Assessment for Learning of Oral Skills in the English Subject

—

Åse Johansen & Kjetil Olsen

Master thesis in LRU-3902 English didactics, May 2018

Acknowledgement

Writing this thesis has been a challenging and interesting experience which have given us insight into the fields of assessment for learning and oral skills. We believe that this thesis has made us better teachers by increasing our knowledge of how assessment can be used as a tool for learning and reflecting on how assessment for learning can be used to promote the development of oral skills. In the future, we hope that we can apply the knowledge we have gained to our own teaching practices.

We would like to thank the respondents to our questionnaire and the informants who participated in the interviews. Your experiences, knowledge and reflections have provided us with important information. Finally, we would like to thank our supervisor, Tove Holmbukt, for support and guidance throughout the study.

Tromsø, 15.05.2018

Åse Johansen & Kjetil Olsen

Abstract

This study investigates how teachers of English understand assessment for learning (AFL) and how they apply that knowledge in their practice with oral skills in the English subject. The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2014, pp.2-3) found that the assessment practice in basic training was in need for development and aimed to manage this by increasing the competence and understanding of assessment as a tool for learning. However, little focus has been directed at the improvement of oral skills. We hypothesise that teachers of the English subject find it more challenging to apply to AFL to oral skills than with written skills and that teachers may have limited implementation of AFL in their practice with oral skills. Therefore, we want to investigate teachers' perceptions of AFL in general and in relation to oral skills. To this end, the research questions are as follows:

How do teachers of the English subject understand assessment for learning?

How do teachers of the English subject apply their understanding of assessment for learning to their practice with oral skills?

We found it advantageous to use two data collection methods to answer our research questions. First, we used a questionnaire to gather preliminary information about the subject and to develop an interview guide. Secondly, we interviewed five of the thirteen respondents to the questionnaire about their understanding of AFL and how they apply AFL to oral skills in their teaching practice. All the informants teach at schools in Northern-Norway.

Our findings indicate that the informants have a clear understanding that the purpose of AFL is learning, that they use AFL in their practice with oral skills and have a shared understanding of AFL. Further on, that they view AFL as one of many factors which influences learning and find it challenging to apply to oral skills. Moreover, our findings show that there is a need for continued development of AFL competence and further research on how AFL can be applied to oral skills. We believe that schools leaders must take on responsibility for developing AFL practices at their schools and assist teachers' development of AFL competence.

Sammendrag

Denne studien undersøker hvordan engelsklærere forstår vurdering for læring og hvordan de anvender denne forståelsen i deres arbeid med muntlige ferdigheter i engelskfaget. Utdanningsdirektoratet (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2014, pp.2-3) argumenterer for en utvikling av vurderingspraksisen i grunnopplæringen og ønsket å oppnå dette ved å øke læreres kompetanse og forståelse av vurdering som et redskap for læring. Derimot har det vært lite fokus på forbedring av muntlige ferdigheter. Vår hypotese er at det er mer utfordrende å benytte seg av vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter enn av skriftlige ferdigheter, og at vurdering for læring bare er delvis integrert i lærernes undervisningspraksis med muntlige ferdigheter. Derfor ønsker vi å undersøke læreres oppfatning av vurdering for læring med tanke på muntlige ferdigheter. Til dette formålet har vi utformet følgende forskningsspørsmål:

Hvilken forståelse har engelsklærere av vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter?

Hvordan anvender engelsklærere deres forståelse av vurdering for læring i arbeidet med muntlige ferdigheter?

Vi bruker to datainnsamlingsmetoder for å besvare problemstillingene. Først benyttet vi et spørreskjema for å samle innledende informasjon om temaet og for å bidra til å utvikle en intervjuguide. Deretter intervjuet vi fem av tretten informanter som svarte på spørreskjemaet om deres forståelse av vurdering for læring og hvordan de anvender vurdering for læring i deres praksis med muntlige ferdigheter. Alle informantene er lærere på skoler i Nord-Norge.

Våre funn indikerer at informantene har en klar forståelse av at formålet til vurdering for læring er læring og at de benytter vurdering for læring i deres arbeid med muntlige ferdigheter. Videre, at informantene har en felles forståelse av vurdering for læring. De ser på vurdering for læring som en av mange faktorer som påvirker læring og finner det vanskelig å anvende vurdering for læring i deres arbeid med muntlige ferdigheter. Våre funn viser at det er behov for videre utvikling av kompetansen i vurdering for læring og forskning på vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter. Vi mener at skoleledere må ta ansvar for utviklingen av vurdering for læring ved deres skoler og assistere lærerne i arbeidet med å videreutvikle kompetansen om vurdering for læring.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

AFL – Assessment for learning

OECD - The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

TIMSS - Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

PISA - Programme for International Student Assessment

KPR – Knowledge Promotion Reform

ARG - The British Assessment Reform Group

TALIS - Teaching and Learning International Survey

NESH - The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities

NSD – Norwegian Centre for Research Data

x

1 Introduction

This chapter clarifies our motivation and background for conducting this study. Further, the literature used is reviewed and our contribution to the field discussed. Finally, we introduce the research questions, our hypothesis and the limitations of the study.

1.1 Motivation

The field of assessment have received increasing attention over the last decades. International research projects, like the "Oxfordshire Formative Assessment Project" by Black and Wiliam and The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) "Formative Assessment - Improving Learning in Secondary Classrooms", have played an integral role as a fundament for the national development programmes in Norway. These programmes aim for the schools and teachers to integrate assessment for learning (AFL) into their teaching practice, as there is firm evidence that formative assessment can improve pupils' learning gains (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, p.140). In the present study, both formative assessment and AFL is used. The relationship between these terms are elaborated in section 2.1.2. In Norway, there have been published studies, programmes, and Reports to the Storting on why and how formative assessment should be used in Norwegian schools, however, the teacher training programme at UiT[1] – the Arctic University of Norway has had a limited focus on assessment in the English subject.

We want to use our thesis to explore the field of formative assessment and gain knowledge on how formative assessment can increase the standards of achievement. We found that there is lack of literature on how formative assessment can be used to increase pupil achievement in oral skills. Therefore, we chose to focus on how the relationship between formative assessment and oral skills is perceived by teachers of English in Norway. In addition, we wanted to examine how they apply formative assessment to their teaching practice on oral skills. As assessment is a vital part of teaching, we believe that this study will help make us better teachers.

---

[1] Universitetet i Tromsø

1.2 Background

The recent focus on results from international tests, such as Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), have led to a debate over the Norwegian education policy and how pupils' learning should be approached (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2011a, p.1). The Knowledge Promotion Reform (KPR) addresses many of the perceived challenges in Norwegian classrooms and aims to increase the attainment of competence and strengthen the basic skills among all pupils (Bakken & Elstad, 2012, pp.31-32). In the subject of English, there is a comprehensive curriculum specifying the attainment goals pupils are expected to achieve as part of their training in English. Pupils' proficiency is assessed by their teachers, and they are given a grade for both their oral and written competence by the end of Year 10 of lower secondary school. The overall achievement grade[2] influences pupils' options for further education and serves as evidence of their competence in, and mastery of, the English language. The regulations of the Education Act (§ 3-1 & § 3-16, 2006) state that pupils have a right to participate in the assessment process and that formative assessment shall be used to increase the learning outcome and influence the overall achievement grade.

Black & Wiliam (1998a, pp.140-148) claim that there is a strong body of evidence which suggests that formative assessment raises the standards of achievement, however, assert that it was not currently used to its full potential. Report to the Storting No. 31 (Ministry of Education and Research, 2007-2008, p.68) argues that there is a lack of knowledge about the relationship between assessment practices and learning gains. Hattie & Timperley (2007, p.81) argue that feedback has a significant influence on student learning, which may impact learning positively or negatively. Thus, we claim that an investigation into the practice of formative assessment, and how feedback can be used to influence learning in the English subject, is of vital importance. The body of research which suggests that feedback and formative assessment could contribute significantly to increased learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998b; Hattie & Timperley, 2007) has led to a national focus on how to improve the educational policy. To increase and develop teachers' assessment competence, several measures have been initiated by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2009, 2011b & 2014).

---

[2] Standpunktvurdering (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, n.d.)

Furthermore, the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2014, p.2) reaffirms that AFL is one of the most substantial ways of increasing learning gains, and states that AFL is integral to the learning and assessment culture of the individual schools. Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.148) claim that standards can only effectively be raised by initiatives put into effect in the classroom by educators and their pupils. This suggests that teachers should consider their assessment practices regarding AFL and investigate how they can further implement AFL to enhance pupil learning. Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall & Wiliam (2004, p.18) argue that to achieve the goal of enhancing pupil learning, teachers must be willing to rethink how lessons are planned and the roles teachers and pupils have in the learning process. Additionally, Bøhn (2014, p.232) and Fjørtoft (n.d.) argue that teachers' assessment practice should be considered in relation to how they plan, implement and evaluate lessons. The general elements of formative assessment apply to both oral and written skills. However, this thesis focuses on teachers' understanding of AFL and how they apply their understanding of AFL in their practice with oral skills.

1.2.1 Literature review

In this section, we will present the position of our study in relation to the body of literature on formative assessment and account for the research we are using as a basis for the thesis. We have chosen the modern research on formative assessment by Black and Wiliam as opposed to the earlier works by Bloom and Hastings. Black & Wiliam's reputable 1998b article, "Assessment and Classroom Learning", reviews the literature on formative assessment and provides a foundation for the evidence of the substantial learning gains formative assessment can provide. Furthermore, we have considered the development of formative assessment literature through the British Assessment Reform Group (ARG) (2002), Black et al. (2004), OECD (2005) and Black & Wiliam (2009). These later works provide additional evidence of the possible benefits of formative assessment and identifies the elements and principles of effective use of formative assessment.

We have examined the Norwegian education policy perspective on formative assessment and oral skills to contextualise the situation our informants operate within, and to clarify possible influences on their teaching practice. The education policy is considered through the relevant reports to the Storting (No.11, 16, 20, 30 & 31), the essential documents and final reports of development projects initiated after the introduction of the KPR (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2009, 2011b, 2014, 2015a). In addition, the Regulations

of the Education Act (2006) and the online resources and guidelines on formative assessment found at the Directorate's webpage (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2015b) are used. The follow up research of the University of Oslo (Throndsen, Hopfenbeck, Lie & Dale, 2009) and OECD's review of evaluation and assessment in Norway (Nusche, Earl, Maxwell, & Shewbridge, 2011) contextualises formative assessment to Norwegian classrooms.

Oral skills are viewed from an education policy perspective using the Framework for Basic Skills, which function as a tool for the subject curriculum (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013a), and the English subject curriculum (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013b). Additionally, we examined several Norwegian authors' studies on oral skills, such as Hertzberg (2003; 2009), Svenkerud (2013) and Svenkerud, Klette & Hertzberg (2012), to provide information about the current teaching practices on oral skills. These articles are based upon oral skills in general; however, there is nothing to suggest that they are not applicable to a subject-specific application.

We use Hattie & Timperley's (2007) synthesis of meta-analyses on the influence and effectiveness of feedback as our baseline for feedback-related literature. Additionally, we have considered Gamlem & Smith (2013) on student perceptions of classroom feedback and the feedback guidelines provided by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2016). There is also a considerable focus on feedback in relation to formative assessment in much of the formative assessment literature. For Norwegian research on formative assessment and language learning, Burner (2014, 2016) and Bøhn (2014) were studied. However, no literature focusing on formative assessment of oral skills in the English subject was found using UiT - Arctic University of Norway's library database or the Google Scholar search engine. The lack of literature on the relationship between formative assessment and oral skills suggest a gap in the body of knowledge.

1.3 Contribution to the field

During the process of the teacher-training programme, and especially in preparation of this thesis, we have read literature and research on assessment, formative assessment, and AFL. Research on AFL of oral skills, as well as literature on the development of oral skills in the English subject, appear to be limited. Our contribution to the field will be to provide information about how AFL is perceived by Norwegian teachers of the English subject and how they apply their understanding of AFL in their practice with oral skills.

1.4 Research question

Our focus on AFL and oral skills have led us to the following research questions:

How do teachers of the English subject understand assessment for learning?

How do teachers of the English subject apply their understanding of assessment for learning to their practice with oral skills?

The first research question entails examining what the teachers mean by AFL and how AFL is situated in the context of their practice as teachers of the English subject. The second research question means investigating what they consider to be aspects of AFL of oral skills, the challenges and advantages associated with AFL of oral skills, and how they implement AFL in their practice with oral skills.

1.4.1 Hypothesis

The purpose of the hypothesis is to clarify our predispositions about AFL, which may have impacted the choice of research questions, methods of data collection and how the findings were analysed. We think it is likely that the aspects of AFL have been partially implemented in Norwegian teachers' instruction and assessment practices, and that AFL is viewed by them as part of the fluctuating focus of one of the many development projects in the field of education. Moreover, that feedback and guidance are prominent aspects of their assessment practice. We speculate that AFL is often linked to process writing and other writing activities, in contrast to affecting all the basic skills. Additionally, we believe that few teachers have reflected on how AFL can be applied to their practice with oral skills. Therefore, we assume that the assessment related measures initiated in Norway have had limited impact on the assessment and teaching practice of oral skills.

1.5 Limitations

The research is based on a questionnaire sent to English teachers at chosen schools in Northern Norway and interviews with five of the respondents. Because of the scope of the study, the sampling method utilised, the number of informants, the experience and skills of the researchers, the restricted literature review and the geographical limitations, we believe that the possibilities of transferring our findings to a larger scale population is limited. The limitations are further discussed in sections 3.4-3.8.

1.6 Outline

Chapter 1:

In this chapter, we clarify our motivation for conducting this study and account for the aim of the study. Furthermore, the background, a literature review, and our contribution to the research field are presented. Finally, the research questions, our hypothesis and the limitations of the study are made explicit.

Chapter 2:

In this chapter, we explain the terms 'assessment', 'summative assessment', 'formative assessment', and 'oral skills'. The Norwegian education policy perspective on AFL and oral skills are examined to contextualise the situation our informants operate within. In addition, we discuss the aspects of formative assessment in relation to the development of AFL in Norway and the current practice on oral skills.

Chapter 3:

In this chapter, we describe the research approach we have found appropriate to answer our research questions. Our methods of data collection and analysis are presented, and the validity, reliability, transferability, and ethical considerations of the study are accounted for.

Chapter 4:

In this chapter, the findings from the questionnaire and interviews are presented and analysed using diagrams, tables, and statements from the informants.

Chapter 5:

In this chapter, we provide an answer to our research questions. Furthermore, we elaborate how our answers are supported by the findings and discuss the answers in relation to the literature on formative assessment. The unexpected findings are presented and their implications for the validity of the study discussed.

Chapter 6:

In this chapter, we present a conclusion to the study, the practical implications of our findings and recommendations for future research.

2 Theoretical Framework

This chapter comprises the theoretical background for the present study and explores both the theory on and development of, formative assessment. Formative assessment is considered in relation to assessment in general and summative assessment. Moreover, the aspects and implications of formative assessment in classroom practice are accounted for, and the characteristics of the formative assessment classroom are presented. Additionally, the status of formative assessment in Norway is explored to contextualise the situation of the informants in this study. Finally, examples of the teaching practice on oral skills in Norway are presented and contrasted with the literature on formative assessment.

2.1 Assessment

In this section, the term assessment is accounted for and the purpose of assessment is examined. The roles of summative and formative assessment are explained in relation to their purposes and the differences between them are made clear. Additionally, the development of formative assessment is clarified, and the aspects of formative assessment are discussed. Finally, the characteristics of the formative assessment classroom are presented.

Assessment is an integral part of education (OECD, 2005, p.13) and has increased its prominence in policy and practice (Nusche et al., 2011, p.43). The general term *assessment* is commonly applied in education to describe the activity of measuring what a learner knows and can do (Banta & Palomba, 2014, p.1). Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.140) apply the term 'assessment' to refer to all activities, undertaken by teachers and their students, that provide information which can be used to modify teaching and learning activities. This means that any given classroom lesson is bound to include some aspects of assessment. Assessment activities can take many forms, for example as pre-planned comprehensive tests or micro-level assessment through interactions with learners (Harmer, 2007, p.379). However, assessment is more than merely the collection of data. The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015c, p.12) states that the two primary functions of assessment are to inform pupils about their current performance and motivate them to improve their learning. One way to differentiate between assessment methods is to take a closer look at the purpose for which the data is collected. Helle (2007, p.17) argues that a fundamental dilemma for assessment is the balance between control and learning. This balance can be considered as the relationship between summative and formative assessment.

2.1.1 Summative assessment

Summative assessment aims to evaluate student learning and serve as a summary of performances, often comparing the results to a standard of achievement as a means for certification or selection (OECD, 2005, p.13; Helle, 2007, p.17). The data collected measure what pupils have learnt at the end of a teaching unit and can be used for both external and internal purposes. External purposes include certification and selection processes for admission to higher education programmes, however, can also include evaluations of the effectiveness of an educational system, schools or teaching methods (OECD, 2005, p.13; Throndsen et al., 2009, p.29). In Norway, Nasjonalt kvalitetsvurderingssystem for skolen uses national tests to monitor the performance and variance of competence across schools over time. Internationally, summative assessments, such as TIMSS and PISA, have proven essential for comparing different national educational systems and thus provides opportunities for educational development. Internally, summative assessment can be used to provide information about learner progression to teachers, parents and pupils within a school (Throndsen et al., 2009, p.29).

Summative assessment plays an important role in providing information about pupil performance in relation to the explicit learning goals as presented by the competence aims in the curriculum (Black & Wiliam, 2009, p.8). However, policymakers and teachers must ensure that the use of summative assessment is the most suitable assessment form in relation to the goals they aim to achieve. A too heavy reliance on summative assessment may unintentionally alter the teaching practice and lead to a detrimental "teaching to the test" mentality (OECD, 2005, p.24). Furthermore, Birenbaum et al. (2006, p.62) have criticised summative assessment for being inflexible, inauthentic, uneconomical, and context independent. The rigidity of summative assessment makes it less suitable for differentiated teaching and often does not address the needs of the learners who perform well above or below the set standard (Birenbaum et al, 2006, p.62). In Norway, programs such as "Assessment for Learning" (2010-2014; 2014-2017) has aimed to strengthen the relationship between formative and summative assessment. These programmes will be discussed in section 2.2.

2.1.2 Formative assessment

In contrast to summative assessment, *formative assessment* refers to frequent, interactive assessments of pupil progress where the information gathered from the pupil is used to improve and adjust teaching approaches to meet the pupils' needs (OECD, 2005, p.13). Burner (2014,

p.234; 2016, p.626) argues that formative assessment is assessment which intends to improve a pupil's learning process or a teacher's instruction and draws parallels between formative assessment and AFL. Moreover, Throndsen et al. (2009, p.26) state that AFL is part of what is considered formative assessment. The AFL term is also used by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2011b; 2014), who argues that the term is used to describe the fact that information about the pupils' competence and development should influence the planning and execution of teaching. Furthermore, in the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training's (2011b, p.3) "Assessment for Learning"[3] programme, it is clarified that the term AFL is used to make explicit the fact that the primary aim for formative assessment is learning. The programme is also founded on the research on formative assessment. In these respects, the use of the terms formative assessment and AFL is consistent in meaning and interchangeable for the present study.

Black & Wiliam's (1998b) comprehensive review of literature on formative assessment in the classroom found that there was no widely accepted interpretation of formative assessment and suggested the following definition (1): "…as encompassing all those activities undertaken by teachers, and/or by their students, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged" (ibid. pp.7-8). Furthermore, Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.140) make explicit that the information received must be used to adapt the teaching for it to be formative assessment as opposed to summative assessment. Thus, formative assessment is not connected to any specific teaching methods or activities used in classrooms; instead, it is an aspect of any method which provides information about the pupils' learning progress which is used to adapt the teaching to the needs of the learners.

The original review by Black and Wiliam (1998b) was funded by ARG, which they were part of, to investigate the effects of formative assessment on learning. ARG worked together with policymakers, teachers, and local education authorities to ensure that assessment policy and practice were founded on research on the effects of assessment. One of the findings of the 1998 review (Black & Wiliam, 1998b) was the lack of common ground on the meaning of the term 'formative assessment'. Therefore, ARG (2002, p.2) proposed 10 principles for AFL and further developed the definition (2) as "the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for use

---

[3] Satsingen Vurdering for læring, 2010-2014

by learners and their teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there". The original definition from 1998 was somewhat changed, however, the main principles of gathering, interpreting, and using the information to find out where they need to go and how to best close the gap was still present.

The research evidence (Black & Wiliam, 1998b) which suggested that formative assessment could have a decisive impact on learning led to the initiation of several measures to improve and develop the practice of formative assessment in Norway. Following the experiences gathered from similar measures internationally, and research done by the members of ARG and others, Black & Wiliam (2009) summarised their work with formative assessment and restated their definition (3):

> Practice in a classroom is formative to the extent that evidence about student achievement is elicited, interpreted, and used by teachers, learners, or their peers, to make decisions about the next steps in instruction that are likely to be better, or better founded, than the decisions they would have taken in the absence of the evidence that was elicited (p.9).

This third and latest definition is the one we will be utilising in our discussion in chapter 5. The definition increases the focus on the process of using the gathered information to correct and adjust the teaching practice as crucial to the formative assessment approach. Additionally, the active role of learners as self- and peer-assessors in formative assessment is made explicit. Black & Wiliam (2009) state that the definition makes it clear that "formative assessment is concerned with the creation of, and capitalisation upon, 'moments of contingency' in instruction for regulation of learning processes" (2009, p.10), i.e., moments where learning can change direction depending on assessment. These critical points in time can be synchronous as in "real-time" adjustments or asynchronous as in the information gathered from homework, tests or previous insights from other students (Black & Wiliam, 2009, pp.10-11). In relation to oral skills, the moments of contingency that can be capitalised upon are mostly synchronous.

Thus, for assessment to be formative in function, the gap between the learners' current knowledge or competence and the desired goals must be closed by using the information obtained through assessment to provide some form of stimulus. Consequently, the nature of the differential interventions initiated as a response to the teaching needs discovered will be a significant aspect of any formative assessment approach (Black & Wiliam, 1998b, p.16). Black & Wiliam (1998b, p.25) found that for formative assessment purposes there are two main options for closing the gap; first, teachers can develop the learners' metacognitive strategies so

that they can recognise gaps in understanding and carry out remedial actions to close that gap. Secondly, teachers can themselves generate the stimulus information and activities they believe necessary for closing the gap. However, there is no clear boundary between the two different approaches, and they can be combined.

2.1.2.1 Metacognitive strategies

OECD (2005, p.50) argues that metacognition involves awareness of the process of how one learns or thinks and equips pupils with tools for learning and the ability to use or develop strategies to solve problems. The development of *metacognitive strategies* means making learners aware of the criteria for success and able to recognise gaps in their understanding. Pupils must have developed the skills necessary, and knowledge of how they learn, to be able to carry out remedial actions. Metacognitive strategies are sometimes referred to as skills for lifelong learning or "learning to learn" skills. To develop skills for lifelong learning is, according to Birenbaum et al. (2006, p.62) and OECD (2005, p.22), a vital tool to meet the needs and demands of a modern society that is currently not being addressed by the present assessment practices.

In the regulations of the Education Act (2006, § 3-12) it is explicitly stated that self-assessment is a part of formative assessment and that it should contribute to the pupils' awareness and reflection on their learning progress. Moreover, the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b) states that pupils should be involved in their learning process by assessing their work and development. Throndsen et al. (2009, p.66) argue that involving learners in the assessment process can enable them to understand their own work in a context, strengthen their awareness of what they know and how they can improve, contribute to clarifying and communicating the criteria for success, and increase the effectiveness of the feedback received from the teacher. This is congruent with Black & Wiliam's (1998b, p.25) thoughts on metacognitive strategies as enabling pupils to recognise gaps in their understanding and carry out remedial actions. Therefore, we believe that the involvement of pupils in the assessment process can be considered a part of developing the pupils' metacognitive strategies.

OECD (2005, p.23) argues that formative assessment promotes learning to learn skills by actively involving pupils in developing a variety of learning strategies, emphasising the process of learning, building peer- and self-assessment skills, and focusing on how they learn. Self- and peer-assessment can increase pupils' understanding of their own and peers' work in regard to known criteria of quality (Throndsen et al., 2009, p.30). Black et al. (2004, pp.14-15) argue that

peer- and self-assessment contribute to the development of student learning and can help secure aims that could not be achieved any other way. Furthermore, Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.143) reaffirm the close relationship between formative assessment and self-assessment as inevitable. This relationship is explained by Black & Wiliam by stating that for formative assessment to be productive, pupils must be able to "understand the main purposes of their learning and thereby grasp what they need to do to achieve" (1998a, p.143). Additionally, Black et al. (2004, pp.14-15) argue that peer-assessment provides distinct opportunities for developing competence in self-assessment, in addition to allowing pupils to receive feedback in a language that is familiar to their own. This can result in pupils considering feedback that would normally not be accepted if the feedback had been provided by the teacher. Thus, self- and peer-assessment is vital to developing pupils' capacity for self-monitoring and self-regulation of their learning progress in collaboration with clear aims and knowledge of the criteria for success. However, it takes time and effort by the teacher to develop pupils' capacity and ability to participate in the assessment practice (Black et al., 2004, p.14; Gamlem & Smith, 2013, p.161).

2.1.2.2 External stimuli

To close the gap between current and desired knowledge using external stimuli, the information about the pupils' present understanding must be considered by teachers when orchestrating activities or providing tasks and information to the pupils (Black & Wiliam, 1998b, pp.31-39). There are several key considerations when using external stimuli in formative assessment. First, to be able to use formative assessment to guide learners toward important learning goals, the choice of tasks must be compatible with formative assessment. Thus, tasks must work towards the learning goals and be structured to generate and provide evidence of the current understanding of the pupil to both the teacher and the pupil (Black & Wiliam, 1998b, p.31). Secondly, pupils must understand what is expected of them and have shared learning goals with the teacher (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2015b). This is further supported by Sadler (1989, p.121) who argues that a shared concept of quality between learner and teacher is an indispensable condition for improvement. While Kluger & DeNisi (1996, p.260) claim that securing high commitment and belief in eventual success for a clear goal is likely to increase effort. Criteria illustrating how the learning goals can be achieved is also a characteristic of formative assessment (Throndsen et al., 2009, p.30). If pupils do not have a clear understanding of quality and how it can be achieved, it becomes impossible for them to

judge the quality of their work with a degree of objectivity and detachment. Further, objective criteria can add validity and legitimacy to critical feedback (Gamlem & Smith, 2013, p.161).

Thirdly, promoting valuable classroom discourse and effective use of questions are central elements of the formative assessment practice. Black & Wiliam (1998b, pp.33-34) and Black et al. (2004, p.11) found that classroom dialogue and questions were often superficial and rarely used to promote learning. In Black & Wiliam's review of formative assessment, they found that "the dialogue between pupils and a teacher should be thoughtful, reflective, focused to evoke and explore understanding, and conducted so that all pupils have an opportunity to think and to express their ideas" (1998a, p.144). To that end, teachers should engineer effective classroom discussions where thoughtful reflection is evoked and available for all learners. Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.144) suggest several steps to allow for effective classroom discussions, such as increased waiting time and collaborative reflection before submitting an answer. Moreover, Black et al. (2004, pp.12-13) argue that teachers should spend more time carefully engineering questions that elicit evidence of pupil understanding and explore issues critical to understanding, in addition to anticipating answers and creating effective follow-up activities that can extend pupils' understanding.

Fourthly, the formative assessment classroom must consider how to deal with summative assessment in the form of tests and the interplay between assessment of learning and AFL. The measures initiated nationally to improve assessment practice in Norway has focused on developing teachers' assessment competence and clarifying the relationship between formative and summative assessment (Ministry of Education and Research, 2012-2013, p.66; Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2014, p.4). Additionally, there has been a focus on how national tests can be used to promote learning. Black et al. (2004, pp.15-16) argue that summative tests must be considered a part of the learning process and can be used formatively by engaging pupils in reflection tasks, reviewing the work they have done and considering how they may improve. Tests can also be an opportunity for feedback if the pupils know the criteria they are being assessed by and the relevance they have to the learning aims.

Fifthly, pupils should receive feedback on the quality of their work and guidance on how to improve (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2015b). Effective use of feedback is an integral element in the formative assessment process (Gamlem & Smith, 2013, p.152; Sadler, 1989, p.120). Feedback is applied by Hattie & Timperley (2007, p.81) as "information provided by an agent … regarding aspects of one's performance or

understanding". The agent in question can come in many forms, however, will always depend on a performance or understanding to give feedback to. Perrenoud (1998, p.86) argues that feedback must be taken into account by the pupil in order for feedback to readjust, stimulate, reinforce, reorient or accelerate the mental processes of the pupil to modify the learning processes. Furthermore, for feedback to be effective, it must consider pupils' prior knowledge, provide logical connections and be purposeful, clear and meaningful (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.104). In addition, feedback is contingent on the form, tone, content, timing and context it is presented within (Perrenoud, 1998, p.87). Thus, if feedback is not given under conditions where the pupils are ready to receive it and in a form the pupils can understand and apply the feedback, then the feedback does not affect their cognition and will not modify their learning processes.

For feedback to improve learning it must provide information or guidance that can be used to alter the gap between current and desired knowledge or understanding (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, p.144; Sadler, 1989, p.121). This is also reflected in pupils' perceptions of feedback as dependent upon being honest and containing cues for improvement to be constructive (Gamlem & Smith, 2013, p.161). Hattie & Timperley (2007, pp.85-102) found that the effectiveness of feedback is further moderated by the type of feedback, the difficulty of tasks and goals, the explicitness of the goal in relation to the complexity of the task, learners' willingness to invest effort, response certainty, and the relationship between task commitment and positive and negative feedback. Further on, Gamlem & Smith (2013, p.155) suggest that classroom climate can influence how pupils perceive and use feedback. Sadler (1989, p.130) notes that the size of the gap can influence the pupils' willingness and motivation to close the gap.

Although feedback can increase motivation, effort, and the development of learning strategies (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.102), it can also have a highly variable effect on performance (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996, p.254). Hattie & Timperley (2007, p.96) found that feedback in the form of praise, rewards, and punishment contains little learning-related information and is typically ineffective. This is especially disconcerting because of the widespread use of praise found in Norwegian classrooms (Hopfenbeck, Tolo, Florez & El Masri, 2013, p.24). Furthermore, Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.144), Black et al. (2004, p.13) and Sadler (1989, p.121) argue that feedback given along with marks or grades may be counterproductive for formative purposes and have a lesser impact on learning than feedback alone. The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2016) cautions focusing on

rewards and grades as it can obscure the focus on learning and negatively impact the learning environment.

2.1.3 Characteristics of the formative assessment classroom

OECD's case study findings and review of international research found six key elements of teaching and assessment in formative assessment classrooms (2005, pp.43-44). These elements were all incorporated into the teachers' practice; however, the elements were emphasised differently by the teachers. The elements are certainly connected to the general idea of formative assessment, yet little evidence or theoretical foundation is presented by OECD to assert the exhaustiveness of the elements in regard to the domain of formative assessment practice. Nevertheless, OECD found that the key elements of formative assessment are:

1. Establishment of a classroom culture that encourages interaction and the use of assessment tools.
2. Establishment of learning goals, and tracking of individual student progress towards those goals.
3. Use of varied instruction methods to meet diverse student needs.
4. Use of varied approaches to assessing student understanding.
5. Feedback on student performance and adaptation of instruction to meet identified needs.
6. Active involvement of students in the learning process. (2005, p.44).

These elements reflect many of the aspects of formative assessment as presented by Black & Wiliam (2009, p.8) in section 2.1.2. A classroom culture that encourages interaction allows pupils to open up, and thus give information to the teacher about their current knowledge and competence that can be used to adapt the teaching. Assessment tools, such as checklists or assessment matrixes, might help pupils reflect upon the assessment processes in the classroom and make sure that the focus is on learning. Additionally, to establish learning goals and track pupil progress is essential to make sure there is a shared knowledge of the criteria for success and for pupils to know what is expected of them. Teachers must track progress to make the learning process transparent to the pupils and to be able to provide effective feedback continuously. Using different instruction and assessment methods and adapting these methods to meet the needs of the pupils, is part of adapted education and vital for optimising learning for all pupils. Perrenoud (1998, pp.92-94) argues that pupils differ in developmental level, ability, linguistic capital, previous knowledge, motivation, and ambition, and therefore will not

benefit equally from any strategy or instruction method. Thus, because of the diversity of pupils, teachers must have variety in their approach to teaching and learning and the assessment practices must also be diverse to allow for multiple opportunities for pupils to demonstrate their knowledge and skills. The importance of effective use of feedback and active involvement of pupils in the learning process to develop metacognitive strategies is discussed in section 2.1.2.

2.2 Assessment for learning in Norway

In this section, the status of AFL in Norway will be considered in relation to the different AFL measures initiated by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training. The aim is to contextualise the position our informants operate within and the possible influences to their teaching practice. Norway's comparatively weak results in OECD's PISA of 2001 disturbed the belief in the national education system and led to a political focus on the academic results of Norwegian pupils. The results radically changed the debate on educational policy and influenced the introduction of the KPR of 2006 (Bergesen, 2006, p.37; Ministry of Education and Research, 2003-2004, pp.7-8). A stronger emphasis was put on the culture for learning in Norwegian classrooms and improving the basic skills such as reading and writing. Furthermore, tools and procedures were established on a national level to monitor the quality of the educational system and, subsequently, to improve teaching practice and learning outcomes in Norwegian schools (Nusche et al., 2011, p. 13).

With the implementation of KPR, the regulations of the Education Act were revised. The revision included changes to the regulations regarding assessment in primary and lower secondary school and introduced the term formative assessment. In § 3-1 of the regulations, the pupils' explicit right to formative assessment is stated while § 3-16 asserts that the competence demonstrated by the pupil throughout the studies shall be included in the basis for assessment which makes up the overall achievement grade (The regulations of the Education Act, 2006). Furthermore, § 3-11 provides information about the nature and role of formative assessment in the Norwegian educational context. Namely that formative assessment should be used to increase competence, facilitate for adapted education, and provide feedback that both inform the pupil of his or her competence, while also guiding further development of competence. Additionally, the feedback given as a part of formative assessment should inform the teacher whether the learner has satisfactory learning gains or not (The regulations of the Education Act, 2006).

Despite the changes to the regulations concerning assessment, Throndsen et al. (2009, p.17) argue that the evaluations of the school system in Norway demonstrate that there are challenges with the assessment practice. They found that the assessment practice was inadequate and that systematic assessment is rarely used as the foundation for the pupils' learning. Support for these claims is found in Report to the Storting No.16 (2006-2007, p.77), which states that assessment and feedback should be further prioritised throughout primary and lower secondary school. The report also connects the lack of evaluation culture to reduced academic development opportunities for teachers. The claims made in the report show that the assessment practices are not yet functioning as a tool for learning and development (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2009, p.5). Report to the Storting No. 31 (2007-2008, p.30) acknowledges the need for better assessment practices while stating that many schools find it difficult to make assessment an integrated part of the learning processes in the classroom.

As a result of the challenges associated with assessment in Norway, the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training initiated a package of assessment-related measures in 2007 which aimed to increase assessment competence among teachers, clarify rules and regulations regarding assessment, improve documenting procedures for assessment, and promote fair assessment (Nusche et al., 2011, p.49). "The Better Assessment Practice"[4] project of 2007-2009 was part of the initial assessment-related measures and aimed to combine a fair assessment practice with a subject-related and motivational assessment to increase pupils' level of mastery. The project found that teachers' competence and understanding of formative assessment should be further developed. Report to the Storting No.11 (2008-2009, p.49) reflects upon the findings in the Better Assessment Practice project and identifies four key principles which are essential to increase learning gains; (1) pupils must be given feedback on the quality of their performance, (2) get advice on how to improve, (3) be involved in the assessment process, and (4) know what is expected of them and what they are supposed to learn.

Furthermore, the Assessment for Learning programme (2010-2014) was launched by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training to provide a common understanding of formative assessment and to support school owners, schools and other training establishments in their work on developing an assessment culture and practice focusing on student learning (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2011b, p.2). The Norwegian Directorate

---

[4] Bedre Vurderingspraksis

for Education and Training (2015a) states that the programme has led to a better understanding of the curriculum and the competence aims, a shared assessment culture between schools and school owners, motivated teachers with increased focus on developing a good assessment practice, and more learner awareness and knowledge regarding the learning goals and assessment criteria used in the classroom.

However, Nusche et al.'s (2011, pp.19-56) review of evaluation and assessment in the Norwegian educational system found differences in education quality across municipalities, a lack of clear and concise description of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do, concerns about the equivalence and reliability of pupils' grades, misconceptions of formative assessment, and only partly met professional development of assessment practices. Furthermore, OECD's (2009, p.84) Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) found that 21,9% of Norwegian teachers indicated that they have a "high level of need" for professional development in the area of pupil assessment practices. While TALIS of 2013, 75% of primary school teachers and 69% of lower secondary school teachers indicated a need for continued or additional training in the field of pupil assessment (Caspersen, Aamodt, Vibe & Carlsten, 2014, p.57). The need for professional development of assessment competence for teachers and assessment culture for schools is believed by the Union of Education in Norway[5] to be the best way to ensure uniform support for assessment and learning (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2011b, p.80). The Assessment for Learning [6] programme (2014-2017) was one of several measures initiated by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training to ensure a sustained focus on formative assessment and the development of teacher and school competence. This follow-up programme aimed to increase school owners' capacity for competence development on a local level by providing a framework for future competence building (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2014, p.3). In this way, the aim was for the development of competence to continue in schools after the end of the programme.

---

[5] Utdanningsforbundet (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, n.d.)

[6] Videreføring av Satsingen Vurdering for læring, 2014-2017

The results from PISA of 2015 indicate that for Norwegian learners there were only statistically insignificant improvements in all subjects except natural science (Kjærnsli & Jensen, 2016, p.30). Stable results over time may be interpreted as positive, but it does not indicate that the efforts in developing the assessment culture have led to any major improvements in classroom practice which has resulted in increased learning gains. Engh (2016, p.27) argues that there are conflicting beliefs about what good assessment practice entails which leads to different and contradictory practices; thus, it cannot be said that the AFL measures have resulted in better learning in Norwegian schools. The concern is shared by Hopfenbeck et al. (2013, pp.60-64) who found that Norwegian teachers expressed that they were tired of reforms and had trouble changing their practice. Furthermore, Hopfenbeck et al. (2013, pp.58-59) found no statistically significant differences in pupil achievement between intervention schools, who had implemented AFL, in comparison to the reference non-intervention schools. However, suggest that this may be due to limited implementation in intervention schools, lack of time to refine and develop their assessment practice, the selection process of the participating schools, or because the use of formative assessment is self-reported. In our view, it is disconcerting that there has been no significant improvement in national learning gains as a result of the KPR or locally between intervention and non-intervention schools.

2.3 Oral skills

This section has three primary aims; to account for the term oral skills in relation to KPR, to examine the current teaching and assessment practice of oral skills in Norway, and finally, to contrast the current teaching and assessment practice of oral skills with the literature on formative assessment. *Oral skills* are one of five skills defined as fundamental for learning in all subjects and functions as both a prerequisite, and tool, for showing and developing competence in any given subject (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013a, p.5). The basic skills are reflected in the competence aims specified in each subject curriculum and are, although emphasised differently depending on the subject, mandatory in every subject. The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training defines oral skills as creating meaning through listening and speaking, and mastery of linguistic and communicative activities (2013a, p.6). Pupils must be able to listen and comprehend what others are saying, produce language both spontaneously and prepared, and express themselves while communicating with others.

In the English subject, this means "being able to listen, speak and interact using the English language. It means evaluating and adapting ways of expression to the purpose of the conversation, the recipient and the situation" (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013b, p.4). The aim is to develop pupils' mastery of the English language and enable them to understand the nuances of English and express themselves in conversation and complex communication situations. The aims for oral communication at the end of Year 10 of lower secondary school are comprehensive and include being able to "express oneself fluently and coherently, suited to the purpose and situation" and "choose and use different listening and speaking strategies that are suitable for the purpose" (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013b, p.9). The importance of oral skills in the English subject is reflected in the curriculum; however, they are tightly woven together with the other basic skills and can be developed as part of the focus on communicative competence (Blair & Rimmereide, 2009, p.183).

Berge (2007, p.243) found that oral skills are marginalised in KPR and that there existed no common evaluation practice shared between teachers, despite there being a separate grade for oral competence in the English subject. This is further supported by Hertzberg (2009, p.144) who found that oral skills were rarely mentioned by her informants and that none of the schools reported any measures or initiatives focusing on the development of oral skills. Hertzberg (2003, p.163) and Svenkerud et al. (2012, p.44) found that the systematic work with oral skills was almost exclusively accomplished through some form of work with presentations. Considering this one-sided approach to the development of oral skills, we believe it is important to examine if and how formative assessment is applied to teachers' practice with oral skills. One challenge might be the elusive nature and complexity of oral productions which exists only temporary and are difficult to analyse (Matre, 2009, p.209). Thus, it seems the practice of developing, and assessment of, oral skills is often haphazard and dependent on the teachers own beliefs about teaching and learning or based upon the assessment culture at the different schools. In our view, the lack of variety in the approach to oral skills is unlikely to meet the pupils' different learning needs and may lead to the understanding that oral skills are only related to presentations. Moreover, we find that the poverty of systematic work with oral skills is unlikely to result in teachers providing differentiated and varied assessment opportunities where pupils can demonstrate their competence and knowledge.

The lack of focus on oral skills may also result in a more significant learning gap between pupils, as Hertzberg (2003, p.164), Svenkerud (2013, p.9) and Svenkerud et al. (2012, p.44) all found a lack of systematic guidance from the teacher regarding the pupils' work with presentation, making the pupils largely responsible for their learning. Further, Svenkerud (2013, p.9) found that pupils often practice their presentations at home and receive feedback from their parents or caretakers. Thus, the support pupils receive at home may play a vital part in the development of oral skills, and lead to more substantial differences in competence depending on the availability and quality of support. This is congruent with the earlier findings by Hertzberg (2003, p.165; 2009, p.144) and Svenkerud et al. (2012, p.44) that oral skills receive little focus, which raises the question whether teachers are facilitating for the development of oral skills in their teaching practice. It may suggest that there is lack of work with oral skills in Norwegian classrooms. In our view, it is difficult to imagine that a one-dimensional approach to oral skills will enable pupils to develop a comprehensive mastery of the English language as specified in the framework for oral skills and the competence aims for oral communication.

The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b, p.1) argues that pupils must get feedback on the quality of their work and advice on how to improve. However, Hertzberg (2003, pp.158-159) and Svenkerud et al. (2012, pp.44-45) found that the feedback given after presentations are often short, general and exclusively positive. Moreover, that the feedback is rarely focused on the development of oral skills. This may be due to the challenge of providing effective feedback to the pupils. Hattie & Timperley (2007, p.103) argue that teachers much be able to develop a positive learning environment, identify relationships between ideas, time the feedback, allocate time to provide the feedback, and have a thorough understanding of the subject matter. Exclusively positive feedback such as praise is in general ineffective (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, pp.102-103) and may have a negative effect on learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998b, p.49). The findings presented by Hertzberg (2003) and Svenkerud et al. (2012) seem to indicate that there currently is a scarcity of focus or knowledge on providing effective feedback to oral skills in Norwegian schools. The criteria for effective feedback and for feedback to improve learning, as presented by Hattie & Timperley (2007), appears to be unfulfilled.

Svenkerud (2013, p.1) found that pupils were unsure about what they had learnt and what they need to learn about oral skills. In our view, it is unlikely that giving pupils the main responsibility for their learning without providing them with clear criteria for success will enable them to achieve the competence intended by KPR. When the purpose and aim of any concrete task are unclear, it reduces the learning potential of the task (Higgins, Baumfield & Hall, 2007, p.17). In addition, a lack of knowledge about the criteria combined with ineffective feedback provides little opportunity for developing their oral skills. Svenkerud et al. (2012, pp.46-47) argue that there is a significant difference to the traditions of oral and written competence development where the result is that pupils do not get the guidance they need to develop their oral skills.

The current teaching practices regarding oral skills are dominated by presentations, little guidance and ineffective use of feedback. Thus, we argue that formative assessment of oral skills is not being utilised to its full potential in regard to the principles of learning enhancing formative assessment as stated by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b) and the key elements of formative assessment by OECD (2005, p.44). Several key principles and elements, such as knowledge of the learning goals and expectations, effective use of feedback, adapted instruction, and the use of varied instruction and assessment methods, seem to attract little focus in the current practice. Therefore, one cannot conclude that formative assessment of oral skills is commonly integrated into the teaching practice of the classrooms observed by Norwegian researchers. However, the regularly used presentation method does allow pupils to be actively involved in their learning process and could potentially be a part of a variety of methods used in the future. Training pupils to become active listeners and to a larger degree interact with the presenters could also be a part of establishing an interactive classroom culture and developing their skills as peer-assessors. Nonetheless, it is likely that teachers must be made aware of, and develop their competence in, AFL of oral skills.

2.4 Theoretical Framework – summarised

Formative assessment, section 2.1.2, uncovers information about current pupil understanding, with the purpose of adjusting the teaching to meet the identified learning needs of the pupils (OECD, 2005, p.13). Summative assessment, section 2.1.1, is also important for teaching but must be considered in relation to what teachers hope to achieve with the assessment (Black & Wiliam, 2009, p.8). For formative assessment to close the gap between current and desired understanding there are two options: developing pupils metacognitive strategies or generating stimulus and information to the pupils (Black & Wiliam, 1998b, p.25), see sections 2.1.2.1 and 2.1.2.2.

The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b) found that the Assessment for Learning programme, 2010-2014, had several positive effects such as an increased focus on developing good assessment practices. However, in TALIS of 2013 many teachers still indicated a need for further competence development (Caspersen et al., 2014, p.57) in section 2.2. Berge (2007, p.243) found that oral skills were marginalised in the KPR and that there was a lack of shared evaluation practice between teachers. While Hertzberg (2009, p.144) found that oral skills were rarely mentioned by her informants and that no schools reported initiatives which aimed to develop oral skills. Furthermore, Hertzberg (2003, p.164), Svenkerud (2013, p.9) and Svenkerud et al. (2012, p.44) all found a lack of systematic guidance of oral skills (see section 2.3).

3 Methodology

In this chapter, we will describe the research approach we have found appropriate to answer our research questions. Moreover, the validity, reliability, transferability, and ethical considerations of the study will be examined. Creswell (2014, pp.3-6) argues that the interconnection of philosophical worldview, design, and research methods constitute the framework which research takes place within and that the nature of the research questions influences the selection of research approach. Furthermore, Creswell states that researchers should make explicit their philosophical ideas and justify their chosen research approach. Therefore, our description of the research design will justify the chosen data collection methods and analysis methods in relation to our research questions.

3.1 Research design

There are three significant research approaches advanced by Creswell (2014, pp.3-4): qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. Qualitative research aims to explore and understand the meaning participants ascribe to a problem or phenomenon by considering the complexity of a situation (Creswell, 2014, p.4; Postholm, 2010, p.17). In contrast, research using quantitative methods seeks empirical support for theories by examining the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2014, p.4). We believe that our research questions are best answered by using a qualitative research approach as our research questions are not supported by a theory established a priori and it is difficult to identify the many variables in teaching practice. Furthermore, we are not looking to quantify the frequency or find a correlation between variables, but to understand how the participants view AFL and apply AFL to oral skills. Creswell (2014, p.186) argues that a characteristic of the qualitative research approach is the focus on the participants' opinions.

Our research questions entail trying to understand the underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations teachers might have for their assessment practice. Creswell (2014, p.186) and Postholm (2010, p.36) state that the key idea of qualitative research is to learn about the problem or phenomenon from the participants. Thus, the design of the present study must be emergent and viable to change in accordance with the information gathered from the participants. Both Creswell (2014, p.8) and Postholm (2010, p.126) argue that qualitative research is typically situated within the constructivist worldview. The constructivist worldview acknowledges that meaning is subjective, varied, and multiple, which means that we must consider the complexity of views and understand the context our informants operate within (Creswell, 2014, pp.8-9).

Therefore, we have constructed broad and general research questions to allow for the complexity of views and enable the informants to construct meaning in the interviews. Our role is to interpret the meaning our informants attribute to the phenomenon and identify the essence of their understanding. Also, in section 2.2, we are examining the context our informants operate within to understand the influences affecting the informants.

Creswell (2014, p.187) argues that the qualitative research approach encompasses more specific designs such as phenomenology, narrative, ethnography, case study, and grounded theory. Phenomenological research examines the meaning informants attribute to an experience of a phenomenon and answers the research questions by finding the essence of the phenomenon in collaboration with the researchers (Postholm, 2010, pp.41-43). A natural condition of this research is that the participants have experienced the phenomenon. The present study examines how the informants experience AFL in general and in relation to oral skills. We aim, in collaboration with the informants, to find the essence of AFL by interpreting their experiences and understanding of AFL. Thus, we argue that the present study uses a phenomenological design.

3.2 Methods of data collection

Qualitative research is often based on data gathered from observation, interviews or text analysis (Christoffersen & Johanessen, 2012, p.19; Leseth & Tellmann, 2014, p.63). In the present study, qualitative interviews are the primary method of data collection. However, a questionnaire is also used to gather preliminary information on the research problem and to contribute to the development of the interview guide. Questionnaires are normally used in quantitative research; however, we believe it can be a valuable preliminary data collection method in the present study. The qualitative use of questionnaires has been utilised previously and can provide rich answers from informants (Rivano Eckerdal & Hagström, 2017). Moreover, Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012, p.54) state that a quantitative data collection method can be used as a transitional method in a qualitative research approach.

3.2.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a highly flexible data collection method which can be designed for different purposes (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2017, p.471). By mainly using open-ended questions, it can present an opportunity for informants to provide unexpected, reflected, and comprehensive answers to the questions (Bjørndal, 2012, p.118). Moreover, Cohen et al. (2017,

26

p.475) argue that open-ended questions give the respondents ownership of, and responsibility for, the data produced. Leseth & Tellmann (2014, p.81) state that a characteristic of qualitative data is that it aims to represent a segment of reality by examining how people experience and interpret the world. Open-ended questions allow respondents to provide information about their experiences and interpretations of the world; thus, we argue that our use of the questionnaire is qualitative. The questionnaire tool used to collect data is "Nettskjema", an online tool for designing and managing data collection provided by the University of Oslo. The questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1.

In our questionnaire, there are five questions regarding the teacher's practice with AFL of oral skills and one question about interview participation. We asked if, and optionally, how, they use AFL as part of their teaching practice with oral skills. The aim was to learn more about their current teaching practice and how AFL is perceived. Moreover, we asked whether they plan for the use of AFL of oral skills and the challenges they associate with the practice. We believe these questions revealed some of the relationships our informants have with AFL of oral skills and how it is implemented in their teaching practice. The information obtained was used to adapt and focus the key questions of the interview guide to target the relevant aspects uncovered by the questionnaire and to identify areas to follow up in the interviews. Questionnaire as a data collection method has several disadvantages according to Bjørndal (2012, p.118); it excludes the possibility of follow up questions, it lacks in depth-information beyond the limits of the form, and makes it difficult to compare answers to open-ended questions. However, as a preliminary data collection method followed by qualitative interviews, we believe that these disadvantages are circumvented in the present study.

3.2.1.1 Development of the interview guide

The following categories were identified from the analysis of the questionnaire: introduction, about AFL, planning, teaching practice, challenges and opportunities, and conclusion. Within each of these categories, we developed 2-5 key-questions and several possible follow-ups and probing questions to use in the interviews. The key questions in the introduction category were asked to give us information about the informants' educational background and their experience as teachers of the English subject. The second category, about AFL, includes key questions which explore the informants' views on AFL in general, how they learnt about AFL, and how they perceive the differences between AFL of oral and written skills. We did not provide the interviewees with a definition of AFL as we believe that it could influence their perceptions of

AFL, as it is important for the present study that the informants' own perceptions of AFL are discussed in the interviews. Moreover, we believe that asking the teachers about the differences between AFL of oral and written skills would help the informants reflect on how they use AFL of oral skills.

In the third category, teaching practice, we asked the informants about their practice with AFL of oral skills. This included whether they planned for the use of AFL of oral skills or not, and which aspects they consider a part of AFL of oral skills. We believe that planning for the use of AFL of oral skills could indicate a high level of awareness over the integration of AFL in their teaching practice. The fourth category, challenges and opportunities, gave the informants a possibility to elaborate their thoughts on AFL as a part of their practice with oral skills. The advantages and challenges of AFL of oral skills would give us a better understanding of how they perceive AFL in general. The final category, conclusion, gave the informants the opportunity to elaborate or clarify their previous statements. The complete interview guide can be found in Appendix 2.

3.2.2 Interview

Qualitative interview as a data collection method aims to gain an understanding of how the interviewee perceive and interpret the world (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p.20). Interviews can enable researchers' access to information that would otherwise be inaccessible, and its flexible nature is suited to understand the informants' perspectives and to correct any misconceptions that might occur (Bjørndal, 2012, p.95). Postholm (2010, p.43) argues that the subjective experience of a phenomenon cannot be observed by the researcher and must be discovered through conversation with those who have experienced it. Interviews enable the interviewees and interviewers to discuss their interpretation of the world and express how they understand a phenomenon from their own point of view (Cohen et al., 2017, p.506). Thus, to answer our research questions we interviewed some of the respondents to the questionnaire to gain further insight into their experiences with, and interpretation of, AFL. The interviews were recorded to make the analysis of the data material viable.

Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, pp.17-18) state that the qualitative research interview is an active process where knowledge is produced between the interviewee and the interviewer. Furthermore, they argue that the knowledge gained in an interview is contextual, linguistic, narrative, and pragmatic. We agree that knowledge is dependent on context and linguistics and are not trying to discover context-independent knowledge from the interviews. I.e., the answers

given by the informants are true for the context they are given in and is dependent on the informants' ability to express their understanding. Thus, the value of the knowledge produced is the main quality criterion for the present study (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p.36). We believe that using interviews as a data collection method enables us to gain insight into the informants' attitudes, experience, and knowledge of AFL of oral skills. Interviewing five informants gave us similar and contrasting experiences and perceptions of the phenomenon. By analysing the answers received in the interviews, we may be able to identify the essence of our informants' understanding of AFL.

In phenomenological studies, researchers have a list of themes or key questions that will be discussed rather than specific questions (Postholm, 2010, p.78), which is consistent with Leseth & Tellmann's (2014, pp.88-90) definition of a semi-structured interview. The semi-structured interview is advantageous for phenomenological research as the use of themes ensure comparability between interviews and enables the researchers to pursue in-depth knowledge when appropriate (Postholm, 2010, p.79). Moreover, Bjørndal (2012, p.116) argues that the semi-structured interview can provide a high degree of accuracy and reduce the researchers' influence on the answers without being time-consuming. Therefore, the present study uses a semi-structured interview. Kvale & Brinkmann (2015, p.140) state that a qualitative interview should be planned depending on the theme and purpose of the study. As we are trying to examine teachers' experience and interpretation of AFL in general and of oral skills, we need to conduct interviews that give us empirical data about the informants' typical experiences with, and interpretations of, AFL. Thus, questions that focus on the different aspect of AFL and are open-ended, would presumably generate information about informants' experience and knowledge of, and with, AFL. Cohen et al. (2017, p.513) state that open-ended questions in interviews have several advantages such as the possibility of getting in-depth information, test the limits of a respondent's knowledge, encourage cooperation, and produce unexpected answers.

3.2.2.1 Interview quality considerations

Kvale & Brinkmann (2015, pp.83-84) state that the qualitative research interview entails more than following rules and is dependent upon the interviewers' competence and ability to ask the right questions. The interviewers' competence includes sensitivity to the social relations between interviewer and interviewee, a comprehensive knowledge of the field that is being studied, and of the ethical and epistemological aspects of the research interview (Kvale &

Brinkmann, 2009, pp.173-175). Interviewing is a craft that demands practice to fully master (Bjørndal, 2012, p.115). Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, pp.88-95) suggest several different approaches to becoming a practised interviewer and improving interviewing competence. From previous academic work, both researchers of the present study have conducted one short interview and transcribed it. In addition, we have researched guidelines for interviewing in Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, 2015), Postholm (2010), Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012) and Leseth & Tellmann (2014). We believe that following such guidelines have increased our awareness regarding the interview process, which is suggested by Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, p.94) to improve the quality of the knowledge produced.

Moreover, we have utilised an interview guide which Creswell (2014, p.194) and Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012, pp.80-81) argue should be used to ensure quality. Postholm (2010, p.165) and Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012, pp.80-81) suggest using key questions that will provide information relevant to the research questions and purpose of the study. We identified central themes about AFL from our literature review and results from the questionnaire before developing open-ended questions that we believed would help answer our research questions (see Appendix 2). Furthermore, we planned to use follow-up and probing questions to encourage informants to elaborate their responses. Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, p.135) and Postholm (2010, p.80) define *follow-up questions* as questions that intend to extend informants' answers by inviting them to continue using vocal cues or body language, while *probing questions* are defined as questions that seek further explanation from the informant without specifying which dimensions should be considered. The interplay between different types of questions allows us to control the focus of the interview while simultaneously allowing the informant free speech and influence on the interview. Therefore, we argue that we are able to construct a holistic representation of our informants' perceptions of AFL and minimise our influence in the process.

Additionally, we conducted a pilot interview with two fellow fifth-year students at the Master of Education programme at UiT – The Arctic University of Norway. Mason (2004, p.518) argues that a pilot interview is vital to testing out and modifying the interview guide to ensure its effectiveness and quality. Conducting test interviews is also recommended by Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012, p.84) who suggest it provides an opportunity to practice the interview situation, develops competence on how to manage the answers the informants offer, and provides information about the suitability of the interviewing technique used.

Moreover, a pilot interview allows the opportunity to experiment with, and test, the different key and follow-up questions.

3.3 The informants

This section clarifies the process of contacting and selecting informants, as well as discussing the appropriate number of informants for our study. We will also present some key characteristics of our informants that may influence the findings of the study. Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012, p.49) argue that a characteristic of qualitative research is to extract as much information as possible from a limited number of informants. There is no set standard for how many informants that are needed; however, it must be sufficient to answer the research questions. Creswell (2014, p.189) states that phenomenological studies typically have between three and ten informants, while both Postholm (2010, p.43) and Kvale & Brinkmann (2015, p.148) argue that it is beneficial for smaller studies to have fewer informants and use more time preparing and analysing interviews. Merriam (2009, p.80) argues that, for qualitative research, the main criteria for sample size is that it enables the researchers to answer the research questions of the study. In the present study, thirteen respondents answered our questionnaire and five informants were interviewed, which we consider sufficient to answer the research questions.

Creswell (2014, p.189) states that for qualitative research it is viable to purposefully select informants that will help the researcher answer the research questions. The primary qualification requirement for our informants was that he or she was a teacher of the English subject. The first step was to send enquiries to principals of lower secondary and primary schools in a town in Northern Norway to find teachers willing to answer the questionnaire. The last question in the questionnaire asked whether the respondent was willing to participate in an interview. We wanted to use the questionnaire to give us the opportunity to choose teachers for the interview who we believed could help answer our research questions. However, there were too few respondents willing to participate in the interview for any actual selection to take place.

The form of selection used is often referred to as a volunteer sampling, where participants chose to be part of the study due to interest or other personal motivations (Cohen et al., 2017, p.222). Thus, we do not have control over the composition of the sample and cannot account for the possible motivations of our informants. The first enquiries to principals yielded no response from teachers who were willing to be interviewed. Therefore, we contacted a teacher we knew to have relevant information to our study and used snowball sampling to acquire

additional informants. Snowball sampling, sometimes referred to as referral sampling, can be valuable to acquire informants with information about, or experience with, the phenomenon studied (Christoffersen & Johannessen, 2012, p.51; Leseth & Tellmann, 2014, p.55).

The interviewed participants in this study have been teaching the subject of English for a minimum of 10 years. Thus, our informants are all experienced teachers who have had time to develop their teaching practice. The informants have different levels of formal education in English, as presented in Table 1 on the next page. All previous English education for each of the informants has been converted to the currently used study points to be comparable, however, the content of their education might vary. For reference, the current requirements for newly educated teachers of English are 30 study points to teach at primary schools and 60 study points to teach at lower secondary schools (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2017). Most of our informants have taught the English subject at different levels and at different schools, however, the primary teaching level is indicated in Table 1. The informants have been given fictive names and will be presented as *Teacher A*, *Teacher B*, *Teacher C*, *Teacher D*, and *Teacher E* throughout the study.

Teacher	Formal education in English	Years of teaching the English subject	Teaching level
A	60	15	Lower secondary
B	60	21	Lower secondary
C	90	21	Lower secondary
D	60	21	Lower secondary
E	0[7]	10	Primary school

Table 1 - Summary of the informants' English teaching experience

---

[7] Is currently participating in an in-service course equivalent to 30 study points.

3.4 Methods of data analysis

Qualitative data is often too rich to be presented in its entirety and researchers must analyse the data to discover which parts are important for the study. Qualitative analysis tries to make sense out of a text by segmenting and taking apart the data before putting it back together (Creswell, 2014, pp.194-195). In phenomenological studies, it is common to analyse the meaning by reading the data interpretatively and attempting to understand the deeper meaning of an informant's experience (Christoffersen & Johannesen, 2012, p.100). Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, p.207) argue that the interpretation of meaning goes beyond a critical interpretation of the text. One must work out structures and relations of meaning not immediately found in the text and recontextualise interpreted statements within a broader frame of reference. Recontextualising is to extract text or meaning from its original context and introduce it to a different context. A recontextualising of the data material is essential to achieve a general impression of the meaning of the data (Leseth & Tellmann, 2014, p.141). It is this essence of meaning we are trying to discover through interviewing our informants. In the present study, we employ data analysis strategies at two instances; when identifying key themes and questions from the questionnaire findings (see section 4.1) and when coding and interpreting the interview data (see section 4.2). However, Creswell (2014, p.195), Leseth & Tellmann (2014, p.140) and Postholm (2010, p.86) assert that the process of analysis is dynamic and a continuously ongoing process.

3.4.1 Questionnaire analysis

The data material from the questionnaire was analysed by printing all the responses and reading through them to get an overview of the results. Then, themes and key questions from the preliminary interview guide were compared with the findings of the questionnaire. The question about challenges associated with AFL of oral skills yielded especially long descriptive answers and was included in the interview guide. Other answers added to the creation of new themes and key questions for the interview, such as how teachers believe pupils view AFL, which we believe could be of value to the study. By combining the preliminary interview guide with the findings of the questionnaire, the interview guide ended up with a total of 16 key questions within five themes (see Appendix 2). The findings from the questionnaire also indicated some of the predispositions these teachers might have about the possibilities, practice, and challenges with using AFL of oral skills in the English subject.

3.4.2 Interview analysis

The analysis of data is what makes the researcher able to identify the essence of the phenomenon studied and achieve a comprehensive understanding of it (Postholm, 2010, p.105). Malterud (2003, pp.100-111) suggests four steps in a phenomenological analysis focusing on meaning; (1) overall impressions and summary of content, (2) codes, categories and terms, (3) condensation of meaning, and (4) recontextualising. During our analysis process of the data material from the interviews, we have followed this general procedure, however, in practice, the process was more flexible. The first step of the process is to read through the material and identify interesting and central themes to gather an overall impression of the material. In this step, it is important not to get lost in the details of the material and remove irrelevant information while condensing the important information (Christoffersen & Johannessen, 2012, p.101). According to Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, pp.205-206), condensation of important information is to abridge the informants' expressions and rephrasing longer sentences into briefer statements. A condensation of the material is the researcher's first interpretation of the material at hand and influences the final analysis of the data (Christoffersen & Johannessen, 2012, p.101). However, Postholm (2010, p.86) argues that the researcher must continue to be open to new and alternative interpretations of the material throughout the analysis process.

The second step entails identifying meaningful elements in the data material in relationship to the study's research questions. Coding is then used to organise the important elements to reduce and structure the content in preparation for analysis. Kvale & Brinkmann (2015, p.226) explain coding as attaching one or more keywords to a segment of text to allow later identification of similar segments. Codes can be developed from the data material, literature, hypothesis, or the research questions (Christoffersen & Johannessen, 2012, p.101; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p.227). We began the coding process by using what Cohen et al. (2017, p.671) define as open coding. *Open coding* entails labelling segments of text to describe and categorise it, and is usually the first step of a coding process. We have developed the codes used in the present study based on the statements of the informants, however, have considered the terms used in the literature on formative assessment by Black & Wiliam (1998b;2009) and Black et. al. (2004) to identify meaningful elements in the data material. Both the identification of codes and the coding of the data material was executed jointly to ensure reliability. Both researchers discussed the interpretation of the data material and agreed upon the result.

The third step of the analysis is also based on the coding process and involves extracting the meaningful segments of text to reduce the data material. In the present study, the meaning of the different open codes was studied and then placed within categories of codes with common meaning. For example, the codes *Feedback* and *Guidance* were placed within the category *Aspects of AFL of oral skills* (see section 4.2 for the full representation of codes and categories). This second step of the coding process is referred to as *axial coding* by Cohen et al. (2017, p.672). The codes are placed within these categories to further organise the data and connect the related codes to each other. Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012, pp.101-102) argue that the selection of codes and categories is part of the interpretation by the researcher and influences how the data material is viewed. As we attributed explanations for each code, their meaning changed and some fused together, while others broke apart. In the end, we had 11 codes referenced a minimum of seven times encompassed within four categories. The overview of categories is found in Table 2, p.48 and codes in Table 3, p.49.

The final step is to analyse the organised material and identify processes, patterns, and relationships which can be used to create new terms or descriptions on a higher level of abstraction. This step entails interpreting the findings and examining what was learnt in the study (Creswell, 2014, p.200). Christoffersen & Johannesen (2012, p.105) argue that the researcher must compare the impression of the organised material with the original impression from the first step and examine their relationship to ensure consistency. Furthermore, the knowledge gained throughout the analysis process must be used to investigate the codes and categories that have been constructed. We did not change any of the codes or categories at this point. Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012, p.106) also include an additional step where the identified patterns are considered in relation to existing theory and research in the field. The theoretical framework in the present study represents the existing theory and research we have found to be appropriate to discuss and reflect on our findings. In chapter 4, the findings are specified and exemplified, and further discussed in relation to literature on formative assessment and oral skills in chapter 5.

3.4.2.1 Transcription

Creswell (2014, p.197) states that to be able to analyse the data material, some organisation and preparations are necessary. For interviews, this typically entails transcribing the audio-recordings to text. Cohen et al. (2017, p.646) argue that researchers must consider if they want to transcribe interview data for analysis as it can provide important details and accuracy,

however, omits the non-verbal aspects. Moreover, Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, p.178) state that the transcription of interviews structures the interview conversation to a form susceptible to closer analysis, but the change in narrative mode also changes the text itself. Thus, essential elements or aspect of a text might be neglected, distorted, or lose complexity in the transformation (Cohen et al., 2017, p.523). Changing from oral narrative to a written narrative necessitates interpretation and analysis of the original form. Therefore, a transcription can only represent selected perspectives of reality, but never reality itself (Malterud, 2003, p.77). Both Postholm (2010, pp.104,193) and Malterud (2003, p.80) argue that the researcher should write his or her own transcriptions because the analysis during the transcription process might lead to the discovery of new qualities in the material. We have chosen to transcribe the interviews despite the challenges associated with it, as we believe that transcription is essential to keep the accuracy in the data material and to be able to code the data consistently. Moreover, we have written the transcriptions ourselves as part of getting an overall impression of the data material in the first step of the analysis process (see section 3.4.2).

3.5 Reliability

Reliability is an important criterion in research which indicates the trustworthiness and consistency of the data and research findings of the study (Christoffersen & Johannessen, 2012, p.23; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p.245). I.e., the accuracy and precision of the findings (Cohen et al., 2017, p.268). One of the most frequently used criteria for reliability is if the study is reproducible by other researchers. However, as qualitative research acknowledges that multiple interpretations of reality exists and understands the significant influence the researcher has on the data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Reproducibility is seldom an influential criterion of reliability (Malterud, 2003, p.25; Postholm, 2010, p.169). Additionally, Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, p.245) argue that a strong emphasis on reliability may negatively affect creative inventions and variability in qualitative research.

Merriam (2009, p.221) argues that the lack of reproducibility in a qualitative study is not a discreditable factor, rather the consistency between the findings and data collected should be examined. Furthermore, she argues that a study can be considered dependable in its context if the consistency is strong and no contradictory evidence is found. To ensure transparency we have included the questionnaire and interview guide in the appendices, in addition to clarifying our role in the study and the research paradigm which we operate within. Additionally, throughout chapter 3, we have described the process of the study from the initial contact with

our informants to the analysis of the data material and explained the reasoning throughout the process. Therefore, we argue that the study is both reproducible and, more importantly, transparent.

3.6 Validity

Merriam (2009, p.213) and Kvale & Brinkmann (2009, p.246) claim that validity refers to how the findings match reality and to which extent a method investigates what it intendeds to investigate. This is congruent with what Malterud (2003, pp.24-25) and Merriam (2009, p.213) refer to as internal validity. Cohen et al. (2017, p.246) argue that internal validity is "the validity of inferred and found relationships between elements of the research design and outcomes". The criteria for validity, therefore, become the documentation and clarification of the methods used to collect data, how the interview was conducted, and how the data were analysed (Postholm, 2010, p.170). Validity is then a goal rather than a product and is dependent on the circumstances and purposes of a study (Merriam, 2009, p.214).

Qualitative research acknowledges the possibility of different interpretations of reality; however, there are still several strategies that can be used to increase the validity or credibility of the findings. Creswell (2014, pp.201-203) and Merriam (2009, pp.215-220) propose several validity strategies that can be implemented by the researcher; triangulation, member checking, thick descriptions, bias clarification, presentation of discrepant information, prolonged time in the field, peer debriefing, and the use of an external auditor. Several of these strategies are more relative than absolute in their implementation in a study. We have, to some extent, used most of these strategies and will present them in the following paragraph. However, spending prolonged time in the field was not possible due to time constraints and we did not have access to an external auditor. Member checking was not possible for the questionnaire due to anonymity.

Triangulation is a frequently used technique to add validity to a study and can be said to encompass several different methods. It can refer to the triangulation of several data sources, investigator triangulation, and an analyst triangulator (Merriam, 2009, p. 216). We have used triangulation of data sources by using a preliminary questionnaire in addition to interviews, investigator triangulation by both researchers participating in the data collection, and an analyst triangulator by analysing the data material jointly. As the informants interviewed also responded to the questionnaire, misinterpretations of the interviewees are less likely to occur because we can interpret what is being said in relation to their written descriptive answers.

Moreover, being two researchers during the analysis process has made it possible to discuss the different interpretations available and make more reflected decisions. We also attempted to use what Creswell (2014, p.202) describes as rich, thick description when presenting our findings. He believes that by offering several perspectives and thick descriptions, the results become more precise and more realistic. In the present study, this was done by using quotations from the informants in the presentation of findings in chapter 4.

Our hypothesis and philosophical worldview have been presented as transparently and honestly as possible to account for our influence on the study. The transparency of the present study extends to presenting the unexpected findings in chapter 5, which are not supported by the literature on formative assessment. We believe that due to the scope and limitations of the study, it is especially important to be as realistic as possible in our representation of the data. We also used our supervising faculty member at UiT – the Arctic University of Norway as an internal auditor to examine the study for discrepancies and challenges with the methods used and the representations of the findings.

3.7 Transferability

Transferability, or generalisability, is referred to as external validity (Cohen et al., 2017, pp.246-256). External validity entails examining the context and purpose of the study to be able to say something about for whom the findings might be valid (Malterud, 2003, p.25). In other words, if the findings of the study are generalisable to a wider population (Merriam, 2009, p.223). The volunteer sampling method used in the present study means that we are not able to determine whether our informants are representable for a wider population or not (Cohen et al., 2017, p.222). Thus, the generalisability of the study is low. Moreover, there are several other factors in this study that challenge its external validity, such as the limited number of participants, the experience and skill of the researchers, the restricted literature review, and the context of the study. Despite the limited transferability of the study to a larger population, we believe that the study can prove valuable for some readers who find the findings relevant or applicable to their situation. By giving detailed and rich descriptions of the data material and the methods used, some readers might extrapolate the results to their practice.

3.8 Ethical and methodological concerns

Creswell (2014, p.92) argues that ethical issues in research command attention and should be anticipated and addressed in any study, and Thagaard (2009, p.23) argues that ethical dilemmas are bound to appear in studies where researchers are in direct contact with the informants. Therefore, ethical guidelines which consider both ethical issues in general as well as in the relationship between researcher and informants have been manufactured. The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities ([NESH], 2016, pp.4-5) provides guidelines for research which intends to provide information about accepted norms of research ethics and promote a good scientific practice. The ethical guidelines are context dependent (Cohen et al., 2017, p.111; Postholm, 2010, p.155) and ultimately it is the researchers' and research institutions' responsibility to ensure that the research is responsible (NESH, 2016, p.5).

NESH (2016, pp.13-23) argues that any study should protect the privacy and confidentiality of the participants, the storage of personal data, and respect the values and privacy of individuals. Further on, provide adequate information about the study and the possible consequences of participating, avoid physical and mental harm, and obtain a freely given, informed, and explicit consent. To ensure confidentiality and privacy of our informants, we have anonymised the research material in the publication and de-identified the personal data during the processing and analysing stages by using a scrambling key. The Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) has been notified of the study and have approved the steps taken to protect the informants (see Appendix 3). Krumsvik (2014, p.166) asserts that an NSD approval assures the informants' confidence in the legitimacy of the study and can help establish good relations between researchers and informants.

We distributed information in emails about the purpose of the study, the intended use of the results and possible consequences of participation. Moreover, the participants were informed about how the data was stored, who had access to the information, and their right to withdraw from the study at any time. A formal information sheet which included their consent to participate was read and signed by all the informants. Some of the informants interviewed have pre-existing bonds with the researchers, this is due to teacher training practices periods and employment at the same schools. Postholm (2010, p.146) argues that social bonds with the participants of the study might make it artificial to use the same professional procedures such

as making a research contract. This was also the case for our study, however, all the informants received the same information and contracts were used for all participants.

The online questionnaire tool used to collect data is Nettskjema, which does not store the respondents' IP-addresses or login information. The results of the questionnaire were exported and saved offline. The respondents could, if willing to participate in an interview, leave their email address in the datasheet so that we could contact them to arrange an interview. There were no other identifying markers on the online form and the data exported were treated in accordance with the current regulations on the processing of personal data. To ensure authentic and in-depth answers from the respondents, the questionnaire and interviews were conducted entirely in Norwegian. This eliminates any challenges or restrictions the respondents might have with writing or speaking English. However, this means that the statements from the questionnaire and interviews have been translated into English by us. Translation necessarily entails some interpretation of the material and we cannot disregard the possibility that in some cases we might have changed the meaning of the informants' original statements. Moreover, some expressions were not possible to translate directly and has been slightly altered to make sense in English.

We have attempted to minimise harm to the informants, protect their privacy and values by taking into consideration that their answers represent their understanding of reality. By using quotes from the informants when presenting the findings in chapter 4, we hope to stay true to the voice of their expressions and minimise our influence. Moreover, we aim to avoid portraying our interpretations of the informants' understanding of AFL of oral skills as the only possible interpretation. This is done by providing a transparent portrayal of the methods used in this study and clarifying our predispositions about the phenomenon in the hypothesis.

In the hypothesis (see section 1.4.1), we stated that we believe that the aspects of AFL are only partially implemented in teaching practice and that teachers choose to apply AFL to written skills over oral skills. These predispositions might have influenced our choice to focus on AFL of oral skills. Moreover, the fact that we speculated that the main AFL focus was directed at written skills may have impacted our development of the questionnaire or the interview guide in a way that would produce the findings we believed we would find. If our hypothesis had been different, the data collection and data analysis methods used might not have been chosen and the findings different.

Furthermore, we are also aware of the critique directed towards coding which states that coding might not be reliable, reducing, or obscuring the possibility of multiple interpretations and undermining the researcher's ethical responsibility (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p.227). We acknowledge the fact that the findings of the present study are influenced by us and that we may have missed possible interpretations, misinterpreted our informants, or made other mistakes during the transcription and coding processes. However, we have attempted to minimise our interpretative influence in the coding process by presenting the informants' statements followed by our interpretation of the data. We have also implemented measures such as member checking and triangulation of information to ensure reliability in our interpretations. Creswell (2014, p.99) states that only disclosing positive results from a study is academically dishonest and argues that the full range of findings should always be reported. We have, to the best of our ability, tried to give a nuanced picture of the full range of the results. Furthermore, Leseth & Tellmann (2014, p.195) state that transparency of the research process and correct usage of references are vital to the value of qualitative research. We have used references to make sure there is a clear division between our beliefs and interpretations and the conceptions of others, in addition to presenting the theory which has influenced the research process.

3.9 Methodology - summarised

We are using a qualitative research design situated within a constructivist worldview. The qualitative research design is used as our research questions entails understanding the meaning participants ascribe to AFL of oral skills. Moreover, we argue that we have a phenomenological design as we are trying to understand the essence of AFL from the perspective of our informants. To answer our research questions, we have found it appropriate to make use of two data collection methods: a questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaire was used to gather preliminary information about the phenomenon and to help develop the interview guide (see section 3.2.1, 3.2.1.1 and 3.4.1). Five semi-structured interviews were conducted to gather data that can be analysed to answer our research questions (see section 3.2.2 and 3.2.2.1). The recordings from the interviews were transcribed and the transcriptions analysed using a phenomenological analysis method (see section 3.4.2 and 3.4.2.1). The informants were sampled using volunteer sampling and snowball sampling (see section 3.3). The reliability, validity, transferability, and ethical and methodological concerns of the present study are accounted for in sections 3.5-3.8.

4 Research findings and analysis

In this chapter, the research findings from the analysis of the questionnaire and interviews are presented. The findings are presented using diagrams and examples in section 4.1, and as tables and examples from the informants' statements in section 4.2. Furthermore, the findings from both the questionnaire and the interviews are summed up in section 4.3.

4.1 Questionnaire

In this section, the findings of the questionnaire are presented. The closed 'yes' or 'no' questions are presented in diagrams, while the open-ended questions are addressed by providing examples of the answers received. We have chosen to use AFL over formative assessment in this section as that is the term used in the questionnaire and by our respondents. The full questionnaire is located in Appendix 1.
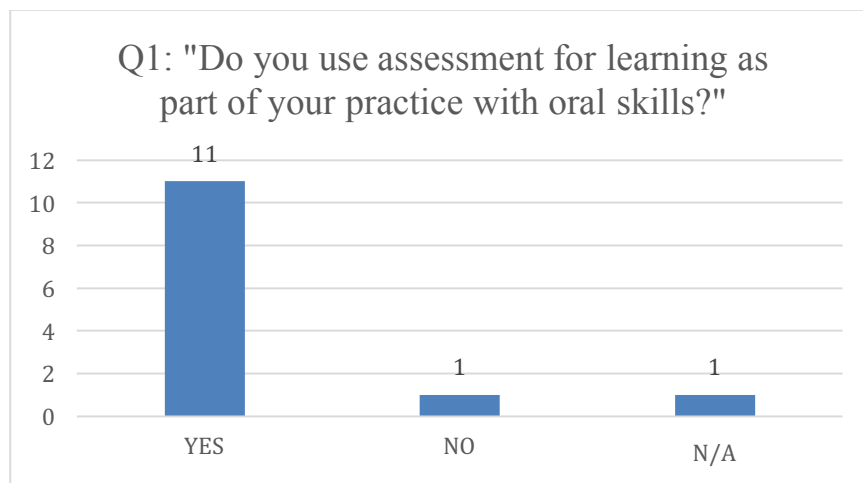
The respondents were asked if they use AFL as a part of their practice with oral skills in the English subject. Eleven of the respondents answered 'yes', one answered 'no', and one respondent did not answer. The majority of the respondents state that they use AFL as part of their practice, which is not surprising as the topic of the questionnaire was AFL and the selection form was volunteer sampling. We believe that teachers who use AFL in their practice may have been more likely to participate in the study. The closed-ended question means that we do not know to which degree AFL is used, only if it is used or not. Moreover, it is important to note that these findings are based on the teachers' own beliefs about what constitute AFL of oral skills. Thus, it is an indication of the respondents' self-reported usage of AFL rather than an objective measurement. The respondents who answer 'yes' to the first question were asked to provide a more descriptive answer in Question 2.

<div style="border:1px solid black; padding:10px; text-align:center;">

Q2: "If yes, how?"

</div>

- o Peer-assessment, feedforward[8], informal feedback, formative assessment
- o Feedback, formative assessment: what is good, what can you work on to improve
- o Talk about how one can improve oral skills, practice using a conversation-template, talking cards, pair talk, loud reading in unison, relay reading, talk with pupils about how they want guidance on pronunciation, work with parts of phonetic transcriptions, guided reading in small groups
- o I use my knowledge of the pupils' levels in further guidance

Eleven respondents answered that they use formative assessment as a part of their work with oral skills in Question 1, however, there are twelve answers giving descriptive answers to Question 2. This indicated that the n/a answer to Question 1 is most likely an error. As the quotes above indicate, some respondents describe aspects of AFL of oral skills such as peer-assessment, feedback and pupil involvement in the assessment process, while others focus on specific activities such as giving feedback to pronunciation or working with phonetic transcriptions. Nine of twelve answers specifically mention feedback as an aspect of AFL of oral skills. This leads us to believe that our respondents see feedback as an integral part their AFL practice of oral skills.

Several of the answers also consider guidance and working towards goals a part of their AFL practice. It seems to be a general tendency in the answers to consider guidance and feedback as the main role of the teacher in an AFL practice. The pupils' roles in the teachers AFL practice of oral skills are mentioned as participating in peer-assessment, the creating of assessment criteria and having an active role in assessing their work and development. I.e. self-assessment. The respondents also mention talking with pupils about their development of oral skills and how they might improve, indicating some knowledge of metacognitive strategies such as awareness and reflection on their learning process. Overall, the respondents seem to have a somewhat overlapping understanding of AFL of oral skills, however, emphasising the various aspects of their practice differently.

---

[8] Fremovermelding (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2016)

Q3: "Do you plan for the use of assessment for learning of oral skills?"
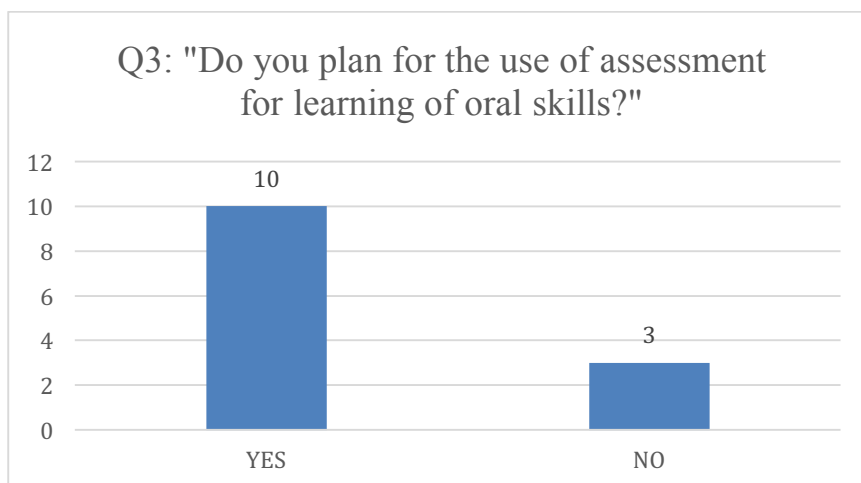
Question 3 focuses on whether teachers plan for the use of AFL of oral skills or not. Ten teachers state that they do, and three teachers do not. This means that some of the teachers who use AFL as part of their work on oral skills do not actively plan for the use. Rather, they might have incorporated some aspects of AFL as a part of their spontaneous teaching strategies or be unconsciously planning for AFL without realising it. The purpose of asking this question is mainly to examine how our respondents view the role of AFL of oral skills. Planning for the use of AFL of oral skills might indicate a stronger focus on using it to improve oral skills than not planning for it. Moreover, it might be difficult to include all aspects of AFL without explicitly reflecting on the practice in the planning stages.

> Q4: "Can you provide some examples of how you attend to pupils' work with the feedback they are given on oral skills?"

o   When they are about to get a new oral task, they are asked to check the previous feedback, or I remind each pupil (to the degree I remember who focuses on what)
o   I try to map and provide feedback continuously to pupils who struggle with pronunciation or grammar (…) but it is difficult to do this systematically. Pupils also get feedback at their development talk[9]
o   Clear criteria which each pupil work specifically on, with e.g. presentations

---

[9] Utviklingssamtale (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, n.d.)

The fourth question asks teachers to provide examples of how they follow-up the feedback they have given to pupils in regard to their oral skills. All thirteen respondents provided a descriptive answer. We hypothesised (see section 1.4.1) that feedback is a prominent aspect of the teachers' assessment practice, therefore, we wanted to see how teachers work with the feedback they have given to pupils. None of the respondents seems to have established a system for attending to previous feedback, but several of the respondents mention reminding pupils of previous feedback when guiding them in preparation for a new task. It seems that feedback to oral skills is often given orally and that it is the pupils' responsibility to apply the feedback. Several of the respondents provide information about their feedback practice rather than how they attend to the feedback given, this may be due to misinterpreting the question or because they believe the activities to be indistinguishable. One respondent summarises the consensus in the following comment:

- o I do not follow-up their work with feedback, but I follow-up oral skills with feedback

Q5: "Which challenges do you encounter using assessment for learning of oral skills?"

- o I believe the biggest challenge is to give feedback systematically, and that pupils receive adequate, frequent and concrete feedback. Another challenge is the large gap between pupils' competence
- o Among other things, language and pronunciation are very personal and that for some it may feel unsafe to receive feedback and guidance on it
- o That pupils are not always occupied with what they must work on to improve. Even if you show them what they need to learn and practice, as a teacher you rarely allocate time for them to do that. Then it is normally not done
- o I experience that oral skills are less concrete and more personal, and thus more challenging to provide AFL to, in contrast to written skills

The fifth question explores the challenges our respondents have with using AFL of oral skills. As with Question 4, all thirteen respondents provided a descriptive answer to the question. There are many challenges associated with using AFL of oral skills as seen by the answers provided by our respondents. The common challenges shared by our respondents are both practical and pragmatic. The limited amount of time available to the teachers and the size of an average class makes it challenging to provide systematic feedback and guidance. Moreover, it

makes it difficult to allow for individual feedback and guidance within a lesson. Nine of the respondents explicitly mention time as a challenging factor for AFL. It is also clear that some teachers believe that pupils find oral skills personal and therefore may be reluctant to provide too critical feedback both individually and in front of the class.

Furthermore, four respondents find that some pupils are more receptive to feedback than others and state that it is difficult to provide feedback that matters to the pupils. The lack of pupil commitment to feedback might influence how teachers view feedback and their willingness to provide feedback. It may be especially challenging to provide effective feedback considering the limited time the respondents have to attend to feedback and provide guidance to the pupils. The challenges experienced by our respondents are most likely something other teachers encounter themselves and may influence how AFL of oral skills is perceived by teachers.

4.2 Interview

In this section, we present the findings from the interviews using the codes and categories found in the analysis process. The findings are exemplified with statements from the informants. The overall findings are summarised in section 4.3. All statements are interpreted and translated from Norwegian to English by us. As mentioned in section 3.3, the informants have been given fictive names to protect their anonymity: *Teacher A*, *Teacher B*, *Teacher C*, *Teacher D* and *Teacher E*. Each of the following sections represent, and have the same title as, either a category or a code. The analysis process and development of categories and codes are explained in section 3.4.2. The categories which emerged from the data material are *Perception of AFL*, *Advantages of AFL of oral skills*, *Aspect of AFL of oral skills*, and *Challenges with AFL of oral skills*. A frequency table of the number of references within each category follows on the next page:
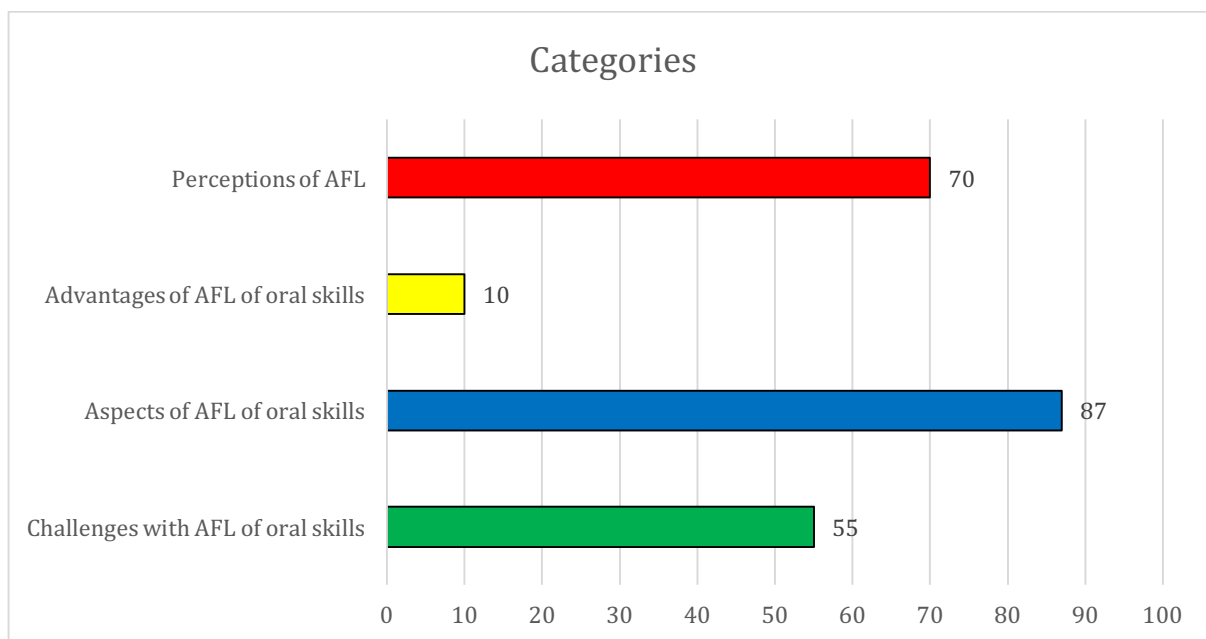
Categories

Category	Value
Perceptions of AFL	70
Advantages of AFL of oral skills	10
Aspects of AFL of oral skills	87
Challenges with AFL of oral skills	55

Table 2 - Frequency of references within categories

Table 2 portrays the four categories and gives an illustration of how many times the codes is referenced within the categories. We believe the number of references indicates how the teachers emphasise the categories in connection to each other and to AFL. The first category *Perceptions of AFL* includes the code *Teachers' understanding of AFL*, which encompasses statements where the informants talk explicitly about what they mean by AFL and how they believe their pupils perceive AFL. It is important to note that the first category will differ from the other categories because of its general focus on AFL and not only towards AFL of oral skills. The second category *Advantages of AFL of oral skills* includes a single code with the same title. In this category, the advantages and possibilities of AFL of oral skills, as perceived by our informants, is referenced.

The third category *Aspects of AFL of oral skills* includes the codes *Active involvement of pupils*, *Adapted education*, *Feedback*, *Guidance*, *Learning environment*, *Metacognitive strategies*, *Self- and peer-assessment*, and *Known assessment criteria*. These codes are referenced when our informants are talking about the different aspects they associate with AFL of oral skills. The fourth and last category, *Challenges with AFL of oral skills* includes a single code with the same title, which refers to all challenges with AFL of oral skills mentioned by our informants. Table 3 is a frequency table that illustrates the number of references to each of the codes and follows on the next page:
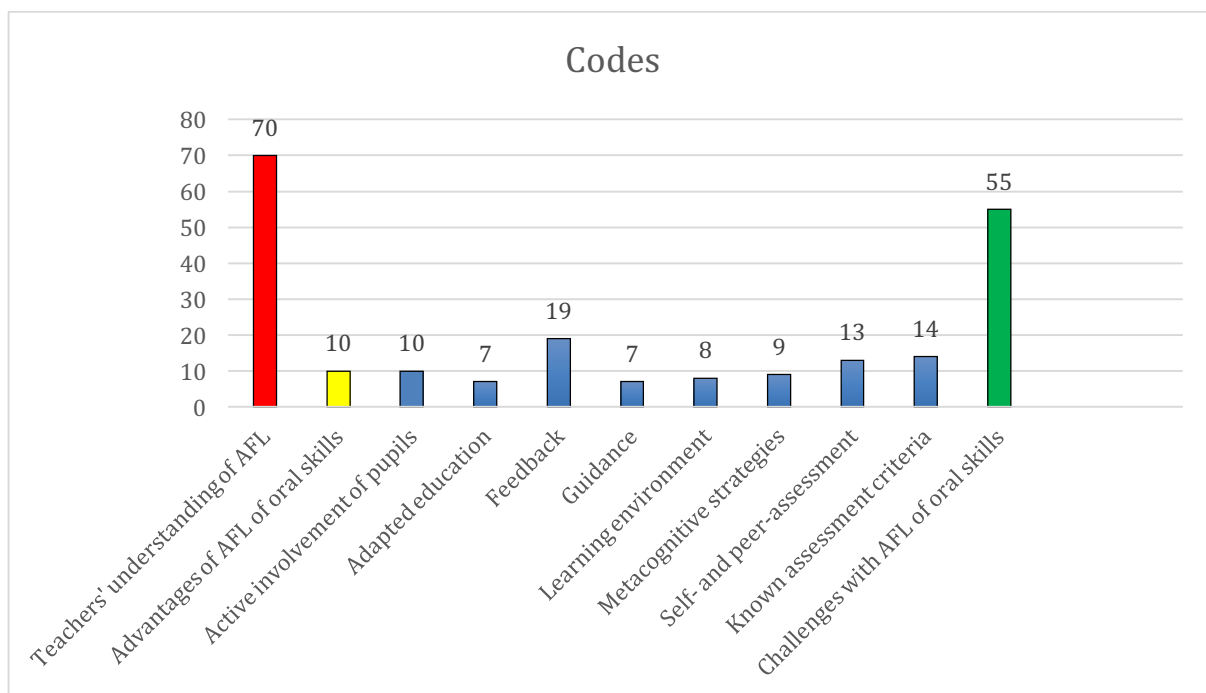
Table 3 - Frequency of references to codes

The number of references to each code signifies the emphasis our informants put on a code. Table 3 shows that our informants put more emphasis on the challenges with AFL compared to the advantages. Furthermore, it shows that there are more instances of discussion about what they consider aspects of AFL in contrast to discussing AFL in its entirety. A higher frequency indicates that the code has been used often by the informants in connection with AFL, however, the frequency of a code does not necessarily reflect what a single informant believes to be most important to his or her teaching practice. Moreover, it does not tell us how or why the referenced code is used by the informants. The frequency of a code must be considered in relation to the statements given by the informants. By examining the statements attached to the codes, in correspondence with the frequency of the code, we are able to say something about the essence of the informants understanding of AFL and how they apply AFL to oral skills.

4.2.1 Teachers' understanding of AFL

Teacher A:	The AFL concept is not about receiving a grade but about learning.
Teacher B:	I believe that AFL is that pupils should be aware of their own learning … where they are academically and what they must do to improve.
Teacher E:	AFL is for the pupils to improve … you must always think about what you can do for them to improve.

Our informants express that AFL is closely linked to both learning and improvement. The "for learning" part of AFL makes the purpose of the assessment process explicit, and this is reflected in the informants' expressions. Teacher A comment that "assessment justifies itself much more in that it is a process, a learning process" and "I do not believe we use the term AFL, it is a part of the assessment concept". All of our informants understand AFL as both a tool to improve learning and as a part of assessing the pupils' current understanding. Moreover, the informants express a positive opinion of AFL; however, the perceptions that it is already integrated into their teaching practice and have been for a long time is dominant. As Teacher C and Teacher D put it: "I believe AFL has been a part of the practice at schools as long as I have taught, but we have not used the term … before it became a national focus after KPR" and "It is a practice one, more or less, have used before but now it has been given a name".

The belief that it is "a natural part of learning" (Teacher D) and something that is "a part of teaching all the time" (Teacher A) is shared by our informants. Since the informants claim that AFL is an important part of their teaching practice, we interpret that the teachers consider it valuable to improve learning. All the informants answer that they believe it is worthwhile to spend time and energy to learn how to practice AFL. However, AFL is not perceived by the informants as unconditionally helpful for learning. Teacher B states that "AFL is effective if the pupils are used to it" and Teacher C states that "some pupils are indifferent … thus, I do not believe that AFL is the only answer". The challenges associated with AFL of oral skills is elaborated in section 4.2.4. Additionally, our informants express that AFL is important to them and that they believe it to be an integral part of how teaching should be done. They mention many activities they use where AFL is one aspect of several they find important. Some also connect the different aspects of AFL (see section 4.2.3) to each other and find that AFL has several advantages.

One of the most important findings within this code is that the teachers rarely view AFL on its own, rather they see it as part of the many factors which contribute to learning. All the informants state that AFL affects the way they teach. Some note that after the national assessment-projects in Norway were implemented they became more aware of the purpose of assessment in their practice, while others mention a change in how they plan and organise their teaching. The belief that AFL relieves the teachers' pressure to give grades is explicitly mentioned by four of our five informants, and all informants mention the change in focus from "what has been learnt" to "how can further learning best take place". As Teacher E put it, "what teachers do to keep the process going … is almost the most important part of AFL, i.e., to keep the pupils going and that they always think about the process to improve, and to achieve".

In addition to asking our informants directly about their understanding of AFL, we also asked how they as teachers believe AFL is perceived by their pupils. It is important to clarify that we are not occupied in examining how pupils perceive AFL. However, we believe the teachers' understanding of pupils' perception of AFL provide information on why and how teachers use AFL.

Teacher B:	In a way, AFL mobilises some pupils while for others, I think, it is a bother.
Teacher C:	Motivated pupils find great use of assessment and feedback, however, some pupils are indifferent to it … it does not seem to make a difference for them.
Teacher D:	If they manage to see that it is for their learning that they get feedback and if you can pinpoint what is not good, then it works.

The teachers have an impression that their pupils mostly enjoy AFL. Especially gifted or highly motivated pupils relish feedback and guidance to further improve on their already high achievements. In contrast, pupils who have a lower level of competence attainment are less open to feedback and guidance. Teacher B, Teacher C, and Teacher E speculate that it might be less motivating to improve from the perspective of low achievers who do not see themselves as able to become high achievers. Some of the informants' state that they find it difficult to motivate some pupils to improve their oral competence in English and believe that feedback must be given in a way that does not close the communication they have established with the pupil. Two of the informants also mention that when feedback is accompanied by a grade, pupils rarely take the feedback into account and only focus on the grade.

4.2.2 Advantages of AFL of oral skills

Teacher D:	I experience AFL as less daunting … we get a more long-term perspective on learning, which I find positive. AFL raises the awareness for both me and the pupils.

Our informants state that AFL of oral skills removes some of the grading pressure from the teachers, makes teachers more aware of the purpose of assessment, strengthens their relationship to the pupils, helps with adapted education, and is effective when pupils know the process. According to Teacher B and Teacher C, another advantage is that AFL of oral skills enables pupils to work independently towards a personal learning goal and to guide themselves through knowing the assessment criteria. We find that most of the advantages of AFL of oral skills mentioned by our informants are closely connected to the aspects of AFL of oral skills, which are presented in the next section.

4.2.3 Aspects of AFL of oral skills

From the interview data, the informants agree on some aspects they seem to consider as particularly important to AFL of oral skills. These are *Active involvement of pupils*, *Adapted education*, *Feedback*, *Guidance*, *Learning environment*, *Metacognitive strategies*, *Self- and peer-assessment* and, *Known assessment criteria* (see Table 3). These different codes are referenced in a minimum of three interviews. Only "Feedback", "Guidance" and "Self- and peer-assessment" are referenced in all five interviews and thus appear to be perceived by the informants as especially important aspects of AFL of oral skills. These differences tell us that our informants have, to some degree, differentiating opinions on which aspects are most vital to the AFL process. The different aspects mentioned may be due to different training, competence or the assessment culture at the different schools.

Table 4, on the next page, portrays the number of references made to each code and how many of our informants who contribute to these references. All codes have a minimum of three informants and seven references. The number of references illustrates how many times our informants made a connection between the aspects and AFL of oral skills, while the number of informants indicates how many of the informants that mentioned the aspect. The higher number of references, the more connections are made and, as we interpret it, a stronger influence on their perceptions of AFL of oral skills. An overview of the aspects of AFL of oral skills follows in the table below before a more detailed section on each of the aspects.

Aspects	Informants	References
Active involvement of pupils	3	10
Adapted education	4	7
Feedback	5	19
Guidance	5	7
Learning environment	3	8
Metacognitive strategies	4	9
Self- and peer-assessment	5	13
Known assessment criteria	4	14

Table 4 – Overview of the aspects of AFL of oral skills

4.2.3.1 Active involvement of pupils

Teacher A:	The pupils are much more involved, they are a part of deciding … my focus is how I can help them in the process, not just assess them. That is important. I often include the pupils and ask them explicitly "what can I do?"

Active involvement of pupils in the learning process is something that three out of five informants associate with AFL of oral skills. They assert that it is important that the pupils have a say in how lessons should be designed and have an active role in the classroom. It is important to note that this goes beyond including pupils as self- or peer-assessor and speaks to the informants' belief that pupils should influence how teaching is done, in contrast to pupils just being active participants in a lesson. The informants argue that pupils should be aware of how and why they learn, and that learning should come from a dialogue between the teacher and the pupils. Thus, they welcome pupils' active engagement by allowing them some influence.

4.2.3.2 Adapted education

Teacher E:	It is about trying to include them all … you plan for what you are going to do this lesson and that it should be something so that all of the pupils will learn from it, somehow.

Teacher E gives an example of how four of the five informants connect AFL with adapted education, e.g. they can use differentiated feedback, guidance and learning goals to facilitate for each individual pupil's learning process. Furthermore, Teacher C comments that "AFL should in a way accommodate all of the pupils and make differentiated instruction easier". In that way, AFL of oral skills is part of their adapted education and something they believe every teacher does to some degree, without necessarily thinking about it as AFL.

4.2.3.3 Feedback

Teacher A:	We give a lot of feedback.
Teacher B:	You must give them feedback all the time, both orally and written.
Teacher D:	You become more aware that the feedback you are giving should enable them to improve.

There is a consensus among the informants that feedback is a part of AFL of oral skills, but also an important aspect of all teaching. Feedback seems to be a deeply integrated practice that is used both for formative and summative purposes. Teacher B states that "even if you have given feedback during the work on a topic when it is finished you are already moving on to the next topic. Then the feedback becomes … left behind". Similarly, Teacher A states that the pupils work with their feedback, but that it mainly becomes each pupil's individual responsibility to do so. Teacher C talks about how the motivated pupils work with the feedback given and even ask for more information if they do not understand the feedback. However, none of our informants claims to allocate time for pupils to work on their feedback on oral skills in class. Some of the informants are worried that low-achieving pupils often disregard the feedback they are given due to lack of motivation to improve in the subject. Nevertheless, by the informants' account, they are continuously and frequently providing feedback meant to help pupils improve their oral skills. They claim to provide both positive and constructive feedback to avoid discouraging low-achieving pupils.

4.2.3.4 Guidance

Teacher C:	I try to organise the school day in such a way that I am in a position to guide the pupils … as opposed to previously when I assessed pupils after they had finished their work.
Teacher E:	They have the opportunity to get help during a lesson. I give them very much oral guidance.

All five informants see guidance as an integrated part of their practice with AFL of oral skills. Providing guidance to pupils is viewed as a fundamental part of their teaching practice. The focus on AFL may have increased their awareness of the purpose of guidance during the learning process. However, except for Teacher C, it is difficult to say whether AFL has changed their guidance practice in regard to oral skills. Teacher C is the only informant who states that AFL, in general, has changed how the school day is organised to provide opportunities to guide pupils. Nevertheless, it is evident that all our informants closely associate guidance with AFL of oral skills. Common for our informants is that they find that guidance should provide information to the pupils on how they can improve. Moreover, that guidance is a part of the process of learning and that learning must be viewed in a long-term perspective.

4.2.3.5 Learning environment

Teacher A:	For the pupils it is about studying and feeling safe, to learn some skills, which is necessarily AFL … it is vital that the first thing the teacher do is to … create a safe and good learning environment.

Three informants state that making pupils feel safe and comfortable is important for them and that it contributes to the AFL process with oral skills. When pupils are scared to say something wrong or hesitant to talk in the classroom, it is a challenge to the pupils' learning process. Teacher B argues that the teacher must plan for activities that enable all pupils to safely participate in the learning activities in the classroom. Teacher E states that it must be a tolerant classroom environment so that everybody dares to participate. Again, the informants view the process of creating a safe learning environment as a long-term process that ultimately benefits the pupils' learning and actively involve pupils in the classroom. They also argue that a tolerant learning environment is a prerequisite for effective use of self- and peer-assessment.

4.2.3.6 Metacognitive strategies

It is important to note that the term metacognitive strategies is not used by our informants during the interviews. The term is based on our interpretation of the informants' statements during the interview. This is different from the other codes where the terms are used in the teachers' description of their understanding of, and experience with, AFL of oral skills. Even so, it is chosen due to its relevance to the research questions and literature on formative assessment, as described in section 2.1.2.1.

Teacher A:	It feels so good to be independent and achieve learning gains on your own, and it is very important to work on giving the pupils that feeling.
Teacher B:	It is important for the teacher to be better at getting the pupils themselves to see what they can do with what they are working on.
Teacher C:	The teacher can use AFL in regard to the strategies pupils use when working and less in regard to their academic levels. … first one must build the pupils' understanding that to improve we must get some ways to work … it is about giving them strategies.

Four out of five informants focus on increasing pupils' learner autonomy by making them understand what they need to improve and able to attempt the improvement themselves. Teacher C talks about giving the pupils strategies or ways that they can improve their oral skills and believes that low-achieving pupils may benefit extra from this kind of awareness. The focus on strategies to improve, rather than merely examining where they are academically, suggests a focus on learning to learn skills. Teacher B states that it is important for pupils to be autonomous and for teachers to teach pupils to make use of both formative and summative feedback to improve their oral skills. Developing these kinds of strategies to examine their current understanding and strategies to improve can be viewed in relation to both self- and peer-assessment and active involvement of pupils.

4.2.3.7 Self- and peer-assessment

Teacher A:	They present for each other, give feedback to each other and practice in front of someone before presenting it to the class.
Teacher C:	I try to involve pupils in self-assessment and make it a dialogue between me and the pupil.

All our informants mention self- and peer-assessment as an aspect of AFL of oral skills that they use in their teaching practice. Teacher B finds that the most important aspect of assessment for learning is to enable pupils to "assess themselves". We chose to merge self-assessment and peer-assessment into a single code; however, self-assessment is more prevalent than peer-assessment in our interviews. The informants also mentioned using self-assessment on more occasions than peer-assessment and seem to be hesitant to use peer-assessment indiscriminately. Teacher D states that the use of peer-assessment is dependent on the learning environment in the class and Teacher A find that when pupils are asked to provide positive feedback to other pupils' oral presentations, it often lacks in quality. Nevertheless, it seems that use of self- and peer-assessment is widely accepted as part of AFL of oral skills and often used to make pupils more active in the assessment process. We did not get any information regarding the use of self- and peer-assessment as part of the foundation for grades or whether the peer-feedback is used in later lessons.

4.2.3.8 Knowledge of the assessment criteria

Teacher B:	I print out a stack of the assessment criteria for the pupils to use while they are working, and, in this way, the pupils know the criteria they will be assessed by.
Teacher C:	I am more reflected about what I want the pupils to learn, what the real aim for the lesson is, and where we are going. I try to prepare the aims and criteria with the pupils.

Four informants mentioned sharing assessment criteria with their pupils as an aspect of AFL of oral skills. They state that pupils must know the assessment criteria to be able to understand the assessment process and to take responsibility for their learning. Teacher B argues that the purpose of making the assessment criteria known to the pupils is to "become better at getting the pupils themselves to see what they could do with what they are working on". In other words, enabling pupils to reflect on how they can improve their oral skills. Providing assessment

criteria for the pupils or creating the criteria with the pupils are for the informants closely connected to self-assessment and the development of pupils' learning autonomy. Teacher E argues that pupils must "have a clear perception of what teachers are looking for in their work" for the assessment process to lead to learning.

4.2.4 Challenges with AFL of oral skills

Teacher A:	It would be much easier if we did not have grades, no doubt, then it would be formative assessment all the time, but we are trapped in a system which is quite contradictory.
Teacher C:	I find it difficult to give feedback and guidance on oral skills to pupils in large groups … I am not capable of assessing pupils when I am a part of the conversation, I struggle with changing between being a conversational partner and simultaneously having the assessment perspective.
Teacher D:	The more diffuse, the bigger and more complex the topic question becomes, the more difficult it is to know if … the pupils understand what you try to convey.

Many different challenges presented themselves as part of, or associated with, AFL of oral skills. One challenge is the effect of a large class or group size. Three of our informants state that they find it challenging to practice AFL of oral skills with large groups due to the difficulty of keeping tabs with previous feedback and guidance given, providing new feedback and guidance adapted to each pupil, and knowing the different pupils' learning needs. Moreover, Teacher A and Teacher D discuss the difficulty of providing feedback and guidance to large and complex tasks which are open to interpretation. As Teacher A states:

> There are x-factors in language learning we do not know yet, the x-factors just appear and they are genius. Teachers cannot read about them in the assessment criteria, they are not invented yet, the pupils are inventing them.

Teacher A believes that there are some factors regarding language learning that teachers cannot control and because of that, the answer on how to assess these factors cannot be found in any official documents on assessment, rather they have to be invented in correlation with the x-factors. What Teacher A points out is most likely a challenge in assessment that teachers can agree upon, however, Teacher A also find this to be a positive aspect of language learning.

Another challenge with AFL of oral skills is as Teacher B says that teachers are somewhat left to themselves when it comes to using AFL to develop oral skills in English. Similarly, all five informants believe that AFL of oral skills is more challenging than AFL of written skills due to a lack of tools available when focusing on oral skills. Teacher B speculates that oral skills are simply less prioritised while Teacher C explains that

> While I can do the written evaluations outside of school hours, the assessment of oral skills must take place at school and thus it becomes a balance between assessment and when to prioritise to give the pupils the opportunity to work with the subject?

This may indicate difficulty with integrating AFL in what the informant refers to as "working with the subject". Rather, AFL seems to be perceived as something separate that is not necessarily a part of the ordinary teaching practice. Teacher A and Teacher B talk about how teachers in lower secondary schools are expected to give grades to pupils and how this negatively affects their view of the possibilities with AFL of oral skills. They discuss how they must have sufficient basis for their grading and how this affects their teaching practice. As Teacher A put it:

> I believe we are trapped in the old system where the pupils should be tested at the end of each chapter, we must make sure that they have an overview of it to a much larger degree than we need and that kind of amputates the AFL principle.

In other words, Teacher A believes that the grading system affects the teaching practice to prepare pupils for the tests. However, this does not necessarily mean that teachers are teaching to the tests, but that their focus must be on the pupils' learning while also making sure that they are prepared for the tests. Another challenge with grades, mentioned by Teacher B, is that the pupils are often very focused on the grade given rather than the feedback or guidance accompanying it. If the grade is given before or with the comments, Teacher B finds that pupils only focus on their score and disregard the feedback they are given (see section 4.2.3.3). If grades are not mentioned, Teacher C and Teacher E experience that pupils are uninterested in the feedback or guidance they are given. They find that some pupils seem indifferent to the AFL process and are not motivated to improve. Teacher B and Teacher E find that it is often the low-achieving pupils who are least interested in the feedback or guidance they are given. While Teacher C experiences that pupils are often making the same mistakes repeatedly, despite acknowledging the need for improvement during self-assessment and being given ample feedback and guidance. Teacher D argues that because language is tightly connected with the

pupils' identity they might be especially vulnerable when being given feedback or guidance on their oral skills in English.

Furthermore, four informants find AFL of oral skills to be difficult due to the elusive and momentariness nature of the action or product to which feedback or guidance should be provided. Teacher A states that "all these elusive oral moments we should assess and learn something of … can be a bit challenging" and Teacher D finds that the feedback on oral skills is typically spontaneous and very context dependent. The informants believe that oral skills do not necessarily have a product in the same way as written skills and because of this, the AFL process is different for oral skills. This makes it more difficult, as teachers must be able to use AFL at the moment without time to reflect on the most effective strategy to improve the pupils' learning. As Teacher B puts it: "it is sort of a happening, it is then and there, the presentation they had is, after all, over afterwards".

Another challenge perceived by the informants is the limited time available. Teacher C states that "time is a difficult aspect, as I say: you must create the situations where you are allowed to be in a position to actually assess the pupils". Four of the informants find that it is difficult to use AFL of oral skills effective simultaneous with their normal classroom practice. Teacher A states that AFL is "about providing feedback to the pupils and that it takes time to do so", which is especially challenging when teaching a large class or group. Moreover, situations, where you can give extended feedback or guidance to a single pupil, means that you need to occupy the rest of the class or group with meaningful learning activities. This is something that our informants find difficult to balance with the other areas of focus in the classroom. Teacher A argues that one must prioritise AFL of oral skills a bit less due to the time constraints in the classroom.

4.3 Findings - summarised

The main findings from the questionnaire and interviews are that the teachers believe the purpose of AFL is learning and improvement, and that it is a natural part of teaching and has affected the way they teach (see section 4.2.1). Our informants believe AFL is helpful to improve learning, however, must be considered as one of many factors which influence learning. Moreover, that AFL relieves some of the grading pressure they hold, makes them more aware of the purpose of assessment, connects them with the pupils, helps with adapted education, is effective when pupils know the process, makes learning less threatening, and provides a long-term perspective on learning for both themselves and the pupils (see section 4.2.2).

Additionally, we found that the informants perceive self- and peer-assessment, feedback, and guidance as definite aspects of AFL of oral skills. While active involvement of pupils, adapted education, the learning environment, metacognitive strategies, and known assessment criteria may also be part of AFL of oral skills (see section 4.2.3). Furthermore, the informants find that AFL is challenging in general and especially difficult when dealing with oral skills. They stated that it is challenging to provide effective feedback and guidance, especially to low-achieving pupils. Some of the challenges with AFL of oral skills are explained by the informants as being related to pupils' interest in their own development, time, the elusiveness of oral performances, large classes or group sizes, tests, and summative grading requirements (see section 4.2.4). Finally, the informants find that there is a lack of tools to deal with AFL of oral skills.

5 Discussion

This chapter has three main purposes; to answer our research questions, to explain how our answers are supported by the findings, and finally, to discuss the answers in relation to the existing body of literature accounted for in chapter 2. The answers to both research questions will be considered in relation to our hypothesis. First, in section 5.1, we will answer the research question "How do teachers of the English subject understand assessment for learning?". We find it important to uncover how teachers perceive AFL in general in the context of their practice as teachers of the English subject. We believe that their understanding of AFL constitutes the foundation for their work with AFL of oral skills. Therefore, we argue that how they apply AFL to their practice with oral skills must considered in light of their understanding of AFL. Secondly, in section 5.2, we will answer the research question "How do teachers of the English subject apply their understanding of assessment for learning to their practice with oral skills?". We want to examine which aspects our informants perceive to be a part of, and influence on, their practice with AFL of oral skills. This is to explore if teachers are able to use their understanding of AFL in general with their work on oral skills in the English subject. Finally, the unexpected findings and their implications for the validity of the study are discussed.

5.1 Understanding of AFL

The findings in section 4.2.1 show that our informants have a clear understanding that the purpose of AFL is learning and improvement. Moreover, that AFL is a tool for assessment that is, to a larger degree than other assessment forms, part of the learning process. As Teacher A comments: "assessment justifies itself much more in that it is a process, a learning process". Thus, we argue that the informants' perceptions of the purpose of AFL as raising the standards of achievement are congruent with the literature by Black & Wiliam (1998b) and the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2009). The informants also believe that using AFL in their teaching practice leads to better learning, which corresponds to the findings of Black & Wiliam (1998b, p.7) that formative assessment can yield substantial learning gains. Our informants also find that AFL helps alleviate the pressure from grading and changes their focus from what has been learnt to how further learning best can take place. This change of focus is consistent with the formative purpose (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, p.144; Black et al. 2004, p.13; Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2016) and suggests that our informants are able to use AFL in their teaching practice and have understood the principles of AFL.

All the informants perceive AFL to be an integrated part of their teaching practice as opposed to an external tool or activity that is sometimes used. Our findings indicate that AFL has been integrated into their teaching philosophy. I.e., that their beliefs about how teaching and learning should be conducted, the teacher's role and what should be taught, are influenced by AFL. However, some informants state that AFL is one of several factors which influences learning, and therefore it is difficult for us to determine the importance of AFL in their teaching philosophy. This is also reflected in section 4.2.3 where our informants connect the idea of AFL to different aspects of their teaching practice. The informants might use many of the elements of formative assessment, as presented by OECD (2005, p.44), without necessarily connecting them to the formal term. Additionally, it seems that some of the informants perceive AFL as something separate from the subject and, contradictorily, as something that is integrated in their teaching practice. Teacher C states that there is "a balance between assessment and when to prioritise to give the pupils the opportunity to work with the subject". We argue that working with the subject can be done using the principles of AFL, as opposed to AFL being a separate activity. Black et al. (2004) and Black & Wiliam (1998a) state that there are many challenges and risks experienced by teachers when changing their teaching practice and argue that it may be beneficial to try out and incorporate aspects of formative assessment gradually. The findings in section 4.2.3 lead us to believe that our informants have implemented parts of AFL in their teaching practice over time, however, if they perceive AFL as something separate from the subject it may indicate that AFL is not yet fully implemented. This may be due to the difficulties schools have with making assessment an integrated part of the learning process in the classroom (Ministry of Education and Research, 2007-2008, p.30). In TALIS 2013, 69% percent of lower secondary teachers still indicated a need for further competence development in the field of pupil assessment (Caspersen et al., 2014, p.57)

In our hypothesis, we stated that we believe AFL of oral skills to be only partially implemented in teachers' instruction and assessment practice. OECD (2005, p.69) argues that teachers often agree with the concept of AFL but find it difficult to implement into their practice. However, our informants report that they use AFL in their regular teaching practice and provide ample evidence of this, yet experience challenges with AFL in general and especially in relation to oral skills. In section 4.2.4, our informants state that the limited time available, large class sizes and the summative requirements of grades make it difficult to use AFL of oral skills in their teaching practice. These challenges are also found by OECD (2005, p.69). Black & Wiliam (1998a, 144-148) argue that these perceived challenges can impede the

improvement of practice. The challenges and aspects of AFL of oral skills identified by our informants lead us to believe that AFL in general is implemented in their teaching practice, however, that AFL of oral skills is only partially implemented due to lack of knowledge on how AFL can be used with oral skills. Nevertheless, the interviews show that our informants are at different stages of implementation of AFL of oral skills.

Black & Wiliam's (2009, p.9) definition of formative assessment (see section 2.1.2) clearly connects formative assessment to adapted education. The definition asserts that formative assessment practice is contingent of eliciting, interpreting and using the information about pupils' current understanding to make decisions on the next steps in teaching. Four of our informants view adapted education as a part of their teaching practice and connect the AFL idea with adapted education. However, little focus is put on uncovering and interpreting information about pupils' present understanding or competence to make adapted education possible. This is not to argue that our informants do not have information about their pupils' current knowledge and competence, but that it seems that the process of uncovering and interpreting the information is not strongly connected to AFL by our informants. This means that our informants focus only on the last step of eliciting, interpreting and differentiating further teaching as part of AFL in relation to adapted education.

To summarise, the answer to our first research question is that teachers of the English subject understand AFL as a part of their teaching philosophy that focuses on how the assessment process can contribute to learning and improvement. They believe that AFL leads to raised standards of achievement and connects AFL to adapted education, but do not seem to focus on eliciting and interpretation of information about current pupil understanding as part of AFL's role in adapted education. Therefore, we argue that our informants' understanding of AFL partially concurs with the literature by Black & Wiliam (1998b, 2009), OECD (2005), ARG (2002) and the principles of formative assessment by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b).

5.2 AFL of oral skills

Feedback and guidance are mentioned by all our informants as part of their practice with AFL of oral skills. Moreover, these aspects are often mentioned by both the respondents to the questionnaire and the informants. Thus, we argue that all our informants perceive feedback and guidance as important aspects of AFL of oral skills. In section 4.2.1, we found that the teachers view the purpose of AFL as being 'learning' and 'improvement', and sections 4.2.3.3 and 4.2.3.4 show that our informants believe that feedback and guidance are used in their AFL practice with oral skills to increase the learning outcome of their pupils. Teacher D states that "you become more aware that the feedback you are giving should enable them to improve". Thus, all our informants view feedback and guidance as vital parts of AFL of oral skills that is effective in increasing pupil achievement. The importance of feedback is supported by Hattie & Timperley (2007, p.102) who assert that feedback is an effective moderator of learning and can increase learning gains if used efficiently. Additionally, Black & Wiliam (1998b, p.36) find that feedback plays a key role in any formative assessment procedure. The importance of feedback in formative work is also evident in the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b), Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.143) and OECD (2005, p.50).

Our findings show that the informants find it difficult to provide feedback that motivates the pupils and leads to learning and improvement. Section 4.2.4 suggests that the informants find that some pupils are more receptive to feedback than others and that pupils are making recurring mistakes despite the feedback provided to them by the teacher. Two of the informants mention that when feedback is accompanied by a grade, pupils rarely take the feedback into account and only focus on the grade. Teacher B found that the pupils "just want to know the grade, did you get 4 or 5? and what you needed to do to get 5 is neglected". The informants' experiences are congruent with the literature which finds that grades accompanying feedback may be counterproductive for formative purposes and have a lesser impact on learning than feedback alone (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, p.144; Black et al., 2004, p.13; Sadler, 1989, p.121). Furthermore, the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2016) cautions focusing on grades as it can obscure the focus on learning and negatively impact the learning environment.

According to Hattie & Timperley (2007, p.103), the ability to provide and receive feedback requires much skill and is dependent on several factors, as mentioned in section 2.3, which may explain why the teachers experience challenges with providing effective feedback. Additionally, Gamlem & Smith (2013, p.155) state that the learning environment affects how pupils perceive and use feedback. Moreover, OECD (2005, p.50) connects effective feedback to explicit learning criteria and the modelling of learning to learn skills. Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.144) argue that pupils must be given the opportunity to experience the benefits of formative assessment before being expected to believe in the value of a change to the teaching practice. Teacher C and Teacher E state that some pupils are uninterested in the feedback and guidance they are given. Furthermore, the informants express that they believe high-achieving pupils are more open to feedback and guidance than low-achieving pupils. As we see it, it may be that high-achieving pupils recognise the benefits of formative assessment in their learning process easier than low-achieving pupils. In section 4.2.3.3, our informants admit that they rarely allocate time for the pupils to work on their feedback in class, thus, it becomes the pupils' responsibility to work on the feedback and guidance they are given in order to improve. Therefore, we argue that the challenges perceived by the informants, such as recurring mistakes, may be caused by a lack of work with the feedback and guidance given to the pupils.

The practices of giving feedback and guidance are also closely connected to our informants' perceptions of adapted education as part of their practice with AFL of oral skills. OECD (2005, p.63) states that "feedback on student performance and adaption of instruction to meet identified needs" is a key element of formative assessment. Furthermore, OECD (2005, pp.60-62) argues that the use of varied instruction methods and approaches to assessment are key elements of formative assessment. Thus, we argue that adapted education, through varied instruction and assessment practice, is strongly connected to AFL. In section 4.2.3.2, we found that our informants believe that differentiated feedback and guidance play an important role in their work with AFL of oral skills. As we discussed in section 5.1, our informants are mostly focused on the differentiating part of AFL rather than the elicitation and interpretation of the pupils' present understanding or competence. We believe that the differentiating part of AFL, as opposed to the elicitation and interpretation, is what constitutes our informants understanding of adapted education as part of their practice with AFL of oral skills. Also, that the differentiating part is mainly accomplished through adapting the feedback and guidance given to the pupils.

Some of the informants argue for learner autonomy, i.e., the development of metacognitive strategies, as part of involving pupils in the learning process and enabling them to make use of the feedback and guidance they are given. The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b) states that pupils should be involved in their learning process, which OECD (2005, p.23) argues develops learner autonomy. Our informants express that they want pupils to be active participants in the classroom and be able to understand what they need to improve and be able to attempt that improvement themselves. However, Black et al. (2004, p.14) and Gamlem & Smith (2013, p.161) argue that it takes time and effort from the teacher to develop pupils' capacities and abilities to participate in the assessment practice. As previously mentioned, our findings reveal that the informants fail to allocate time for pupils to work on the feedback and guidance they are given. It is therefore uncertain whether the informants' aim to develop the pupils' metacognitive strategies are reflected in their teaching practice or not. It may be difficult for teachers to risk the investment in time without being confident about the value of the rewards.

Another aspect of the informants' practice with AFL of oral skills is reflected in their aim to actively involve pupils in the learning process by utilising self- and peer-assessment. In section 4.2.3.7, we found that all five informants use self- and peer-assessment in their teaching practice with oral skills and consider it a valuable tool to actively include pupils in the learning process. Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.143) argue that self-assessment is vital to the formative assessment process as learners must understand the purpose of their learning and what they need to achieve. The active involvement of pupils in the learning process is another key element of formative assessment and may contribute to the development of metacognitive strategies (OECD, 2005, pp.50-51). The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b) states that pupils are to be involved in their own learning by assessing their own work and progress. It is therefore not surprising that our informants use self- and peer-assessment as part of their practice of AFL of oral skills.

The informants also find that a positive learning environment in the classroom is important in order to be able to use self- and peer-assessment efficiently. A positive learning environment is, according to our informants, important for their practice with AFL of oral skills by enabling pupils to actively participate in the lessons. Teacher A states that it is very important that the first thing you do, as a teacher, is to invest in the learning environment. Black et al. (2004, p.19) and OECD (2005, pp.46-47) argue that the learning environment must be engineered so that pupils are willing to express and discuss their understanding. When the

pupils' understanding is revealed, teachers can use that information to adapt their teaching to meet the needs of the pupils. However, our informants do not provide further explanations on why it is important for them to create a learning environment where pupils are active participants. Nevertheless, it seems that a focus on the learning environment is something that the informants find important regardless of the focus on oral skills.

Our informants report that they share assessment criteria with their pupils as part of their practice with AFL of oral skills. We believe that this can be connected to the informants' desire to actively involve pupils in the learning process. Sharing assessment criteria enables the use of self- and peer-assessment by making the pupils aware of what they are supposed to learn. OECD (2005, pp.47-48) argues that learning goals makes the learning process more transparent, helps pupils track their own progress and builds confidence. Teacher E states that pupils must know the learning goals and how to achieve them. Furthermore, the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b) states that pupils should understand what they are supposed to learn and what is expected of them. It is logical that pupils must understand what they are supposed to learn to be able to close the gap between current and desired competence and to understand the purpose of the feedback and guidance they are given. Black & Wiliam (1998a, p.143) and Sadler (1989, pp.142-143) state that pupils must recognise the desired goal and have some understanding of how to reach it before he or she can carry out remedial actions.

To summarise, the answer to our second research question is that teachers of the English subject apply their understanding of AFL to oral skills through feedback, guidance and self- and peer-assessment, and consider these aspects as important parts of their teaching practice. Additionally, our findings show that the informants' view of AFL of oral skills is also connected to the active involvement of pupils, adapted education, a positive learning environment, the development of metacognitive strategies, and known assessment criteria. These findings are congruent with the aspects associated with AFL by Black & Wiliam (1998a; 1998b), Black et al. (2004), OECD (2005) and the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015a; 2015b) as presented in Chapter 2. However, exactly how AFL is positioned in relation to these aspects is not made explicit by the informants. For some, these are encompassed within the AFL term, while others view the aspects as both a part of AFL and something that exists as a separate entity. We believe that some of the informants are unsure of which of the aspects of their practice with oral skills that can be linked to AFL, rather than viewing AFL as something that is a part of every aspect of their practice with oral skills. The application of these aspects is overlapping between informants and not all aspects are mentioned by all of the informants.

OECD (2005, p.43) found evidence that many teachers have elements of formative assessment in their practice, but that the use is somewhat haphazard. This may be due to lack of knowledge on how AFL can be applied to oral skills or because they do not connect these aspects to the AFL term. The relative recent introduction of the AFL term in Norwegian schools might also contribute to the confusion over which aspects of their teaching practice that is encompassed by the AFL term. Several of our informants report that their teaching practices have undergone only minor changes as a result of the introduction of AFL and state that many of the aspects of AFL of oral skills mentioned by them has been a part of their practice for a long time. Finally, the informants find it challenging to apply AFL to oral skills because of the elusive nature of oral statements, time constraints, and the perceived balance between AFL and summative testing requirements.

Unexpected Findings

Black & Wiliam (1998a, pp.142-143) argue that formative assessment can be particularly effective in increasing low-achieving pupils' learning outcome. Despite this, our findings suggest that teachers find low-achieving pupils harder to motivate and to provide effective feedback and guidance to. OECD (2005, p.69) found that some teachers protest that using formative assessment with challenging pupils is difficult. The informants' experience that low-achieving pupils often lack the interest and motivation to improve their work and are more likely to disregard the feedback they are given, which may be explained by Sadler's (1989, p.130) statement that the size of the gap between current and desired knowledge can influence the pupils' willingness and motivation to close the gap. Black et al. (2004, p.18) find that feedback that helps pupils learn will also help motivate pupils and increase their learning outcome. However, this does not seem to be the case according to our informants (see section 4.2.3.3 and 4.2.4). The difficulty of motivating low-achieving pupils might be because the informants are less able to make the benefits of formative assessment clear enough to the pupils. Furthermore, the lack of focus on uncovering and interpreting pupils' knowledge as part of AFL might also result in giving feedback that is incompatible with the pupils' prior knowledge and thus ineffective (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.104). Black & Wiliam (1998b, p.59) acknowledge that there is a discrepancy between studies on formative assessment as particularly beneficial for low-achieving pupils. As other studies have found similar results, despite the supposed effectiveness of formative assessment for low-achieving pupils, the challenges experienced by our informants are not entirely unexpected. Therefore, we argue that these findings do not necessarily impact the validity of the study (see section 3.6).

6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the conclusion of the study, the practical implications of our findings and our recommendations for further research are presented. Our research findings indicate that teachers of the English subject have a clear understanding of the purpose of AFL as being learning and improvement. They find that AFL focuses their assessment practice on the pupils' learning process and are more reflected on how they can facilitate for further learning to take place. However, AFL is considered one of many factors which influences learning and are by some of the informants viewed separately from 'teaching the subject'. The informants connect AFL to oral skills but experience challenges with applying AFL to such skills. Still, all informants state that they use AFL when working with oral skills and they have, to some degree, a shared interpretation of how AFL can be applied to oral skills. They relate feedback, guidance, self- and peer-assessment, active involvement of pupils, adapted education, a positive learning environment, metacognitive strategies, and known assessment criteria to AFL of oral skills. The degree of implementation of these aspects in their teaching practice varies between the informants. Our initial hypothesis, that AFL of oral skills is only partially implemented by teachers, appears to be somewhat correct as our informants are only partly able to apply their understanding of AFL to their practice with AFL of oral skills. This is evident by the informants' individual application of the aspects of AFL of oral skills in their teaching practice and the confusion over what can be said to be a part of AFL. Furthermore, none of our informants states that their teaching practice has undergone any big changes due to the AFL-related measures initiated in Norway, and little focus is directed at the elicitation and interpretation of information about pupils' current understanding.

Thus, we argue that AFL of oral skills is only partially implemented in the teaching and assessment practice of our informants. Moreover, that the informants currently are, to varying degrees, experimenting with AFL of oral skills and developing it as a part of their teaching practice. The informants are using the principles of AFL with parts of their work with oral skills, however, find it more difficult than working with written skills. It seems that the informants have less knowledge on how AFL can be further implemented in their work with oral skills, or, that there are obstacles, such as time constraints, which hinder the implementation. It does not appear to be an unwillingness to change their teaching practice, rather, there are practical concerns that need to be resolved, such as the balance between summative and formative assessment.

The wealth of evidence on the potential benefit from AFL (Black & Wiliam, 1998b), the marginalised role of oral skills in KPR (Berge, 2007), and lack of focus in schools (Hertzberg, 2009), suggest that AFL could play a bigger role in teaching practice with oral skills. The present study researches teachers' understanding of AFL of oral skills and finds that it is not used to its full potential. However, the study has a narrow scope and the limitations of the study should be considered by its readers. The findings presented in this paper are translated by the researchers, which necessarily entails a degree of interpretation that can result in a loss of the original meaning. Moreover, we acknowledge that our predispositions about AFL (see section 1.4.1) have influenced the research design of the study. Nevertheless, we hope that this study can contribute to a focus on how AFL can be applied to oral skills in the English subject as a means to increase pupil achievement.

Practical implications

Our thesis examines how teachers of the English subject understand AFL and how they apply it to oral skills. We find that there seems to be a deficit of knowledge on how AFL can be used to increase learning gains of oral skills and argue that teachers should examine their teaching and assessment practice to see how AFL can be further implemented. We presume that there is a need for further competence development of AFL which focuses specifically on oral skills. Our findings show that our informants have a clear understanding of the ideas behind AFL and could benefit from more focus on how AFL can be applied to their teaching practice of oral skills. Furthermore, an increased focus should be put on the role of eliciting and interpreting pupils' current understanding as a part of AFL. To this end, we believe that school leaders must take on the responsibility of developing the AFL practice at their schools and provide teachers with an opportunity to increase their competence in using AFL on oral skills. Moreover, that teachers should be given time to see the results of a successful implementation of AFL. We also believe that teachers must reflect on how AFL can be approached in relation to the administrative testing requirements, such as overall achievement grades and national tests, at their respective schools.

Recommendations for future research

We believe that there is firm evidence that AFL can be essential to raising standards of achievement (Black & Wiliam, 1998b), however, there is a lack of data examining the benefits of AFL in relation to oral skills. Hertzberg (2009) argues that oral skills are rarely mentioned by teachers and that there is lack of initiatives aimed at the development of oral skills. Our findings also reflect that it is more difficult to work with oral skills than written skills. Therefore, we suggest that research which examines how AFL can be used to increase the competence of oral skills in the English subject should be conducted and that obstacles and possibilities with AFL of oral skills are considered and accounted for. This may include the development of national guidelines and support material to enable the use of AFL on oral skills or evaluating the effect summative requirements have on the use of AFL.

References

ARG (2002). Assessment for learning: 10 principles. *Assessment Reform Group*. United Kingdom: University of Cambridge.

Bakken, A., & Elstad, J. I. (2012). *For store forventninger? Kunnskapsløftet og ulikhetene i grunnskolekarakterer* (NOVA Report 7/12). Retrieved from http://www.hioa.no/Om-HiOA/Senter-for-velferds-og-arbeidslivsforskning/NOVA/Publikasjonar/Rapporter/2012/For-store-forventninger

Banta, T. W., & Palomba, C. A. (2014). *Assessment Essentials: Planning, Implementing, and Improving Assessment in Higher Education* (2nd ed.). Retrieved from https://ebookcentral.proquest.com

Berge, K. L. (2007). Grunnleggende om de grunnleggende ferdighetene. In Hølleland, H. (Ed.), *På vei mot kunnskapsløftet – Begrunnelser, løsninger og utfordringer* (pp. 228-250). Oslo: Cappelen Akademisk Forlag.

Bergesen, H. (2006). Kampen om kunnskapsskolen. *Samtiden*, (4), 32-47. Retrieved from https://www.idunn.no/file/ci/3067968/Kampen_om_kunnskapsskolen.pdf

Birenbaum, M., Breuer, K., Cascallar, E., Dochy, F., Dori, Y., Ridgway, J., et al. (2006). Position paper: A learning integrated assessment system. *Educational Research Review, 1*(1), 61-67.

Bjørndal, C. (2012). *Det vurderende øyet: observasjon, vurdering og utvikling i undervisning og veiledning*. Oslo: Gyldendal akademisk.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (2009). Developing the theory of formative assessment. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability, 21*(1), 5-31.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998a). Inside the Black Box: Raising Standards Through Classroom Assessment. *Phi Delta Kappan, 80*(2), 139-148.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998b). Assessment and Classroom Learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 5*(1), 7-74.

Black, P., Harrison, C., Lee, C., Marshall, B., & Wiliam, D. (2004). Working inside the Black Box: Assessment for Learning in the Classroom. *Phi Delta Kappan Magazine, 86*(1), 8-21.

Blair, B., & Rimmereide, H. E. (2009). The Web of Competencies in English. In Traavik, H., Hallås, O., & Ørvig, A. (red). *Grunnleggende ferdigheter i alle fag* (pp. 162-184). Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

Bøhn, H. (2014). Generelle perspektiver på vurdering i språkfagene. In Bjørke, C., Dypedahl, M., & Myklevold, G. (Eds.), *Fremmedspråksdidaktikk* (pp. 221-232). Oslo: Cappelen Damm akademisk.

Burner, T. (2014). Formativ vurdering i språkopplæringen. In Bjørke, C., Dypedahl, M., & Myklevold, G. (Eds.), *Fremmedspråksdidaktikk* (pp. 234-245). Oslo: Cappelen Damm akademisk.

Burner, T. (2016). Formative assessment of writing in English as a foreign language. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 60(6), 626-648. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2015.1066430

Caspersen, J., Aamodt, P. O., Vibe, N., & Carlsten, T. C. (2014). *Kompetanse og praksis blant norske lærere: Resultater fra TALIS-undersøkelsen i 2013* (Vol. 2014/41). Oslo: NIFU.

Christoffersen, L., & Johannessen, A. (2012). *Forskningsmetode for lærerutdanningene*. Oslo: Abstrakt Forlag.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, & Mixed Methods Approaches* (4th ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2017). *Research Methods in Education*. Retrieved from https://ebookcentral.proquest.com

Engh, K. R. (2016). Ask & Embla og satsningen på vurdering for læring i Norge. *Cepra-Striben,* (12), 26-33.

Fjørtoft, H. (n.d.). Formativ og summativ vurdering [Video File]. Retrieved from mediasite.ntnu.no/Mediasite/Play/42baf892479841eab4d3a8d0f11a0dda1d

Gamlem, S., & Smith, K. (2013). Student perceptions of classroom feedback. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 20*(2), 150-169. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0969594X.2012.749212

Harmer, J. (2007). *The Practice of English Language Teaching: With DVD* (4th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Longman.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The Power of Feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 81-112.

Helle, L. (2007). *Læringsrettet vurdering*. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

Hertzberg, F. (2003). Arbeid med muntlige ferdigheter. In Klette, K. (Ed.). *Klasserommets praksisformer etter Reform 97* (pp.137-171). Oslo: Universitet i Oslo, Pedagogisk forskningsinstitutt.

Hertzberg, F. (2009). Skolen og grunnleggende ferdigheter. In Møller, J., Prøitz, T. S., & Aasen, P. (Eds.). Kunnskapsløftet—tung bør å bære? (pp.137-146). NIFU-report 42. Oslo: NIFU STEP/ILS, University of Oslo.

Higgins, S., Baumfield, V., & Hall, E. (2007) Learning skills and the development of learning capabilities. *Research Evidence in Education Library*, EPPI-Centre report no.1501R. London: Institute of Education, University of London.

Hopfenbeck, T., Tolo, A., Florez, T., & El Masri, Y. (2013). Balancing Trust and Accountability? The Assessment for Learning Programme in Norway: A Governing Complex Education Systems Case Study. *OECD Education Working Papers,* (97). OECD Publishing, Paris. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5k3txnpqlsnn-en

Kjærnsli, M., & Jensen, F. (2016) 1 PISA 2015 – Gjennomføring og noen sentrale resultater. In Kjærnsli, M. & Jensen, F. (2016). *Stø kurs*. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget. Retrieved from https://www.idunn.no/sto-kurs-pisa-2015/1-pisa-2015-gjennomforing-og-noen-sentrale-resultater

Kluger, A. N., & DeNisi, A. (1996) The Effects of Feedback Interventions on Performance: A Historical Review, a Meta-Analysis, and a Preliminary Feedback Intervention Theory. *Psychological Bulletin, vol. 119, No. 2,* 254-284.

Krumsvik, R. J. (2014). *Forskningsdesign og kvalitativ metode: ei innføring*. Bergen: Fagbokforlaget.

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *InterViews: Learning the craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2015). *Det kvalitative forskningsintervju* (3rd ed.). Oslo: Gyldendal Akademisk.

Leseth, A., & Tellmann, S. (2014). *Hvordan lese kvalitativ forskning*. Oslo: Cappelen Damm akademisk.

Malterud, K. (2003). *Kvalitative metoder i medisinsk forskning - en innføring* (2nd ed.). Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

Mason, J. (2004). Interview Guide. In Lewis-Beck, M. S., Bryman, A. & Futing Liao, T., *The SAGE encyclopedia of social science research methods* (pp. 518-519). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications Ltd. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412950589.n450

Matre, S. (2009). Arbeid med «munnlege tekstar». In Smidt, J. (Ed.). *Norskdidaktikk - ei grunnbok* (pp. 208-239). Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: a guide to design and implementation*. Retrieved from https://ebookcentral.proquest.com

Ministry of Education and Research (2003-2004). Report to the Storting No.30: *Kultur for læring*. Oslo: Utdannings- og forskningsdepartementet. Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/contentassets/988cdb018ac24eb0a0cf95943e6cdb61/no/pdfs/stm200320040030000dddpdfs.pdf

Ministry of Education and Research (2006-2007). Report to the Storting No. 16: *... og ingen sto igjen. Tidlig innsats for livslang læring*. Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet. Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/contentassets/a48dfbadb0bb492a8fb91de475b44c41/no/pdfs/stm200620070016000dddpdfs.pdf

Ministry of Education and Research (2007-2008). Report to the Storting No.31: *Kvalitet I Skolen*. Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet. Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/contentassets/806ed8f81bef4e03bccd67d16af76979/no/pdfs/stm200720080031000dddpdfs.pdf

Ministry of Education and Research (2008-2009). Report to the Storting No. 11: *Læreren - rollen og utdanningen*. Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet. Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/contentassets/dce0159e067d445aacc82c55e364ce83/no/pdfs/stm200820090011000dddpdfs.pdf

Ministry of Education and Research (2012-2013). Report to the Storting No.20: *På rett vei - Kvalitet og mangfold i fellesskolen*. Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet. Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/contentassets/53bb6e5685704455b06fdd289212d108/no/pdfs/stm201220130020000dddpdfs.pdf

NESH (red.). (2016). *Guidelines for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences, Humanities, Law and Theology*. Oslo: The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committees.

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2009). Sluttrapport: *Bedre vurderingspraksis 2007-2009*. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/tall-og-forskning/finn-forskning/rapporter/Bedre-vurderingspraksis-sluttrapport-fra-Utdanningsdirektoratet-2009/

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2011a). Internasjonale studier om norsk skole. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/globalassets/filer/tall-og-forskning/rapporter/temanotat/internasjonale_studier_om_norsk_skole_temanotat.pdf

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2011b). Grunnlagsdokument: Satsingen Vurdering for læring 2010 – 2014. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/PageFiles/56712/Grunnlagsdokument%20for%20satsingen%20Vurdering%20for%20l%C3%A6ring.pdf

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2013a, 18. January). Framework for Basic Skills. Localised 14. March 2018 on https://www.udir.no/in-english/Framework-for-Basic-Skills/

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2013b, 1. August). English subject curriculum. Localised 14. March 2018 on http://data.udir.no/kl06/ENG1-03.pdf?lang=http://data.udir.no/kl06/eng

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2014). Grunnlagsdokument: Videreføring av satsingen Vurdering for læring 2014 – 2017. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/Upload/Vurdering/Grunnlagsdokument-2014-2017.pdf

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015a, 7. October). Vurdering for læring - om satsingen. Localised 28. February 2018, on https://www.udir.no/laring-og-trivsel/vurdering/nasjonal-satsing/om-satsingen/

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015b, 3. September). Fire prinsipper for god underveisvurdering. Localised 6. March 2018, on https://www.udir.no/laring-og-trivsel/vurdering/om-vurdering/underveisvurdering/

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2015c, 4. September). Fremmedspråk - veiledning til læreplanen. Localised 10. April 2018, on https://www.udir.no/laring-og-trivsel/lareplanverket/veiledning-til-lp/fremmedsprak---veiledning-til-lareplanen/3-praktiske-eksempler/vurdering/

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2016, 8. March). Gi gode faglige tilbakemeldinger. Localised 7. March 2018, on https://www.udir.no/laring-og-trivsel/vurdering/underveisvurdering/tilbakemeldinger/

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2017, 29. June). Krav om relevant kompetanse for å undervise i fag Udir-3-2015. Localised 21. March 2018 on https://www.udir.no/regelverk-og-tilsyn/finn-regelverk/etter-tema/Ovrige-tema/krav-om-relevant-kompetanse-for-a-undervise-i-fag-udir-3-2015/

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (n.d.). Ordbok/Dictionary. Localised on https://www.udir.no/arkivmappe/Ordbok/

Nusche, D., Earl, L., Maxwell, W., & Shewbridge, C. (2011). *OECD reviews of evaluation and assessment in education: Norway*. Paris: OECD. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264117006-en

OECD (2005). *Formative Assessment: Improving Learning in Secondary Classrooms*. Paris: OECD Publishing.

OECD (2009). *Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments: First Results from TALIS*. Paris: OECD. Retrieved 28. February, 2018 from http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/17/51/43023606.pdf

Perrenoud, P. (1998). From Formative Evaluation to a Controlled Regulation of Learning Processes. Towards a wider conceptual field. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 5*(1), 85-102.

Postholm, M. B. (2010). *Kvalitativ metode: En innføring med fokus på fenomenologi, etnografi og kasusstudier* (2nd ed.). Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

Rivano Eckerdal., J. & Hagström, C. (2017). Qualitative questionnaires as a method for information studies research. *Information Research, 22(1)*, CoLIS paper 1639. Localised 10. April, 2018 on http://www.informationr.net/ir/22-1/colis/colis1639.html

Sadler, D. R. (1989). Formative assessment and the design of instructional systems. *Instructional Science, 18*(2), 119-44.

Svenkerud, S. (2013). «Ikke stå som en slapp potet» - elevsynspunkter på opplæring i muntlige ferdigheter. *Acta Didactica Norge, 7*(1), 1-16.

Svenkerud, S., Klette, K., & Hertzberg, F. (2012). Opplæring i muntlige ferdigheter. *Nordic Studies in Education, vol. 32*, 35-49.

Thagaard, T. (2009). *Systematikk og innlevelse: En innføring i kvalitativ metode* (3rd ed.). Bergen: Fagbokforlaget.

The Regulation of the Education Act [Forskrift til opplæringslova] (2006). Retrieved from https://lovdata.no/dokument/SF/forskrift/2006-06-23-724

Throndsen, I., Hopfenbeck, T. N., Lie, S., & Dale, E. L. (2009). *Bedre vurdering for læring - Rapport fra "Evaluering av modeller for kjennetegn på måloppnåelse i fag"*. Oslo.

Appendix 1 Questionnaire

Vurdering for læring av muntlig engelsk

Prosjektet er en masteroppgave i engelsk fagdidaktikk ved UiT ILP (Institutt for lærerutdanning og pedagogikk). Vi ønsker å bidra til å belyse gjeldende praksis og utfordringer med vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter i engelsk.

Prosjektet er todelt i form av en spørreundersøkelse og et intervju. Om du er villig til å delta i et intervju, vil vi sammen avtale et tidspunkt som passer for deg. Intervjuet vil være en naturlig forlengelse av spørsmålene i spørreundersøkelsen.

Bruker du vurdering for læring som en del av arbeidet med muntlige ferdigheter i engelskfaget?

☐ Ja
☐ Nei

Hvis ja, hvordan?

Planlegger du hvordan du kan benytte vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter i din undervisning?

☐ Ja
☐ Nei

Kan du gi noen eksempler på hvordan du følger opp elevenes arbeid med tilbakemeldinger på muntlige ferdigheter?

Hvilke utfordringer møter du på med vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter?

Hvis du kan tenke deg å delta i et intervju om dette temaet, legg igjen epost-adresse slik at vi kan ta kontakt

Se nylige endringer i Nettskjema (vv338_3rc1)

81

Appendix 2 Interview guide

Intervjuguide

Informere om prosjektets bakgrunn og formål. Innhente muntlig samtykke.

Oppstart/intro
1. Hvor lenge har du undervist i engelsk?
   - Hvilke trinn har du undervist engelsk på?   Primært: JA/NEI
2. Hvilken utdanning har du i engelsk?

Om vurdering for læring
1. Hva tenker du vurdering for læring er?
2. Hvordan fikk du vite om vurdering for læring?
3. Hvor mye har du arbeidet med vurdering for læring utenfor klasserommet?
- Utdanning, kurs, teamarbeid ol.
4. Har vurdering for læring endret din undervisningspraksis?
- På hvilken måte?
- Hvilke forskjeller opplever du det er mellom VFL av skriflige- og muntlige ferdigheter?
- Hvilken rolle har vurdering for læring for muntlige ferdigheter i engelsk?

Gjennomføring av undervisning
1. Planlegger du for bruk av vurdering for læring?
2. Hvordan arbeider du med vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter i engelsk i undervisning?
   - Hva tenker du om ….. som en del av vurdering for læring?
     - Egenvurdering, kameratvurdering, uformell tilbakemelding, formell tilbakemelding (muntlig/skriftlig)

Utfordringer og muligheter
1. Føler du vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter i engelsk fungerer?
   - Forklar hvorfor/hvorfor ikke.
   - Får du til å bruke det i din praksis? Hvorfor/hvorfor ikke?
2. Tid blir ofte nevnt som den største utfordringen med tanke på vurderingsarbeid i engelsk. På hvilken måte føler du tid vanskeliggjør bruken av vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter?
3. I hvilke situasjoner føler du at vurdering for læring fungerer godt/dårlig?

4. Hva synes elevene om vurdering for læring?
    - o Hvilket forhold opplever du at elevene har til de tilbakemeldingene de får, muntlig eller skriftlig, på deres muntlige ferdigheter i engelsk?
    - o Arbeider elevene med tilbakemeldingene de får?
        - Hvordan?
        - Setter du av tid til at elevene arbeider med tilbakemeldingene?
            - o Gi eksempler
5. Opplever du andre utfordringer med vurdering for læring av muntlige ferdigheter?
    - o Føler du at du har tilstrekkelig kunnskap om VFL av muntlige ferdigheter i engelsk? Er det noe du savner som ville gjort det lettere å jobbe med dette?
    - o Er det verdt å bruke tid og energi til å sette seg inn i, og benytte seg av, vurdering for læring med tanke på muntlige ferdigheter i engelsk?
        - Hvorfor/hvorfor ikke?

Avslutning

1. Før vi avslutter dette intervjuet, er noe mer du ønsker å snakke om?
    - o Er det noe du vil presisere om svarene dine under intervjuet?
2. Har du noen spørsmål til oss om intervjuet eller prosjektet?
    - o Er det noen andre tilbakemeldinger du ønsker å gi?
3. Om vi har spørsmål angående tolkningen av intervjuet kan vi kontakte deg via e-post?

Takke informanten for deltakelsen i studiet.

Appendix 3 NSD approval

NSD

Tove Holmbukt

9006 TROMSØ

Vår dato: 04.12.2017   Vår ref: 57449 / 3 / LAR   Deres dato: Deres ref:

Forenklet vurdering fra NSD Personvernombudet for forskning

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 27.11.2017.
Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

57449	*Vurdering for læring i engelsk*
Behandlingsansvarlig	*UiT Norges arktiske universitet, ved institusjonens øverste leder*
Daglig ansvarlig	*Tove Holmbukt*
Student	*Kjetil Olsen*

Vurdering
Etter gjennomgang av opplysningene i meldeskjemaet med vedlegg, vurderer vi at prosjektet er omfattet
av personopplysningsloven § 31. Personopplysningene som blir samlet inn er ikke sensitive, prosjektet er
samtykkebasert og har lav personvernulempe. Prosjektet har derfor fått en forenklet vurdering. Du kan
gå i gang med prosjektet. Du har selvstendig ansvar for å følge vilkårene under og sette deg inn i
veiledningen i dette brevet.

Vilkår for vår vurdering
Vår anbefaling forutsetter at du gjennomfører prosjektet i tråd med:
- opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet
- krav til informert samtykke
- at du ikke innhenter sensitive opplysninger
- veiledning i dette brevet
- UiT Norges arktiske universitet sine retningslinjer for datasikkerhet

Veiledning

Krav til informert samtykke
Utvalget skal få skriftlig og/eller muntlig informasjon om prosjektet og samtykke til deltakelse.
Informasjon må minst omfatte:
- at UiT Norges arktiske universitet er behandlingsansvarlig institusjon for prosjektet
- daglig ansvarlig (eventuelt student og veileders) sine kontaktopplysninger
- prosjektets formål og hva opplysningene skal brukes til

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

- hvilke opplysninger som skal innhentes og hvordan opplysningene innhentes
- når prosjektet skal avsluttes og når personopplysningene skal anonymiseres/slettes

På nettsidene våre finner du mer informasjon og en veiledende mal for informasjonsskriv.

Forskningsetiske retningslinjer
Sett deg inn i forskningsetiske retningslinjer.

Meld fra hvis du gjør vesentlige endringer i prosjektet
Dersom prosjektet endrer seg, kan det være nødvendig å sende inn endringsmelding. På våre nettsider finner du svar på hvilke endringer du må melde, samt endringsskjema.

Opplysninger om prosjektet blir lagt ut på våre nettsider og i Meldingsarkivet
Vi har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet på nettsidene våre. Alle våre institusjoner har også tilgang til egne prosjekter i Meldingsarkivet.

Vi tar kontakt om status for behandling av personopplysninger ved prosjektslutt
Ved prosjektslutt 31.05.2018 vil vi ta kontakt for å avklare status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Gjelder dette ditt prosjekt?

Dersom du skal bruke databehandler
Dersom du skal bruke databehandler (ekstern transkriberingsassistent/spørreskjemaleverandør) må du inngå en databehandleravtale med vedkommende. For råd om hva databehandleravtalen bør inneholde, se Datatilsynets veileder.

Hvis utvalget har taushetsplikt
Vi minner om at noen grupper (f.eks. opplærings- og helsepersonell/forvaltningsansatte) har taushetsplikt. De kan derfor ikke gi deg identifiserende opplysninger om andre, med mindre de får samtykke fra den det gjelder.

Dersom du forsker på egen arbeidsplass
Vi minner om at når du forsker på egen arbeidsplass må du være bevisst din dobbeltrolle som både forsker og ansatt. Ved rekruttering er det spesielt viktig at forespørsel rettes på en slik måte at frivilligheten ved deltakelse ivaretas.

Se våre nettsider eller ta kontakt med oss dersom du har spørsmål. Vi ønsker lykke til med prosjektet!

Vennlig hilsen

Marianne Høgetveit Myhren