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SELF-ASSESSMENT

A study on students' perception of self-assessment in written English in Norway

Master's thesis in English and Foreign Languages Didactics

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Abstract

This study investigates how students at the lower secondary level perceive self-assessment when used as a tool to promote learning in written English. Self-assessment is a relatively new field of inquiry in Norwegian educational research since its formal introduction in 2009. Due to the fact that self-assessment has become a statutorily grounded practice in Norwegian compulsory education, this study aims to explore how students experience self-assessment as a phenomenon. There is little research that targets self-assessment in compulsory education in English in Norway. Hence, this study aims to produce new research-based knowledge about self-assessment in English at this level.

The main objective of this study is to explore students' perception of self-assessment, writing strategies, self-assessment techniques, and involvement in learning processes. Consequently, I carried out a writing project in a group of 21 English as Second Language (ESL) students at level 10 in a lower secondary school in Norway. This is a qualitative study with quantitative data as a background. The data collection consists of surveys, reflection logs, and interviews.

This study found that students perceived self-assessment as *judgment of own work and performance* in accordance with self-assessment literature. The students saw self-assessment as a continuous cognitive process as well as a product either explicitly or implicitly. The most difficult aspect about self-assessment was accuracy, and several students expressed that honesty was the most important trait. The students experienced self-assessment as a metacognitive activity, i.e. taking an outside perspective on own learning. This study found that students with high levels of achievement used metacognitive and resource management strategies to a greater extent. There is a lack of teaching material and resources on such strategies. As a consequence, the present study encourages Norwegian policy makers to publish more material on metacognitive and resource management strategies. Other findings suggested that students enjoyed a variety of self-assessment techniques. Most students found increased involvement empowering, but some students emphasised that such increased responsibility should come with training. The same pertained to self-assessment.

Samandrag

Denne studien undersøker korleis elevar i ungdomsskulen oppfattar eigenvurdering når det vert nytta som ein reiskap for å fremje læring i skriftleg engelsk. Eigenvurdering er eit relativt nytt undersøkingsfelt i norsk utdanningsforsking sidan sin formelle introduksjon i 2009. Grunna faktumet at eigenvurdering har blitt ein lovfesta praksis i norsk grunnskule, så siktar denne studien på å utforske korleis elevar opplever eigenvurdering som eit fenomen. Det finst lite forsking som fokuserer på eigenvurdering i grunnskulen i engelsk i Noreg. Dermed så siktar denne studien på å skaffe ny forskingsbasert kunnskap om eigenvurdering i engelsk på dette nivået.

Hovudmålet med denne studien var å utforske elevar si oppfatning av eigenvurdering, skrivestrategiar, eigenvurderingsteknikkar og medverknad i læringsprosessar. Følgjeleg gjennomførte eg eit skriveprosjekt i ei gruppe med 21 elevar med engelsk som andrespråk på 10. trinn i ein ungdomsskule i Noreg. Dette er ein kvalitativ studie med kvantitative data som bakgrunn. Datainnsamlinga består av spørjeundersøkingar, refleksjonsloggar og intervju.

Denne studien fann at elevar oppfatta eigenvurdering som *vurdering av eige arbeid og prestasjon* i samsvar med eigenvurderingslitteratur. Eigenvurdering vart sett på som både ein kontinuerleg kognitiv prosess og som eit produkt anten eksplisitt eller implisitt. Det vanskelegaste aspektet ved eigenvurdering var grannsemd, og fleire elevar uttrykte at ærlegdom var den viktigaste eigenskapen. Elevane erfarte eigenvurdering som ein metakognitiv aktivitet, dvs. å ta eit utsideperspektiv på eiga læring. Denne studien fann at elevar med høg måloppnåing i større grad nytta metakognitive strategiar og studiestrategiar. Det er ein mangel på undervisningsmateriell og ressursar på slike strategiar. Derfor oppfordrar den noverande studien norske myndigheiter til å publisere meir materiale på metakognitive strategiar og studiestrategiar. Andre funn tydde på at elevane sat pris på eit mangfald av eigenvurderings-teknikkar. Dei fleste elevene fann auka medverknad som myndiggjerande, men nokon la vekt på at eit slikt auka ansvar bør kome med opplæring. Det same gjaldt for eigenvurdering.

Preface and acknowledgements

Preface

As a qualified teacher, I have gained experience from all levels of compulsory education in Norway. Despite my short tenure as a teacher, I have encountered self-assessment both as a student and when facilitating students' self-assessment in my own teaching. Due to some poor experiences with self-assessment from my own schooling, I have developed an interest in how self-assessment can be used to promote learning. This made me interested in how self-assessment can be used in a meaningful way from a learner's perspective.

Acknowledgements

I am using this opportunity to express my heartfelt gratitude to everyone who has supported me in writing my Master's thesis. Most of all, I would like to thank my academic supervisor, Inger Dagrun Langseth, for her strenuous efforts and valuable feedback. Her competence in assessment in English has allowed me to reach my full potential in my quest for a deeper understanding of self-assessment in written English. I would also like to express my gratitude to Tale Margrethe Guldal who has provided valuable insights and support during this period.

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During the process of writing this Master's thesis, the Programme for Teacher Education at the NTNU has arranged seminars where my fellow Master's students and I have given and received constructive feedback. I would like to thank all of my teachers and fellow students who have helped me in broadening the horizon of my research project.

Last, but not least, I would like to thank my family. You have showed great consideration and care while I have been preoccupied with my research project. A special gratitude I give to my sister, Benedicte Langberg Vattøy, for feedback and advice.

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Kim-Daniel Vattøy.

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List of abbreviations

AFL	Assessment for learning
CEFR	Common European Reference for Languages
COE	Council of Europe
ELP	European Language Portfolio
ESL	English as a Second Language
FIVIS	Research on individual assessment in schools (Forskning på individuell vurdering i skolen)
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MSLQ	The Motivated Strategy for Learning Questionnaire
NESH	The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committees
NSD	Norwegian Social Service Data Services
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UDIR	The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (Utdanningsdirektoratet)

1. Introduction

> At the end of the lesson, our teacher hands out a form for each student in the class. She says it is a self-assessment form, in which we should tick off our achievement level at the end of the work period. We look puzzled at each other, whispering: "What's the point in doing this?", "Is this going to affect my mark?", "What do I know about my competence? That's the teacher's job!" As we are handing in the self-assessment form, we take a last glance at our self-assessment form, because we never hear of it again. (Author's own experience of self-assessment)

This study investigates students' perception of *self-assessment* as a tool for promoting learning in English text production in a lower secondary school in Norway. In an educational context, self-assessment refers to "all judgments by learners of their work" (Taras, 2010, p. 200). These judgments should be according to a negotiated set of standards or criteria (Boud, 1991). Consequently, self-assessment is considered an important tool to activate students as owners of their own learning (Boud, 2013; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Wiliam, 2011). The relationship between assessment and learning is of vital importance to this study.

This study involves a school project from a lower secondary school in a big city in Norway. I collected data in an ESL class of 21 students from mid-October to mid-December 2014. I collaborated with the English teacher in designing a project that included self-assessment in which students wrote articles in English that the they handed in twice, once for feedback and once to be assessed (see Appendix A). I used an emic perspective where I focussed on students' point of view and how they think (cf. Merriam, 2002; Patton, 2002). The data collection of this study consists of surveys, reflection logs, and interviews. I used a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods to analyse the data.

One of the sentiments that are expressed in the opening anecdote is the total lack of understanding as to why students should assess their own work. This exemplifies an assessment culture where students are not involved in the assessment. The research conducted in this study aims to help educators and teachers to improve their pedagogical practice based on new and research-based knowledge of self-assessment that moves the learner forward. This study aims to contribute a deeper understanding of self-assessment in lower secondary school contexts in Norway.

In this first chapter, I introduce the national and international context of self-assessment, define central terms, and propose my research questions and outline of this study. In chapter 2, I discuss the theoretical framework of self-assessment. Chapter 3 focusses on the methods I used and how I carried out the data collection. In chapter 4, I describe how I analysed the data

and arrived at the findings that are presented in chapter 5. Chapter 6 involves an extended discussion of the implications of the findings before I conclude this study in chapter 7.

1.1 The context of this study

In this chapter, I will first present self-assessment in the Norwegian context, and discuss the increased focus on student involvement and participation in the assessment of students' own learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Stiggins & Chappuis, 2012; Taras, 2010). Second, I will address the research on self-assessment at the lower secondary level in Norway. Third, I will discuss my pilot study as an impetus to carry out further research on self-assessment in lower secondary school. Fourth, I will elaborate on some important theoretical concepts related to self-assessment. Finally, I will introduce my research question, limit the scope of this study, and give an outline of the study.

1.1.1 National self-assessment policy

English subject curriculum and self-assessment (2006)

In Norway, self-assessment was first introduced in English and foreign languages in 2006 with the *Knowledge Promotion* (UDIR, 2006). Norway is a pioneer in implementing new ideas from the Council of Europe (COE) (Dobson, Eggen, & Smith, 2009; Gjørven & Johansen, 2008; Langseth, 2009). Based on the work in the COE on foreign language learning, there is a broad political consensus on the use of learner activities that promote self-regulation, enhance metacognition, and focus on learning strategies. The ideas of the COE's policy on foreign language education are reflected in the English Subject Curriculum. English was one of the first subjects in the curriculum to put emphasis on self-assessment. The English Subject Curriculum has three curriculum areas: "Language learning"; "Communication"; and "Culture, society and literature". The main area, "Language Learning", does not only focus on learning strategies, but "insight into own language learning" (UDIR, 2006: "Language learning"; Weinstein, Bråten, & Andreassen, 2008). As a consequence, English must facilitate learner activities that foster students' development of metacognitive skills.

Self-assessment belongs to a broader context of self-regulated learning (Hopfenbeck, 2014). Self-regulated learning can be defined as "thoughts, feelings and planned and adapted actions that are all managed by the learner to reach learning goals" (Postholm, 2010a, p. 492). Self-assessment requires an awareness of learning strategies. Hopfenbeck (2014) argues that self-regulated learning involves controlling and monitoring own learning, selecting appropriate

learning strategies, and taking responsibility of own learning. Elstad and Turmo (2008a) define "learning strategies [as] procedures that learners use by setting goals […], and by assessing own results in a systematic way" (p. 15, my translation).

Furthermore, self-assessment and autonomy in learning strategies are important elements in attaining high degrees of self-regulation and metacognition. This need is specified in the English Subject Curriculum: "Being able to assess one's own language use, one's own learning needs and select appropriate strategies is useful to learn and use the English language" (UDIR, 2006: "Language learning", my translation). As a consequence, in "Competence aims after Year 10", one of the aims is: "describe and assess his/her own work" when learning English (UDIR, 2006). This competence aim constitutes the underlying focus of the school project of this research study.

Self-assessment becomes a statutory practice (2009)

Some significant changes to the Norwegian Education Act took effect from August 2009 (Kunnskapsdep., 1998). Self-assessment became statutorily grounded in the *Vurderings-forskriften* with its own paragraph. In this paragraph, self-assessment is described as a highlighted aspect of formative assessment:

> Self-assessment is a part of the student's […] formative assessment. The student […] shall participate actively in his/her own work, own competence, and academic development, cf. Law of Education § 2-3 and §3-4 (Kunnskapsdep., 2006, §3-12).

We see in this definition that self-assessment implies involvement in own work, competence and academic development. Due to limitations of this research project, I will focus on students' involvement in their own work. The changes in the Norwegian Education Act entail a shift in assessment practices. Consequently, assessment is no longer solely considered the teacher's responsibility. Students are also responsible for assessing their own work during the learning process and at the end of a course. It is not only used to document students' competence. Assessment is now equally the teachers' and the students' responsibility and should be used as a tool in the learning processes. This shift, where students are actively involved in the learning processes, contrasts the use exemplified in the opening anecdote, in which the aims for self-assessment were unclear and the activity functioned as an isolated event. The anecdote also illustrates an assessment culture where students have no skills in assessing their own work. In this new outlook on assessment, students are welcomed to take an active part in their own learning.

Circular letter and interpretation (2010)

The circular letter, "UDIR-1-2010 Individual assessment", interpreted the changes of the *Vurderingsforskriften* (UDIR, 2010). The circular letter referred to Stortingsmelding 31, "Kvalitet i skolen", and pointed out that feedback that promotes learning generally seems to be a rare commodity in compulsory education (KUF, 2007-2008). In the notes to the self-assessment paragraph, UDIR (2010) states that the changes were made to acknowledge "students […] [as] important resources in the assessment work" (p. 24, my translation). This entails more involvement in assessment activities. Significantly, UDIR (2010) recognises "self-assessment […] [as] important to the development of learning strategies and critical thinking" (p. 25, my translation). This connection between self-assessment and learning strategies is highlighted in the present study. What is new from the circular letter, "UDIR-1-2010", is that the self-assessment could also be carried out with use of self-marking (cf. Taras, 2010). I did not focus on self-marking in the present study due to limitations and overall focus on learning.

National initiative on Assessment for Learning (2010-present)

Recently, "Assessment for learning" (AFL) has been a national initiative by The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (2010-2014), involving a selection of schools in compulsory education, as well as supporting educators with information and resources (UDIR, 2011). More recently, the Directorate published a continuation of the same initiative from 2014-2017 (UDIR, 2014a). This national commitment to enhance the formative assessment culture in primary and secondary schools shows the need for more research on how students can benefit from these new types of learning situations. The AFL-initiative has led to more available pedagogical resources on self-assessment.

The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training has published pedagogical self-assessment resources on their web pages (UDIR, 2014b) to help teachers and students with self-assessment. In my opinion, these are still incomplete. They do not, for instance, suggest how to do self-assessment with focus on the key competences: writing, speaking, listening, and reading (UDIR, 2012). However, the pedagogical resources from the Directorate are useful for self-assessment of competence or academic development. The first example resource is a self-assessment form used to self-assessment of competence or academic development after a work period cf. §3-12 of the *Vurderingsforskriften* (Kunnskapsdep., 2006). The second example resource is a reflection card about what the student has learnt in a lesson or after a work period. This is another example of self-assessment in terms of general

academic development. The third and last example resource is called "Two stars and a wish". This is the only resource that can be applied directly to a student's work. Thus, there are reasons to argue that one of the main challenges of self-assessment in English language teaching is a general lack of resources and ideas on how to practically carry out self-assessment. As a result of this tendency, the self-assessment form used in the school project for this study was created by my academic supervisor and I.

1.1.2 Earlier studies and research in Norway

There is little research that relates directly to self-assessment and students' perception of this pedagogical practice in the Norwegian context (e.g., Andersen, 2013; Sandvik & Buland, 2013, 2014; Sandvik et al., 2012). I have not come across any Norwegian research that focusses exclusively on self-assessment in English in compulsory education. Consequently, there is a research gap and a sense of urgency to understand more about the phenomenon of self-assessment in English in Norway.

The Student Surveys (UDIR, 2007-2012), carried out by the Norwegian government, are surveys that assess Norwegian students' experience of their education. The Student Surveys from 2007-2009 showed that students were to a low extent involved in assessment activities (UDIR, 2010). The report, "Research on individual assessment in schools" (FIVIS), found a gap between teachers' intentions and practice with regard to student involvement in assessment processes in education (Sandvik & Buland, 2013, 2014; Sandvik et al., 2012). Although the teachers who participated in the FIVIS study found student involvement important, many students stated that they were to "a low extent" involved in assessment (Sandvik et al., 2012). The FIVIS study also showed that self-assessment was most frequently used at primary school levels, but to a lesser extent at secondary levels. Stortingsmelding 31, "Kvalitet i skolen", equally showed that the quality of feedback differs in lower secondary school: "Qualitative research at the lower secondary level shows that there is a great variation in teachers' feedback to students" (KUF, 2007-2008, p. 30, my translation). Such findings have led me to conduct my research at the 10th level in lower secondary school. The 10th level is the final year of compulsory education which makes research at this level particularly interesting.

In his Master's thesis on AFL, Andersen (2013) interviewed students and teachers in primary and lower secondary school. Teachers and students in all compulsory levels found self-assessment a difficult practice: "Teachers at all levels expressed that they think it is

challenging or difficult to make assessment criteria forms" (Andersen, 2013, p. 34, my translation). Some of the teachers in the focus groups interviews of Andersen's (2013) study admitted that they felt uncertain about whether they facilitated self-assessment activities correctly. The students of his study, on the other hand, pointed out that self-assessment activities were carried out in isolation.

1.1.3 Written production in ESL

Writing is acknowledged as a key competence in the Norwegian educational system, and considered fundamental to all learning in compulsory education (UDIR, 2006, 2012). Sperling (1996) suggests that "writing, like language in general, [is] a meaning-making activity that is socially and culturally shaped and individually and socially purposeful" (p. 55). Therefore, when students engage in written production, they need a purpose and a meaningful setting. "The Framework for Basic Skills" highlights self-assessment in writing competence: "Writing is also a tool for developing one's own thoughts in the learning process" (UDIR, 2012, p. 10). Writing as a key competence in English is of paramount importance to this study. In the school project, the students discussed what constitutes a well-written text and the characteristics of an article (See Appendix A). Weigle (2002) adopts Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) notion of *knowledge telling* and *knowledge transformation*, and argue that knowledge transformation involves creating knew knowledge through writing:

> In knowledge transformation, the process of writing involves not only putting one's thoughts to paper as they occur, but actually using writing to create new knowledge: in this kind of writing the process of writing itself frequently leads to new knowledge and may change a writer's view of what he or she is trying to communicate. (Weigle, 2002, pp. 32-33)

In the latter quote, we see that written production per se can transform the cognitive processes of the writer and create new knowledge. When students self-assess their written texts, they can potentially come to new understandings through meta-reflection and knowledge transformation in the process. As a consequence, we see the link between metacognition, self-assessment and written production.

The writing processes in a second language (L2) entail different cognitive processes from those connected to writing in the first language (L1). Weigle (2002) suggests that "[…] groups of second-language learners can be distinguished by age, by level of education and first language literacy, and by the real-world need for writing outside of the classroom" (s. 7). The latter aspect is in continuous change, and English is used as a lingua franca for speakers of different first languages (Seidlhofer, 2004). Writing is more closely connected to formal instruction, as Grabowski (1996) points out: "Writing, as compared to speaking, can be seen

as a more standardized system which must be acquired through special instruction" (p. 75). Self-assessment of own work in educational contexts is equally learnt through special instruction (Taras, 2010).

1.1.4 The pilot study

From 11th of September through 20th of October 2014, I conducted a short qualitative survey where 33 teachers at the target school of the present study were asked to explain their notion of self-assessment, and how it can be implemented in the classroom. I distributed the survey in the teachers' letter boxes, and nine of these forms were returned. The survey was anonymous and voluntary. Self-assessment in the classroom is driven by the teacher's notion of self-assessment and ability to facilitate purposeful self-assessment activities in the classroom (Wiliam, 2011). This was the background for choosing teachers at that very school as research participants.

I coded and categorised the data according the principles of open coding (cf. Nilssen, 2012). I, additionally, used verbatim quotations from selected utterances that in various ways highlighted the essence of self-assessment. I used Wordle (http://www.wordle.net), a program that generates word clouds. In question one, "How do you understand the term *self-assessment*?", the word "work" appeared most frequently, and it was one of the main findings: The teachers understood self-assessment as students' assessment of own work (see Appendix B). Other categories that emerged were for example "assessment criteria" in question 2: "How can self-assessment be implemented in the classroom?" Some teachers argued that these criteria should be decided by the teacher, whereas others argued for active student involvement in this process. With regard to the implementation of self-assessment, one teacher stated plainly: "I have no idea". Another teacher had clear ideas about how it could be implemented, but finally conceded: "But, unfortunately, it's all good on paper, but not easy to do in practice". Of the findings related to the implementation of self-assessment, several sub-categories emerged: learning conversations, reflection logs, assessment forms, and self-marking. One teacher argued that self-assessment should be used in combination with peer assessment: "I think it is self-explanatory: the ability to assess own work, or others' work if working in a group."

1.2 Definitions of central terms

Self-assessment has been the subject of a burgeoning field of inquiry. It belongs to an area of research with long traditions: Assessment. Assessment of students' work has been a relatively challenging area for Norwegian authorities for many years (Engh, 2009). Due to the broad

range of application of the term *assessment*, one of the challenges has been how to establish a common platform of understanding. In this study, I use Sadler's (1989) definition of assessment: "*assessment* denotes any appraisal (or judgment, or evaluation) of a student's work or performance" (p. 120). In the following section, I will define central assessment terminology as well as place it within an international research context. Scriven (1967) first made a distinction between formative and summative assessment.

1.2.1 Summative assessment and formative assessment

Sadler (1989) argues that "*[s]ummative* contrasts with formative assessment in that it is concerned with summing up or summarizing the achievement status of a student, and is geared towards reporting at the end of a course of study especially for purposes of certification" (p. 120). Formative assessment is, by contrast, concerned with judgments and feedback that can improve students' work. The etymological origins of the word *formative* stem from the Latin word *formare,* "to form" (Oxford Dictionaries). We can apply this "forming" or "shaping" to this study's context: the teacher provides feedback that students' use to improve a written text.

Summative assessment was the typical assessment practice of the 20th century. The assessment was formal and summative, and students typically received a single mark without any accompanying text after the completion of a task or course. In Stortingsmelding 47, "On student assessment, school-based assessment and national assessment system" (my translation), we see a crucial change in assessment policy in the 20th century, that moved towards perceiving assessment as a process instead of solely a result: "Student assessment shall serve several purposes. The most important aspect is to promote learning and development for the individual student" (KUF, 1995-1996, introduction, my translation). A similar concern is expressed in Stortingsmelding 31, where feedback is addressed as an essential element of assessment: "Feedback promoting learning and self-efficacy seems generally to have been scarce in the compulsory education" (KUF, 2007-2008, p. 30, my translation).

I rely on Taras's (2005) idea of formative assessment. She adopts Scriven's (1967) notion of assessment as a single process, i.e. making a judgment according to criteria or standards. She argues that formative assessment is a linear extension of summative assessment: "[…] for an assessment to be formative, it requires feedback which indicates the existence of a "gap" between the actual level of work being assessed and the required standard" (Taras, 2005, p.

468). It is therefore important that this feedback contains summative information about the actual level and some instructions or advice to help students bridge the "gap" between their *actual* level and the *proximal* level to adopt Vygotsky's (1978) terminology.

1.2.2 Self-assessment

Sadler (1989) similarly argues that formative assessment presupposes self-assessment:

> […] the learner has to (a) possess a concept of the *standard* (or goal, or reference level) being aimed for, (b) compare the *actual* (or current) *level of performance* with the standard, and (c) engage in appropriate *action* which leads to some closure of the gap. (Sadler, 1989, p. 121)

Thus, an important part of formative assessment, according to Sadler (1989), is students' ability to self-assess: "[...] students have to be able to judge the quality of what they are producing and be able to regulate during the doing of it" (p. 121). If students are not able to judge the quality of their work despite the supplement of feedback, they will not be able to improve their work or performance successfully. However, Sandvik et al. (2012) argue that "professional academic competence about how to promote metacognitive skills, such as self-assessment" (p. 49, my translation) is a necessary requirement. Therefore, we see the important division of responsibility between student and teacher in effective educational self-assessment.

Most of the literature that exists on self-assessment has been conducted in Higher Education (e.g., Boud, 2013; Boyd & Cowan, 1985; Taras, 2010). In an educational context, the age group, spanning from 6 to 16, is often called young language learners (Hasselgreen, Drew, & Sørheim, 2012). It is necessary to understand how theories of self-assessment and self-regulation could be most effectively adapted to young language learners. However, Boekaerts (1999) raises objections to misconceptions about metacognitive theory. He mentions an example of a misconception: "[…] younger students are inferior to older students in their use of metacognitive skills and therefore need more guidance and external regulation than do older students" (p. 450). I have chosen to conduct my research in a lower secondary school in order to investigate more about students' reflection and metacognitive skills in relation to self-assessment in that age group.

Broadly speaking, self-assessment is a cognitive and self-reflexive process that occurs unceasingly to humans when performing activities in their daily lives: "How should I do this?", "Is this correct?", etc. Boud (2013), equally, argues that self-assessment is a continuous and everyday process which occurs all of the time; people make judgments about their performance and adjust to different situations. However, formal self-assessment in the

language classroom is characterised by an active participation in assessment activities based on academic achievement.

1.2.3 Self-assessment in the language classroom

When self-assessment is used as a pedagogical tool in the classroom, terms such as *learner self-assessment* or *student self-assessment* are often used. Such student self-assessment can be defined as: "the involvement of students in identifying standards and/or criteria to apply to their work and making judgements about the extent to which they have met these criteria and standards" (Boud, 1991, p. 5). A thorough understanding of the criteria of assessment is thus a central feature that allows students to determine the quality of their work. At the end of a course, students are expected to be able to demonstrate attainment of competence aims in the national curriculum (UDIR, 2006). In order to reach these aims, there needs to be a validity chain from comprehensive competence aims to more tangible learning objectives and a set of standards. A validity chain can be defined as a continuity or "connection between aims, tasks, performances and consequences" (Crooks, Kane, & Cohen, 1996; Sandvik et al., 2012, p. 41, my translation). When students are involved in deciding learning objectives and criteria, they are much more able to identify these standards to their own work (Boud, 2013).

The AFL movement played a significant part in changing the European assessment culture in the 1980s. AFL is characterised by assessment that supports students' learning processes:

> Assessment for learning is any assessment for which the first priority in its design and practice is to serve the purpose of promoting students' learning. It thus differs from assessment designed primarily to serve the purposes of accountability, or of ranking, or of certifying competence. (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & Wiliam, 2004, p. 10)

The AFL movement, therefore, insists on facilitating for learner activities that foster learning. Consequently, assessment must happen at stages of the work process where students have the opportunity of improving their work. The ideas of Black and Wiliam (1998) have been considered an essential breakthrough for the AFL-movement. They refer to Sadler's (1989) ideas about the student's ultimate responsibility of bridging the gap between actual level and desired level, and argue that self-assessment is thus crucial: "[…] self-assessment by the student is not an interesting option or luxury; it has to be seen as essential" (Black & Wiliam, 1998, pp. 54-55). There are, hence, grounds to argue that student self-assessments should be organised *during* the work process.

The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (UDIR, 2014c) has announced four principles that are considered fundamental for good formative assessment. These are derived

from international research on assessment and learning, and are important for "students' motivation, understanding and ownership of learning" (UDIR, 2014c, my translation). First, students shall understand what to learn and what is expected of them. In self-assessment this is a basic premise, and students are actively involved in the negotiation of assessment criteria. Through active involvement, students acquire a more sound understanding of their learning objectives. Second, students shall receive feedback that tells them the quality of their work or performance. This is a principle that is in accordance with § 3-11 and § 3-13 of the Regulation of the Norwegian Education Act (Kunnskapsdep., 2006). Such feedback could either be used in a summative or formative context (Taras, 2005). The third principle focusses on formative assessment, and it states that students shall receive advice on how they can improve. This feedback has a future perspective and supports the learning process of students. Finally and most important for the context of this research project, the students shall be involved in their own learning work by for example assessing their own work and development. This fourth and final principle "shall promote the development of learning strategies and critical thinking" (UDIR, 2014c, my translation). Self-assessment and student involvement are thus crucial components in the lifelong aim of self-regulated learning (cf. Boud, 2013).

Self-assessment in projects where students can demonstrate their competence in written text writing in English can be carried out in different ways. One method is to use criteria sheets/checklists where students tick off their perceived level of achievement, e.g. "High", "Medium" or "Low". This is often used at the end of a course before the teacher sets the final mark. Students can also be invited to engage in self-marking. Another method is to use reflection logs, where students reflect on strengths and weaknesses in their first draft before receiving feedback from the tutor and submitting a final draft. This allows students to reflect more profoundly on their own learning and the knowledge-based choices they have made. Learning conversations with a tutor is another work method where students are encouraged to reflect on their own learning process and choices.

De Grez, Valcke, and Roozen (2012) argue that both internal and external feedback can foster self-regulated learning. Winne (2004) adopts the term *calibration* in order to illustrate "the degree to which a learner's judgment about some feature of a learning task deviates from an objectively or externally determined measure of that feature" (p. 467). A continuous process of internal feedback occurs when students self-assess, and students' calibrate their own work to the standards. External feedback can be for instance: peer assessment, using model texts or teacher feedback. All of these were used in the present study.

1.2.4 Peer assessment as a complement to self-assessment

Peer-assessment expands the process of assessing own work by giving students the role of peer-assessors, in accordance with Boud's (1991) definition of self-assessment: "In *peer assessment*, students use criteria and apply standards to the work of their peers in order to judge that work" (Falchikov, 2013, p. 27). Both self- and peer assessment have a socio-cultural framework in terms of learning. Students compare their work to other students' work, and become more aware of their own voice and understanding of criteria. Several scholars value the combination of peer assessment and self-assessment. Conversely to the notion that peer assessment presupposes self-assessment, Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, and Wiliam (2003) claim that peer assessment "may even be a prior requirement for self-assessment" (p. 50). They suggest several advantages of using self-assessment in combination with peer-assessment: increased student motivation; students use a language they would naturally use; it strengthens students' voice; and allows the teacher to observe.

1.2.5 Writing strategies

Writing strategies are learning strategies that focus on written text production. Learning strategies are plans and procedures that students use to achieve a particular purpose (cf. Hopfenbeck, 2014; Mossige, 2012). Elstad and Turmo (2008b) explain learning strategies in terms of how a student approaches different types of learning situations and learning material. The ability to select useful learning strategies is a fundamental concern of self-assessment: "[F]or self-monitoring to occur […] students [must] themselves be able to select from a pool of appropriate moves or strategies to bring their own performances to the goal" (Sadler, 1989, p. 138). I will discuss learning strategies extensively in chapter 2.

1.3 Purpose and research question

My research question is as follows:

> How do students perceive self-assessment as a tool to promote learning in written English at the lower secondary level in Norway?

In order to answer my research question, I have formulated four specific research questions that I wish to address, namely:

1. How do students in lower secondary school perceive self-assessment?
2. What writing strategies do students use?
3. Which self-assessment techniques do students prefer?
4. What are students' attitudes to increased involvement?

In my first research question, I wish to investigate students' concept understanding of self-assessment. In my second research question, I wish to understand what writing strategies students use. Writing strategies can be categorised as cognitive, metacognitive or resource management strategies (Berger & Karabenick, 2011), and they will be discussed in chapter 2. The aim is to compare the students' strategies with strategies proposed by scholars. The third research question aims to investigate the self-assessment techniques the students use and prefer. The fourth research question explores students' attitudes to increased involvement in AFL activities. Much of the assessment literature shows that students have possibilities for self-regulation and independence in their learning work when they are actively involved and are given more responsibility (Stiggins & Chappuis, 2012; Wiliam, 2011).

1.4 Limitations

In my research project, I have limited AFL to self-assessment and English to written English. As mentioned earlier, self-assessment is made statutory in the regulations of the Norwegian Education Act, and the focus is placed on the student's "own work, own competence and academic development" (Kunnskapsdep., 2006: § 3-12). The European Council has published a self-assessment grid where the second language learner can judge his/her own competence and progress in six areas: written production, written communication, reading, listening, oral production and oral communication (COE, 2001). The European Language Portfolio (ELP) is another resource in which second language learners can monitor their own progress, reflect upon their own learning, and write their own language biography in the same areas (COE, 2000/2004). Both of these resources are in accordance with the different levels and areas of proficiency that were specified in the Common European Reference for Languages (CEFR): from basic users to proficient users (A1-C2).

1.5 Chapter summary

This study focusses on self-assessment as a tool to foster learning in written production in English for a class of 21 ESL students at the level 10 in Norway. Self-assessment is an everyday metacognitive activity that can be used systematically in educational contexts. Self-assessment is considered necessary for the development of learning strategies and self-regulation. As a pedagogical practice, self-assessment is recognised in an international context, and has recently received more national attention. In 2009, it became a statutory practice in Norway. As an assessment form, self-assessment in formative contexts can potentially empower students in their learning processes by active involvement.

2. Theoretical background

In this chapter, I will discuss the theoretical underpinnings of my thesis. First, I will discuss that this paper is grounded on a social constructivist understanding of learning. I subsequently connect this view to Bandura's (1986, 1989, 1991) social cognitive theory. I see the processes and mechanisms at work during self-assessment through the lens of Bandura's theory. As argued earlier, self-regulated learning forms the backdrop of self-assessment in the ESL classroom. An awareness of writing strategies is a crucial concern to self-assessment in English. Finally, I will make distinction between cognitive, metacognitive and resource management strategies.

2.1 The social constructivist approach to learning

Social constructivism is an epistemology (i.e., theory of knowledge) that understands knowledge as socially and culturally constructed (cf. Hagen & Gudmundsen, 2011; Nilssen, 2012; Ringdal, 2013). Applied in education, learning is constructed in meaningful social settings: "Social constructivists view learning as a social process. It does not take place within an individual, nor is it passive development of behaviors that are shaped by external forces" (Kim, 2001, p. 3). Self-assessment focusses on student involvement and operates under a paradigm that rejects the notion of knowledge as a static and mechanically transferrable unit (Boud, 2013). In his book, *Enhancing learning through self-assessment,* Boud (2013) emphasises "the importance of learners constructing rather than receiving knowledge […] (p. 9). In social constructivism, students are considered fellow-constructors of knowledge.

Self-assessment presupposes that learners are actively involved in their learning process. This entails a shift in the responsibility of learning. Traditionally, it has been the teacher's function to, linearly, pass on knowledge to learners. An example is the traditional classroom driven by hard discipline without any questioning of the teacher's authority. In such a classroom, students will not have the opportunity to become critical thinkers since any form of questioning is unacceptable. Theories of active learning views, by contrast, learners as explorers and constructors of their own learning processes. Bandura's social cognitive theory highlights that learning takes place in a social context. These theories lay the foundation of my classroom research. The school project in the present study is grounded on Bandura's theories of social learning. In the course of a month of process writing, students were actively and inductively involved in exploring genre characteristics of the article through model texts, responsible for deciding assessment criteria, and engaged in self-assessment of own work. An ultimate aim for the lessons was thus that students should become self-regulated learners.

2.2 Bandura's social cognitive theory of self-regulation

Theories of self-regulated learning emanate from Bandura's social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). This theory suggests that human behaviour is neither externally controlled nor autonomously shaped. Instead, humans "make causal contribution to their own motivation and action within a system of triadic reciprocal causation" (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175). In this model, human behaviour is explained in a three-way reciprocal relationship between personal cognitive factors, environmental factors and behavioural factors. At the heart of this model, human behaviour has the capacity to influence as well as become influenced by the environment and personal cognitive factors.

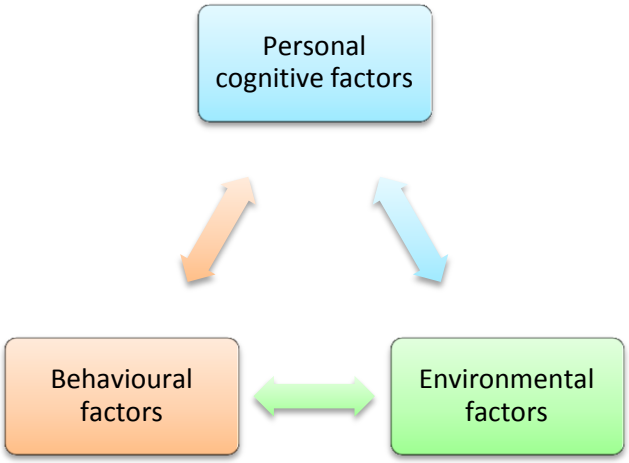

Figure 1: System of triadic reciprocal causation

Figure 1 is inspired by notions presented in Bandura, 1989, p. 1175. It illustrates the causal inter-relationship between personal cognitive factors, environmental factors and behaviour. Central to the interpretation of this model is the notion of *observational learning* (Bandura & McClelland, 1977). People learn by observing others and by their own experience. In this process, there is particularly one important self-regulatory mechanism at work: self-monitoring or self-observation. This means that when a student observes a peer who engages in mind mapping as a pre-writing activity, he/she will compare this to his/her own behaviour. Thus, students can self-monitor and reflect on which writing strategies they use. This process occurs internally and can lead to self-motivation and self-directed change (Bandura, 1991; Bandura & Schunk, 1981). Due to the interplay of social factors, such as social norms, access and influence in community, this is often referred to as the interactionist perspective of social cognitive theory. In the school project of the present study, students studied model texts in groups. The aim was to learn by observing model texts. The students in the groups had their

knowledge, expectations, and attitudes (personal cognitive factors) developed through socialisation and education. When working in groups (environmental factors) they needed to negotiate and agree on what characteristics they experienced as typical for the article genre. Later, when deciding assessment criteria, similar processes occurred. The activities encouraged students to self-monitor through systematic self-assessment, that is, self-assessment at several stages in the process of their work. Thus, the students' behaviour influenced and was influenced by the personal cognitive factors and environmental factors.

Bandura (1991) argues that the major self-regulatory mechanism operates through personal cognitive factors, environmental factors and behaviour, namely by "self-monitoring of one's behavior, its determinants, and its effects; judgment of one's behavior in relation to personal standards and environmental circumstances; and affective self-reaction." (p. 248). Human behaviour is hence regulated by the exercise of self-influence, and people have the power to affect external and internal circumstances. Self-regulation involves the self-efficacy mechanism, which is the most important function in the personal agency, because it determines self-motivation.

2.2.1 Perceived self-efficacy

Self-efficacy can be defined as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175). Bandura (1993) argues that this *perceived self-efficacy* is the most pervasive feature in the human agency, because it influences "cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes" (p. 117). Applied to education, students' perceptions of their own abilities are fundamental to their academic achievements. Consequently, self-regulated learning becomes an essential educational practice: "Students' beliefs in their efficacy to regulate their own learning and to master academic activities determine their aspirations, level of motivations, and academic accomplishments" (Bandura, 1993, p. 117). Bandura (1982) elaborates upon the term of perceived self-efficacy and emphasises the future element: "Perceived self-efficacy is concerned with judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (p. 122). It is useful to see perceived self-efficacy in relation to self-assessment, since self-assessment is similarly concerned with judgments about students' work. Students with a strong sense of self-efficacy have greater persistence and exert more effort in their learning process.

2.2.2 Self-regulation and evaluation to adopted standards

Since observational learning is central to social cognitive theory, people tend to assess their own performances to adopted standards (Bandura & McClelland, 1977). This can have a self-reinforcing effect on people's self-esteem:

> When behavior falls short of one's evaluative standards, the person judges himself negatively or holds himself in low self-esteem. On the other hand, when performances coincide with, or exceed, a person's standards he evaluates himself favorably, which is considered indicative of high self-esteem. (Bandura & McClelland, 1977, p. 31)

Whether a person's self-esteem is afflicted by this self-evaluation process is defined by his/her perceived self-efficacy and understanding of ability. People with strong perceived self-efficacy set higher goals for themselves and show firmer commitment (Bandura, 1993). The person's notion of ability as a set of acquired skills or a fixed attribute, furthermore, determines how well the person is able to cope with difficulties. Bandura (1993) argues that children who regard ability as an acquirable skill "judge their capabilities more in terms of personal improvement than by comparison against the achievement of others" (p. 120). However, many situations in life do not have objective standards, and social comparison is sometimes inevitable for the individual student. Nevertheless, activities and work methods that promote self-regulated learning can support learners' self-regulatory capabilities. In self-assessment, students assess themselves to a set of negotiated criteria that they themselves are active in co-creating. The current assessment system in Norway is criteria-based (Gynnild, 2013). This means that, in theory, every student can achieve a top mark. Process-oriented writing, which is central in my school project, allows learners to assess their previous work to their revised work (Lee, 2006), and is a writing framework that allows students to develop their self-regulatory capabilities. Finding ways of promoting self-regulation is, according to Bandura (1993), an aim for life-long learning: "A major goal of formal education should be to equip students with the intellectual tools, self-beliefs, and self-regulatory capabilities to educate themselves throughout their lifetime" (p. 136).

2.3 Self-regulated learning

Compared to other concepts in educational psychology, *self-regulated learning* is a relatively new concept (Bidjerano & Dai, 2007; Zimmerman, 1989). Its theoretical background emanates from social-constructive theories of learning. Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory is particularly relevant, since people are seen as proactive and self-regulating, instead of passively shaped by their environment (Bidjerano & Dai, 2007; Pajares & Valiante, 2002). Postholm (2010a) defines learning as self-regulated, when it is "initiated, controlled and

managed by the pupils themselves" (p. 491). This requires students to be independent and autonomous, and it is one of the pre-requisites for the goal of life-long learning. *Learner autonomy* has been central to the European Council since Holec's (1981) publication, *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning.* He defined learner autonomy as the "ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3). He, furthermore, argued that this ability had to be acquired either in a natural setting or in formal instruction.

Different terms are sometimes used to describe self-regulated learners, depending on research field and country. In the European setting, scholars tend to use the term *autonomous learner,* whereas in the United States it is much more common to use the terms *self-regulated learner* or *strategic learner*. Weinstein, Acee, Jung, and Dearman (2011) use the term *strategic learner,* and include both of the terms, autonomy and self-regulation, in their definition: "Strategic learners are autonomous learners who have the skill, will and self-regulation needed to survive and thrive in different academic or training environments" (p. 42). Consequently, self-regulated, autonomous and strategic learners are all characteristics that describe more or less the same phenomenon. Norwegian scholars use the term *self-regulated learning* (e.g., Hopfenbeck, 2011; Postholm, 2010a, 2011).

Usher and Pajares (2008) argue that a belief in one's self-regulatory capabilities is crucial, and characterise this process as "self-efficacy for self-regulated learning" (p. 444). Motivation is thus a key aspect for self-regulated learning. Dweck (2006) makes a distinction between a *fixed mindset* and *growth mindset.* A student with a fixed mindset attributes success to innate ability. As a consequence, the student will dread failure and see, e.g., intelligence as a fixed trait. Conversely, a student with a growth mindset believes that he/she can develop and achieve success through hard work and persistence. Hopfenbeck (2012) has studied the links between Norwegian students' PISA-results and the concept of self-regulation. In her findings, she highlights that Norwegian 15-year olds used to a lower extent "control strategies" when solving exercises and checking their learning (p. 71), and that such strategies demand some level of metacognitive skills. Norwegian policymakers are clear on the importance of empowering learners to regulate their own learning as an important step in becoming integrated human beings, although they provide little support for teachers in adopting learning strategies in their classrooms.

2.4 Learning strategies

The first decade of the 21st century saw an increased focus on learning strategies in Norwegian schools. The term *strategy* originally emanates from a military terminology, where planning on how to win battles is essential. In an educational context, however, the key point is learning (Mossige, 2012). The notion of learning strategies is closely connected to that of *self-regulated learning*. Students need to be able to have a keen focus on their own performance. Therefore, we see that in the process of self-assessing their work, students make decisions about which strategies they will use to complete various activities successfully. This is, however, provided that students have developed an applicable repertoire of learning strategies. Elstad and Turmo (2008a) define a development of successful learning strategies as "how students in an active, flexible and effective way approach different types of learning situations and different types of learning resources» (p. 16, my translation). As we can see from this definition, a successful approach to different learning situations requires a high level of self-regulation. Consequently, self-regulated learners will have a highly-developed repertoire of learning strategies. In accordance with Elstad and Turmo (2008b), I find it necessary to stress that learning strategies are distinguished from learning styles (Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1981); learning strategies can be learnt and are dynamic.

Theories of learning strategies are connected to metacognition. Flavell (1979) makes a distinction between metacognitive knowledge, experiences and actions/strategies. An example of metacognitive knowledge could be that a student has knowledge of the way he/she learns best. One student can for instance have the realisation that he/she enjoys learning in social settings, whereas another student prefers to shut the office door. Another example could be a student who thinks of himself/herself as better in language than in arithmetic. However, there are disputes on whether metacognitive knowledge is entirely explicit knowledge, i.e., knowledge that can be written down or verbalised. Sun and Mathews (2003) refer to a growing body of evidence that supports metacognitive knowledge as dual processes between explicit and implicit knowledge. An example Flavell (1979) uses to exemplify a metacognitive experience is that of a person who has that sudden feeling that he/she does not understand something that another person just said. In terms of metacognitive actions/strategies, there is a certain difference: "Cognitive strategies are invoked to *make* cognitive progress, metacognitive strategies to *monitor* it" (Flavell, 1979, p. 909). A metacognitive strategy could thus be that a student believes that an effective way to learn is to listen to the main points of what is being said and repeat it to himself/herself in his/her own

words. A cognitive learning strategy can be used to reach a learning aim, whereas a metacognitive learning strategy can be used to monitor whether one is able to reach it or not. Such strategies are important to develop self-regulation (Hopfenbeck, 2012).

Learning strategies can be observable or non-observable (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999; Hertzberg, 2008; Hopfenbeck, 2014). Observable learning strategies include students' meta-language, mind mapping, writing key-words, or structuring a text into paragraphs. These strategies can be cognitive or metacognitive. In other words, the learner might be able to be metacognitive aware of what he/she is doing or not. Observable strategies are the most common strategies in the ELP, particularly organisation strategies (see Appendix C). Non-observable learning strategies refer to higher mental or cognitive processes. To read over a text after its completion is an example of a control strategy. Again, a student might do this without awareness that this is a learning strategy. Thus, there is a research potential in terms of non-observable strategies.

Figure 2: Extended learning strategy model

As seen in Figure 2 above, we can make a broad categorisation of learning strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management strategies (Berger & Karabenick, 2011, p. 416; Elstad & Turmo, 2008a; Weinstein & Hume, 1998). The Motivated Strategy for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) uses a very similar categorisation (Berger & Karabenick, 2011). Weinstein and Meyer (1991) set forth that "[a] cognitive learning strategy is a plan for

orchestrating cognitive resources, such as attention and long-term memory to help reach a learning goal" (p. 17). An example of a cognitive learning strategy is to pay attention to how paragraphs are structured by topic sentences, comment sentences, conclusive sentences, and paragraph links while writing a coherent text. Hopfenbeck (2012) explains that the broad categorisation of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies have been adopted in the PISA investigations. In the following subsections, I will explain the three interdependent concepts in Figure 2.

2.4.1 Cognitive learning strategies

Repetition/rehearsal strategies

Repetition or rehearsal strategies are most commonly used for memorisation. Since the 1970s and the trends of Communicative Language Teaching in English, such strategies have to a great extent been patronized and associated with behaviourism. An example of a repetition strategy is to visualise a piece of writing in order to remember it later (Elstad & Turmo, 2008a). One of the repetition strategies that are mentioned in the PISA survey is the following: "When I work with a school subject, I try to learn as much as possible by heart" (Hopfenbeck, 2012, p. 70, my translation). Weinstein and Hume (1998) mention "using mnemonic devices, writing material over again, repeating key terms aloud, using notecards, taking notes verbatim, and saying material over and over" (p. 36). The purpose of repetition/rehearsal strategies is memorisation. The most common form of memorisation in English in Norwegian compulsory education (1-10) is vocabulary lists (Sandvik & Buland, 2013).

Elaboration strategies

Compared to repetition/rehearsal strategies, elaboration strategies focus more on sense making and the meaning dimension. Elaboration strategies are used to deepen the understanding of what is being learnt. The PISA survey included the following elaboration strategy: "When I work with a school subject, I try to understand the material better by connecting it to something I already know" (Hopfenbeck, 2012, p. 70, my translation). Similarly, other elaboration strategies included how students can connect what they are trying to learn to something they have learnt in other subjects or to real life (Lie, Kjærnsli, Roe, & Turmo, 2001). Weinstein and Hume (1998) use Piaget's (1952) notions of accommodation and assimilation when describing how elaboration strategies can be used to *assimilate* new material in existing frameworks, or how new conceptual frameworks are created (accommodated). They mention several elaboration strategies: "paraphrasing, summarizing,

creating analogies, asking or answering questions about the material, teaching the material to someone else, and applying knowledge in new situations" (Weinstein & Hume, 1998, p. 36). Sandvik and Buland (2013) found such strategies in ESL classrooms in Norway.

Organisation strategies

Organisation strategies are equally contrasted to repetition/rehearsal strategies by their focus on meaning instead of memorisation. Organisation strategies are concerned with how students can cognitively organise their learning processes. In text writing, organisation strategies are heavily used to structure a text. Weinstein and Hume (1998) suggest several organisation strategies: "outlining, diagramming, classifying, categorizing, noting similarities and differences, identifying hierarchical relationships [, and] separating main ideas from details" (p. 37). Students use organisation strategies pre-, while- and post writing. In terms of pre-writing strategies, students can use mind maps, key-words, Venn diagrams or VØSL forms (rubrics with "I know", "I wish to learn", "Way of learning", and "What I have learnt"). The *Normprosjektet* (2012-2016) is a research project that aims to develop national standards for the assessment of writing. One of the resources, "the wheel of writing", was developed by an expert team in 2003 (Berge, 2005; Berge, Evensen, & Nome, 2014). This is a model that highlights the functional sides of writing and asserts that different *writing actions* require different strategies.

2.4.2 Metacognitive learning strategies

Metacognition concerns itself with thought about own thought (Flavell, 1979, 1987). As I have previously mentioned, metacognitive learning strategies aim to monitor own learning. Self-regulated learners use control strategies (Hopfenbeck, 2012). Examples of metacognitive strategies could be to read through a text a second time before handing it in, monitoring to what extent the student has reached the assessment criteria, or checking the answer against the task. Weinstein et al. (2008) argue that self-regulated learners use a broad repertoire of metacognitive learning strategies:

> [they know] how to monitor their own progress and evaluate the results based on the aims they have set and by the used of the feedback they receive from students, the teacher or the learning material. (Weinstein et al., 2008, pp. 28-29, my translation)

On the other hand, findings from Sandvik and Buland (2013) showed that students did not make effective use of teachers' feedback, and that this is a skill that has to be developed. The same pertains to strategies involving the environment; self-regulated learners use resource management strategies (Berger & Karabenick, 2011).

In the school project of the data collection, the students self-assessed by the use of reflection logs. Hopfenbeck (2008) mentions that reflections logs is a practical example of a learning strategy. Thus, by doing self-assessment through reflection logs, students can potentially adopt a learning strategy. Reflection logs offer a more personal and in-depth experience where students point out the strengths and weaknesses of their own work or performance.

2.4.3 Resource management strategies

In order to improve one's work, it is important to be able to receive feedback in a constructive way. Resource management strategies involve help seeking, time management, and study environment strategies (Berger & Karabenick, 2011). Such strategies are often connected with persistence and motivation as well as utilising resources in the environment in an effective and productive way.

In Table 1, I present a selection of learning strategies with relevance to writing in English. I have used the MSLQ self-regulatory learning strategies as an over-arching framework (Berger & Karabenick, 2011; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). However, The MSLQ strategies do not distinguish between, e.g., reading strategies, listening strategies, etc. The sub-categories are collected from various sources (listed below). To my knowledge, a similar collection has not been assembled before, and this is a preliminary list. This research project aims to elaborate on other possible writing strategies, and an aim is to uncover new writing strategies. Table 1 comprises writing strategies from a variety of sources (i.e., COE, 2000/2004; Hopfenbeck, 2012; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Weinstein & Hume, 1998).

Table 1: Compiled list of writing strategies

Type of strategy	Main categories	Sub-categories
Cognitive strategies	Repetition/ rehearsal strategies	Rewrite/writing material over again (**) Memorise material when writing (***) When finding material, I say the words over and over again to understand (**** mod.)
	Elaboration strategies	Paraphrasing (**) Summarising (**) Applying knowledge in new situations (**) Explaining own text to someone else (**) Creating analogies (**) Connecting new material to known material (***; ****)
	Organisation strategies	Mind mapping (*) Using linking words to structure texts (*) Structuring text into paragraphs, sentences, etc. (*)

		Outlining (**) Diagramming (**) Classifying (**) Categorising (**) Noting similarities and differences (**) Identifying hierarchical relationships (**) Separating main ideas from details (**)
Metacognitive strategies	Controlling and understanding	Writing directly in the target language (English) (*) I ask myself questions to make sure I know the material I am researching (**** mod.) When I'm reading I stop once in a while and go over what I have read (****) When I'm writing I stop once in a while and go over what I have written (*)
	Planning, monitoring and regulating strategies	Before I begin studying I think about the things I will need to do to learn (****) When work is hard I do not give up or study only the easy parts (**** mod.)
Resource management strategies	Help seeking strategies	Using model texts (*) Using learning aids (e.g. dictionaries) (*) Using peer assessment/teacher feedback (*)
	Time management and study environment strategies	Even when study materials are dull and uninteresting, I keep working until I finish (****)

ELP* = European Language Portfolio; W&H** = Weinstein and Hume; PISA*** = PISA strategies from Hopfenbeck 2012; P&DG**** = Pintrich & De Groot 1990. (mod. = modified by the author).

2.5 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have elaborated on the theoretical underpinnings of the present study. I have placed self-assessment within a context of social constructivism and self-regulated learning. I have used Bandura's social cognitive theory in order to understand how students' motivation can influence and be influenced by environmental and personal cognitive factors. I have argued that perceived self-efficacy is one of the most important elements in the human agency, since it determines whether a student will succeed or fail. If students see ability as an acquirable skill, they are much more likely to complete learning activities successfully. This is a key element in self-regulated learning, and students are empowered to take actively charge of their own learning. The ability to use appropriate and purposeful learning strategies is a key concern in self-assessment. Self-regulated learners use cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management strategies to complete various writing activities effectively.

3. Methods and materials

In this chapter, I will first set out to outline the overall research design of the present study before I discuss the selection of research participants. Subsequently, I will elaborate on how I went ahead with the data collection before I discuss the methods used for data collection. Finally, I will discuss vital concerns for the research project: validity, reliability and ethics.

3.1 The school context

I carried out the data collection in a lower secondary school in a residential area in a big city in Norway. Built in the late 1960s, the school has a traditional appearance. The school rules are equally traditional, and students have to rise and greet the teacher before the start of each lesson. This is to strengthen values such as respect and politeness. The school's staff consists of 33 teachers. The classrooms have traditional desk arrangement with desks in single rows facing the blackboard and smart board. There is evidence that suggests that the physical arrangement of the room has major implications for learning as well as students' behaviour (cf. Cold, 2003; Krogstad, 2013). The English group consisted of 13 girls and eight boys (21 in total). Together with the English teacher at the school, we carried out a school project from 20th of October to 9th of December 2014. The English teacher that I collaborated with in this research project was the students' personal tutor (i.e., Norwegian: kontaktlærar). In the school project, the students were given freedom to choose a topic of their interest, research it, and write about it. The English teacher of the class and I tailored the project outline (see Appendix A). It is important to mention that the writing project came as an addition to an already overloaded teaching schedule for the English teacher.

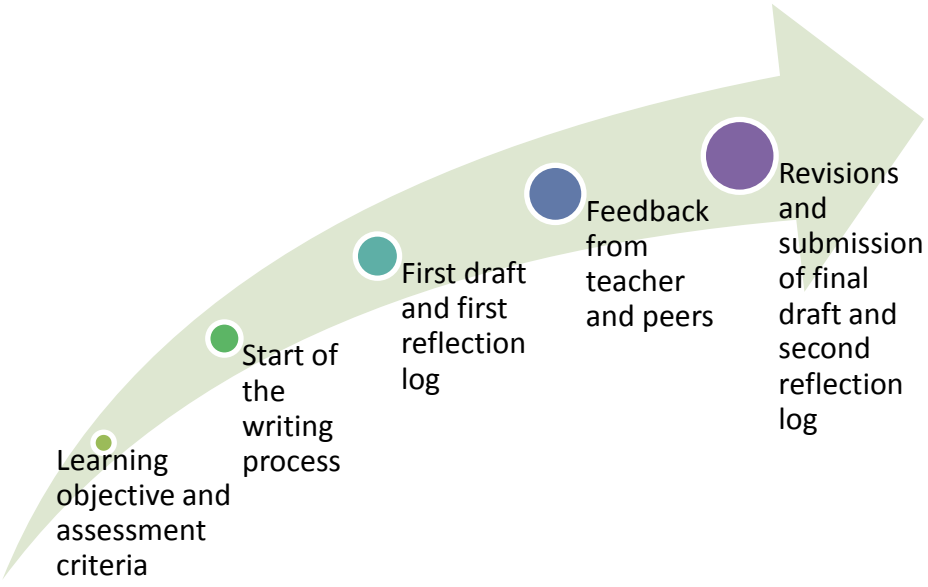

Figure 3: The writing process in the school project

In Figure 3 above, we see the linear progression of the school project. Before the start of the writing process, the English teacher and I decided the learning objectives (see Appendix A). Subsequently, the students discussed and made assessment criteria suggestions before writing articles and reflection logs in two rounds with accompanying feedback.

3.2 A qualitative research design

In order to answer my research questions, I have chosen a qualitative research design based predominantly on text data (cf. Repstad, 2009; Ringdal, 2013; Ryghaug, 2002). The study has cross-sectional qualities since the data was collected at specific stages (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2010). I gathered data through surveys, reflection logs, and interviews. The data collected in this study is primary data. Ringdal (2013) argues that using primary data opens up a great opportunity for adaptation: "The most important argument for the use of primary data is that the researcher can tailor his/her data according to the research questions" (p. 112, my translation). In this study, the application of a self-produced survey and interview guide allowed a flexible correspondence between research questions and data.

A qualitative research design is suitable when the aim is to gather exhaustive information about a phenomenon (Johannessen et al., 2010; Repstad, 2009). Quantitative techniques for collecting data were used in the process of identifying relevant focus areas for the qualitative research. The quantitative part, consisting of two surveys, aimed to provide background information as well as exploring whether there was a change in students' perceptions to self-assessment before and after the writing project (see Appendix C and D). The qualitative part consists of students' reflection logs of written texts in English and semi-structured interviews. The interview data aimed to provide a more in-depth understanding of the main phenomenon of this study: self-assessment.

In this study, I have triangulated the data from the surveys, reflection logs, and interviews. "*Triangulation of data* combines data drawn from different sources and at different times, in different places or from different people" (Flick, 2004, p. 178). Data triangulation is a measure to strengthen the credibility of a study (e.g., Johannessen et al., 2010; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Postholm, 2010b). If several data sources indicate the same findings, the validity and the reliability of the study are strengthened.

3.3 The research participants

As I have mentioned, the data collection is targeted at a random group of 21 students at level 10 (lower secondary school) in Norway. Generally, the 13 girls (4,4) reported a higher

average mark than the eight boys (3,9) in the surveys. The students were 15-16 years old when the study was carried out, and were hence defined as children, according to the Norwegian Social Service Data Services (NSD). The project was registered and accepted by the NSD (see Appendix G). Their parents or guardians, therefore, had to give their consent as well as the research participants themselves (see Appendix H). This concern will be discussed more in-depth in section 3.8: "Research ethics". I see the subjects as individuals who participate on their own terms in accordance with Nilssen's (2012) notion of a "research participant" (p. 27). I will, however, also refer to them as "students". I am interested in how the students think and categorise. Thus, my study has similarities to "an emic approach [which] investigates how local people think" (Kottak, 2009, p. 53).

3.3.1 Selection of participants

The group combination was random which is desirable in terms of the quantitative data techniques (cf. Johannessen et al., 2010). The group thus formed a representative selection for English groups at the 10th level. With regard to the qualitative interviews, I recruited the research participants intensively. For the interviews the aim was not to make representative selections, but purposeful selections. Research participants who showed an ability to give detailed and informed reflection of the learning process were strategically chosen to participate in interviews (Johannessen et al., 2010). I made the selections myself in co-operation with the teacher of the class. I had also taught the class in other subjects before as a substitute teacher, so I knew some of the students already. Furthermore, I had read the students' texts and reflection logs. Prior to the interviews, I discussed possible selections with their teacher. Together, we arrived at seven interviewees of whom five were girls and two were boys.

3.4 The data collection

The data collection of the present study lasted from Monday, 20th of October to Tuesday, 9th of December 2014.

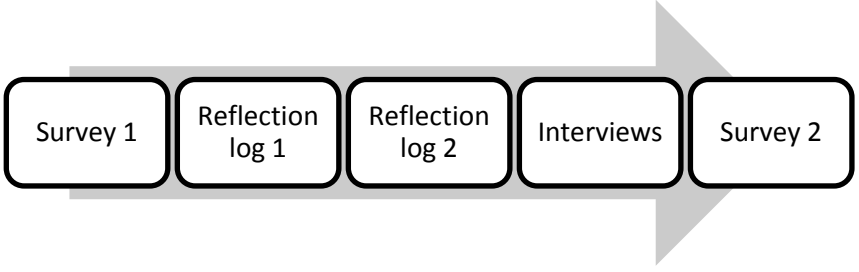

Figure 4: The data collection in chronological order

3.4.1 How the data collection was carried out

On Monday the 20th of October 2014 at 09.00, I carried out survey 1, consisting of two parts which would provide me with background information and later be compared with a survey 2 at the end of the period. Survey 1 marked the start of the data collection. Of the 21 participants in the group, 19 were present during the survey, and all of them completed the survey. Most of the students were finished at 09.10, and all of the surveys were submitted at 09.15. All of the girls in the class were present (13), and six of eight boys were present.

The same day, I presented the project and referred to the information letter they earlier had received. I repeated the contents of the letter and the implications of participation in the study. I handed out the surveys and explained the structure of it, the different questions, how to tick off the boxes, what questions to answer, and what pages to answer. I asked if they had any questions, but there were none. After some minutes a couple of students raised their hands. One of them asked about question 14 (writing strategy): "I try to write directly in the [target] language" (see Appendix D). I explained to him the meaning of this. Another research participant asked about question 12 where one is to provide an example of a thing one has changed in a text while self-assessing the text. This was similarly explained in other words. I asked if there were any comments after all of the participants were finished, but there were no comments.

Then the writing project commenced on Wednesday, 22nd of October. At the start of the project, the students discussed the article genre characteristics through group-readings of model texts. The students completed the process of negotiating and creating article assessment criteria on Monday 03.11.2014 from 08.40 to 08.50. The 19 students (on both occasions) were divided in five groups. The groups completed the assessment criteria form in Norwegian (see Appendix E). The students were only given a total of 15 minutes in creating these assessment criteria due to a miscalculation of time. The assessment criteria were based on all of the students' suggestions. I collected the assessment criteria and compiled them into a single document (see Appendix F).

On 3rd and 5th of November, 19 of the 21 students handed in their first drafts of the articles. 15 out of 19 wrote the reflection logs and attached them in the same document for submission. At this point, the students did not have the assessment criteria at hand due to a delay in the process of creating them. After the students had submitted their first draft and reflection log, the teacher grouped the students in threes for peer assessment on 3rd of November. Therefore,

not all of the students had completed their first drafts and reflection log 1 at the point of peer assessment, which was rather unfortunate. The groups engaged in written peer assessment by switching seats in the computer room and commenting one another's texts from 08.50 to 09.24 in the morning. The teacher encouraged the students to give constructive feedback. However, some students peer assessed through oral communication. Subsequently, they received feedback from their English teacher through the school's Learning Management System. Then, students made changes to their texts, and wrote a final draft and reflection log 2 at home by the 12th of November. Only eleven students wrote reflection log 2.

I conducted seven qualitative interviews with students from the same English group from 25.11.-09.12.2014. I conducted these interviews in Norwegian because I did not want language difficulties to impede on students' reflections. I made sure to prepare the room before each interview. The rooms were conference rooms that were normally used for the purposes of conversations between two or more people. I wanted to create a relaxed atmosphere where interviewees would feel comfortable to speak (cf. Johannessen et al., 2010; Nilssen, 2012). I offered the interviewees soda, gingerbread, and clementines. Furthermore, I lit candle lights to make the atmosphere more relaxed. I would argue that this affected the social interaction between the interviewer and interviewee positively.

Finally, I provided survey 2 to the students on Friday the 28th of November 2014 in an Arts & Crafts lesson. I carried out survey 2 from 10:07 – 10.25. Of the 21 students in the class, there were 18 present during this lesson. I instructed the class once again on how to complete the survey. Additionally, I explained what was meant with the different statements. This resulted in 100% participation in the first part of survey 2 (the eleven first statements). 10/18 answered question 12, where they wrote something they changed in a text while self-assessing. In the last part of survey 2, where students answer to what degree they use the writing strategies suggested by the ELP, 16/18 answered. In survey 2, five research participants did not state their sex. Nine identified themselves as girls and four as boys. This resembled the class as a population.

3.5 Data collection methods

3.5.1 Pre- and post-surveys

Pre- and post-surveys, such as survey 1 and 2, are called panel studies when used in combination (Johannessen et al., 2010). A panel study denotes a research method where the same survey is carried out to the same research participants at least twice (Ringdal, 2013).

Surveys are often used as a "background or as a complement to qualitative studies" (Widerberg, 2001, p. 75, my translation). The first part of the survey (Appendix D) is self-produced, and consists of twelve questions with two additional background variables. It comprises different statements reflecting attitudes and experiences to self-assessment. The second part (Appendix C) consists of seven writing strategies collected from the ELP (COE, 2000/2004; UDIR, 2008, p. 66). In part one, the first background question is whether the research participant is a boy or a girl. This is at the nominal level, and the categories are mutually exclusive. The second background question regards what mark the student received at the last mid-term evaluation. This is at the ordinal level, and the values were ranked from 1-6. The eleven closed questions or statements that followed were regarding attitudes. These were ranked purposefully at the ordinal level, from "completely agree" to "completely disagree". Here is an example in English (Figure 5, statement 4):

"The teacher explains how to self-assess our work"

☐ Completely disagree

☐ Slightly disagree

☐ Slightly agree

☐ Completely agree

Figure 5: Example from survey

Question 12 is an open question where the research participants provided an example of what he or she might have changed in his/her text as a consequence of self-assessment. The open question provided qualitative text data. Panel studies have clear advantages due to their prospective nature (Ringdal, 2013). In retrospective interviews, a number of error sources arise: For example, the memories of research participants' past actions and thoughts can easily be distorted. Ringdal (2013), therefore, asserts that prospective techniques ensure the causal explanations before the effects take place. The great impediment for generalisation, however, is that my data selection for quantitative analysis is small, geographically restricted and not generalizable. However, in terms of the overarching qualitative design, it serves its purpose as providing a useful context of the study.

Measurement in quantitative analyses aims to connect verifiable indicators to theoretical notions (Ringdal, 2013). The aim of the panel study was to compare data from two different dates. These dates are significant as they mark the start and the end of the writing project.

Since I had a scarce selection of participants for a quantitative data collection, I strengthened the reliability of my findings by carrying out the survey a second time.

3.5.2 Reflection logs

Reflection log 1 consisted of four questions: "What was easy?"; "What are you unsure about"; "What was difficult?"; and "What did you think when you wrote the text?". I developed these questions in close co-operation with my academic supervisor of this study, Inger Langseth. These questions enabled students to reflect freely on their own learning process. The last question was meant to allow students to reflect upon their own thoughts (metacognition) and cognitive processes while writing a text in English.

Reflection log 2 consisted of four new questions. It focussed on student's perception of improvements and choice of changes: "What have you changed in the new text?"; "What made you change/expand your text?"; "What did you think when you worked on your changed text?"; and "Have you understood anything more? Give some examples". As pointed out earlier, reflection logs can help students develop metacognitive learning strategies (Hopfenbeck, 2008).

3.5.3 Interviews

After the research participants had completed the writing project and their work was assessed, seven research participants were, as I have mentioned, strategically chosen for semi-structured interviews. Johannessen et al. (2010) argue that the semi-structured interview is based on "an overarching interview guide, although questions, themes and sequence can vary" (p. 137, my translation). The interview guide (see Appendix I) was structured by themes, e.g. "self-assessment", "text production", "writing strategies", with some supporting questions for each theme. The semi-structured interview should potentially aspire to resemble a conversation:

> In conversational interviews the interview guide is merely a basis for improvisation. The questions will, therefore, vary from informant to informant, but the same themes will normally be covered. (Ringdal, 2013, p. 118)

I applied the framework of Brinkmann and Kvale's (2014) notion of the *semi-structured life world interview,* which is "an interview with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee in order to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena" (p. 6). It becomes easier for the interviewees to open up to more profound reflection if the interview is not controlled too strictly by prepared interview questions. Ringdal (2013) assesses interviews in terms of proximity and degree of standardization. Personal conversational interviews where the researcher meets the research participants in their natural surroundings

lead to a high degree of proximity. Since I was interested in the essence of the experience of self-assessment, but at the same time aimed for some degree of comparison, a medium degree of standardisation was natural. Thus, the interview guide functioned as a point of departure for the research participants to reflect over the processes and phenomena they consider important.

3.6 Researcher bias and research at own workplace

Prior to the data collection, I had worked as a substitute teacher in the target school for approximately two terms. This involved teaching in a variety of classes in most subjects on a daily basis. Due to familiarity with staff, students, and school premises, I consider it necessary to discuss strengths and weaknesses of my affiliation to the research field later in this section.

Since the researcher is the key instrument for gathering data in qualitative research, it is vital to report bias and prejudices in the research report. Brinkmann and Kvale (2014) further argues that it is paramount that the researcher tries to become objective about his/her subjectivity, although they concede that *objectivity* is an ambiguous term: "Striving for sensitivity about one's prejudices, one's subjectivity, involves a reflexive objectivity" (p. 278).

In a qualitative research design, it is important for the researcher to list his/her bias and preconceptions. When researching at own work place, this becomes even more crucial. *Reflexivity*, "to keep track of one's influence on a setting, to bracket one's biases, and to monitor one's emotional responses" (Hatch, 2002, p. 10), is an abiding concern for the qualitative researcher. I had taught the English class of this study earlier and knew that the learning environment in the class was pleasant and constructive. As a substitute teacher, I did not have the same role as other teachers. The research participants knew that I would not give them marks in English. If I had the roles as their English teacher *and* as a researcher at the same time, I think this concern would have been a more urgent one. In general, I experienced that the rapport with the students I had established prior to the data collection made the role as a researcher easier, because students knew me by name and trusted me.

Since the English teacher was the students' personal tutor, it was easy for her to convey information to students. On the one hand, it could increase the possibility that students would feel more comfortable with asking questions and speaking upright. On the other hand, it could potentially lead to pressure to sign anything that comes from the personal tutor. However, my experience was that students did not respond to the research project in a problematic manner.

3.7 Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability are of vital importance to the quality of a research project. In this section, I will discuss the concepts of validity and reliability in relation to the present study. Silverman and Marvasti (2008) assert that qualitative researchers are faced with the *problem of anecdotalism*: "How are they to convince themselves (and their audience) that their "findings" are genuinely based on critical investigation of all their data and do not depend on a few well-chosen examples?" (p. 259). Bryman (1988) equally addresses the issue of anecdotalism when describing how fragments of data are used in qualitative research: "There are grounds for disquiet in that the representativeness or generality of these fragments are rarely addressed" (p. 88). As a consequence, this concern needs to be properly addressed in the present study. I will discuss measures that were made to strengthen this study's validity and reliability.

3.7.1 Validity

In social research, validity is concerned with whether or not researchers measure what they think they are measuring (e.g., Kerlinger, 1979; Ringdal, 2013). This pertains heavily to the methods in questions. In ordinary language, validity "refers to the truth, the correctness, and the strength of a statement" (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2014, p. 282), whereas in the social sciences it concerns whether or not a method leads to valid answers, e.g.: Is there are valid correspondence between the methods used in the study and the research question? Repstad (2009) argues that there exists no absolute objectivity in qualitative research, only more or less credible interpretations. Some scholars have dismissed the notions of validity and reliability when discussing the quality of qualitative studies. Denzin and Lincoln (1994) suggest "[t]erms such as credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability replace the usual positivist criteria of internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity" (p. 14). Earlier, I pointed out that I use triangulation as a validation strategy. Despite the general tendency among scholars that triangulation can be used as a validation strategy, there are some scholars who remain critical. Flick (2004) claims that "[…] too little attention his paid to the fact that every different method constitutes the issue it seeks to investigate in a specific way" (p. 179). He argues, instead, that triangulation has gradually become a strategy for ensuring additional knowledge. I, consequently, use data triangulation as a way of shedding light on the same phenomenon from different angles.

Validity in the surveys

Ringdal (2013) uses the term *conceptual validity* about the process of measuring the theoretical terms of quantitative research projects. In surveys, there should be a correspondence between the theoretical terms in the research question and the questions and variables of the survey. There are disputes whether the Likert scale should include a neutral variable (Johannessen et al., 2010). The different statements in my survey concern students' attitudes to classroom practices. Most people are not neutral to surrounding matters that concern them, although they might express a less degree of engagement. I chose to leave out the neutral variable due to own convictions that people can never take a neutral stance to things that concern them, e.g. students and their environment.

Validity in the reflection logs

The reflection logs were first and foremost intended as a learning tool for students to reflect more upon their own learning through self-assessment. Additionally, they functioned as a technique for collecting data. In the school project, the reflection logs were tailored to serve as self-assessment tools. As a learning tool, reflection logs provide in-depth information about a student's thoughts on his/her learning process. A concern that can impede the validity is for instance the degree of trustworthiness in a students' reflection log. In order to receive the highest possible mark, a student can lie and exaggerate the quality of own work. Conversely, a student can underestimate the quality of own work.

Validity in the qualitative interviews

Brinkmann and Kvale (2014) discuss the difficulties of validity in terms of transcribing interviews from the oral to the written mode. They state that "there is no true, objective transformation from the oral to the written mode" (p. 213). Due to the socially constructed nature of a transcript, they find it more useful to discuss the trustworthiness of a written transcript instead. In the interview transcriptions, I used verbatim descriptions, such as "the inclusion of pauses, repetitions, and tone of voice" (ibid.) in my own transcriptions. This made the written transcripts resemble more the authentic oral conversation. As shown in the following extract, I used fillers (e.g., "mm" and "um"), gestures (e.g., "laugh" or "chuckles"), and approximate length of pauses (e.g. "[2]" = 2 seconds). However, the length of pauses has been replaced with "[…]" in the rest of this study in order to accord with academic standards.

> **Researcher**: Mm. How [2] how did you like working in this way?
> **Susan**: Um [3] I got it from the "outside perspective" *laughs* again. Uh [2] yes.
> (see Appendix J: 1 for original statement in Norwegian Bokmaal)

In qualitative life world interviews, interviewees should be given as much opportunities as possible to speak freely about their experiences and perceptions. I asked open questions, such as: "Describe how you self-assessed in this project". Nevertheless, to strengthen validity, I made sure to check if I understood the interviewee correctly from time to time, e.g.:

> **Helen**: No, to measure yourself against others, for example. For example mostly among youth, to measure yourself against others. Um […] in terms of marks and yes or yes […] sports too […] um […] yes, to measure yourself with others, you know. It's maybe […] It has something to do with self-assessment, that too, I guess. So yes.
> **Researcher**: So a negative self-assessment of yourself can have unfortunate effects?
> **Helen**: Yes
> (Appendix J: 2)

It is, here, important for the researcher not to put his/her words in the mouth of the participant, but rather confirm or discard possible interpretations. Observations that the researcher has made previously can be confirmed or disproved in interview situations.

3.7.2 Reliability

Reliability "pertains to the consistency and trustworthiness of research findings" (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2014, p. 281). Could for instance a different researcher have made similar findings, and are the methods and procedures adequately accounted for? This would ensure, what Johannessen et al. (2010) call, "inter-reliability" (p. 40). However, in qualitative research, the issue of reliability needs to be handled differently than in quantitative research. Vettenranta (2010) asserts that the traditional requirements of reliability and validity are problematic in qualitative research due to the uniqueness of each encounter between researcher and research participant. Thus, the findings cannot be reproduced or repeated in a logical manner. Ringdal (2013) argues that a high degree of validity is conditioned by a high degree of reliability. Hence, measures that can be made to strengthen the consistency and trustworthiness of qualitative research are decisive.

How I strengthened the reliability of this study

To strengthen the reliability of this study, I have tried to provide as detailed information as possible about the context of the study (Johannessen et al., 2010). Creswell (2014) claims that a "detailed account of the focus of the study, the researcher's role, the informant's position and basis for selection, and the context of from which data will be gathered" (p. 211) are ways of ensuring reliability. The readers and research community have to be able to inspect how the research was conducted.

Using "multiple forms of data" (Creswell, 2007, p. 38), such as surveys, reflection logs, and interviews potentially strengthens the reliability and credibility of a qualitative study. All of these data sources are seen in relation to one another. The variety of data sources particularly came into play in the interviews. Before the interviews, I had seen the results of the surveys, read the students' texts, reflection logs, as well as notes from observing them in the classroom. This provided a context and a background for the interviews. Simultaneously, I needed to monitor my own bias and prejudice.

In the surveys of this study, the selection of participants needed to be *representative* to hinder random factors from affecting the result. Johannessen et al. (2010) discuss "test-retest-reliability" as a method in strengthening the reliability of quantitative studies (p. 40). When conducting a large scale survey study, this is a very useful method. When conducting a panel study, the researcher wants to measure if there is any change in the participants' answers. Thus, a panel study is not equal to a "test-retest-reliability" method, and the researcher would have to do another survey at a later stage.

In the interviews, I tried to remain open to the students' perceptions. As far as it was possible, I refrained from inferring with the interviewees' interpretations at an early stage, but asked open questions about students' experiences. In the interviews, the reliability was strengthened by using a tape recorder, and I used one that ensured high quality. Poor recording quality can inflict the reliability of interview transcripts. Despite high quality recording, two different researchers may hear different things. Where the researcher places periods and commas is also an issue of reliability.

In order to adhere to the principle of transparency in qualitative research (cf. Thurén, 2009), I decided to add a list of all of the interviewees' original statements in Norwegian Bokmaal, as seen in Appendix J. I have also listed some of the extracts from the reflection logs as well. As Brinkmann and Kvale (2014) point out, much can be "lost in translation" (p. 204) when translating from one language to another. This is a measure that allows the research community to inspect my choices of translations.

3.8 Research ethics

3.8.1 About research ethics

The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committees' (NESH) guidelines with regard to research ethics for the social sciences are seen as fundamental and essential to this study. The term, *research ethics*, signifies "a complex set of values, standards and institutional schemes

that help constitute and regulate scientific activity" (NESH, 2006, p. 5). Carrying out research in the ESL classroom in Norway requires scientific integrity from the researcher. Some of the standards researchers shall adhere to are "honesty, impartiality and willingness to accept their own fallibility" (NESH, 2006, p. 8). These were values I held in high regard whilst conducting the data collection of my study.

3.8.2 Loyal to the research participants' integrity

In qualitative research, it is important that the researcher is loyal to the research participants' integrity and strive not to distort their message. However, we know that it is virtually impossible to avoid any sort of interpretation. In a social constructivist view, the researcher will always interpret social events and utterances with his/her own framework of reference. Consequently, the findings of this study will always be theory-impregnated and partly a product of the researcher's socialisation, education and world-view. Nevertheless, it is important to strive to be consciously aware of different interpretations and causes to different phenomena and findings. A self-reflexive practice where the researcher monitors himself/ herself is vital: this means to accept imperfection.

In terms of impartiality, Repstad (2009) argues that "birds of a feather, flock together" in social research as well as in real life (p. 68, my translation). What is meant by this is that it is easy to select and focus on research participants who are similar to us. Thurén (2009) similarly notices that people of the same world-view share common terminology. Thus, people of different world-views often experience that they talk past one another. In the interviews that I carried out from 25.11 to 09.12 (2014), I initially explained the roles between the interviewer (myself) and the interviewees (see Appendix I). I said to each of the interviewees that they were given the centre of attention and were encouraged to elaborate on the themes of the interview.

I chose to focus on students' perceptions and experiences because I wanted to highlight the *actor's point of view* (Repstad, 2009, p. 19). Scholars and text book authors have expertise in their field, but students and actors who participate in learning activities have insider information about what it feels like to do self-assessment. NESH addresses a similar concern in the research ethics guidelines: "Research into our own and other cultures can […] disclose underlying power structures" (NESH, 2006, p. 9).

3.8.3 The significance of free and independent research

This study was not funded by any third parties, and I chose the research questions out of own interest. Assessment, as a field of inquiry, is a particularly agitated one due to its links to political decision-making. Different scholars and researchers will have a different stance on what role assessment should play in formal education. This can potentially interfere with the research on assessment in education. Transparency is thus a crucial scientific concern. I have described the context for the data collection in order to provide a context. To discuss possible bias and preconceptions as well as pre-understanding is equally an approach to make the research more transparent. Thurén (2009) emphasises that one who claims something must argue openly for his/her cause. NESH (2006) warns that:

> [t]he intrinsic need of research for originality, transparency and the verification of prevalent opinions can come into conflict with some parties' desire to prevent topics from being explored (p. 10)

Such transparency and originality can be corrupted if there are other motives or interest behind. All research should be independent and free.

3.8.4 Free informed consent and right to protection

Researchers have a special obligation to respect individuals and human dignity (NESH, 2006). Since I collected personal data information from the research participants, I registered the study to the NSD (See Appendix G). Research on children entails a special obligation to make sure that their right to protection is ensured: "Parental consent is usually required when children under the age of 15 will be taking part in research" (NESH, 2006, p. 16). Despite the fact that the research participants of the present study were technically 15-16 years old at the time the data collection was carried out, I considered it necessary to ensure free informed consent (see Appendix H).

I used NSD's informed consent template as a basis, and provided all of the research participants with written information about the data collection. According to point eight of NESH's (2006) guidelines, research participants should receive all information required to understand the implications and consequences of participation in a research study. In this context, it is immensely important to stress that participation was completely voluntary. "Free consent means that the consent has been obtained without outside pressure or constraints on individual freedom of action" (NESH, 2006, p. 13). The parents and the students had to sign it and return it to their teacher. The teacher received and handed out the informed consent statement in mid-September 2014, approximately one month before I started the data

collection (20th October 2014). Throughout this period, I reminded the teacher to ask her students about delivering back the free informed consent statements where they either accepted or rejected participation. 15 out of 21 students returned the informed statements with a signature from themselves and their parents/guardians. All of these 15 returned statements were signed with "I agree". These statements were particularly important when selecting participants for the interviews. The surveys did not entail any personal data, whereas the interviews required a name list which was later terminated. I controlled that all interviewees had signed statements by their parents/guardians before initiating research interviews.

In terms of protecting personal privacy in accordance with the guidelines of the NSD, all personal and identifying data will be destroyed after the end date of the research project. Due to misunderstandings with regard to terminology, I understood the term "research project" as "data collection". Thus, the receipt from the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (Appendix G) indicates that the research project should be ended at 19.12.2014. I obviously meant that the data collection should be finished by that date and not the entire research project. I thus extended the end date to the 26.05.2015, and the NSD issued a confirmation to me and my supervisor. In the informed consent statement, this was never a problem (see Appendix H). I specified that all research material is anonymised by the 26.05.2015. This is to respect confidentiality among the research participants: "Researchers must prevent the use and dissemination of information that could harm individual subjects" (NESH, 2006, p. 18).

3.9 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have outlined my research design, methods and materials for the data collection, and discussed vital concerns for my study. The research participants were students in a random English class in Norway at the 10th level. A qualitative research design asks for the unique about a phenomenon. This prevents generalisation from the findings. However, I used quantitative techniques to collect additional information and to triangulate. The strategic selections targeted interviewees who could shed new light on their perceptions of self-assessment. In this chapter, I have discussed ways of strengthening validity and reliability, while at the same time remaining transparent of possible sources of weaknesses. Finally, I argued that research ethics is a concern of paramount importance; social research must protect the individual's right to integrity, freedom and independence. NESH's guidelines for ethical research were an abiding concern for my study.

4. Analysis

In this chapter, I will discuss how I organised the data in a way that created patterns and consequently enabled possible interpretations (cf. Repstad, 2009) in accordance with the overall research design and theoretical framework. I carried out statistical analyses for the quantitative data. For the qualitative data, I used various qualitative analysis methods. In particular, I analysed the interviews using a hermeneutic phenomenological framework.

4.1 Quantitative analyses of survey 1 and 2

I analysed the quantitative data statistically, and carried out univariate analyses (Johannessen et al., 2010). Univariate analyses are analyses with single variables. However, I compared each variable in the survey 1 and survey 2. When I analysed the data I used the program, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), which is recommended and made available by the NTNU. I entered all the data from both surveys in SPSS. I generated bar charts, histograms, and pie charts to see how I could best visualise my findings. Different charts illustrated the same data in different ways. Still, I decided to choose one chart in this paper: the bar charts. I also recoded the variables from four values into two. Hence, "completely agree" and "slightly agree" became "agree", and "slightly disagree" and "completely disagree" became "disagree". This allowed me to analyse both the specific distributions of answers, as well as the general tendency. I analysed the frequency as well as percent. The first part of survey 1 had 100% participation, except one participant missing in question 9-11. Thus, I had to use the valid percent when interpreting these statistics. The quantitative analyses of the writing strategies from the second part of the survey were done by a table where I included both the findings from survey 1 and 2.

4.2 Qualitative analyses of the students' reflection logs

The interviewees' reflection logs were labelled with their pseudonyms which allowed me to see their reflection logs in relation to their utterances in the interviews. This provided me with an essential background since the students occasionally referred back to their articles. I first systematised the text data in a table. I was inspired by Nilssen (2012, p. 108) to use tables as qualitative analysis tools. Table 2 illustrates how I first highlighted the key words with grey. I have translated the extracts in Table 2 and Table 3 into English.

Table 2: Analysis of reflection log 1

Student / Reduction	Sex	What was easy?	What are you uncertain about?	What was difficult?	What did you think when you wrote the text?
Student 2 **REDUCTION:** **Easy:** Found it easy to find topic, facts and material. **Uncertain:** Text length, structure. **Difficult:** Translating, extracting facts **Thoughts:** Motivation, focus on negative.	Girl	It was easy to find a topic and find facts and material about the rain forest.	The length of the text and how long it should be. I was uncertain about how it should be structured.	The most difficult was translating the most of it, and to extract the good facts and the good stuff.	I thought about that I was engaged and thought about what was difficult and not so much positive with it.
Student 2					
Student 3					

(see Appendix J: 3)

Subsequently, the grey key words were extracted and gathered in a separate document and gathered in piles. Then I used a word frequency counter and Wordle to analyse the frequency of the key words. Furthermore, I picked a quote that reflected the essence of the experience. If, for example, the category "English grammar" would stand out as a difficult concern in the self-assessment logs, I chose a quote that reflected the essence of this concern:

> I think it was a bit difficult to write it in English, rather than it is in Norwegian. In Norwegian, it's much better since it's your language, but in English it is a bit difficult because of the grammar you need to remember (Student 16, Girl, Reflection log 1, Appendix J: 4).

However, essences such as the latter one were often not directly relevant to the research questions of my study. The data analyses of reflection log 2 were done in a similar fashion to the framework I used on reflection log 1, as Table 3 illustrates.

Table 3: Analysis of reflection log 2

Student / Reduction	Sex	What have you changed in the new text?	What made you change/expand the text?	What did you think when working with the changed text?	Have you understood anything more? Give examples.
Student 1					

4.3 Qualitative analyses of the interviews

I both collected and analysed the data from the interviews I had conducted (cf. Repstad, 2009). My aim was to stay as loyal as possible to the students' integrity as possible. I have given the students pseudonyms to protect their identity. First, I gathered all the necessary information from the interview participants and interview data in a table. Anna, Helen, and Patricia had high levels of achievement in English, whereas the rest had average levels of achievement. As shown in Table 4, there was a quite a difference in number of words between Anna's interview (6941 words, 15 pages) and John's interview (3238 words, 9 pages). Karen reported in the interviews that she had a medium level of achievement in English (3 or 4). Patricia received 6 in written English in the spring term of 2014. This information is very valuable and serves as background information to this study.

Table 4: Interview information

	Time	Pages (font: calibri; font size: 11)	Words	Mark received in written English text
Anna	36 min 48 sec	15	6941	5
Karl	26 min 40 sec	10	3680	4+
Helen	31 min 0 sec	12	5542	5
John	20 min 12 sec	9	3238	4+
Patricia	36 min 14 sec	12	5812	5+
Karen	27 min 19 sec	10	4450	-
Susan	30 min 55 sec	13	4435	4+

In the process of analysing, I tried to extract students' personal experiences of self-assessment. My main aim for these analyses was to arrive at the essential meaning of self-assessment. My own understanding of knowledge as constructed affected the qualitative analyses. Through reflexive scrutiny of own preconceptions and biases, I attempted to be as transparent as possible in the analyses of the qualitative data. This is why I chose to do hermeneutic phenomenological analyses of my interview data.

4.3.1 A hermeneutic phenomenological approach

I used a hermeneutic phenomenological approach when analysing the interview data relevant to the research questions regarding students' perception of self-assessment and student

involvement (1 and 4). Hermeneutic phenomenological analyses are concerned with staying true to the phenomenon of the study in the course of interpretation. Therefore, in the first part of the analysis the researcher should try to communicate the essence of the participants' experience without interfering with the message. A hermeneutic phenomenological approach to interview analysis belongs within the theoretical framework of qualitative research (Nilssen, 2012). While phenomenology is preoccupied with the essences of a phenomenon, hermeneutics is interested in the interpretations of it (Van Manen, 1997). Hermeneutic phenomenology assumes that it is impossible to "bracket" all of the researcher's bias and preconceptions. Brinkmann and Kvale (2014) argue that "bracketing" is part of the phenomenological reduction which is an "attempt to place the commonsense and scientific foreknowledge about the phenomena within parentheses in order to arrive at an unprejudiced description of the phenomena" (p. 31). The hermeneutic cycle between part and whole is equally an important feature of a hermeneutic phenomenological analysis (cf. Gadamer, 2004). The researcher listens to the recordings over and over again. Then he/she gathers data in clusters of meaning.

Table 5: Hermeneutic phenomenological analysis example

	Understanding of self-assessment	Forståing av eigenvurdering	Phenomenological reduction ("bracketing")	Hermeneutic interpretation
J O H N	"That I assess my own work and how I have worked through the whole process" "No, you can look at what you have done along the way and what the end result was. And perhaps what can be improved for next time" "That is really just: "What do I want to improve?" and "What grades do I want?" (About what thoughts that arise when self-assessing)	«At jeg skal vurdere mitt eget arbeid og hvordan jeg har jobbet gjennom hele prosessen» «Nei, man kan se på hva man har gjort underveis og hva sluttresultatet ble. Og hva kanskje som kan bli bedre til neste gang.» «Det […] er egentlig bare: «Hva har jeg lyst til å gjøre bedre?» og «Hva slags karakterer har jeg lyst til å få?»	"I assess my own work" "[…] how I have worked through the whole process" "look at what you have done along the way and […] the end result" "What do I want to improve?" "What grades do I want?"	Self-assessment of own work Self-assessment of own work process Self-assessment as process and result Self-assessment and improvement Self-assessment and marks

Table 5 above shows how I analysed the interview data by using a hermeneutic phenomenological framework. From the theory I had read about hermeneutic phenomenology, I developed my own framework for analysis. I decided to use tables as analysis tools. In the analyses of the interview data, I followed some of Hycner's (1985) guidelines to analysis of phenomenological research. Although he states that there is a general reluctance to a "step-by-step manner" to phenomenological analyses, he proposes some useful procedures that can strengthen the credibility of the analyses. I followed these steps when I carried out the hermeneutic phenomenological analyses. First, I listed preconceptions I was consciously aware of. Second, I listened through the interviews several times for a sense of the whole. After the interview material was transcribed, I "bracketed" the transcribed data. Subsequently, I interpreted the clusters of meanings from the phenomenological reduction. Finally, I arrived at a general meaning for each interviewee. Table 5 is an example of how I analysed all of my interview data relevant to the research questions that pertained to students' understanding of self-assessment.

4.3.2 Writing strategies

I have previously argued that the use of learning strategies is a defining characteristic of self-regulated learners. I classified the writing strategies according to the framework presented in chapter 2: cognitive, metacognitive and resource management strategies. Table 1 in chapter 2 displays these writing strategies. When I analysed the interview data and looked for writing strategies, I used table as a framework of analysis. Some strategies corresponded with those of Table 1, whereas other strategies rose inductively from the data. Table 6 illustrates how I identified the writing strategies.

Table 6: Example of writing strategy analysis of interview data

Name of research participant: **Anna**	Norsk	Writing strategies in English	Type of strategy
"So you look up a lot more in the dictionary." "Yes. I have one of those pocket dictionaries that I carry […] that I got when I was little, I think *laughs*"	"Så man ser jo mye mer i ordboka. " «Ja. Jeg har en sånn liten lommeordbok som jeg har […] som jeg fikk da jeg var liten, tror jeg.» *ler*	Learning aids "I use aids to find and check words I need to write" (ELP)	Help-seeking strategy (Resource management strategy)
"I have to really get the English mind-set first, actually. […] Then I have to get the English state of mind, and listen to English and then	"Jeg må sette meg veldig inn i engelsken først egentlig. […] Så jeg må sette meg litt inn i engelsk og høre på noe engelsk og få	"The English mind-set"	Strategies for understanding and control

get more fluency, so that I feel like an English radio in my head. Then I can write it. So I think: "Oh, how would they have said it in English radio now?" So I have to do it like that, you know."	litt flyt da sånn at jeg føler meg som en engelsk radio i hodet mitt, så jeg kan skrive det. Så jeg tenker: «Oi, hvordan ville de ha sagt det på engelsk radio nå?» Så jeg må gjøre litt sånn da. "	Finding the inner voice English radio as an oral model text.	(Metacogniti ve strategy)

4.3.3 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have made an elaborate account of how I have analysed the data of the present study. I analysed the quantitative data from the surveys statistically by carrying out univariate analyses and comparing the findings from the two surveys. The qualitative analyses applied to the reflection logs were done by using tables where I deduced the material and ended up with key words that were run through a frequency counter. I analysed the interview data by using a hermeneutic phenomenological approach where the data was reduced and interpreted, while at the same time pivoting between the general whole and the specific parts. The writing strategies from the interview data were deduced from the material by marking the key words and classifying them according to the framework proposed in chapter 2.

5. Findings

In this chapter, I will present the triangulated findings from the different research methods in terms of themes. The chapter is structured according to the research questions that were introduced in chapter 1. First, I will present the findings on students' perception of self-assessment that were gathered mainly from the interview data. Second, I will display the findings related to the students' choice of writing strategies in a table that will later be compared to the writing strategies from the theory (chapter 2). The findings on writing strategies were gathered from students' reflection logs, the interviews, the surveys. Third, I present the findings from the students' use and preference of self-assessment techniques, before I present my findings on students' perception of student involvement. Table 7 displays the main findings of this study, and this chapter is structured accordingly.

Table 7: Main findings from the surveys, interviews, and reflection logs

Research question	Main findings and themes
Students' perception of self-assessment	• Self-assessment as *judgment of own work* • Assessment and standards/criteria • Self-assessment as a process and product • Accuracy of self-assessment difficult • Honesty seen as most important by students • Private and public self-assessment • The importance of taking an outside perspective
Writing strategies	• Repetition strategies hardly used in text writing • "Finding material" most used elaboration strategy • Finding the inner-voice/English mind-set and stream of consciousness strategy actively used by students with high levels of achievement • To structure a text into paragraph is the most used ELP writing strategy
Self-assessment techniques	• Students most familiar to self-assessment at the end of work periods • Students were to a low extent aware that they engaged in writing reflection logs • A combination of self-assessment through reflection logs and checklists • Assessment criteria essential
Student involve-ment	• Students felt to a low extent involved in deciding learning objectives and form of assessment. • Disagreement whether students felt they had a realistic influence on deciding assessment criteria. • Important that students receive instruction on what to do and how to do it when being given more involved and responsible • Increased student involvement can amplify students' voices • Finding a middle ground between teacher domination and student takeover important • The teacher is the decision maker, but self-assessment is equally important

5.1 Findings on students' perception of self-assessment

This section presents the findings related to the first research question of my thesis: "How do students in lower secondary school perceive self-assessment?" All of the interviewees were at one point during the interview asked: "What is your understanding of the word *self-assessment*" (cf. Appendix I). The interviewees perceived self-assessment as *judgment of own work and performance*. This was a common perception for all the interviewees. An example is Karen who defined self-assessment as judgment and opinion of own work in relation to assessment criteria:

> It's kind of a way how we ourselves believe we have worked, how we have completed it, what we think about our work. […] if we have put any effort in it […] And if you want a high level of achievement, you put a lot of effort in it. (Karen, Appendix J: 5)

In the latter quote, we see that Karen connected self-assessment, effort, and assessment criteria. She indicated that her self-assessment is object to examination by her teacher, and that can affect her mark in English:

> If you don't have any particular opinion about it, then you just do it. Then you might not get anything good. But at least when I see the self-assessment, I would like to do it the best way possible. And so I check the requirements" (Karen, Appendix J: 6).

Such statements suggest very strongly that despite the high emphasis on formative self-assessment, students have an awareness of examination through self-assessment. Helen similarly mentioned assessment criteria. However, in the following extract, we see that the assessment standards can sometimes be implicit and subjective, such as measurement to friends.

> **Helen**: Uh, yes. I guess so. Almost everywhere. When training, with friends, appearance – you can actually assess yourself everywhere. And yes. It's positive and negative. But in school it's positive.
> **Researcher**: Mm. Yes. In which case can it be negative?
> **Helen**: No, to measure yourself with others, for example. For example mostly among youth, to measure yourself against others. Um […] in terms of marks and yes or yes […] sports too […] um […] yes, to measure yourself with others, you know. It's maybe […] It has something to do with self-assessment, that too, I guess. So yes.
> (Appendix J: 7)

Helen said that she self-assesses "almost everywhere". This shows that she has an explicit understanding of self-assessment as a continuous cognitive process. Helen, furthermore, highlights that self-assessment without objective standards could have negative consequences.

5.1.1 Self-assessment as a process and product

When the interviewees were asked how they perceived self-assessment, all of them distinguished between self-assessment as a process and product either implicitly or explicitly. The interviewees seemed to have a conscious awareness or a tacit understanding of these mechanisms. The students with high levels of achievement, Anna, Helen and Patricia, all stated explicitly that they self-assess everywhere and that this is a continuous process. The other interviewees suggested other spare-time activities where they would self-assess (implicit understanding). Figure 6 illustrates the students' perception of self-assessment as a process and product. It is an illustration I made from the findings.

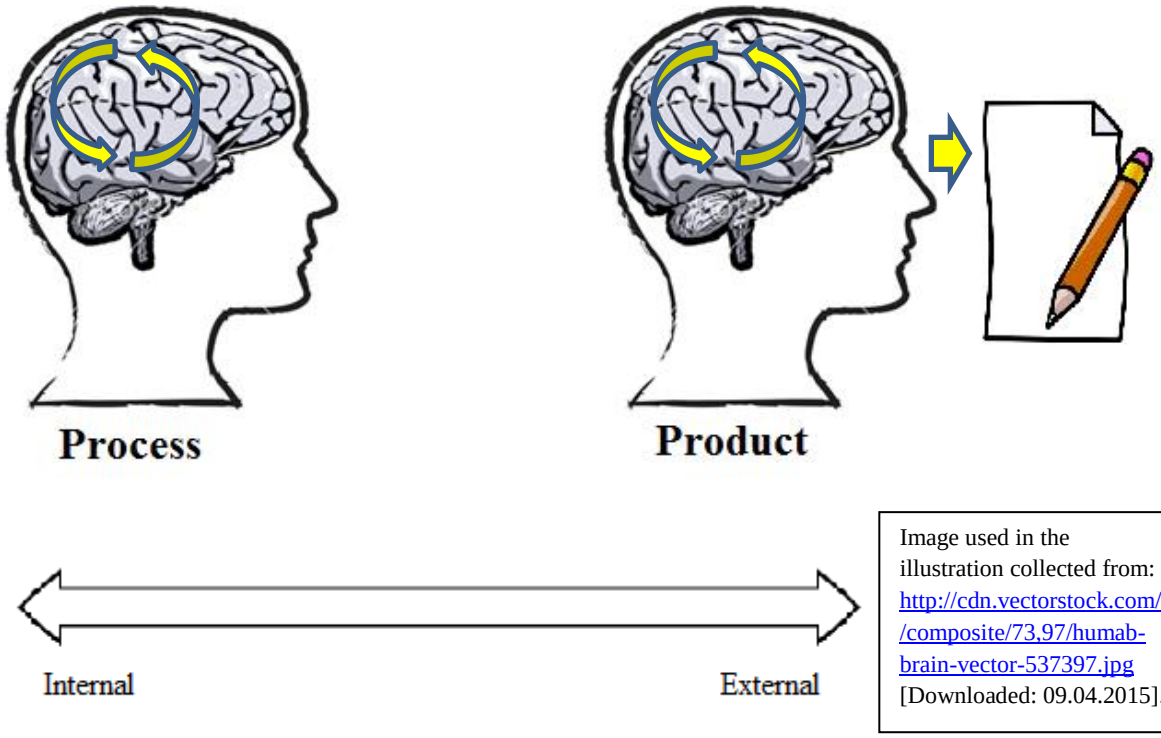

Image used in the illustration collected from: http://cdn.vectorstock.com/i/composite/73,97/humab-brain-vector-537397.jpg [Downloaded: 09.04.2015].

Figure 6: Self-assessment as a process and product model

The data from my interview material showed that self-assessment as a process can be understood as the systematic self-assessment that occurs continuously (e.g. "How am I doing?"). Self-assessment as a product can be understood as student self-assessment where students write reflection logs, fill out checklists/rubrics, etc. Anna had an explicit understanding of self-assessment as a process and product. She said: "No, I think it was really good, because I assess myself anyways. I hadn't handed in anything if I thought it was really bad. So I think that when you have specific questions […]" (Anna, Appendix J: 8). This signals that she is consciously aware of her continuous cognitive self-assessment (process).

John made this distinction implicitly, and defined self-assessment as assessment of own work, in accordance with the self-assessment literature I discussed in the introduction: "That I assess my own work and how I have worked through the whole process" (John, Appendix J: 9). He, furthermore, differed between formative and summative self-assessment: "You can look at what you have done along the way and what the end result was. And perhaps what can be improved the next time" (John, Appendix J: 10). What John highlights here is the self-monitoring mechanism of self-assessment, and he gives himself feedback at several stages in a text production. He also acknowledged that he can give himself feedback on what he can improve to become better in text writing in English.

Helen similarly made a distinction between self-assessment of own work (product) and process: "Self-assessment, yes. That is to assess your own work, how it has been, and if you're satisfied. How you do on a scale, perhaps. And yes, how a process has been, you know, how a work has been done" (Helen, Appendix J: 11). In the latter quote, Helen mentioned a scale that can be used for measurement. Self-assessment as assessment to a set of standards or criteria is also found in Patricia's understanding of self-assessment:

> [Self-assessment] is something we use in several subjects really to learn to see how *we* feel about it and how *we* have done it. How we assess ourselves, you know. And it's quite all right, because when I use self-assessment I think like levels of achievement: high, medium or low, or marks. (Patricia, Appendix J: 12)

As seen in the latter quote, Patricia stressed the word *we* twice (in italics), and thus she emphasised self-assessment as a way to increase student involvement in the classroom. She connected self-assessment to emotion ("how *we* feel about it") and assessment of own work ("how *we* have done it"). She acknowledged that she assesses herself against standards which might be general ("high, medium or low") or more specific ("marks").

5.1.2 Accuracy of self-assessment

The interviewees who had high levels of achievement in English expressed that they found the accuracy of self-assessment particularly difficult. Anna initially admitted that she thinks self-assessment is a difficult process due to the fact that one's own self-assessment can be inaccurate: "I really think that self-assessment is a bit difficult, because I think that you either feel a lot better or a lot worse than you really are, so" (Anna, Appendix J: 13). She, furthermore, used self-assessment phrasings that unveil her propensity to metacognitive reasoning: "You know, it's okay to think like, that you have to find out: "Is this good enough?" (Anna, Appendix J: 14). She repeated throughout the interview that a problem for

her is that she is too self-critical and said that she needed self-assessment in combination with teacher assessment as well as help from others:

> Mm, then we're back to self-assessment. Since I don't. I don't dare to correct thoroughly through, so I ask mum and dad: "Is this good enough?" […] Then the two of them can often help me. […] So I'm a bit dependent on having someone around me. Because if I only assess myself it becomes all wrong. Hah, very strict! Yes, so I'm a little afraid of that. (Anna, Appendix J: 15)

Helen had a similar experience, but used the assessment criteria as a guideline to self-assessment:

> Hm. You shouldn't be *too* mean or *too* nice on yourself, so I think it's about finding a middle ground, and to be honest and think carefully if I really put an effort in it, and adjust to the criteria (Helen, Appendix J: 16).

This leads me to one of the most salient findings in students' perception of self-assessment: honesty.

5.1.3 Self-assessment and honesty

Four out of seven interviewees expressed that honesty is a one of the most important aspects of self-assessment. These interviewees used the word: *honesty*. Two of the interviewees used a different word than "honesty"; Anna used the word "realistic" and Karen used the phrase "critical to own work". Both Helen and Karl answered "honesty" immediately after being asked the following question: "What is the most important thing you have learnt about self-assessment?" This was a question from the interview guide that I used to explore the essence of self-assessment. It seems that it can be challenging to be honest when doing self-assessments in written English. Karl did not hesitate when he replied: "The most important thing I have learnt when it comes to self-assessment is to be honest to myself" (Karl, Appendix J: 17). When I asked him to elaborate on his understanding he explained that self-deception can be a consequence of self-assessment: "Yes, you can kind of lie and say that you're doing better than you're really doing, or that you're doing worse off than you're really doing" (Karl, Appendix J: 18). Helen equally pointed out honesty as a key element in self-assessment when asked what she thought was the most important thing she had learnt: "Yes, not be too kind or mean to yourself. Um, to be honest. To tick off on something you feel you *deserve* […] Everything really. Just being honest." (Helen, Appendix J: 19). Susan expressed: "Uh, I try to be critical and honest, so to speak: to say what's difficult, say what's easy, and good and bad" (Susan, Appendix J: 20).

A possible reason why honesty was a salient theme in the interview data is due to the fact that self-assessment in this writing project was not done in isolation, but for an audience. Patricia argued why she thought honesty could be difficult, and she distinguished between a person's own private self-assessment and a written self-assessment that is object to examination:

> It could be that you always want to perform your best then if you think self-assessment can have something to say in the final result and stuff, then you really want to improve what you write to the teacher. But when you write to yourself, then it is perhaps a little more honest, and a little more, um, yes, honest. Plain and simple. So perhaps you do it a *little* better if you write it to the teacher, I think. (Patricia, Appendix J: 21)

As seen in Patricia's utterance, a person's private self-assessment and public self-assessment have varying degrees of honesty. Nevertheless, Patricia argues that it is possible to strike a balance between being completely honest and utterly untruthful:

> If you make it seem better in a way, then. But you are still being honest, you know. But that you perhaps do not write what you *really* think. You know, the things you only share with yourself (Patricia, Appendix J: 22)

Such findings suggest that written self-assessments that are handed in to a teacher affect students' degree of honesty. The reason students experience difficulties with honesty could be that they feel that they either judge themselves too lightly or too harshly.

5.1.4 Self-assessment and taking the outside perspective

(Royalty free image used in this illustration. Available from: http://retroclipart.co/design/royalty-free-black-and-white-retro-vector-clip-art-of-a-couple-skiing-by-bestvector-1163)

Figure 7: Illustration of self-assessment and the outside perspective

> We self-assess ourselves when skiing. If we film ourselves […] we look and point at what [we do]. Because then we look from the *outside* what we are doing wrong. […] [And] it's really the same, actually, because [when] you sit and write, and when you go [skiing] then you see it from the *inside*, but when you film yourself or self-assess what you have done well and stuff afterwards, then it's from a new angle […]. (Susan, Appendix J: 23)

In the latter quote, Susan proposes that self-assessment essentially involves taking an "outside perspective" on own learning. She compared self-assessment in English text writing with self-assessment in sports, cf. Figure 7 (Image downloaded 09.04.2015). This is in many ways the articulation of a shared experience among the interviewees. Five out of seven interviewees brought up sports when talking about how self-assessment could be used outside of school. This was not a fixed theme or topic that was included in the interview guide, but it was a theme that rose from the data. This indicates that the interviewees have a more developed meta-language for self-assessment in sports than self-assessment in writing in English.

> Okay, it is like you are watching yourself on TV as opposed to if you *are* on TV, you know. Or you watch the football game. You see if someone gets a red card, but when *you* are there, you're not so sure. (Susan, Appendix J: 24)

Susan was able to use her metacognitive skills to explain self-assessment, and used sports and TV as means to explain more closely what she meant. Susan argued that it is easier to take the outside perspective in sports than in text writing: "In sports, it's a little more clearer […]. It is much easier to see from the outside what you can do, than the inside" (Susan).

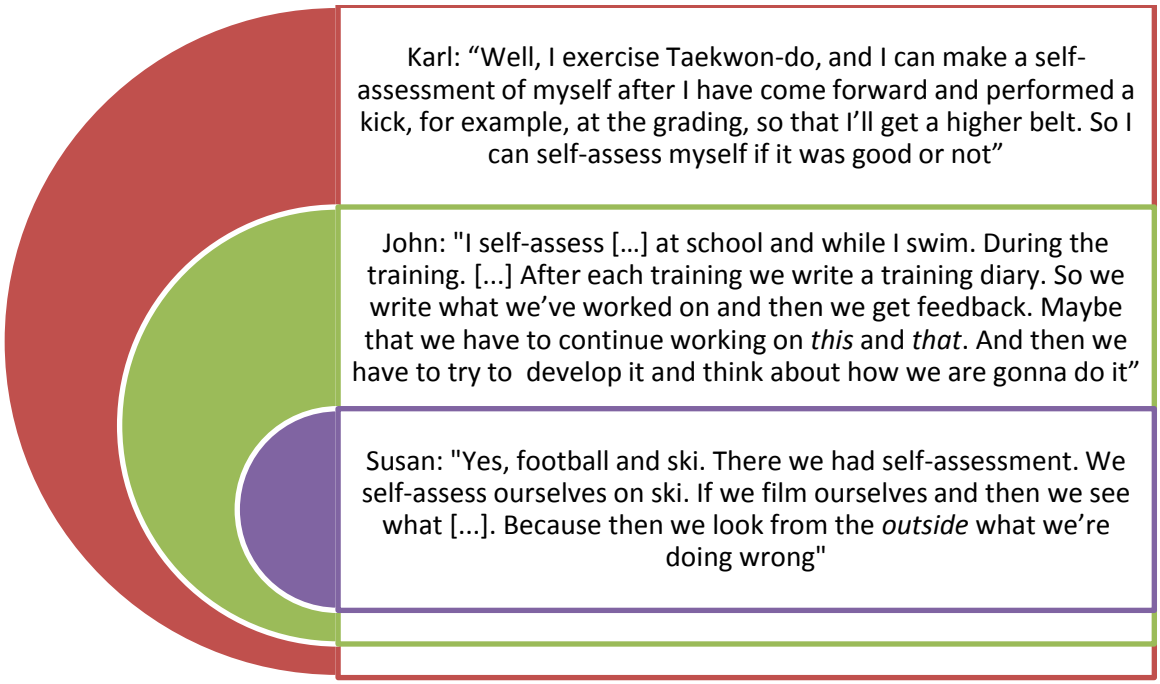

Figure 8: Interview quotes on self-assessment and sports

In Figure 8 above, I have highlighted three of the students' comparisons of self-assessment in written English and self-assessment in sports. Karl, John, and Susan had average levels of achievement in English. We see that John's self-assessment process takes the form of a product, i.e. a written training diary, whereas Karl's self-assessment is an internal process (See Appendix J: 25-27 for original statements to Figure 8).

5.2 Findings on students' use of writing strategies

5.2.1 Writing strategies (Reflection logs)

When answering the first question "What was easy?" in the reflection log 1, several students pointed out elaboration strategies, as seen in Figure 9 below. "Finding topic" and "finding inspiration" were among the most frequent answers.

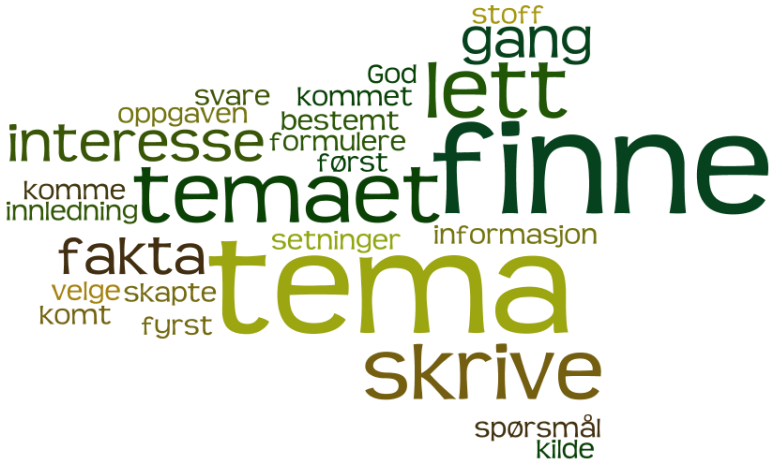

Figure 9: "What was easy" (Reflection log 1, Q1)

Interestingly, when asked "What was difficult?" an equal portion pointed out that they found it difficult to find topic and information, as seen in Figure 10 below. This suggests that finding the right topic is a crucial concern in this type of text writing. "To find something" is a cognitive learning strategy.

Figure 10: "What was difficult?" (Reflection log 1, Q3)

5.2.2 Writing strategies (Interviews)

Cognitive strategies

In the interviews, the students were asked what they did before they started writing a text in English as well as what they did before submission. Table 8 below shows the writing strategies from the interviews categorised according to the framework presented in chapter 2. Only two of the interviewees, Anna and Susan, reported a repetition strategy. They described how they would delete a sentence or a paragraph and write it over again if they became stuck in a writing process. Therefore, repetition strategies were the least used cognitive strategies. The most used elaboration strategy was "finding material and inspiration" at the start of a writing process. The findings from interviews and reflection logs correspond in pointing at "finding material" as an important elaboration strategy. Helen was the student who reported most conscious use of organisation strategies. She reported writing key words, mind maps, categorise, gather a lot of information, as well as outline headings and sub-headings. This displays a very advanced use of learning strategies, and it became clear during the interview that she would switch effectively between such strategies. Anna starts immediately writing a text after she has become inspired: "There are many who are saying that you should write a mind map and stuff first, but I feel that if I really have a mood in my head, I just *have to* get it down" (Anna, Appendix J: 28). This is similar to Patricia's approach. Both Karl and John report that they plan a text cognitively before they start writing.

Metacognitive strategies

With regard to strategies for control and understanding, the most common strategy was to read through the text before submission. An important level distinction between these strategies was whether the student would systematically use these strategies during the text writing process. Patricia and Helen had a conscious relationship to the assessment criteria. Karen emphasised that she checked whether her text was in accordance with the article genre criteria. In order to illustrate the triadic reciprocity, I propose Figure 11 below. Figure 11 illustrates the triadic relationship of the self-monitoring process Anna, Patricia and Karen reported they had in writing processes. Students with high levels of metacognitive awareness will increasingly measure their work to assessment standards and genre criteria.

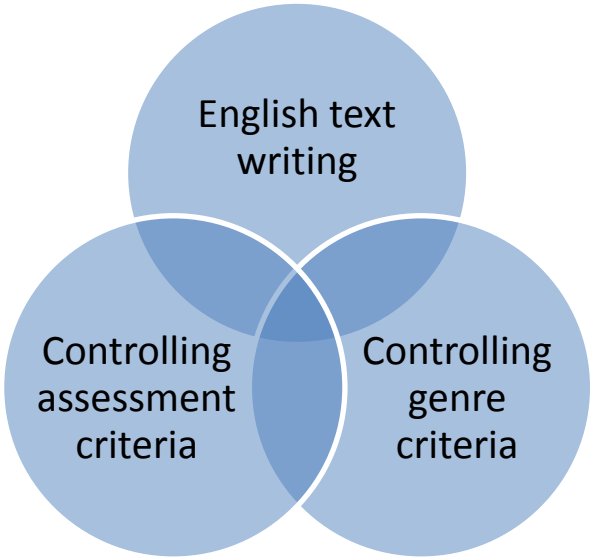

Figure 11: Systematical control in metacognitive strategies

In terms of planning, monitoring and regulating strategies, Anna and Helen said that they would try to find the inner voice before starting to write a text in English to ensure fluency. Anna compared this process to radio and that she needed to tune into a particular frequency:

> I have to really get the English mind-set first, actually. So I try to listen to English and perhaps read some English paragraphs and stuff. Because if I don't I'll think Norwenglish in my head. And that becomes very wrong. So, I write like Norwenglish at first, perhaps. Then I have to get the English state of mind, and listen to English and then get more fluency, so that I feel like an English radio in my head. Then I can write it. So I think: "Oh, how would they have said it in English radio now?" So I have to do it like that, you know. (Anna, Appendix J: 29)

What Anna pointed out in the latter quote is the persistence to keep writing despite L1 interference in her English writing. This self-efficacy mechanism is also seen in Patricia's tactic of neglecting her mistakes while writing in order to write as much as possible and sustain inspiration:

> I write directly in English and directly in the language and […] Um, and that's okay, but sometimes I don't *quite* remember all the words in English, so I'll write them in Norwegian, and continue the text when all the ideas come. Then I correct afterwards. Either the red line appears, or I'll deal with it afterwards. I write directly in the language, but I try to get the most out of my ideas, and then I'll write even though it's wrong or not. And I always correct afterwards. (Patricia, Appendix J: 30)

I have chosen to call this the "stream of consciousness" strategy since Patricia deliberately switches off the self-critical component in their text writing. The self-critical component can, taken to its extreme, cause the writer's block. At this end, we see for example Anna and Susan who use repetition strategies when struggling with the writer's block. I thus propose the following continuum to exemplify the strategies in levels of how self-critical the student is:

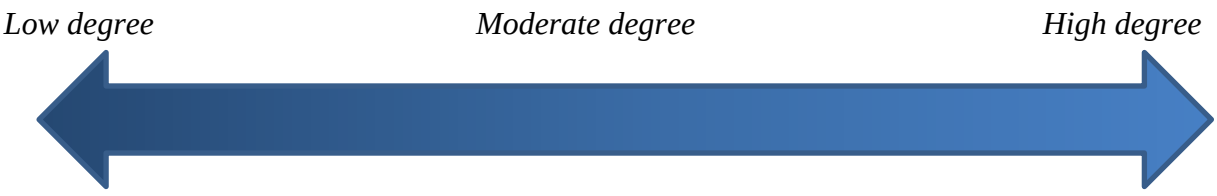

Figure 12: Self-critical levels

Figure 12, which is self-produced and based on the findings, places Patricia's stream of consciousness strategy on the left side of the continuum, and it places the writer's block repetition strategy Anna reported on the right side. This model should not be seen as a static representation of the writing process; students will experience different phases of their writing. The arrow pointing in both directions can be used to determine the writing pace: The left-pointing arrow increases the writing pace whereas the right-pointing arrow decreases the writing pace.

Resource management strategies

The interviewees accounted for several help-seeking strategies. Patricia and Susan both pointed out that they actively used teacher and peer assessment in combination with self-assessment. Susan explained that she keeps an "English drawer" where she keeps all her old texts and grammar notes: "[…] I have an English folder or an "English drawer" at home. […] If I don't know how to conjugate a verb, I write it down and keep it for next time" (Susan, Appendix J: 31). Patricia both used a thesaurus actively with synonyms and antonyms in order to achieve more variation in her vocabulary. She used this help-seeking strategy when she had completed a text:

> And when I'm done, I use one of those books with synonyms and antonyms and change words. Because then the language becomes richer. […] So at the end I always go through some of the words and make them more, yes, advanced in a way. (Patricia, Appendix J: 32)

In terms of time management strategies, the interviewees with high levels of achievement were distinguished from those with average levels of achievement. The ones with high levels of achievement (Anna, Helen, Patricia) reported that they used the stream of consciousness strategy. Patricia elaborated that she switches to Norwegian if she cannot find the English word. John, by contrast, said he controls that all the words are correct before moving on, which is more cumbersome. Karen said she translates all the words from L1 to L2 with active use of dictionary when writing in English. She said that this is a time-consuming activity.

Table 8 shows a complete and sorted list of all the writing strategies the interviewees reported.

Table 8: Writing strategies from the interview data

Type of strategy	Main categories	Sub-categories
Cognitive strategies	Repetition strategies	Writing a sentence or paragraph all over again in the face of a writer's block (Anna, Susan)
	Elaboration strategies	Finding information, pictures and becoming inspired and intrigued (John, Patricia, Karen, Susan) Applying earlier feedback in new situations (Patricia) Using knowledge from other subjects (John) Try to elaborate on everything in the second draft (Susan)
	Organisation strategies	Writing key words when experiencing writer's block (Anna) Writing key words (Helen, Karen, Susan) Mind mapping when experiencing writer's block (Patricia, Karen) Outlining headings and sub-headings (Helen, Patricia) Categorising (Helen, Karen) Mind mapping (Helen) Gathering a lot of information before writing (Helen)
Meta-cognitive strategies	Controlling and understanding	Writing directly in the target language (Anna, Patricia) Asking questions to assess what I have done and where I am going (Anna) Reading through the text before submission (Karl, Helen, Karen, Susan) Systematically checking own text against assessment criteria (Helen, Patricia) Printing out the text and reading through it (Helen) Checking that the text is in accordance with the article genre criteria (Karen)
	Planning, monitoring and regulating strategies	Finding the inner voice / English mind-set (Anna, Helen) Stream of consciousness strategy (deliberately neglecting errors for the sake of producing text) (Anna, Patricia) Think about *what* to write about and *how* to write about it (Karl, Helen, Susan) If I get the writer's block I try to ask myself how I would have said it, and "what sounds natural?" (Helen) Trying to focus own cognition on the task, and if I fall out I try to get back in (John) I try to disconnect the self-critical component in order to produce text (Patricia) I avoid using words and sentences that I know I do not understand (Susan)
Resource manage-ment strategies	Help seeking strategies	Using a Norwegian-English dictionary (Anna, John, Karen) Using peer assessment (Anna, Helen, Patricia, Susan) Using teacher assessment (Anna, Patricia, Susan) Using model texts to compare own text with (Helen, John)

		Using synonym dictionary (Helen, Patricia) Using antonym dictionary (Patricia) Asking help from parents (Anna, John, Susan) Asking teacher for help (John) Using teacher feedback on old essays and texts, and apply them in new situations (Patricia) Keep an "English drawer" with important English notes on grammar and essays (Susan)
	Time management and study environment strategies	Postponing minor errors until after the text is completed (Anna, Helen, Patricia) Using enough time on minor errors to find the best word before moving on (John) Switching to Norwegian if there are words that are challenging in order to complete the text (Patricia) Checks the dictionary for words when translating, and concedes that it is a time-consuming activity (Karen)

5.2.3 ELP writing strategies (Surveys)

The use of organisation strategies was the most prominent finding from the ELP writing strategies surveys. Table 9 below shows the findings from the ELP writing strategies in survey 1 and 2. 19 out of 19 research participants answered the seven first strategies in survey 1. 16 out of 19 answered question 1-2 and 4-7 in survey 2. 15 out of 19 answered strategy number 3. The number of research participants is shown in parenthesis. Writing strategy number 6 (WS6), "I try to structure my texts in paragraphs", was the most used writing strategy. 63,2% of the research participants stated that they used this organisation strategy often in survey 1, and 81,2% answered "often" in survey 2. All of the research participants said they used it to some extent in survey 1 and 2.

The model text strategy (WS1) was only used often by one of the participant. Most participants seem to try to write directly in L2 without writing it in L1 first (WS2). It is interesting how divided the group is in the use of creating mind maps as a strategy (WS3). About 40% said they use mind maps "often" and about 40% said they use it "rarely" in both of the surveys. Half of the group uses learning aids "often" and the other half uses it "now and then" (WS4). Over half of the students in the group stated that they use sentence connectors (WS5). Most of the students answered that they use feedback from their peers to improve their texts "now and then" or "often" (WS7).

Table 9: Writing strategies data from survey 1 and 2

I use this strategy / Writing strategies		Rarely		Now and then		Often	
		Q1	Q2	Q1	Q2	Q1	Q2
1	"I use other texts as a model when I write"	47,4 % (9)	37,5 (6)	47,4 % (9)	56,3% (9)	5,3% (1)	6,3% (1)
2	"I try to write directly in this language [English]"	5,3% (1)	12,5% (2)	47,4 % (9)	37,5% (6)	47,4 % (9)	50% (8)
3	"I create mind maps and try to organise what I want to write"	42,1% (8)	40% (6)	21,1% (4)	13,3% (2)	36,8% (7)	46,7% (7)
4	"I use aids to find and check words I need to write"	10,5% (2)	0% (0)	42,1% (8)	43,8% (7)	47,4 % (9)	56,3% (9)
5	"I try to use useful words that bind the text together"	15,8% (3)	6,3% (1)	31,6% (6)	31,3% (5)	52,6% (10)	62,5% (10)
6	"I try to structure my text in paragraphs"	5,3% (1)	0% (0)	31,6% (6)	18,8% (3)	63,2% (12)	81,2% (13)
7	"I use feedback from others to improve my texts"	10,5% (2)	0% (0)	47,4 % (9)	56,3 (9)	42,1% (8)	43,8% (7)

5.2.4 Qualitative data from the surveys

In survey 1, 12/19 answered question 12: "Can you give me an example of something you changed while self-assessing your work?" 9/19 stated that they fixed writing errors when self-assessing and making changes in their text. A reason for the high number of grammar errors could be the example that was provided to the students: "When I wrote a letter, I had misspelt the word "weather" in English. I corrected it before I handed in the task". Two of the research participants listed that they looked for possible subject-verb disagreement, and one participant wrote that he/she changed the language. An interesting finding was that three of the research participants showed conscious use of a writing strategy: they wrote that they looked through the text and tried to find errors. One of the participants wrote: "I always look through the text before I hand in, and correct words/phrases". A general tendency was that text improvements, by and large, were understood as the correcting of errors and particularly misspelt words.

In survey 2, 10/19 research participants answered question 12: Most of these answers consisted of about ten words. The longest answer consisted of 22 words. Eight of these answers were grammatical issues that the students corrected. One of the students wrote: "I

sometimes let my parents read through my texts" (student 10). This in line with writing strategy number 7 in the ELP, where one uses the help of others to improve a text (UDIR, 2008, p. 66).

5.3 Findings on self-assessment techniques

The data from the surveys focussed on what self-assessment techniques the students of the present study reported that they had engaged in prior to and after the school project, e.g. reflection log, checklists, and learner conversations. The data from the interview material targeted, by contrast, the students' *preference* of self-assessment techniques.

5.3.1 Self-assessment techniques (Surveys)

Self-assessment at the end of a work period

In statement 6 of survey 1, the research participants answered whether they had used a self-assessment form at the end of a work period, where they assessed to what extent they had reached their goals. Figure 13 below shows the results from statement 6: "I use self-assessment forms in which I assess whether I have reached the aims at the end of a period" (Survey 1). In survey 1, 11/19 (57,9%) agreed that they had self-assessed after finishing a piece of work, whereas eight (42,1%) disagreed. More specifically, three participants (15,8%) completely disagreed, five participants (26,3%) slightly disagreed, nine participants (47,4%) slightly agreed, and two participants (10,2%) completely agreed.

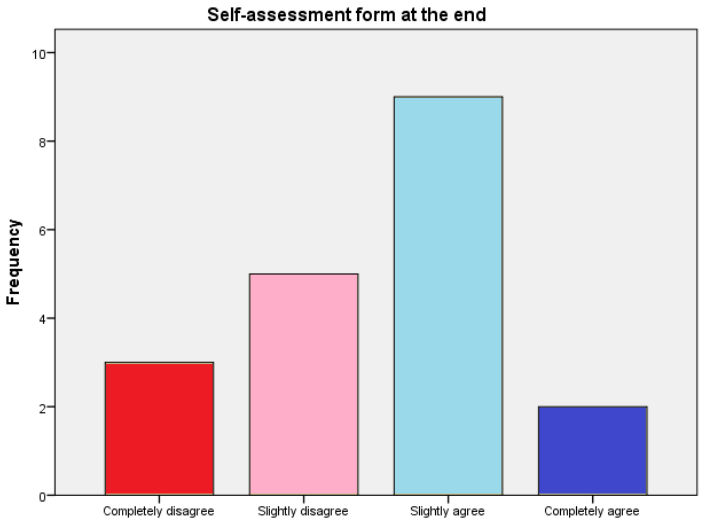

Figure 13: Self-assessment form at the end (Survey 1)

In survey 2, there were none who disagreed completely. Five participants (27,8%) slightly disagreed, seven participants (38,9%) slightly agreed, and six participants (33,3%) completely agreed. Figure 14 below shows the results of statement six in survey 2: "I use self-assessment

forms in which I assess whether I have reached the aims at the end of a period". Overall, we see that more students state that they have used a self-assessment form at the end of a work period. Ideally, one should think that all of the students would think that they had completed a self-assessment form after a work period in English. However, some of the students did not hand in self-assessment forms when submitting their texts. Use of terminology might also be a challenge for some students.

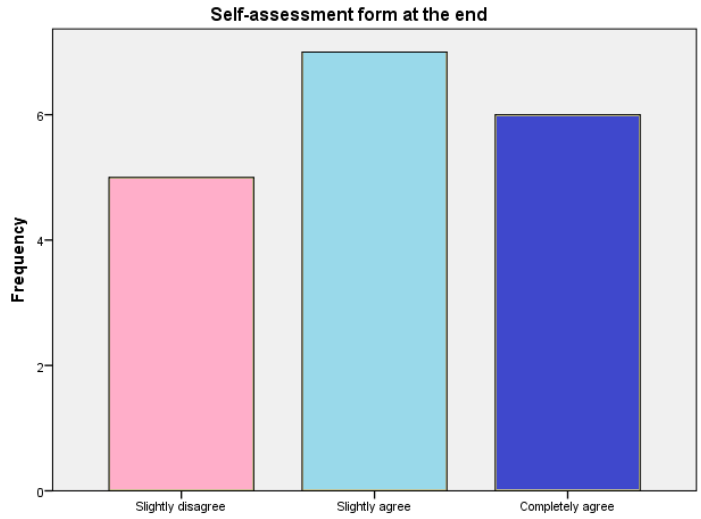

Figure 14: Self-assessment form at the end (Survey 2)

Self-assessment during a work process

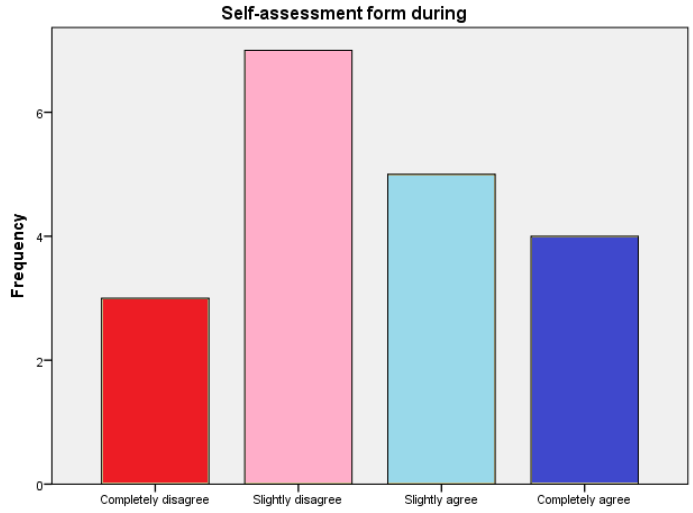

Figure 15: Self-assessment form during a process (Survey 1)

In survey 1, the group was divided, and 10 participants (52,6%) disagreed with statement seven: "I use a self-assessment form to assess my progress during the work process". Therefore, it seems like the students are most familiar with self-assessment at the end of a

work period, if any. Three students (15,8%) completely disagreed, seven students (36,8%) slightly disagreed, five students (26,3%) slightly agreed, and four students (21,1%) completely agreed to statement 7. Figure 15 above shows the results from survey 1.

The results of survey 2 saw a great change in terms of statement 7. There were none who completely disagreed. However, seven (38,9%) disagreed slightly. There were equally many who slightly agreed: seven students (38,9%). Four students (22,2%) completely agreed with the statement that they had used self-assessment sheets during a work process in English. This either shows that some students did not complete their self-assessment forms during the text writing process, or that they were ignorant to what they were doing. If the latter hypothesis is correct, it furthermore indicates varying metacognitive awareness in learner activities among students.

Figure 16: Self-assessment form during a process (Survey 2)

Self-assessment logs and notes

In statement 8 of survey 1, "I have written logs/notes in English where we write what we have done well and what we have to work more on", there were none of the participants who "completely agreed". Reflection logs were used in the school project of the present study. We can see from Figure 17 below that most students claim they had not engaged in such activities previously. The most salient feature here is that as many as six research participants (31,6%) "completely disagreed" with the statement. Eight participants (42,1%) "slightly disagreed" and five (26,3%) "slightly agreed".

Figure 17: Self-assessment logs and notes (Survey 1)

One of the most puzzling findings of the panel study was found in statement 8 of survey 2. After writing reflection logs in the text writing project, there were none of the students who completely agreed with the statement, as seen in Figure 18 below. Figure 17 and 18 are strikingly similar with only minor differences. Four students (22,2%) completely disagreed, eight students (44,4%) slightly disagreed, while only six students (33,3%) slightly agreed. This suggests that the students do not connect "self-assessment logs and notes" with the self-assessment variant of the text writing project. It equally indicates that the awareness of self-assessment activities is low.

Figure 18: Self-assessment logs and notes (Survey 2)

5.3.2 Self-assessment techniques (Interviews)

The main findings on self-assessment techniques from the interview data indicate that the interviewees seemed to appreciate self-assessment in combination with assessment criteria. Anna preferred the reflection log type of self-assessment, and she argued that students have a better chance of explaining what they mean. She warned that self-assessment checklists, where students tick off their levels of achievement, can become superficial:

> I think that the type where we write is much better. If you feel that you're really good at something, and you tick off 6, the highest, then it's like: "Yes, now I'm full of myself". So it's very good that you get to explain what you mean. Because if you feel that you are good in a subject or bad in a subject, then you have to argue *why.* (Anna, Appendix J: 33)

Anna also favoured self-assessment *during* a work period, and she explained that it is easy to forget what you have done at the end of a period. On the contrary, Karl preferred self-assessment checklists and criteria: "I like those with criteria because then I get to tick off "I know this" and "I know that" (Karl, Appendix J: 34). Despite his preference of mental self-assessment, Karl noticed that written self-assessment can support his memory. Susan also liked self-assessment by checklists, and she argued that it becomes less personal:

> It's a bit less personal in a way. Then you only include what you can and cannot. And it's clearer. When you write a text it's easier to go into details, and then it becomes more personal. […] And that you write down all your mistakes! (Susan, Appendix J: 35)

Helen and Patricia had no preference to whether they like self-assessment through reflection logs or checklists. However, Helen found criteria-based self-assessment with clear levels of achievement useful. John similarly argued that use of assessment criteria provides a guideline: "I like to list, you know, "high level of achievement", and write what is "high" and what is "low". And I try to work after that" (John, Appendix J: 36). Karen thought that a mix between reflection logs and checklists is the best combination with clear assessment criteria: "If it's like a mix between the two, you know. So, it doesn't have to be carved in stone: "You should *not* do that", but for example if you have a few points to relate to" (Karen, Appendix J: 37).

5.4 Findings on students' perception of involvement

5.4.1 Student involvement (Surveys)

In terms of statement 1 in: "I am involved in the decision making of learning objectives", eleven students (57,9%) slightly agreed in survey 1. One student (5,3%) completely agreed, three students (15,4%) completely disagreed, and four students (21,1%) slightly disagreed. More generally, twelve (63,2%) agreed and seven (36,9%) disagreed with their involvement

in the decision making of learning targets. This indicates that there is some sense of decision making. Figure 19 below shows the heavy concentration on the “slightly agree” variable.

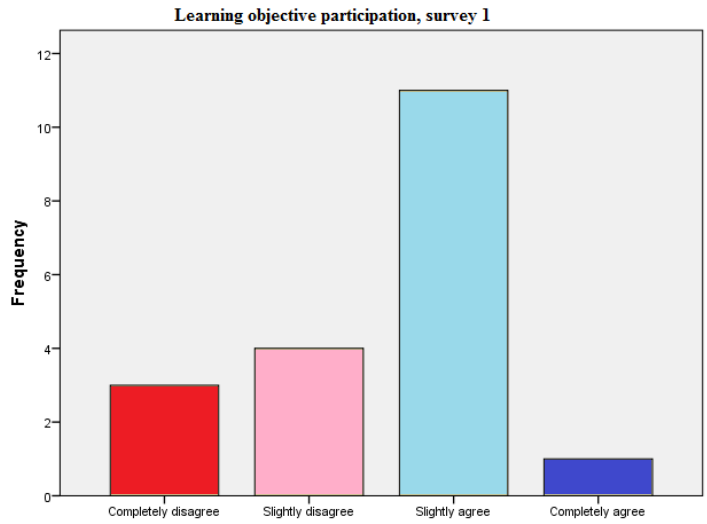

Figure 19: Learning objective involvement (Survey 1)

In survey 2, the students felt less involved in the decision making of learning objectives. None of the research participants completely agreed with statement 1. On the contrary, two participants “completely disagreed”. Overall, nine agreed and nine disagreed with statement one. This development indicates that students felt a slightly higher degree of participation in the decision making of learning targets before than after the project. This is as expected since the overall learning objectives (“writing an article” and “doing self-assessment”) were decided by the teacher and researcher. As I have mentioned earlier, content was optional.

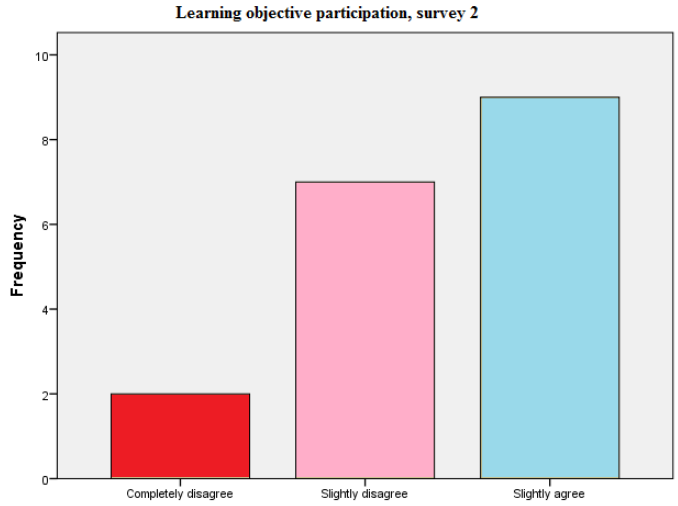

Figure 20: Learning objective involvement (Survey 2)

In statement 2 from survey 1, “I’m involved in making suggestions for assessment criteria (what is emphasised in a task/text)”, the group was divided. Overall, ten students (52,6%) disagreed as opposed to nine students (47,4%) who agreed with the statement. Two students (10,5%) completely disagreed, eight students (42,1%) slightly disagreed, eight students (42,1%) slightly agreed, and one student (5,3%) completely agreed, as Figure 21 below illustrates:

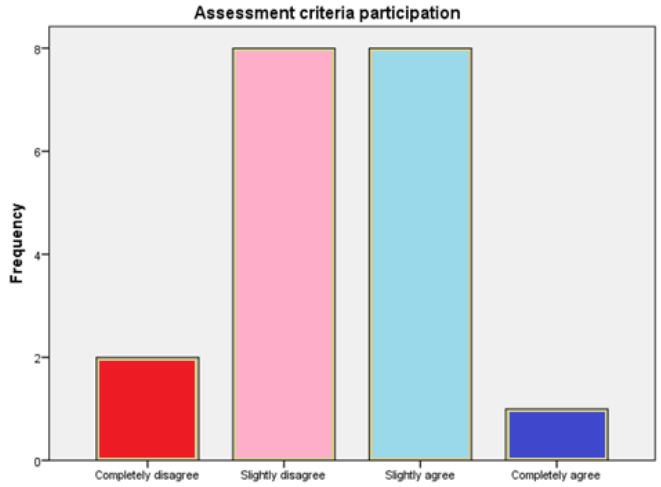

Figure 21: Assessment criteria involvement (Survey 1)

In statement 2 of survey 2, there was an increase in students who reported that they agreed with the statement. Two students (11,1%) completely disagreed, five students (27,8%) slightly disagreed, nine students (50%) slightly agreed, and two students (11,1%) completely agreed. Overall, eleven students (61,1%) agreed as opposed to seven (38,9%) who disagreed, as Figure 22 below shows. This could be a consequence of the school project where students were involved in creating the assessment criteria. On the other hand, students might not feel that they exert realistic influence since the group is to some extent divided on this subject matter. The phrasing of the statement could also be confusing since it is not specified *when* students are involved in suggesting assessment criteria.

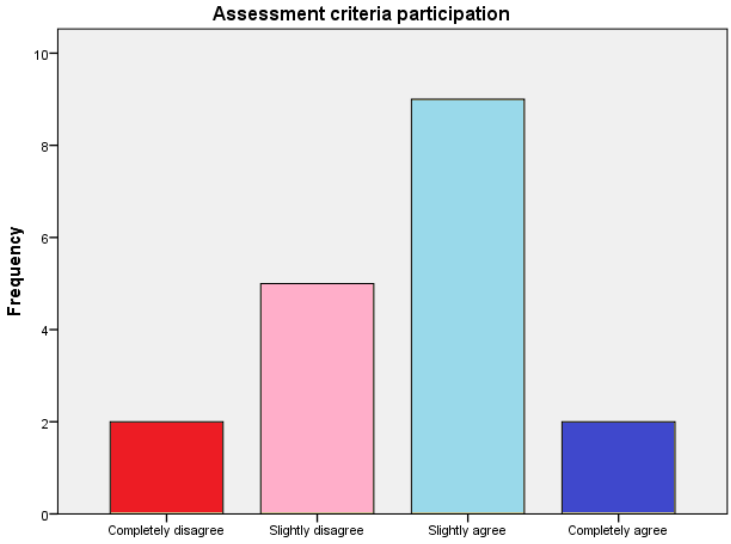

Figure 22: Assessment criteria involvement (Survey 2)

The group was equally divided in statement 3 of survey 1: "I'm involved in deciding how we are to show what we have learnt (e.g. if we are going to have an oral or written test)". Two students (10,5 %) completely disagreed, seven (36,8 %) slightly disagreed, nine (47,8%) slightly agreed, and one (5,3%) completely agreed, as Figure 23 below shows. In general, 10/19 (52,6%) agreed that they had opportunities to decide how they wanted to be assessed. This changed in survey 2.

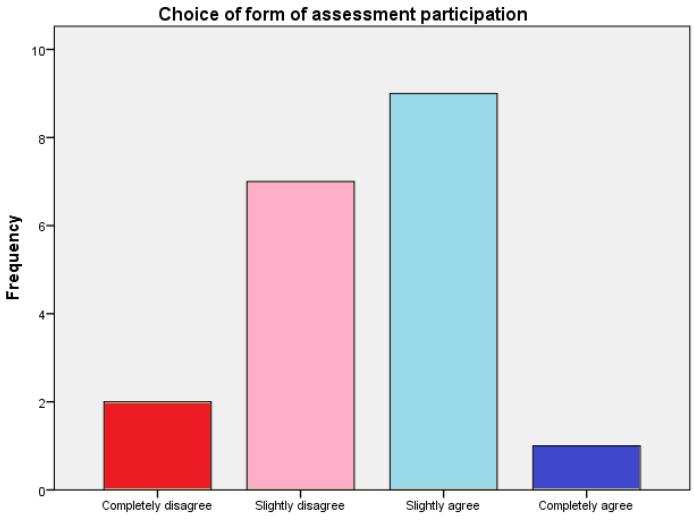

Figure 23: Choice of assessment form (Survey 1)

In survey 2, more respondents disagreed with statement 3. From Figure 24 below, we see that two participants (11,1%) completely disagreed, ten participants (55,6%) slightly disagreed, five participants (27,8%) slightly agreed, and one participant (5,6%) completely agreed. Due

to the writing project's aim to investigate written process-oriented assessment, the students were not given a choice in how they wanted to be assessed.

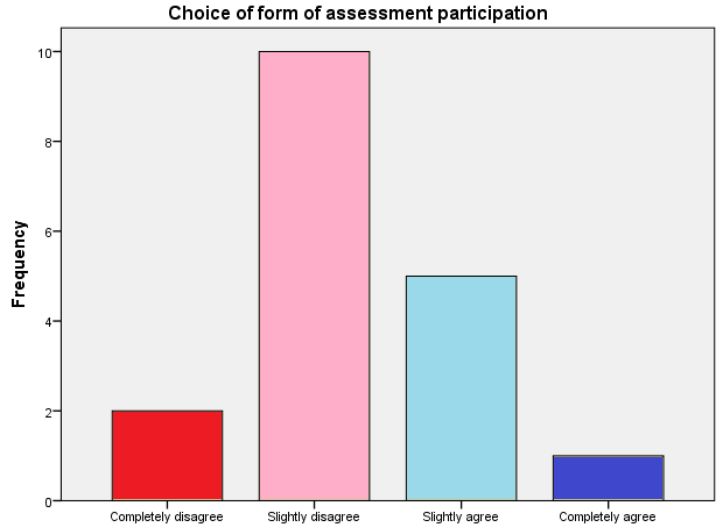

Figure 24: Choice of assessment form (Survey 2)

5.4.2 Student involvement (Interviews)

Anna warned that increased student involvement and responsibility for own learning can be problematic in terms of students who do not take these matters seriously. She argued that students are to varying extents motivated in different subjects which will affect their level of involvement in the work. She, consequently, identified a need for more training from the teacher when dealing with such activities:

> Yes, I think it's, uh, very good for those who take it seriously, you know. But what's silly is. I mean, there is always some who doesn't bother and who doesn't want to do it properly. And then there is some who really tries. And it depends on the subject, too. There's some who *really* wants to make it in *one* subject, and nothing else. So that, um, I think it's good, but I think maybe you have to. If you're going to do it like that, that maybe a teacher teaches us how to do it, you know. (Anna, Appendix J: 38)

Karl said that he liked to be involved in deciding assessment criteria and that it was a new experience: "Well, I thought it was quite good. It's not often we get the chance to do. So it definitely was a new thing, yes. Uh, could have been done several times, too" (Karl, Appendix J: 39). Later, when asked about his opinion on student involvement he replied that the teacher should be the one who decides. He highlighted the teachers' professionalism and sense of fairness:

> Actually, I think the teacher should decide more, because students can of course […] If students were to decide then a student who should have gotten a low mark gotten a top mark,

> and one who had gotten a top mark gotten a low mark. I think the teachers are fairer with that. (Karl, Appendix J: 40)

Karl's concern is similar to that of Anna. He did not feel that students have the proper training to make decisions in the ESL classroom. The other interviewees were more positive to increased involvement. Helen saw increased involvement as an important contribution and aid in her learning. She found the outside perspective especially useful:

> We sort of get to see it from the teacher's point of view, but also from our point of view, and perhaps from other's point of view, you know. Um, and then we get to reflect more and understand more what it takes. And a little what we expect from ourselves, you know. Not just the teacher, because the teachers have in a way "right or wrong". They sort of have the key, whereas we have to think more for ourselves, you know. And from self-assessments we see what it takes, and then we can decide what kind of achievement we want. And then we take it from there and use it in our texts. So that's very helpful. (Helen, Appendix J: 41)

John also said that he likes increased involvement in assessment activities:

> I think it's very good. Because then you get to self-assess your own work and decide what should be assessed. Then you perhaps get assessed at something you're good at, instead of something you're not so good at. (John, Appendix J: 42)

Patricia similarly supported increased involvement, and she argued that it helps the teacher see and understand students' point of view.

> It was okay that we got the chance to decide more. Instead of "do it like this" and "do it like that", we got to write what we thought about it, [and] what matched the different marks […] Yes, that was quite okay. Then we got to decide more. […] It helps us, like I said, because we get a little part in it. And to decide and assess ourselves according to that, and that helps the teacher getting a better view on us and our viewpoints and yes. So that's quite okay, really. (Patricia, Appendix J: 43)

Karen equally thought that it is positive that students are involved in the decision making, but that it is also positive that some of the responsibility still lies with the teacher. She argued that although teachers might not *listen* to students' opinions, they cannot avoid *hearing* them:

> It's a little better, because then we have our say in it as well. That it's not just the teacher. That we in a way get to step forward, and not just the teachers, what we mean. It's not certain that it is included. But that it is heard (Karen, Appendix J: 44).

Susan similarly liked increased student involvement: "I think that's good. [..] You become more conscious yourself, you know, instead of getting feedback with "You know this" and "You don't know this"." (Susan, Appendix J: 45). Susan argued that the ideal situation would be to find a middle ground between a high degree of involvement at the one extreme and a high degree of teacher involvement at the other: "Before we had like […] like the teacher took everything, and now it's like that the students take everything. A middle ground would be

good. Uh, we are looking for what the teacher thinks, and yes. What *we* think, you know. A little more middle ground" (Susan, Appendix J: 46).

I asked all of the seven interviewees at the end stages of the interview about their opinion of the following utterance: "It doesn't matter if I self-assess. The teacher has the key and knows best" (See Appendix I). This statement accords with the sentiment of the opening anecdote, and it belongs to a teacher-dominated assessment culture. Table 10 below displays the different responses to the statement. In general, there is an understanding of the teacher as the superior decision-maker. However, there is an even stronger recognition of the student's self-assessment contribution as essential and meaningful.

Table 10: Does self-assessment matter? (Interview data)

Interviewer: "What do you think about the following utterance: "It doesn't matter if I self-assess. The teacher has the key, and he knows best"?						
Anna	Karl	Helen	John	Patricia	Karen	Susan
Agreed	Disagreed	Agreed/ Disagreed	Disagreed	Disagreed	Agreed/ Disagreed	Agreed/ Disagreed
"I really think that [.] there's actually some truth to it, because the teacher decides. But I think that you know yourself what you're good at"	"I think that's wrong, because the teacher is not me. Uh, I know what's best about me, you know"	"Even if the teacher has the key, it's still clever to self-assess […] it's not always the teacher has *completely* the key. […] if I can choose a topic freely, then there's no key […] So I don't fully agree with the utterance, no"	"If you're happy with the text then that's what's most important. Not what the teacher thinks about the text"	"No, I don't think that's completely true. Because when you self-assess, then the teacher sees what you have written […]. And that says a lot about our effort. […] I think it really helps with self-assessment, actually"	"In some cases that might be the truth. Because it won't matter what we think. […] But in other cases, it's a bit wrong. Because we can contribute, and assess ourselves […] So I think it's dependent on the setting"	"[I] somewhat agree and somewhat disagree. […] Because what the teacher is looking for is quite important. But I also want to be involved […]"

(See Appendix J: 48-54)

Anna had perhaps the clearest realisation that the teacher is placed at the end of the rope and pulling the threads. Karl and John were the ones who were strongest opposed to the utterance. Karl was very clear when he argued that he knows best about things concerning himself. John contended that self-efficacy lies at the core of importance to assessment, regardless of the situation: "If you're happy with the text then that's what's most important" (John, Appendix J: 47). Patricia argued that self-assessment is important to show the teacher your work and effort. In Karen's view the function of self-assessment is context-dependent; in some situations, students' opinions will not matter due to fixed standards, whereas in other situations such contributions are particularly valuable. Susan acknowledged the importance of the teacher's expertise, while at the same time appreciated involvement in the assessment.

5.5 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have presented the findings of my study. I found that students perceived self-assessment both as a continuous cognitive process and a learner-focussed educational practice that often leads to a product (e.g. a log, a checklist, a conversation, etc.). Several students pointed out that the accuracy of self-assessment can be difficult due to lack of professional training. Consequently, many students thought that honesty becomes an abiding concern in self-assessment. Generally, the students had a much more developed meta-language when doing self-assessment in sports than in text writing. Self-assessment as a metacognitive activity was described as taking an outside perspective on own learning. With regard to writing strategies, it became clear that repetition strategies were only used to a low extent. Students with high levels of achievement were more inclined to report use of metacognitive writing strategies and resource management strategies. The students preferred a variety of self-assessment techniques. While interviewees reported that they enjoyed increased level of involvement, it became clear that they wanted the teacher to be the final assessor.

6. Discussion

In this chapter, I will discuss the consequences of my findings. It is necessary to discuss the implications of this study's findings in relation to relevant theory on self-assessment. Due to the qualitative framework of my research design, I cannot make any generalisations. This is important to keep in mind when I compare interviewees in terms of their levels of achievement in English. The purpose of this study was essentially to draw attention to students' voices on their experience of self-assessment in the ESL classroom. Similar to the previous chapter, this discussion is structured according to my research questions.

6.1 Students' perception of self-assessment

My finding on students' perception of self-assessment is that all of the interviewees understood self-assessment as *judgment of own work and performance.* The interviewees connected self-assessment to the writing project of the present study. This understanding of self-assessment is in line with Boud (1991) and Taras's (2010) definitions. All of the interviewees tended to have a general understanding of self-assessment when asked about their perception of the term. They did not immediately mention specific tasks or exercises. The data from the reflection logs showed, by contrast, a more specific understanding of the term where they would point out specific grammar errors. This accords with Brown and Harris's (2013) distinction between global and local understanding of self-assessment: "[…] self-assessments can be global (e.g., "How good is my writing?"), or anchored to a specific task (e.g., "How well did I do on question 3?")" (p. 370). The findings of this study therefore showed that the students of the present study had to varying degrees both a global and local understanding of self-assessment.

One of the findings of this study suggested that the students had either an explicit or implicit understanding of self-assessment as assessment to a set of standards or criteria. A possible solution to this challenge could be to inspire for self-assessment activities that have a clear focus on objective standards and criteria. However, students with stronger perceived self-efficacy will to a higher degree explain defeats and short-comings to external circumstances, lack of effort, etc. Despite a clear focus on objective standards in self-assessment, the entire assessment culture of the classroom needs to be one that encourages learning and reduces a social comparison:

> Most activities do not provide objective standards for assessing ability. People must therefore, assess their capabilities in relation to the attainment of others. The people with whom individuals compare themselves influence how they judge their ability. (Bandura, 1993, p. 121)

In the latter quote, Bandura addresses how social comparison in many cases is the only way to judge own ability. In self-assessment in written English, however, clear use of criteria, adequate provision of model texts and examples can support students learning. Overall, the assessment culture should inspire a growth mindset (cf. Dweck, 2006) where academic success is not explained as a result of innate ability or predisposition.

6.1.1 Self-assessment as a process and a product

From the interview data, I found that students distinguished between a self-assessment as a *process* and self-assessment as a *product*. The interviewees with high levels of achievement were able to consciously distinguish between these. As mentioned earlier, self-assessment as a process may be seen as a continuous cognitive and internal process, whereas self-assessment as a product involves a process that results in a product. This product is external to the individual and could for instance be a reflection log, assessment criteria check list, or a learning conversation.

However, the interviewees differed in their understanding and comprehension of self-assessment as a process and product. This study found that the interviewees' understanding of self-assessment as a process and product was either explicitly or implicitly articulated. Interviewees with high levels of achievement in English had an explicit understanding of self-assessment as a process and product. In other words, a student who expressed this understanding explicitly was able to connect formal student self-assessment in educational settings (e.g., through a reflection log) to his/her continuous cognitive self-assessment, i.e. the continuous flow of thoughts, e.g. "Am I doing this right?" Such students would utter for example: "I self-assess anyways" (Anna).

This idea of self-assessment as a process and as a product is similar to Boud's (2013) notion of everyday self-assessment and learner self-assessment: "Students are always self assessing.[…] Although this kind of self assessment is ad hoc and appears peripheral to formal assessment procedures, it is a commonplace part of learning" (p. 11). When students see the connection between the everyday self-assessment and learner self-assessment, they can thus become more aware of their own learning.

What is new in my study is the level of awareness related to self-assessment as a process and product, that is, whether the students had a conscious awareness of the connection of their everyday self-assessments and student self-assessments in the ESL classroom. For Anna it was natural to connect the everyday self-assessment to the pedagogical practice:

> Now, I think it was really good, because I assess myself anyways. I hadn't handed in anything if I thought it was really bad. So I think that when you have specific question, you could say: "Okay, what did you think was easy?" - "Yes, have I been able to do it?" And then: "What did you think was difficult?" – "Have I mastered it?" So I thought it was very okay. I got a little more insight, too. (Anna, Appendix J: 55)

In the latter quotation, Anna addresses how learner self-assessment involves more specific questions than the everyday self-assessment. In the quote, we see that she monitors her own learning by asking those questions and answering them.

6.1.2 Accuracy of self-assessment

From the interview data, Anna and Helen, two out of three students with high levels of achievement in English, stated that they felt that the accuracy of self-assessment is difficult. This finding was related to the uncertainty of whether a self-assessment is valid. Anna expressed it immediately when being asked "How do you understand the word "self-assessment"? She replied: "I really think that self-assessment is a bit difficult, because I think that you either feel a lot better or a lot worse than you really are, so" (Anna). This finding on accuracy is strongly connected to one of the most salient finding in the interview data: self-assessment and honesty, which I will return to later. Anna described herself as relentlessly critical to her own work, and she pointed out that it could have some negative consequences. Thus, students need knowledge of what is well written and what is not. Such knowledge of standards and criteria for writing can strengthen students' perception of accuracy and help in becoming self-regulated learners. Helen similarly expressed the possible negative tendencies of self-assessment in relation to subjective standards, such as friends. This corresponds to theory on self-assessment. Gamlem and Smith (2013) argue that without "objective criteria for students to use when assessing their work, they end up with personal 'likes and dislikes'" (p. 161).

Accuracy in self-assessment has earlier been connected to sports. "The only way any of us can improve – as Coach Graham taught me – is if we develop a real ability to assess ourselves. If we can't accurately do that, how can we tell if we're getting better or worse?" (Pausch & Zaslow, 2008, p. 112). This latter quote is very similar to the sentiment of Anna. In accordance with the findings of this study, Pausch implies that he was taught self-assessment through sports, i.e. through Coach Graham's instructions. However, the accuracy concern is both an urgent and contentious one.

In their article, "Flawed self-assessment: implications for health, education, and the workplace", Dunning, Heath, and Suls (2004) refer to research in different domains where

there is evidence suggesting that a person's perception of self often corresponds to a low extent with reality: "In general, people's self-views hold only a tenuous to modest relationship with their actual behavior and performance" (p. 69). Brown and Harris (2013) claim that self-assessments will always be inaccurate: "[W]e consider that all self-assessments, no matter how privileged the self is in terms of knowing what the self has done, are imperfect indicators of competence" (p. 370). Falchikov and Boud (1989) contend that self-assessment is a skill that needs to be developed, and they point to the fallibility of teachers' assessment: "Given that experienced teachers are not reliable markers in all situations, then it is, perhaps, unreasonable to expect inexperienced students always to demonstrate reliability" (p. 427).

However, in an AFL context it is the learning that is the primary objective, not assessment for documentation purposes (cf. Wiliam, 2011). This is a significant difference, since setting goals and assessing can increase students' motivation. Self-assessment that promotes learning is something very different than self-assessment as final assessment, where the assessment is used for documentation, e.g., through self-marking. Bandura (1991) argues that most human behaviour is regulated by forethought: "People form beliefs about what they can do, they anticipate the likely consequences of prospective actions, they set goals for themselves, and they otherwise plan courses of action that are likely to produce desired outcomes" (p. 248). Self-assessment can thus affect motivation of students through reciprocal causation, cf. chapter 2 (cf. Bandura, 1989). However, when asked what they thought was the most important thing they had learnt about self-assessment, several interviewees answered: honesty.

6.1.3 Self-assessment and honesty

The finding on self-assessment and honesty is in many ways very connected to that of the accuracy of self-assessment. Four out of seven interviewees expressed explicitly that honesty is an important aspect of self-assessment. Two interviewees who did not use the word expressed the same concern in synonyms, using "realistic" and "critical". Central to the finding of honesty was the idea of self-assessment to an audience. One of the interviewees emphasised that self-assessment through reflection logs was a method that was subject to scrutiny from the teacher (Patricia). Therefore, pointing out one's own errors can lead to a lower mark. One of the findings of this study was that interviewees did not feel that they had the same competence as teachers, who are trained professionals. For instance, a student who is not very competent in subject-verb agreement in written English can furthermore be ignorant

of the fact that he/she is not very competent in this area. The findings that addressed problems of accuracy and honesty are equally a concern in self-assessment literature.

This lack of competence can, according to Brown and Harris (2013), have a "dual handicapping effect" (p. 370). This means that students who are not very competent in a domain are, at the same time, not aware of this lack of competence. Consequently, self-assessments can be flawed due to many aspects. Dunning et al. (2004) identify several reasons why people's self-assessments can be flawed, and Brown and Harris (2013) have selected the four that are particularly important: (1) unrealistic optimism (e.g., "I can have this text finished by midnight"); (2) above-average effects (i.e., on average, people think of themselves above average); (3) information neglect (e.g., people compare themselves to other people instead of objective standards); and (4) information deficits (e.g., ignorant to the standards and criteria when judging the quality of one's work).

These four psychological mechanisms that are elaborated in the latter paragraph suggest that the validity of self-assessment does not rely solely on honesty; people are not necessarily aware of their own abilities. Karl pointed out that students can lie and say they are doing either better or worse than how they are really doing. Naturally, this could be the case. However, the human propensity to feel above-average can equally play its part. The fourth point that Dunning et al. (2004) point out, information deficits, is a concern that is known in self-assessment literature. Self-assessment presupposes a thorough understanding of the standards and criteria of the assessment. Furthermore, in self-assessment students are welcomed to create and negotiate assessment criteria. This serves a dual purpose: (1) students are more involved in their assessment, and (2) this involvement increases their understanding of the assessment criteria. This can potentially strengthen the validity of self-assessments, although students can still refrain from being completely honest or lack awareness of own abilities.

Gamlem and Smith (2013) investigated students' perceptions of classroom feedback. They found that students were concerned about the potential harms of being honest:

> Student participation in classroom interactions and peer feedback is described by some students as difficult because lack of trust, honesty and mutual respect within a classroom might prevent some students from being honest when giving feedback. (Gamlem & Smith, 2013, p. 160)

We see here that the classroom climate is essential to honest feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Patricia highlighted the fact that the self-assessments in the school project of the

present study were not carried out in isolation. Students, hence, have an awareness of the audience, which in this case was the final assessor of their transcript of records. This could be the reason why so many students felt that honesty was the most important feature of self-assessment. Students with knowledge of their own errors and mistakes feel perhaps a reluctance to state them out in the open. Because if a student points out that his/her grammar is bad, this could bring a reinforcing effect to the teacher and potentially affect the final mark.

6.1.4 Self-assessment and the outside perspective

This study found that students with average levels of achievement in English did not have a developed meta-language for self-assessment: they used analogies. A common factor for measuring yourself with friends and sports is a focus on body (i.e. subjective standards). As we shall see later, students had a more developed meta-language for self-assessment in sports, precisely because it is bodily and hence visible. In this study, students compared self-assessment in writing to self-assessment in sports. This is due to a lack of concept to explain academic thinking and strategies. Consequently, they used examples from everyday activities and sports. The finding on self-assessment as taking an outside perspective is an analogy on how self-assessment involves metacognitive processes. Susan shared her experiences with self-assessment when skiing while being filmed. The experience of watching herself skiing provided a more tangible meta-perspective on her own progress.

Taking a metacognitive stance on own learning can be explained in terms of observational learning, as introduced in the chapter 2 (Bandura & McClelland, 1977). In the case of watching oneself on film, the self-regulatory mechanism of self-observation confronts an earlier self-observation. For example, an alpine skier who watches himself/herself on film afterwards confronts his/her earlier thoughts of the run downhill. Thus, the process of self-observation is expanded through a metacognitive perspective; the skier observes himself/herself twice. Through the lens of Bandura's (1989) social-cognitive theory of reciprocal causation, we can see how the skier influences and is influenced by the environment (e.g. film of himself/herself, coach, friends), personal cognitive factors (e.g. tactics, strategies, and mental persistence), and behaviour (e.g. skills and self-efficacy). Similarly, a student is situated in a similar triadic relationship with his/her environment, personal cognition, and behaviour. The student needs strategies for how to start and finish writing a text. However, in text writing, this metacognitive awareness is more difficult since it is not possible to video record mental processes. As a consequence, it is a greater challenge for students with average levels of achievement in English to carry out this self-observation.

The perceived self-efficacy is a crucial concern in this triadic interrelationship: "[t]he stronger their perceived self-efficacy, the higher the goals people set for themselves and the firmer their commitment to them […]" (Bandura, 1989, pp. 1175-1176). *Perceived* is a key word since it is the students' own perception that matters: "Students' beliefs in their efficacy to regulate their own learning and to master academic activities determine their aspirations, level of motivations, and academic accomplishments" (Bandura, 1993, p. 117). The findings of this study suggest that an increased focus on metacognitive strategies can strengthen the perceived self-efficacy, as we shall see in the discussion of writing strategies.

6.2 Students' use of writing strategies

This study found that students with high levels of achievement in English to a greater extent used metacognitive strategies and resource management strategies that differed from students with average levels of achievement in English. This was one of the salient findings from the interview data. More specifically, students with high levels of achievement in English reported their use of the English mind-set strategy (metacognitive strategy) and stream of consciousness strategy (metacognitive/resource management strategy). These strategies do not exist in learning strategy literature. The English mind-set strategy entails that students expose themselves to spoken or written English before the start of a writing process. This is in order to prevent L1 influence. The stream of consciousness strategy entails neglecting writing errors for the sake of writing speed. Thus, students do not correct their errors until after they have completed the text. In terms of resource management strategies, students with high levels of achievement in English would furthermore to a greater extent use a thesaurus to improve their language. From the survey data, the organisation strategy, where students organise their texts into paragraphs, turned out to be the most frequent. From the reflection logs, the students reported to a greater extent the elaboration strategy: "finding material and information".

In chapter 2, I presented a compiled list of writing strategies from several sources. After I compared Table 1 with Table 8, I found that there were significant additions to metacognitive and resource management strategies. The interviewees had a particularly broad selection of metacognitive strategies and resource management strategies at their disposal when writing English texts. The data from the students' reflection logs suggested that students use elaboration strategies when writing texts in English, and "finding", "topic", and "information" occurred frequently. Since the ELP strategies did only include one metacognitive strategy: "I try to write directly in the target language" (WS2), the data from the surveys did not

investigate thoroughly enough students use and knowledge of metacognitive strategies. The ELP writing strategies consist of 4/7 organisation strategies.

I completed a comparison between the table of writing strategies presented in the theory chapter and the one presented in the findings chapter. The most prominent finding from this comparison was the amount of additions of metacognitive and resource management strategies that arose from the interview data. Most of the organisation strategies from the data were already familiar in self-assessment literature. This indicates that there has been a little focus on metacognitive strategies and resource management strategies in the theory compared to that of cognitive strategies. This pertains especially to the provision of concrete examples that can be used by students, teachers and educators.

A reason why resource material for organisation strategies is much more developed and available than that of metacognitive strategies could be the fact that metacognitive strategies are non-observable and occurring within the self (cf. Chamot et al., 1999). Self-assessment can be considered as a metacognitive learning strategy, and self-assessment lies within Elstad and Turmo's (2008a) notion of learning strategies: "Learning strategies is a term that is connected to students' strategic attention to own learning processes (p. 15). This is why self-assessment is a beneficial way to train students in learning strategies.

As I have already mentioned, it became clear that stronger interviewees (Anna, Patricia and Helen) used other time management and study environment strategies than that reported of average-achieving students. Whereas the interviewees with average levels of achievement would stop whenever they encountered a problem, the stronger students would, for example, neglect their mistakes in order to keep up their typing pace, or write in Norwegian. Compared to Hopfenbeck's (2012) findings that 15-year old students to a low extent used control strategies, this study showed that students had many metacognitive control strategies that they used. It must, however, be stressed that the present study can only aspire to contribute new perspectives and knowledge, but not as a mean to make generalisations. All of the interviewees scored average or above average in written English.

The finding on stronger students' increased focus on resource management strategies corresponds to theory on learning strategies. Weinstein et al. (2008) argue that time management strategies (a category of resource management strategies) are essential for self-regulated learners at a macro level. The macro level involves the overall time management and systematic focus on school work. At the micro level, students monitor and control their

level of motivation, concentration, etc. Hopfenbeck (2008) encourages teachers to teach students about learning strategies and how to use them. Strategies and techniques for effectively writing a text can be made visible through increased awareness. This involves instruction at the macro and micro level.

6.3 Self-assessment techniques

This study found that the students who participated in the surveys were most familiar with self-assessment at the end of a work period. The interviewees were divided in their preference of self-assessment techniques. Some pointed out that they enjoyed the opportunity of writing detailed information through a reflection log, whereas others felt more comfortable with self-assessments through a checklist. There was an increase in terms of self-assessment during a learning process in survey 2. Surprisingly, few students stated that they had done self-assessment through reflection logs in the aftermath of the school project. A reason for this could be that students did not feel that they wrote reflection logs in the school project of the present study, but rather that they answered questions. The selected interviewees were partly recruited based on their level of engagement in their reflection logs in the school project. Whereas many students did not write elaborate reflection logs, the interviewees produced to a larger extent solid reflection logs.

In terms of preference of different self-assessment techniques, the interviewees were divided. At the one end of the continuum was Anna with her preference for reflection logs and wish to write comprehensively about her own work and performance. She emphasised that this would help her to argue for her choices when writing a text in English. At the other end, we find Karl and Susan who favoured the self-assessment checklists where they tick off their level of achievement. Susan expressed a wish to refrain from a high degree of personal involvement that is often a trait in reflection logs. The concern of personal involvement is similar to that of self-assessment and honesty; by being completely honest, students can expose themselves too heavily. This exposure could have an opposite effect: Students can write negative things about own work and abilities, and the teacher may become aware of new negative things. As a consequence, a teacher might even return the negative remarks back to the student.

This aspect of personal involvement in self-assessment is a similar concern in assessment literature. Sadler (1983) claims that long checklists can give students the impression that the purpose is to complete them rather mechanically instead of the engagement in a holistic process. Both of these versions, reflection logs and checklists, include student involvement in

the creation and negotiation of assessment criteria. Brown and Harris (2013) argue the use of rubric is the most used within the AFL paradigm: "the practice of using a rubric to ascertain the quality characteristics of the individual's written or performed work" (p. 370). Since students have different preferences, this study suggests that students should engage in different self-assessment techniques in a formative context. The school project of the present study focussed on AFL. The *Vurderingsforskriften* states that the continuous assessment (Norwegian: undervegsvurderinga) shall foster learning (Kunnskapsdep., 2006, §3-3). One of the ideas with carrying out self-assessment during a text writing process was exactly the learning potential that could be gained by improving a piece of work by self-assessment. The findings from this study suggest that students should be exposed to a variety of self-assessment techniques.

6.4 Students' perception of student involvement

From the findings of survey 1 on students' perception of student involvement, the students felt to some extent involved in the decision-making process of learning objectives and choice of form of assessment (e.g., oral or written). This sense of involvement decreased in survey 2, which was as expected in terms of the low degree of involvement in both of these matters. The students in the surveys reported that they were more involved in making suggestions for assessment criteria in survey 2 than survey 1. This corresponds with my expectations based on their high degree of involvement in the school project.

With regard to the findings on students' attitudes to increased involvement in the interview data, there was a general sentiment that involvement was important, but that it should be handled with care. Anna and Karl both warned against students who do not take their school work seriously enough and lack training. Consequently, Anna requested more training in increased involvement. Although Karl enjoyed increased involvement in the school project, he feared that students would award themselves top marks if given the power to do so. In other words, Karl preferred increased involvement in formative learning activities, but not a complete take-over. From the interview data, it became clear that students preferred a middle ground between complete teacher domination on the one hand, and student insurgency on the other. Karen felt that increased involvement was an important measure for voicing her opinions and requests. Despite the fact that a teacher might neglect her viewpoints, she cannot avoid hearing it. Most interviewees disagreed when they were asked if they felt that their self-assessment mattered; they felt that self-assessment supported their learning in written English.

However, most students experienced the teacher as the bottleneck in their final assessments: the one who makes the ultimate decisions.

Brown and Harris (2013) suggest that training can improve accuracy. Through instruction and experience with creating assessment criteria, students can become increasingly aware of their own work in relation to objective criteria and standards. Bjørgen (2008) claims that the term, *responsibility of own learning* that so often has been connected to student involvement, has led to misconceptions where teachers can simply leave the classroom. By contrast, the aim of *responsibility of own learning* should be to activate students and make them more involved in their own learning. Bjørgen (2008) argues that earlier models such as a heavy emphasis on rote learning involved a low degree of student involvement.

Surprisingly, none of the interviewees pointed out explicitly that they experienced a deeper understanding of the learning objectives through increased student involvement (cf. Smith, 2009). This could perhaps be due to difficulty in making assessment criteria explicit through, e.g., written documents (Rust, Price, & O'Donovan, 2003). Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) claim that assessment criteria are often tacit and unarticulated in the mind of the teacher. Consequently, this concern becomes increasingly difficult and abstract for students without professional competence. Gamlem and Smith (2013) argued that lack of training could be an impediment for students in giving quality academic feedback. Thus, an even stronger emphasis on student involvement throughout the whole school term is preferable rather than just in projects such as the one described in the present study. Stiggins and Chappuis (2012) believe that "the greatest potential value of classroom assessment is realized when we open the process up *during the learning* and welcome students in as full partners" (p. 20)

6.5 Chapter summary

I this chapter, I have discussed my findings in light of relevant theory. Although social comparison is sometimes inevitable, objective standards and criteria in self-assessment can lead the focus away from self-blame in terms of ability and rather point at concrete aims that students can accomplish. One of the issues that arose was the one connected to self-assessment and accuracy: Students are not trained professional assessors and their self-assessments are likely to be flawed to a certain extent. Self-assessment used during learning processes can provide metacognitive knowledge about oneself and help develop metacognitive skills. In terms of writing strategies, the self-assessment literature lacks teaching material that promotes metacognitive and resource management writing strategies.

With regard to self-assessment techniques, this study suggests that a variety of self-assessment types can benefit a variety of students. Student involvement is still an aspect that can be much more focussed in the ESL classroom, although the present study found that many students felt only slightly involved.

7. Conclusion

Initially, I asked the research question: "How do students perceive self-assessment as a tool to promote learning in written English at the lower secondary level in Norway?" This study aimed to understand more profoundly students' reflections of self-assessment. In this final chapter, I will bring this study to a close by revisiting the theoretical framework in light of this study's findings. I will discuss the further implications of this study in a Norwegian and international school context. Finally, I will make suggestions for further research.

Social constructivism is the central pillar of this study: Knowledge is considered as socially and culturally constructed. Students are therefore viewed as co-constructors and active participants of own learning. Central to the understanding of self-assessment was Bandura's (1986, 1989) social cognitive theory and model of reciprocal causation. In this model, human behaviour is regulated through three central agencies: personal cognitive factors, environmental factors, and behavioural factors. Perceived self-efficacy is the crucial mechanism in this triadic relationship: Students' self-beliefs determine their motivation to, e.g., write an article in English, cf. the school project of the present study. Bandura and McClelland (1977) argue that a person's self-esteem is potentially afflicted if he/she falls short in terms of his/her evaluative standards. In self-assessment, students engage intensively in the process of creating and negotiating assessment criteria. This involvement and comparison to standards instead of their peers can potentially protect their self-esteem. Self-regulated learning, where students initiate, control and monitor their own learning, forms a theoretical background to self-assessment. I have outlined cognitive, metacognitive, and resource management writing strategies that can strengthen students' self-regulation.

This study found that students perceived self-assessment as judgment of own work and performance, and that they to varying degrees understood self-assessment both as a continuous cognitive process and as a work method used in formal education. The interviewees were distinguished by their level of awareness and understanding of self-assessment as a process and product. This became particularly prominent when students explained how they would self-assess in daily activities, such as sports. Students with average levels of achievement had a lower concept understanding of self-assessment, and used to a larger extent analogies in their explanations. One of the most difficult aspects was the accuracy of self-assessment. Students requested more training in how to self-assess accurately. When interviewees were asked their opinion of the most important aspect of self-

assessment, honesty came out as a salient trait. Patricia expressed that complete honesty was difficult because if she assessed herself too harshly, she might receive a lower mark.

This study found how an increased focus on self-assessment can foster students' writing strategies. Generally, the students reported a high degree of elaboration strategies during their writing process in English, namely, strategies that pertained to finding material, topic, and information. From the interview data, many strategies were added to the writing strategy list that was proposed in chapter 2. There was particularly an increase in metacognitive and resource management strategies. The students with high levels of achievement would particularly obtain an "English mindset" before starting to write a text. The stream of consciousness strategy entailed neglecting errors that arose because they did not want to decrease their writing pace when they had an idea or found themselves inspired.

Recalling Susan's idea of self-assessment as taking an outside perspective, this study suggests that exposure to a variety of self-assessment techniques will benefit the meta-cognitive skills among students. Different students preferred different self-assessment techniques. Thus, it is not the exposure to a specific technique, but the variation and versatility of several techniques that can benefit ESL students. Such findings should encourage teachers and educators to spend more time on self-assessment activities in a variety of ways. In the quest of fostering students' perceived self-efficacy, an assessment culture that focusses on students' learning potentials instead of merely documenting students' level of achievement is crucial. Increased student involvement should come with a teacher obligation to ensure that students have the training and support they need in the course of becoming more self-regulated learners.

This study urges Norwegian policy makers to create and publish more concrete teaching material on how to carry out self-assessment activities in the ESL classroom. A focus on self-assessment, learning strategies, and student involvement are three essential components in the promotion of self-regulated learning. More research on the relation between these components is therefore desirable in Norwegian educational research. This study equally requests more research in speaking, listening, writing and reading skills in English in Norway. This study focussed on students' perception of self-assessment, while my pilot study focussed on teachers' perception of self-assessment. Both studies suggest that students and teachers need more training in formative self-assessment activities, as well as available resources. Self-assessment should not indicate an unarticulated disclaimer of liability from the teacher, but encourage to an active co-partnership between students and teachers.

8. References

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Appendix A: Project plan for the school project

The Writing Process 

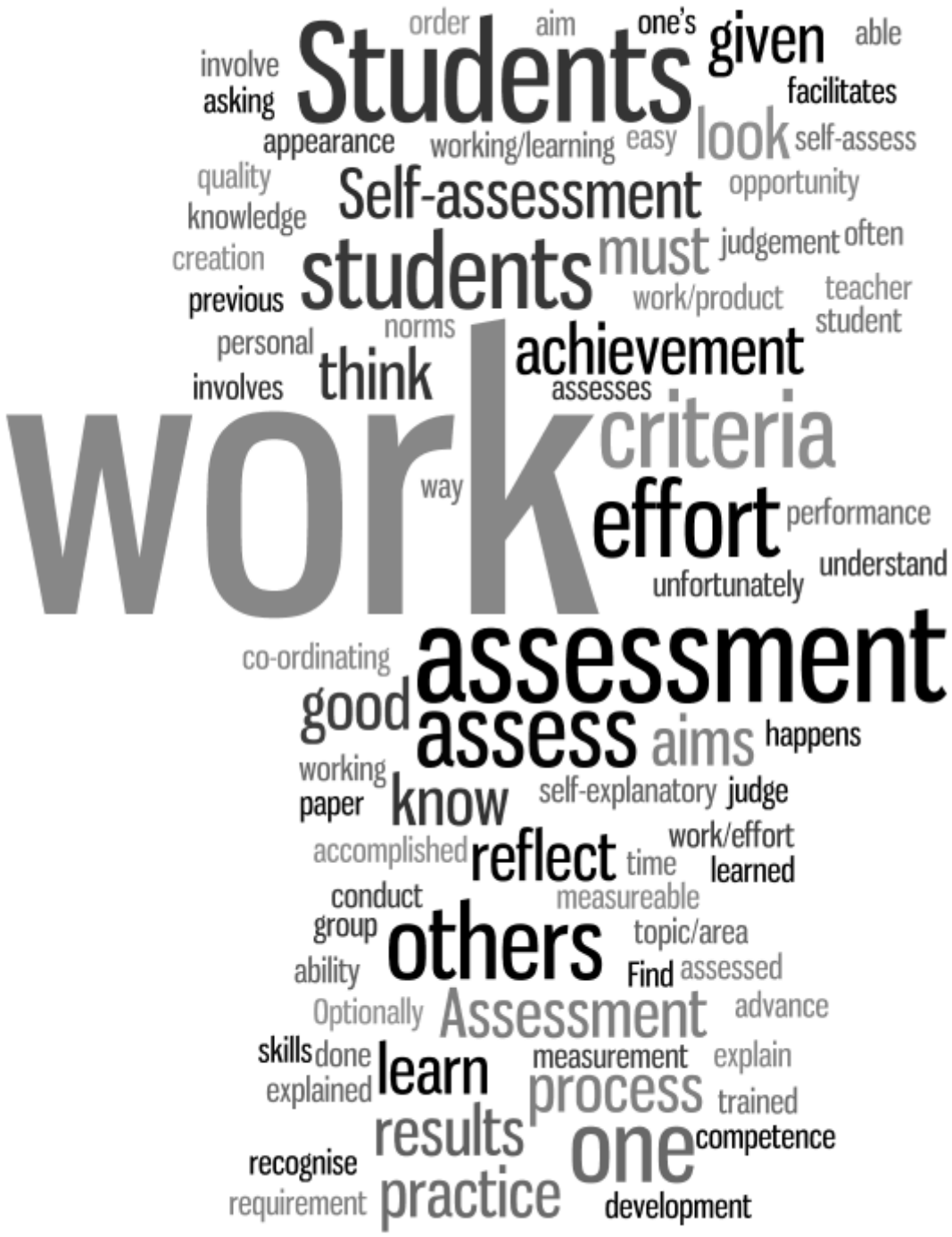
1. Deciding and creating assessment criteria and learning objective (Wednesday week 43 + Monday week 44).
2. Prewriting: thinking about a topic, brainstorming, and planning (homework).
3. Drafting (for Monday, week 44): writing your thoughts on paper, hand- in on ITL.
4. Revising (at school Monday): organization and details. Finalizing first draft and writing first self-assessment for 3rd of November.
5. Teacher feedback on content and structure.
6. Feedback in groups
7. Editing: reviewing content and structure, and correcting spelling, grammar, capitalization, and punctuation.
8. Writing an improved second draft and second self-assessment: reflecting and assessing what has been written.
9. Publishing: sharing final writing with others.

Main aims for the period: Reflect on own writing and self-assess.

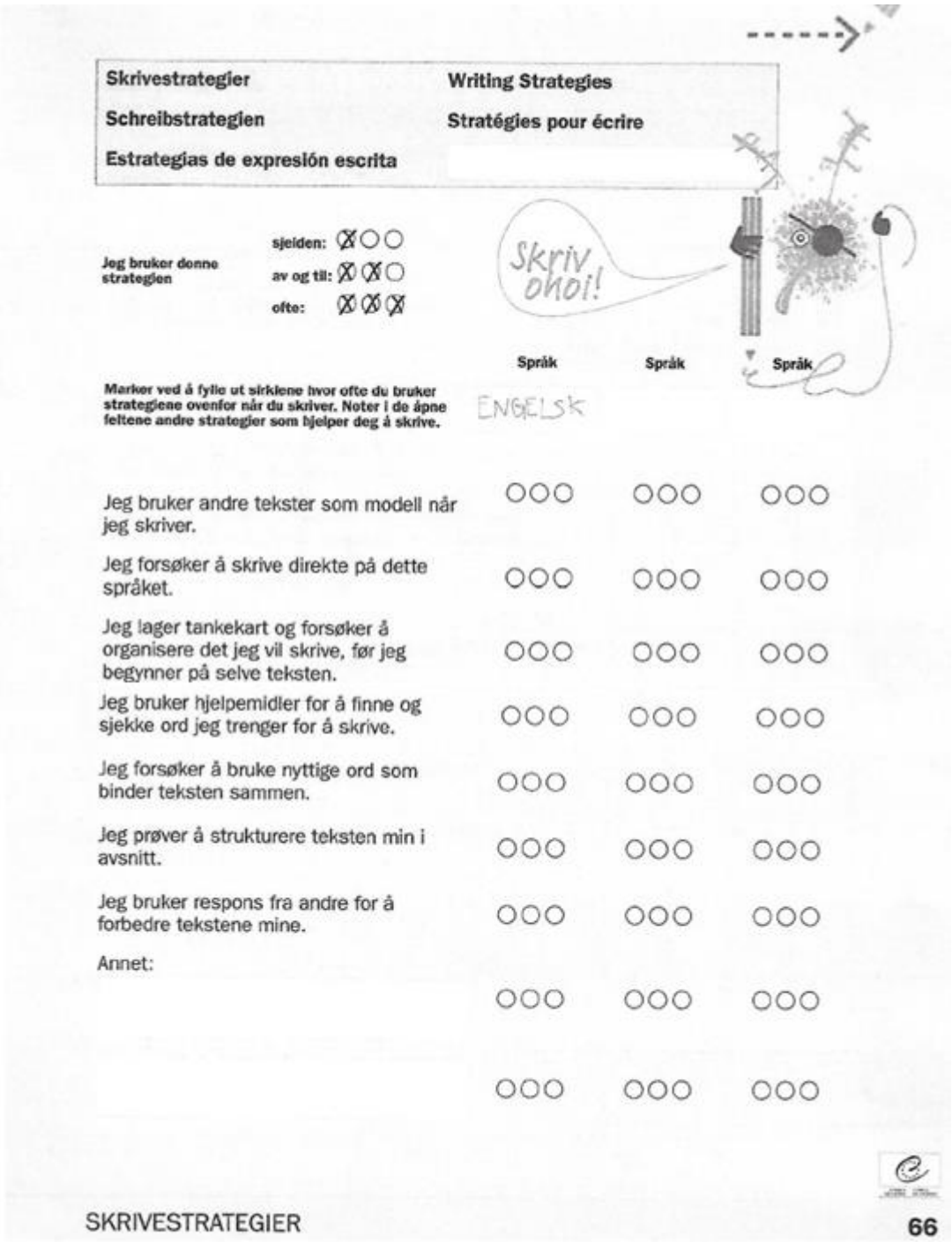
Keep in mind: What do you think about and focus on when you write, edit and finalize an article? How do you experience self-assessment?

(20.10.2014-09.12.2014)

Appendix B: Wordle cloud (pilot study)



Appendix C: ELP writing strategies



Skrivestrategier | **Writing Strategies**
Schreibstrategien | **Stratégies pour écrire**
Estrategias de expresión escrita

Skriv ohoi!

Jeg bruker denne strategien
sjelden: ⊗○○
av og til: ⊗⊗○
ofte: ⊗⊗⊗

Marker ved å fylle ut sirklene hvor ofte du bruker strategiene ovenfor når du skriver. Noter i de åpne feltene andre strategier som hjelper deg å skrive.

	Språk	Språk	Språk
	ENGELSK		
Jeg bruker andre tekster som modell når jeg skriver.	○○○	○○○	○○○
Jeg forsøker å skrive direkte på dette språket.	○○○	○○○	○○○
Jeg lager tankekart og forsøker å organisere det jeg vil skrive, før jeg begynner på selve teksten.	○○○	○○○	○○○
Jeg bruker hjelpemidler for å finne og sjekke ord jeg trenger for å skrive.	○○○	○○○	○○○
Jeg forsøker å bruke nyttige ord som binder teksten sammen.	○○○	○○○	○○○
Jeg prøver å strukturere teksten min i avsnitt.	○○○	○○○	○○○
Jeg bruker respons fra andre for å forbedre tekstene mine.	○○○	○○○	○○○
Annet:			
	○○○	○○○	○○○
	○○○	○○○	○○○

SKRIVESTRATEGIER 66

UDIR. (2008). *Språkpermen*. Halden: Fremmedspråksenteret (s. 66)

Appendix D: The survey

Spørreundersøkelse: Egenvurdering i engelsk

Formålet med undersøkelsen er å forstå elevers opplevelse av egenvurdering i læringsprosesser i engelsk. Deltakelsen er anonym og frivillig.

Sett ring rundt kjønn:

Gutt

Jente

Hvilken karakter fikk du i engelsk ved siste halvårsvurdering? Sett ring.

1 2 3 4 5 6

I hvilken grad er du enig i de følgende påstandene? Sett kryss i den ruta som passer best.

---

1. Jeg får være med på å bestemme læringsmål.

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

2. Jeg får være med på å komme med forslag til vurderingskriterier (hva det legges vekt på i en oppgave/tekst).

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

3. Jeg får være med på å bestemme hvordan vi skal vise hva vi har lært (for eksempel om vi skal ha skriftlig eller muntlig prøve).

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

4. Læreren forklarer oss hvordan vi skal egenvurdere arbeidet vårt.

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

5. Jeg sjekker at jeg har svart på vurderingskriteriene for en oppgave før jeg leverer den inn.

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

6. Jeg bruker egenvurderingsskjema hvor jeg vurderer om jeg har nådd målene ***i slutten av en periode.***

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

7. Jeg bruker egenvurderingsskjema for å vurdere hvordan jeg ligger an i forhold til målene ***undervegs i en periode.***

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

8. Jeg har skrevet logger/notater i engelsk hvor vi skriver hva vi får godt til og hva vi må jobbe mer med.

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

9. Jeg forstår vanligvis hva jeg skal lære og hvordan jeg skal gjøre oppgavene.

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

10. Mens jeg skriver, stopper jeg opp og leser det jeg har skrevet for å gjøre teksten bedre.

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

11. Mine vurderinger av arbeidet mitt er ofte det samme som læreren sine vurderinger.

☐ Helt uenig

☐ Nokså uenig

☐ Nokså enig

☐ Helt enig

12. Kan du gi meg et eksempel på noe du har endret mens du egenvurderte arbeidet ditt?

(For eksempel, «Da jeg skrev et brev, hadde jeg skrevet «været» feil på engelsk. Det rettet jeg opp før jeg leverte inn oppgaven»).

TAKK FOR AT DU DELTOK I UNDERSØKELSEN ☺

Appendix E: Assessment criteria (group work)

Måloppnå-else: / Kriterier:	Begynnende: Kar: 1 og 2	Basis: Kar: 3	Kompetent: Kar: 4	Fremragende: Kar: 5 og 6
Innhold	G1: Har ikke noe med temaet å gjøre. G2: Uoversiktelig. Ikke rett oppsett. Urelevant, ikke samsvar med oppgaven. G3: Lite fakta og lite innhold G4: Ingen sammenheng, rotete G5: Handler ikke om tema	G1: Har noe med temaet å gjøre. G2: - G3: Greit innhold og greit fakta. G4: Litt samanheng G5: Ikkje spørsmål. Lite fakta.	G1: Noen eksempler. G2: - G3: Passe med innhold og fakta. G4: En ide G5: Litt fakta. Ikkje fult så fyldig spørsmål Handle om tema	G1: Eksempler, Statistikk. G2: Samsvar med oppgaven. Bra oppbygging/struktur G3: Relevant innhold og meget god fakta. G4: En bra ide, oversiktlig, interessant G5: God fakta, fyldig Handle om tema Har med eksempler og spørsmål
Språk-kompetanse:	G1: Mye skrivefeil. G2: Dårlig gramatikk G3: Dårlig språk. G4: Mange gram. Feil G5: Bytning av tid, dårlig gramatikk	G1: En del skrivefeil G2: Kan noe rett gramatikk G3: Greit språk. G4: Noen feil. G5: Ikke så bra gramatikk	G1: Noen skrivefeil G2: En del rett gramatikk G3: Utfyllende setninger og fint språk. G4: Få feil G5: Som passe gramatikk	G1: Få feil G2: Fremragende gramatikk Rett bøyninger av ord G3: Meget godt språk og utfyllende setninger. G4: Nesten ingen feil G5: Fyldige setninger, bra gramatikk
Sjangertrekk:	G1: Skriver subjektivt. Har ikke med innledning, hoveddel og avslutning. Har ikke avslutning. Har ikke avsnitt G2: - G3: Urellevant fakta, dårlig informasjon G4: Ingen trekk, subjektivt G5: Overskriften passer ikke. tett oppbygd tekst	G1: Innledning og avslutning Få avsnitt Få kilder G2: - G3: Helg greit med fakta og passe lengde G4: Litt subjektivt G5: Hoveddel, innledning. Overskriften passer ikke. Ingen avsnitt.	G1: Innledning, hoveddel, avslutning. Noen avsnitt Noen kilder G2: - G3: Relevant fakta, får leseren interessert G4: Blander subjektivt og objektivt G5: Innledning, hoveddel, avsluttning. Litt	G1: Innledning, hoveddel, avslutning, konklusjon. Avsnitt. Oversikt. Kilder G2: Ser tydelig at det er en artikkel. G3: Meget relevant og passende innhold, får leseren interessert og spent. G4: Riktige trekk Objektivt, diskuterer emnet G5: Innledning,

			avsnitt	overskrift, hoveddel, avslutning, passende overskrift, avsnitt
Oppbygning: lead/body/ conclusion	G1: - G2: Mangler noe av oppbygningen. G3: Dårlig hoveddel G4: Ingen oppbygning G5: ----¨¨¨¨¨-----	G1: - G2: - G3: Rotete oppbygning G4: Rotete, dårlig oppbygning G5: ----¨¨¨¨¨-----	G1: - G2: - G3: Har en fin oppbygning G4: Forståelsesfull, fortsatt rotete G5: ----¨¨¨¨¨-----	G1: - G2: Har med innledning, hoveddel og avslutning. Bilder og kilder. G3: Har en strukturert og oversiktlig oppbygning G4: Klar oppbygning G5: avsnitt (ordliste)
Layout:	G1: - G2: Få/ingen bilder Uoversiktelig Få/ingen avsnitt G3: Gløymt avsnitt og bilde G4: Ingen bilder, rotete G5: Rotete, uryddig, ingen bilder	G1: - G2: - G3: Noen bilder, ingen avsnitt Dårlig overskrift G4: Stygge bilder G5: Rotete, ikke ryddig, bilder som ikke samsvarer med oppgaven	G1: - G2: - G3: Får ikke leseren interessert i overskrift, dårlig med avsnitt G4: Noen bilder G5: Oversiktelig. Bilder.	G1: Godt strukturert G2: - G3: Fengende og oversiktelig G4: Ryddig, fine bilder G5: Strukturert. Ryddig. Oversiktlig. Fint gjennomført. Bilda, bildetekst.
Kilder	G1: Har ikke med [kilder] [*hviska over «kilder»*]. G2: Ingen. G3: Oppgir ingen kilder G4: Ingen kilder G5: Ingen kilder	G1: Har med noen få [kilder]. G2: - G3: Oppgir noen kilder G4: Dårlige kilder G5: Ingen kildeliste men noen kilder	G1: Har med noen [kilder]. G2: - G3: Oppgir de fleste kilder G4: - G5: Noen kilder	G1: Har med alle [kilder]. G2: Alle. G3: Oppgir alle kilder nøyaktig G4: Alle kilder G5: Vi ser hvor kildene kommer fra. Kildeliste.

Appendix F: Assessment criteria (compiled and changed)

Måloppnå-else: / Kriterier:	Begynnende: Kar: 1 og 2	Basis: Kar: 3	Kompetent: Kar: 4	Fremragende: Kar: 5 og 6
Innhold	Enkelt tekstinnhold Noe fakta og informasjon Beskriver noe av innholdet Noe sammenheng i tekstinnholdet.	Middels tekstinnhold Bruker informasjon fra saktekster Beskriver stort sett hovedinnholdet Har stort sett sammenheng i tekstinnholdet.	Flyt i teksten Godt tekstinnhold Bruker fakta på en god måte Bruker informasjon fra ulike tekster Har god sammenheng i tekstinnholdet. Har gode beskrivelser.	Meget relevant innhold og god bruk av fakta, evt. statistikk. Fremragende bruk av informasjon Vurderer innhold og argumenterer Har fyldige beskrivelser Godt samsvar med temaet Bruker eksempler og spørsmål på en veldig god måte.
Språk-kompetanse:	Mange skrivefeil og lite setningsstruktur Flere feilstavinger Mange grammatikkfeil Enkle ord	Noen skrivefeil Grei setningsstruktur Greit språk Noen feilstavinger Noen grammatikkfeil	Få skrivefeil Fin setningsstruktur Lite grammatikkfeil Utfyllende setninger og fint språk.	Veldig god setningsstruktur Fremragende grammatikk Rett bøyninger av ord Meget godt språk og utfyllende setninger.
Sjangertrekk:	Ingen eller bare noen få faktasetninger Leseren forstår ikke hvilken sjanger som er valgt Noe objektivitet	Leseren forstår litt hvilke sjangertrekk som er valgt Stort sett objektivt	Leseren forstår hvilke sjangertrekk som er valgt Forholder seg objektiv	Tydelige og gode sjangertrekk Skriver på en objektiv og diskuterende måte.
Oppbygning: lead/body/ conclusion	Enkel oppbygging Overskriften kan være noe misvisende Bruker noen eller ingen avsnitt	Har innledning, hoveddel og avslutning. Grei overskrift Bruker avsnitt	Strukturerer teksten i innledning, hoveddel og avslutning God struktur og sammenheng Bruker avsnitt på en god måte.	Har en strukturert og oversiktlig oppbygning Strukturerer teksten i meningsfulle avsnitt Klar og tydelig innledning, hoveddel og avslutning
Layout:	Har ikke noe spesielt fokus på layout.	Har i noen grad tenkt på layout.	God orden Fint oppsett Ryddig oppsett	Veldig ryddig og kreativt. Enkelt å finne frem. Bruker visuelle virkemiddel på en veldig god måte. Fengende og oversiktlig.
Kilder	Har ingen kildehenvisninger /Har kildehenvisninger for noen få av kildene som er benyttet	Har enkelte kildehenvisninger for kilder som er benyttet. Oppgir de fleste kilder.	Har kildehenvisninger for kilder som er benyttet Har kildeliste.	Har etterprøvbare kildehenvisninger for kilder som er benyttet Har oversiktlig og strukturert kildeliste.

Appendix G: Receipt from the NSD

Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS
NORWEGIAN SOCIAL SCIENCE DATA SERVICES

Harald Hårfagres gate 29
N-5007 Bergen
Norway
Tel: +47-55 58 21 17
Fax: +47-55 58 96 50
nsd@nsd.uib.no
www.nsd.uib.no
Org.nr: 985 321 884

Inger Langseth
Program for lærerutdanning NTNU

7491 TRONDHEIM

Vår dato: 13.10.2014 Vår ref: 39838 / 3 / HIT Deres dato: Deres ref:

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 15.09.2014. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

39838	*Eigenvurdering i engelsk i ungdomsskulen*
Behandlingsansvarlig	*NTNU, ved institusjonens øverste leder*
Daglig ansvarlig	*Inger Langseth*
Student	*Kim-Daniel Vattøy*

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger er meldepliktig i henhold til personopplysningsloven § 31. Behandlingen tilfredsstiller kravene i personopplysningsloven.

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

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema, http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/meldeplikt/skjema.html. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, http://pvo.nsd.no/prosjekt.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 19.12.2014, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Katrine Utaaker Segadal

Hildur Thorarensen

Kontaktperson: Hildur Thorarensen tlf: 55 58 26 54
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering
Kopi: Kim-Daniel Vattøy [redacted]

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

Appendix H: Informed consent statement

Forespørsel om deltakelse i forskningsprosjektet:

«Egenvurdering i engelsk i ungdomsskolen»

Bakgrunn og formål

Formålet med undersøkelsen er å forstå elevers opplevelse av egenvurdering i læringsprosesser i engelsk. En sentral problemstilling i forskningsprosjektet er derfor: «Hvordan opplever elever i ungdomsskolen egenvurdering når det blir brukt som et verktøy for å fremme læring?»

Det vil videre være aktuelt å undersøke elevenes oppfatning av involvering i eget vurderingsarbeid, elevenes motivasjon når det gjelder egenvurdering. Et viktig moment er hvordan elevene beskriver sitt eget vurderingsarbeid, samt om egenvurderingen er pålitelig sammenlignet med lærers egen vurdering. Elevgruppen som har blitt spurt om å delta i dette forskningsprosjektet er tilfeldig trukket ut.

Undersøkelsen er et masterprosjekt som blir gjort i forbindelse med masterprogrammet i «Fag- og yrkesdidaktikk i engelsk og fremmedspråk» ved Program for lærerutdanning, NTNU, Trondheim.

Hva innebærer deltakelse i studien?

Deltakelse i studien innebærer at elevene deltar i en spørreundersøkelse, skriver en egenvurdering av eget arbeid og et refleksjonsnotat der eleven skriver sine tanker om prosessen. Det vil også innebære at forskeren er tilstede i de timene hvor prosjektet gjennomføres for observasjon.

Videre, vil noen av forskningsdeltakerne bli spurt om å delta i intervju. Her ønskes det å intervjue elever som viser god evne til refleksjon av læringsprosessen. Intervjuene blir tatt opp ved hjelp av båndopptaker.

Om noen av foreldre/foresatte ønsker å se spørreskjema eller intervjuguide, kan dette skje på forespørsel.

Hva skjer med informasjonen om deg?

Alle personopplysninger vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. Det er kun forskeren som behandler disse. Spørreundersøkelsen er anonym og elevers skriftlige arbeid vil bli anonymisert etter innhenting. Observasjonene som blir gjort i klasserommet vil være beskrivelser av hendelser og situasjoner. Det vil derfor ikke være noen personidentifiserende beskrivelser. Av de elevene som blir spurt om å delta i intervju vil navn bli byttet ut med pseudonym i masteroppgaven. Mens forskningsprosjektet ennå pågås vil det bli beholdt en adskilt navneliste med fornavn på intervjudeltakerne. Disse blir destruert etter prosjektslutt. Når det

gjelder lydopptakene fra intervjuene vil disse bli destruert etter transkribering. Deltakerne i dette studiet vil derfor ikke bli identifisert ved publikasjon.

Selve masterprosjektet avsluttes 26.05.2015, men datainnsamlinga avsluttes 19.12.2014. Innen den førstnevnte datoen kommer alle lydbåndopptak og navnelister til å være destruert.

Frivillig deltakelse
Det er frivillig å delta i studien, og du kan når som helst trekke ditt samtykke uten å oppgi noen grunn. Dersom du trekker deg, vil alle opplysninger om deg bli anonymisert.

Dersom du ønsker å delta eller har spørsmål til studien, ta kontakt med Kim-Daniel Vattøy via mobil: [redacted] eller e-post: kimdaniv@stud.ntnu.no .

Studien er meldt til Personvernombudet for forskning, Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS.

Samtykke til deltakelse i studien

Jeg har mottatt informasjon om studien, og er villig til å delta

---
(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

(Signert av foreldre/foresatte på vegne av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

Sett kryss:

- ☐ Jeg samtykker til å delta i spørreundersøkelse
- ☐ Jeg samtykker til at mine refleksjonslogger kan bli brukt i forskningsarbeidet.
- ☐ Jeg samtykker til å delta i intervju

Appendix I: The interview guide

Innleiing

Informasjon

1. Takke deltakaren for at han/ho vil delta.
2. Presentere temaet og gå igjennom kva vi skal snakke om.
3. Fortelje kva intervjuet skal brukast til.
    a. Teieplikt
4. Understreke at intervjuet er heilt frivillig, og at ein når som helst kan trekke seg eller velje og ikkje svare på spørsmål.
5. Gjere greie for intervjuprosessen og rollene mellom intervjuar og forskingsdeltakar.

Bakgrunnsspørsmål

6. Generelt om eleven sitt forhold til engelsk som fag
7. Eleven si eigenvurdering av engelskfagleg kompetanse

Hovuddel

1. Tekst- og vurderingsarbeid
    a. Før de begynte å velje tema, diskuterte de sjangertrekk for artiklar. Kan du fortelje meg om korleis du nytta dette i di eiga skriving?
    b. Kan du fortelje litt om korleis de jobba med eksempeltekstar til artikkelen? (Guns, extreme sports, shopping, poverty, gambling, etc.)
    c. Kva slags tema valde du?
        i. Kan du fortelje litt om korleis du valte det temaet?
    d. Beskriv korleis teksten din utvikla seg frå du begynte på den til du vart ferdig.
    e. Kva slags forbetringar/endringar gjorde du i teksten din?
2. Eigenvurdering
    a. Kva legg du i ordet «eigenvurdering»?
    b. Forklar korleis du eigenvurderte deg sjølv i dette prosjektet.
    c. Korleis tenker du når du vurderer deg sjølv?
    d. Når de hadde skrive fyrsteutkastet, laga de vurderingskriterier for det endelege utkastet. Kan du fortelje om korleis dette? (gruppearbeidet)
    e. Korleis nytta du «måloppnåing»-arket i tekstskrivinga?
3. Tankar rundt tekstskriving (meta-kognisjon og strategiar)
    a. Kan du skildre prosessen og kva du tenker frå du skal skrive ein tekst på engelsk?
    b. Korleis jobbar du med teksten?
    c. Kva gjer du når du står fast?
    d. I kva situasjonar spør du om hjelp?
4. Motivasjon
    a. Kva gav deg lyst til å skrive teksten?
    b. Forklar korleis di eiga lyst til å skrive utvikla seg mens du skreiv og fekk tilbakemelding.
    c. Kva synest du om temaet som du valte å skrive om?
        i. Korleis påverka dette innsatsen din og lysta di til å skrive?
5. Lærarvurdering
    a. Kva gjer du med tilbakemeldingane frå læraren?
6. Medelevvurdering
    a. Kva gjer du med tilbakemeldingane frå medelevar?

Avslutting(ekstra):

- Er denne forma for eigenvurdering ein måte du er kjend med i engelsk?
- Synest du eigenvurdering er noko ein bør gjere oftare undervegs i oppgåveskrivinga?
- Korleis likte du å arbeide på denne måten? Kvifor?
- Kva måte trur du kan vere den beste måte å arbeide med eigenvurdering på?
- Kva synest du om at du valte oppgåvetema sjølv i forhold til å velje mellom til dømes tre oppgåver?
- Har motivasjonen din til å skrive tekstar på engelsk endra seg i løpet av hausten?
- Kva er det viktigaste du har lært når det gjelder eigenvurdering?

Appendix J: List of original statements

These are the original statements of the students in the interviews and reflection logs before they were translated into English. The statements were transcribed into Norwegian Bokmaal due to closeness to the local dialect. An aim was to render the statements as verbatim as possible.

1. Forsker: Mhm. Hvordan [2] hvordan likte du å arbeide på den måten?
   Susan: Ehm [3] jeg fikk det fra «utsideperspektivet» *ler* igjen. Eh [2] ja.
2. Helen: Nei, det å måle seg med andre for eksempel. For eksempel mest blant ungdommer, å måle seg mot andre. Ehm, i forhold til karakterer og ja eller ja. Idrett også. Ehm. Ja, det å måle seg med andre da. Det er kanskje. Det har noe med egenvurdering det også tror jeg. Så ja.
   Forsker: Så det kan ha uheldige effekter det da egentlig å egenvurdere seg selv negativt?
   Helen: Ja
3. Student 2, jente: *Hva var lett?* Det var lett og velge tema og finne fakta og stoff om regnskogen. *Hva er du usikker på?* Hvordan teksten skulle være, og hvor lang den skulle være. Jeg var usikker på hvordan teksten skulle være oppbygd. *Hva var vanskelig?* Det var vanskelig å oversette stort sett det meste, og det å ta ut den bra faktaen og det gode stoffet. *Hva tenkte du da du skrev teksten?* Jeg tenkte på at jeg var engasjert å tenkte på det som var vanskelig og kanskje ikke så mye det positive med den (Refleksjonslogg 1)
4. Student 16: Jeg synes det var litt vanskelig å skrive den på engelsk enn det er på norsk. På norsk er det mye bedre siden det er ditt språk, men på engelsk er det litt vanskeligere på grunn av grammatikken du må huske på (Refleksjonslogg 1).
5. Karen: Det er jo på en måte hvordan vi selv mener vi har arbeidet, hvordan vi har utført det, hva vi mener om våres arbeid […] om vi har lagt noen innsats i det. Og har du lyst på høy måloppnåelse, så legger du jo veldig mye innsats i det.
6. Karen: Har du ikke noen formening om det, så gjør du det bare. Da kan det hende at du ikke får noe bra. Men i hvert fall når jeg ser på egenvurderinga, så vil jeg jo prøve å få best mulig. Og da går jeg jo etter kravene som skal være.
7. Helen: Eh, ja. Det er vel det. Over alt nesten. På trening, med venner, utseende – man kan vel egentlig vurdere seg selv over alt. Og ja. Det er vel positivt og negativt. Men på skolen så er det vel positivt da.
   Forsker: Mhm. Ja. Hvordan kan det være negativt i tilfelle?
   Helen: Nei, det å måle seg med andre for eksempel. For eksempel mest blant ungdommer, å måle seg mot andre. Ehm […] i forhold til karakterer og ja eller ja […] idrett også […] Ehm […] Ja, det å måle seg med andre da. Det er kanskje […] Det har noe med egenvurdering det også tror jeg. Så ja.
8. Anna: Altså, jeg synes det var veldig bra. Fordi jeg vurderer jo meg selv uansett. Jeg hadde jo ikke levert noe om jeg hadde synes det var kjempedårlig. Sånn at jeg synes at når man har konkrete spørsmål […].
9. John: At jeg skal vurdere mitt eget arbeid og hvordan jeg har jobbet gjennom hele prosessen.
10. John: Nei, man kan se på hva man har gjort underveis og hva sluttresultatet ble. Og hva kanskje som kan bli bedre til neste gang.
11. Helen: Egenvurdering ja. Det er å vurdere ditt eget arbeid, hvordan det har gått og om du er fornøyd, hvor du ligger på en skala, kanskje. Og ja, hvordan en prosess har gått da, hvordan et arbeid har blitt gjort.
12. Patricia: [Egenvurdering] er jo noe vi bruker i en del fag egentlig for å lære oss å se hvordan *vi* føler om det og hvordan *vi* har gjort det, hvordan vi vurderer oss selv da. Og det er jo ganske greit, for når jeg bruker egenvurdering så tenker jeg sånn måloppnåelse: høy, middels eller lav; eller karakterer.
13. Anna: Jeg synes egentlig at egenvurdering er litt vanskelig, for at jeg tenker at enten så føler man seg så mye bedre enn så mye dårligere enn det man egentlig er da.
14. Anna: Altså det er jo greit å tenke sånn, at du må finne ut: «Er det her bra nok?»
15. Anna: Mhm. Da har vi det med egenvurdering igjen da. Siden jeg ikke. Jeg tør ikke helt å liksom rette over skikkelig ordentlig, så jeg spør ofte mamma og pappa: «Er det her bra nok?».

[…] Så da får de to hjelpe meg ofte. […] Så jeg er litt avhengig av å ha noen rundt meg da. For hvis jeg bare vurderer meg selv så blir det helt feil. Heh. Veldig streng! Ja, så jeg er litt redd for det.

16. Helen: Hm. Man skal jo ikke være *for* slem eller *for* snill mot seg selv, så jeg må på en måte finne en mellomting, og være ærlig og tenke over nøye om jeg egentlig la en innsats i det, og sette meg etter de kriteriene.
17. Karl: Det viktigste jeg har lært når det gjelder egenvurdering er å være ærlig med meg selv.
18. Karl: Ja, du kan jo liksom lyve og si at du gjør det bedre enn du egentlig gjør. Eller at du gjør det dårligere enn du egentlig gjør.
19. Helen: Ja, ikke være for snill eller for slem mot seg selv. Ehm, å være ærlig. Å krysse av på noe du føler du *fortjener*. […] Alt sammen egentlig. Bare det å være ærlig.
20. Susan: Eh, jeg prøver å være litt kritisk og være ærlig, så å si. Å si det som er vanskelig, si det som er lett. Og bra og dårlig.
21. Patricia: Det kan være det at man vil jo alltid prestere best da så hvis man tenker at egenvurdering kan ha noe å si på endelig resultat og sånn, så vil man egentlig gjøre det bedre på det man skriver til læreren. Men når man bare skriver til seg selv, så er man kanskje litt mer ærlig, og litt mer ehm, ja, ærlig. Rett og slett. Så kanskje man gjør det *litt* bedre om man skriver til læreren, tenker jeg.
22. Patricia: Hvis man får det til å se bedre ut på en måte, så. Men man er jo ærlig fortsatt da. Men at man kanskje ikke skriver det man *egentlig* tenker selv da. Du vet, de tingene som man bare deler med seg selv.
23. Susan: Vi egenvurderer oss på ski. Hvis vi filmer oss selv og så ser vi og peker på hva. For da ser vi på *utsiden* hva vi gjør feil.[…] [Og] det er litt samme da egentlig, for at når man sitter og skriver og når man går [på ski] så ser jo man det på en måte fra innsida, og når man filmer seg selv eller egenvurderer seg selv, hva man har gjort bra og sånt etterpå, så er det fra en ny vinkel […].
24. Susan: Okay, det er sånn at du ser deg selv på en TV i forhold til om du *er* på en TV liksom. Eller du ser jo på fotballkampen. Du ser jo om det blir rødt kort, men når du *er* der så er du ikke sikker.
25. Karl: Vel, jeg går på Taekwon-do. Og jeg kan ta en egenvurdering av meg selv etter at jeg har gått fram for å gjøre et spark, for eksempel, på gradering, sånn at jeg skal få høyere belte. Så kan jeg egenvurdere meg selv om det var bra nok eller ikke.
26. John: Jeg egenvurderer meg […] på skolen og mens jeg svømmer. Under treningen. […] Etter hver trening så skriver vi treningsdagbok. Så vi skriver hva vi har jobbet med og så får vi respons, kanskje, at vi må jobbe med *det* og *det* videre. Og så må vi prøve å utvikle det og tenke igjennom hvordan vi skal klare å gjøre det.
27. Susan: Ja, fotball og ski. Der hadde vi egenvurdering. Vi egenvurderer oss på ski. Hvis vi filmer oss selv og så ser vi og peker på hva. For da ser vi på *utsiden* hva vi gjør feil.
28. Anna: Det er mange som sier at man skal skrive tankekart eller sånn først, men jeg føler at hvis jeg har en skikkelig sånn sinnsstemning i hodet mitt, så *må* jeg bare få det ned.
29. Anna: Jeg må sette meg veldig inn i engelsken først egentlig. Så jeg prøver å høre litt engelsk og kanskje lese litt engelske avsnitt og sånn der. For hvis ikke blir det at jeg tenker norsk-engelsk i hodet mitt. Og da blir det veldig feil. Sånn at, jeg skriver sånn trønder-engelsk først, kanskje. Så jeg må sette meg litt inn i engelsk og høre på noe engelsk og få litt flyt da sånn at jeg føler meg som en engelsk radio i hodet mitt, så jeg kan skrive det. Så jeg tenker: «Oi, hvordan ville de ha sagt det på engelsk radio nå?» Så jeg må gjøre litt sånn da.
30. Patricia: Jeg skriver det rett på engelsk og rett på språket og. Ehm. Det går jo okay da, men av og til så er det ord jeg ikke kommer på *helt* på engelsk, så da skriver jeg dem på norsk, også fortsetter jeg videre på teksten, når alle idéene kommer. Så endrer jeg etterpå da. Enten så kommer rødestreken, eller så tar jeg det etterpå. Eller rydder opp i det. Jeg skriver rett på språket og. Men jeg prøver bare mest mulig å få ut idéene mine, og da bare skriver jeg uansett om det blir feil eller ikke. Også retter jeg alltid over det etterpå.
31. Susan: […] Jeg har sånn engelskmappe eller sånn der «engelskskuffe» hjemme. […] Hvis jeg ikke kan å bøye ting rett og sånn, så skriver jeg det ned og har det med til neste gang.

32. Patricia: Og så når jeg er helt ferdig da, så tar jeg en sånn bok med sånne synonymer og antonymer og endrer ord. For da blir det mer rikt språk da. […] så helt til slutt så går jeg alltid over på noen av ordene og gjør dem mer, ja, avansert på en måte.
33. Anna: Jeg synes at den måten der vi skriver er mye bedre. Hvis du føler at du er skikkelig flink i noe da, så satt du 6 i kryss på det høyeste. Så da blir det sånn: «Ja, nå synes de at jeg er høy på meg selv». Så det er veldig bra at du får forklart litt hva du mener. For at hvis du føler at du er flink i et fag eller dårlig i et fag så må du kunne begrunne *hvorfor*.
34. Karl: Jeg liker de med kriteriene, for da får jeg krysse av «det kan jeg» og «det kan jeg».
35. Susan: Det er litt mindre personlig på en måte. Da tar man bare det man kan og kan ikke. Det er det litt mer oversiktlig. Når man skriver tekst så blir det mer at man går inn i detalj og da blir det mer personlig. […] Og at man skriver ned alle feilene sine!
36. John: Jeg liker egentlig å sette opp sånn «høy måloppnåelse», og skrive hva som er høyt og hva som er lavt. Også prøver jeg å se etter det.
37. Karen: Hvis litt sånn blanding av de to da. Altså, det skal jo ikke stå svart på hvitt: «det der skal du *ikke* gjør». Men for eksempel at du har noen få punkter å forholde deg til.
38. Anna: Ja, jeg synes det, eh, er veldig bra for de som tar det alvorlig da. Men det som er dumt er jo. Altså, det er jo alltid noen som ikke orker og som ikke vil gjøre det på ordentlig. Også er det noen som virkelig prøver. Også spørs det på faget også. Det er noen som har *virkelig* lyst til å få til noe i *ett* fag og ikke noe annet. Sånn at, ehm, jeg synes det er bra, men jeg synes kanskje man må. Hvis vi skal gjøre det sånn da, så må vi kanskje lære oss hva vi skal gjøre da.
39. Karl: Vel, det synes jeg var ganske bra. Det er ikke noe vi får ofte gjøre. Så det å gjøre det var jo definitivt en ny ting ja. Eh, kunne ha gjort det flere ganger også.
40. Karl: Egentlig synes jeg læreren skal bestemme mer, for elevene kan jo […] Hvis elevene hadde bestemt så kunne en som burde fått lav karakter fått en kjempehøy karakter, og en som hadde fått en kjempehøy karakter fått en lav karakter. Jeg synes lærerne er mer rettferdige på det.
41. Helen: Vi får på en måte ikke bare sett det fra læreren sin side, men også sett det fra vår side, og kanskje andre sin side også da. Ehm. Og da får vi reflektert litt mer og skjønner litt mer hva som skal til. Også litt hva vi forventer av oss selv, da. Det også. Ikke bare læreren, for lærerne de har på en måte «rett eller galt». De har på en måte fasiten, mens vi må tenke litt mer selv da. Og utifra sånn egenvurdering så ser vi på en måte hva som skal til, og da kan vi på en måte bestemme hvilken måloppnåelse vi ønsker. Og da tar vi det derifra og bruker det i vår tekst. Så det er veldig hjelpende.
42. John: Jeg synes det er veldig bra, for at du får jo være med til å egenvurdere ditt eget arbeid og bestemme hva som skal vurderes på. Så blir du kanskje vurdert på noe du er god på, i stedet for at det du ikke er så god på.
43. Patricia: Det var jo greit for da fikk vi bestemme mer selv. I stedet for at «det skal vi gjøre sånn» og «det skal vi gjøre sånn», så fikk vi skrevet selv hva vi synes var, hva som passet til forskjellige karakterer, etter hvordan vi selv kan gjøre det da. Hva vi klarer bra og, ja, det var ganske greit. Da fikk vi mer bestemme selv da. […] Det hjelper oss også da, som jeg sa, med at vi får en liten del i det da. Og å bestemme og vurdere oss selv etter det, og det hjelper jo læreren til å få et bedre syn på oss og fra vårt synspunkt og ja. Så det er ganske greit egentlig.
44. Karen: Det er jo litt bedre, for da får jo vi selv på en måte ha et lite ord i det også. At det ikke bare er lærerne. At vi på en måte får komme frem, og ikke bare lærerne, hva vi mener. Det er jo ikke sikkert at det blir tatt med. Men at det blir hørt.
45. Susan: Jeg synes det er bra. […] Man blir jo mer bevisst på det selv da i stedet for å få en tilbakemelding med «Det kan du» og «det kan du ikke»
46. Susan: Før hadde vi liksom slik at læreren tok alt, og nå var det slik at elevene tok alt. En mellomting hadde vært bra. Eh, vi er jo ute etter hva læreren vil synes, og ja. Hva vi selv vil synes da. Ja. Litt mer sånn mellomting.
47. John: Hvis du er fornøyd med teksten, så er det er jo det som er det viktigste.
48. Anna: Jeg tror det egentlig er. Det er egentlig litt sannhet i det, fordi læreren bestemmer jo. Men jeg tror at du vet selv hva du er flink i.
49. Karl: Det synes jeg er feil, for læreren er ikke meg. Eh, jeg som vet best om meg selv, liksom.

50. Helen: Selv om læreren har fasiten, så er det fortsatt lurt å egenvurdere og å vurdere seg selv. Og i forhold til teksten du har fremfor deg fordi det er ikke alltid læreren har *helt* fasiten. […] hvis det er nå da, hvor jeg kan velge et fritt tema, så er det kanskje ikke noen fasit fordi det er jo *jeg* som har valgt tema. […] Så jeg er ikke helt sånn enig i utsagnet, nei.
51. John: Hvis du er fornøyd med teksten, så er det jo det som er det viktigste. Ikke hva læreren synes om teksten.
52. Patricia: Nei jeg synes ikke *helt* det stemmer. For når man egenvurderer seg selv, så ser læreren på det man har skrevet. […] Og det sier mye om innsatsen vår da, selv om vi svarer på sånt.[…] Jeg synes virkelig det hjelper med egenvurdering egentlig.
53. Karen: I noen tilfeller kan jo det hende at det er sant. For at det. Det har sikkert ikke noe å si hva vi mener. […] Men i andre tilfeller så er det jo litt feil da. For da kan jo vi komme med innspillene våre, også kan de vurdere oss etter vår vurdering. Så. Jeg tror det har litt med hvilken setting det er i.
54. Susan: Jeg er litt enig og litt uenig. […] For læreren har jo ofte. Det er jo hva læreren ser etter som er ganske viktig. Men jeg vil jo også være med litt selv.
55. Anna: Altså, jeg synes det var veldig bra. Fordi jeg vurderer jo meg selv uansett. Jeg hadde jo ikke levert noe om jeg hadde synes det var kjempedårlig. Sånn at jeg synes at når man har konkrete spørsmål, så kan jeg jo si: «Okay, hva synes du var enkelt da?» - Ja, har jeg fått til det da?. Og så «Hva synes du var vanskelig?» - Har jeg mestret det? Så jeg synes det var veldig greit. Jeg fikk litt mer innsikt også.