ANALYSIS OF FEEDBACK GIVING PRACTICE AMONG JUDGES OF BONGO STAR SEARCH PROGRAM

Musa Saimon
Department of Business Administration, College of Business Education
Dodoma Campus Dodoma, Tanzania

e-mail: m.simon@cbe.ac.tz

Abstract. Human beings need feedback all the time so as to improve and (or) maintain certain behaviour. However, not every feedback can help one improve or maintain his/her behavior, unless they are appropriately given in a way they are constructive. Much of informal learning on different life aspects including feedback giving practices is done through media. As participants in media programs or viewers, we are much influenced by whatever goes on in the media. Consequently, there is high need to ensure media practices are appropriate so that they can influence the society in a very positive manner. This study analyses feedback giving practices among judges of Bongo Star search program using feedback giving principle. The data used in this study are video clips of BSS in 2015 episode 10. Results show that Bongo Star Search judges with regard to feedback giving principle did not observe the relevant principles to large extent and with regard to the feedback giving principle, they did not observe the principle description to a relatively large extent. Accordingly, the study calls for training among judges of Bongo Star Search on how to give effective feedback.

Key words: Feedback, Bongo Star Search

INTRODUCTION

Feedback is a central aspect of human communication, we need feedback almost for everything we do as Elbert Hubbard claims, “The only way to avoid criticism is to do nothing, say nothing, be nothing” (Hathaway, 1990) p.2). It is through...
feedback we get to learn, improve or change behaviors (Arnold, 2009; Gorrell & Hoover, 2009; Hathaway, 1990; Irons, 2008; London, 2003; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Vella, 2002). To sum up the significance of feedback in human life, Folkman (2006) concludes, “Without feedback we are flying blind. Others see things we can’t see” (p. xv). Nevertheless, people hesitate to give feedback with assumptions that positive feedback may make the addresses feel superior, and that negative feedback may hamper the existing relationship between the two sides (Folkman, 2006; Hathaway, 1990; London, 2003). Even when people try to give feedback do not give it appropriately, thus making feedback useless to the recipients (London, 2003).

In order to ensure that people manage feedback in the way that feedback remains productive, London (2003), among other scholars proposes a number of principles for giving useful feedback. In addition, Hathaway (1990) proposes a procedural model of giving feedback (DASR Script) so that the addressee improves his/her performance through such feedback. This study aims at analysing feedback giving among judges of bongo star search basing on the principles of feedback giving principles proposed by London (2003) together with those proposed by Hathaway (1990).

Bongo Star Search Program

Bongo star search is a TV show program hosted by ITV since 2006 with the aim of exposing the upcoming Tanzanian young musicians. The show begins by registering contestants from all Tanzanian regions who are screened from the first day up to the final day whereby the best performer earns money together with an offer to record his/her song in one of the known studios. The judge panelist consisted of Rita Paulsen, Master J and Salama Jabir. However, audiences participate in making judgment by voting for their best performer through SMS. Although the program is competitive in nature, this study treats it as a learning environment based on the influence of media on lifelong learning or informal learning.

Media Influence on Informal Learning

Lifelong learning or informal learning is an endless process through which people learn beyond school context (Batsleer, 2008; Deer Richardson, 2004; Cohen, 1975). It involves people gaining new knowledge and skills as they interact with others in their social context including media spaces such as mass media and social media (Batsleer, 2008). Deer Richardson (2004) perceives informal learning as both a process and product, by process it means one learning as he or she engages in certain activity while by product it means learning through what others have done. This implies that discussion about informal learning must include both people who engage in a relevant activity and those who observe it.

Even though formal learning is the major concern of many people,
people learn more through informal learning than formal learning (Chen & Bryer, 2012; Cross, 2007) and media is the main source of informal learning (Batsleer, 2008; Deer Richardson, 2004). As Deer Richardson (2004, p. 106) posits

We collect and check information from a huge range of sources in our lives—family, friends, books, TV programmes, authority figures, professional experts, the Internet, cultural icons, casual acquaintances. By comparing experiences, we come up with our own dynamic and complex view of how the world around us operates.

As a result, there has been interest among researchers in investigating the way in which media affect informal learning. In this section, I discuss ways in which media influence informal learning based on various studies.

Research shows that the media models people’s behaviour (Tahir, 2015). After investigating the impact of media among students at Peshawar, Tahir (2015) observed that the behaviour of the majority of students was modeled by what was happening in the media including TV shows. As he reports “Youth consider heroes as role models and try to imitate them in style. Tobacco companies linked advertisements with opposite gender and bravery. It attracts youth to have such behavior”. (Tahir 2015, P. 355) This shows the extent to which media determines youth behaviour and thus there is a need for media programs to be appropriate to youth’s desirable education.

Also, media complement the classroom environment. As people interact with the media such as TV and social media, they engage in activities to develop their intellectual capacity which rarely can be developed in classroom settings (Chen & Bryer, 2012; Matthews, 2016). For instance, learners who engaged in watching the Tudor historical show were able to react and question what was being presented. This engaged them in the actual context of communication and exploration of the world materials, which rarely occur in classrooms. In clarifying this Matthew posits “Fans are not just playing about online. They enjoy being detectives and figuring out discrepancies in the media. They are passionate enough about their topic to seek out primary and secondary sources for their arguments and counterargument” (2016, P. 39). In connection to that, Chen and Bryer (2012) reported that the use of Facebook provided a platform for learners to practice publishing online blogs, the experience that they did not have in school. This shows the extent to which media play a crucial role in informal learning. Arguably, analysing media practice can be the best way to ensure effective informal learning since it will help in appropriating the subject presented for the better of the informal learners.

Furthermore, media supplement formal curriculum education. Many people who missed certain learning experiences in formal curriculum use media such as TV shows to gain such experiences. Cuc (2014) reported that both students and teachers and in Romanian context acknowledged the
extent to which students learn about things that they did not learn in class such as emotional adjustment. This shows how easily media can mislead learners although they are not meant for formal learning. Likewise Masanet and Buckingham (2015) revealed that although TV series on sexual education evokes debate on its realism, yet it is perceived as a learning opportunity for sexual related matters. Drawing on this, one may argue that media is a learning space for people and thus there is a need to ensure quality of whatever they present.

Based on the above insights, I consider BSS as informal learning for contestants in the sense that the feedback they receive may help them improve their performance during the competition and in their future career. Therefore, the need for effective feedback is paramount for effective learning of the participants. I also consider BSS as informal learning for TV viewers in the sense that some viewers may regard BSS judges as their model in giving feedback. This implies that such viewers will only be good at giving feedback in their lives only if BSS judges practice effective feedback giving. Therefore, there is a need for BSS to give feedback in the same way that teachers do in formal learning contexts.

Feedback Giving Principles

Feedback refers to the information we get back as the reaction of others to our performance in different contexts (Folkman, 2006). However, for feedback to be effective requires consideration of many variables such as the giver, the receiver, the message itself, the purpose of giving it and the manner in which such feedback is communicated (Brinko, 1993). Research shows that the giver of feedback is the most influential variable for feedback to be effective (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). As a matter of fact, London (2003) and Hathaway (1990) propose principles for effective feedback and effective way of offering feedback respectively. According to London (2003) feedback must be specific, relevant to the performance or the performer, concrete and focused on either the activity or the process. In addition to these, Hathaway (1990) proposes the ‘DASR script’ model of the way in which feedback should be communicated.

The principle of specific feedback requires feedback givers to point out clearly the area that he/she wants the performer to maintain or improve. This implies the need for using illustration and examples to ensure that the addressee understands the specific area of focus.

In addition, To be relevant means being connected to the performer interest and the task performed. In other words, the one who offers feedback should be sensitive to the topic and the addressee in the sense that everything spoken must be within the context of the addressee and the task performed.

Moreover, the principle of being focused requires feedback givers to entirely confine feedback to certain aspects of the activity at hand. It implies the requirement for alignment of feedback with the specific aspect of the performance.
In the ‘DASR script’ model $D$ stands for describe; this requires the feedback giver to be descriptive rather than judgmental, $A$ represents acknowledgement; this requires the feedback giver to acknowledge his/her attitude towards the performance done by the receiver of the feedback. $S$ is for specifying the behaviour you want the recipient to modify or maintain, $R$ stands for reaffirmation of what the performer has to do.

### Feedback Giving Practices in Formal Learning Contexts

Studies conducted in relation to feedback in different contexts lead to various conclusions. The study conducted by Mwipopo (2007) in the USA in EFL/ESL classroom reveals that teachers demonstrated effective skills in giving feedback such as being fun to students, being specific and using positive terms in giving negative feedback which in turn helped students improve their learning. In addition, Chua and Mosha (2015) and (Kyaruzi, 2012) who conducted studies in Tanzania secondary schools, report that those schools whose teachers provide effective feedback perform better than those schools whose teachers do not give their students effective feedback. This shows how effective feedback is influential on learners’ better performance.

In contrast, Junining (2014) found that in Indonesia teachers fail to give effective feedback to student writing due to the large number of students per class. Junining (2014) clarifies that, many teachers’ feedback focused only on spelling and grammar rather than the content and the purpose of student writing and thus leaving students with partial knowledge. In addition, McCabe and Meuter (2011) and Caron and Gely (2004) conclude that in higher learning institutions delay of feedback is the major problem that makes feedback less effective to students. Besides that, Barach and Paranjape (2002) and Tuck (2012) conclude that teachers of higher learning institutions lack effective skills for giving constructive feedback to the extent that students miss an opportunity to improve their learning behaviors. Furthermore, Caron and Gely (2004) observed that students of law were not helped by the feedback because either teachers were not giving feedback or were giving incomprehensive feedback.

Above all, the study conducted by Sebonde (2013) and Komba (2015) show that teachers in secondary school and primary schools respectively lack feedback giving skills in such a way that their feedback do not help learners to improve their performance. Sebonde (2013) reported that some teachers are not aware of what to correct due to their incompetence in the English language as their teaching subject. On the other hand, Komba (2015) concludes that most of the feedbacks provided by primary teachers are unclear and less descriptive. Consequently, pupils learn nothing from such feedback.

Based on the above observations, it is clear that there is a need for improvements among feedback givers in different contexts so as to make feedback constructive rather than destructive to receivers of feedback. In response, Junining (2014), McCabe and Meuter (2011) and Caron and Gely (2004) propose the
use of online feedback so as to allow a number of different sources such as students and teachers commenting on one’s writing. However, this alternative is basically for context where feedback giving is ineffective due to the huge number of students. Since effective feedback giving is not constrained by the number of receivers, this study does not qualify to give us a base of generalization to all contexts where feedback is not well handled. On the other hand, Barach and Paranjape (2002) and Komba (2015) propose training of teachers in feedback giving so as to ensure that students get constructive feedback, nevertheless, training people to give feedback like any other training requires identification of the missing skills. In this basis assessing the level of feedback giving skills of feedback givers before conducting training is inevitable. From the above reviewed work, it is clear that in many contexts where feedback is given, feedback givers do not give feedback effectively to the extent that they can help receivers of feedback to improve their performance. On top of that, studies above imply that solutions to feedback giving are not universal in all contexts in such a way that one needs to investigate the nature of problems involved in feedback giving so as to find relevant solutions. It is on this basis, this study analyses feedback giving among judges of bongo star search programs using Hathaway (1990) and London (2003)’s principles of feedback giving through which its quality can be assessed and thus suggestions on how to improve the identified weaknesses.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Research Design**

This research conducted qualitatively as my focus was on human experience in actual settings. Qualitative research involves exploration and investigation of human experiences in their actual settings (Kothari 2004). Therefore, since my focus was on feedback giving practice during the BSS program, that suffice to make this study qualitative fits in qualitative frames.

**Sampling Techniques**

This research conducted used video clips of BSS in 2015 as a source of data. The choice was based on the currency and manageability of data. Since the sessions involve many stages in each year, purposive sampling was used to find a suitable stage in the year to represent the rest. In purposive sampling the researcher chooses a sample based on particular criteria (Kothari 2004). In selected episode 10 which involves the performance of twelve contestants. My choice was based on the assumption that the number of contestants is manageable to three judges in terms of giving feedback. In this way it was assumed that the size of receivers of feedback would not be a hindrance to judges in their feedback handling.

**Data Collection Methods**

The main data collection method used in this study was document analysis. Document analysis involves collecting and interpreting data from texts such as books, TVs and newspaper among others (Blessing &
Data Analysis Procedures

Analysed the data through content analysis. Content analysis involves the analysis of data from their actual use context such as documents by generating codes and categories (Hanjalic, 2004; Neuendorf, 2002; Riffe et al., 2005; Shelley & Krippendorff, 1984). The video clip was played more than one time so as to grasp the feedback given by each judge to each performer, and were tested against all relevant principles. I generated codes and categories from the transcripts based on the conceptual framework of principles of feedback giving proposed by London (2003) and Hathaway (1990). Since my focus was entirely on what was being said, the coding process was for audio scripts only rather than other modes such as colour and body languages of the judges.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This study analyses the feedback given by judges of BSS to BSS contestants with the aim of finding the extent to which such feedback is helpful to those contestants. The previous part of this paper includes the introductory part in which the background information on feedback has been presented together with contextualizing BSS in the learning context. The next part involves the review of both theoretical and empirical review related to this work. And the last section is of methodology in which the data collection, sampling and analytical procedures are outlined.

This section involves a summary of findings and discussion of the findings. The findings are organised sing a Table in which names of judges are presented against the analysis. Basing on the sensitivity of the study to images of judges to the public, the researcher opted the use of pseudo-names instead of their real names, and thus judges were named using numbers (1, 2 and 3)

Table 1 Summary of findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judge's Name</th>
<th>Analysis basing on London (2003)'s Principles</th>
<th>Analysis basing on Hathaway (1990)'s Principles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Judge #1</td>
<td>No specific feedback</td>
<td>01 descriptive feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>04 appropriate negative feedback</td>
<td>No specific focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>08 relevant feedback</td>
<td>01 acknowledgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No clear feedback</td>
<td>No reaffirmation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No concrete feedback</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judge #2</td>
<td>05 specific feedback</td>
<td>02 descriptive feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>02 appropriate negative feedback</td>
<td>No acknowledgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>09 relevant feedback</td>
<td>No specific focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No clear feedback</td>
<td>01 acknowledgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No concrete feedback</td>
<td>No reaffirmation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judge #3</td>
<td>02 specific feedback</td>
<td>01 descriptive feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>05 relevant feedback</td>
<td>No acknowledgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>01 appropriate negative feedback</td>
<td>No specific focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>01 clear feedback</td>
<td>01 reaffirmation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No concrete feedback</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research Result
The study aimed at analysing feedback giving practices among judges of BSS programs based on the principles proposed by London (2003) and Hathaway (1990). One of the observations from this study was that all judges provide relevant feedback to a large extent as it is shown from Table 1 that the highest rate of providing relevant feedback is to 08 performers out of 12 performers. Most judges were observed giving feedback that related to the process of performance and the content of performance such as “una sauti nzuri” (your voice is good). Since according to (Brookhart, 2008; Hathaway, 1990; London, 2003) focusing on process and content is among the elements of relevant feedback, in this aspect, judges of BSS provided useful feedback to contestants. This observation is similar to those of (Mwipopo, 2007) on the feedback provided by teachers of higher learning education in the USA and that of (Kyaruzi, 2012) in higher performing secondary schools in Tanzania. Nevertheless, the observation to some extent from that of (Sebonde, 2013) who found that to large extent English teachers in secondary schools in Tanzania did not even know what to comment on their students assignments. In this study on the other hand, there were few instances in which judges provided irrelevant feedback like commenting on previous performance instead of the current one. On top of that sometimes judges focused on individual personality rather than performance, some observed comments on personalities were like “umependeza” (you look good). Based on (Brookhart, 2008; Hathaway, 1990; London, 2003) aspects of relevant feedback, such feedback are irrelevant since they help nothing to the improvement of one’s performance. This implies that there are time judges of BSS lose their focus on coaching contestants and thus the need for concentration on the goal of their judgement for the betterment of the program.

In contrast, it was found that the aspect of specific feedback was less adhered to by judges of BSS as demonstrated in Table 1 that the highest rate of specific feedback was to 05 performers out of 12. Most of the time judges were observed using general terms in their comments to contestants such as “umeimba vibaya” (you have sung badly). Based on Brookhart (2008) and Hathaway (1990), specific feedback are those that point clearly at a particular behaviour or skill that a person has to improve or maintain, since music performance involves many aspects such as vocal, rhythm and dancing to mention the few, a comment like “umeimba vibaya” (you have sung badly) tells nothing about what exactly a person has to improve in the coming days, and thus destructive feedback. This observation is similar to that of studies conducted by (Komba, 2015; Kyaruzi, 2012; Sebonde, 2013) in the classroom context for secondary and primary school in Tanzania. Nevertheless, the results differ from that of the study conducted by (Mwipopo, 2007) in the higher learning context in the USA where teachers were able to give specific feedback that helped students improve. It is difficult to argue that the difference is influenced by the geographical location as long as the study conducted indicates that there
are some schools with better performance in Tanzania whose teacher handled feedback effectively. However, it can be argued from these observations that there is a need for improvement on feedback giving skills among judges of BSS for the project to be beneficial to the performers.

In addition, most of the time when judges provided negative feedback did not begin with positive feedback so as to set a good atmosphere for the performer to accept negative feedback. Based on both London (2003) and Hathaway (1990) principles of feedback giving, negative feedback has to be preceded with positive feedback so as to make the receiver of feedback be able to build upon what is missing from the well done aspect. Since music involves many aspects such as dancing, vocal, rhythm and demonstrating what is sung with body language, just to mention the few, it is expected that there are some of these aspects the performer can do well and in this case it does not sound for the judge to focus only on the aspects that have been done poorly. This observation is similar to those of (Komba, 2015; Sebonde, 2013) in their studies in secondary primary school teacher feedback. However, the results of this study are in contrast from the study conducted by Mwipopo (2007) on teachers of higher learning in the USA who found that they handled well negative feedback to the extent that students found such feedback helpful in their improvement. It is difficult to argue that the difference is influenced by the geographical location as long as the study conducted indicates that there are some schools with better performance in Tanzania whose teacher handled feedback effectively. However the result from this study implies the need for training among judges of BSS on how to handle negative feedback for the betterment of the program.

Apart from that, it was observed that, feedback from judges of BSS were unclear in the sense that they did not tell exactly how the performer has to do as it is shown in Table 1 that only one judge (#3) managed to give clear feedback once. For example one judge told the performer “inabidi ubadilike” (you need to change) which leaves the performer with questions like how or what should I change? Dancing style, type of music I perform, which in turn confuses the performer instead of enriching him/her. Based on London (2003)’s principle of feedback giving, constructive feedback needs to be clear, otherwise, they are destructive to the receiver. In this way, feedbacks provided by judges of BSS are not helpful to the performers. This observation is similar to that of the study of (Sebonde, 2013) and (Komba, 2015) feedback giving by the secondary and primary school teachers respectively, in Tanzania in which it was found that both primary and secondary teachers were unable to provide clear feedback which in turn did not help students. However, the results of this study are contrary to that of the study of Mwipopo (2007) on teachers of higher learning in the USA which shows that teachers provided comprehensive feedback that helped students. The difference of these results does not seem to be based on the geographical location with regard to the study conducted by Kyaruzi (2012) which show that
teachers of higher performing schools in Tanzania provide comprehensive feedback. However, the result implies the need for improving feedback giving skills among judges.

Furthermore, it was found that the feedback given by judges was not concrete to the extent that it was difficult to understand as shown in Table 1 that none of judges gave concrete feedback. According to London (2003) concrete feedback is the one that comprises evidence from the performance. Hathaway (1990) suggests that feedback givers should use their sensory in giving feedback in the sense that they comment on factual information observed by their sense so that to help the feedback understand exactly what is required to be done. However, judges of BSS were observed giving feedback without accompanying vivid information related to the performance, for example one judge commented “uliharibu mwanzoni ila ukajitahidi kuficha” (you did poorly at first but later you recovered). Such comments do not contain any concrete information in the way that a performer may recall the aspect addressed, and work upon it, thus bad feedback. This deficit in giving feedback was also observed by (Sebonde, 2013) and (Komba, 2015) on feedback given by secondary and primary teachers respectively, in Tanzania.

Besides that, the results are contrary to what Mwaipopo 2015 observed on teachers of higher learning in the USA who demonstrated greater capability in giving concrete feedback. They are also similar to that of the study of Kyaruzi (2012) which shows that teachers of higher performing school teachers in Tanzania provide concrete feedback that help their students perform well. The implication from this study is that judges of BSS have to improve their skills on giving feedback so as to help the contestants improve.

Besides the quality of feedback given by judges, the study also analysed the way in which feedback is communicated to contestants using Hathaway (1990)’s DASR script model. From the data gathered, it was found that judges of BSS did not offer descriptive feedback as the Table 1 shows that the highest rate for descriptive feedback is 2 out of 12. In some instances, judges gave a comment like “ulianza vibaya ila badaye ukarud njian” (you started poorly but you managed to come in the track later), which does not show how the performer was judged to have started poorly or how the performer was judged to come in track. In this way, it becomes difficult for the performer to understand the specific aspect s/he should improve or maintain in future. According to Hathaway (1990) contends that giving feedback in a descriptive manner helps the receivers of feedback understand where they are and where they need to be for them to be the best. This observation is similar to that of Sebonde (2013) and Komba (2015) on feedback given by secondary and primary teachers respectively, in Tanzania. The result of this study implies that judges of BSS need to improve their feedback giving skills so as to help contestants. Moreover, it was observed that judges of BSS do not accompany their feedback with acknowledgement of what feeling or perception a specific aspect of the performance produces to
him/her as Table 1 one shows that only one judge managed to communicate with acknowledgement only once. According to Hathaway (1990) acknowledging makes the performer understand well the impact of his/her performance to others, and thus finding the best way to maintain or improve. Harthaway (1990) adds that acknowledgement should be based on the idea of providing the best way to improve the performance. However, judges of BSS were observed not to acknowledge what the performers did and even if they tried their acknowledgement was not accompanied with what the performer can do to improve the performance. In this way such feedback is destructive rather than constructive. None of the reviewed studies focused on this aspect and therefore it is difficult to make any comparison. Yet the result implies the need of training among judges of BSS so as to improve feedback giving skills.

Above all, there was no re-affirmation on what judges wanted the performer to maintain or improve as it is shown in Table 1 that none of the judges reaffirmed the behaviour s/he wanted the performer to improve or maintain. Basing on Harthaway (1990) re-affirmation involves mentioning specifically areas of maintenance or improvement accompanied with assuring the feedback receivers that they are capable of doing what they are required to do. Since they failed to adhere to the principle, it demonstrates how bad their feedback is. This observation was not part of the reviewed research, and therefore, it is difficult to make any comparison, however, the result implies there is a need for judges of BSS to improve their feedback giving skills.

CONCLUSION
This study aimed at analysing feedback given by judges of BSS in Tanzania based on Harthaway (1990) and London (2003) principles of giving feedback. Generally, it has been found that feedback given by judges of BSS does not align to principles of effective feedback giving. This entails that such feedback cannot help contestants to improve their skills. With regard to the significance of feedback in one’s skill improvement as shown by Folkman (2006), the result of this study imply the need for training judges of BSS on feedback giving skills so that they can give feedback that are helpful to participants in the program and those who watch BSS program.

REFERENCES
Journal of Higher Education, 64, 574-593.


