to reading the final draft. Make sure that your introduction contains an explicit focus, e.g. "I am analysing how the situation for homosexuals is portrayed" or "I am going to analyse how love is described", but in your own words [inserted smiley]. You need to be very clear. Your analysis should also follow the theme you chose and in the conclusion we should be able to find the "answer" summarised. I think that you could detect a lot of your mistakes by reading the text out loud, there are a few words missing here and there or expressions that are missing something" (TY to S7)

"Well done [Name], you have written a very thorough analysis of the video and lyrics you chose. Here are a few things for you to take into consideration when writing your final draft.

- Do not over-use commas. Try to insert conjunctions instead. That makes your text easier to read as it changes the rhythm and flow.
- In English the quotation marks look like '..' instead of ".."
- *Be sure to follow the instructions for this assignment*" (TY to S15)

"This is a good start. Make sure to be explicit when stating your question and equally sure to answer it during your analysis so you can sum it up properly in the conclusion." (TY to S3)

The characteristics of the marginal comments also varied, both teachers employ metalinguistic, error-coded corrective feedback (see section 3.2) located near the error, but the approach seems to be different. TX uses simple error-coded corrections, e.g. "concord" for concord issues or simply "word missing", whereas TY employs both error-coded corrective feedback, e.g. "sva" for subject-verb agreement and brief reformulations, e.g. "..him showing..".

5.2.2 The Peer Response

As mentioned previously, the students were placed into groups and instructed to read and give feedback to three essays per group. The students were then given up to two hours to discuss each essay and give written feedback, which typically were comments in the margin sampling the procedure of the prior feedback they themselves had been given by their teacher; comments were given on both content and form. The instructions also included the directions to use the 'two stars and a wish' strategy, meaning that the students identified two strengths and one wish for improvement in their end comments. This was a strategy both groups were familiar with helping them to give positive feedback and constructive comments. Peer response is usually perceived as less 'threatening' for the students receiving the feedback. However, peer response can also pose a certain uncertainty in correctness, as was noted in the present study. Whereas most comments were accurate there were a few that guided the writer in the wrong direct corrective feedback) the new suggestion was 'beeing' (substituting without *be treated); or correcting a correctly spelled word 'morale' (using indirect corrective feedback indicating the supposed error with underscore and code: 'sp').

The two groups varied in this aspect too, Group Y seemed to be more fluent in giving response to their class mates and the end comments tended therefore to be wordier in that

group. They seemed, however, to have difficulties with following the two stars and a wish strategy. For example:

"Good job! The text is well written and easy to understand. You have a made a few spellingmistakes. We would also point out that you could use less pronouns such as I and me. And a little bit longer would be great to."

"Try to use "I" a little less, more formal. Very well-written. Expressed well, good summary. Some sentences were a bit too long, and some had a lot of pauses. Try to make the flow a bit easier to understand. What are you trying to analyse? Overally very well done btw nice title :)"

"Good job! The introduction is well written and introduces the text perfectly! There are some spelling mistakes which I have marked in the text. Over all I think you have analysed the picture and the poems very god and you language is neither too Swenglish nor informal. But what you should focus on when you rewrite it is to be more specific and explain what you mean. Think about that you need to clarify your thoughts!"

As can be seen, there are some spelling mistakes in these feedback examples too, but the main messages cannot be mistaken, the students giving these responses seem to follow a template of a formal text as they instruct the writer to try to avoid pronouns, to check the flow of the text, to follow the instructions given on the length of the essays and to avoid "Swenglish" wordings, the final comment potentially being perceived as ambiguous, and thereby difficult to mend in the final draft.

The students in Group X kept the responses a bit more formal, for instance by almost exclusively making statements and keeping the comments rather short, for example:

"You have a red line. You have the same tense in general. And the spelling is good. I have made a mark the places when it is wrong."

"It's good that you compare the situation in different years. How it was then vs how it is now. It has a good red thread through the text and it has good content. A few spelling/grammar mistakes but it does not affect the text."

"The text was good, but came off topic. A lot of spaces that is not needed (dots). Spelling needs to be checked."

The students in Group Y did not keep to the two stars and one wish strategy, and neither did the students in Group X, further, the students in Group X seem to use fewer positive comments and softeners.

5.3 Students' Perceptions of the Written Feedback

One of the most important aspects in producing and presenting feedback, in order to help students to improve their proficiency in written production, is to monitor the students' understanding of the feedback. One basic question to ask the students is thus whether or not they understand the written feedback they are given by their teachers. This was done in one of the questionnaires the students responded to during the study. Figure 6 shows the results in percentage.

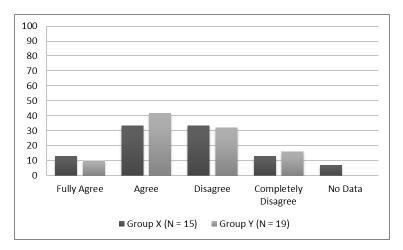


Figure 6 Students' Reported Comprehension of the Written Feedback

The students were asked to grade their ability to understand the written feedback they receive on a Likert scale ranging from 'fully agree' to 'completely disagree'. As can be seen in figure 6, most students answered that they agree (*fully agree* and *agree*), they understand the written feedback they receive (X33,5% and Y42%). However, in the experimental group an equal amount, i.e. X33,5 percent, of students disagree (*disagree* and *completely disagree*), suggesting that they do not always understand the written feedback they receive, the number of students disagreeing was slightly lower (Y32%) in the control group. Student 11 in Group Y mentioned in the interview session that she did not always understand the feedback she was given because the markings were coded. She also mentions that the group was given a sheet of code explanations at the beginning of the semester, she had however no clue as to where it was now. Only a few students stated that they always and fully understand the written feedback they are given by their teachers (X13% and Y10%) while some completely

disagreed with the statement (X13% and Y16%). One of the students in the experimental group left the question unanswered (marked as no data). These results, of course, raise further questions. Do the students feel that they are aided by the feedback they receive? Are they satisfied with how the feedback is formulated? But first and foremost, as interest is seen as an important source for motivation, do they find writing in English an important skill? These are all aspects affecting how students perceive the feedback they receive from their teachers.

The students were asked to reflect on the importance of being able to express themselves in English writing. Figure 7 shows that most students in the control group find this ability very important (89%), while 11 percent of the students in this group find it fairly important. The students' perceptions of how important the writing skill in English is seems more scattered, 47 percent find the ability very important, 40 percent find it fairly important, and 13 percent do *not* find this skill to be important.

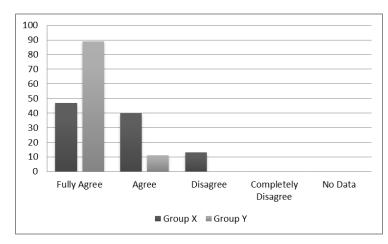


Figure 7 Student Perceptions of the Importance of being a Good English Writer

Pleasingly, the numbers suggest that most students, although to varying degrees, find the skill of writing in English important. The perception of writing as an important skill in language learning makes for a solid foundation for progression. As have been mentioned before (see section 3.2) this study understands written feedback as an invaluable tool for the teacher to guide his or her students towards improvement. One important factor for a successful use of feedback, however, is the students' perceptions of feedback as helpful in improving their writing skills. The participating students were therefore asked to respond to the statement *The written feedback I receive helps me improve my writing* (figure 8).

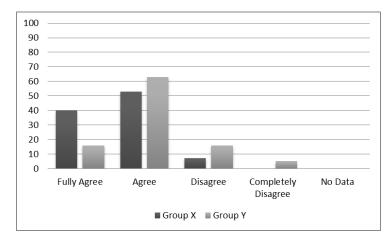


Figure 8 Student Perceptions of Feedback's Usefulness

As can be seen in figure 8 most students seem to agree, although again, to a varying degree. In the experimental group 93 percent of the students agree ('fully agree'= 40% and 'agree'= 53%) that the written feedback they receive is useful. Further, the control group seems to perceive the feedback they receive less useful than their peers, as 79 percent agree ('fully agree'= 16% and 'agree'=63%) seem to find the feedback useful. Some students (X7% and Y16%) seem to find the feedback even less useful, while 7 percent of the control group find it completely useless. The bar charts presented in figure 6 and figure 8 show a gap between the understanding of the received feedback and the perceived usefulness of the received feedback. Although the student groups tend to (fully) agree with the usefulness of the feedback they receive, their understanding of the feedback is reported as lesser. This presents an ambiguity which will be further discussed in section 6. Figure 9 presents the students' potential wishes to change the written feedback by the teacher.

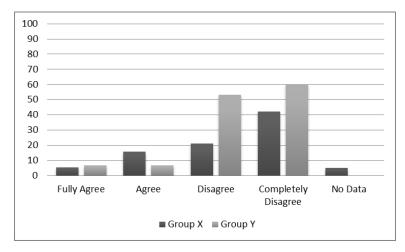


Figure 9 Student Perceptions of the Feedback Formulations

Although most students tended to disagree with the statement *If I could choose, I would change the way the feedback on my essays are formulated* which formed the basis for figure 9, some students voiced desires for alternative constructions. In these reflections they ask for more straightforward and specific constructions, or more thorough and clear end comments describing areas of improvement, thereby implying that the teacher's end comments often can be perceived as 'dim'. Here are some examples gathered (from the 2nd questionnaire), all responses were given in Swedish and have thus been translated to English:

"I would like more feedback - and more specific feedback" (Student 15 from Group X)

"I would prefer if we [the teacher and student] could talk one and one after we [the students] received the feedback to discuss thoughts" (Student 13 from Group X)

"[The end comment] could be a bit clearer. Almost all students have to ask for an explanation as it is at the moment" (Student 12 from Group Y)

"More specific feedback, the teacher should dare to be more to the point!" (Student 3 from Group Y)

The majority of the students were, as have already been mentioned, satisfied with the way the feedback was presented, although none of these students chose to develop their answer (meaning that no quotes can be given). The contentment could however, perhaps be explained by a lack of experience with other types of feedback or with a residing perception of this type of feedback as normalised, i.e. the type of feedback the students were most comfortable with because it was the typical construction used by their teachers. Another explanation could, of course, be that the students are content with the feedback, plain and simple, and that they feel that this type of feedback suit their needs.

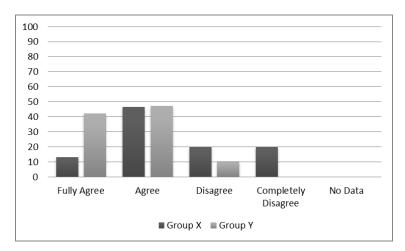


Figure 10 Student Perceptions of Ability to Write in English 49

An interesting aspect to investigate is the gap between the goals each student pursue for their L2, i.e. their desired level of attainment in English, and the individually perceived present levels of attainment. The students were thus asked how they perceive their ability to write in English. As can be seen in figure 10, most students in Group Y see themselves as good writers, whereas students in Group X are divided more or less equally over both categories of 'agree' ('fully agree' and 'agree') and 'disagree' ('disagree' and 'completely disagree'). One reply given by the students in Group Y reads as follows (translated): "I think I'm already 'good' at speaking and writing so I 'm not really motivated to study English history for instance, but I don't have any problems doing it either" (S1 in Group Y). This reply is strengthened by the responses the whole sample of students gave in the first questionnaire, in which they were asked whether they feel learning English in school will serve them in the future (The English education I get in school prepares me for my future needs). To this statement, 47% of the students in Group X, and 26% of the students in Group Y answered "Yes, really"; while 33% and 63% respectively replied that the English in-class education is only partly satisfactory. The students were also asked to describe their opinions of English as a school subject; some responses were (translated):

"We have too few oral discussions, and I want a more intense pace, more interesting assignments. Preferably something that's connected to what you are interested in." (S6 in Group Y)

"The level of difficulty is too low, and it's too slow, I would have liked to learn more words describing 'everyday things' such as working at a bank, work-[illegible writing], etc." (S3 in Group Y)

"Sometimes I feel we should spend more time practising words needed when doing business or more everyday things that happen." (S2 in Group X).

Although both teachers distributed sheets for decoding and explaining the error coding they used, there seems to be an uncertainty prevailing in both groups as to whether they fully understand what the teacher means when correcting.

6 Discussion

6.1 The Manipulation of Implicit Theories

As stated in 5.1 Group X received an experimental treatment consisting of three introductory sessions to the implicit theories. These three occasions was expended parallel with the students' first writing task and the improvement they did with the first set of feedback. The introduction of the mindsets could therefore be interpreted as to have had an effect on the Group X students' writing abilities. However, if this was the case the effect of the introduction subsided not long after the present author's last visit. The author of the present study is therefore inclined to question the length of the introduction to the implicit theories. The students could perhaps have benefitted from a deeper introduction, given over a longer period of time, where they would have been given more time to understand and reflect upon what was being said. The procedure is not believed to be ineffective, but it needs to be expanded to fully have an effect on the students' implicit theories and thereby following, their academic achievements. Indeed, the introduction to implicit theories could have benefitted by a less general approach. Further, the effect, especially in a study on written composition and the affect mindsets can pose on written proficiency and the writing progress, would profit from a more precise focal point. Thus, the introduction of implicit theories should also have been specifically aimed at writing in English, rather than learning in general and beliefs of intelligence in general.

6.2 The Writing Progression

As was presented in section five, the two groups took different paths of progression, i.e. Group X lowered their error rate considerably, in the first task being given teacher feedback, but the students in Group Y did not make the same progression (see table 10). Some explanations for this radical improvement in error rates (X= -8.85) versus the slight upsurge witnessed in the control group (Y= +0.52), could be that it might be easier to improve a text with a high error rate than adjusting texts with a few errors, as the latter would demand a higher sense of knowledge in writing. Further, the approach to the correction of essays in this study was reporting errors, this was done in order to visualize the progression in a straight forward manner. Although, it is not always equally straight forward for the students to adjust their texts from the point where they contain several erratic formulations to containing only minor errors; it would demand a higher sense of grammatical knowledge, but also a higher sense of language-cultural knowledge as the erratic formulations to a great extent could be

circumvented if the students avoided direct L1 to L2 translations producing 'Swenglish' wordings. Based on the slight overall progression made by the control group and the minor change in erratic formulations made by the experimental group with the peer response, this study believes that the students also need to be trained in becoming more self-regulated in order to become better writers (see section 2.2).

As was mentioned in the introductory sections (e.g. section 3.3), the writing skill seems the most complex of all the skills that need to be learnt in order to master a foreign language. Further, the writing process is a slow process demanding the producer to possess an array of sub-skills. The novice writers, as were the participating students in this study, seems typically focused on choosing words and spelling them correctly in constructing sentences and paragraphs. This requires a conscious process with full attention, something the typical adolescent is not known to have.

The students' writing progression was measured at two separate occasions, after the teacher feedback had been given and after the peer response had been given. Although the students had been taught to give and receive peer response the results represented in table 10 show no improvement, the scores rather imply a slight increase in erratic formulations (0.01 & 0.04). The differences in progress shown in the experimental group could be consistent with the results presented by Ruegg (2014). However, in her study the students were divided into to two groups and given either teacher feedback or peer response. Nevertheless, Ruegg (Ibid.) found that the students':

confidence in their writing skills increased significantly more in the teacher feedback group than the peer feedback group. In fact, the mean change in confidence in grammatical ability in writing for the peer feedback group was negative, indicating that, on average, they felt less confident at the end of the academic year than they had at the beginning of the academic year.

(p. 10).

One factor potentially contributing to the control group students' lack of progression could also be explained by their sense of the current L2 self (cf. Dörnyei, 2005). The students were thus asked how much they agree to the statement *I consider myself to be a person who is good at writing in English* (see Appendix B), a statement to which only just over half of the participants in group X (53%) agreed or fully agreed while a clear majority in group Y (89%) showed the same belief in their own writing ability. It is clear that 89 percent of the control

group students already see themselves as good writers, which is a fact thereby affecting their motivation to learn more, implying that the Group Y's students' lack of progression could perhaps be explained by a lack of difference between the pursued goal and the perceived current state. Which in further analysis could be accredited to too low writing standards kept by the teacher and thereby a lack of progression feedback spurring the students to reach higher.

Figure 7 providing a representation of the perceptions the students hold of the importance of being a good English writer, shows that the students almost unanimously find it important. This of course, is promising news for an English language teacher; however, this attitude of writing in English being an important skill could also have a negative effect if the pressure becomes too great. With this perspective in mind, and the verbal contribution made by student 7 in Group X mentioning that she is a "terrible writer" with "huge problems with spelling" and therefore does not like writing (spoken material from interview), a conclusion can be drawn that there might be some advantages in the usage of peer response over teacher feedback as feedback from teachers might imply higher stakes. Observe tables 13 and 14, as can be seen the same student, student 7 in Group X, shows an upsurge in erratic formulations despite feedback given by the teacher, but seem to be able to improve the essay with the help of peer response.

Excluding the manipulation of mindsets there are several potential explanations behind the progression patterns shown by the students. However, as was discussed in section 6.1, there is a higher probability that it is the procedure of mindset manipulation that affect the experimental group's progress.

6.3 The Students' Perceptions

As documented in section 5.3, the students did not always, and fully, understand the feedback they were given. This, of course, is problematic. If the students report to not fully understand the feedback they receive, how then can the feedback be useful? The students' reports of their perceptions of the written feedback they received were somewhat ambiguous. At several interview sessions the participating students reported to not fully understand the feedback due to coding. However, they did not want to change the way it was formulated either, "It's fine the way it is" (Interview session with student in group X). Another student reported, in an interview session, that she preferred teacher feedback over peer response, because she felt teacher feedback to be more reliable. The reason for the reported contentment could lie in a lack of experience with other types of feedback or with a residing perception of this type of

feedback as what they are used to, i.e. the type of feedback the students were most comfortable with because it was the typical construction used by their teachers. Another explanation could, of course, be that the students are content with the feedback, plain and simple, and that they feel that this type of feedback suits their needs. Students being too lazy to either reflect on the matter or to actually make the effort to write down their reflections could be other possible explanations.

Contradictory to other research in the area (e.g. Bandura, 1996; Schunk, 2008), stating that self-efficacy beliefs are good tools for prediction of the academic outcome, the participating students' perceptions of their own ability to write did not always correlate with the actual written outcomes. Compare for instance the results shown in table 10 versus the results in figure 4, figure 4 shows numbers gathered from the third questionnaire which was responded to in week eight, i.e. in the very end of the study. The numbers to compare with should therefore, reasonably, be from the second task where none of the groups showed any progression after being given peer response in the week before (0.01 and 0.04, respectively). The students should, according to previous research, perform considerably better than they actually did. As the self-efficacy writing scale covered all of the three areas believed to characterise the writing skill, i.e. ideation, writing conventions, and the writing self-regulation process, this could possibly only be explained by either sloppiness when writing, or an overestimation in the self-assessment procedure. The students could potentially be aware of this discrepancy, but still lack motivation to fulfil their academic commitments. As was mentioned in the introductory section, some students seem to make distinctions and evaluations between the English they use in school and the English they use in their personal lives, implying that the in-class EFL learning environments are too far from the students' outof-school usage. This would of course affect the amount of time and effort the students put into the essays they composed.

7 Summary

This study has sought to answer three research questions, taking its stance in the social cognitive theory investigating the writing progression made by students at upper secondary level in a nine week study. It comprised two groups, i.e. one experimental group introduced to the implicit theories (mindsets), and one control group. The groups were treated in the same manner throughout the study except for the introduction to mindsets in the experimental group. Three research questions have been used asking (i) whether an introduction to the

theory of mindsets will affect the students' self-efficacy. (ii) How the written feedback affects the students' writing processes and progress in developing content and form; and (iii) how the written feedback students' receive is perceived. The results show that (1) the introduction to mindsets affected the experimental group's self-perceptions in a positive manner and initially improved their writing; the control group showed no progression in self-perceptions and showed a slight upsurge in erratic formulations of their writing. (2) The experimental group improved their results greatly with the help of written teacher feedback, but showed no progress with the help of peer response; no significant improvement was found in the control group, instead they showed a slight increase of erratic formulations. (3) The students tended to understand the feedback they receive but were hesitant about the meaning of some feedback given in codes, there was no particular distinction between the two groups in this aspect.

A further note should be made as this study has presented written feedback to be essentially corrective in its characteristics. This study has used this fact in presenting the progress the students have made, but still insists on the use of constructive feedback focusing on performance with, or without, appraisal (see table 3). This type of constructive feedback aims towards strengthening the written progression (with or without praise) via the reinforcement of the self-esteem built on striving towards goals attainable but which still inspire students to excel and to use effective strategies. The challenge for teachers within EFL education lies in guiding students towards realizing the benefits of writing outweighing the considerable effort needed to be put forward in producing a successful piece of writing. This would have to be done simultaneously with teaching e.g. grammar, spelling, and the art of constructing a text, while not overloading the student with too much feedback lowering his or her sense of self-efficacy. As a final point, this study calls for more research on mindsets and the direct effect the implicit theories might pose on the students' writing achievements, preferably in a long-term perspective including more students in order to actually be able to distinguish patterns.

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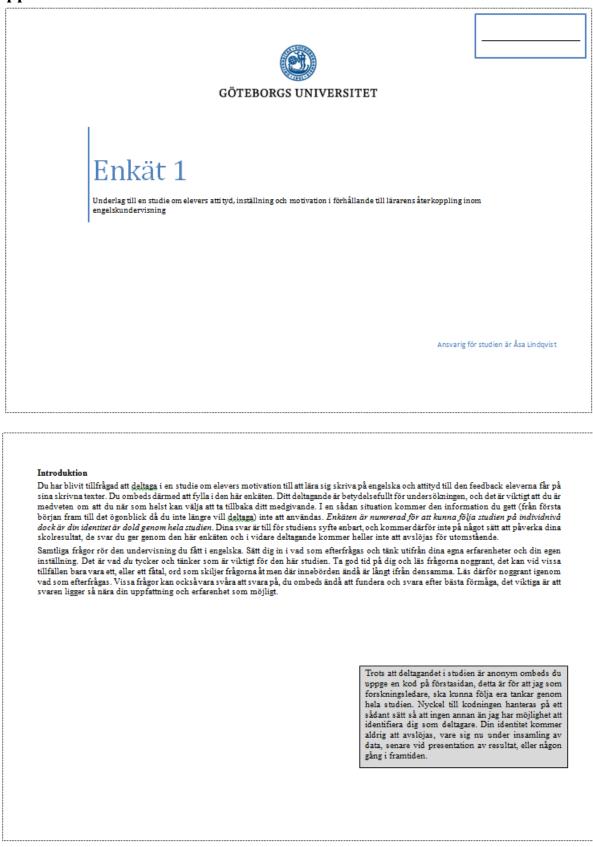
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Appendices

Appendix A



				ulle känna och tänka i en sådan situation.
Scenario: En dag går du till en lektion som är väldigt viktig för	e din ook een d	u cillor musi-	+ Din lässer	lämnas tillhalta att stässa usan sam at 1-6 413
En dag gar du till en lektion som af valdigt viktig for under terminen. Läraren har betygsatt provet. Du f		u gillar mycke	t. Din larare	lamnar tillbaka ett storre prov som ni haft tid:
Senare under dagen, när du är på väg hemåt kliver		-	-	
Väl hemma efter en lång dag bestämmer du dig för	att ringa din ba	asta van ior a	tt få ventile	ta dina upplevelser av dagen, men du bir diss
Hur skulle du tänka om detta hände dig?				
Nu vill ing off du välige off alformationer dan som	namar die bij	et gällende J	n unefatt-	ing om din ogen intelligens
Nu vill jag att du väljer <u>ett</u> alternativ nedan som	-			
 Din intelligensnivå är en av dina grundlägge Du kan lära dig nya saker, men du kan eger 		-	-	
 Oavsett hur intelligent du är, så kan du allti 	-		-	
• Du kan alltid förändra din intelligensnivå av				
	Rin	ga in, kryssa,	eller stryk u	nder det alternativ som passar din uppfattning
	Ja, verkligen			Nei, absolut inte
1. Jag tycker att goda kunskaper i engelska är vikti				
Varför/varför inte?				
	– Ja, v <u>erklig</u> en			Nei, absolutinte
2. Jag är motiverad att bli bättre på engelska:				
Varför/varför inte?				
3. Jag tycker att engelskundervisningen i skolan		iet att lära mig	; det jag bek	
	Ja, ve <u>rktlig</u> en			Nei, absolutinte
Om inte, förklara varför				
	In an deliver			Mri shashtinta
4. Jag tycker att engelska är ett lätt språk att lära si	Ja, verktigen ig:			Nei, absolut inte
	Ja, verktligen			Nei, absolut inte
Jag tycker att jag är mycket bra på engelska:				

□ läser jag igenom för att se vad jag kan förbättra, lärarens rättning och k		-	-	
⊐ögnar jag igenom men fokuserar på om jag fått något slags betyg eller ⊃ögnar jag igenom men fokuserar på om jag fått något slags betyg eller		-		
⊐ ogna jag tgenom men tokusatar på om jag tatt något stågs betyg ener i ⊐ läser jag igenom och blir modfälld, jag förstår inte hur jag ska förbättra		jamiora med	i norgare rai	unngar jag tau unbaca.
⊐ noei jag ijenom oen om meanand, jag rorstal me nar jag ina roroada ⊐ brvr jag mig inte så mvcket utan väljer att "arkivera" den.				
□ Annat				
Om annat, vad?				
	Ja, verktigen			Nei, absolut inte
 Jag tror att min hjärnas kapacitet är oändlig: 		\Box		
	Ja, ve <u>rk</u> tigen			Nei, absolut inte
 Jag tror att jag kan påverka min hjärnas kapacitet genom träning: 	Ja, verkligen			Nei, absolut inte
Jag tror att alla människors hjärnkapacitet är oändliga:				
	Ja, verktigen			Nei, absolut inte
 Jag tror att alla människor kan påverka sin hjärnkapacitet genom ti 	-			
5. Jag tror att min hjärna kan bli full:	Ja, ve <u>tklig</u> en			Nei, absolut inte
		_		

	Ja, ve <u>rktlig</u> en			Nei, absolut inte
. Jag gillar uppgifter där jag kan välja bland alternativ, ex flervalsfrå	igor:	_	_	_
	Ja, verkcligen			Nei, absolut inte
). Min motivationsnivå för att lära mig engelska i skolan är:	Hög			
9. Min motivationsnivå för att lära mig engelska på fritiden (utöver s	kolrelaterade uppgifte	r) är:		
	Hög			
Om så är fallet, genom vilka medel lär du dig engelska på fritiden? (ex		filmer/series	r, annat)	
Slutligen vill jag att du svarar enligt egen uppfattning vilket av följ alternativ är tillräckligt är det okej att ge fler alternativ, men i s (passar minst)	c online spel, otextade	passar in bä	st på dig. (Dm du inte tycker att ett
Slutligen vill jag att du svarar enligt egen uppfattning vilket av följ alternativ är tillräckligt är det okej att ge fler alternativ, men i s (passar minst) Jag tycker bäst om (välj ett alternativ):	c online spel, otextade	passar in bä rangordnar (st på dig. (dina svar, i	Dm du inte tycker att ett från 1 (passar bäst) till 4
Slutligen vill jag att du svarar enligt egen uppfattning vilket av följ: alternativ är tillräckligt är det okej att ge fler alternativ, men i s (passar minst) Jag tycker bäst om (välj ett alternativ): □ svåra uppgifter, de sporrar mig och jag lär mig genom att ænstränga n	ande påståenden som å fall vill jag att du n	passar in bä angordnar ()ll om jag lyci	st på dig. (dina svar, i	Dm du inte tycker att ett från 1 (passar bäst) till 4
Om så är fallet, genom vilka medel lär du dig engelska på fritiden? (ex Slutligen vill jag att du svarar enligt egen uppfattning vilket av följ: alternativ är tillräckligt är det okej att ge fler alternativ, men i s (passar minst) Jag tycker bäst om (välj ett alternativ): □ svåra uppgifter, de sporrar mig och jag lär mig genom att anstränga n □ uppgifter som är svåra för andra men som är lätta för mig, de kan jag □ enkla uppgifter som går snabbt att göra, huvudsaken är att jag får ett l	ande påståenden som å fall vill jag att du n nig. Det spelar ingen ro lösa snabbt och briljer	passar in bä angordnar ()ll om jag lyci a med.	st på dig. (dina svar, f kas eller int	Dm du inte tycker att ett från 1 (passar bäst) till 4 e.

Appendix B

Namn: Enkät om elevers tankar och attityder i relation till feedback inom engelskundervisningen

Den här undersökningen utförs i regi av Åsa Lindqvist för Göteborgs Universitet för att bättre förstå elevers tankar och attityder till det engelska språket och den feedback de får av sina lärare. Vänligen läs igenom instruktionerna och besvara frågorna. Det här är inte ett test så det finns inget "rätt" eller "fel", resultaten från din enkät används endast i forskningssyfte så svara ärligt på frågorna. Vänligen läs igenom när du är klar så att du inte lämnar någon fråga obesvarad. Tack för din hjälp!

Nej, absolut inte			J	a, verklig	en
1	2	3		4	
Ex: Om du verkligen	håller med, gör såhär				
Jag gillar soppa		1	2	3	4

Del I

I den här delen vill jag att du berättar hur mycket eller lite du håller med i de följande påståendena genom att ringa in ett nummer mellan 1 och 4

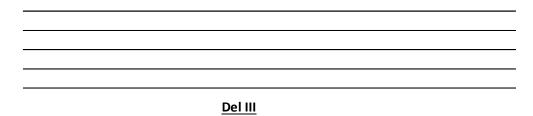
	joijanae pastaenaena genom att ringa in ett	numme	er mend	<i>IN 1 OCH 4</i>	
1	Att lära mig engelska är viktigt för mig	1	2	3	4
2	Min familj uppmuntrar mig att lära mig engelska	1	2	3	4
3	Jag blir glad när jag hör människor tala engelska	1	2	3	4
4	Jag är mycket intresserad av andra kulturers seder	1	2	3	4
5	Om en engelskkurs erbjöds vid universitetet eller någon				
J	annanstans i framtiden, skulle jag ta den	1	2	3	4
6	Att studera engelska kan vara viktigt för mig eftersom jag				
Ũ	tror att det kommer att vara till nytta i att få ett bra jobb	1	2	3	4
7	Om jag anstränger mig mer, så är jag säker på att jag		-	-	
,	kommer att bemästra det engelska språket	1	2	3	4
8	Jag måste lära mig engelska, för utan godkänt i engelska		_	-	
0	kommer jag inte att få ett bra slutbetyg	1	2	3	4
9	Jag gillar atmosfären (känslan) i min engelskklass	1	2	3	4
10	Jag tror att jag kan bli bättre på att läsa och förstå de				
10	flesta texter på engelska om jag jobbar på det	1	2	3	4
11	Jag tycker att skillnaderna mellan det svenska och det				
11	engelska vokabuläret är intressant	1	2	3	4
40	Jag är beredd att lägga ner mycket energi på att lära mig				
12	att bli så bra som möjligt i engelska	1	2	3	4
13	Jag är säker på att jag kommer att kunna skriva på				
13	engelska med ett "flow" om jag jobbar på det	1	2	3	4
14	Jag ser mig själv som någon som är bra på att skriva på				
14	engelska	1	2	3	4
15	Jag ser alltid fram emot lektionerna i engelska	1	2	3	4
16	Jag gör mitt bästa på lektionerna för att lära mig engelska	1	2	3	4
17	Jag gör mitt bästa med ev. läxor för att lära mig engelska	1	2	3	4
18	Jag blir ängslig och/eller nervös när jag ska tala				
18	engelska inför klassen	1	2	3	4
19	Jag tycker om att lära mig engelska	1	2	3	4
					,

Del II

Här följer nya frågor men följ anvisningarna från del I och besvara dessa frågor på samma sätt som innan

20 20 att skriva på engelska	1	2	3	4
1 0	-	2	5	
Jag tycker att det är viktigt att kunna uttrycka sig i skrift 21 på engelska	1	2	3	4
22 Jag lär mig mest om läraren pekar ut och rättar fel i texten	1	2	3	4
Jag lär mig mest om läraren inte pekar ut och rättar fel i				
 Jag lär mig mest om läraren inte pekar ut och rättar fel i texten utan hellre skriver en sammanfattande kommentar 	1	2	3	4
Jag lär mig mycket av att redigera texten efter lärarens				
24 feedback	1	2	3	4
Jag redigerar inte bara det läraren har kommenterat utan				
25 läser alltid igenom texten i jakt på fler saker jag göra för				
att förbättra den				
Jag förstår inte alltid den feedback som jag får på mina				
26 texter	1	2	3	4
27 Jag skulle vilja ha mer skriftlig feedback från läraren	1	2	3	4
Jag tycker att skriftlig feedback är onödig, jag lär mig inte				
28 så mycket ifrån den	1	2	3	4
Om jag fick välja så skulle jag ändra på sättet jag får				
29 feedback på mina texter				

Om du vill ändra på sättet du får feedback, vad skulle du vilja ändra på och till vad?



Slutligen vill jag att du värderar dina kunskaper i engelska, sätt ett kryss i marginalen för den nivå du anser dig vara på

"Upper Intermediate Level and Over"

Kan konversera om generella ämnen som berör det dagliga livet och ämnen inom det egna särintresset samt förstå det sammantagna innehållet i föreläsningar och media. Kan läsa och förstå svårare läsmaterial såsom nyhetstidningar samt kunna skriva med flyt om personliga idéer.

"Intermediate Level"

Kan konversera om generella ämnen som berör det dagliga livet. Kan läsa och förstå läsmaterial relterat till det dagliga livet och skriva enklare arbeten.

"Lower Intermediate Level"

Kan konversera om bekanta ämnen som berör det dagliga livet. Kan läsa och förstå material som berör bekanta vardagliga ämnen och skriva enklare brev.

"Post-Beginner Level"

Kan hålla enklare konversationer så som hälsningsfraser och korta, enkla konversationer. Kan läsa och förstå enklare material och skriva enklare texter i engelska på grundnivå.

"Beginner Level"

Kan enklare hälsningsfraser med enklare fraser. Kan läsa enklare meningar, förstå innebörden av kortare textpassager och skriva enklare meningar på engelska (grundnivå).

65 Tack för din medverkan!

Appendix C



GÖTEBORGS UNIVERSITET

Det här är den sista enkäten i en serie tre som undersöker elevers inställning och attityd till språkundervisningen i engelska och den feedback de får däri på skriftliga arbeten. Undersökningen utförs i regi av Åsa Lindqvist för Göteborgs. Vänligen läs igenom instruktionerna och besvara frågorna. Det här är inte ett test så det finns inget "rätt" eller "fel", resultaten från din enkät används endast i forskningssyfte så svara ärligt på frågorna. Varje nytt frågestycke börjar med fet text, så var uppmärksam. Dina svar behandlas, liksom tidigare anonymt. Vänligen läs igenom när du är klar så att du inte lämnar någon fråga obesvarad.

Tack för din hjälp!

/Åsa Lindqvist

Kompletterande bakgrundsfrågor:
Min mamma jobbar med
Min pappa jobbar med
Ev. bonusföräldrar
Hemma talar jag ett annat modersmål än svenska, nämligen
Jag har antal syskon, varav fortfarande bor hemma.

När du besvarar dessa påståenden och frågor så ombeds du att svara utifrån hur du känner nu, försök alltså att hålla dig till nuet och svara efter hur du känner just idag.

I den här delen ombeds du att svara enligt en hundrastegad skala:

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Kan in	te alls			Ka	n någelu	nda			Mycket s	äker på
									att	jag kan

Använd det tal som kommer närmast din uppfattning och skriv in det på raden efter påståendet.

Jag kan komma på flera idéer för mitt skrivande	
Jag kan få ner mina idéer på papper	
Jag kan komma på många ord för att beskriva mina idéer	
Jag kan komma på en hel del originella (egna) idéer	
Jag vet exakt var i min text jag ska placera mina idéer	
Jag kan stava orden jag använder korrekt	
Jag kan formulera/skriva fullständiga meningar	
Jag kan använda skiljetecken (kommatecken, punkt, etc) på ett korrekt sätt	
Jag kan skriva grammatiskt korrekta meningar	
Jag kan börja nya stycken på rätt ställe i texten	
Jag kan fokusera på min text i minst en timme	
Jag kan undvika distraktioner medan jag skriver	
Jag kan komma igång med en skrivuppgift snabbt	
Jag kan kontrollera min frustration när jag skriver	
Jag kan använda mig av olika skrivstrategier för min text	
Jag kan fortsätta skriva även när det är svårt	
Jag är öppen för feedback som kan hjälpa mig att förbättra min text	

Nu vill jag att du väljer <u>ett</u> alternativ nedan som passar dig <u>bäst</u> för hur du tänker om din uppfattning om din egen intelligens idag.

- Din intelligensnivå är en av dina grundläggande förutsättningar som du inte kan göra mycket åt för att förändra.
- Du kan lära dig nya saker, men du kan egentligen inte förändra hur intelligent du är.
- Oavsett hur intelligent du är, så kan du alltid förändra det ganska mycket.
- Du kan alltid förändra din intelligensnivå avsevärt, oavsett hur intelligent du är.

Ringa in, kryssa, eller stryk under det alternativ som passar din uppfattning bäst.

Använd kryssrutorna för att besvara följande påståenden

Min motivationsnivå för att lära mig engelska i skolan är:

	Hög			Låg
Jag tror att min hjärnas kapacitet är oä	indlig:			
	Ja, verkligen			Nej, absolut inte
Jag tror att jag kan påverka min hjärna	as kapacitet gen	om träning:		
	Ja, verkligen			Nej, absolut inte
Jag tror att alla människors hjärnkapad	citet är oändliga	1:		
	Ja, verkligen			Nej, absolut inte
Jag tror att alla människor kan påverk	a sin hjärnkapao	citet genom t	räning:	
	Ja, verkligen			Nej, absolut inte
Jag tror att min hjärna kan bli full:				
	Ja, verkligen			Nej, absolut inte

När jag får tillbaka en rättad skriftlig uppgift så:

 \Box läser jag igenom för att se vad jag kan förbättra, lärarens rättning och kommentarer hjälper mig att bli bättre på att skriva.

 \Box ögnar jag igenom men fokuserar på om jag fått något slags betyg eller omdöme som jag kan jämföra med mina klasskamrater.

 \Box ögnar jag igenom men fokuserar på om jag fått något slags betyg eller omdöme som jag kan jämföra med tidigare rättningar jag fått tillbaka.

 \Box läser jag igenom men förstår ändå inte hur jag ska förbättra mina texter.

□ bryr jag mig inte så mycket utan väljer att "arkivera" den.

 \Box Annat

Om annat, vad?

Appendix D



Inledning

Detta formulär för medgivande är utskrivet till vårdnadshavare för den grupp elever som bjudits in att delta i forskningsprojektet "Återkoppling och motivation – En studie med fokus på elevens motivationsnivå i relation till fokuserad återkoppling i ett socialt-kognitivt perspektiv ". Studien utförs av Åsa Lindqvist student vid fakulteten för Språk och Litteraturer vid Göteborgs universitet.

Syfte och genomförande

Syftet med studien är att undersöka aspekter av återkopplingens roll i undervisningen av engelska på svensk gymnasienivå. Fokus ligger på elevens uppfattning om den egna förmågan i relation till lärarens återkoppling.

Studien kommer att utföras genom skriftliga enkäter som rör elevernas attityd till, och känslor inför, rättning och bedömning. Ett antal observationer kommer också att utföras som komplement till enkäterna.

Frivilligt deltagande samt anonymitet

Elevgruppens deltagande i denna studie är helt och hållet frivillig. Det är den enskilda elevens val om hen önskar deltaga eller inte. Deltagandet har ingen påverkan på framtida betyg, detsamma gäller för beslutet att inte deltaga.

Medverkan är helt och hållet anonym, detsamma gäller alla svar och liknande underlag som ges i den här studien (genom enkät/observation). Ingen identifikationsmarkör av deltagarnas identitet kommer under några omständigheter att avslöjas.

Det deltagande och det underlag som just er skolungdom kan bidraga med är av mycket stort värde för studien.

Om du/ni har några frågor gällande den förestående studien, kan du ställa dem nu eller senare. Det går då bra att kontakta mig, Åsa Lindqvist, via email <u>guslinase@student.gu.se</u>

*-----

Jag har läst ovanstående information. Jag har haft möjlighet att ställa frågor om studien, och alla eventuella frågor som jag har, har besvarats till min belåtenhet. Jag samtycker till att låta aktuell skolelev deltaga i ovannämnda studie.

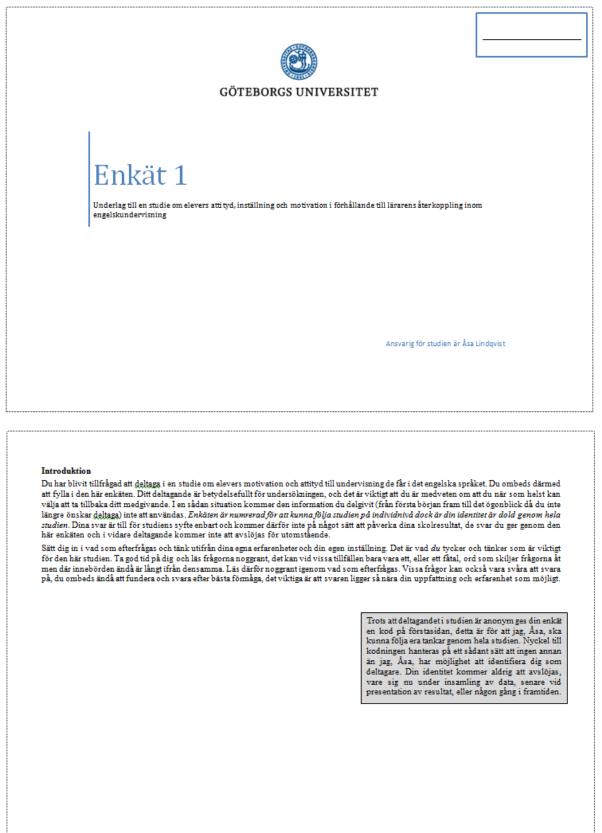
Textat namn på aktuell skolelev: _____

Textat namn på vårdnadshavare: _____

Signatur, vårdnadshavare: _____

Plats och datum: _____

Appendix E



år du till ett möte med din chef på ett jobb som är väldigt viktig för dig och som du gillar mycket. Det är ett lönesamtal, din che din nya lönegrad med orden (bland annat) att du har ""en del förbättringsområden"
nder dagen, när du är på väg hemåt kliver några biljettkontrollanter på bussen just du sitter på
ma efter en lång dag bestämmer du dig för att ringa din bästa vän för att få ventilera dina upplevelser av dagen, men du blir avspisad,
lle du tänka om detta hände dig?
lle du tänka om detta hände dig?
lle du tänka om detta hände dig?
lle du tänka om detta hände dig?
lle du tänka om detta hände dig?
alternativ nedan som passar dig bäst gällande din uppfattning om intelligens.

1. Jag tror att min hj	ärnkapacitet är oändlig:	Ja, ve <i>ti</i> cligen			Nei, absolut inte
2. Jag tror att alla männ	iskors hjärnkapacitet är oändliga, oavsett grundf	örutsättningar:			
		Ja. verkligen			Nei, a bsotut inte
 Jag tror att jag kan 	n påverka min hjärnas kapacitet genom träning:	Ja, verktligen			Nei, absolut inte
4. Jag tror att jag kan	n påverka andra märniskors hjärnkapacitet:	Ja, veskligen			Nei, absolut inte
5. Jag tror att min hj	ärna kan bli full:	Ja, ve <i>s</i> kligen			Nei, absolut inte
 Jag gillar arbetsuppgi 	ifter där man måste diskutera och motivera sina	svar, ex analysfråg	or eller upps	atser:	
		Ja, verkligen			Nei, absolut inte
 Jag gillar uppgifte 	er där man kan välja bland alternativ, ex flervalsfrå	Ja, verkligen ågor:			Nei, absolutinte
bäst på dig. Om du inte	ätter dig in i elevens situation och svarar enligt tycker att ett alternativ är tillräckligt är det (r bäst) till 4 (passar minst)Jag tycker bäst om (v	okej att ge fler alte			
	orrar mig och jag lär mig genom att anstränga mig.			kas eller int	e.
	i för andra men som är lätta för mig, de kan jag lös	-			
🗆 enkla uppgifter som g	år snabbt att göra, huvudsaken är att jag får ett bra	betyg och inte hur n	nycket jag lä	r mig på vä	gen.
	vilka jag behöver analysera och reflektera över	ämnet, betyg är m	indre viktigt	. Att lära n	nig och utvecklas är mitt
huvudmal.					
huvudmål.					

Appendix F

What do you think makes a good essay? Describe your experience of learning the English language at school and home? Describe your experience of learning about how to write in English? How do you feel about writing in English? How do you feel about writing in your language? What are your strengths as a writer? What are your weaknesses? How has your writing changed since beginning school? If so, how? How do you start the writing process for an essay? What types of writing strategies have you learned about so far? What writing strategies do you use? What is your plan for completing writing assignments? If you need to make changes to your plan, what do you do? What steps to you take to make sure you are sticking to the plan? If you are not, what do you do? What type of feedback do you prefer? That from your teacher or from your peers? Is there anything else you would like to add?