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**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

# AN ASSESSMENT OF FEEDBACK GIVEN BY TRAINED AND UNTRAINED PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS DURING PRACTICAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION LESSONS IN BASIC SCHOOLS AT THE HOHOE DISTRICT, VOLTA REGION.

MBIBA NOAH KOFI

**DECEMBER 2015.**

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**7130090009**

A Dissertation in the Department of Health, Physical Education Recreation and Sports of the Faculty of Science Education, submitted to the school of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Degree of Master of Education (Physical Education).

**DECEMBER, 2015.**

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## DECLARATION

### STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Mbiba Noah Kofi, hereby declare that except for references to other people's writing which have been duly cited and acknowledge, this project is a result of my own work, and that it has not been previously submitted cited in part or whole for another degree elsewhere.

**SIGNATURE: ……**

**DATE: ……..**

### SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I, Dr Patrick BoafoAkuffo, hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this project work was supervised by me in accordance with the guidelines of supervision of projects laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

**SIGNATURE: …….**

**DATE: ……..**

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The researcher wishes to express his profound gratitude to the numerous individuals who in diverse ways contributed to the success of this study. I express my profound gratitude to my inspiring supervisor Dr. Patrick BoafoAkuffo, a Lecturer at the Department of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Sports (HPERS), University of Education, Winnebawhose corrections, directions, advice and encouragement have brought this research work to a successful end. I also wish to express appreciation to all lecturers especially. Dr. W.W Agbeko, the administrator and Mr. Courage Adenyo a national service personnel in the HPERS Department for the wonderful contributions they made towards this research work. Finally, I would like to thank my wife, children, family and friends for their support and encouragement throughout my second degree course. Without them this dream would not have been achieved. Thank you all for always being there for me and supporting my efforts. It will be very difficult for me to mention everybody who offered me a help in this study. Thank you all and may the good Lord bless and reward you.

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## DEDICATION

This Dissertation is dedicated to my wife Mrs. MbibaAfia Janet and my children MbibaKwaku Felix, Mbiba B. Frank, Mbiba John Mensah, Mbiba Martha, MbibaBaanePreciuos and Mbiba Emmanuel Ogagya for their support and prayers to me during the course of study.

May God grant us long life and good health.

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS


| Content | Page |
|---|---|
| DECLARATION…… | i |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENT…… … | ii |
| DEDICATION…… | iii |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS…… | iv |
| LIST OF TABLES…… …… | vii |
| ABSTRACT…… | viii |
| **CHAPTER ONE**…… | 1 |
| INTRODUCTION…… | 1 |
| 1.0 Background of the Study…… | 1 |
| 1.1 Statement of the Problem…… | 4 |
| 1.2 Purpose of the Study…… | 4 |
| 1.3 Research Objectives…… | 4 |
| 1.4 Research Questions……..... | 5 |
| 1.5 Significance of the Study…… | 5 |
| 1.6 Delimitation of the Study…… | 6 |
| 1.7 Limitation of the Study…… | 6 |
| 1.8 Definition of Terms…… | 6 |

University of Education,Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

**CHAPTER TWO**…… ….. 8

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE…… 8

2.1 Theoretical Framework…….. 8

2.1.1 The Concept of Teaching …….. 9

2.1.2The Concept of Leaning ……. 11

22.2.1 The Meaning of Feedback …… 14

2.2.2 Types of Feedback……. 17

2.2.2.1 Positive and Negative Feedbacks ……. 17

2.2.2.3 General and Specific Feedbacks…….. 18

2.2.2.4 Other Feedbacks Classified……. 23

2.3.1 Effects of Feedback on Students' Learning……..…… 26

2.4.0 Summary of Literature Reviewed…… 35

**CHAPTER THREE…… 38**

METHODOLOGY……. 38

3.1 Research Design……... 38

3.2 Population……..…….. 39

3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique……. 39

3.4 Instrumentation……. 40

University of Education,Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

3.4.1 Validity and Reliability of Instrument……. 41

3.6 Data Collection Procedure…… 42

3.7 Data Analysis Procedure……..…… 42

**CHAPTER FOUR…….. 43**

RESULTS FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION …….. 43

4.0 Introduction ……. 43

4.1 Findings…….. 48

Discussion of findings ……. 40

**CHAPTER FIVE …… 54**

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS…… 54

5.1 Introduction……. 54

5.2 Summary…….... 54

5.3 Findings……..... 55

5.4 Conclusions……..... 56

5.5 Recommendations…….. 56

5.6 Suggestions for Future Research …… . 57

REFERENCES…….. 58

APPENDICES …… 62

University of Education,Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

# LIST OF TABLES


| Content | | Page |
|---|---|---|
| Table 4.1: | Gender of respondents…… | 43 |
| Table 4.2: | Teaching experience of respondents…… | 43 |
| Table 4.3: | Leadership Style of respondents…… | 44 |
| Table 4.4: | Mean Rating of trained and Untrained P.E. Teachers…….. … | 45 |

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to assess how trained and untrained physical education teachers give feedback during practical physical education lessons in basic schools at the Hohoe District of Volta Region.Descriptive research design was uses for the study. The population was made of all physical education teachers in basic school at Hohoe District, Volta Region.The sample comprised thirty teachers, fifteen trained and fifteen untrained in physical education. The trained physical education teachers received their training in only two Universities in Ghana that offer physical education at the moment; thus University of Education, Winneba (UEW) and University of Cape Coast (UCC). The untrained teachers are pupil teachers and teachers from colleges of education. Purposive sampling was used to select trainedphysical educationteachers for the study because they were few. Random sampling was used to select untrained physical education teachers because of their large number. Four research questions were formulated to guide the study. Questionnaire were distributed to the trained and untrained physical education teachers as a source of data. Means, standard deviations and percentages were employed in the data analysis.The instrument had face validity from the researcher‘s supervisor. The reliability value was 0.73 which showed a high level of consistency. The researcher administered the questionnaire to thirty (30) trained and untrained Physical Education teachers in the Hohoe District.Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 for windows 2007. The data were collated and coded using frequency counts and percentages. The data were then tabulated and discussed briefly.Findings showed that there was a difference between trained and untrained physical education teachers based on the mean, standard deviation and percentages

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obtained as far as feedback is concerned.Based on the findings the following recommendations were made. Teachers should provide positive, specific and concurrent feedbacks to create more stimulating learning environment for learners. Teachers should avoid insulting learners during practical physical education lessons as feedback as well as giving negative feedback. Physical education should be made a compulsory subject at the college of education throughout the course of the study. The number of periods on the teaching time table for physical education should be increased at the college of education so that, trainees will acquire more knowledge about how to teach physical education.

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# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.0 Background to the Study

The old adage that ~~"a~~ sound mind is always found in a healthy body" summarizes the ever importance of Physical Education( PE) in fact, the importance of PE and its benefits to every human being as regards the running of our day to day activities cannot be overemphasized. Participation in regular sporting activities for fitness and recreational purposes is of great importance to educators of the subject.

Volta region is one of the ten (10) administrative regions bounded between Northern, Eastern, Greater Accra regions of Ghana and the Republic of Togo. The region comprises of twenty-five (25) sub administrative municipalities and districts including the Hohoe District.This district is located in the Northern part of the region with the administrative centre atHohoe which is located along the Jasikan-Accra road. Hohoe has a population of thirteen thousand, seven hundred and eighty-five (13,785) residents according to the 2013 population census.The town has a large number of pre- schools, one hundred and eleven (111)primary schools, eighty eight (88) Junior High Schools, eight (8) Senior High Schools, two (2) Colleges of Education and aNursing Training Institution.

All public schools are obliged to teach PE as a core subject in the school curriculum. Evidence of teaching must be shown on school timetables and planned lesson notes by all teachers at the basic schools especially.

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There are two different types of physical education teachers in the various basicschools; the trained Physical Education teachers and the untrained Physical Education teachers. All teachers are obligated to teach PE lessons.As asserted by Siedentop and Elder(1989) ―Those who suggest that anybody can teach, know little either about teaching research or about realities of today‘s schools‖.However, lesson planning, presentation and review in physical education are characteristics which should be exhibited by a professionally trained physical education teacher. The International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education (ICSSPE), observed that, too often physical education teachers in the schools are untrained for the subject and some conduct physical education lessons as a supervised play. Physical education is taught by the classroom teacher who has had little or no training in physical education (ICSSPE, 1999. 119).

By obliging untrained teachers to teach the subject, it is obvious that there will be evidence of lapses in teaching methodology. Hunter (2004) established that, the teacher is a significant factor in affecting the learning experiences of young people in the physical education programme as they make and enact many of the curriculum, pedagogical and assessment decisions.

Untrained physical education teachers who are mandated to teach physical education in addition to their main subject‘s areas refuse to plan for PE lessons. Even when they do they may not follow the syllabus strictly because of their limited knowledge of the subject. Recent studies on teacher education have labeled teachers‘ knowledge with different categories. Pedagogical content knowledge has gradually evolved into a generic term for teachers‘ professional knowledge (Amade-Escot, 2000). Lee, Chon, Che(1993) noted that although teachers‘ use of feedback is generally accepted as an essential

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teaching function, its real contribution may not be as prominent as one believed. However, there is evidence that successful/appropriate skills trait are more likely to occur if teachers' feedback immediately prior to them was specific and congruent (e.g. Pellet & Harrison, 1995). Feedback/reward is an aspect which is critical in learning. It is concerned with providing the learner with information about his/her performance.

The teaching of physical education in the schools requires the use of pedagogical skills in order to attain the goals of physical education. According to Dauer and Pangrazi (1992), the goals of physical education are to ~~–a~~ssist each learner to develop an optimum level of health and well-being to acquire attitudes, knowledge and movement skills that will lead to lifelong participation in enjoyable and wholesome physical activity".

To achieve the goals of physical education in the schools, there is the need to look at how effective teaching is. Effective teaching involves the use of correct methods of teaching to enable students learn effectively. During practical physical education lessons, teachers interact with students either as behaviour interaction or skill interaction. Skill interaction refers to teacher feedback statements directed at performance by students. Thus, regular feedback on students' tasks during practical physical education lessons enhanceslearning. Physical education teachers, as professionals as they are, must use effective teacher feedback when teaching physical education lessons.

**1.1 Statement of the Problem**

Effective teachers usually develop and adopt scientific methods of teaching variables that have received a great attention. Feedback is information provided to learners about their performance. Paese (1987), pointed out that ~~–f~~eedback has been one of the targeted variables of teaching because it is seen to be as important as the actual skill practice". On

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the basis of motor learning, research and theory, Paese (1987) argued that, physical educators have assumed that information on performance is an essential ingredient of effective instruction in physical education.

However, the use of teacher feedback in practical physical education lessons has not been given sufficient attention in solving the challenges that the subject faces in its development at the basic schools level. It is the pre- research assumption that, when attention is drawn on teacher feedback on students learning, some progress can be made in the advancement of PE. It is on this basis that this study is sets out to assess the effectiveness of the teacher feedback process between the two categories of teachers at the basic school level to identify the differences found by these teachers in PE lesson delivery.

**1.2Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study is to find out the differences that exist between how trained and untrained physical education teachers at the basic school level in the Hohoe District in the Volta Region provide feedback to students during physical education lessons.

**1.3Objectives of the study**

The following specific objectives were to find out;

1. The types of feedbacks given by trained and untrained P. E teachers.
2. Howtrained Physical education teacher‘s feedbackhelps improve instruction in the classroom.
3. Howuntrained Physical education teacher‘s feedback helps improve instruction in the classroom.
4. The differences that exist betweentrained and untrained P. E.teachers feedback.

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## 1.4Research Questions

The following research questions were answered;

1. What are the types of feedbacks given by trained and untrained P. E teachers during practical lessons?
2. What feedbacksdo trained Physical education teachers give to help improve instruction in the classroom?
3. What feedbacks do untrained Physical education teachers give to help improve instruction in the classroom?
4. What differences exist between trained and untrained P.E teachers feedback during practical lessons?

## 1.5 Significance of the Study

The results of the study will be significant to students, parents and guardians, who consider P.E. as a career opportunity because P.E .helps in developing talented students and for physical fitness

The results will help unearth the disparities arising between trained P.E. teachers and untrained P.E. teachers. It will also guide supervisors at the education offices who are not physical educators to understand how trained P.E. and untrained P.E. teachers teach their classes. Also, the stake holders of education in Ghana will also draw lessons from the finding to aid them in designing holistic educational policies and programmes for schools in Ghana.

Finally, the research will add to academic knowledge by documenting facts for students, teachers, researchers and the general public. It may be a stepping stone to future

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researchers who may wish to write on similar topics or the same topic, but this time, to cover a wider geographical area, for example, a whole district or region.

### 1.6 Delimitation

The study is delimited to trained and untrained P.E. teachers in basic schools at the Hohoe District of Volta region.

### 1.7 Limitations of the study

The tentacles of this research should have been broadened to the senior high schools in the Hohoe district but due to time, the researcher limited himself to only physical education teachers at the basic schoolslevel in the Hohoe District of Volta Region. The limitation was also due to the fact that the researcher had to combine his normal heavy schedule with this research study. However, it is believed that the findings in this district will be a true reflection of what happens elsewhere in Ghana.

### 1.8 Definition of Terms

- **Concurrent feedback** : Is a type of feedback given to learners during performance of a task
- **Corrective feedback:** A type of feedback that redirect a learner to collect a task or an action.
- **Feedback/Reward**: When teacher gives information to the learner about his (learner) performance either verbally or non-verbally.
- **General feedback:** A type of feedback that is given to learners and does not specify what was correct or wrong about a task or an action.
- **Negative feedback**: A type of feedback given to learners that tells them what was wrong about the task.

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- **Positive feedback**: A type of feedback given to learners that tells them what was correct about an action or a task.
- **Specific feedback**: A type of feedback given to learners about the learning goal with reference to the task or the processing of the task.
- **Terminal feedback**: A type of feedback teachers uses to assess or evaluate learners after performance of a task.
- **Trained P. E Teacher**. Anybody who has undergone a study of physical education in a University for a period of not less than six semesters.
- **Untrained .E. Teacher**: Anybody who has not undergone any training in P.E in any University.

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# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.0 Introduction

The purpose of the study is to describe how trained and untrained teachers provide feedback to students during physical education lessons. This chapter is concentrated on the review of relevant literature pertinent to the area of study. The researcher has therefore reviewed previous studies, observations, opinions and comments related to this research. In this chapter, the researcher therefore reviewed the literature to the study under the following guides:

1. Theoretical Framework
2. Meaning and Types of feedback
3. Effects of Teacher Feedback on Students' Learning

## 2.1 Theoretical Framework

Conceptual frameworks (theoretical framework) are a type of intermediate theory that attempt to connect all aspects of enquiry. It is a thought pattern and acts like a map that gives coherence to empirical inquiry. Feedback is a fundamental aspect of everyday teaching. Teachers provide feedback to students all day, with the aim of contributing to the students' learning. Researchers from all over the world, for instance from New Zealand (Hattie &Timperley, 2007), the United States (Black &Wiliam, 1998), Sweden (Shute, 2008), the Netherlands (Voerman, Meijer,

Korthagen, & Simons, 2012a), the United Kingdom (Hounsell, McCune, Hounsell, &Litjens, 2008), and Germany (Brand, Reimer, &Opwis, 2007) acknowledge the

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importance of feedback. They all discussed the importance of feedback in enhancing learning. Hattie (1999) described feedback as one of the most influential factors in learning – as powerful, for instance, as the quality of instruction. Hence, research findings on feedback can and should have an impact on teacher feedback in the classroom.

The aim of feedback is generally described as being to close the gap between current performance and a goal, and effective (learning-enhancing) feedback is described as specific and goal-related (Alder, 2007; Black &Wiliam, 1998; Duijnhouwer, 2010; Hattie & Feedback is probably the best-tested principle in psychology. It is … most effective when it is timely, perceived as relevant, meaningful and encouraging, and offers suggestions for improvement that are within a student‘s grasp (Brown, Bull, &Pendlebury, 1997).

Feedback is any response made in relation to students‘ work such as an assessment task, a performance or product. It can be given by a teacher, an external assessor or a student peer. It is usually spoken or written. Feedback is intended to acknowledge the progress students have made towards achieving the learning outcomes of a unit. Good feedback is also constructive, and points students to ways in which they can improve their learning and achievement. Providing a mark or a grade only, even with a brief comment like ―good work" or ―you need to improve" is rarely helpful. Here are more examples of unhelpful feedback (Chamberlain, Dison& Button, 1998).

### 2.1.1 The Concept of Teaching.

The premise behind the field of teaching has produced and will continue to yield growing bodies of knowledge which does not grow naturally or inexorably. It is produced through

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the inquires of scholars (theorists and practitioners) and it is therefore a function of the kinds of questions asked, problems posed, and issues framed by those who do research on teaching (Gage,1978). The Oxford Advance Dictionary defines the word ‗teach' as to give lessons to students in schools, colleges, universities etc, and again, to help someone to learn something by given information about it. It continues to define teaching as the work of a teacher. Teaching is both an art and a science as most school of thoughts define it, (Degason – Johnson, 2003). Teaching is an art, since it demands some kind of skills to perform systematically through a process so that knowledge is imparted to an individual so as to achieve the objectives. It is also true in every aspect that teaching is a science one can build upon the skills through training. The definitions of teaching, according to Smith, (1987) also defined teaching as ―the action of a person who teaches, thus, the profession of a teacher" and ―the action of a person who imparts knowledge or skill". He further described the definitions of teaching as ―success, intentional activity, normative activity and scientific definition of teaching". He explained that, defining teaching as success means ―teaching is that which results in learning", as intentional activity means ―teaching is undertaking certain tasks or activities the intention of which is to induce learning", as normative means ―the activities of teaching conform to certain ethical conditions", and as scientific definition of teaching means ―teaching is the process of carrying out those activities that experience has shown to be effective in getting students to learn".

Smith, (1987) in a summary, generally defined teaching as ―undertaking certain ethical tasks or activities the intention of which is to induce learning".

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Teaching is therefore seen as a profession that aims at effectively imparting knowledge to pupils or students for mental and social development. Being a profession that is practiced by professionals at the various levels of education, some teachers have developed scientific methods of teaching in order to enhance students' learning. Teaching involves using a curriculum to teach students certain skills." Good teaching is based on research proven methods" (Bianca, May 23, 2011). Teachers attend school to learn to use these research proven methods to their advantage. Good teachers know how to meet the needs of the students. Each student has his or her own particular learning style. Some are auditory learners while others are visual or bodily-kinaesthetic. Good teachers are always looking for ways to improve their techniques of teaching for students learning.

**2.1.2 The Concept of Learning.**

Much progress on how people learn has been made at the turn of the last century, starting with the Thorndike's (1913) "hungry cat experiment" and Piaget's (1920) "observations" of how children learn about their world. These studies (initially known under the heading of Behavioral Sciences) provided the epistemological foundations of a new field that was emerging in the 1950's – the "Cognitive Sciences".

Piaget (1920), originally defined learning as "a mental process that depends on perception and awareness, on how additional stimuli and new ideas get integrated into the old knowledge database (a process Piaget called 'assimilation'), and on how, through reasoning (a previously acquired mental mechanism), the entire database gets re-organized which results in alterations of the mental structures and the creation of new ones (a process called 'accommodation')". With this definition adding new information is

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only the first part of learning; the whole learning process involves the integration, re-organization and creation of new mental structures.

Learning is a complex process that happens in the brain. Learning is a mental process that depends how stimuli and new ideas get integrated into the old knowledge database, and on how, through reasoning, a previously acquired mental mechanism, the entire database gets re-organized. Since learning is a continuous process this implies that the brain must also continuously restructure itself. In other words, learning changes the physical structure of the brain, and with it, the functional organization of the brain. This explains why learning always requires a major effort from the side of the student.

Students enter the classroom with already formed ideas which implies that neural circuits in the brain are already in place. Alternate conceptions have their origins in a diverse set of personal experiences, the social and religious upbringing by the extended family, language, peer culture, as well as previous teacher‘s explanations and instructional materials. There is a claim that learning is more at ease when specific thinking networks already exist and difficult if new networks have to be created. Changing students‘ prior concepts might involve the creation of new neural networks in the students‘ brains as well as the rewiring of pre-existing neural circuits. It is suggested that to form new concepts or change old inadequate ones, the student has to be led through several processes.

First, he has to consciously ―notice‖ and understand what the problem is; second, he has to ―assimilate‖ more information and try to fit it into already existing neural networks; third, he has to critically think through all the argumentation in his own words and

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reorganize this thoughts – he has to –accommodate" the knowledge and evaluate against his prior beliefs; and finally, he has to work towards –obtaining fluency" in the newly acquired concept so that this concept itself has then becomes a mere building block for future, more advanced concepts.

We are now at a time where collaborative studies among cognitive and developmental psychologists and educators are yielding new knowledge about the nature of learning and teaching.

The fundamental focus on the concept of teaching and learning involves the primary participants, that is teachers and students, who operate as individuals and also as members of a larger group, class or school. Teaching is seen as an activity involving teachers and students working jointly. The work involves the exercises of both thinking and acting on the part of all participants since teachers learn and students also teach. There is evidence of the connection between what teachers think and how they behave in a teaching situation (Shulman & Lanier, 1977). In addition, teachers' perceptions of their own efficacy and feelings of success provide the basis for teacher beliefs and ultimately teacher action (Fenstermacher, 1978). This implies that the success of teachers depend on their own attitude and behaviour. However, it is important to note that relationship exists between teaching and learning. –Teaching is what teachers do and Learning is what students do" (Smith et al. 1997). This implies that in teaching, there is the performance of activities, tasks or behaviour by the teacher and the student in order to bring about product-learning.

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### 2.2.1 The Meaning of Feedback

Teaching as a profession aims at effectively imparting knowledge or skill to individuals in order to develop them mentally, physically or socially. The science of effective teaching has constantly been developed as a result of research. Effective teachers have developed scientific methods of teaching. One teaching variable that has received a great attention is _feedback' which is information provided to learners about their performance (Paese, 1987). She pointed out that feedback has been one of the targeted variables of teaching because it is seen to be as important as the actual skill practice. One of the most important factors in the process of learning is the feedback provided by the teacher to the learner. Most researchers have attempted to identify the most appropriate method of providing information through feedback for a person who is learning or refining motor skills (Masser, 1993).

Generally, Kluger&DeNisi (1996), Hattie &Timperley (2007), and Shute (2008), agreed that feedback is conceptualized as information provided by an agent (teacher, peer, book, computer, 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. But for the purpose of this review study, feedback is specifically related to the teacher in relation with the student. These authors considered the main purpose of feedback to be reducing discrepancies between current understanding or performance and some desired level of performance or goal. This latter aspect of feedback is discussed in particular detail. Kluger and DeNisi (1996) described feedback intervention as creating a

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_feedback sign‘, a positive or negative evaluation of one‘s performance relative to a goal. In their model of feedback, Hattie and Timperley (2007) state that, –The main purpose of feedback is to reduce discrepancies between current understandings and performance and a goal” (p.86). Effective feedback should offer information about these discrepancies. Shute (2008) referred to several cognitive mechanisms, through which feedback may be used by a learner, and stated that, –First it can signal a gap between a current level of performance and some desired level of performance or goal” (p.157). Based on these descriptions, they defined feedback as, –Information provided by the teacher concerning the performance or understanding of the student, with reference to a goal and aimed at improving learning”.

According to Rink (1995), one of the most significant functions behaviour serves during activity is to provide feedback to learners on their performance. It should be clear that feedback is an absolutely essential ingredient for learning. The teaching of motor skills does not have permanent products of students work, such as exams or writing assignments. The large percentage of feedback students get on motor performance occurs during or immediately following performance (Rink, 1995).

Feedback is defined as –information provided to learners about their performance” (Lee, Keh, &Magil, 1993, p228). Besides, Kulhavy (1977) is also of the view that _Feedback‘ is the process in which the effect or output of an action is –returned” to modify the next action. He pointed out that, to assist in understanding of feedback, it is useful to consider a continuum of instruction and feedback. At one end of the continuum is a clear distinction between providing instruction and providing feedback. However, when feedback is combined with more a correctional review, the feedback and instruction

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become intertwined until the process itself takes on the forms of new instruction, rather than informing the student solely about correctness" (Kulhavy, 1977, p. 212). To take on this instructional purpose, feedback needs to provide information specifically relating to the task or process of learning that fills a gap between what is understood and what is aimed to be understood (Sadler, 1989), and it can do this in a number of different ways. These may be through effective processes, such as increased effort, motivation, or engagement. Alternatively, the gap may be reduced through a number of different cognitive processes, including restructuring understandings, confirming to students that they are correct or incorrect, indicating that more information is available or needed, and pointing to directions students could pursue, and/or indicating alternative strategies to understand particular information. Winne and Butler (1994) provided an excellent summary in their claim that feedback is information with which a learner can confirm, add to, overwrite, tune, or restructure information in memory, whether that information is domain knowledge, meta-cognitive knowledge, beliefs about self and tasks, or cognitive tactics and strategies" (p. 5740).

However, on the basis of motor learning, research and theory, Paese (1987) argued that, physical educators have assumed that information on performance is an essential ingredient of effective instruction in physical education. Effective physical education teachers therefore use feedback variables where necessary to improve on their teaching instruction for students to learn.

It is very obvious that teachers' feedback is essential in students learning during practical physical education lessons. Teachers must note that the gateway to effective feedback prior motivation given to students.

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### 2.2.2 Types of Feedback.

Teachers do interact with learners either as behaviour interactions or skill interaction during students‘ lesson practice. Skill interactions refer to those feedback statements directed at performance by students. The initial work in describing feedback pattern in physical education was done by Tobey (1974), who found that most teachers give general praise and not specific criticism. Teacher feedback which is specific congruent and corrective has shown to be important to student learning. Therefore Houten (1980) remarked that effective teachers must learn to make small gains visible by providing students with frequent positive feedback. Thus, teacher feedback comes in different forms during physical education lessons.

Feedback statements can generally be either positive or negative. The positive or negative can be general or specific. Others identified include concurrent (Rink &Wenner, 1987), corrective (Siedentop, 1991), informative, evaluative and instructive feedback (Magill, 2007).

#### 2.2.2.1 Positive and Negative Feedbacks

Kluger and DeNisi (1996) found that both positive and negative feedback can enhance learning. In our understanding of positive and negative feedback we will follow Losada (1999), who described positive feedback as showing support, encouragement, or appreciation, and negative feedback as showing disapproval, or even sarcasm.

**Positive feedback:** This type of feedback is used to inform the student or athlete as to what was correct about a movement or an action (Galligan et al. (2000).Athletes need to know if a movement is correct as this provides the reference point for future execution of

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the movement. Rink, (1995; P. 240) is of the view that positive feedback is essential in motivating athletes. When a skill is performed correctly giving a successful outcome, the athlete knows what to repeat the next time they do that particular action. This can arouse interest and the athlete is more motivated. This type of feedback is usually essential for beginners. An example of this would be if a basketball player performs a good‘ jump shot‘ and the teacher or coach tells him that is a good technique.

**Negative feedback:** It is used to inform the learner as to what was incorrect about a movement or an action. Negative feedback must include information on the action(s) required by the students to achieve the correct movement (Galligan et al. (2000). It also concerns more than just picking out a weakness in the players game. It includes what the player should do to correct the fault (Rink, 1995: p.241). This feedback must be used carefully because it can easily demotivate the student to another student who is well developed in the physical activity. This type of feedback is vital to students to tune their techniques. Example, a coach telling a basketball player that the ‗lay-up‘ is not correct but he should be placing the ball in the square.

### 2.2.2.3 General and Specific Feedbacks

**General Feedback:** Feedback is general when it might refer to any several factors, such as children‘s movement, behaviour, or dress (Claxon &Fredeburg, 1989; Mustain, 1900). This type of feedback describes in vague, general terms the teacher‘s reaction to a skill attempt. This type is in the form of social reinforcing. Examples of such statements are” ―good job”, “way to go”, or ―you can do it”, and ―that is great”. These types of statements do not tell the students exactly what is good, nor do they give him/her information to be used in the next skill attempt.

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General positive feedback is perhaps the easiest to use. Phrases such as, –good job" –keep it up and –look good" are all examples of general positive feedback that teachers give to students while they are practicing. This type of feedback is great motivator and helps encourage students to keep working. On the other hand, general positive feedback does not help student improve their performance, because nothing specific about the performance is provided. If the teacher uses general positive feedback (–good job, Julie"), more than likely, Julie has no idea what she is doing –good". Is her follow through good? Is her hand under the ball correctly placed? She doesn't know.

**Specific Feedback:** Specific feedback is defined as the provision of information about the learning goal with reference to the task, the processing of the task, or self-regulation, while not being overly elaborate (Rinks &Wenner, 1985).Claxton &Fredenburg, (1989); Pellet & Harrison, (1995),also claim that, feedback is specific when it contains information that allows children to know exactly what they need to practice or how they are moving. Specific corrective feedback specifically indicates what part of the skill the student needs to correct and focused on during the next practice attempts (Claxton &Fredenburg, 1989; Pellet & Harrison, 1995; Rink &Wenner, 1985). Physical education teachers use specific corrective feedback to help correct specific movements errors. For example if using the teaching cues for a _set shot' in basketball game, the teacher might say, –john, make sure you are following through with your shot-reach in that jar". –Remember to push up and out to the basket Mindy", –keep eyes focused on the basket brad".

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Feedback which is not effective in enhancing learning is either non-specific or takes the form of praise. Both positive and negative feedback can serve to enhance learning, as long as they provide specific information.

The concepts of specific, positive, and negative feedback are important in gaining an understanding of the type or types of feedback that enhance learning.

Several studies have described the nature of specific feedback, or provided suggestions meant to assist in making feedback interventions more specific. Shute (2008) described specific feedback as information pertaining to the accuracy of particular responses or behaviors. Hattie and Timperley (2007) stressed the need for teachers to provide more evaluative information in their feedback as a means of providing specific feedback. Other authors have acknowledged this as well. For instance, Sadler (1989) stated that the teacher must possess a concept of quality appropriate to the task and be able to judge the work of the student in relation to that concept. Based on a case study, Parr and Limbrick (2009) identified the impact of the explicitness of teachers‘ feedback on the way in which the students met goals as a hallmark of effective teaching.

Specific feedback is further divided into discrepancy and progress feedback.

Hattie &Timperley (2007), are of the view that, an important aim of feedback is the reduction of discrepancies between a current level of performance or understanding and a goal. To be specific, feedback should provide information about this discrepancy. According to both Shute (2008), Hattie &Timperley (2007), specific feedback can be used to clarify goals and reduce or remove uncertainty in relation to how well learners are performing a task. Feedback should also be about what needs to be accomplished to

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attain a desired level of performance, a type of specific feedback we have labelled as discrepancy feedback. This is one way of using goals to provide effective feedback.

In addition to this perspective, it would also be useful to consider specific, goal-related feedback from another angle: the possibility of providing feedback on the progress students have made toward meeting goals. For example, Schunk and Swartz (1993) studied the influence of what they called progress feedback on writing achievement. They found that children who received feedback on the difference between an initial level of performance and their actual level learned strategies better and more quickly than students who received only information about the overall goal of the task . Progress feedback also had a notable impact on maintenance and generalization. This conclusion is repeated in Schunk and Ertmer (1999), where the authors demonstrate that feedback on progress, when given relative to one ' s initial performance, enhances both learning and motivation. This serves, also, as a way to compare one's performance to a desired level or goal, while allowing emphasis to be placed on what has already been achieved.

As a result, in goal-related feedback it seems appropriate to make a distinction between progress feedback which emphasizes what has already been achieved and discrepancy feedback which emphasizes what is yet to be achieved. Both progress feedback and discrepancy feedback allow teachers to be specific in the type of feedback they provide to their students. Specific feedback statements may include –John, turn sideways, –Ken, follow through with the right arm", or –use the instep to kick the ball". Statements that are specifically-related are the types of feedback students need as they learn motor skills. These particular examples of feedback are qualitative in nature; that is, they describe the processes of the movement as it is being performed.

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An analogy to the teacher giving specific, skill-related feedback would be that of a doctor diagnosing an illness, and then giving you a prescription to fix it. Prescriptive feedback guides the student in fixing the problem or improving the skill performance. Therefore, Specific feedback can take the form of corrective or in-corrective, specific positive, non-specific positive, specific negative, non-specific negative, discrepancy and progress feedbacks.

Bennet and Kell (1989), proclaim that corrective feedback is about how well a task is being accomplished or performed, such as distinguishing correct from incorrect answers, acquiring more or different information, and building more surface knowledge. This type of feedback is most common and is often called corrective feedback or knowledge of results, and it can relate to correctness, neatness, behaviour, or some other criterion related to task accomplishment. About 90% of teachers‘ questions (sometimes written but typically verbal) in classrooms are aimed at this information level (Airasian, 1997). Physical education teachers commonly mix corrective feedback with information at the self-level, which dilutes the power of feedback, example, ―Good boy, that is correct" (Bennett &Kell, 1989).

Specific feedback intervention examples include the following:

Specific positive feedback ―Well done, you have shown the way you arrived at the solution". ―You‘re learning to do the steps! ―and, ―You‘re doing well, because you followed the steps in order" .

Non-specific positive feedback: Good job! All right! (Pauli, 2010) Specific negative feedback: ―Your answer is too long. Your answer needs to be short."

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Non-specific negative feedback: ―That‘s incorrect.‖ ―That doesn‘t sound right.‖

(Schunk& Swartz, 1993) ―Last week you didn‘t know those many words, this week you know them all!‖

Discrepancy feedback: ―You do not know the conjugations of the irregular verbs. This is really necessary to get a good mark in your test.‖

Progress feedback: ―You‘ve got some direct speech here, direct speech using thoughts. Excellent! ‖ (Parr &Limbrick, 2009).

**2.2.2.4 Other Feedbacks Classified**

When feedback focuses on the cue or refinement and it is often demonstrated to the entire class, it is termed as concurrent feedback. Thus, it corresponds to the idea just presented to the children that, ideally they think about as they move (Masser, 1993; Pellet & Harrison, 1995). Concurrent feedback is gathered during the performance of the movements (Rink &Wenner, 1987).Thus, information provided to the athlete during the performance. Concurrent feedback occurs at the same time students practice skill. During this stage teacher observes skill execution so as to identify potential problems in a timely manner and corrective action taken. It helps to check for errors and to take corrective action so that deviations from standard are minimized and the stated goals for the lesson achieved in the desired manner (Brown et al. (2012).

Informative or instructive feedback informs students of what they are doing well, which reinforces correction from future repetitions. The conscious brain, using a collection of learned movements, controls the action when there is a movement. For the movement to progress successfully the athlete requires feedback which then allows him or her to

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evaluate the effectiveness of the movement performed. Davis et al. (2000) identifies three loops in informative feedback process asExteroceptive, Proprioceptive and Kinaesthetic feedbacks. The explanations were that exteroceptive feedback is the outcome of the movement through the athlete's senses, observation of the outcome by the athlete, observations from the coach, observations via video; proprioceptive feedback involves proprioceptors in the muscle and tendons and the balance sensors that provide information on the 'feel' of the movement. Athletes can use this feedback to make fine adjustments to the movement; and kinaesthetic feedback which is information fed directly into the spinal cord from the muscles, tendons and joints to give information that can be responded to without conscious control.

Comments such as, –Joe, I like the way you reach in jar", and –your hand is under the ball, josh", are examples of informative feedback. Teachers must keep in mind that even though providing informative feedback to students is helpful, corrective feedback (error information) is more effective for facilitating performance (Magill, 2007). There is a consideration however, for feedback as corrective or incorrective.

The most effective forms of feedback provide cues or reinforcement to learners. Programmed instruction, praise, punishment, and extrinsic rewards were the least effective for enhancing achievement. Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999), remarked that indeed, it is doubtful whether rewards should be thought of as feedback at all. They described tangible rewards (stickers, awards, etc.) as contingencies to activities rather than feedback because they contain such little task information.

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Galligan et al. (2000), however, are of the view that the type of feedback used will depend on the performer and the skill being learnt. Galligan et al. (2000) identified two forms of feedback as intrinsic feedback -information received by the athlete as a direct result of producing a movement through the kinaesthetic senses - feelings from muscles, joints and balance and extrinsic feedback - information not inherent in the movement itself but which improves intrinsic feedback. This is also known as augmented feedback. There are two main categories of extrinsic feedback. These are _Knowledge of performance‘ and _Knowledge of results‘. The knowledge of performance refers to information about the technique and performance. This can be provided verbally from the coach or visually via video. This enables the athlete to establish a kinaesthetic reference for the correct movement, example, an analysis of the sprinter's action.

Knowledge of results is information with regards the result of the athlete's performance, example, the sprinter's 100 metre time.

Assessment or evaluative or terminal feedback is information provided to the student or athlete before or after the performance of a skill. Many international experts consider feedback to be an important element of Assessment for learning (Black, at al., 2003; Clarke, 2003; Hattie, 2009; Sadler 1989, 1998), with Hattie and Timperley (2007, p. 102) calling it –among the most critical influences on student learning”. This attitude towards feedback is consistent with the Assessment for learning strategy which focuses assessment away from end-of-course (thus, summative) testing or examinations to in-course (thus, formative) improvement-oriented interactions between learners and instructors (Black &Wiliam, 1998).

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Concluding on the types of feedback, the literature generally confirms similarities among most of the types reviewed. For instance, concurrent, corrective, progressive, informative and instructive are associated with specific positive feedback. Therefore, the study confirms the four major types of feedback- positive, negative, concurrent and terminal (Davis et al., 2000). These four factors are similarly observed by Brown et al. (2012), as process, task, self, and self-regulation.

### 2.3.1 Effects of Feedback on Students' Learning

Kluger and DeNisi (1996) noted that both positive and negative feedback can have beneficial effects on learning, and the argument presented is that the untangling of these effects depends more on the level at which the feedback is aimed and processed than on whether it is positive or negative. Specifically, negative feedback is more powerful at the self level, and both types can be effective, but there are differential effects relating to commitment, mastery or performance orientation, and self-efficacy.

Furthermore, there is much evidence to suggest that negative feedback or disconfirmation can be more potent than positive feedback or confirmation at this self-level (Brockner, 1979; Brunit, Huguet, &Monteil, 2000; Campbell &Fairey, 1985; Hattie, 1992; Janoff-Bulman& Brickman, 1982; Kinch, 1963, 1968; Okun&Sasfy, 1977; Shrauger&Sorman, 1977). Swann (1985); Swann & Hill (1982), found that individuals will go to great lengths to confirm their self-perceptions by attending most closely to feedback information that fits their view of the self and by trying to arrange their environment to acquire further self-confirming evidence. Individuals also tend to reject or ignore negative accounts of behaviour that differ from their own (Greenwald, 1980; Markus,

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1977; Tesser& Campbell, 1983) or invoke an external frame of reference (Marsh, 1987, 1990).

At the self-regulation level, the commitment to goals is a major mediator of the effectiveness of positive and negative feedback. Van-Dijk and Kluger (2000, 2001) demonstrated that positive feedback increases motivation relative to negative feedback for a task that people –want to do" and decreases motivation relative to negative feedback for a task that people –have to do." Thus, when we are committed to a goal, we are more likely to learn as a function of positive feedback, but when we undertake a task that we are not committed to (and hence have to do), we are more likely to learn as a function of negative feedback (we need to be driven, in the older motivation terminology). It is likely; however, that this effect is short lived in that it may lead to future task avoidance behaviour.

In circumstances in which students are committed to the goals, feedback can trigger an internal comparison process, which determines how individuals react to feedback. Upon receiving negative feedback, individuals become more dissatisfied with their previous performance level, set higher performance goals for their future performance, and perform at a higher level than those who receive positive feedback or no feedback at all (Podsakoff&Farh, 1989, p. 62).

Positive feedback, however, can increase the likelihood that students will return to or persist in an activity and self-report higher interest in the activity (Deci et al., 1999).

There is also an interaction effect at the level between positive and negative feedback and the self-efficacy of students. Swann, Pelham, and Chidester (1988) found that for highly

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self-efficacious students, feedback about initial success may signify a talent or potential ability, which leads to better coping in the face of disconfirmation feedback. They related the feedback to positive verifications of themselves as learners. As a consequence of disconfirmation feedback, highly self-efficacious people make more optimistic predictions about their performance after initial failure than after initial success, and they seek specifically unfavourable feedback to excel at the tasks.

For the low self-efficacious students, positive feedback about initial success may confirm that they have deficiencies that need to be remedied, which can lead to a variety of reactions. One reaction may be further engagement to remedy these "deficiencies" to reach a passable level of performance, which would afford protection against failure. Alternatively, these students may avoid tasks and feedback following initial success, because such success signifies that they have already reached an adequate level of performance, and further tests merely run the risk of disconfirming the (sometimes hard gained) favourable outcome.

Feedback which is not confirmatory can also have a negative impact on subsequent motivation and performance for low self-efficacious students (Brockner et al. 1987; Moreland & Sweeney, 1984). Kernis et al. (1989) argued that low self-efficacious people are more likely to react to negative feedback by experiencing negative effect, exhibiting less motivation on a subsequent task, and attributing the feedback less to effort and more to ability. At the task level, it is noted how powerful corrective feedback is for enhancing learning, particularly when learning new skills or tasks.

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Disconfirmation with corrective information can be effective, but disconfirmation without this information is of little use because it provides no information regarding what to do or how to respond next time (Breakwell, 1983; Weiner, 1974a, 1974b, 1977). Howie et al. (2000) found that it was the poor presentation (or lack of information value in the feedback) rather than students‘ faulty knowledge that more often explained the low power of some feedback information.

Kluger and DeNisi (1996) performed a meta-analysis of 131 studies on the effects of teacher feedback. They found that, for the most part, feedback interventions improved performance, but over one-third of feedback interventions decreased performance. To explain this phenomenon, they suggested in their Feedback Intervention Theory that the effectiveness of feedback interventions decreases if the feedback draws attention closer to the self, and away from the task (p.254). They claimed that feedback lacking in specificity may be seen by students to be useless, while feedback that is too elaborate may cause a cognitive overload or may again direct the receiver‘s attention away from the task. In addition, they found that both positive and negative feedback can enhance learning, provided the feedback contains enough information to allow the student to acknowledge what is right or wrong in their performance or understanding.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) proposed a model of feedback, derived from Hattie‘s (1999) synthesis of over 500 meta-analyses. They distinguished four levels of feedback, each with a differential effect on learning. These levels are: (1) feedback on the task, (2) feedback about the processing of the task, (3) feedback about self-regulation, and (4) feedback about the self. Concurrent with Kluger and DeNisi (1996), they described feedback on the self as the least effective form of feedback. They also concluded that

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feedback on self-regulation and on the processing of the task served to enhance learning. Feedback on the task was effective in enhancing learning, provided the information is useful in improving either the use of strategies or self-regulation. Important in these levels of feedback was the amount of information, or the specificity, provided for in the feedback. Praise appeared to be ineffective in enhancing learning, and often had a detrimental effect on learning. Hattie and Timperley (2007) also noted that, when learners are committed to a goal, they are more likely to learn as a function of positive feedback, for example, ―That is a thoughtful question!" When learners are forced to perform tasks, they are more likely to learn as a result of negative feedback, for example, ―You have written this word incorrectly." Hattie and Timperley (2007), however, also warned researchers of the short-term effect of negative feedback interventions, making particular mention of the increased likelihood of task avoidance as a result of frequent negative feedback.

Shute (2008) completed a review of approximately 100 articles, conference proceedings, books and book chapters, all cantered on feedback. She listed feedback interventions that seem either effective or ineffective in enhancing learning. She found that the feedback that is generally effective in enhancing learning is specific but not too elaborate, and is presented in manageable units. Furthermore, effective feedback focuses on the task. Feedback that is not effective in enhancing learning clearly lacks these same characteristics. In agreement with the two review articles previously discussed in this section, Shute (2008) described that feedback concerning the ―self" and praise seem to be ineffective in enhancing learning.

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The influence of both positive and negative feedback on learning is also underlined by Hattie and Timperley (2007), who, along with Kluger and DeNisi (1996) and Shute (2008), however have cautioned against the overuse of negative feedback , owing to the threat such an approach poses to the self-esteem and self-efficacy of the learner. In second language acquisition, the effectiveness of negative feedback has been heavily debated (Van Beuningen, 2011; Kim, 2004; Tatawy, 2002).

Kulhavy (1977), claim that feedback has no effect in a vacuum; to be powerful in its effect, there must be a learning context to which feedback is addressed. It is but part of the teaching process and is that which happens second—after a student has responded to initial instruction— when information is provided regarding some aspect(s) of the student‘s task performance. It is most powerful when it addresses faulty interpretations, not a total lack of understanding. Under the latter circumstance, it may even be threatening to a student: ―If the material studied is unfamiliar or abstruse, providing feedback should have little effect on criterion performance, since there is no way to relate the new information to what is already known" (Kulhavy, 1977, p. 220).

Contrary to the behaviorists‘ argument, Kulhavy (1977) demonstrated that feedback is not necessarily a reinforcer, because feedback can be accepted, modified, or rejected. Feedback by itself may not have the power to initiate further action. In addition, it is the case that feedback is not only given by teachers, students, peers, and so on, but can also be sought by students, peers, and so on, and detected by a learner without it being intentionally sought. From the above information on the effects of feedback,

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In the meta-analysis of the effects of feedback on motivation, Deci& et al. (1999) found a negative correlation between extrinsic rewards and task performance (–0.34). Tangible rewards significantly undermined intrinsic motivation, particularly for interesting tasks (–0.68) compared with uninteresting tasks (0.18). In addition, when the feedback was administered in a controlling manner (e.g., saying that students performed as they ―should" have performed), the effects were even worse (–0.78).

Thus, Deci& Ryan (1985), concluded that the effect of extrinsic rewards are typically negative because they ―undermine people's taking responsibility for motivating or regulating themselves" (p. 659). Rather, they are a controlling strategy that often leads to greater surveillance, evaluation, and competition, all of which have been found to undermine enhanced engagement and regulation.

In their study on teacher feedback and achievement in physical education, Silverman, Tyson, and Krampitz (1992) found that positive feedback was associated with increased student learning. However, Baumeister and Cairns (1992) are also of the view that, positive and negative feedback do not have equal impact on learning. Baumeister and Cairns (1992) examined the manner in which an individual processes and remembers positive and negative feedback. They found that negative feedback elicited clear defensive responses, ranging from avoidance in elaborating on the feedback to negative thoughts. They also found that the highest memory scores in the experiment were achieved if positive feed-back was mixed with small amounts of negative feedback. There were no similarly high scores achieved by tempering generally negative feedback with small amounts of positive feedback. As an explanation for this phenomenon, Baumeister, et al. (2001) have suggested that, when feedback is generally positive, people

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let their defences down, whereupon small bits of negative feedback penetrate exceptionally well. According to the same authors, negative feedback has a greater impact on memory and self-esteem than does positive feedback. A conclusion which supports the findings of Kluger and DeNisi (1996), that negative feedback can have a greater impact on self-efficacy than positive feedback. The impact of negative feedback is not only on self-esteem or self-efficacy; Goodman, Hendrickx, and Wood (2004) found that increasing specific negative feedback served to reduce both exploration and exploration strategies.

Based on the difference in impact, both Losada and Heaphy (2004) and Frederickson and Losada (2005) posited that, to over-come the impact of negative feedback, experiences of positivity may need to outnumber experiences of negativity. In other words, experiences of positive feedback need to outnumber experiences of negative feedback. Based on their research into management teams, Losada and Heaphy (2004) developed a ratio at which positive and negative feedback should occur in order for people to develop and learn. Higher performance in, for instance, management teams occurs if the ratio of positivity to negativity is higher than 3:1 that is, if there are three instances of positive feedback for each instance of negative feedback . These authors also concluded that in order for the feedback to be effective, this ratio should not exceed 11:1.

According to Kluger&DeNisi, (1996), assessment or evaluative feedback can increase learner satisfaction and persistence. It can also contribute to students adopting more productive learning strategies (Vollmeyer&Rheinberg, 2005). However, what counts as ‗good feedback' is contested (Shute, 2008), with feedback considered the element of formative assessment ―most laden with a legacy of bad practice and misguided views"

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(Clarke 2003, p. 3). Feedback, when provided inappropriately, can lead to negative effects. Kluger and DeNisi(1996) found that feedback actually decreased student performance in a third of the studies analysed. Nevertheless, feedback continues to be endorsed worldwide as a powerful strategy for teachers of all subjects and grade levels (Leahy, Thompson, at al., 2005). Assessment for learning policy reforms often aim to increase student evaluation of their own progress using rubrics, targets, and pedagogical interactions with their teachers, with the overall goal of developing self-regulating learners (Leahy, Thompson, et al., 2005).Despite the power that teachers commonly exercise over the delivery of feedback, there has been little research to date investigating teachers‘ conceptions of feedback, with most work examining their enacted practices (Torrance & Pryor, 1998).

Over all comparisons, it appears that the power of feedback is influenced by the direction of the feedback relative to performance on a task. Specifically, feedback is more effective when it provides information on correct rather than incorrect responses and when it builds on changes from previous trails. The impact of feedback was also influenced by the difficulty of goals and tasks. It appears to have the most impact when goals are specific and challenging but task complexity is low. Praise for task performance appears to be ineffective, which is hardly surprising because it contains such little learning related information. It appears to be more effective when there are perceived low rather than high levels of threat to self-esteem, presumably because low-threat conditions allow attention to be paid to the feedback.

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Considering the various authors views, it appears there is a mixed effect of feedback on learning. However, this article identifies the conditions that maximize the positive effects on learning.

**2.4.0 Conclusion**

–Teachers do interact with students during skill practice in physical education lessons either as behavioural or skill interactions. Behavioural interactions refer to those directed at organizational or social behaviour of students. Skill interactions on the other hand, refer to those directed at academic performance of students. Teachers' behaviour or interactions that serve to guide direct response to previous students' behaviour are usually called –directions and prompts". Teacher behaviour that is in response to students actions is usually called –feedback" (Siedentop, 1991).

Feedback is information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. It occurs typically after instruction that seeks to provide knowledge and skills or to develop particular attitudes. Hattie and Timperley (2007) defined feedback as, –Information provided by the teacher concerning the performance or understanding of the student, with reference to a goal and aimed at improving learning". The literature also reviewed the major types of feedback given by teachers as general or specific, positive or negative, corrective or incorrective, all which can influence learning. How teachers use feedback was also discussed.

The model proposed by Hattie and Timperley (2007) in this article identifies three major feedback questions: Where am I going? How am I going? Where to next? which deal

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with the effects of feedback. The answers to these questions enhance learning when there is a discrepancy between what is understood and what is aimed to be understood. It can increase effort, motivation, or engagement to reduce this discrepancy, and/or it can increase cue searching and task processes that lead to understanding (thus reducing this discrepancy). Feedback is among the most critical influences on student learning (Sadler, 1989).

Feedback at the self or personal level (usually praise), on the other hand, is rarely effective. Praise is rarely directed at addressing the three feedback questions and so is ineffective in enhancing learning. It should be clear that providing and receiving feedback requires much skill by students and teachers. The subject matter is to be ready to provide feedback about tasks or the relationships between ideas, willingness to encourage self-regulation, and having exquisite timing to provide feedback before frustration takes over. To be able to devote time and thoughts to feedback is aided when teachers automate many other tasks in the classroom and provide rich learning opportunities for all students and thus have the time and resources to be responsive to feedback (Hattie & Jaeger, 1998).

Similarly, learning can be enhanced to the degree that students share the challenging goals of learning, develop error detection procedures and heightened self-efficacy to tackle more challenging tasks leading to mastery and understanding of lessons. A number of self-strategies were identified that inhibit the effects of feedback on learning, and it is only when students are grounded in and committed to the goals of learning and when the feedback is related to accomplishments of the learning that feedback is effective (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001).

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Feedback, however, is not ―the answer"; rather, it is but one powerful answer. With inefficient learners, it is better for a teacher to provide elaborations through instruction than to provide feedback on poorly understood concepts. If feedback is directed at the right level, it can assist students to comprehend, engage, or develop effective strategies to process the information intended to be learned. To be effective, feedback needs to be clear, purposeful, meaningful, and compatible with students' prior knowledge and to provide logical connections.

Certainly, a critical conclusion is that teachers need to seek and learn from feedback. On the other hand, when feedback is combined with effective instruction in class, it can be very powerful in enhancing learning. As Kluger and DeNisi (1996) noted, a feedback intervention provided for a familiar task, containing cues that support learning, attracting attention to feedback-standard discrepancies at the task level, and void of cues that direct attention to the self is likely to yield impressive gains in students' performance.

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# CHAPTER THREE

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study was to find out the differences that exist between how trained and untrained Physical education teachers at the basic school level in the Hohoe District of Volta Region provide feedback to students during physical education lessons.

This chapter explains the methods and procedures used in carrying out this study.

Specifically, this chapter has been categorized in the following ways:

- **a)** Research Design
- **b)** Population
- **c)** Sample and Sampling techniques
- **d)** Research Instrument
- **e)** Validity of the Instrument
- **f)** Reliability of the Instrument
- **g)** Data Collection Procedure
- **h)** Data Analysis Procedure

### 3.1 Research Design

Descriptive survey research design was used for the study. This design is flexible and convenient because according to Tuckman (1994), it could be used to convey or present details and valid information systematically in finding solution to a problem.

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### 3.2 Population

According to Amoani (2005), population or universe refers to the totality of whatever objects or measurements that the researchers are investigating. Koul (2000), postulates that a population refers to any collection of specified group of human beings or non-human entities such as objects, educational institutions, time units, geographical areas etc. The larger group we wish to learn about is the study population and the small group we actively study is the sample.

The population for the study comprised of all physical education teachers who teach in the basic schools in Hohoe District of Volta region. Sixty (60) teachers were involved in the study.

### 3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique

From the population, a sample of thirty (30) respondents was obtained. Samples of fifteen (15) untrained physical education teachers were selected through Simple random sampling technique. Blaxter, Hughes & Tight (1998) describe simple random sampling as selection at random by the researchers from a choice of subjects. This was used in order to ensure that each respondent had an equal chance of being selected. The researcher used the lottery method whereby ―yes" and ―no" were written on pieces of papers and put into a box (fish bowl). There were three of the pieces of the papers, one bearing the word yes and two no. Before the teachers were asked to pick, they were briefed that only those who will pick yes will teach for the observation. Also, the sampling procedure of the trained physical education specialist was purposive sampling. The basis of sampling purposively is that trained physical education teachers are few in the District.

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### 3.4 Instrumentation

The main instrument for data collection was a self- designed questionnaire which was divided into two sections. Section A was on the demographic data of respondents. Section B has 5 point Likert type format. A five-point Likert Scale was employed to assess the degree to which participants agree with given statements. The scale response would be categorized as follows; 1 = strongly agree (SA), 2 = agree (A), 3=uncertain (U), 4 = strongly disagree (SD) and, 5 = disagree (D). The respondents were asked to indicate their responses by placing a tick along the response scale. The questionnaire form was validated by the researcher‘s supervisor. The questionnaire items centre on the guiding research questions for the study. A questionnaire was used because it offers a researcher an opportunity to sample the views of larger population. Moreover, the use of the questionnaire helps to ensure that the researcher gets a high proportion of information that is usable. Likewise, questionnaires provide a relatively cheap, quick and efficient way of obtaining large amounts of information from a large sample of people. Data can be collected relatively quickly because the researcher would not need to be present when the questionnaires were completed (McLeod, 2014)

#### 3.4.1 Validity of the Instrument

Validity is an attempt to ensure that the research instruments the researcher uses are not questionable or disputable (Seidu, 2007). Indeed, validation of research instruments refers to the researcher‘s efforts to ensure that the data collection instruments are valid. In fact, the validity of any research work depends to a large extent on the appropriateness of the study instrument used to measure the variables. The instrument had face validity from the researcher‘s supervisor.

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### 3.4.2 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability of a study instrument is the consistency of the instrument producing the same results given the same conditions on different occasions. It is a degree of the study instrument such as questionnaire or interview guide, to measure a subject or variable at different occasions and on all occasions consistently given the same or similar results.

The instrument‘s reliability estimate was established through the spilt-half reliability method. The split-half reliability was conducted on a smaller sample size using Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (r) and the result yielded 0.73. This shows a high level of consistency.

### 3.4.3 Pilot study

Piloting is defined by the Encarta dictionary, (2009) as a test of something such as a proposed manufacturing process to discover and solve problems before implementation. Seidu (2007) supported this idea when he posits that ―pretest" of the questionnaire or interview schedule could reveal ambiguities, poorly worded questions that are not understood and could not indicate whether the instructions to the respondents are clear. For the purpose of this study, the questionnaire designed by the researcher, was piloted at Kpando District which had similar characteristics like the District under the study. The idea was to pre-try the questionnaire and identify its weaknesses for modification. The pilot study involved ten respondents (five trained and five untrained).

### 3.5 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher administered the questionnaire to thirty (30) trained and untrained Physical Education teachers in the Hohoe District. The researcher obtained an

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introductory letter from the head of Health Physical Education Recreation and Sports Department, University of Education, Winneba. After selecting the required sample size, copies of the questionnaires were distributed to the selected samples for the study on one-on–one basis. Each respondent was allowed to ask questions pertaining to the completion of the questionnaire, and their concerns clarified. Respondents were asked to respond to the questionnaire within one week and hand them over to the coordinator (who was chosen by the researcher). The researcher went for the completed questionnaires after responding to items.

### 3.6 Data Analysis Procedure

Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 for windows 2007. The data were collated and coded using frequency counts and percentages. The data were then tabulated and discussed briefly. The findings from the results were discussed in the later chapter as well as recommendations.

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# CHAPTER FOUR

# RESULTS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

## 4.0 Introduction

This Chapter focuses on the results, findings and discussion of data in relation to the research questions.

## 4.1 SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

**Table 4.1: Gender of respondents**

| Gender | Trained | | Untrained | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| **Male** | 12 | 80 | 9 | 60 |
| **Female** | 3 | 20 | 6 | 40 |
| **Total** | 15 | 100 | 15 | 100 |

In table 4.1, twelve trained teachers representing 80% were males; three representing 20% were females. In the same vein, for untrained teachers, nine representing 60% were males whilst 6 representing 40% were females.

**Table 4.2: Teaching experience of respondents**

| Years | Trained | | Untrained | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Below one year | 0 | | 1 | 6.7 |
| 1-3 years | 0 | | 4 | 26.7 |
| 4-6 years | 3 | 20.0 | 5 | 33.3 |
| 7-9 years | 2 | 13.3 | 3 | 20.0 |
| 10-12 years | 6 | 40.0 | 1 | 6.7 |
| Above 12 years | 4 | 26.7 | 1 | 6.7 |
| **Total** | 15 | 100 | 15 | 100.0 |

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In table 4.2, no trained teacher was below 1 year but 1 untrained teacher was below 1 year representing 6.7%. Between the ages of 1-3 years there was no trained teacher but there were 4 untrained teachers representing 26.7%. Between the ages of 4-6 years, there were 3 trained teachers representing 20% with 5 untrained teachers representing 33.3%. Two (2) trained teachers had teaching experience between 7-9 years representing 13.3%, with 3 untrained teachers representing 20%. Between the ages of 10-12 were six (6)trained teachers representing 40% and 1 untrained teacher representing 6.7%. Four (4) trained teachers had teaching experience above 12 years, representing 26.7%, while 1 untrained teacher had teaching experience of above 12 years representing 6.7%.

**Table 4.3: Leadership Style of respondents**

| Leadership styles | Trained | | Untrained | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Autocratic | 3 | 20.0 | 6 | 40.0 |
| Democratic | 11 | 73.3 | 7 | 46.7 |
| Laisssez fair | 1 | 6.7 | 2 | 13.3 |
| Total | 15 | 100 | 15 | 100.0 |

In table 4.3, three trained teachers representing 20% adopted autocratic leadership style, 11 representing 73.3% adopted democratic leadership style and 1 representing 6.3% adopted laissez fair leadership style. In the same vein 6 untrained teachers representing 40% adopted autocratic leadership style, 7 representing 46.7% adopted democratic leadership style and 2 representing 13.3% adopted laissez fair leadership style.

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**Table 4.4: Mean Rating of trained and Untrained P.E. Teachers**

| Statement | Trained Teachers | | Untrained Teachers | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean | Std. | Mean | Std. |
| I always give positive specific feedback to students during practical P.E. Lessons | 3.87 | 1.246 | 2.33 | .976 |
| I always give negative general feedback to learners during practical P.E. lessons | 3.27 | 1.223 | 3.33 | 1.759 |
| I do not give concurrent feedback during practical P.E. lessons | 2.80 | 1.320 | 3.80 | 1.265 |
| I do not give instructive or informative feedback during practical P.E. lessons. | 2.60 | .828 | 2.73 | 1.223 |
| I always give terminal feedback to learners during end of year practical P.E. lessons | 3.27 | 1.438 | 2.13 | 1.302 |
| I provide feedback to students on tasks only. | 2.67 | 1.291 | 3.27 | 1.280 |
| I evaluate students' performance during mini game | 2.47 | 1.356 | 4.07 | 1.223 |
| I punish students who fail to perform skills well as feedback | 1.53 | 1.060 | 3.27 | 1.438 |
| I correct student's mistakes during practical P.E. lessons. | 1.60 | 1.121 | 1.87 | 1.060 |
| I do insult students who perform activities wrongly | 4.13 | 1.356 | 2.87 | 1.457 |
| I do not provide feedback to students on task | 2.13 | .990 | 3.00 | 1.558 |
| I evaluate student's performance after practical P. E lessons. | 2.07 | 1.223 | 2.53 | 1.552 |
| I do not punish students who fail to perform skills well as feedback. | 3.07 | 1.280 | 2.67 | 1.543 |
| I insult students who perform activities wrongly as feedback. | 4.00 | 1.414 | 2.60 | 1.805 |
| I sit under a tree during practical P. E lessons. | 4.07 | 1.033 | 3.07 | 1.624 |
| I do not provide feedback to students at all | 2.07 | .884 | 2.47 | 1.685 |
| I give assistance to the physically challenged during lessons | 1.80 | .862 | 2.33 | 1.496 |
| I do all demonstrations personally | 2.67 | 1.291 | 2.67 | 1.496 |
| I correct student's mistakes after practical P.E. lessons. | 3.60 | 1.724 | 2.73 | 1.751 |
| I do not knock students who perform activities wrongly | 1.60 | .828 | 3.47 | 1.642 |

*NB: strongly agree= 1, agree= 2, uncertain =3, disagree=4, strongly disagree= 5*

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When the statement, I always give positive specific feedback during practical P.E. lessons was posed to both teachers, there was a mean of 3.87 and standard deviation of 1.246 was recorded for trained teachers and a mean of 2.33 and standard deviation of .976 for untrained teachers. When the statement, I always give negative general feedback was posed for both trained and untrained teachers, there was a mean of 3.27 and std. deviation of 1.223 for trained teachers and a mean of 3.33 and a standard deviation of 1.759 for untrained teachers. With the statement I do not give concurrent feedback during practical P.E lesson was posed to both teachers, there was a mean of 3.80 and std. deviation of 1.265 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.80 and standard deviation of 1.320 for untrained teachers. With the statement I do not give instructive feedback during practical P.E. lessons, there was a mean of 4.07 and std. Deviation of 1.223 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.73 and standard deviation of 1.223 for untrained teachers. With the statement I always give terminal feedback during practical P.E. lessons there was a mean of 3.27 and std. Deviation of 1.438 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.13 and standard deviation of 1.302 for untrained teachers. With the statement; I provide feedback to students on task only, there was a mean 2.67 and std. Deviation of 1.291 for trained teachers and a mean of 3.27 and standard deviation of 1.280. With the statement I evaluate students‘ performance during mini game; there was a mean of 2.67 and std. Deviation of 1.291 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.47 and standard deviation of 1.356 for untrained teachers. With the statement, I punish students who fail to perform skills well as feedback; there was a mean of 4.07 and std. Deviation of 1.223for trained teachers and a mean of 3.27 and standard deviation of 1.438 for untrained teachers. With the statement, I correct students mistake during practical P.E. lessons, there was a mean

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of 1.60and std. Deviation of 1.121 for trained teachers and a mean of 1.87 and std. Deviation of 1.060 for untrained teachers. With the statement,I do not insult students who perform activities wrongly; a mean of 2.13 and standard deviation of .990 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.87 and standard deviation of 1.457 for untrained teachers. I do not provide feedback to students on task, there was a mean of 2.13 and std. deviation of 1.223 for trained teachers and a mean of 3.00 with a standard deviation of 1.558 for untrained. I evaluate students‘ performance after practical lessons, there was a mean of 2.07 and a standard deviation of 1.223 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.53 with a standard deviation of 1.552 for untrained teachers. I knock students who perform activities wrongly as feedback, there was a mean of 3.07 and a standard deviation of 1.280 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.67 with a standard deviation of 1.543 for untrained teachers. With the statement I correct students mistakes after practical P.E. lessons, there was mean of 4.00 and std. deviation of 1.414 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.60 and standard deviation of 1.805 for untrained teachers.With the statement I sit under a tree during practical P.E. lessons, there was a mean of 4.07 and std. deviation of 1.033 for trained teachers and a mean of 3.07 with a standard deviation of 1.624 for untrained teachers. With the statement I do not provide feedback to students at all, there was a mean of 2.07 and std. deviation of .884 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.47 with a standard deviation of 1.685 for untrained teachers.

With the statement I evaluate students‘ performance after practical P.E lessons; there was a mean of 1.80 and std. deviation of .862 for trained teachers and a mean of 2.33 with a standard deviation of 1.496 for untrained teachers.With the statement I do all demonstration personally, there was a mean of 2.67 and std. Deviation of 1.291 for

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trained teachers and a mean of 2.67 with a standard deviation of 1.496 for untrained teachers. With the statement I insult students who perform activities wrongly as feedback, there was a mean of 1.60 and standard deviation of .828 for trained teachers and a mean of 3.47 with a standard deviation of 1.642 for untrained teachers.

**Findings**

From the findings, twelve trained teachers representing 80% were males; three representing 20% were females. In the same vein, for untrained teachers, nine representing 60% were males whilst 6 representing 40% were females.

With teaching experience, no trained teacher was below 1 year but 1 untrained teacher was below 1 year representing 6.7%. Between the ages of 1-3 years there was no trained teacher but there were 4 untrained teachers representing 26.7%. Between the ages of 4-6 years, there were 3 trained teachers representing 20% with 5 untrained teachers representing 33.3%. Two (2) trained teachers had teaching experience between 7-9 years representing 13.3%, with 3 untrained teachers representing 20%. Between the ages of 10-12 were six (6)trained teachers representing 40% and 1 untrained teacher representing 6.7%. Four (4) trained teachers had teaching experience above 12 years, representing 26.7%, while 1 untrained teacher had teaching experience of above 12 years representing 6.7%.

With response to leadership styles, three trained teachers representing 20% adopted autocratic leadership style, 11 representing 73.3% adopted democratic leadership style and 1 representing 6.3% adopted laissez fair leadership style. Whiles 6 untrained teachers representing 40% adopted autocratic leadership style, 7 representing 46.7%

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adopted democratic leadership style and 2 representing 13.3% adopted laissez fair leadership style.

Trained physical education teachers make use of positive specific feedback during practical physical educationlessons than untrained physical education teachers.

Untrained physical education teachers give negative general feedback to learners during practical physical education lesson than trained physical education teachers.

Trained physical education teachers give terminal feedback to learners at the end of year than untrained physical education teachers do. Most untrained teachers agree with providing feedback to students on task only but trained teachers were uncertain. Trained physical education teachers agree with concurrent feedback while untrained physical education teachers disagree with concurrent feedback during practical physical education lessons. Trained physical education teacher agree with punishment as feedback while untrained physical education teacher were uncertain. Trained physical education teachers disagree with insults as feedback while untrained teachers agree with insults as feedback during lessons. Both trained and untrained physical education teachers agree with personal demonstrations. Trained physical education teachers disagree with sitting under a tree during practical physical education lesson while untrained physical education teacher were uncertain.

Trained physical education teachers strongly agree with assisting the physically challenged during lessons while the untrained physical education teachers agree with it.

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**Discussion of findings**

**Research question 1:** ***What are the types of feedbacks given by trained and untrained physical education teachers during practical physical education lesson?***

From the findings, trained physical education teachers make use of positive, concurrent, terminal and specific feedback than untrained physical education teachers.

According to Galligan et al (2000), positive feedback is a type of feedback used to inform the student or athlete as to what was correct about a movement or an action. Rink, (1995; p 241) is of the view that positive feedback is essential in moving athletes. Claxon and Fredenburg (1989); Pellet and Harrison, (1995) also claim that feedback is specific when it contains information that allows children to know exactly what they need to practice or how they are moving. From the finding and literature, trained physical education teachers make use of feedbacks that can help improve instruction the classroom better than untrained physical education teachers. On the other hand untrained physical education teachers provide more negative and general feedbacks than trained teachers. Negative feedback must include information on the actions (s) required by the students to achieve the correct movement (Galligan et al. 2000). It includes what the player should do to correct the fault (Rink, 1995" P 241). Negative feedback must be used carefully because it can easily demotivate the student to another student who is well developed in the physical activity.

Feedback is general, when it might refer to any several factors, such as children's movement, behaviour, or dress (claxon and Fredenburg, 1989; Mustain, 1900). From the above discussion positive and specific feedback should be encouraged in practical

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physical education lessons. Findings and literature does not encourage negative feedback as demotivate the learner and general confuses learners as it does not tell what exactly the learner should do.

**Research question 2:** ***What feedbacks do trained physical education teachers give to help improve instruction in the classroom?*** Feedbacks given by trained physical education teachers are specific, concurrent, general, positive and negative.

Houten (1980) remarked that effective teachers must learn to make small gains by providing students with frequent positive feedback. From the findings positive feedback should be encouraged in a practical physical education lessons as effective teachers. The use of positive, specific and concurrent feedbacks should be encouraged because they help in improving instruction in the classroom. Findings and literature support specific, concurrent, and positive feedbacks because they help in improving instructions in the classroom but does not support negative and general feedbacks because they demotivate and confuses learners.

**Research question 3:** ***What feedbacks do untrained physical education teachers give to help improve instruction in the classroom?***

From the findings, untrained physical education teachers normally give negative and general feedback during practical physical education lessons. Negative feedback is used to inform the learner as to what was incorrect about a movement or an action. Rink (1995; p.241), is of the view that negative feedback must be used carefully because it can easily demotivate the student to another student who is well developed in the physical activity. Feedback is general when it might refer to any several factors, such as children‘s

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movement, behaviour, or dress (Claxon and Fredenburg 1989; Mustain, 1900). From the above negative and general feedbacks should not be encouraged if the teacher‘s aim is to effect a change in a child‘s behavoiur during practical physical education lesson. This feedback does not help improve instruction in the classroom and should not be encouraged during practical physical education lessons.

**Research question 4:** ***What differences exist between trained and untrained physical education teachers feedback during practical physical education lesson?*** From the findings most trained physical education teachers make use of positive, specific and concurrent feedbacks during practical physical education lessons. This enables the teacher to impact effective teaching to learners. As cited by Claxton and Fredenburg, (1989); Pellet and Harrison, (1995), feedback is specific when it contains information that allows children to know exactly what they need to practice or how they are moving. Finding and literature support positive, specific and concurrent feedbacks as they help in improving instruction in the classroom. Meanwhile, majority of the untrained physical education teachers make use of general and negative feedbacks during practical physical education lessons. Negative feedback must be used carefully because it can easily demotivate the students to another student who is well developed in physical activity Rink, (1995; p. 241). Feedback is general when it might refer to any several factors, such as children‘s movement, behaviour, or dress (Claxon and Fredenburg, 1989; Mustain, 1900). Findings and literature does not support the frequent use of negative and general feedbacks because they demotivate and confuses learners.

In summary majority of trained physical education teachers provide positive and specific feedbacks that can lead to effective teaching and learning during practical

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physical education lesson than untrained physical education teachers. Thus trained physical education teachers give feedbacks that help in improving instructions in the classroom better than untrained physical education teachers.

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# CHAPTER FIVE

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the results of the study were tabled and the findings of the study were discussed in detail. The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the study that was conducted. Included in this summary are a review of the purpose of the study, the research methodology used, and a summary of the study results, conclusions and discussion. Recommendations for further research and possible studies conclude this chapter.

## 5.2 Summary

The overriding purpose of the study was to find out the differences that exist between how trained and untrained Physical education teachers at the basic school level in the Hohoe District of Volta Region provide feedback to students during physical education lessons. The researcher used descriptive research methodology and survey techniques to collect data from trained and untrained Physical education teachers at the basic school level in the Hohoe District of Volta Region. The main instrument for data collection was a questionnaire which was divided into two sections. Section A was on the demographic data of respondents. Section B had 5 point Likert type format. The respondents were asked to indicate their responses by placing a tick along the response scale. Through the use of the survey instrument developed for this study, data were collected which addressed the research problems posed in the first chapter of this dissertation.

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### 5.3 Summary of Findings

The purpose of the study was to find out the differences that exist between how trained and untrained Physical education teachers at the basic school level in the Hohoe District of Volta Region provide feedback to students during physical education lessons.

As shown in table one, the result of research question one analysis revealed that the most occurring feedback type during practical physical education lessons was the general type of feedback. This finding is in agreement with reports of previous teacher feedback studies.

Previous research on student views of feedback has consistently shown that students treasure teacher feedback and attach much greater importance to it than other forms of feedback, such as audio feedback, peer evaluation, and self-evaluation (Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994; Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006; Zhang, 1995).

Similar to results reported, a substantial body of research has been conducted to study teacher feedback and students‘ revision process in both first and second-language writing ( Hyland& Hyland, 2006).

Conversely to the results of the current study, some students may disregard feedback given to their written efforts, as they view the teacher as an evaluator rather than a genuinely interested reader (Ziv,1984). These students may feel hostility towards their teachers as they want to maintain authority over their own texts (Dohrer, 1991; Leki, 1990).Ferris (1997) hasargued that students who do not revise based on teacher feedback might not be lazy but, instead, might be thinking independently and creatively.

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This study reveals that many teachers use the general type of feedback more than the other types of feedback.Insummary trained physical teachers provide feedbacks that can lead to effective teaching and learning during practical physical education lessons than untrained physical education teachers

### 5.4 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, the study concluded that there is a need to improve the teaching of Physical Education at the Basic School level in the Hohoe district, Volta region through the use of teacher feedbacks. Teacher feedback has a powerful influence on student learning, motivation, and achievement (Hattie &Timperley, 2007). Lantolf and Pavlenko (2001), argue that students are active agents in the feedback process who __construct the terms and conditions of their own learning‘‘ (p. 145). Although teachers do not necessarily improve their practice by listening to their students and accommodating their needs, to cater for student needs, it is important that teachers factor into their decision-making their students‘ expectations and perceptions and let these inform their feedback. Future research could examine the relationships between student reactions and their learning and performance in writing, and how teachers can vary their feedback according to student needs to maximize the benefits of feedback. Feedback is an essential variable that can bring about effective teaching and learning

### 5.5 Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the findings of the study as well as the conclusions drawn.

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1. Teachers should increasingly provide positive specific and concurrent feedbacks to create more stimulating learning environment and ultimately increase students‘ intrinsic motivation. Teachers should avoid insulting learners during practical physical education lessons as feedback as well as giving negative feedback

2.In addition, physical education should be made a compulsory subject taught and learn at the college of education throughout the course of the study.

3. Finally, the number of periods on the teaching time table should be increase for physical education at the college of education so that trainees will acquire more knowledge about how to teach physical education.

**5.6 Suggestions for Future Research**

Anyone who wishes to take this topic and research into it should consider a larger number. Additional research should be conducted to examine whether these results are positive in a large sample in all forms, all disciplines, in urban, in rural, in suburban schools, and on females.

Besides this, it may be interesting to do further research into the effect of teacher feedback on student‘s achievement. Future research should examine whether correspondence and specificity between feedback and self-efficacy measures alter these findings (Bandura, 1997).

Further research is recommended to verify the findings of the current study in order to strengthen this contribution towards the development of a sound research data.

The researcher wishes to admit that there had been short comings in the work and would therefore like those problems or implications to be addressed in future research work.

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**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA** .

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION RECREATION AND SPORTS.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TRAINED AND UNTRAINED PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS.

This questionnaire is designed to obtain information for the purpose of dissertation writing at the University of Education, Winneba. It is intended to examine differences that exist between how trained and untrained physical education teachers at basic schools in the Hohoe District of Volta Region provide feedback to students during practical physical education lessons. As such there are no right or wrong answers. Please answer the questions as frankly as possible. The information you provide will be treated confidentially and your anonymity is highly assured.

Thank you.

**SECTION A.**

**DEMOGRAPHICAL DATA.**

Please respond by ticking [√] in the appropriate box the response is applicable to you.

1. Sex male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Teaching experience : Below one year [ ]
   1-3years [ ]
   4-6years [ ]
   7-9years [ ]
   10-12Years [ ]
   Above 12years [ ]
3. Type of leadership style you apply during practical P. E lessons.
   Autocratic [ ] Democratic [ ] Laissez fair [ ]

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## SECTION B

The following is a lists of statements that may be used to examine the differences that exist between trained and untrained physical education teachers feedback at basic schools in the Hohoe District of Volta Region to learners during practical physical education lessons .Read each statement carefully and respond to it by ticking [ √ ] the answer that is most accurately to your thinking and felling. You are required to strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with each statement.

| S/N | STATEMENT | STRONGLY AGREE | AGREE | UNCERTAIN | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I always give positive specific feedback to learners during practical P. E lessons | | | | | |
| 2 | I always give negative general feedback to learners during practical P. E lessons | | | | | |
| 3 | I do not give concurrent feedback during practical P. E lessons | | | | | |
| 4 | I do not give instructive or informative feedback during practical P. E lessons | | | | | |
| 5 | I always give terminal feedback during end of year practical | | | | | |

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| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | P. E lessons | | | | | |
| 6 | I provide feedback to students on tasks only | | | | | |
| 7 | I evaluate students performance during mini game | | | | | |
| 8 | I punish students who fail to perform skills well as feedback | | | | | |
| 9 | I correct students mistakes during practical P. E lessons | | | | | |
| 10 | I do insult students who perform activities wrongly | | | | | |
| 11 | I do not provide feedback to students on task | | | | | |
| 12 | I evaluate students performance after practical P. E lessons | | | | | |
| 13 | I do not punish students who fail to perform skills well as feedback | | | | | |
| 14 | I correct students | | | | | |

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| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | mistakes after practical P. E lessons | | | | | |
| 15 | I sit under a tree during practical P. E lessons | | | | | |
| 16 | I do not provide feedback to students at all | | | | | |
| 17 | I do not knock students who perform skills wrongly as feedback | | | | | |
| 18 | I do all demonstrations personally | | | | | |
| 19 | I always give negative feedback | | | | | |
| 20 | I insult students who perform activities wrongly as feedback | | | | | |