FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT AND FEEDBACK IN THE PRIMARY CLASSROOM: AN INTERPLAY BETWEEN TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES

By

PREMA SHOBA PERUMANATHAN

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Abstract

This study explores the interplay between teachers' beliefs and practices in understanding and implementing formative assessment and feedback to enhance student learning. Particularly, it explores teachers' conceptions of effective formative feedback strategies, and the role they should play in their classroom practice. The context for this investigation was writing lessons in three primary classrooms, and included examination of three cases of primary teachers in the greater Wellington Region, New Zealand. Sadler's (1989) theory of effective formative assessment and feedback provided the theoretical framework informing both data collection method and the analysis of data. Analysis of classroom observations, teaching documents and field notes revealed that teachers have adopted many strategies associated with good feedback practice. It was revealed, however, that the influence of teachers' beliefs in the implementation and enactment of formative feedback and the interplay of their beliefs and practices affected their practices. These teachers' conception and beliefs on how formative feedback should be practiced varied, as did their assumptions about their students' abilities. These inconsistencies were further influenced by a range of contextual factors, including the diversity of students' needs, differing collegial support, the structure of school writing programmes, teachers' limited professional development and/or learning about formative assessment and feedback, and teachers' learning having been undertaken in an era that favoured behaviourist practices. This research revealed the need for the provision of ongoing professional learning and development in writing instructions and formative assessment and feedback strategies. This would address the apparent inconsistencies between teachers' conceptions and beliefs regarding effective formative assessment and feedback and their practices. As a result, this would help to promote Sadler's (1989) formative assessment and feedback strategies to achieve more effective classroom teaching and learning practice. Implications for teachers, schools and professional learning and development are outlined and suggestions for further research included.

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Ask, and it shall be given you; seek, and ye shall find; knock, and it shall be opened unto you. For everyone who asks receives, and the one who seeks finds, and the one who knocks it will be opened (Matthew 7: 7-8)

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List of Abbreviation

Interview data: DI   Indicates data obtained from Debra's interviews

LI   Indicates data obtained from Lyn's interviews

JI   Indicates data obtained from Jane's interviews

Observation data: DO   Indicates data obtained from Debra's observations

LO   Indicates data obtained from Lyn's observations

JO   Indicates data obtained from Jane's observations

Email data: DE   Indicates data collected from Debra through emails

LE   Indicates data collected from Lyn through emails

JE   Indicates data collected form Jane through emails

Document data: Ddoc   Indicates all document data from Debra

Ldoc   Indicates all document data from Lyn

Jdoc   Indicates all document data from Jane

Field note data: DF   Indicates field notes from Debra's settings

LF   Indicates field notes from Lyn's settings

JF   Indicates field notes from Jane's settings

CHAPTER ONE:
Introduction

This study explores New Zealand primary school teachers' formative feedback beliefs and practices. It examines teachers' espoused beliefs and understandings of formative assessment and feedback strategies; their purposes for giving feedback; and the implications of these beliefs and understandings for their theory in the practice of formative assessment and feedback. In this chapter, I provide the contextual and background information relevant to the research project. This chapter starts by making explicit my interest and position in regards to formative assessment and feedback in general, and in how it has been applied in New Zealand classrooms specifically. A brief discussion of my objective follows. Towards the end of the chapter, the significance of conducting research into formative feedback is justified, and finally, an overview of the eight chapters is presented.

Research Interest and Objective of Study

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) state that "all research is interpretive; it is guided by the researcher's set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied" (p. 22). As interviews, observations and analysis are filtered through the researcher's worldviews, theoretical positions, and perspective it is imperative that I explicitly state my own position and assumptions, in order to clarify the trustworthiness of my research findings (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). The understanding of the "qualitative-researcher as a bricoluer or a quilt maker," as stated by Denzin and Lincoln (2011), is fitting as a description of my research; the tools, methods and strategies I utilised were intended to produce a "pieced–together set of representations that are fitted to the specifics of a complex situation"(p. 4). The central aim of interpretive, qualitative study is "to portray the complex pattern of what is being studied in sufficient depth and detail so that someone who has not experienced it can understand it" (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorenson, 2006, p. 450). This is what I have set out to do.

My interest in formative assessment and feedback arose from my own teaching experience, and my struggles to understand formative feedback. My knowledge of feedback was in the context of the Malaysian education system, where feedback was a summative process of giving grades and marks, and where written work is seen as a product. All the classes I taught, and the professional learning and development I underwent, were aimed at increasing students' English proficiency to reach national standards. At the end of Year Six (Primary Six), students sat their first national

evaluation exam, the Primary School Evaluation Test, or Ujian Pencapaian Sekolah Rendah (commonly known as UPSR in Malay)[1]. These results were then compared, charted, and published and distributed to all primary schools. Those schools that had more pupils scoring five A's were considered effective schools. Schools that attained below the set 40% mark were labelled as low performance schools, thus attracting continuous visits, consultations (national, state and district), which of course were a worry to the schools and teachers. As a result, educational standards in Malaysia were associated with examination results, and schools' main concern was that teachers prepare students for these examinations. I often wondered if providing grades was enough feedback to support these students' future learning.

My interest in formative feedback became stronger when I was tutoring in-service teachers at a Malaysian university. Teachers attending professional learning and development courses were sceptical about how feedback could inform learning and raise students' achievement. Teachers were reluctant to use formative feedback as a classroom teaching strategy (Mustaffa, Aman, Teo Kok, & Noor, 2011) as they found it time consuming and disrupting to the normal classroom practice. While my interest was stimulated by the situation in Malaysian classrooms, it would have been difficult to conduct my study in that context, because formative assessment practices are less embedded in teachers' practice than they are in New Zealand. New Zealand provided an ideal context for me to explore my practical interest in formative assessment, because of its constructivist curriculum, which requires teachers to focus on individual differences and abilities. Schools in New Zealand practice both formative and summative assessment to enhance students' learning. This was an ideal setting for my research, which aimed to explore the critical relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices in giving formative feedback to their students on writing.

From these experiences, teachers' processes of providing feedback became the core of my interest, and the basis of this research. I was interested in what teachers believed about feedback and how these beliefs impacted their feedback strategies. The recent implementation of National Standards in New Zealand increased my interest, specifically in finding out how teachers might be able to implement formative feedback in classroom writing lessons now that were are facing similar challenges to Malaysian teachers in reporting against standardised assessments.

Essentially, what began as curiosity has developed into a theoretical and conceptual interest in formative assessment in the area of writing, as well as its

[1] Primary School Evaluation Test, also known as Ujian Penilaian Sekolah Rendah (commonly abbreviated as UPSR), is a national examination taken by all Malaysian students at the end of their sixth year in primary school. It is prepared and examined by the Malaysian Examinations Syndicate (Lembaga Peperiksaan Malaysia), an agency that constitutes the Ministry of Education.

application to general classroom practice. Like many qualitative researchers, my stance is born out of the interplay between personal experience and theoretical knowledge. In conducting this study, I intentionally focussed on formative assessment and feedback in New Zealand, as New Zealand schools have been practising formative feedback for a longer period than Malaysian schools have, and consequently are likely to have a stronger understanding of formative assessment and feedback. By carrying out the research in New Zealand, I provide a distinct set of lenses into the New Zealand classroom; I am an outsider getting an insider's view of a natural setting.

Background of Study: In the New Zealand Educational Context

Many countries have been trying to make modifications in their assessment policy and practice to improve students' learning and educational outcomes. These modifications are often evident in national policy statements and guidelines for professional development related to assessment focus. In New Zealand, such modifications have been crucial to integrated assessment in teaching and learning (Ministry of Education, 1994). The New Zealand Curriculum (NZC) (Ministry of Education, 2007b) stipulates that effective assessment should involve students knowing their current level of performance and the direction of their desired performance to "clarify for them what they know and can do and what they still need to learn" (p. 49). As the Ministry argues, teacher/student interactions should involve discussion of goals, strategies, progress, and should develop peer and self-assessment skills that lead to students becoming autonomous learners. Following this, they propose that ideal teacher formative feedback helps students reach the desired outcomes and criteria of success through the planning of teaching strategies and assessment criteria that match students (Ministry of Education, 2007a).

Through the 70s, 80s, and 90s, the educational perception of assessment has gone through distinctive reforms across numerous countries. It has significantly evolved in the areas of teaching and learning, principally in shifting from a teacher centred pedagogy to a student centred pedagogy (Black & Wiliam, 1998a; Earl & Katz, 2000, 2008). In New Zealand, teachers have faced a stream of new initiatives and requirements for change in different aspects of education (Earl & Katz, 2000) such as Assessment for Better learning (ABeL) operating between 1995-1999 (Brown, 2008; Crooks 2002) which was later replaced by Assess to Learn (AToL) in 2002, and Assessment Tools for Teaching and Learning (asTTle) in 2003 (Hattie, Brown, & Keegan, 2003), and National Standards in 2010 (Ministry of Education, 2010b). Reforms have required restructuring and changing of the curriculum (and assessment practices), and have required major changes to how teaching is done in New Zealand

classrooms. Teachers have been at the centre of these new complex and major changes as reforms are inculcated into their classroom culture and practice.

The current self-governing model of New Zealand schools allows schools to respond to the needs of their learning community, requirements from government initiatives like national standards, and issues raised by ERO, by choosing their own specific professional development foci. It has been argued that reforms have often failed to achieve their desired outcomes due to teachers being directed to participate in the initiatives with little comprehension of their needs (Holt-Reynolds, 2000). Because teachers' roles require them to both advocate for and implement changes introduced by education reform (Hargreaves, 2011; Hargreaves A. & Fullan, 1998), they hold key positions in determining the success of those changes (Avalos, 2011; Battista 1994; Thomas & Pederson, 2003). Teachers' responses to reforms are highly influential, yet studies have indicated that teachers' classroom practices do not consistently align with them (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004; Spillane, 1999). Without the necessary understanding of the underlying theoretical and conceptual reasons for new initiatives in teaching, teachers are unlikely to meaningfully change their practice (Duit & Treagust, 2003; Lock & Munby, 2000; Pedder, James & MacBeath, 2005).

With this emerging knowledge, policy makers have been concerned with making changes to New Zealand assessment practice (Black, 2005; James & Pedder, 2006). New Zealand teachers are expected to identify and focus on assessment directed towards improving learning, specifically providing constructive feedback. Improving both teaching and learning has been identified as the primary purpose of assessment in the primary school (Ministry of Education, 2007a). However, studies have reported that teachers' feedback in actual practice is often unrelated to the goals of learning and enhancing performance (Hattie & Jaeger, 1998); or is too focussed on students' effort and attitude (Knight, 2003). The Ministry's national policy mandates school-based assessment in primary school for the purpose of raising both student achievement, and quality of teaching (Ministry of Education, 2007b), however no compulsory assessment regime is specifically selected, and therefore the practices are voluntary.

Additionally, there is little research on the influence of professional development (PD) upon the personal interpretations and beliefs that New Zealand teachers hold in relation to their individual classroom practice (Hawe, Dixon, & Watson, 2008). Despite PD programmes being implemented, research findings indicate that teachers are still struggling to understand the purpose and nature of formative assessment in the classroom (Dixon & Wiliams, 2003; Dixon, Hawe & Parr, 2011).

Additionally, it is apparent that many teachers lack confidence when teaching writing (Dix 2012; Dix & Cawkwell, 2011; Locke, Whitehead, Dix & Cawkwell, 2011). Studies have reported that feedback in New Zealand classrooms remains overwhelmingly corrective instead of developmental, and is frequently deficient in specificity, or devoid of constructive critique (Ward & Dix, 2001; 2004). Student involvement in the structuring of learning goals, learning intentions, and success criteria has been an exception rather than a rule, and often feedback has not been given in point of reference to the success criteria or the deep features of writing (Hawe et al., 2008). This contradicts established best practice, that students learn best when they take control of their learning (Absolum, Flockton, Hattie, Hipkins & Reid, 2009). Therefore, there is a real need to find out, after a decade of similar findings and on-going PD intended to counteract them, where teachers' beliefs and formative assessment and feedback practices are failing to align. However many studies note the dearth of empirical evidence associated with the process of supporting teachers in challenging their beliefs about teaching and learning to enable change to manifest in the classroom (Hargreaves, 2005; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar & Fung, 2007). This research is aimed at contributing knowledge on the current implementation formative feedback in NZ classrooms (Black & Wiliam, 1998a).

The Importance and Significance of the Study

Feedback has been an important moderator and component of formative assessment to make it effective in enhancing learning (Bell & Cowie, 1999; Black & Wiliam, 1998b; Torrance & Pryor, 1998; Sadler, 1989, 1998, 2009b, 2010). Effective feedback can support learners, and lead to future learning gains. Concerns over students' development and achievements in writing practice have been widely reported both internationally and nationally (Cutler & Graham, 2008; Dalke & Grobstein, 2010; Dyson & Freedman, 2003; Hawe et al., 2008; Locke et al., 2011). Yet few have investigated the meaning of formative feedback in relation to teacher beliefs, or implementation of formative feedback in writing lessons in particular (Kaplan, 2008).

New Zealand teachers have experienced repeated theoretical and pedagogical shifts (Dix, 2012), and have been required to adopt these changes into their classroom practice. It is therefore extremely relevant to attempt to comprehend teachers' beliefs about formative feedback, and to investigate the extent to which these formative feedback practices interplay with their practices in the teaching of writing. It is hoped that this study will provide valuable insights into what teachers beliefs about formative

feedback are, and how these beliefs are conceptualised and implemented into their classroom practice.

Another contributing factor in student writing difficulties is, as research indicates, the paucity of teacher knowledge (Glasswell, Parr & McNaughton, 2003; Torrance, 2007). Teachers' engagement in PD has the potential to increase their knowledge and confidence about teaching writing through questioning of their beliefs and practices. For example, Parr and Timperley (2010) have suggested that teachers themselves need more knowledge about teaching writing. Other studies have reported that teachers' experience with assessment tools and their understanding of writing hinders the ability to communicate knowledge to students (Limbrick, Buchanan, Good & Shwarcz, 2010). Findings also indicate that teachers lack confidence in using data from the assessment of writing to inform and influence their teaching, thus admitting gaps in their knowledge about writing instructions and strategies (Limbrick et al., 2010).

It is apparent that teachers are still in the learning stages of implementing New Zealand's newest education reforms. There may be gaps in their understanding and application of various different pedagogies relating to formative assessment and feedback, and new designs for writing instructions that are being implemented in New Zealand. Thus the importance of investigating and sharing information based on teachers' professional judgment of those standards is obvious; such an investigation may inform PD design in support of other new initiatives.

The Structure and Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into eight chapters. This chapter, Chapter One, has introduced the research undertaken in this thesis through a brief description of the researcher's interest and objective in undertaking this study. The study is situated within a wider setting of developments in formative assessment and feedback in education in general, and within the New Zealand context in particular. The significance of the research topic is outlined.

Chapter Two reviews the bodies of literature relevant to the research topic. In this chapter, the development and evolving understanding of assessment, formative assessment and the role teachers play in the process. The significance of students' role as an insider in the process is considered. The ongoing theoretical discussion on formative feedback, and New Zealand initiatives including the in-depth description of the feedback phenomenon are conceptualised and contextualised within the classroom setting. Assessment for learning and the significance of formative feedback strategies

(such as peer and self-assessment), strategies to engage students in authentic settings, and to develop their evaluative and productive expertise in the enactment of formative feedback strategies are also considered. The rationale of selecting the writing lesson for this study is discussed. This is followed by discussion of the influence of teachers' beliefs in the process of uptake and enactment of formative assessment and feedback. Drawing from the literature focussed on teachers' beliefs and educational experiences, the various influences on their beliefs are highlighted. Particular attention is paid to the significance and influence of these beliefs on teaching and learning practices in their individual classrooms. A range of research findings related to formative assessment and feedback are discussed, in order to highlight the disjuncture between the understandings, beliefs, and practices of teachers as they have implemented assessment initiatives in their classrooms. Lastly, Sadler's (1989) theory of effective formative assessment and feedback is introduced as the theoretical framework that informed and influenced data collection and analysis in the research is presented and explained. A detailed theory of formative assessment and feedback by Sadler (1989) is outlined, and the impact of that theory on research and practice is detailed. Finally, a sound justification for the selection of Sadler's formation of assessment and feedback is provided.

In Chapter Three, my research methodology, process, and procedures are outlined. My research questions are presented. Justification for the selection of the interpretive paradigm and the use of qualitative methodology are also presented, as are detailed justification and description of the process by which I selected participants for my research, the techniques employed in my data collection, and the methods and modes by which I analysed my data. The chapter concludes with a discussion of ethical principles in qualitative research: issues of trustworthiness are addressed, particularly by outlining the four evaluative criteria essential to the trustworthiness of qualitative research methodology.

In Chapters Four, Five and Six, the findings from individual participants in my multiple case studies are presented. The emerging themes from each case are highlighted in the analysis. In these chapters, the teacher's writing lesson, their own definitions and beliefs regarding what constitutes good formative feedback practices, their discussions of what influences these beliefs, and the implementation of these beliefs into their feedback practice is reported and analysed. In each case the diversity of beliefs and practices of teachers in teaching writing, and the contrasting feedback strategies between different sites of study are discussed in depth.

In Chapter Seven, the cross case analysis of the research findings are analysed and discussed in relation to Sadler's (1989) theoretical framework for effective

formative assessment and feedback. Each teacher's contrasting feedback strategies, the differences and similarities in their approaches from planning to the enactment of the formative assessment and feedback strategies into their writing lessons are analysed and discussed. To help guide the discussion in the findings in this chapter, the cross-cases are examined under two significant sections; teachers' and students' role in the formative assessment and feedback practice and the strategies teachers implement in the classroom. The relationship between teachers' belief and their practice is considered based on their expectation about students and teachers confidence in the uptake and enactment of formative assessment and feedback strategies. The discussion of my findings is made with reference to the literature

In Chapter Eight, conclusions are drawn in regard to my research topic and questions. The implications of my findings for formative feedback practices and for the future professional development for teachers are discussed. Critical areas for future research are acknowledged. The chapter concludes with a brief justification of my study's contribution to the field of formative assessment and feedback.

CHAPTER TWO:
Review of Literature

The role of formative assessment and feedback in the classroom has been an evolving paradigm, and one that has been challenging in its implications for both teaching and learning. It has drawn in research from various theoretical perspectives, which have studied classroom assessment and feedback from constructivist, socio-cultural, metacognitive and self-regulation theory approaches. As a result of the complex and dynamic nature of assessment in the teaching and learning of writing, in both action and theory (Black & Wiliam, 1998a; James, 2006; Perrenoud, 1998; Sadler, 1989), teachers' and students' roles in the process of assessment have been redefined and explored.

In this chapter, the review of the literature is divided into 5 sections. The first section provides an overview of the concepts underpinning the developing assessment in education paradigm foregrounding the current understanding of assessment within the new paradigm. Issues relating to formative purposes in assessment, formative and summative assessment as applied in the classroom, and the role of formative assessment in enhancing learning are considered. The second section highlights the emphasis of teacher's roles in formative assessment, and the role of formative assessment within the New Zealand context. Assessment initiatives and formative assessment in the classroom setting are discussed. As becomes apparent, uptake and enactment of assessment into classroom by merely supplementing strategies into pre-existing practice, when not accompanied by any change in beliefs or behaviour, has little positive effect on student learning.

In the third section, assessment for learning with emphasis on students' roles in their own learning during the assessment process, is reviewed and discussed. Within assessment for learning, students' roles in partnership with teachers - becoming insiders in the feedback sessions through self and peer-assessment - is explained and discussed. Assigning learners a significant role in their learning requires teachers to rethink the roles and responsibilities held by the teachers and their learners (Black & Wiliam, 2004; Gardner, 2006). Relevant research studies on the types of formative feedback practices and the implementation of peer and self-assessment are reviewed and discussed.

All individuals hold specific beliefs about their capabilities and capacities to act. Significantly, early experiences help shape individual beliefs and form belief systems. These belief systems act as filters to their subsequent experiences. In the fourth section,

the nature and function of teacher's beliefs is reviewed and discussed. Researchers such as Kagan (1992) and Nespor (1987) have argued that teachers assign different meaning to their teaching, and unless there is an inquiry into the beliefs they hold, it will be difficult to understand the true sense of their teaching and beliefs. For this reason, this section includes discussion of the nature, function and significance of teachers' beliefs, including their beliefs about their own self-efficacy, and the relationship between their beliefs and practices. Given the nature of the research study, consideration is given to the influence of teacher's beliefs in the uptake and implementation of educational reforms, particularly those concerning formative assessment and feedback in the classroom. Finally, relevant research studies on formative feedback beliefs and practices within writing lessons are reviewed in order to place the study within a wider context of formative feedback practices and student achievement and performance.

In the next section the disjuncture between the integration of newer assessment strategies, and the understandings and practices of teachers are considered. Justification for choosing formative assessment and feedback within the writing lesson as a site to effectively example these disjunctions is provided is explained. In the final section of the literature review, I present Sadler's (1989) model of formative assessment and feedback as an appropriate framework to explore teacher's formative feedback practices in the writing classroom. In this research, Sadler's (1989) comprehensive theory of formative assessment and feedback influenced both the data collection and data analysis, thus the explication of Sadler's theoretical framework and supporting argument (including the examination of the three conditions necessary for effective feedback) is presented with justification. The impact of his theory on teachers practice through other research endeavour is also discussed.

The Significance of Assessment in Education

While the role of the assessment has evolved, the process of enactment of assessment in the classroom to enhance learning has proven to be challenging to teachers. Merely adding new strategies into the classroom practice has proven insufficient – evolutions in educational theory have required teachers to rethink their roles to help students maximise their learning and becoming effective learners.

A paradigm shift: The formative purpose of assessment

Assessment and its role in teaching and learning have interested scholars and generated educational research since the 1970s, when researchers began to question

the effectiveness of the traditional focus of classroom assessment: measuring, grading and evaluating students' performances to external standards (Black & Wiliam, 1998a; Broadfoot, 1992; Gipps, 1994). Such assessment typically involved a process of collecting, interpreting, and recording student performances against a set task or criteria of achievement (Harlen, Gipps, Broadfoot & Nuttal, 1992; Stiggins & DuFour, 2009), and was typically aligned with behaviourist understandings of teaching and learning. The theory of behaviourism focuses on overt behaviours that can be measured (Good & Brophy, 1978), with that view the mind responds to observable stimulus, thus ignoring the capability of thought processing occurring internally (Skinner, 1968; Thorndike, 1912; Watson, 1919). It locates learning as external to learners, and information and skills as things that must be transmitted to learners from authoritative sources. Within behaviourism, students are viewed as passive recipients, while teachers play a more significant role.

The concept of formative assessment first appeared in the late 1960s (Scriven, 1967), but it took time for this concept to be adopted by education researchers; in the 1970s, 80s and 90s, researchers and educators shifted their focus towards emphasizing the role of assessment in enhancing learning (Assessment Reform Group, 1999; Black & Wiliam, 1998a; Bloom, Hastings & Madaus, 1971; Broadfoot, 1998; Crooks, 1988; Gipps, 1999). This shifting trend in research reflected and affected the roles of teachers and learners in the assessment process; to a certain extent they redefined assessment. As literature in the field of assessment suggests, the assessment process in education has changed dramatically from 1967: from the learner being dependent on the teacher to the learner being able (and encouraged) to form a partnership in learning with their teacher (Perrenoud, 1998; Sadler, 1989, 2009b).

The identification of the formative function of assessment meant that teachers' previously held understanding of assessment to evaluate and measure learning was no longer considered effective in classrooms. Within this new paradigm, learning, teaching and assessment was conceptualised as an integrative process (Harlen & James, 1997). Since the application of formative assessment into education, significant attention has been paid to the integrated nature of teaching, learning and assessment (Bell & Cowie, 2001; Gipps, 1994; Sadler, 1989; Torrance & Pryor, 1998). Influenced by the current thinking on effective learning, the conceptualisation of assessment and its implication for teaching (Black, 2005; Black & Wiliam, 1998a; James, 2006), and particularly how assessment informs learning (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & Wiliam, 2004; Boud, 2000) researchers increasingly discussed assessment as a tool for enhancing learning (rather than evaluating it). This reflects the fact that although the initial notion of assessment were shaped and influenced by behaviourist and constructivist literature,

sociocultural perspectives are now much more prevalent in educational theory (Gipps, 2002; James, 2006; Shepard, 2005).

However, there is a complication in requiring teachers to seamlessly integrate the directions of this new theoretical paradigm into their classroom practice. In western countries, including New Zealand, many teachers were taught and trained to become teachers when behaviourism influenced assessment, and teaching and learning generally. As noted, since then, theoretical understandings of teaching and learning (and the role of assessment in teaching and learning) have gone through radical changes. Thus, in essence, many teachers are now caught in a paradigm shift: the current conception of formative assessment and feedback has advocated teaching and learning as facilitative and student-centred, and as part of an interactive learning environment, with an emphasis on learning that takes place at individual rate (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002), but this is in contrast to behaviourism, particularly to the centrality of teacher control of the transmission of knowledge.

Additionally, the changing paradigm underlying the nature of assessment, teaching, and learning has resulted in changes to the language used, and the roles and responsibilities that teachers and learners hold in the process itself. Teachers have had these various changes developed and reflected in assessment policy to outline and inform assessment practice - in New Zealand like other western countries policy makers have supported assessment (James, 2006; Ministry of Education, 1993, 1994) to raise students' achievements (Black et al., 2004) – but arguably, they have not been supported in doing the conceptual work necessary to supplant this new language over the older paradigm they were trained in.

Formative and summative issues in assessment

In the classroom, assessment falls into two categories: summative assessment, which aims to provide students with their 'current capability' and identify where further progress needs to be made, and formative assessment, which is focused on 'enhancing' student development through teacher-student interactions (Crooks 2002, p. 241). Formative assessment, according to Bell and Cowie (2001), is a process by which in order to enhance learning, teachers recognise and respond to students' individual learning, whereas summative assessment provides teachers with information on students' level of proficiency. Wyse and Torrance (2009) state that teacher/student interaction is significant to successful formative assessment strategies.

As indicated, summative assessment is performance based, and formative assessment focuses on the process of learning (or mastery) and on goal orientations

(Dweck, 1986; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Watkins, 2000). Summative assessment, the assessment that teachers make at the end of the process of learning, identifies student's current capability, and requires that the teacher grade the students' proficiency or competence. This provides opportunities for policy makers, teachers, parents, and students themselves to monitor the educational progress a student makes, compared to external standards or the performance of their peers (Bell & Cowie, 2001). Summative assessment has shortcomings, such as being individualistic and isolated from the learning process, but is still relevant to the assessment process.

Formative assessment, on the other hand, is conceptualized as a contextualised and integral part of learning, and has a multi-method approach instead of a single score. Thus, formative assessment offers a holistic alternative to summative assessment, something that has been recognized within constructivist learning theory (Gipps, 1994; Holt-Reynolds, 2000), psychological theories of learning (Boud, 1995; Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & Wiliam, 2003; Hall & Burke, 2004; Nichol & MacFarlane-Dick, 2006) and socio-cultural theories of learning (Black & Wiliam, 2006; Gipps, 1999; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008). Additionally, a number of studies have taken into account Bordieu's sociological perspective on the influence of different assessment systems, particularly those asserting that formative assessment affects learners' identity formation and disposition for learning (Ecclestone, 2002; Ecclestone & Pryor, 2003; Torrance & Pryor, 1998).

However, surveys on teachers' understanding of formative assessment have revealed that assessment is still typically deployed by teachers as either a measurement or a co-inquiry (Hargreaves, 2005), a tendency which echoes Gipps' (1994) observations made nearly a decade earlier. Assessment becomes formative when the evidence it generates is used to adapt teaching to enhance learning. Other definitions have stressed that formative assessment is a process used by teachers and students to enhance learning (Cowie & Bell, 1999), or is carried out during instruction to improve teaching/learning (Shepard, 2005, 2008). Black and Wiliam (1998b) defined formative assessment as all activities carried out by teachers and students in assessing themselves, provided the information is used to modify teaching and learning activities by both teachers and students. Therefore, in order to ensure effective formative assessment, they advise teachers to carry out formative assessment during learning, and to employ carefully chosen activities designed to enhance learning by involving students in the process, using the collected information to feedback into their teaching.

These differing definitions reveal a second complication for teachers implementing the new paradigm: the term formative assessment is open to multiple

interpretations and often means no more than the assessment process being frequently carried out, or improvised in the process of teaching. Formative assessment has been defined as frequent and interactive assessment of students' progress, where teachers identifying learning needs is essential to modifying their teaching to this end (Looney, 2007), and as a tool to be used by teachers to identify specific misconceptions and mistakes made by students while teaching (Kahl, 2005). In practice, however, it commonly provides teachers with information on their teaching, but does not involve or inform students about their learning (Harlen et al., 1992).

Further, the purposes for using formative assessment in the classroom vary widely: as information and feedback to students on their performance to enhance their learning (Irons, 2008; Shute, 2008; Wiliam & Thompson, 2008); as part of classroom activity and instruction (Boston, 2002; Wiggins, 2011); as something that engages students in self-directed learning environments (Stiggins & Chappuis, 2005), and as an effective element of instruction in learning (Wiliam, 2011). Overall, a developing shift in the understanding of assessment has resulted in changes to the language used by, and the roles and responsibilities assigned to both teachers and students in the assessment process. However, for many teachers, the changes have not been uniform.

As noted, formative assessment is focussed on enhancing student development during learning, through teacher/student interaction (Crooks, 2002), but as researchers have found, the distinction between the two strategies is often blurred in teachers' understanding, particularly regarding strategies for implementation of both types of assessment in classrooms. Especially, this is because teachers are still unsure of how the formative aspects of assessment work in practice. In their classroom, they might view themselves as providing formative assessment, when in fact they are conducting an on-going summative assessment. Harlen (2000) illustrates there is still lack of theoretical coherence between espoused theory and practice (Schon, 1983), which raises questions about teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning, and how they should underpin classroom teaching.

Harlen and James (1997) argue that one of the major influences on teachers' predicament was the lack of understanding they had of differentiating between assessment for summative purposes and formative assessment. According to these researchers, teachers often struggled to differentiate assessment for two distinct purposes, meaning that the task itself became a challenge to them (Dixon & Wiliams, 2003; Harris & Brown, 2009; Taras, 2008). In response to these findings, researchers recommended professional development to help clarify formative and summative assessment, and to develop teachers' understanding of the practice of providing feedback (Dixon, 1999; Hill, 2000).

The role of formative assessment in supporting learning

As established above, formative assessment should support the learning process, and summative assessment should verify attainment of individual standards (Black & Wiliam, 1998a; Sadler, 1989, 2010; Shepard, 2009; Wiliam & Thompson, 2008). While researchers argue that the main feature of formative in the assessment process should enhance students' learning, the rising agreement among educators is that assessment can be used to establish students' achievement and measure their performance and attainment in learning (Black & Wiliam, 2004), and that this information should be used to enhance students learning and performance *during the learning process* (Delandhere, 2002; Bell & Cowie, 2001).

Formative assessment brings together the cognitive and sociocultural theories of learning. Firstly, from the cognitive perspective, formative assessment supports teachers and students to work consistently in the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). The ZPD is the area where learning takes place and when utilising formative assessment effectively, teachers are in fact involved in a process of gathering and interpreting evidence to structure learning through scaffolding information with the students. As prerequisite to leading learning, rather than reacting retrospectively to it, teachers need be aware of students' abilities through careful observation of emerging moments of learning, using formative assessment and determine what is within students' reach. Formative assessment in this context enables teachers to provide students with experiences and support that ideally enables students to incorporate new learning into their generally developing learning skills.

Secondly, from the sociocultural perspective, formative assessment involves the process of teacher/student interaction in the learning process. According to most (if not all) models of formative assessment, the assessment process should not be unidirectional, but should involve both teachers and students in reciprocal activity within a learning community (teacher/student engagement should take place within a community of practice). The teacher/student roles, goals and interaction are designed to support learning, which is realized through the gathering of evidence and using feedback to inform learning (Sadler, 2009b).

However, as the complications outlined above suggest, the theory and practice of formative assessment and feedback seem to be at a crossroads. Justification of their use and effectiveness, and development of their specifics are increasingly present in educational literature, yet the limited scope of their utilisation in teachers' actual practices has been repeatedly highlighted (Bell & Cowie, 2001; Swaffield, 2011). As a result, various research and development projects have been designed and carried out

to investigate teachers' understandings and formative feedback strategies in primary schools (Hawe et al., 2008; Marsh, 2007; Parr & Timperley, 2010).

Torrance and Pryor (1998) conducted a significant study that has made landmark contributions in providing insights and understanding in assessment practice that supports teaching and learning. Their findings were informed by extensive observations, interviews and documentary data. Torrance and Pryor, based in United Kingdom, sought to examine teachers' assessment in infant classrooms, and recognize teacher practices that established formative activity. They developed a convergent/divergent formative assessment framework to explain teachers' assessment practice. Particularly, they noted that teachers operating within a convergent formative assessment model aimed to discover "if the learner knows, understands and can perform" (p. 193). Employing convergent formative assessment involves planning, recording students' performance through checklists. Teachers often asked closed questions, and focussed on errors with the expectation of receiving predetermined correct responses. Convergent assessment also involved authorities, judgemental and quantitative feedback, and was focussed on communicating criteria closely linked to summative assessment. Learners in convergent formative assessment appeared to be recipients, conforming to a behaviourist point of view and embedded within an Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequence; the teacher, once again, plays the dominant role in this type of assessment.

In contrast, other teachers' formative assessment practices followed a divergent model, and included flexible or complex planning as well as open questioning tasks that were learner directed. The teachers' focus on miscues in learners' work was in order to provide insight into their understanding. This model contained exploratory, provisional or descriptive feedback, with intent to further engaging with the learner. Discussion within a divergent model of assessment was intended to prompt students' reflection on the task context and construct future understanding to which new knowledge could be applied. The divergent assessment practice required teachers to have a holistic view of criteria, and a double responsibility in involving students as initiators and recipients of assessment, through analysis of interactions between the curriculum and learners. Torrance and Pryor argue this form of assessment conforms to the socio-cultural view of education: an intention to teach within the ZPD and give importance to the context of assessment. It becomes a part of an on-going collaborative dialogue between teacher and learner. However, significantly, in their study, convergent formative assessment was the most practiced by teachers observed.

Another significant study situated in New Zealand and conducted by Cowie and Bell (1999) provided a description of teachers' classroom assessment practices that led

to the identification of two forms of formative assessment activity within the classroom: planned formative assessment and interactive formative assessment. Planned formative assessment requires teachers' actions to include three cyclical stages: eliciting, interpreting and acting on assessment information. This is related to teachers planning prior to teaching though brainstorming to find out students' knowledge, or questioning at the beginning of the lesson to check understanding. The primary purpose is to obtain information for teachers to use to inform subsequent and future teaching, another significant aspect of formative assessment.

In comparison, interactive formative assessment takes place during teacher/student interaction, and is embedded in practice. It is driven by learning from the information gained through the interaction, either through responses and questions or non-verbal responses. During this time teachers aimed to notice, recognise and respond to the learning needs of their students (Cowie & Bell, 1999). In their findings, researchers Cowie and Bell (1999) revealed that the 10 teachers involved engaged in both planned and interactive formative assessment, moving backward and forward between the two, and were sometimes unaware they were in fact practicing formative assessment. Responding to and acting on student information was deemed more difficult than eliciting and noticing. Teachers in the study identified other factors that affected their enactment and implementation of formative assessment, notably a stressful new curriculum. Both this study, and those of Torrance and Pryor (1998), suggest that teachers may adjust the kinds of feedback that they offer when engaging in formative assessment and that an emphasis on interactive practices may change depending on the phase and purpose of the assessment.

Research, in particular reviews about formative assessment, indicates that limiting assessment to summative strategies negatively impacts students' learning and achievement (Black & Wiliam, 1998b; Crooks, 1988; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Natriello, 1987). However, limited ranges of formative assessment are often practiced in traditional classrooms (Popham, 2013; Stiggins & DuFour, 2009). Further, while within the literature the term formative assessment is often consistent, at times it appears in different guises, bounded within either behaviourist or constructivist theories (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). Teachers often fall into either promoting a constructivist learning environment or a behaviourist learning environment for their students. Within the constructivist approach students are able to share and deepen their understanding of assessment and quality of work through formative assessment and feedback process.

By many conceptions of effective formative assessment, teachers' language to learners is considered critical, thus creating opportunities for teacher/student

interaction is important to learning (Bell & Gilbert, 1996). This is so particularly because it enables teachers to identify misconception, misinterpretation, and errors in responses, and to provide information and plan for modification of these misunderstandings (Gipps, 1994; Wheatley, 1991). Students benefit from this style of interaction, as it leads to the achievement of shared meanings that elicit answers to stimulate learning (in contrast to a student/teacher interaction that functions simply to check a student's understanding) (Torrance & Pryor, 1998; Wiliam, 2011). As a result of these findings, there has been rethinking of the roles of teachers and learners during questioning, feedback, interaction and classroom learning.

Formative Assessment: An Emphasis on Teacher's Role

During the 1980s and 1990s, the inquiry into formative assessment was focused on teachers' roles (Harlen, 1998; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). For example, the explanation of formative assessment by Tunstall and Gipps (1996) below provides an integrative link between assessment and teaching, but without any association between learning and assessment:

> *Formative assessment is the process of appraising, judging or evaluating students' work or performance and using that to shape and improve their competence*

(p. 389).

The focus of the research agenda was based on the teacher's formative evaluation practices. Similarly, Torrance and Pryor (1998) voiced criticism that some of researchers had overplayed the role of teachers at the expense of leaners (for instance, Harlen, 1998; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). Extending their argument, they argue that underplaying the role learners' play in formative assessment conforms to the behaviourist interpretation of formative assessment. Formative assessment located in the act of teaching placed teachers in control of the process and learners as dependent. This shift in thinking about effective formative assessment in the classroom has brought teachers' and students' roles in the process into the spotlight (Clark, 2011; Harlen & James, 1997; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Sadler, 1989, 2009b; Swaffield, 2011). Teachers' roles and the assessment process in the classroom have been scrutinised, and the idea of the classroom as a 'black box' has been critiqued by frequent testing and evaluation (Black & Wiliam, 1998b).

Perrenoud (1998), through invitation, commented on the major review of the research investigating formative assessment by Black and Wiliam (1998a), and emphasised the need to place formative assessment in a broader context:

This [feedback] no longer seems to me, however, to be the central issue. It would seem more important to concentrate on the theoretical models of learning and its regulation and their implementation. These constitute the real systems of thought and action, in which feedback is only one element (Perrenoud, 1998, p. 86).

As outlined, these trends in research are evidence of a general shift in the understanding of assessment which has seen teachers reshape their beliefs and classroom practices since the 1970s. However, studies have shown that the policy changes have had little structural effect on teacher's beliefs. Commonly, programmes conforming to their existing beliefs are interpreted and acted upon, and those challenging them are discarded (Brownlee, Dart, Boulton-Lewis & McGrindle, 1998). For example, teachers who were supposedly 'the expert,' giving the marks and grades in the 70s, struggled when they were increasingly expected to play the new role of a facilitator, forming a partnership with students by drawing them into the assessment process as a means of raising achievement (Black et al., 2003; Sadler, 1989). In fact, this theoretical change in emphasis in the role of teachers in the 80s and 90s did little to challenge the traditional roles played by teachers and learners; teachers still played an 'expert' role, and students were still tacitly encouraged to remain dependent on the teacher for assessment information.

Teachers' varying approaches to implementation are influenced by their beliefs about teaching, students' roles and learning. Other significant findings from studies support the notion that teachers do not always understand formative assessment, and so struggle to make sense of their new roles and responsibilities (Pedder et al., 2005; Poulson & Avramidis, 2004). As Pedder et al. (2005) assert, what teachers claim they practice and what their actual practices are is frequently subject to discrepancy (though it is important to note that findings from surveys indicate teachers are often aware of their values/practice gaps). Teachers in Pedder's research differentiated learning that takes place in the classroom from learning outside the classroom, and valued individual and social learning as significant in creating learning opportunities for the students. However they gave particularly low values for learning that involved engaging with research, pupils' ideas and feedback. Poulson and Avramidis (2004) claimed that this was a result of teachers' differing beliefs about what education should mean, noting that although educational beliefs are individual to each teacher, they have been developed in a specific socio-historical context that indirectly influences their construction of formative assessment practice.

Additionally, in the last two decades, as research into implementing new forms of assessment, and specifically formative feedback, has been highlighted (Black &

Wiliam, 2009; Harlen, 2005; Sadler, 2010; Stiggins & Chappuis, 2005), studies have increasingly concluded by drawing attention to teachers' beliefs. The results indicate that teachers' beliefs are the most important influence upon their classroom practice (Aguirre, & Speer, 2000; Holt-Reynolds, 2000; Remesal, 2011). Findings have reported that, at times, teachers' personal goals for teaching can emerge while lessons are in progress, but due to their tacit nature, they are often hidden during the planning stage (Polanyi, 1967).

This information – that teachers' beliefs influence their classroom practice - is critical when a systematic reform of policy and implementation is taken into consideration. Teachers are the last step in the sequence of changes that occur from a policy level down, and as Black and Wiliam (2009) indicate, the implementation of new reforms in assessment practice is impossible without considering that they cannot be implemented in exactly the same way worldwide. For reforms to be equally effective, policy and training must recognize that the context and cultural embeddedness of teachers' practices differ from place to place. This is because teachers' depth of knowledge about content, standards, student ability, and their abilities in linking them to assessment and feedback instructions, are diverse in nature (Frey, & Fisher, 2009). Thus, there is a need to explore each specific context individually to understand and promote substantive change in the future.

The beliefs individual teachers hold about their abilities and outcome of their efforts (Bandura, 1986) influence the way new knowledge or content is subjected to teachers' interpretation. Beliefs often act as filters for new information and subsequent behaviour (Abelson, 1979; Fang, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Rokeach, 1968). Because of this understanding, professional development (PD) programmes are commonly emphasized as vehicles by which new assessment and education changes can be used to provide support, knowledge, and skills to teachers and in turn influence changes to classroom practice.

Other significant factors influencing teachers' perception of their roles in the formative assessment practice are teachers' previous knowledge, experiences, beliefs, and senses of professional identity that directly or indirectly affect their instructional practice (Borko, 2004; Cohen, 2004; Cohen, & Ball, 1990; Grossman, 1990; Putnam & Borko, 1997, 2000). These factors are referred to as the constraining effect on practice (Broadfoot, 2001). Additionally, others have identified that the characteristics of the school influence teaching too; in short, context, history, and setting impact changes to teachers' pedagogy in practice (Elmore, 1996; Guskey, 2002; McDonald, 2011; Pedder & Opfer, 2010; Pedder et al., 2005).

Formative assessment in the New Zealand context

In New Zealand, formative assessment has been prominent in classroom practice since the mid-1980s. Crooks (1988) made a significant contribution by reviewing literature about assessment, which impacted the assessment process in the classroom. Particularly, his review shaped government policy and research programmes in the 90s. Since the 1990s, government policy on assessment has required more tightly specified outcomes in the New Zealand curriculum, at a system wide level. As a result, since the 1990s, classroom teachers have had (in theory) a wider range of tools to assist them with formative and summative related objectives, for the multiple purposes acknowledged in the New Zealand Curriculum Framework, which states:

> *Assessment in New Zealand is carried out for a number of purposes. The primary purpose of school-based assessment is to improve students' learning and the quality of learning programmes* (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 24).

The Ministry of Education (1994) report *Assessment: Policy to Practice* highlighted a gap in the information available on achievement, and proposed the development of assessment tools, such as asTTle.[2] They also began archiving exemplars of student work referenced to achievement objectives. The Ministry of Education (1994) identified the role of students in assessment through peer and self-assessment in the same publication; however, the stated role of assessment emphasised summative aspects of students' engagement, such as self-assessment at the end of learning. Similarly, the responsibility for using assessment information depended on the teacher, and did not necessarily involve students in the process. Therefore the Ministry of Education (1994) policy document formative assessment is clearly described as:

> *an integral part of the teaching and learning process. It is used to provide students with feedback to enhance learning and help the teacher understand students' learning. It helps build a picture of a students' progress, and informs decisions about the next steps in teaching and learning* (p. 8).

The New Zealand Curriculum Framework (NZCF) by the Ministry of Education (1994) emphasised formative assessment as an integral part of normal teaching and learning processes in schools to "improve students' learning" (p. 24). This became part of a structural change in New Zealand schooling processes, in order to modify and enhance learning and understanding formative assessment in the last two decades

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[2] asTTle stands for Assessment Tools for Teaching and Learning (He Pūnaha Aromatawai mō te Whakaako me te Ako). It is an educational resource for assessing reading, writing and mathematics (in both English and Te Reo Māori): http://assessment.tki.org.nz/Assessment-tools-resources/asTTle-V4.

(Crooks, 2002; Ladd & Fiske, 2001; Levin, 2001). One of the significant reforms has been self-governing and self-management for primary schools through single-school boards. The Educational Review Office (ERO) then, through inspections, verifies each school's compliance with the legislation. The Ministry's national policy emphasizes voluntary school-based assessment for improving the quality of teaching (Ministry of Education, 1994). Consequently, the National Assessment Strategy (2001)[3] provided a strategic direction for assessment in New Zealand across multiple areas, organisations, schools, and classrooms. At the classroom level, teachers were to set specific learning goals with the learners, fostering a collaborative relationship focussed on learning, and in this process use assessment to improve learning.

Due to concerns about teachers understanding of formative assessment, a PD programme, Assessment for Better Learning (ABeL) operating between 1995-1999 was evaluated. Peddie's (2000) survey and interview data of teachers from 711 participating schools in New Zealand reported that teachers had yet to achieve understanding of the differences between formative and summative assessment. Although the percentage of teachers reporting an understanding effective feedback was 52%, those teachers were unable to articulate in what manner they gave feedback to students. Bell and Cowie (1997) reported similar findings in their study on assessment practices by teachers in New Zealand. More recently, Dixon and Wiliam's (2003) study found that while New Zealand teachers had a theoretical understanding of formative assessment in teaching and learning, they were not able to specify what constituted formative assessment in their own practice. While the teachers interviewed were aware of the need to provide opportunities for interaction with their learners, significant components of formative assessment (such as shared formation of student learning goals and feedback) were not mentioned in their discussion of teaching reading, writing and speaking skills.[4] Teachers still did not possess the language to express what their classroom feedback practice was. Recommendations were made that professional development programmes were necessary to provide clarity as to the nature of formative and summative assessment in the classroom.

New Zealand assessment initiatives

In New Zealand, professional learning in assessment was influenced by Black and Wiliam's (1998a) seminal work on formative assessment. Formative assessment was therefore interpreted in the policy statements and programmes as a teacher

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[3] The National Assessment Strategy (NS) website closed in June 2011 and have been updated and adapted to allow users to access them through the National Archives. A snapshot of NS Online has been archives by the National Archives.
[4] It is important to note, however, that Dixon and Wiliam's research was based on teachers' self-reported discussions of practice, and did not include observational data.

centred activity. The information gained from the assessment was fed back into their planning and teaching. The formative assessment was significantly located within the teaching process and not the learning aspect (Torrance & Pryor, 1998).

In the process of implementing formative assessment strategies in New Zealand schools, considerable resources have been developed through professional learning and development projects. These resources are available online for formative purposes through the website Assessment Resources Banks (ARBs)[5] which has been available since 1997. The website contains examples of everyday classroom activities to support teachers. Resources in for years 4-10 (level 2-5) were added in 1998. These are closely linked to the New Zealand curriculum, and are intended to help teachers make assessments on students' progress within its frame of achievement objectives.

The National Assessment Strategy resulted in an increase in nationally provided professional development for teachers focussed on assessment practices in the classroom. Assess to Learn (AToL) is a Ministry of Education professional development initiative that has been available to teachers since 2002. A significant component of the course is improving teacher's formative assessment and feedback practices. The AToL programme has been available to teachers though contracts with nine professional development providers (Assessment Focus Group, 2004). Teachers are also able to access AToL online from Ministry of Education's Te Kete Ipurangi website. Schools that take part in the project have external consultants, facilitators, or lead teachers within each school, and are supported through workshops and in-service activities. In the course, teachers are taught the process of framing their feedback through pre-specified learning intentions and success criteria (Clarke, Timperley, & Hattie, 2003).

Schools are also able to determine the level of student achievement in the mediums of English and Māori based on Assessment Tools for Teaching and Learning (asTTle), which provides literacy and numeracy tests for students from Years 5 to 8. asTTle has been available for schools since April 2002, and analyses achievement against national norms, and though it tests curriculum levels 2-6 it can be used for students in lower and higher year levels. A revised e-asTTle writing tool (2012)[6] now assesses curriculum levels 1 through 6. All these initiatives have had an impact on teachers gaining theoretical knowledge on formative assessment as teachers have been.

The development of the assessment resources coincided with extensive PD opportunities such as Assessment for Better Learning (AbeL), which was eventually replaced by AtoL (Crooks, 2002). Teacher knowledge of assessment is extended by

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[5] ARB: Assessment Resource Bank items (English, mathematics and science): http://arb.nzcer.org.nz/
[6] e-asTTle: http://assessment.tki.org.nz/Assessment-tools-resources/e-asTTle.

participation in the development of ARBs, national exemplars and asTTle, and school based formative assessment practices. The Education Review Office (ERO) (Brown, 2004) is then responsible for the evaluation of schools' performance, which is made available to the Ministry and public through school self-review and school inspection to establish that quality is maintained (Ladd & Fiske, 2001).

The most recent radical change was in 2010 when National Standards were introduced in New Zealand for the assessment of reading, writing and mathematics. National Standards is an initiative intended to improve educational outcomes. The National Education Monitoring Project (NEMP)[7] is another, similar initiative that was established in 1995 through funding from the Ministry of Education. The Ministry has made a long-term investment in NEMP, which was developed by Terry Crooks and Lester Flockton. It provides information on students' knowledge, skills and attitudes, from research run by the Educational Assessment Research Unit (EARU). Students from Year 4 and Year 8 are assessed on their ability in a number of curriculum areas. These assessments provide a snapshot of students' performance according to school, decile[8], ethnicity, gender, and other factors so that the "performance, successes and desirable changes to educational practices can be identified and implemented" (Crooks & Flockton, 2004). This large-scale assessment project is designed to monitor and report achievement, attitudes and values of students.   NEMP provides summative assessments, in that it is used for reporting on student achievement. In this manner it differs from the developmental focus of AToL and foreshadows the function of National Standards.

The implementation of National Standards required schools to select from a range of assessment tools already available to make a judgement on student achievement and progress in relation to set National Standards. Teachers are required to assess students' progress and achievement against standards, to use assessment information to inform students' learning goals, and to support them in their next learning steps. So far, partnership between policy and practice has not been a simple process, and there have been flaws in the execution of the policy in the classroom. Although policy is rooted in research, the implementation of the National Standards is the "most debated development in New Zealand education for decades" (Thrupp & Easter, 2012, p.10), and in practice, teachers now had new judgments and comparisons to implement and often became unwilling participants As a result, the implementation

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[7] NEMP assessment and reporting are repeated on a four year cycle and results compared in a variety of ways. NEMP : http://nemp.otago.ac.nz.
[8] Decile system defines the socio-economic community that a particular school serves, with respect to 10 categories ranging from decile 1 (lowest socio-economic) to decile 10 (highest socio-economic) (OECD Review on evaluation and assessment, 2010, p.x).

of National Standards still faces complex challenges. Further, in many ways it contradicts the formative assessment initiatives that have been based around enhancing student learning as it works under the summative paradigm. This means that New Zealand teachers now face the particular challenge of implementing formative assessment under directives that encourage summative assessment practice.

Formative assessment in the New Zealand classrooms

Following the implementation of the above initiatives, Harris and Brown (2009) conducted a study which showed that teachers in New Zealand had good notions of assessment and were able to give descriptions of different forms of assessment. The study examined how 26 teachers ascribed to assessment, specifically their compliance, to external reporting (including to parents), motivating students, organising group instructions, the use and implementation of individualised learning. The study revealed that teachers held complex conceptions about assessment and used it for different purposes. Teachers in this study reported that their choice of assessment for students was balanced between divergent stakeholders' interests, including the needs of society, school, and students. However, the study also revealed that there were strong tensions between what the teachers felt was best practice and what the school required of them. Compliance with standardised testing, and school-wide directives used to fulfil Ministry of Education mandates worked strongly against the teachers' personal beliefs regarding effective assessment and the initiatives that preceded the National Standards.

As Harris and Brown (2009) discovered, tensions arose when teachers did not understand that assessment improved teaching and learning. Some teachers thought asTTle assessment was extra work, and irrelevant work at that, and did not see visible educational benefit from using it. This was significant in the lower decile schools. Teachers stated that external reporting to Ministry of Education and school boards shifted attention away from students' needs. While in general, teachers considered external reporting important, they saw the comparative data commonly requested by parents at higher decile schools as problematic. As such, assessment that was rejected or ignored by teachers was evaluated as having a negative influence on students and schools. This supports the idea that, the success of an education initiative depends on teachers.

Hawe et al. (2008) found feedback by primary school teachers in the classroom was still dominated by teacher-supplied feedback, thus limiting opportunities for students to exercise agency in their learning. Despite the various initiatives and exposure to various feedback methods, evidence indicated teacher feedback was

largely dominated by success criteria. Teachers shared learning goals, learning intentions and success criteria and their feedback was given in relation to these points of reference. However, neither the feedback nor the criteria delved deeper to address the deep features of writing or the process of writing. Clearly, this is an indication of teachers taking on board the theoretical aspects of students 'knowing' their learning goals and success criteria and they 'believed' that made them insiders in the knowledge of quality, but in practice it in fact fell short of encouraging student understanding of the bigger picture of learning. Most teachers in the study focussed on the immediate aspects of feedback, meaning that although there was improvement in student performance, the achievement was due to detailed corrective information that students followed through.

Dixon's (2011a) investigation into 20 primary teachers' beliefs and understandings of feedback revealed teachers' beliefs influenced their uptake and enactment of new ideas and practices. Her study concluded that it was teachers' beliefs that either enhanced or impeded their enactment of feedback practice. Teachers' effort, willingness, and resilience in the enactment were influenced by their beliefs. There are other reasons for teachers' variable uptake of new assessment processes. In a two-year research project into formative assessment in science classrooms by Bell and Cowie (1999), findings revealed that teachers using planned and interactive formative assessment made decisions based on their teaching experience. In their planned formative assessment, teachers interpreted the assessment information through elicitation and took action based on that information. Interactive formative assessment involved teachers noticing, recognising and responding during their teaching. Teachers' interpretations of students, and their expectations, were influenced by their knowledge of content, pedagogy, curriculum, and their students. Teachers indicated their experience of teaching a particular science concept allowed them to interpret their students' thinking. However, often during interactive formative assessment, teachers assumed students knew about the content and did not maximise the feedback process to check students' understanding of the concept or increase the students' knowledge on the subject.

These studies (Bell & Cowie, 1999; Dixon, 2011a; Hawe et al., 2008) all reveal that teachers have differing interpretations of formative assessment. Most teachers appear to focus on students' ability to achieve objectives set for a specific unit of work or task. These units and tasks are planned from the New Zealand curriculum, requiring teachers to choose appropriate achievement objectives and reduce them to several learning outcomes. Therefore, despite nationwide initiatives, it appears that individual teachers are strong moderators of the success or failure of formative assessment and

feedback in the classroom. The successes and failures of changes to New Zealand education has brought teachers into the spotlight, and research consistently indicates that their personal beliefs regarding education create strong tensions between external expectations and their own expectations and practice.

Specifically, scholars have asked to what extent teachers and educators could develop their formative feedback practices and integrate them into a sound classroom pedagogy (Bourke, Mentis, & Todd, 2010; Brookhart, 2012; Clark, 2010; Elwood, 2006), helping students to become lifelong learners. Current scholarly emphasis is on ways to support teachers in establishing new practices of formative assessment and feedback in their classrooms (Black & Wiliam, 1998a; Torrance & Pryor, 1998, 2001). There are a number of issues that have been raised in the implementation of effective feedback practices in the classroom, and professional learning and development has been identified as essential to helping relevant changes occur in teaching and learning (Birenbaum, Kimron, & Shilton, 2011; Frey & Fisher, 2009; Nixon & McClay, 2007; Smith, 2011). Nixon and McClay (2007) argued that the professional learning experience of teachers should contain collaborative and social constructivist theoretical models, to help teachers embrace the new innovations and practices.

However, schools in New Zealand are required to develop their own charters and have been self-governing since 1989, therefore in principle they are free to innovate and respond to the needs and wishes of their local community. Schools set and develop their own strategic plans (Brown, 2004). As a result, the choice of initiatives and reforms the school decides to embrace is voluntary, which indirectly influences the knowledge and information readily available to teachers. Therefore, it is imperative to find out what teachers believe and understand about feedback that is formative in nature, and about the role it plays in their classroom practices after decades of new initiatives, tools and innovations being introduced and implemented through PD. As the role and nature of feedback strategies is the fundamental criterion that differentiates formative assessment from summative, exploring the role of feedback that is formative in the teaching of writing is especially significant.

Assessment for Learning: An Emphasis on Learner's Role

Due to developments in education theory, such as increasing emphasis on social-cultural learning theory, and metacognitive and self-regulation theory, researchers argue that learners should be given a significant role in the assessment process (Bell & Cowie, 1997; Black & Wiliam, 1998a; Sadler, 1989, 1998; Torrance & Pryor, 1998). Properly executed, assessment for learning can help learners understand and improve the quality of their work, through self-assessment, self-monitoring, and

self-regulation. Learners in this changing role should be able to apply self-regulation and self-monitoring skills during the process of completing a task (Butler & Winne, 1995; Perrenoud, 1998). The significance of this is the learner's ability to assess and improve their work through understanding of the assessment criteria.

Assessment for learning encompasses strategies that teachers engage during teaching and learning. It serves the purpose of supporting and developing students learning and enabling students to become autonomous and self-regulating learners (Dixon, 2011b; Sadler, 2010; Swaffield, 2011). These strategies embrace the promotion of students' understanding of their own learning goals and expected performance, as well as the generation of feedback by both teachers and students on their current versus desired performances (James, 2008; James & Pedder, 2006). In this view, student engagement in peer and self-assessment, and taking control of their learning through self-assessment is significant (if not vital) for their learning progressions.

Within the socio-cultural perspective, assessment strategies include culturally situated arrangements that promote student participation, and development of students' sense of becoming an insider in their learning practice. It also promotes the development of student's identities as autonomous learners. Thus, newer models of assessment for learning necessitate a need for teachers and students to radically change the roles and behaviour encouraged under a behaviourist paradigm. In current education theory, students are no longer dependent on teacher but rather hold the key role in the process of effective learning (James & Pedder, 2006). Teachers now hold the role of helping students become autonomous and self-regulating learners. In order for students to be able to judge their performance against the required goals and progress towards that goal (Butler & Winne, 1995), the 'guild knowledge' that teachers tacitly hold should be shared with their students, in order to enable students to hold concepts of quality similar to their teacher (Sadler, 2009b) thus achieving an insider role in their learning. Teachers' 'guild knowledge' is defined as knowing what constitutes quality in student performance, which has been constructed over time through their teaching and learning experiences in making qualitative judgement about student work (Sadler, 1989)

Assessment for learning (AfL) first appeared into use in the late 80s and early 90s and may be considered a newer concept in the assessment literature (Gardner, 2006). The Assessment Reform Group (2002), group of mostly of UK based academics formulated the definition of AfL. That definition has since been extensively embraced and often quoted as:

...the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for use by learners and their

teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there (Assessment Reform Group, 2002, p. 2-3).

Gardner (2006) claims that although both formative assessment and assessment for learning denote similar sets of practice, assessment for learning encapsulates the essence of assessment which is to support learning, as leaners are provided with the responsibilities for using the information to enhance their learning and makes the link between learning and assessment explicit. Thus the present paradigm of thinking on assessment has been one that integrates teaching, learning and assessment as a holistic process of learning (Black et al., 2003). Emphasis on shifting teachers out of the main role in the assessment process and into their providing opportunities to students in the process has been deemed important to student learning.

Paul Black and Dylan Wiliam of King's College, London identified the problem of unproductive interaction impeding learning (Black and Wiliam, 1998b). In *Assessment for Learning: Beyond the Black Box* written by the Assessment Reform Group (ARG) (Assessment Reform Group, 1999), they found that the emphasis of marking and grading in the classroom inevitably focused on student performance at a singular point in learning. They argued that in order to attain and establish improved learning, teacher instructions during assessment should motivate and build students' self-esteem through varying assessment instructions, involving students in their own learning through self-assessment and effective feedback.

Assessment for Learning, which is informed by Vygotskian concepts, stressed the significance of student autonomy in their learning. As a result, teachers' roles were again redefined: to share responsibility with students in their learning and assessment (Cowie, 2005). The conceptualisation of assessment for learning was taken from a published document entitled *Assessment for learning: 10 principles*, and described assessment for learning as:

- *Part of effective planning;*
- *Focused on students learning;*
- *Central to classroom practice;*
- *A key professional skill;*
- *Sensitive and constructive in nature;*
- *Fostering motivation in learning;*
- *Promoting learner's understanding of goals and criteria;*
- *Helping students know how to improve;*
- *Developing the learner's capacity for self-assessment;*

- *Recognising all educational achievement by the learner.*

(Assessment Reform Group, 2002).

The 10 principles stated above by the ARG on assessment for learning centred assessment around the learner's self-regulation during learning. Teachers were given the responsibility of sharing authority and promoting student autonomy (Bourke et al., 2010; Hawe & Parr, 2013; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). Within the assessment for learning process, researchers argued that teachers should embrace their students as partners in learning, sharing discussion of learning goals and success criteria - in other words, making space for students to have knowledge about the quality of the expected assessment (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Sadler, 1989, 2010). This, they suggested, would bring the student into the assessment process, and help them understand their own learning goals (as compared to summative assessment by which teachers score student achievement). Goals may denote knowledge or skill students need to attain or a task a student has to complete (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Therefore, for students to progress, feedback that is goal or progress based is important, as researchers maintain the most crucial element in formative assessment is feedback that influences learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998b; Crooks, 1988; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). This is a point highlighted in policy documents as one to be embraced by teachers and embedded into educational institutions (Crisp, 2007).

Assessment for 'learning' is beneficial when it provides students support to monitor their progress towards reaching a desired goal through closing the gap between their current learning status and desired outcome (Clark, 2011). However, Swaffield (2011) argues that checking students against predetermined and sequenced set on learning objectives is not the principle of AfL. This limits the view of learning principles. In traditional forms of assessment, students were often perceived as passive recipients, but as discussed above, the current paradigm of assessment requires that learners take ownership of their own learning. Teachers are encouraged to provide opportunities for students to assess their own learning progress, alongside their peers, while collaborating with teachers in developing criteria for their work. Conceptions of learning within the constructivist approach suggest that students can and should create their own meaning, and analyse their own context to create new knowledge (Klenowski, Askew & Carnell, 2006).

Therefore, feedback in AfL is the crux of the changing paradigm and the focal point of process of helping students to enhance their learning and moving to a higher or closer level of their specified goal or learning standard. Swaffield (2011) stated that assessment for learning and formative assessment differ: assessment for learning is a teaching and learning process, concerned with immediate and near future goals,

beneficial to specific classroom students who would ideally exercise agency and autonomy in the process of learning how to learn. Formative assessment on the other hand is a purpose or function of a certain assessment, focussed on long-term goals, which can involve other teachers and in different setting, provide information that guides future learning and concentrates on curriculum objectives.

The fact that the terms "assessment for learning" and "formative assessment" are often used interchangeably also presents a problem. Black et al. (2003) argue that the significance of assessment for learning is to promote (rather than to evaluate) student learning, and that formative assessment functions to provide information for teachers to use in giving feedback, and to assist teachers to adapt and modify both their teaching and students' learning. However, Wiliam and Thompson (2008) maintain that, "assessment is formative to the extent that information from the assessment is fed back" (p. 61), and opportunities for teachers to regularly observe students, and to adapt lessons to suit their needs.

The significance of feedback in assessment to support students' learning

Feedback is a significant aspect of assessment to support learning. Feedback can exist in various forms, from written comments in the form of grades or marks to oral responses or gestures to students. Feedback is often is embedded in to the teaching/learning process. Teachers can either plan the feedback to students or it can be a spontaneous process. It is an important component in the assessment for learning process both for the teachers and for the students (Bell & Cowie, 2001; Black & Wiliam 1998b; Sadler, 1989, 2009b, 2010).

Feedback within the new constructivist paradigm has moved away from being corrective to being facilitative, and is now more often focused on scaffolding of learning through the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). According to Hattie and Timperley's (2007) research, feedback in the formative function can reduce the gap between students' current understanding of their performance and the goals they are trying to achieve. As mentioned, feedback from teachers in a traditional context, which is a one-way communication, has been criticized due to students becoming dependent on teachers (Sadler, 1989), so in the present conception, it is considered that feedback should be interactive. Ideally, effective feedback enables learners to self-assess, self-reflect, and self-regulate their learning (Butler & Winne, 1995; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Sadler, 1989). Self-regulated learning is defined as the process of learners setting their own goals for their learning, and then monitoring and regulating their motivation, behaviour and cognition to reach their goals (Pintrich, 2000a). During this process, teachers' facilitative feedback is seen to be significant to successful achievement.

Formative assessment and feedback aims to enable students to self-assess, reflect and monitor their learning to grow as lifelong learners. According to studies, feedback is significant in influencing learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998b; Bangert-Drown, Kulik, Kulik & Morgan, 1991; Crooks, 1998; Hattie, 2009; Sadler, 1989, 2010); can act as a facilitator in enhancing performance (Bandura, 1991; Bandura & Cervone, 1983), and is significant in the classroom structure. Literature concerning formative feedback identifies the importance of teachers' responses to student work in closing the gap (Sadler, 1989). Feedback here is defined as:

> *Information about the gap between the actual level and reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way* (Ramaprasad, 1983, p. 4).

This definition of feedback was later extended by Sadler's (1989) formative assessment theory, which posited that information on students' successful practice requires a "feedback loop" (Sadler, 1989, p. 121). Formative assessment as a feedback loop operates in closing the gap between the student's current performance and their desired performance. (Sadler, 1989) argues that information itself is not feedback unless it is actively used to serve this function. This feedback loop informs teachers about knowledge or skills attained or yet to be achieved by the student, aims to facilitate learners in being able to identify and to amend a gap, and also to assist teachers in reflecting and selecting suitable tasks or activities and to modify/adapt their teaching to close the gap. Ideally, teachers would use evidence gained from formative assessment to make changes in teaching, while students would receive feedback to improve their learning. Feedback within the assessment for learning then is information about the students' current/desired performance, and in a formative conception of feedback, students also have knowledge about the desired quality for their work, and are able to perform self-monitoring and self-regulation to enhance their learning (Dixon, 2011b). This understanding of feedback is used to inform this thesis. Figure 2.1 on the next page highlights formative assessment and feedback within Sadler's (1989) new paradigm and outlines the role of feedback as information to enhance learning.
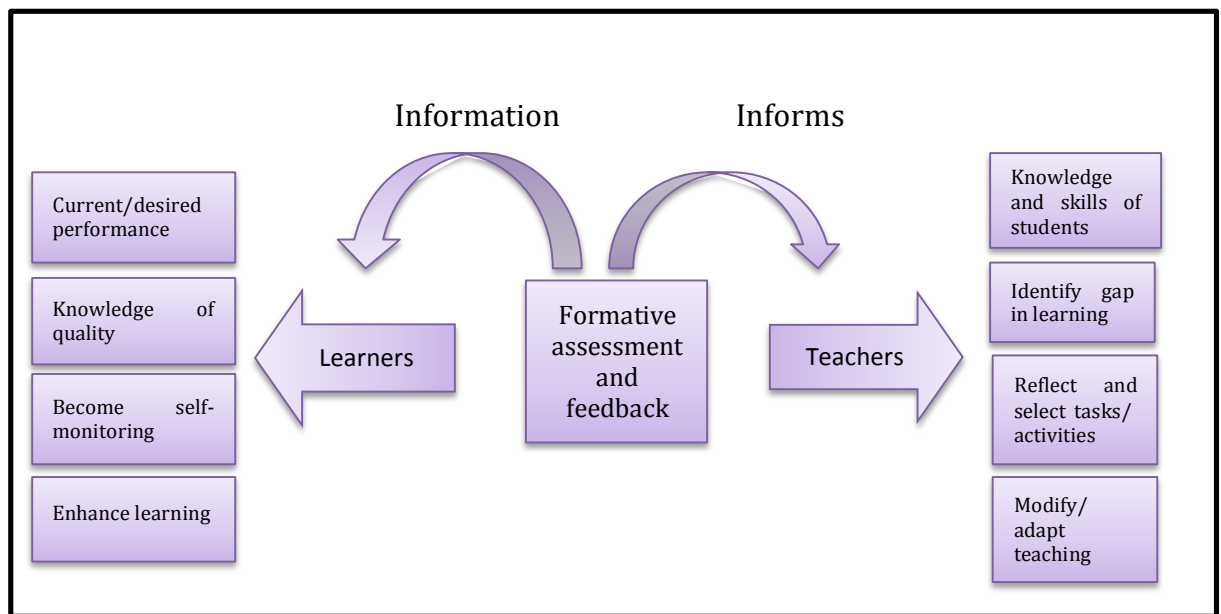
Figure 2.1: Formative assessment and feedback

In Shute's (2008) review 'formative feedback' was defined as "information communicated to the learner that is intended to modify his or her thinking or behaviour for the purpose of improving learning" (p. 154). Attention is drawn to the fact that feedback has a positive impact on student learning, in contrast to Kluger and DeNisi's (1996) findings that feedback had negative effects on students learning. Irons (2008) adds that formative feedback is achieved not only by the information given, but by the process or activity that uses that information to afford or accelerate learning. Hence, effective formative feedback is a process or activity that provides information to learners to modify thinking and behaviour in a manner that enhances learning and performance.

Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) argue that feedback should clarify to students what successful performance is, in order to facilitate self-assessment. The information to students about their learning helps promote teacher/student interaction, as well as fostering motivational beliefs and self-esteem in students. Feedback should also provide opportunities for students to close the gap between their current and desired performances, helping them to become self- monitoring, and at the same time should inform teachers about student learning. This follows from Sadler (1989) concept that formative assessment and feedback should inform teachers the knowledge and skills of the students so they are able to identify gaps between what they have learned and what they have yet to learn. As Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) argue, when feedback functions formatively and effectively, teachers should be able to reflect and select tasks and activities suitable for their students and also modify or adapt their teaching to suit their students.

The distinction between formative and summative assessment is in the quality of questioning, the type of feedback, timing of feedback, and self-assessment and peer-assessment (Crossouard, 2009; Black & Wiliam, 1998a; Boud, 2000 Sadler, 2000; Wiliam & Thompson, 2008). As noted, in the traditional, behaviourist form of feedback, the concept of feedback is a one-way activity in which the teacher is the sole source of information, positioned externally to the learner. Traditional feedback situates the teacher as telling student what successful performance is, and this has been heavily criticised (Sadler, 1989; Wiggins, 1993). Further, this style of feedback requires teachers to provide feedback through grades and marks only. This, theorists have argued, creates students who depend on the teacher. The form of effective feedback proposed by current education theory recognises the role of students in their own learning, and is commonly described as co-constructed through teacher/student partnership (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Sadler, 1989; Wiliam & Thompson, 2008). Researchers argue that feedback is effective when learners are able to learn through collaboration with teachers, and become generators of feedback information through self, and peer-assessment in such a way that it provides a learning experience (Wiggins, 1993).

One influential article that addresses the positive aspect of feedback is Hattie and Timperley's (2007) model: that feedback information is brought up-front and needs to be formulated and delivered in a way that encourages students' engagement and learning. Hattie and Timperley's (2007) proposed model of feedback stated that in order for feedback to be effective, three questions should be answered: 'Where am I going?'; 'How am I going?', and 'Where to next?' The first question relates to the goal or task that the student needs to accomplish. The second question provides students with information on their performance, compared to the goals established. The third is the strategy for further learning and improvement in performance. The focus of feedback, they argued, was (or should be) its effectiveness in improving learning. That focus could relate to the task, processing of the task, self-regulation, or the learner's confidence; the important factor was the emphasis on increasing the student's ability to learn.

Feedback on the task is the most effective when faulty interpretations are addressed, as learners benefit from additional instruction on completing their task. When the feedback is focussed on the processing level, it can help learners develop methods for discovering errors that may lead to developing an understanding of the relationships between differing tasks, and the transferring of that learning to a new task. As a result, Hattie and Timperley (2007) further state that effective feedback is more than general praise to the learner: it must be accompanied by actionable

information for the student to work on. Feedback that is focussed on self-regulation helps learners engage in their tasks. Their findings from several studies indicate that students perceive feedback as their teacher's perception of their ability, which was generally not their teachers' intention. Kluger and DeNisi's (1996) meta-analysis of feedback likewise indicated that some forms of feedback were more effective than others in improving student performance. However their findings indicate that more than one-third of feedback intervention resulted in negative effects on learning, especially when feedback was more to the self (ego-related) than it was focussed on the task itself or the self-regulatory processes.

In order for feedback to be formative, it has to be communicated to students and in a way they are able to engage with the feedback. Students' understanding and engaging with the feedback is considered significant (Sadler, 2010), and an essential condition in bridging the gap between current and desired achievement (Ramaprasad, 1983; Sadler, 1989). As Boud (2000) claims, unless students use the feedback to improve their work and performance, neither the provider nor the receiver of the feedback will know its effectiveness. Within this study, formative feedback is defined as the information provided by teachers to close gaps and improve students' work (Sadler, 1989).

Feedback is formative when it is non-evaluative, learner-controlled, timely, specific and clear. This is inherent to Shute's (2008) assertion that feedback should modify students' thinking and behaviour, although the success depends on the timing of feedback and the learner's characteristics, as interpretation of feedback information is individualistic to the learner. These viewpoints on feedback are grounded in research and afford useful information: that feedback enhances learning. It is important to note that it has also been argued that feedback that is critical or controlling could impede learners' efforts to improve their performance (Ashwell, 2000; Kepner, 1991). Providing grades or scores indicating student achievement, or providing feedback that is vague can also have negative effects (Butler, 1987; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). In addition, feedback from teachers interrupting students actively engaged in problem solving can inhibit learning (Corno & Snow, 1986). Clearly, as indicated above, feedback that is effective and formative is both specific to the task being assessed, and general in identifying the broader areas that the feedback could be applied to in future work and learning.

There are several ways that feedback can influence learning. Firstly, as cited above, it can do so in facilitating resolution of gaps between students' current learning performances, and their desired level of performance (Locke & Latham, 1990; Sadler, 1998). Secondly, formative feedback can effectively help struggling students that could

benefit from extra support (Graham, Harris, & Troia, 2000; Shute, 2008). Thirdly, formative feedback can be beneficial for correcting incorrect task strategies, procedural errors, or misconceptions (Guénette, 2013), which is especially effective when feedback is specific. Accordingly, in the New Zealand context the NZC (Ministry of Education, 2007a) suggests teachers' planning be flexible in making changes in response to new information, opportunities, or insights that occur during lessons.

Evaluative and descriptive feedback

One important contribution to the field of feedback has been from Tunstall and Gipps' (1996) feedback typology. Tunstall and Gipps investigated the types of feedback used by Year one and two teachers in six London schools. The aim of their study was to distinguish the types of feedback related to learning, which they categorised as either evaluative or descriptive. Evaluative feedback identified as (A1) Rewarding; (A2) Punishing; (B1) Approving, and (B2) Disapproving. In contrast to evaluative types of feedback, descriptive feedback was identified as (C1) Specifying Attainment; (C2) Specifying Improvement; (D1) Constructing Achievement, and (D2) Constructing the Way Forward. Feedback types C and D are associated with formative use. The significant difference is the roles played by teachers and students in the feedback process. In both C1 and C2 feedback types the students are the receiver and the teacher controls the feedback process. In the D1 and D2 feedback types, teachers and students work in partnership to bridge the gaps identified between the student's current level and their desired level of achievement. They collaborate in the types of strategies that can be used in closing in the gap.

Tunstall & Gipps (1996) constructed this typology as an analytical tool for teachers, creating insights into the ways and language of providing feedback. The limitation of the typology is in the lack of details on the specific types of feedback. Although the findings of their study revealed evidence of all types of feedback, no details about the specific type of feedback strategies utilised were reported. Still, several New Zealand studies have utilised the typology to analyse teachers' feedback strategies (Hawe et al., 2008; Knight, 2003). Both studies found that teachers played dominant roles in the feedback process.

Knight's (2003) study found that in the majority of instances (291 of 349), teachers' oral feedback was in fact evaluative in nature during the teaching of numeracy. Another New Zealand study by Hawe et al. (2008), on the types of feedback used by teachers in primary schools to support students' learning in written language indicated the strong influence of feedback based on success criteria. The researchers found that in the three classrooms they observed, teachers supplied the feedback and

students did not exercise their roles as agents in promoting their own learning. Hawe et al. (2008) discovered descriptive types of feedback were in fact prevalent in feedback provided by teachers in the teaching of writing. However, teachers' feedback comments specified attainment (C1) of specified improvement (C2). Students had limited opportunities to be active participants in the process of using the feedback that in ways that could construct achievement (D1) or construct the way forward (D2), and were restricted to teacher' supplied feedback. Thus, the opportunities for students to develop evaluative and productive skills during learning were limited (Sadler, 1989). This further highlights that teachers may have understandings of the effective use of student centred feedback in learning, but have so far been unable to practically inculcate the full concept of formative feedback that brings learners into the process and allows them to become self-monitoring, and progress independently.

Questioning as a way forward

Teacher questioning in classroom assessment has changed over time, from closed-ended questions with 'correct' answers to a more open-ended form. This change has been influenced by theorists like Black et al. (2003), who suggest that teachers should develop effective questioning techniques to facilitate students' analytical thinking, as well as helping them to provide their own answers. This approach challenges the traditional understanding of 'questions' in the classroom: as just requiring an answer from students. Instead, it encourages discussion as students think of responses and ideas from different angles. Black et al. (2003) suggest that to develop formative questions, teachers should organize their questions within three themes of introducing "frame questions" (the big idea); increasing "wait time" that provides students time to think and respond; and using "follow-up" questions or activities to ensure understanding (p. 42).

But although teacher questioning is able to stimulate learning, it is not often utilised in such a way. Research indicates that teachers, at times, use questions to exert control rather than to stimulate intellectual functioning (Gipps, 1994). Recent studies have found that teachers' questioning, rather than stimulating students' learning, frequently closes down opportunities for interaction, and chances for open discussion (Carnell, 2000; Torrance & Pryor, 2001). These studies indicate learners are not being provided with enough thinking time to formulate answers (Black & Wiliam, 1998b). Additionally, the use of lower order questions does not encourage higher order of cognitive thinking, and often leads to 'right' or 'wrong' answers (Torrance & Pryor, 1998), thus again often closing down opportunities for discussion (Leat & Nochols, 2000).

The traditional form of teacher talk and interaction was prevalent in a recent large-scale study in UK on the teaching of literacy and numeracy (Smith & Higgins, 2006). In the majority of observed lessons, student participation in the discussion was drawn by teachers to the planned outcomes and the restricted answers teachers deemed allowable. In only very few instances was teacher/student interaction in-depth and exploratory. In some isolated cases, teachers did not ask all the questions or provide answers, and in these cases, peer and student expression was utilised through review, discuss and debating their contribution.

Studies have emphasised the need for students to be involved in the feedback interaction (Askew & Lodge, 2000; Carnell, 2000; Sadler, 1989; Torrance & Pryor, 1998, 2001; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). Power is then shared by teachers, providing students with greater control of their learning and responsibilities in making judgements and decisions about their work. This provides students insight through interaction with the teacher who holds the guild knowledge that students would not otherwise be able to gain individually (Sadler, 2010). Both New Zealand studies (Hawe et al., 2008; Knight, 2003) that utilised Tunstall and Gipps' (1996) typology found that teachers denied opportunities to students to become insiders in the feedback process, as the use of both D1 and D2 types of feedback was absent. As noted, this hinders leaners' opportunities to exercise agency in their learning, as the co-construction of D type of feedback (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996) is intended to move away from being dependent on teacher-supplied feedback.

Verification and elaborative feedback information

An historical review on feedback by Kulhavy and Stock (1989) indicated another two types of effective feedback information: verification and elaboration. Shute's (2008) review of the literature on formative feedback states that feedback provides information to learners as either of these forms. Feedback as elaboration goes beyond noting correct or incorrect responses, and is more effective to learning. Verification feedback information is judgement based on students' correct answers, and elaboration is the information that provides cues, guiding the learner towards the correct answers. Verification is accomplished by highlighting a response and indicating the correct answer. On the other hand, elaboration addresses more than just the correct answer; it addresses the topic, response, errors, and provides examples and guidance. There is a growing consensus that response-specific feedback elaboration enhances student learning and achievement rather much more than verification is able to (Corbet & Anderson, 2001; Dobber, Akkerman, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2012).

Elaborative feedback can be directive or facilitative. When it guides the student through facilitation in developing his or her own plan, feedback then is effective. Shute (2008) identifies effective feedback as feedback that focuses on learners, and provides manageable elaboration; specific, clear, and simple, to reduce uncertainty about the discrepancy between performance and goals, and to promote unbiased objective, feedback that is learning goal orientated. Studies on feedback elaboration have reported that this form of feedback increases students' learning progress (Moreno; 2004; Pridemore & Klien; 1995). Yet, other studies report that the increase of feedback information has no significant influence on student performance (Kulhavy, White Topp, Chan & Adams, 1985). Taken together, these studies and their findings illustrate that feedback elaboration *alone* does not improve learning and performance. Therefore, scholars suggest that feedback should be simple, with enough information so students are able to take on board the feedback for improvement. Similarly, effective learning takes place when feedback to students is specific and clear enough that it doesn't impede learning by introducing confusion (Wiliam, 2006), and is linked to students' goals (Duijnhouwer, Prins & Stokking, 2012).

As researchers argue, formative feedback to enhance learning should focus on the task and not the learners (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Butler, 1987; Kluger & DeNisi 1996). It should focus on specific features of the student's work and performance, with suggestions for improvement. Ideally, feedback should provide elaboration on the what, how and why of the task on hand, an approach that has been repeatedly found to be more effective than feedback on errors and verification (Bangert-Drowns et al., 1991; Ellis 2009). However, the elaborated feedback to learners should be manageable so as not to overwhelm the student, and should encourage students to engage with the feedback, not discard the feedback. Too much information through feedback elaboration may result in students doing superficial learning, or copying, and again becoming dependent on the teacher. Learners should be given control over the task and over improving their performance.

Complexity and length of feedback information

Another aspect of effective feedback is the complexity and length of the feedback. If the feedback is too long or complicated, as suggested above, there is likely to be less student engagement with the feedback, thus making the feedback ineffective. As stressed above, in order for formative feedback to be effective, it should be given in the simplest possible form, to verify the student's answer and provide information relevant to the student's response (directive or facilitative). Studies that have examined the types and amount of feedback information, however, have shown inconsistent

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results (Kulhavy, 1977; Mory, 2004). This inconclusiveness suggests that there be other mediating factors involved in the relationship between formative feedback and learning. These factors may include the nature and quality of the feedback, information about the learning goals, and performance and attainment of those goals.

An investigation of an advanced ESL composition course by Conrad and Goldstein (1999) provides an insight into the relationship between teachers' written comments and students' work. Students in the research were successful in resolving written revision problems based on the teacher's feedback of adding examples or increasing cohesion, but struggled and were unsuccessful in revising based on feedback relating to explanation, explicitness, and analysis. Students' content knowledge and beliefs influenced their success, thus revealing a need for teachers to consider individual factors affecting students. However, there is fear that too many comments and too much feedback will encourage correction by students in a way that does not involve their own thinking (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Feedback can be overwhelming to students when it requires them to read between the lines for understanding or is too general. These results clearly indicate that teachers are utilising feedback; however they are not doing so effectively enough to promote deeper thinking, or to bridge the relevant gaps in understanding.

Scaffolding as a form of closing the gap

Scaffolding enables learners to progress in their learning and engage in more advanced thinking. Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) suggested that scaffolding feedback in a goal-directed approach motivates learners, and makes tasks manageable and achievable, as well as providing direction to learners' goals, and indicating the standard and desired outcomes of performance, and reducing learner frustration. According to Bransford et al. (2000), scaffolding feedback provides students with a sense of direction that indicates the difference between the students' current work and desired standards. Although scaffolding feedback to individual students is time consuming and challenging to teachers, individualised implementation has proven to be beneficial to student learning. Strategically guided scaffolding promotes learning (Clark, 2011), and the involvement of the teacher/student collaborative process of negotiation of meaning helps improve performance (Shepard, 2005; 2008). Therefore, just telling students the answers, or telling them to rethink their answer is not scaffolding feedback that promotes learning. As scaffolding, feedback in the education setting includes modelling, cues, prompts, hints, solutions, and direct instruction (Hartman, 2002).

McKay (2006) defines scaffolding as giving cognitive and language support, or talking through a task to promote learning. Second language learners often face challenges - language ability, accuracy, fluency and complexity - in completing a task (Skehan, 1998). Scaffolding information and feedback to bring students closer to the desired performance and quality is significant to formative assessment for learning, however there is a distinction between guiding students through goal-directed facilitation, and directing them (Carless, 2005; Boud, & Falchikov, 2006).

Feedback specificity

Although largely it has been argued that the nature of feedback influences its effectiveness - such as the discovery that feedback focussed on personal qualities can tend to impede learning (Kluger & DeNisi, 1998) - outcome focussed feedback seldom improves learning, even where there is sufficient information. Written responses that tend to focus on low level or technical concerns rather than the meaning within context (Arndt, 1992; Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Sommers 1982; Zellermayer, 1989), or that pay excessive attention to surface features can, according to studies by Hargreaves & McCallum (1998) and more recently by Stern & Solomon (2006), tend toward impeding learning.

Written feedback by teachers often becomes something other than formative assessment when teachers focus on surface features like spelling and editing, and just provide an overall comment on content (Arndt, 1992; Sommers, 1982). Therefore, it is suggested that students are shown less surface aspects of their writing that need to be worked on to reach their desired goal in written feedback (Black & Wiliam, 1998b). Intensive feedback on spelling will make spelling the dominant feature of writing, overlooking the content. Teachers forcing students to always spell correctly prevents students' ideas and creativity from flowing. Research has also suggested that the teachers' feedback within the classroom is contextualised and influenced by the characteristics of the written task and criteria of evaluation. Studies conducted in primary classrooms by Wyatt-Smith, Castleton, Freebody and Cooksey (2003), and Matsumura, Patthey-Chavez, Valdez and Garneier (2002) provide evidence that the amount and type of feedback predicts the quality of writing.

Parr and Timperley (2010) assert that teachers' content knowledge is essential to providing written responses that are formative in nature. Written comments are often ineffective to improving writing if directed towards students' personal technical abilities (Kluger & DeNisi, 1998). This is another reason that feedback is ineffective when it encourages surface learning and focuses on correctness, with inadequate information for students' construction and development of knowledge. Studies on

written responses on writing found that teachers often focused on technical concerns (Connors & Lunsford, 1993) and surface features of writing (Hargreaves & McCallum, 1998; Stern & Solomon, 2006), and that these tendencies were predictors of the final quality of written drafts.

Direct written feedback provides students with the advantage of seeing exactly how to correct their errors (Ellis, 2009). However, there is often minimal processing on the part of learners. Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, (2008) found that the constant use of rule reminders and written-error correction of surface features did not improve or enhance the quality of writing. By contrast, indirect feedback encourages learners to reflect on their learning. Ashwell's (2000) study on content feedback and form feedback among 50 Japanese students enrolled in two writing classrooms in higher education found that irrespective of which feedback was given first or whether it was given simultaneously, the results were the same. Students benefitted from the feedback, and this contradicted Zamel's (1985) recommendation that content feedback be given at the beginning stages of writing and form feedback at the end. Ashwell's findings revealed that giving both content and form feedback simultaneously did not affect the students' revision. Students benefited from any form of teacher feedback. Ferris and Roberts' (2001) study of 72 ESL students concluded that less explicit feedback promoted students to self-edit as well as explicit feedback did. Findings clearly indicate is feedback is effective when students are provided opportunities to reflect on their learning, especially when it was content based and promoted self-editing.

Another study, by Bitchener and Knoch (2008) on the effectiveness of written corrective feedback on the writing of 144 ESL international and migrant students at a New Zealand university, found that students who received both direct corrective feedback and written and oral metalinguistic explanation outperformed the students with only direct feedback or written feedback. The students who received all three feedback types retained their accuracy level for over seven weeks. These significant findings also revealed that there were no differences between migrant and international students in the extent to which they improved. Similar results were found by Storch and Wigglesworth (2010), who explored the efficacy of two different forms of corrective feedback in an Australian university. Their study focused on students' engagement with feedback, and their reasons for either accepting or rejecting the feedback. The findings suggested that irrespective of the type of feedback, student engagement depended on the complex and dynamic interaction of linguistic and affective factors.

As Sadler (1989) argues, feedback is effective when students know the purpose of the task, their progress against the desired goal or expectation, and whether or not they are able to close the gap. This concept is supported by findings from Weaver's (2006) study on features of feedback. Students from this study identified that feedback was often vague, too general, lacking in guidance, focussed on negative aspects and unrelated to their learning criteria, and that this was unsupportive. Therefore, Sadler proposed that feedback in the form of written comments should instead be related to students' work, and connected to their learning and outcomes. As Sadler concluded, not only did a focus on correct spelling prevent students' ideas and creativity from flowing, but teachers' feedback needed to focus on developing skills in writing that enabled students to become lifelong learners.

Directive and facilitative feedback

Learning is an active process, where students construct ideas or concepts based on current or past knowledge. In Bruner's (1961) conception, feedback has to provide meaning for students to select and transform information, and make decisions that go beyond the information given. Bruner (1961) suggests that knowledge is not to be imparted by teachers, but that teachers should facilitate and develop thinking that can be transferred to a range of situations. As Bruner argued, the role of the teacher should be to design lessons and provide feedback that prompted students to discover the relationships between information, and not to teach by rote learning.

Several studies have investigated the effects of directive and facilitative feedback on student learning (Boramy, 2010; Day & Gordon, 1993; Hargreaves & McCallum, 1998). These studies have illustrated that providing students with directive and correct answers resulted in reduced opportunities for students to improve their in-depth thinking. Directive and facilitative feedback, according to Boramy's study (2010) in a Cambodian higher education setting, found that facilitative feedback – feedback focussed on questions and comments regarding the development of content and ideas - was more effective in improving revisions of essays than was directive feedback - comments on grammatical, structural and vocabulary errors. Facilitative feedback was found to be more effective as a means of improving students' organisation and in-depth of treatment of the topic. It was also found to improve the interactive nature of writing. Thus, Boramy (2010) suggests that facilitative feedback be used in addition to directive feedback to improve student writing. Similarly, Day and Gordon (1993) found that suggestions and discussions with students about improvement through scaffolding learners' responses was an effective form of feedback.

In any kind of formative assessment, Hattie and Jaeger's (1998) meta-analyses demonstrated that feedback was the single most powerful moderator in enhancing learning, and should begin with teachers and students establishing learning goals and learning intentions for the lesson (Sadler, 1989). Learning goals are broader statements that establish the purpose of the specific classroom educational activity. Learning intentions are specific, measurable statements to be learnt or attained by the learner. The success of students' attainment depends on their comprehension of teachers' feedback and their ability to follow up on this feedback. As Sadler (1989) stated, student comprehension of learning goals is an important aspect in enhancing learning. Therefore, with better comprehension of their task and learning intentions through feedback on their goals, students are able to complete their written task to a higher standard. Heritage (2007) concurs, suggesting that teacher feedback methods indirectly influence the attainment of the success criteria that guide students' learning.

Self-assessment in assessment for learning

Self-assessment is an on-going process that enables revision and editing. In the formative aspect of assessment, this might take the form of engaging students to critique their own work, while monitoring their progress and guiding revisions. Effective self-assessment creates awareness of success against criteria on specified tasks. Marking feedback is suggested to focus on learning, the quality of which can be improved with shared marking. Self-marking is the process of self-assessment, which is influenced by the success criteria given to students, so teachers who develop a strategy of coded marking are more able to help students based on their success and point of improvement (Clarke, 2001).

Self-regulated learning, on the other hand, is a process of assisting students in reaching their goals by generating ideas, monitoring and modifying thought, and behaviour. In this process, students use a variety of strategies and tactics to promote learning: goal planning, setting and selecting learning strategies (with help), adaptation and seeking feedback all enhance students' abilities in self-regulated learning. In a study by McCallum, Hargreaves and Gipps (2000) of 44 Year 2 and 6 students from around London, evidence indicated that children can conceptualise learning, strategies and process. The good learners were seen using strategies of self-questioning, and searching for connections. They were able to articulate their own process of thinking. Continuous feedback to students was helpful in their learning, setting of goals and self-assessment (Cauley & McMillan, 2009). Hattie and Timperley's (2007) findings likewise revealed the benefit of self-assessment when students are actively engaged in learning

and focussed on goals, and noted that teacher feedback during the process was an important factor to consider when encouraging such self-regulation.

Nonetheless, Bullock's (2011) study revealed contradictory results. On the one hand it showed that when teachers supported self-assessment, student awareness of their strengths and weakness was able to both stimulate and motivate their learning. However, some of the teachers Bullock (2011) interviewed doubted whether their students were actually capable of doing self-assessment. Teachers in the study found that the implementation of self-assessment was time consuming. They struggled to motivate students to frame their own learning aims, and the implementation of self-assessment was challenging without support and training. Likewise, Joyce, Spillar and Twist's (2009) findings revealed that teachers found it challenging to facilitate student during self-assessment. Their findings suggested that teachers needed support to provide an active classroom culture to support the strategies involved in using self-assessment. This indicates that professional development and a school wide culture of self-assessment are also required to facilitate successful self-assessment classroom practice.

Contradictions appear to exist between teachers' expressed beliefs and their practices. In a longitudinal study teachers also reported that self-assessment was significant to teaching (James & Pedder, 2006). An analysis of questionnaires completed by teachers at 43 infant, primary and secondary schools in England revealed that 83% of the teachers valued practices that encouraged discussion and clarification of learning outcomes and criteria for success, focused on formative feedback. Teachers professed to ask open questions that helped build their strength to think critically, self-assess, and develop independence in learning.

In contrast, closed-questions, marks and grades and summative feedback, and ego-focussed feedback were given the lower value. Unexpectedly, the teachers' least valued practice was providing opportunities for students to set their own goals and engage in peer assessment. There was incongruence between their assessment values and their practice values, gaps between the values and self-reported practice; areas such as discussion with students on improvement, integration of self and peer-assessment opportunities and helping students become independent learners. The conclusion drawn by James and Pedder (2006) was that a value/practice divide existed in areas including making learning goals explicit, promoting learning autonomy and performance orientation. The effective development of formative assessment practices entails in-depth understanding of content; making inferences on students' knowledge, and ensuring this information is translated into planning for student improvement

(Sharkey & Murnane, 2003). Teachers may need professional development to resolve these inconsistencies.

Self-assessment encourages decision-making and facilitates the process of providing choices to students, but it should also (ideally) help teachers to manage their time in the process of formative assessment. This is because part of the process includes teachers transferring their evaluative knowledge so that students are able to become independent learners, monitoring their own learning and eventually being able to transfer and practice their skills during the peer assessment process. Two New Zealand studies (Bourke, 2000; Hyland, 2000) have reported that this aspect of self-assessment is yet to be actualized. The studies' findings showed that although self-assessment was promoted in the classroom, the students' involvement in the process of taking accountability for their learning was superficial. Hyland's (2000) study of higher education learning found that while teachers implemented both teacher-feedback and peer-feedback in the classroom, the student still played a dependent role, with the teacher dominating the feedback session. The findings revealed students provided limited contribution to their own learning in a formal setting, but contributions of peer feedback during informal sessions were considered helpful for them.

Transferring evaluative and productive skills through peer assessment

The most effective form of students grasping the complex activity such as writing is for teachers to create experiences for students in the creation, assessment and revision of their work during the writing process (Sadler, 2009b). Teachers therefore need to generate a pedagogical environment in which students are provided with opportunities to make essential and comprehensive assessment of their peers' work during the production of their writing, a strategy to help further improve and enhance their learning (Sadler, 2009b, 2010). Providing opportunities with authentic evaluative activities through peer-assessment enables students to become self-monitoring and gain substantive evaluative experience, a strategic and deliberate act of introducing students into the 'guild knowledge' of the writing community (Sadler, 2010). In addition to the active involvement of students in their own learning, peer assessment helps students provide feedback against similar success criteria that they have used to check their own work through self-assessment.

Peer-assessment is defined as students' involvement in the assessment process of grading or judging the work of their peers through feedback (Topping, 2009), and has been deemed beneficial to students as it promotes students receiving and providing feedback. Students are able to think about and understand the requirements the school has for their learning if they are able to think about them in regard to their peers.

Wiliam (2006) stated that both the provider and recipient benefit from feedback of this kind, as it forces internalization of the learning intentions and success criteria in the context of the task. Black and Wiliam (1998a) propose students be taught to assess their peers with the aim of improving learning, as in the peer-feedback process students' understanding of the assessment process, their learning goals and success criteria is enhanced through both oral and written feedback. However, students need training to carry out the function of editing a peer's task, and teachers may not choose to invest time in preparing students to be editors (Rollinson, 2005). Furthermore, during the process of peer assessment – both oral and written – teachers are still required to gauge each student's ability and to encourage dialogue (Clarke, 2001).

It is possible to consider peer-assessment as a kind of collaborative writing, the theoretical underpinnings of which are the sense of students having an audience through peers, and the transfer-of-learning principles of feedback (Gebhardt, 1980). Through this collaborative process, students are able to gain insight into their own writing and get a sense of how their own work is progressing as they provide comments on the tasks of others, and feedback is "the base" of this (Gebhardt, 1980, p. 69). But importantly, the transfer of skill from reading to critically viewing and giving feedback depends on the kind of feedback the student receives from their teacher, as well as the practice their teacher has facilitated in providing peer-assessment.

Consequently, students often find peer assessment a daunting task, as it does not promote opportunity for dialogue between teachers and students. In a study on the implementation of peer assessment among 81 students in the UK in a higher education setting, McConlogue (2012) found that students reported peer assessors' marking as unfair. The findings relate to the assumed reliability of the teacher's marking judgements, which weighed more heavily than their evaluation of the opportunities for dialogue created through peer assessment.

Zhao's (2010) comparative study on teacher and peer feedback for eighteen Chinese university students in English writing classes found that students preferred teacher feedback and situations where they were passive recipients of the feedback. When asked to provide peer-assessment, they used the feedback without understanding the feedback's significance. Therefore, Zhao suggested, students' understanding of feedback was an important factor to be considered by teachers in developing student writing proficiency. Lee (2007) reported similar findings about students in a study based in Hong Kong; like Chinese and British students, they preferred teacher feedback to peer feedback. The study consisted of six teachers and eighteen secondary school students in Hong Kong, and found that students sometimes copied teachers' feedback into their revision. There was not much thinking by the

students, and they made the similar mistakes in their subsequent writing tasks. The students in the study integrated more teacher feedback than they did their peer feedback, because they viewed teacher feedback as trustworthy. The three findings above suggest that students prefer teacher feedback and marking, and that teachers may need to share the purposes for participating in peer feedback as they prepare students for these new roles.

Challenges in the implementations of peer-assessment

The various theoretical approaches typify the shifting of emphasis in theories about feedback, as outlined in previous sections of this chapter: toward assessment being seen as a teacher/student partnership in which teachers and learners share learning goals, and in which students are encouraged to assert a self-assessment process, thus promoting student autonomy (Cowie 2005; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). Sadler (1989) suggested a framework for assessment to help the process:

- the learner has to possess a concept of the standard, goal or reference level being aimed for;
- the learner must be able compare their actual or current level of performance with the standard;
- the learner must be able to engage in appropriate action which leads to some closure of the gap (p. 121).

As national and international findings have revealed, the implementation of feedback that is formative is complex, a process yet to be fully mastered by teachers. It has been found that teachers have yet to fully utilise feedback as a development strategy to promote student learning *during* learning, and to help them become skilled in the evaluative process as insiders. Research findings have demonstrated that despite theoretical shifts, little has changed in teachers' practical understanding of their roles, and their students' roles, in the teaching of writing and feedback. Both Black and Wiliam's (1998b) and Sadler's (1989) review of research into formative assessment have revealed that even after several decades of research, there is still work to be done in the classroom implementation of formative assessment and feedback that effectively serves it. Furthermore, teachers have yet to make radical changes in their thinking about the roles they play in the assessment process. There has been little change in the distribution of power and control of learning from teachers to students. Even so, it has been argued that teachers are the primary agents for improvement and educational change (Elliot, 1998), therefore research into teachers' own conceptions of what formative feedback is and how they implement it into classroom practice is important.

Kingston and Nash's (2011) recent meta-analysis on formative assessment examined not only the effect size, but found that the extent of its effect was weakened by grade, range of content, and the specific formative assessment interventions. Their meta-analysis, based on 13 studies, found that the effect size of formative assessment was substantially lower to what was reported by Black and Wiliam's (1998a) seminal review. However, the interventions included in the study focussed on assessment activities at juncture points, rather than in on-going practice. Kingston and Nash (2011) argue that there is need for high quality inquiry that taken into account critical variable aspect of a teaching practice.

A major difficulty in the implementation of peer-assessment appears to be in selling the value of peer assessment to students. A study centred on teachers engaged in professional development found that having success criteria as an assessment guide, and using them in gauging whether or not learning intentions were being met, made it easier for teachers to practice formative assessment in the classroom (Webb & Jones, 2009). The interviewed teachers claimed that when students were provided with opportunities for peer-assessment, those students were in a better position to think about their own criteria. However, the major challenge teachers faced was the change in the culture such an approach produced. This is a crucial complication to implementing formative assessment strategies: the culture required to support them is likely to contradict the existing classroom culture, and the existing community surrounding it.

As indicated by studies detailed above, within the classroom context, individual learners sometimes struggle to adapt to peer-assessment practices. In a study of 90 United Kingdom based undergraduate students, Vickerman (2009) found that overall, the peer experience was positive for students. However, one of the pitfalls was that tutors planning and constructing peer assessment strategies needed to be aware of the various learning styles and abilities of their students. Consideration of individual learning styles was also important in that some students found peer-assessment to be less useful. Many students in the study agreed that peer-assessment had enhanced their understanding of the subject due to the direct involvement, but while half the students interviewed in Vickerman's (2009) research found the process useful, others found it a challenging process and preferred teacher assessment.

The challenge in enacting formative assessment and feedback is further heightened by the influence of teachers' beliefs, particularly of teachers' efficacy beliefs and how these beliefs impact their teaching and learning process. Historically in education scholarship, teachers' beliefs in the adoption, adaption or rejection of an initiative have been either ignored or understated (Hargreaves, McCallum & Gipps,

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2000; Richardson, Anders, Tidwell & Lloyd, 1991), although it has been documented that if teachers' individual beliefs mismatch the underpinnings of a reform or initiative, the realization of that initiative will be restricted (Richardson et al., 1991). However, there is a rising body of evidence indicating that teachers' beliefs are strong moderators in the success or failure of assessment reforms (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 1999; Fullan & Mascall, 2000; Hargreaves et al., 2000; Tunstall, 2001). It has been argued that if particular innovation or reform approaches are at odds with teachers' personal beliefs, the implementation of the innovation has little effect on teachers' practices (Carless, 2005; Tierney, 2006). As findings indicate, the relationship between teachers' educational beliefs and practices are reciprocal instead of unidirectional (Levin & Wadmany, 2005; 2008). Teachers tend to embrace new innovations into their classroom practices when they correspond to their personal epistemological beliefs, while resisting or rejecting those that mismatch their goals and expectations about learning. The next section in this chapter will now consider the influence of teachers' beliefs on teachers' implementation of new reforms.

The Nature and Function of Teachers' Beliefs

There have been numerous calls for research to investigate teachers' beliefs in the qualitative approach (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Munby, 1984; Pajares, 1996). According to Pajares (1992), beliefs are crucial as they are part of the process by which an individual identifies and understands themselves. Beliefs are considered the most influential factor in an individual's decision making, and are strong determiners of their behaviours (Dewey, 1933; Bandura, 1986). Belief systems are less flexible than knowledge, and are highly resistant to change. Long held beliefs are considered most difficult to alter, as opposed to newly occurred beliefs. It is rare in adulthood to change beliefs, and evidence points towards the fact that beliefs continue to persevere even when they are no longer commensurate with physical or social reality (Pajares, 1992; Nespor, 1987). Further, they tend to be unaffected or transformed through argument, reason or logic (Fang, 1996; Rokeach, 1968). Nevertheless, researchers like Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) have argued that a change in belief is necessary to precede a change in behaviour.

Self-efficacy beliefs

In Albert Bandura's seminal 1977 paper on self-efficacy, he identifies self-efficacy as a determiner in the progress of one's personality. Self-efficacy is the "belief of one's capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required dealing with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1981, p. 200). In other words, self-efficacy is a

person's belief in their own ability to attain success in specific situations. These beliefs are strong determiners of thoughts, actions and feelings, and develop as new experiences, skills, and understandings are acquired. According to Bandura (1994), self-efficacy determines how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave. Such beliefs produce these diverse effects through four major processes. They include "cognitive, motivational, and effective and selection processes" (Bandura, 1994, p.71) Beliefs often predict teachers' choice of task, effort, persistence, and ultimately, level of success (Bandura, 1994; Schunk, 2003).

Bandura (1977) highlighted that self-efficacy consists of beliefs in one's ability to execute the desired behaviour (efficacy expectation) or beliefs that the performance of the specific behaviour will have the desired result (outcome expectation). As a result, the choices individuals make or the action they take is influenced by beliefs about competence. He claims that individuals to a certain point can believe that a specific course of action will produce certain outcomes, however if "they entertain serious doubts about whether they can perform the necessary activities such information does not influence their behaviour" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). Therefore, without resilient efficacy expectations, an individual will be unlikely to take on the necessary behaviour that will lead to a desirable outcome. Bandura (1977) identified four core foundations of efficacy belief when developing his theory. The four sources were mastery experiences (considered the most powerful), vicarious experiences (beliefs in their capabilities to strengthen and master activities), social persuasions (being told about the ability to succeed) and the individuals' "physiological and emotional states in judging their capabilities" (Bandura, 1995, p. 4).

Furthermore, apart for the beliefs individuals embrace about the world, they hold beliefs about themselves, for example their abilities and capabilities. As a result of the belief about self (efficacy beliefs), the individuals experience becomes instrumental in defining their experience and a platform to exercise control over their lives (Pajares, 1996). Self-efficacy also influences the thoughts and emotions of the individual. According to Pajares (1996), self-beliefs or "expectancy beliefs" are perceived as individual capabilities to attain specific results through "their own motivation, thought processes, affective states and actions, or changing environmental conditions" (p. 546). Efficacy beliefs also focus on what individuals believe they are capable of, irrespective of the competencies, abilities or skills they might actually possess. Pajares (1996) argues that for research purposes, assessment should be tailored to the task under investigation. He explains that it is important studies attempt to establish "relationship between beliefs and outcomes" (Pajares, 1996, p. 550).

In research into the influence of teacher beliefs on teaching, methodologies include asking teachers their judgements on matters and about the influence of their family background and learning, and comparing these to teaching practices. Pajares' (1992) synthesis of the literature about beliefs found that:

> *[Beliefs] travel in disguise and often under alias-attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature* (p. 309).

Rokeach (1972) defined beliefs as "any simple preposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase 'I believe that'" (p. 113). Descriptive beliefs or existential beliefs, evaluative beliefs, and prescriptive or exhortatory beliefs are three kinds of beliefs suggested by Rokeach (1972). A true or false, or correct or incorrect, belief is a descriptive belief. Evaluative belief refers to beliefs that can be stated as being good or bad. Actions or situations that are deemed desirable or undesirable are prescriptive or exhortatory beliefs. All these beliefs work at the different levels such as cognitive, affective, and behavioural level.

Function of beliefs in individuals

An individual's belief system has two significant functions. One the functions of the beliefs systems are that it helps the individual to define and understand themselves the world around them. According to Pajares (1992), individuals are able to understand and identify themselves by what they believe, and by the nature of their beliefs. The second significant function is it often guides their decision-making and behavioural process. The nature and function of the beliefs individuals hold influence the views that influence perception, and indirectly influence behaviour (Pajares, 1992).

According to researchers (Pajares, 1992; Nespor, 1987), beliefs are highly resistant to change; specifically long held beliefs are difficult to alter in contrast to newly attained beliefs. As a result, adult beliefs are less likely to change, and it is to a certain extent a rare phenomenon (Pajares, 1992). As beliefs are often tacitly held, often unarticulated and deeply embedded, individuals rarely validate the accuracy or soundness of their belief systems. Significant evidence indicates that beliefs continue to persevere even when they are no longer accurate illustrations of a social reality (Nespor, 1987). There is substantial agreement that beliefs are not affected by the

application of argument, reason or logic (Rokeach, 1986). Furthermore there are fewer consensuses on whether change in beliefs follows a change in behaviour or a change in beliefs must occur before behaviour can change (Ajzen & Fisbein, 1980).

Significance of teacher's beliefs

The role of teacher beliefs in teaching and learning has been the focus of studies in educational beliefs (Fang, 1996; Guskey, 2002; James & Pedder, 2006; Kagan, 1992). Teacher beliefs have been considered a "messy construct" that needs further research (Pajares, 1992). This is because teacher's beliefs might be tacit and implicit in the way that they impact interaction and instruction in the classroom, making them difficult to isolate. However, investigating beliefs that explain teachers and their practices provide insights into their behaviours and the manner in which their practice is constructed. As a result an investigation into teachers' beliefs and the influence of their beliefs will provide a wider scope in enhancing their educational effectiveness in the classroom.

Teachers' efficacy beliefs have been related to teachers' behaviour and student outcomes. Tschannen-Moran and Wolfolk-Hoy (2001) found in their study that teachers with higher self-efficacy were open to new ideas and willing to experiment in new methods, including the effort to teaching towards the goals they set. The higher the efficacy (Emmer & Hickman, 1991), the less critical of they were of students' errors and the more they worked to help struggling students. Additionally, teachers with greater self-efficacy were less likely to refer students with learning and behavioural problems to external authorities (Soodak, Podell & Lehman, 1998).

All teachers come into their profession holding on to a set of beliefs that they have experienced or learnt (Zeichner, 1989). These beliefs provide a basis for their capacity to understand and filter new beliefs or experiences. Beliefs have a considerable effect on teacher practice and scholars have varying viewpoints on the term's definitions and degree of importance. However despite these different definitions, researchers agree that beliefs have significant influence on teachers' teaching practices, and are highly individualised (Pajares, 1992; Kagan 1992; Borg, 2001). Likewise, in his synthesis of the literature on beliefs, Pajares (1992) found that teachers come into teacher education with a set of beliefs that they have accumulated through their own experience in education as students, and that these beliefs are part of what defines their behaviour, and their organisation of their knowledge and new information (Nespor, 1987). Their epistemological beliefs help filter their understanding of new knowledge or phenomena (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997). Therefore, these epistemological beliefs (Borko & Putnam, 1996) influence teachers' planning, decision-making, practice and interaction.

Many researchers and scholars believe that implementation of any innovation in education depends on teachers accepting it, and that consequently teachers holding on to their traditional beliefs is an obstacle to innovation (Hargreaves et al., 2000; Richardson et al., 1991). Therefore, because teacher beliefs play an important role in their decision-making, they also play an important role in the application of policy changes. As Bandura (1986) states, individual decisions are influenced by beliefs, which are the "best indicators of the decisions that individuals make" (Pajares, 1992, p. 307).

This understanding indicates the need for study into teachers' beliefs, study which explores the process of teachers' understanding and conceptualization of their practice. Accordingly, in order to understand teachers' approaches to providing feedback, it is crucial to understand their beliefs and how these beliefs function. Teachers' core beliefs (Clark & Peterson, 1986) are formed from the teachers' own schooling, and subsequent teacher education does not disturb these initial beliefs. Pajares (1992) explains why beliefs at times are resistant to change:

> *[Beliefs] help individuals to identify with one another and form groups and social systems. On a social and cultural level, they provide elements of structure, order, direction, and shared values. From both a personal and socio/cultural perspective, belief systems reduce dissonance and confusion, even when dissonance is logically justified by inconsistent beliefs one holds. This is one reason why they acquire emotional dimensions and resist change. People grow comfortable with their beliefs, and these beliefs become their "self" so that individuals come to be identified and understood by the very nature of the beliefs, the habits they own* (p. 317).

Pre-existing beliefs

Teachers enter the teaching profession with pre-existing beliefs that have been built over the years spent as learners themselves. Studies on pre-service teacher education have revealed that little effect from efforts spent on changing those existing beliefs in teacher education programmes (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Thomas & Pedersen, 2003). The time teachers spend in the classroom as learners helps develop their educational beliefs, specifically those that relate to what constitutes good teaching and sound teaching practice (Lortie, 1975). Additionally, these beliefs act as filters through which pre-service and in-service education experiences and information are interpreted and subsequently acted upon, adopted or adapted, with the beliefs challenging their pre-existing beliefs being rejected (Thomas & Pedersen, 2003).

The beliefs and practice relationship

In teaching practice, beliefs are influenced by teachers' expectations of learners, their interpretations of good teaching and effective learning, and how attainment or failure of learning can be explained. Findings from empirical studies about teacher beliefs fall into two categories: evidence that teachers' beliefs are stable and resistant to change, and evidence that their teaching styles are influenced by particular beliefs (Kagan, 1992). In contrast, investigation into the connection between espoused beliefs and teaching practice has produced contradictory findings (Fang, 1996). The most probable explanation for the inconsistency is that out-dated, unpopular, tacit and contradictory beliefs continue to influence teaching practice (Kagan, 1992). Another explanation is the broader belief systems and core central beliefs of the part of the system of beliefs held by the teachers are resistant to new beliefs (Pajares, 1992).

Suggestions have been made about the importance of recognizing that teachers' educational and individual beliefs have developed within the socio-historical context dominant at the time they were learners (Poulson & Avramidis, 2004). If this is so, teachers are currently caught in a paradigm shift. They may have been educated according to conventional and traditional values, which were centred on the teacher being the expert and taking the leading role in the classroom, but now they are expected to engage in student-centred practice.

Even so, when teachers are introduced to innovations in classroom teaching that do not match with their prior beliefs, but prove to be successful in practice, they appear able to accommodate that alternate belief. This is consistent with Aguirre and Speer's (2000) exploration of the relationship between teacher beliefs and the teaching process. They found that the differences between teachers' 'attributed' beliefs identified by the researchers and 'professed' beliefs reported by teachers were interchangeable according to the circumstances. Teachers in this study changed their professed, reported beliefs when the circumstances of teaching practice required them.

However, as mentioned a teacher's decision-making may not be affected by application of argument, reason or logic (Fang, 1996) and long held beliefs are difficult to change (Nespor, 1987). Briscoe's (1991) investigation into teacher beliefs found the process of intervention did not change a teacher's beliefs, particularly those in which the teacher still thought or him or herself as the 'expert' and giver of knowledge. Similar findings were reported in other studies (Wilson & Sloanne, 2000; Abelson, 1979). Nevertheless, though teacher beliefs are consistently determiners of the way teachers organise their problems and behaviour in the classroom (Pajares, 1992), given the complexity of the act of teaching, teacher's self-efficacy may not fit uniformly into

one description, neither in relation to the task teachers perform nor the different subject matter they teach (Nespor, 1987). Findings from studies clearly illustrate the vast differences across self-efficacy beliefs, but concur that beliefs have a strong influence on practice (Asthton & Webb, 1986; Poulou & Norwich, 2000; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001; 2007). These findings suggest that professional development must take account of teachers' beliefs.

Professional learning and development influences on beliefs

Many countries are concerned with affecting change in classroom practice through making changes in policy and curriculum statements. It is evident from the assessment and feedback related professional development programmes, and the movement away from traditional structures and forms of internal assessment, that in New Zealand, changes toward formative learning styles are intended. In many cases, the new approaches will challenge teachers' beliefs about assessment. It is therefore critical that any professional development relating to assessment supports a 'change as growth or learning' viewpoint.

By using these lenses, the understanding that change is sustained within the learning component of professional activities is embraced. In regards to teaching, studies have found that teacher self-efficacy is often related to the nature of the attributions made. A highly self-efficacious teacher is likely to be less critical of student error (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Poulou & Norwich, 2000). For example, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) reported that teachers with high self-efficacy were more likely to take responsibility for their successes and failures, as they were more optimistic and enthusiastic, in contrast to the less efficacious peers, who ascribed their success or failures to external factors. Additionally, in reviewing 88 teachers' level of self-efficacy, Ross (1998) found a correlation between teachers' self-efficacy levels and promotion of student autonomy in learning. Teachers with high self-efficacy utilised and promoted student autonomy and enhanced teaching techniques and unitised techniques to promote students in their academic skills and ability.

In consequence, of particular interest to this thesis are those studies that have investigated teacher beliefs and their ability to cope with educational reforms. Guskey's (1988) investigation into teacher beliefs and educational reforms introduced at the time of his study is one example. Guskey found a correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and their attitude towards new practices, and indication that teachers with a strong sense of self-efficacy were open to new ideas and had a willingness to experiment with new practices, as their expectation of outcomes were robust. Similar findings, emphasizing that teachers play an important role in the enactment and

implementation of educational reforms, have come from studies conducted with other groups of teachers (Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002; Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997).

Central to effective professional development is teachers' transferring their knowledge into their practice. Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) suggest professional development should not only support teaching and knowledge building for teachers, but should also promote reflection on their teaching practice. Maloney and Konza (2011) explored an Australian school's participation in a professional learning project, a collaboration between the school and a local university, which was intended to support teachers in developing their practice in early childhood education. Maloney and Konza's investigation of teachers' beliefs and practices revealed that tensions caused by classroom commitments, willingness to engage, and confronting and challenging discussion influenced and affected the outcomes of teachers' participation. The study concluded that there was tension between the teachers' philosophies and the new policy, and that teachers maintained their privately held beliefs and practices. Some teachers perceived engaging in collaboration and collective discourse as time consuming, and preferred to prioritise their daily activities. Outside influences were also found to have created pressure for teachers, as they suppressed their differing opinions and lack of willingness to participate. The study thus indicates that beliefs are a significant factor in the success of professional development in transforming teachers' engagement, contribution and capacity for self-reflection. The shared culture of a school may also influence the success of professional learning in shaping teachers' beliefs and practice.

Teacher collaboration in professional learning communities receives extensive positive endorsement in the literature (Preedy, 2003). It provides teachers with opportunities for interaction with like-minded colleagues in order to facilitate executing new innovations in their classrooms. Teachers are then able to engage with and resolve difficult issues that arise within their learning communities (Dadds, 1998). Professional learning communities indirectly provide opportunities for teachers to modify or confirm their beliefs, and to extend their knowledge, skills and progress in their practice.

Rosenfeld and Rosenfeld (2008) suggest that developing effective teacher beliefs about learners should also be an important element of professional development for teachers. In their study, they found that teachers with interventionist beliefs about students provided more effective practice when compared to teachers with pathognomonic beliefs ('I blame the learner for his difficulties'). The findings revealed that professional development courses that work to sensitize teachers to individual learning differences were effective: after the professional development, the

teachers' interventionist beliefs increased. The authors suggest that mediated, constructive, and collaborative professional development increases the sensitivity and flexibility of teachers' beliefs about students and their individual learning needs.

There are number of models developed to promote and support teachers through professional development. Professional development partnerships include professional development for schools, university/school partnerships, school networks, teacher networks and distance education programmes. Small group or individual professional development includes mentoring, workshops, seminars, courses, self-directed development, co-operative or collegial development, action research, skill-development models, project-based models and reflective models. These links provide support for teachers to examine and reflect on their beliefs and teaching practices, and develop new ones (Desimone, Porter, Garet, Yoon, & Birman, 2002).

But the goal of all of these developments is the improvement of student learning. Student achievement in writing has been reported upon in New Zealand and internationally (Dyson & Friedman, 2003; Flockton et al. 2007), with repeated concerns about the disparity in achievement among students. While it is still contested, student achievement has been linked to the quality of teaching of writing and linked to teacher practice (Hattie, 2009), hence an emphasis on professional development for teachers. This is especially relevant as, as it is documented by researchers, teachers are key in the successful implementation of formative feedback practices in the classroom, just as they are in the implementation of all policy changes. There is clear and strong evidence of teachers' espoused and at times tacitly held beliefs influencing their choice of formative assessment and feedback practice.

As Kagan (1992) indicated, teachers' personal beliefs act as the "filter and foundation of new knowledge" (p.75). These beliefs too are messy constructs, as teachers' reported beliefs sometimes do not match their practice. New knowledge that is inconsistent with their personal beliefs will be rejected or assimilated into existing conceptions (Pajares, 1992). Therefore there is a need for teachers to be supported in making their tacit beliefs explicit, the reason being that unless these ingrained and deeply–rooted beliefs are exposed and challenged, they will remain in place. This is relevant to this thesis as there is evident variation in the implementation of formative assessment and feedback strategies, particularly as they inform teacher and student roles, and the role teachers' beliefs play in the process provides a possible explanation for the variation in practice. As a result, in my research, teachers' espoused beliefs about formative assessment and feedback act as lenses to explore their beliefs and understandings about formative assessment and feedback that that are tacitly held. Subsequently, their espoused beliefs and the tacitly held beliefs that influence their

feedback practice are explored within the framework of effective feedback conditions (Sadler, 1989). My classroom observations provide deeper insight into teachers' implementations of formative assessment and feedback, thus enabling both their espoused and tacitly held beliefs to be examined through their theory in practice, exploring their connections.

Locating formative feedback within the writing lesson

Teachers have faced a changing landscape around teaching of writing since the 70s. There seems a considerable amount of confusion in the wider perspective of theorising the teaching of writing regarding understanding the dimensions of the writing processes. In terms of pedagogy, cognitive model research forms the basis of current conceptions of process writing (Graves, 2003). However, the form of process writing pedagogy the teacher was exposed to influences the way they engage with students in teaching of writing. Some teachers focused on the cycle process and others were more flexible through generating ideas and revising, editing, and publishing them (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Layered onto the writing processes was the current view of writing development that cannot be a separate from student involvement as partners in the writing process. As a result, teachers faced challenges in implementing the act of writing, and knowing how to provide formative feedback.

Providing both written and oral formative feedback has been presented in the literature as a challenging practice to teachers. The existing research literature shows that the way writing is taught is positioned differently within different theoretical perspectives that teachers' hold (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1990; Grossman, Smagorinsky & Valencia, 1999; Poulson & Avramidis, 2004), and that writing lesson practices reflect teachers' identities in primary classrooms. Teachers' theoretical orientations are philosophical principles that guide their decision-making. These epistemological beliefs include teachers' theories about students, curriculum, pedagogy and what their roles should be (Porter, 1989). Yet teachers with similar theoretical orientations may vary in their practice due to curriculum requirements, and social, psychological and immediate school settings. Complying with these external influences, some teachers fall into instructional belief and practices, specifically the traditional and process approaches. The traditional approach emphasises explicit instruction, an error-free written product, and a topic selected and completed with limited independent writing time (Hairston, 1982; Raimes, 1991). Traditionally, the final product is then assessed by the teacher. In contrast, the process approach emphasizes methods of learning, and uses literature and interaction from teacher and peers (Graves; 2003; Myhill & Jones, 2007). This is more attuned to formative assessment processes.

Writing is a complex and dynamic activity carried out in the classroom and has progressed without a single agreed upon model from scholarship that prescribes the most appropriate content of writing within teaching, learning and assessment (Parr, 2013). As a result, Marshall (2004) claims writing as an art without a formal agreed upon technique or recipe that would lead to high quality responses (Sadler, 2009b). Therefore, writing consists of complex and diverse features, which indirectly indicate the quality or representation of 'good writing' to teachers. However it is challenging for teachers to list all the characteristics of good writing, so a selection of the most significant criteria is often referenced in the classroom. These feature or properties are referred to success criteria (Sadler, 2009a). There is, however, an ongoing problem in that these fixed criteria can overlook significant features that emerge during the production of a written language. These features include attention to task completion, rather than the more substantive elements of a piece of writing, and student engagement in the writing process itself (Hawe & Parr, 2013; Timperley & Parr, 2009). Hawe et al. (2008) argue that restricting attention to criteria and over-emphasizing its value or features in writing may result in teachers overlooking the students' message or original contribution during the production and evaluation process.

The significant challenges related to pinning down what constitutes 'quality' in writing, and relating that to what constitutes to successful achievement for a student who is learning to write is not an indication that educators should abandon the articulation of goals or successful achievement. However, using goals and standards of reference as sets of pre-determined criteria (Sadler, 2009a) to define students learning progression and success in the writing process is not fully sufficient to facilitate effective learning, especially when progression in learning leads different students through different pathways to successful attainment (Marshall, 2004). Often, as student's writing develops, teachers and students clarify and establish criteria of success they value in the written work. In New Zealand, teachers do not take on board the full and exclusive externally produced rubrics or success criteria for developing students understanding of the quality of work required. The rubrics and criteria established by the Ministry of Education(Ministry of Education, 2003a, 2006) are often adapted and adjusted by teachers to suit students, and using a range of pedagogical tools, exemplars (Ministry of Education, 2003b) and the nature of writing provide insight to students about the quality of writing required (Parr & Limbrick, 2010). As a result, the tools and methods teachers develop in teaching of writing should serve as a point of reference for required quality, and in making evaluation about students' written drafts.

However, disparity in student achievement has drawn attention to the teaching of writing, both in New Zealand and internationally (Bangert-Drowns, Hurley & Wilkinson, 2004; Boscolo, 2008; Cutler & Graham, 2008; Flockton, Crooks & White, 2007). While it is still being contested, student achievement has been linked to the quality of teaching of writing, and linked to teacher practice (Hattie, 2009). Feedback that creates opportunities for teacher/student interactions has been highlighted in education literature as helping students progress in their learning of writing (Askew & Lodge, 2000; Carnell, 2000; Sadler, 1989; Torrance & Pryor, 2001; Tunstal & Gipps, 1996). Feedback interaction has been described as sharing ideas, thoughts, and opinions during the writing process (Anderson, 1999).

As indicated by Carnell (2000), effective interaction has reciprocity, spontaneity and collaboration, creating a shared partnership in learning between teacher and learner. Through this process, students are then given more control of their learning, especially decision-making regarding their work, and in this way students become insiders to the feedback process (Sadler, 1989). This is beneficial as students become less reliant on teacher-supplied feedback and become more self-monitoring. Stiggins and Chappuis (2005) claim that a teachers' instructional task through feedback to students is to take students to "the edge of their capabilities and to encourage growth as an essential part of the assessment process" (p. 13). Significantly, however, in two New Zealand studies (Hawe et al., 2008; Knight, 2003), this style of interaction was found to be absent from practice, specifically student involvement in constructing achievement through forward feedback as described by Tunstall and Gipps (1996).

Studies indicate that teachers demonstrate uneven understanding of formative assessment practices in general, and this uncertainty extends to those used in the teaching of writing in particular. Teachers' knowledge of quality writing involves the writing process, linguistic functions, understanding student progression, and their pedagogical practice that enable them scaffold students through interaction and strategies (Locke, 2005). Teachers are required to mediate their own interpretations with school interpretations of the new curricula, and the shift in the teaching of writing approaches has had them questioning the most effective approach in teaching of writing. The process, genre and multiliterate (Cazden et al., 1996) approaches exemplify different ideologies and pedagogies over the past decades, and it is evident in the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1994; Ministry of Education, 2007b) that the cognitive process in writing (Flower & Hayes, 1989; Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1982), and cognitive theories (Graves, 2003; McCormick, 2003) are now central. In New Zealand the process approach of writing was adopted and prompted the publication *Dancing With The Pen* (Ministry of Education, 1992). However, there is

still argument among scholars, and agreement on students' knowledge of different genres of writing is yet to be fully developed. The implementation of English in the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1994) has introduced teachers to both text and genre based pedagogies. These changes in the curriculum have created theoretical and pedagogical shifts for New Zealand primary teachers. Dix's (2012) study explored ten primary teachers writing classrooms, with the range of experience from 2-28 years. Findings revealed teachers had individualistic identities when teaching writing, for some teachers their experience of how children write, other fitted with their particular theoretical beliefs and perceptions of writing, or their limited personal knowledge. Some teachers actively created their own method of teaching of writing to fit the context they were teaching in. Significant finding from this study was that teachers are still grappling with recent political and theoretical shifts. Dix (2012) concludes one of the reason behind the lack of teacher engagement was that teachers were still guided by English as laid out in the 1994 curriculum, which had a genre-based theoretical and pedagogical focus, even after the adoption of a newer and now current curriculum, New Zealand Curriculum for English-medium teaching and learning in years 1-13 (Ministry of Education, 2007b).

Studies have suggested that teachers need professional development to enhance their knowledge in assessment and writing, both at the theoretical level and suited to practice. (Dix, 2012; Dix & Cawkwell, 2011; Locke et al. 2011; Limbrick, Buchanan, Goodwin & Schwarcz, 2005; 2010). Limbrick et al. (2005) reported that teachers lacked confidence in their knowledge on the teaching of writing. Their two-year study of over 20 teachers from low socio-economic area primary schools in New Zealand investigated teachers' pedagogical and content knowledge of writing. They reported that teachers' knowledge was enhanced when they were supported, for example teachers in this study worked with literacy leaders to reflect on their own practice and teaching. As a result, teachers were better able to target students' strengths and needs, and to raise their achievement in writing.

The positive changes brought about by PD, and teachers reflecting on their own practice, support Hattie and Timperley's (2007) report that there is often little evidence of teachers assessing the effectiveness of their teaching of writing to enhance learning. Teachers in this study identified time constraints that prevented them from establishing the appropriate culture for the classroom community in developing formative assessment practice. Teachers found formative assessment made sense to them, but it was challenging to communicate that sense, as students had to master the dialogic tools and skills required. Like their teachers, students had to experience changes in beliefs that had been well-developed to practice peer feedback.

Teachers with sound pedagogical content knowledge is significant to providing written feedback that is formative in function. A study by Parr and Timperley (2010) on teachers from six schools revealed teachers ability to provide formative feedback on student writing was related to students' achievement. It was considered as significant component of the teaching practice that developed students writing. Another important aspect was a commitment by teachers. Parr and Limbrick (2010) in their study identified teachers that were committed to formative assessment practice in their classroom, and who showed greater awareness of student learning needs, were effective teachers of writing. They argue that student achievement in writing was influenced by teachers who exhibited strengths in providing purpose and meaningfulness, as well as being consistent and systematic in their practices.

As studies show, teachers' beliefs, pedagogical and content knowledge on the teaching of writing, knowledge of their students and their own personal confidence affects their engagement and role in their teaching of writing process, thus influencing the formative feedback practice. New Zealand's Education Review Office (ERO) (2007) evaluated the effectiveness of teachers assessing student achievement in writing, motivating and engaging students to achieve and the extent of teachers' subject and pedagogical knowledge in writing across 159 state schools at Year 4 and Year 8 in New Zealand. The findings of the report found that 41% teachers were effective or highly effective and 13% of teachers needed improvement across all aspects of their writing. Based on the report, recommendations were made to focus on both teacher and school wide teaching of writing practice.

Nevertheless, one significant finding has been that all teachers engaged in feedback in the classroom, the only contrast between teachers, and between instances where their feedback is summative or formative, is in their feedback strategies. Additionally, consideration to students' understanding of the feedback response is an important factor (Zellermayer, 1989), as feedback should ideally be given without confusion and misinterpretation (Richardson et al., 1991). As Huot (2002) notes, students are better able to respond to written feedback when it is transformative and open-ended. A number of research studies have demonstrated that when teaching is centred on students' targeted needs and informed by evidence from their previous achievements, their overall level of achievement can be enhanced (Buly & Valencia, 2002; Kennedy & Shiel, 2013; McNaughton & Lai, 2009).

Written language is a context in which significant rich data about teachers' ability to implement theoretically appropriate formative feedback practices can be generated. The relevant literature and the current focus of literacy teaching and learning have been specified in national education policy goals since 1999 (Ministry of

Education, 1999). However, it is significant to find the relationship between teachers' beliefs in the uptake and enactment of formative assessment and feedback in the writing lesson. This is because in their classrooms, teachers' beliefs on teaching influence the many ways their expectations, views and learning are visible in their practice.

In the next section I present the theoretical framework that underpins my research and analysis: the prescription for the best practice of formative assessment feedback proposed by Sadler (1989). It is important for the framework to be explicated and examined as a basis for examining effective feedback conditions. In order to understand teacher beliefs, formative assessment and feedback practices, and their implementation, it is important to identify effective feedback. This then enables research on teachers' beliefs about effective formative feedback their impact upon classroom practice to be grounded in relation to a goal.

Sadler's Theoretical Framework for Examining Formative Assessment and Feedback

A theory is defined by Lerner (2002) as a group of statements, such as concepts or philosophies that incorporate current information to lead to the generation of new information of a phenomenon. As theory is dynamic and changing in nature; when new information is discovered, new inquiries emerge as a result of the questions that arise. As results of the new questions, the inadequacy/ dissatisfaction of current explanations arise and are highlighted (Schunk, 2000). The function of a theory is to integrate existing facts and generate argument by giving new meaning to them, and to provide a framework for the generation of new information. Sadler's (1989) theorisation of formative assessment and feedback integrated new meaning to the understanding of formative assessment that was current at the time, challenging existing understandings, and offered new explanations of formative assessment and feedback.

The notion that feedback did not affect learning achievement was a significant catalyst for Sadler's (1989) attempt to reconsider the role, nature and function of feedback in enhancing learning. His theorisation was developed during the time when feedback was regarded as a measurement and grade dominated the assessment paradigm. Sadler's theory of formative assessment and feedback outlines and breaks the existing and current paradigm by creating a coherent and strong theory. Discarding previous notions of feedback that suggested that its ineffectiveness was due to the learners themselves, his hypothesis was that the existing instructional system itself was deficient. As a result, his theoretical stance sets out the necessary conditions for

effective feedback to be formative in nature to enhance learning. Hence, Sadler applies the notion of formative and summative assessment to students' learning (Brookhart, 2004), with detailed exposition of notion by giving clear definitions, their purposes and differences. Sadler argues that the central purpose of assessment and feedback was to enhance competence, unlike summative assessment was concerned with reporting achievement and did not effect on learning. Emphasizing what he claimed to be different entities and critical points of dissimilarities between summative and formative assessment, the purpose and effect of his theory brings into spotlight previously hidden, misinterpreted and unclear points of summative and formative assessment.

According to Sadler (1989), the teachers' role in formative assessment is more than to simply provide feedback to promote learning. It is also to help students understand their learning goals and to assist them in developing the skills needed to make judgements about their learning. Teachers facilitate learners in establishing a repertoire of strategies to regulate their own learning. This is a significant and essential feature of formative assessment: that students monitor their own learning and take on board corrective actions so that they do not become dependent on the teacher. If students lack the resources to attain learning through self-monitoring, they then become solely dependent on teacher feedback as the primary resource for learning. As a result, they lack the capacity to develop as life-long learners. Sadler's (1989) foundational conception of formative assessment is not a specific instrument. Instead formative assessment is viewed as a practice and process centred based on ideas of the 'feedback loops'. These feedback loops are feedback information used by both teachers and students to alter the gaps and ensure further learning is taking place.

Feedback in the formative assessment process

One significant argument posed by Sadler was the purpose of feedback was more than just to provide learners with the results of their achievement through evaluative judgement in the form of grades/marks. He argues that knowledge of results is insufficient to help learners improve and feedback is a critical strategy to shape and enhance learning and progress. Hence Sadler identifies the crucial role feedback plays in the process assessment and learning. He contends that in order for feedback to be formative in function, the relationship between feedback and its effect on learning is the crux of the matter. Feedback information from the teacher cannot be considered feedback if it is not acted upon. Therefore feedback that is formative has to be used to improve learning and to enable learners to self-monitor their strengths and weakness. Formative feedback helps learners modify and improve their learning in order to close

the gap between their current and desired performances. A pertinent aspect of Sadler's (1989) argument is that students should develop their knowledge and expertise, and should not depend on a teacher telling them what to correct and how to effect improvement.

However, for feedback to take on the formative role, and be related to improvement in learning, students have to possess a concept of the goal or standard aimed for, in order to compare their current performance with a desired performance, and to take appropriate actions that will lead to closure of that gap. In identifying this, Sadler (1989) not only re-conceptualised the purpose of feedback (Gipps, 1994), but also understanding of the nature of feedback that is formative. He challenges the concept of feedback being teacher-centred and being a transmission of knowledge controlled by the teacher, with students positioned as passive recipients in the process. Rather, Sadler argued that learners' having the central role in their learning and assessment process was vital. To achieve this, he proposed that learners should take on an active role, working in partnership with the teacher. In Sadler's design, the learner and teacher work together to form a partnership that enables the learner to know the teachers' guild knowledge, which is made transparent and accessible to learners.

Sadler's theory of formative assessment and feedback

For the reasons outlined above, the theoretical framework for this thesis is guided by Sadler's (1989) theory of formative assessment and feedback, both in the data collection method used, and the analysis of data. My selection of Sadler's theoretical framework is based on the connection between his theory and research evidence on teaching and learning practice. The nature of feedback had previously been studied in the context of measurement and grades; Sadler's (1989) theorisation re-defined several significant factors in focusing formative assessment and feedback on classroom practice (Black & Wiliam, 1998b). Sadler's theory frames three conditions for effective feedback, in particular drawing attention to the student's involvement in the assessment and feedback process.

Sadler argues that assessment should focus on "who makes the judgements, how they are made, how they may be refined, and how they may be put to use in bringing about improvement" (Sadler, 1989, p. 119). Sadler's theoretical exposition of formative assessment places feedback as a key element for successful performance by students. His argument is that feedback is not just information provided by teachers, but has effect on students in improving their learning, and in monitoring the strengths and weaknesses of their performance.

Traditionally, the teacher must possess a concept of quality appropriate to the task, and make judgements based on student performance in relation to that concept. Sadler, however, argues that for students to improve, the student themselves must hold a concept of quality similar to that held by the teacher; they should be able to themselves monitor the quality of their work, and have a range of strategies at their disposal to engage in closing the gap. As Sadler writes, to enable self-monitoring to take place, teachers should share "guild knowledge" (p. 127) and teachers' judgement of the quality of performance to task should be accessible to students, so that they can understand the quality that is required in their performance.

Furthermore, teachers should use multiple criteria to judge student performance, making qualitative judgements. Sadler's (1989) detailed clarification of formative assessment emphasises the need of communicating standards and strategies as the significant aspect of effective feedback process. He argued that the key notion of formative assessment and feedback is that the three conditions should be satisfied and enables students to become self-monitoring. Rather than three conditions working as separate entities, they should be satisfied simultaneously during the act of learning. Teachers should also assess the quality of responses with an independent method of confirming their judgement before the marks or scores are assigned. Sadler provides three conditions that significant for effective feedback.

The first condition: Communicating standards to students

Communicating required standards to students helps them understand the reasons or purposes to their attaining the target goals, and helps improve performance (Pintrich, 2000b). Transition from feedback to self-monitoring can occur when teachers share this knowledge with students so students know what constitutes a high-quality completion of the task. This presumes that teachers possess the knowledge required to identify the quality they are looking for. In practice, teachers' conception of quality is frequently held as tacit knowledge and often unarticulated. Teachers' experiences of making qualitative judgements, in exchanging students' work with other teachers, and collaboration in making rigorous judgements creates a form of guild knowledge. Student-exclusive guild knowledge is unsuitable to the process of formative feedback, as it emphasises ranking and comparison that are irrelevant in formative assessment. Besides, one of the most significant requirements of formative assessment is that students are aware of the standards set out for them, which suggests that specifying the standards through descriptive statements and exemplars provide an efficient means of externalising a reference level (Sadler, 1987).

Thus, Sadler (1989) argues that for learning and improvement to take place, students should be able to self-monitor their performance through knowledge of expected quality. Therefore, Sadler advocates teachers must make their 'guild knowledge' accessible to students so that over time students "students hold a concept of knowledge" similar to their teachers (Sadler, 1989, p. 121). Learners having knowledge of expected quality is significant to the improvement process of their learning. With such knowledge, students will become less dependent on teachers and become self-monitoring of quality in their work, a key condition if improvement is to be made. Sadler's definition of a standard or reference level is "a designated degree of performance or excellence [which] becomes a goal when it is desired, aimed for, or aspired to" (p. 129). Teachers assign external goals, teachers, or goals developed and adapted by their students, are significant in regulation of students' performance when students take ownership of a goal by setting, internalising and adopting it.

The second condition: Making multicriterion judgements

Sadler (1989) argues consistently that students become self-monitoring. As he argues, teachers should not merely provide students feedback in the form of information; rather students should play an active role in the feedback process. Significant to Sadler's theory are students becoming active participants in their learning and assessment. Discarding the concept of learners as consumers of feedback information, he argues that learners should be able to produce feedback information themselves. Therefore, students need to develop capacity to make judgements on the quality of their work based on multiple criteria during the actual production of their work. Students should be able to compare their actual level of performance against the appropriate standards, making multicriterion judgements of their work with objectivity and detachment. This provides opportunities for students to compare their actual level of performance with the expected standard.

Given the complex interrelations among criteria, using whole set of criteria for a single assessment would be challenging. In formative assessment, the judgment on student work based on multiple criteria is often translated for students' benefit. Students, he argues, are able to apply the concept of making judgements based on the comparison of multiple criteria through attainment of evaluative knowledge and experience. Given that evaluative knowledge of teacher's comments is tacit, students need support to develop the appropriate body of tacit knowledge to interpret the 'guild'. Knowledge of criteria may be developed inductively through prolonged engagement in the evaluative activity, but Sadler suggests this process can be sped up if teachers provide experience in authentic settings for evaluative knowledge to better

enable students to understand the guild knowledge. By doing that, students are able to acquire the knowledge through support, becoming insiders in the assessment process.

Some challenges, particularly those presented by the fact that understandings of variation in quality are often vague, incomplete, or ambiguous, can be addressed through shared teacher/student assessment of the genre. Student engagement in evaluative and corrective peer-assessment activity is advantageous, especially when the assessment is done on work that is similar to their own. Students are then able to gain insight into assessment and evaluative procedure, and also to understand the wide range of common procedural problems, and options for addressing them when faced with achieving a goal. They are also able to expand their repertoire of moves and strategies, which they can then transfer to their own task. They then gain the skill of progressing independently as self-confident writers. As Sadler argues, the provision of evaluative experience and the development of self-assessment skills and gap-closing strategies occur simultaneously.

Evaluative knowledge is essential knowledge of the criteria against which work will be judged, and the rules of using this set of criteria comprises understanding of the properties contained with the given set of criteria. This knowledge can only be gained through experience and in an authentic setting. Sadler (1989) claims that knowledge and expertise are gained through "an inductive process which involves prolonged engagement in evaluative activity shared with and under the tutelage of a person who is something of a connoisseur" (p. 135). This indicates that students need the support and guidance of teachers to understand the 'guild knowledge', and in becoming insiders in the process of assessment and learning. Learners are able to develop the skills and expertise by appraising their peer's work. Therefore, peer-assessment is a significant strategy that should be incorporated into the learning process. The students appraisal of their peer's work will enable them to gain insight and understanding of the common problems faced in attaining a specific goal and a repertoire of approaches used by their peers, and how those strategies can be applied to their own work. Another significant component of peer-assessment is that it enables students to gain a degree of objectivity, which is essentially challenging when required by teachers to make judgments about their own work. Thus, according to Sadler (1989), developing evaluative knowledge and expertise will provide learners the support they need to become independent of teachers' feedback and becoming more self-monitoring.

The third condition: Strategies for closing the gap

The third condition necessary to enabling self-monitoring is for students to be "able to select the appropriate strategies to bring their performance closer to the goal"

(Sadler, 1989, p. 138). Even so, peer and self-assessment do not automatically create the expertise to produce or improve learning. Therefore, it is critical for students to become self-monitoring. Sadler (1989) rejects the traditional understanding of formative assessment, where teachers are placed as the expert and students as the passive recipient in the assessment process. He argues that learners should have evaluative knowledge and expertise so that they are able to evaluate the quality of the work produced in regards to the expected standards. The development of students' productive knowledge and expertise is critical if they are to become self-monitoring. If teacher-centred feedback dominated the classroom, students will be unable to develop autonomy in their learning.

He argues that teachers should provide opportunities for students to develop self-monitoring strategies and become autonomous learners, so that students can then become active participants in their learning and development. Feedback from teachers should enable students to engage in a variety of strategies during the production of the task to close the gap between current and desired performance. Students' roles are made important, and they are encouraged to be able to engage with and evaluate their own work and produce work that is anticipated. Teachers therefore should facilitate learning autonomy and enable students to reflect on and make decisions about what actions affect their learning and lead to improvement. Sadler (1989) therefore maintains that students need to engage in action that will lead to them closing the gap between their current and desired performance. Most importantly, he argues, this has to take place during learning and the production of work. Figure 2.2 on the next page highlights the key concepts of Sadler's (1989) theorisation of formative assessment and feedback that enhances learning. As he argues, teachers hold a significant role in the process of interpreting the learner's current performance and their desired performance, and in identifying the gaps that exist in their knowledge and proficiency. Teachers then select tasks or work suitable for their students and share the 'guild knowledge' of what quality they are looking for with their students, so that students are able to self-monitor their progress. This concept and knowledge of quality is then shared with the students and transferred through peer and self-assessment strategies within formative assessment to enable to students to gain evaluative and productive skills and expertise.
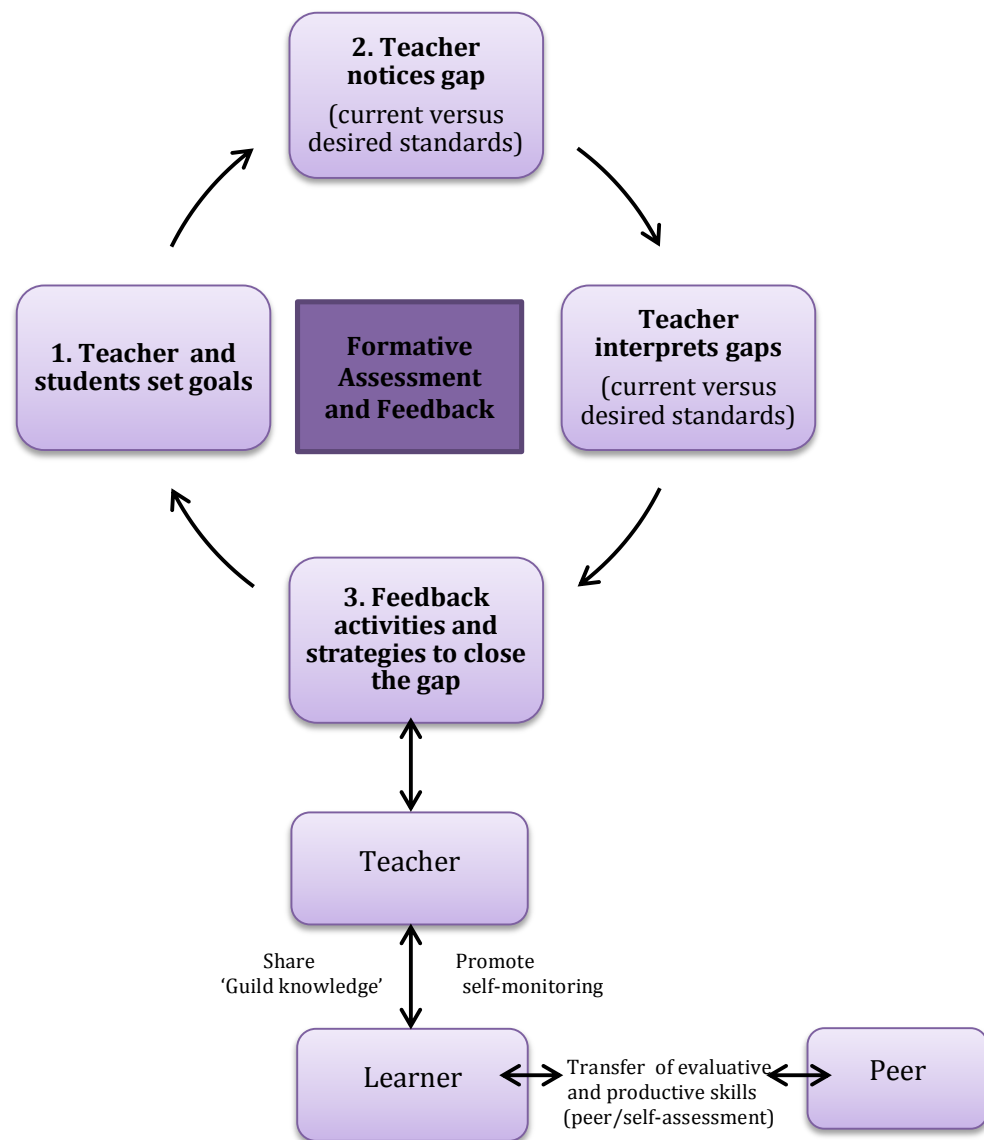
Figure 2.2: Formative assessment and feedback strategies

The strength of the theoretical framework

As theory and research are always developing through new ideas and findings, Sadler's later work makes no drastic change to his underlying theory, but does add a significant level of detail to the feedback strategies originally proposed. In his 1998 paper, Sadler describes feedback from teachers as an evaluative act communicated to students through discerning, appraising, and responding. He stated that three elements make up a feedback act; attending to a learner's production, appraising it against some reference point (sometimes unarticulated or non-exemplified), and then making an explicit response. Teachers' appraisal usually involves reflection and identification of students' strength and weaknesses. Sadler (1998) reiterates students' involvement in

the assessment process, and argues that teachers' assessment acts must provide the students opportunities to acquire knowledge:

Formative assessment does make a difference, and it is the quality, not just the quantity, of feedback that merits our closest attention. By quality of feedback we now realise we have to understand not just the technical structure of the feedback (such as accuracy, comprehensiveness, and appropriateness) but also its accessibility to the learner (as a communication), its catalytic and coaching value, its ability to inspire confidence and hope (p. 84).

In Sadler's (2007) response to assessment practice, nearly a decade later, he identifies the fact that teachers use the terms 'criteria' and 'standards' interchangeably in their discourse (p. 388). He himself defines criteria as properties or characteristics, or a fixed level above a desired designation, that when achieved be rewarded. Standard he refers to the particular required quality or level of quality (Sadler, 1987). It is therefore important teachers have clarity regarding criteria and standards the students are aiming to achieve. Criteria in an assessment task is ideally referred to students and pre-set. Sadler (1989) identified over 50 published criteria for written composition.

His argument stems from the understanding that learning is achieved when students are able to do on demand something they could not do before, and to do it independently, and well (Sadler, 2009a). He refers to the importance of teachers framing their feedback statements with descriptive statements based on the students' production, such as specific features in their work, pre-established criteria, and suggestion for improvement in comparison to their current performance. Sadler's formative assessment theorisation has led to significant research being undertaken and in many cases his theory being utilised in that process. Many researchers have used his theoretical position as guide and reference in their projects (for example Black & Wiliam, 2006; Gipps, McCallum & Hargreaves, 2000; Torrance & Pryor, 1998; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996)).

As already discussed Tunstall and Gipps' (1996) research in primary schools concentrated on the characteristics of effective feedback and created a typology grounded in classroom practice. According to their typology, feedback can be evaluative (judgemental) or descriptive (related to achievement/improvement). They applied Sadler's (1989) and Crooks (1988) work as frameworks to analyse and present their key findings. They identified eight types of feedback that teachers employed in their classroom practice to support learning, including Sadler's (1989) theory of student work compared against criteria; teacher/student partnerships in assessment; the use of exemplars, and the providing of opportunities for self-monitoring, all

informed by the categorisation of evaluative and descriptive feedback types. References and significant attention to the typology have since been made by policymakers and researchers.

Additionally, as Sadler argues, and as also discussed earlier in this chapter, one of the key aspects of formative feedback is sharing learning intentions and goals with students. Shirley Clarke, an educational consultant from the United Kingdom, developed practical formative assessment strategies for teachers to employ in the classroom on this basis. Clarke (2000) utilised Sadler's concept of communicating standards by developing strategies, such as sharing learning intentions with students, and introduced the idea of success criteria being made explicit to students. A publication for teachers by Clarke (2001) was distributed widely throughout New Zealand through teacher professional development projects such as (AToL). This was specifically written for primary, intermediate, and secondary school teachers. Another edition of her work, *Unlocking Formative Assessment* (Clarke et al., 2003) has been a resource subscribed to by schools

In the United Kingdom, Torrance and Pryor (1998) undertook an empirical project to identify formative assessment practices in the infant classroom. They developed a conceptual framework, identifying convergent and divergent formative assessment, constructing the findings utilising Sadler's (1989) theoretical concepts and proposed classroom practices. Their conceptual framework illustrates the potential of formative assessment to enhance learning.

Another significant project is the King's-Medway-Oxfordshire Formative Assessment Project (Black et al., 2003), focussed on teacher professional development in the United Kingdom. The project, funded by the Nuffield Foundation, put into practice effective formative assessment strategies. The team of researchers incorporated a number of formative assessment strategies into teachers' professional classroom practice. They worked with 48 secondary school teachers in developing students' understanding of quality work, and the development and modification of criteria. These two studies in the United Kingdom elicited global attention on formative feedback practices.

The adoption of Sadler's theory, the reporting of findings that support his assertions, and the explanations and verification of the research and the studies grounding the theory into classroom practices offer evidence of trustworthiness of the theory (Neuman, 2003). Sadler's (1989) work has shaped and redefined teacher and student roles in the formative assessment and feedback process in practice. Influential scholars in the field of assessment respect Sadler's theoretical exposition of formative

assessment and feedback. It is thus reasonable to assume that his theoretical framework is a useful and functional explanatory tool for analysis of data; it was, and is, trustworthy. Teachers in New Zealand have been encouraged to implement formative assessment and feedback strategies that have been grounded by Sadler's work. Therefore it is reasonable to assume that some concepts from Sadler's theory would be present in teacher's reported beliefs and their teaching strategies. Sadler's (1989) theoretical framework is the most suitable theory to be intertwined with the data I have sought out, and the most likely to provide a comprehensive analysis, specifically on teacher's beliefs regarding formative assessment and feedback, teacher and student roles in the classroom, and their feedback strategies in supporting students to identify gaps in their performance and to work towards closing the gaps.

Limitations of Sadler's theory for exploring formative assessment and feedback

There are a number of limitations to Sadler's theorisation of formative assessment and feedback when applied to the context of teaching written language in the primary classroom. Despite the fact the theory provides useful explanation of effective formative assessment and feedback strategies to enhance students' learning, and a method by which analysis might move from description to explanation, Sadler's theory has been subjected to criticism based on its limitations when theorising students' self-regulations. One limitation, identified by Boekaerts (2006), is on the self-regulation as a process. Self-regulation targets the effects, cognition, and actions as well the setting by which the learning goals are addressed, and proposes a dual processing theory. Students' participation in a learning activity involves perception of the task and the instructional context, activation of domain-specific knowledge and metacognitive strategies related to the task, and motivational beliefs in students, which include capacity, interest and effort during the self-regulation process. These elements are not addressed in Sadler's theory of effective formative practice on students' participation as 'insiders' in their learning, limiting the conception of success when students understand quality and are able to provide evaluative and productive skills through peer and self-assessment.

Another limitation is visible through the understanding of cognitive and motivational theories, which provide deeper explanation of the reason behind the success of formative assessment when students become more engaged and use more self-regulation, and develop stronger understanding of subject matter (Bandura 1977, 1995; Bandura & Cervone, 1983). It has been argued that the transparency of formative assessment process is crucial and sometimes may limit the language use itself (Ecclestone, 2002). The concept of feedback against pre-specified criteria creates a

controlled classroom language interaction. Sadler (2005) argues that quality of standards should be in relation to the specific lesson and supported by exemplars.

Sadler (1998, 2009a, 2009b, 2010) addresses some of these issues through examination of previous literature, to identify features of formative assessment such as cognitive research into students' self-awareness in monitoring their learning referred to meta-cognitive research which leads to improvement in students' achievement. Literature examining cognitive aspects of student learning demonstrates significant importance in students' knowledge prior entering the classroom, often suggesting that strong prior knowledge is essential to supporting new learning and enabling transfer of learning. However, formative assessment processes directly connect the teaching and learning strategies to students' current performance. Therefore, teachers' interaction practices, and the language they use, are significant: the concept of quality can be inducted by students through more than just pre-specified criteria alone. Restriction on criteria as a point of reference has been consistently critiqued, as researchers identify that students need support to deconstruct the criteria by 'how', and argue that engaging students through a metacognitive approach is a critical approach in assessment (Pryor & Crossouard, 2008). The aim of such a process is to understand the nature of the criteria, and to encourage students and teachers to be open to new emerging criteria during the formative practice.

Although Sadler's (1989) theory is consistent on 'closing the gaps' between the current and the desired and develop students evaluative and productive skills, it has been interpreted as too limited to identify the effectiveness of feedback (Gibbs & Simpson, 2004). The concern is to reposition formative assessment and feedback within a wider framework to include self-regulation, motivation and behaviour. As my interest was on teachers' formative assessment and feedback practice and how they adapted and adopted effective formative feedback practice, it was my research interest to explore what influenced their practice of bringing students into the assessment process. For this reason, I have found it useful to deploy Sadler's theoretical framework of effective feedback to analyse teachers' uptake and enactment of formative feedback strategies, and their conceptions and beliefs, to understand the reasons behind their actions.

Chapter Summary

Assessment designed to promote learning is gaining momentum in New Zealand classrooms, with teachers trying to provide a balanced form of summative and formative assessment in their practice. Understanding of assessment has evolved from grades, marking, and performance review to a process with inclusion of students at its

centre, which has influenced various policy changes, and has shifted the way it has been implemented into classrooms. The paradigmatic changes to the roles teachers and students are required to play in the formative assessment process has indicated a need for research focused on teachers' own teaching and learning practice. The different boundaries and shared partnership requirements of formative assessment practices have been challenging for teachers, especially in regards to the implementation of self and peer-assessment. Not only has the role of teachers as the expert and imparter of knowledge changed, the students' role as an insider has made the process of implementing formative assessment a complex procedure in the classroom. This has required significant changes to the belief systems of some teachers.

As national and international research findings indicate, the dynamic nature of assessment and the development of new ideas mean that the implementation of formative assessment and feedback strategies into the classroom is challenging. To enable the collection of rich data about teachers' ability to generate and implement theoretically appropriate formative assessment and feedback practice, written language as a context was deemed suitable. Research suggests that teachers have yet to master the full potential of formative assessment and feedback, and that the role played by teachers' beliefs about teaching, learning, their learners, and their school settings influences the uptake of these practices. Consequently, this thesis is concerned with examining the relationship of those beliefs to feedback practice within the written language

CHAPTER THREE:

Methodology

Introduction

In the previous chapter, I reviewed the literature on formative assessment and feedback strategies, teacher beliefs, and the influence of these beliefs on their practice, and presented Sadler's principles of formative assessment and feedback. Sadler's (1989) formative assessment and feedback theory was introduced as a fitting theoretical framework for this study. The discussion in this chapter highlights the methodological aspects underpinning this study and the process used to conduct the research.

This chapter begins with the philosophical context in which the study is situated. Justification for the selection of the interpretive paradigm is followed by the rationale for utilising a qualitative methodology for this research. The reasons for selecting a multiple-case study strategy are presented. Specific details of the research context, such as research participants and research sites, are outlined with a brief description of the purposive sampling procedures. Contained within the section on methods of data collection is the justification for each of the methods utilised in this research study, followed by the necessary procedural information. The next section contains the section on data analysis. Included in this section are the modes and methods the data analysers (including myself) employed. The issue of trustworthiness in qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) is answered by outlining the four evaluative criteria used for judging the trustworthiness of research and findings. The significant role of the researcher in the study is elaborated next section, as part of addressing the ethical principles and considerations pertaining to this research.

The Research Questions

The literature review presented in the previous chapter revealed several gaps in the understanding of New Zealand primary teachers' beliefs and formative feedback practices. There are inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and their practices, related to theoretical and methodological understandings about formative feedback and its implementation. This chapter illustrates how qualitative data were obtained through multiple-case studies, with the aim being to provide insight into the internal and external influences contributing to teachers' beliefs and practices. Qualitative data were gathered through answering the research questions below:

1. What beliefs do teachers hold about formative feedback in the writing classroom?

2. How do primary teachers provide formative assessment and feedback to their students during the writing lesson?

More specifically, the research was directed toward answering the following questions:

- What beliefs and knowledge do teachers hold about formative feedback in the teaching of writing?
- How is feedback connected to setting of goals, learning intentions and success criteria by teachers?
- When and how do teachers inculcate feedback into their writing lessons?
- What formative assessment feedback strategies are utilised the most during the writing lessons?
- What roles do teachers take on during the feedback sessions?
- Do teachers hold different beliefs and conceptions of feedback?
- How do teachers' beliefs influence and impact their formative feedback strategies?
- If there are differences in teachers' beliefs and practices in providing feedback, how are those dissimilarities explained?

My research focused on specifically on primary teachers, and their beliefs about and practices of formative feedback in the writing classroom. To answer the research questions, a qualitative interpretive paradigm was utilised.

The Research Paradigm

Paradigms are defined as a worldview, "a way of thinking about and making sense of the complexities of the real world" (Patton, 2002, p. 69). They are also defined as "logically related assumptions, concepts or propositions that orient thinking and research" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p. 24). Methodological selection is not only influenced by the research questions but by beliefs on how the world should be studied and understood (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, 2005). The justification for the selection of a specific methodology is therefore influenced by ontological and epistemological beliefs (Schwandt, 2000). Collectively, the ontological, epistemological and methodology are referred to as a research paradigm, a framework or set of beliefs that influence decision-making and action (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The research paradigm

determines how the study should be conducted, the focus of the study, and the approaches utilised in the interpretation of the data (Hammersley, 2002). Positivist, interpretive and critical social sciences are the three main research paradigms apparent in education literature. My perspective on educational research is that behaviour can be complex, individual and influenced by personal choice (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007), so I position myself as a researcher within interpretive social theory and within the constructive-interpretive paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). In pursuing an understanding of teachers' beliefs about and understanding of formative assessment and feedback practices, an Interpretivist paradigm was the one I deemed most suitable.

An Interpretivist paradigm provided the best fit for my research too, as ontologically teachers would offer multiple, equally valid descriptions and explanations of feedback. Epistemologically the participants in this research are shaped by and also shape their environment as the 'knowing' subjects. Methodologically the researcher/participant interaction in the research is of value and subjective: Creswell (2009) asserts that individuals seek "understanding of the world through development of subjective meaning of their experiences which are varied and multiple" (p. 8). Therefore this was deemed the best fit for my inquiry.

Further, the Interpretivist view is that there are multiple interpretations of any event, as experienced by participants, and all provide understanding of a phenomenon (Stake, 2010). This was evident in collecting data for this study: each teacher held their own beliefs and understanding of formative feedback and implementation, based on their own learning experience, education, and setting. Thus the interpretive concept of understanding, implication and engagement (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) would assist me in grasping their beliefs, actions and behaviour.

Qualitative Methodology

As mentioned, I employed a qualitative research approach within the Interpretivist paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) for this thesis. Merriam (1998) outlines five common features in a qualitative methodology which are "the goal of eliciting understanding and meaning, the researcher as the primary instrument of data collection and analysis, the use of fieldwork, an inductive orientation to analysis and findings that are richly descriptive" (p. 11).

By situating this research within the Interpretive paradigm and emphasising qualitative inquiry, this study endeavours to complement the existing literature on formative assessment and feedback in the primary classroom with a less commonly

used method, notably with interviews and observation of teachers' classroom strategies as key data collection methods (using questionnaires to probe teachers' beliefs and understanding of formative feedback is much more common). Video-assisted stimulated recall interviews with the participant teachers after observation were also employed, which is another less utilised method. This placed emphasis on understanding and interpreting teachers' own beliefs and conceptions of formative feedback in their writing classroom, and provided the most appropriate approach in gaining an in-depth "thick description" of the participant teachers, these teachers being the people most knowledgeable about the phenomena (Stake, 1995, p. 102). Participants in this study were "enriched by … different perceptions … different experiences" (Stake, 2010, p. 66), and therefore offered multiple realities that were meaningful to them in their beliefs and practices as teachers. I "neither intervene[d] nor arrange[d] in order to get the data" (Stake, 2010, p. 15).

My study extends the work on the complexities of teachers' beliefs and their influences on practice by providing the perspective of teachers' educational experiences and influences of their school setting, collegial support and resources on teaching of writing and their formative feedback strategies. By not constraining the teachers' beliefs to questionnaires and surveys, the understanding and conception of individual teachers in their specific context provides opportunities for content related evidence to emerge (Crooks, Kane & Cohen, 1996). Data collection methods like interviews and observation helped me explore the beliefs/practice connection at a deeper level and allowed flexibility to probe the depth of teachers' complex, embedded and implicit beliefs on formative feedback, as opposed to a set of fixed questions that inevitably would have impeded the opportunity to gain in-depth understanding (Delamont, 1992). As all research methods have their own weakness, the interviews, which relied on teachers reporting their beliefs and understanding of formative feedback strategies - a process at times influenced by the research itself - were supplemented with diverse methods of data collection such as observations, field notes and collecting documents.

Multiple-case study strategy

In this research, I adopted a multiple-case study strategy. Case-study research explores one instance (or a few instances) of a particular phenomenon with a view to providing in-depth account of events, relationships, experiences, or process (Denscombe, 2007). A case indicates a unit or phenomenon observed at a single point of time, or over a period of time. According to Yin (1984), a case study is defined as:

An empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (p. 23).

In my study, each case explores one teacher's understanding, beliefs, and practice of formative feedback in a writing lesson in the classroom setting (Merriam, 1998). Multiple-case studies enabled me to explore the differences within and between cases (Baxter & Jack, 2008) in order to illustrate the "same issue" (Creswell, 2007, p. 74). Multiple-case study research starts with a "quintain", which is "an object or phenomenon or condition to be studied" (Stake, 2006, p. 6). The quintain in this research was a phenomenon: teachers' conceptions of effective formative feedback practice and the role it played in their classroom practice.

Merriam (1998) claims that "the more cases included in a study, the greater the variation across the cases, the more compelling the interpretation" (p. 40). The forte of qualitative case study research is working in small samples, studied in depth (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Consequently, I used selective sampling to identify three cases, which could be studied to gain deeper insight into the quintain or to "provide literal replication" (literal replication entails producing a framework stating the conditions in which the prospective phenomenon can be found) (Yin, 2009, p. 54). In short, by using a multiple-case study approach, and also by limiting the number of selected cases, I was able to compare and contrast the three single cases in depth (Stake, 2006). However despite the advantages of a multiple-case study, the findings from this investigation cannot be generalised to a larger population (Cohen et al., 2007) because of the small number of research participants and the possibility of bias in analysing and reporting the research findings, as the criteria used for the selection of information to be reported lies with the researcher.

Another feature of multiple-case study is that the research design is intended to provide "rich, thick description" (Merriam, 2001, p. 29) to answer the research questions, in order to enable the reader to "go into the case situation" (Patton, 2002, p. 38). I used multiple methods of data collection to seek a description of the quintain in each case study. Data collection in my study generated this style of description from each teacher, through interviews and follow up emails, observations, video-assisted stimulated recall post observation interviews, field notes, and document analysis. As well as this, each case was particularized as it focused on the individual roles of the interviewed teachers in the formative feedback practice during the writing process (Stake, 2006). Describing and interpreting the cases in their situational uniqueness provided different viewpoints of the same phenomenon (Creswell, 2007).

This interpretive, qualitative multiple-case study draws on existing theories and contributes to its surrounding literature through the explanation of the contextual factors influencing the quantain being studied. Both data collection and analysis of the data are influenced by Sadler's (1989) theory of formative assessment. My explanation of the quintain is based on the interpretation on the interaction and interviews, the observations and field notes and the documents, and interpreting the visible patterns emerging as result of teachers' beliefs, understanding and behaviour. As the main research instrument, I elicited multiple perspectives on the formative feedback in the teaching and learning of writing.

Researchers bring with them their own personal values that guide their inquiries. Creswell (2008) states that in a qualitative research the researcher filters the data through their personal lenses, and these interpretations are subjective (Stake, 1995). These interpretations are open to influences from the researcher's values, background, context, experiences and own understanding. However, an Interpretivist paradigm takes account of these issues, structuring the interpretations and the context value of the research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008) towards achieving meaningful results.

Selection of Context

The current literacy focus in New Zealand is on reading and the written language. The improvement of literacy teaching has been an educational policy goal since 1999 (Ministry of Education, 1999), and specifically since 2000, the commitment from the Ministry of Education New Zealand has been to support teachers in making changes in their literacy practices through providing a range of professional development initiatives (Ministry of Education, 2002). Teachers in New Zealand have been acknowledged to be both confident and competent in literacy (Wilkinson & Townsend, 2000) and have reported high-levels of self-rated competence in the teaching of written language (Dixon, 1999). Nonetheless, PISA results show a long tail of student underachievement in literacy, which indicates that teachers' practices need further development. Thus, the teaching of written language was identified as a relevant site to study teachers' implementation of theoretically appropriate feedback strategies.

Participants and Research Sites

The aim of my research was to capture teachers' beliefs of formative assessment and feedback strategies, and to study how these beliefs were reflected in their feedback strategies in the classroom. I used purposive sampling to select teachers teaching in primary schools in the Greater Wellington region. I chose primary school

teachers as the target participants, and the challenge was setting parameters for the participant selection, as it is impossible to research everyone and everywhere (Miles & Huberman, 1994). My research interest was in primary Year 4 classrooms because in Malaysian primary schools, students started writing written drafts and preparing for their UPSR examinations at that age. Students learning to write in English from years 1-3 would be at the stage of forming simple sentences and from Year 4 onwards they would start writing essays as a preparation for the national examination. It would provide me to share my research findings of how formative feedback was provided to students at the similar age group in New Zealand since New Zealand schools practiced both formative assessment and national standards. As my experience has been in teaching students from years 4-6, choosing primary school teachers from the similar category was important.

With these requirements in mind, the potential number of participants would have been too large, and since the research was interpretive and qualitative, limiting the selection was ideal. But limiting the school selection to a cluster of schools would have minimised the differences among the participant teachers and would have hampered the variation among teachers, especially if I wanted to allow for variety, and provide opportunities for intensive depth of study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Thus, to ensure variety, one of my criteria for selecting cases was diversity across the schools I chose in terms of the decile ranking. However, recruiting the three participants took four months, as the National Standards were being introduced and implemented throughout New Zealand at the time of research. I selected and invited schools based on their decile ranking. Almost all of the schools were reluctant to be involved in the study. The principals replied that they were too busy, and that the study had the potential to be time-consuming for teachers, who were busy with the new system of assessment such as the National Standards. Other teachers were already involved in other research projects, or in some schools, had prioritised preparing the students for National Standards. This did lower the number of the potential participants; however I did manage to recruit three schools willing to participate that were of different decile rankings. Nevertheless, the purpose sampling that I had planned became convenience sampling, because of the difficulty in accessing potential participants (Punch, 2005), therefore it is important to note that the participants represent no other group but themselves (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2003), as there is no intention in case study to generalise to a broader population. The significant factor here is honesty in relaying how the research participants were obtained and how the recruitment has affected the data (Delamont, 1992).

All three teachers in my study were employed in primary schools around Wellington. The teachers who participated in the research were suggested by their principals as suitable participants as they were teaching Year 4 classrooms and were willing to participate when approached by the principals. The principals assured me that these teachers had volunteered after they had been approached about my research project. Although out of three schools, in two of the schools there was more than one Year 4 teacher, the principals assured me that the teachers' names they suggested were the teachers willing to participate. However, in the third school there was only one Year 4 teachers and she volunteered to participate. Once the principal agreed and provided me with the names and email addresses of the teachers, I approached the teachers through emails to further explain about my research and find out if they would like to volunteer. I then sent out the consent forms to the three schools once the principals and teachers agreed to participate; I arranged an orientation and get-to-know-each-other session. The participants were reassured that their identity would be confidential, and that the findings would not have a negative effect on them professionally. I informed the principal and teachers that they could withdraw from the study at any time before the data analysis began. Figure 3.1 below highlights the procedures I undertook when inviting the schools participate in the study.

| 1. Letter of invitation sent to school (Informed consent forms attached. 1. Met principals and teachers. 2. Discussed the study and methods of data collection. | 1. Collected informed consent forms from principal and teachers. 2. Met other staff members and got to know the school setting | 1. Teacher introduced me to students to distribute parents and students consent forms. 2. Explained about the research and video recordings. | 1. Collected students and parents informed consent forms. 2. Observed and familiarised myself with classroom setting. 3. Practised placing video equipment without distracting lessons. | 1. Discussed with teachers suitable dates and times of writing lessons and fixed dates for interviews, observations and post observation interviews. 2. Collect lesson plans and hand outs |

Figure 3.1: Procedure of inviting schools to participate in the stud*y*

Methods of Data Collection

The cases in this study represented data generated by individual teachers in their classrooms before, during, and after a writing lesson. I aimed to discover teachers' beliefs and teaching strategies in the natural setting of their classroom (Merriam,

2001). A variety of qualitative data collection methods and procedures were employed. I was able to explore the quantain and provide a rich, contextual description by utilising a range of methods for my data collection and providing triangulation of my data (Creswell, 2008). Within the selected schools, "multiple sources of information" were collected (Creswell, 1998, p. 62). These included individual interviews with participant teachers, observations of classroom formative assessment feedback strategies, collection of relevant documents (students' written drafts, teachers' lesson plans, and teaching materials) and field notes. The data were selected to allow comparisons or similarities within each case or across cases. Each data collection method served a specific purpose and was carried out within each school on different dates.

Denscombe (2003) recommends the use of multiple methods "in order to capture the complex reality under scrutiny" (p. 38). Triangulation of data involves the process of "reviewing things from more than one perspective: different methods, different sources of data" (Denscombe, 2007, p. 134) and is a method of cross-checking data in search of regularities (O'Donoghue, 2007). Triangulation of the data lessened the risk of researcher bias affecting interpretation.

Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews with the participant teachers were the core means of exploring the participant teachers' beliefs in formative feedback practices in the examined writing classrooms. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2008), interviews generate useful information about "lived experience and its meaning and produce situated understandings grounded in specific interactional episodes" (p. 47), and thus are an important source of data (Yin, 2009). Consequently, interviews were an important tool for capturing teachers' beliefs in my research, as my aim was to obtain access to each participant's own voice and meaning. The individuality of each participant teacher's experience (Huberman & Miles, 2002) and the development of their understanding and beliefs about formative assessment and feedback strategies was explored in their distinctive context, and were captured through the semi-structured interviews.

I used semi-structured interview questions (Appendix B) with prompts and follow-up questions to obtain clearer responses and additional depth about the expressed beliefs of teachers. These meant participants were able to articulate beliefs from their own perspective and in detail. They had the flexibility to expand and reflect on their own views within the parameters of the research questions and also permitted me to probe areas of significant interest (Cohen et al., 2003). According to Stake (1995)

interviews are the "main road to multiple realities" (p. 64), an idea that influenced my research. The purpose of open-ended interviewing is to access the perspective of the person being interviewed and to find out things we cannot "directly observe" (Patton, 1990, p. 278), thus my interview questions were designed to answer the core research questions about the teachers' expressed beliefs about best formative assessment feedback strategies in the writing classroom.

As I wanted to find out teachers beliefs and understanding of formative assessment and feedback practice, teachers' educational background and experiences and beliefs were of significant interest, and were the basis for some of the research questions. Black et al. (2003) found that teachers implemented a range of formative assessment strategies and followed different routes of change. I was also curious about how teachers may have implemented new forms of assessment. The semi-structured interview questions were divided into three sections:

1) The teacher's educational background experience (teacher's certification, learning experiences from their current teaching, academic and professional development courses on assessment and formative feedback);

2) The teacher's beliefs (teacher's beliefs, understanding and knowledge of implementing formative feedback, the school's writing environment and collegial support for formative assessment practices);

3) The teacher's classroom practice (teacher's classroom writing lessons, implementation of formative feedback practices and challenges in that implementation, and influences from the broader school on their classroom practice).

Each individual interview was conducted after collecting the teachers' informed consent form. I allowed between 40-60 minutes for each interview, which was conducted in English and audio-taped. I was aware that my ethical responsibilities to the participants must take priority over any advantage that the interview might offer in the findings of this research. Therefore, I informed the participants that they had the freedom to choose at any time if they wanted to stop the interview or did not want to answer any questions. I assured them that the transcribed interviews would be first sent to them for approval before I started the analysis, and kept to this assurance.

One semi-structured, in-depth interview about beliefs was carried out with each of the three participants. As each interview session was recorded using a digital audio-recorder, I was able to transfer the data and store them, while ensuring the sound quality of the interview was maintained. This allowed me to transfer the interviews into Express Scribe software. From there I was able to transcribe and store the interviews for analysis.

The time frame of each interview ranged from about 30-55 minutes, and participants varied in the amount of information they were willing to share. The venues for the interviews were left to the participants to choose, as the participants knew where they felt safe and comfortable. Two participants chose their classrooms as the venue for the interview. I found it was easier to build a rapport with the teachers in the natural setting of their classrooms.

Two teachers found that conducting the interview in their classroom before school gave them the privacy they needed, and they appeared relaxed during the interview. The classroom environment was a place where they were in control, and this setting allowed them to show me around. They were able to tell students to leave to maintain the privacy needed for the interview. I found that conducting an interview in the classroom enabled me to observe exhibits that served as an additional incentive to probe during the interview session. While in the classroom, both of these teachers found it easy to access documents and other artefacts relevant to stress their views and opinions on matters.

The third teacher (Jane) requested that the staff room be used as the place to conduct the interview, as the classrooms were open for the students to use before school. However, she was reluctant to speak if there were other teachers present. It made the interview session longer, and there were moments of silence and awkwardness when others were present. Therefore I decided to request a more private venue for the video-assisted stimulated recall post observation interviews; this would enable the teacher to relax and provide information uninterrupted while viewing the video-recordings. I personally undertook all transcription of the interviews and observations.

Following their interviews, I emailed the teachers (as requested by the teachers) as a follow up to request any further information and to allow the teachers' time to think (teachers were not always ready to give extensive answers when interviewed). The follow up emails were also a useful form of communication with the teachers if they were too busy to meet for more interviews. These emails provided me with another source of data to explain teachers' points of view.

Piloting the interviews

The term pilot study can refer to feasibility studies, which are "small scale version[s], or trial run[s]" (Polit, Beck, Hungler, 2001, p. 467), and/or to testing a particular research instrument (Baker, 1994). Carrying out a pilot study aims to give the researcher advance warning about pitfalls, and to help calibrate research protocols

and the proposed method or instruments. Piloting the interviews helped me develop my practical skills with interaction.

To enable fine-tuning of the questions for clarity and order, the interview questions were piloted with two full time PhD students, who volunteered because of their background and experience as teachers in New Zealand. Piloting helped fine tune the questions and develop probes to enable me to gain richer responses from the participants. As a result of piloting, I realised that the ordering of the questions had to be restructured and that some of the questions were redundant, as the three pilot teachers repeated their answers to certain questions. Some of the questions had to be reworded, as the teachers seemed confused by them.

It became clear to me that in order to be able to interview and probe teachers, a certain relationship had to be developed before the actual interview sessions. I decided to provide more wait time for each interview than I had originally had planned, taking into account that each teacher has different ways to express their opinions or beliefs that they would bring to the interviews. The digital audio-recorder was tested and the process refined, as one pilot teacher was uncomfortable with the digital audio-recorder and requested it not be used during the piloting of the interview.

I decided to use the digital audio-recorder. I found that the digital audio-recorder managed to capture the interviewer and interviewee's voices far more clearly and accurately than the audio tape-recorder (Denscombe, 2003). It made the recording process and transcribing the interviews more efficient. Before the interviews, each participant was briefed on the interview technique, including the reasons for using the digital audio-recorder, informing them that it could be turned off, and that they could refuse to answer any question that they were uncomfortable with. For qualitative researchers, establishing trust and conducting interviews ethically is of high priority, as the participant is asked to share their perceptions with the interviewer (Rubin & Rubin, 2005) and allow the researcher to observe their teaching.

Observations

The semi-structured interviews were triangulated by the observations of real life classroom formative assessment and feedback strategies during the teaching of writing. Observation was also required because interviews do not always accurately reflect a person's interpretation of the world, and can be influenced by many factors, including participants' views about why they are being interviewed and at times personal factors influence how much information a participant is likely to share. Observation, meanwhile, provides both useful "additional information about the topic"

(Yin, 2003, p. 93), and insights via "teacher's outward behaviours - his or her performing self- and the cognitive concepts that produce these visible behaviour" and the contexts in which they occur (Borich, 1999, p. 99). My observations captured oral and written formative assessment and feedback given to students in the writing phase of the lesson. I played a non-participant observer role in the classroom, and observed three writing lessons in each classroom for approximately 45 to 55 minutes each lesson. Teachers' formative assessment and feedback strategies during teacher/student interaction were of specific interest during observations and writing up of findings.

Video recording my observations enabled me to record formative assessment and feedback strategies as they naturally occurred in the classroom setting, which ensured that these data were "highly reliable" (Patton, 2002, p. 20). These video recordings offered a unique opportunity for "analysing the interpersonal interactions" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 179), as a video captures non-verbal as well as verbal communications, and offers a complete record of events (Denscombe, 2003). Video recording captured formative feedback strategies that transpired through verbal communication, body language, written data, and other modes that might be overlooked in interviews or field notes.

Introduction and orientation sessions were held prior to my observation sessions, so that students could be assured that the video recording was not intended to evaluate or make judgements on their performance. Prior to each actual observation session, I made a visit to the classroom I would be observing, to become familiar with the classroom setting. This allowed me to manage the logistics of collecting data through video-recording - including placement of the camera at an angle that would prevent it from capturing students whose parents did not consent to their children being video recorded, and to determine if there were additional factors to be taken into account, such as the teachers' use of classroom space during their teaching. It also enabled the students to get used to my presence and the video recording instruments.

All the three participant teachers organised their classrooms differently, and the orientation session enabled me to establish the most suitable place in each classroom to place the camera unobtrusively and to maintain a non-participant observer status. It was essential that the lesson could be conducted without disruption by the researcher. As the context for the observation was the one written language unit, it would have been ideal to carry out multiple observations throughout the entire unit, but the participant teachers' engagement with school programmes and other commitments prevented this happening. Therefore the ideal of prolonged engagement and persistent observation of the lesson development had to be reduced to those lessons when the teachers agreed to be observed.

As the theoretical influence of Sadler's (1989) formative assessment and feedback strategies was central to my research, it motivated my decision-making. Since the focus of the teachers' practice would vary at different points during the one unit, the beginning of the lesson would likely be spent on developing student understanding and sharing the goals that constituted to successful learning. It was hoped the teacher's insight into how students developed their understanding of goals and criteria would be gained from the self-reporting done by teachers during the interviews. As the unit developed, I presumed the focus would continue on the development of students' evaluative and productive understanding of the writing process. Towards the end of the unit, I anticipated teachers providing opportunities for students for self and peer-assessment. Therefore, I decided to observe three lessons: the beginning, the midpoint and the lesson in which completion was reached. With one exception: Lyn was observed four times, as her one unit went on for two weeks.

Video-assisted stimulated recall post observation interviews

The stimulated recall method (Calderhead, 1981) was used to help teachers recall their teaching strategies precisely as they happened, prompted by questions, a short period of time after each observed lesson (Bloom, 1954). This technique, of video-recording a lesson and playing it back to the teacher during an interview less than 24 hours later, helped overcome issues of miscommunication or forgetting incidents. It also afforded first hand insight into each teacher's actions by creating a space for the participant to voice their thoughts and beliefs while observing their own actions (Gass & Mackey, 2000). The strength of this technique is that the unspoken in-session action (declarative or procedural) was replayed in a manner allowing the participant to offer an explanation of the unspoken communication.

Interviewing using video-assisted recall enabled me to obtain the participants' reflections on their use of formative feedback. A limitation of the non-participant observer role is that the researcher may fail to understand the perspective of the participants under observation. Therefore, to overcome the shortcomings of observations, the semi–structured post-observation interviews with each teacher enabled me to probe their decision-making, intentions and embedded beliefs.

I used consecutive recall methodology, where interviews are carried out immediately after the observations, with one teacher, and delayed recall for the other two teachers (Gass & Mackey, 2000). This was due to the time constraints faced by the teachers in question, and their wish to be interviewed before school started the next day. These post-observation interviews were conducted to explore the teachers' opinions and judgement about their own choice of formative feedback strategies, and to

allow me to establish the relationship between their expressed ideas and the impact of those beliefs in their actual classroom practices. Because video-recording mitigates against "frailties of human memory," whereby a participant cannot remember every detail of events (Denscombe, 2003, p. 19), recording the observation was a means of overcoming the possibility of either the teacher or I forgetting significant details of what occurred, and meant that the teachers were able to watch themselves. Either they or I could stop the recording any time we wanted in order to comment. All of these interviews were recorded using a digital audio recorder, and teachers were able to watch their practice while they answered the questions.

The participants in this research were given plenty of wait time to reflect on the unedited video segments, and the researcher's questions. Providing an unrushed environment allowed participants to engage in the complex task of remembering, reflecting and expressing their views. I was able to gain first hand clarification of the complexity and range of feedback strategies in each classroom observation captured on film. Any recollection was generated by the video-recording replay, rather than the participants' or my own preconceived conclusions, or oversimplification of what was being viewed.

Documents

In my study, documents have a "subsidiary or complementary role" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 354) to interviews and observations undertaken in case studies, and are used to corroborate and augment other data sources. Each teacher provided me with their lesson plans that outlined the topic/subject, learning outcomes, success criteria and student grouping for the lesson. These documents were not shaped in response to the research question, but can corroborate other data and can be used to triangulate the data during analysis (Merriam, 1998).

All the three teachers provided a photocopy of the class roll so that I knew the identity of the students. In addition, documents such as teachers' feedback comments written on students' written drafts provided an indication of the teachers' inner thought processes (Merriam, 1998). The students' written assignments with teachers' feedback, and any hand-outs or teaching materials used during the observations were collected after the last observation (each teacher explained that students used their written drafts every day and collecting them during the observation would create some distraction). The written drafts were photocopied and returned to the teachers.

To assist me in retrieving documents easily, I catalogued what I collected using a unique alphabet that noted each teacher's lesson plan, materials and hand-outs, and

the students' written drafts. I included the source, date and place on a document, as recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994). These documents were collected, photocopied, numbered and dated to ensure that they matched the relevant lesson transcripts, observations, and field notes.

Field notes

Field notes were used in this study to describe the location, and the atmosphere, of the classroom where my interviews and observations were carried out. Field notes were also taken during my observations to record the "learning climate" or "the physical and emotional environment" (Borich, 1999, p. 14) of the class. Non-verbal communication and comments that were relevant to the interviews were also recorded (Denscombe, 2003). The notes also include my subjective reflections, which Berg (2007) calls "a self-reflexive opportunity to make personal observations and comments" (p. 199). This was another form of triangulation used to enhance the research.

I was present in the class as a non-participant observer, which involved me observing teachers' formative assessment and feedback strategies and taking notes, but not otherwise participating in the class. I entered the classrooms and sat at the back of the class in a designated corner with my video recording equipment and took field notes during the interaction. My notes included quotes or actions by the teacher that I felt were essential. As well as my thoughts and feelings, they encompassed materials on the board that I felt would be significant for my analysis. I recorded details and descriptions of the wall charts, white board written work, and any display in the classroom related to writing. Field notes were taken during the interviews and as soon as possible after the interviews.

In this study, the field notes assisted me in becoming familiar with each setting. When there were interruptions during the observations, I was able to work on the field notes. Also, because the video recording equipment was placed in an unobtrusive place and couldn't be moved, I noted the classroom plan, and described how the pupils moved around the classroom. As I was aware the field notes might have biases of thoughts or specific interest that might influence the study, I triangulated the field notes with the post observation interviews with the participant teachers for clarification and interpretation about their behaviours (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

Data collection procedures and timeline

Below is the table describing the timeframe, purpose, methods of data collection, and the dates the data was collected from the individual participants:

Table 3.1 An Overview of the Purpose, Data Collection Methods, and Date Data was collected

Purpose of Method	Data Collection Method	Participant	Date Data Collected
To probe teacher's background, professional development and beliefs on formative feedback	Individual semi-structured Interview	Jane Lyn Debra	1/6/2010 14/6/2010 24/6/2010
To look into teacher classroom environment	Field notes such as wall charts, displays and white board written work	Jane Lyn Debra	1/6/2010 14/6/2010 24/6/2010
To explore teacher's preparation of their teaching practice	Collection of relevant lesson plans, learning intentions, learning intentions and other relevant documents provided by the teacher	Jane Lyn Debra	1/6/2010 14/6/2010 24/6/2010
To explore teacher's formative feedback strategies	Observation and video recording of 3 writing lessons with writing and feedback as significant emphasis	Jane Lyn Debra	1/6/2010 2/6/2010 3/6/2010 15/6/2010 16/6/2010 17/6/2010 23/6/2010 28/6/2010 29/6/2010 30/6/2010
To probe teacher's pedagogical decisions, and intentions	Post observation video-assisted stimulated recall semi-structured interviews	Jane Lyn	2/6/2010 3/6/2010 4/6/2010 16/6/2010

			17/6/2010 18/6/2010
		Debra	29/6/2010 30/6/2010 1/7/2010
	Collection of teachers' lesson plans, learning intentions, student hand-outs/worksheets, and teachers planning (ELLP use)	Jane	2/6/2010 3/6/2010 4/6/2010
		Lyn	16/6/2010 17/6/2010 18/6/2010
		Debra	29/6/2010 30/6/2010 1/7/2010

Method of Data Analysis

The data were analysed with an interpretive inquiry lens. Data analysis is a systematic process of breaking data into significant and manageable units that can be broken down in stages (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The qualitative data analysis involved organising and interpreting data, in short, making sense of the data through the teachers' definition and context. Key features such as the relationship, pattern, themes and categories were identified (Cohen, et al., 2007). In addition the analysis was inductive in nature (Bryman, 2008; Yin, 2009), simultaneously conducted with data collection and interpretation through and interactive, recursive process (Ary et al., 2006; Creswell, 1994). As the researcher is the significant instrument in the analysis process, I was comfortable with developing categories and making comparisons and contrast, the first stage of the analysis (Creswell, 2009).

The analysis of the data was conducted within an interpretive paradigm, which focused on me "making sense" (Patton, 2002, p. 380) of what was said by looking for patterns in what different interviewees said during their interviews. Data analysis was both "inductive", where I looked for themes, and categories, and "deductive", as formative feedback strategies from the literature and Sadler's (1989) theory of formative assessment and feedback were used to analyse the data (Patton, 2002, p. 463). There were three main sets of data to analyse: interview data, observation data, and document data.

Analysis of these data sets was conducted within a qualitative interpretive framework, in that I looked for emerging themes about giving formative feedback. It is not possible to capture the full meaning of the quantain without a careful review of

each case (Stake, 2006). I carried out seven steps to analyse the three individual cases through interpretive analysis based on Hatch's (2002) eight recommended steps in analysing. Figure 3.2 below shows the analysing stages.

| 1 Reading data to gain sense of participant's meaning | 2 Reviewing impressions | 3 Reading data, identifying impressions | 4 Reducing amount of information and exploring recurring themes | 5 Rereading data, interpretation (supported /challenged) create colour code system | 6 Writing draft summary (explanation reflected with theoretical underpinnings) | 7 Reviewing interpretation with academic supervisors and writing revised summary through identifying excerpts |

Figure 3.2: Analysing each single case

When analysing multiple cases, Creswell (2007) suggests providing a detailed description of each case, and the themes within the case, followed by a thematic cross-case analysis of the phase-one interviews. I provided detailed descriptions of each of the participants' beliefs about formative feedback, and of the types of feedback in their classroom teaching practice, concerning both oral and written feedback.

Following this, I organised the data from each source, by reading through the transcriptions to make initial "codes," which as Creswell explains are a way of "using categorical aggregation to find the themes and patterns or using direct explanation to present an in-depth picture of the cases using narratives, tables and figures" (2007, p. 163). I then used inductive analysis (Patton, 2002) to discover themes and categories within the data. Through reflecting on the data in this way, I reduced the vast array of words, sentences and paragraphs to the most important and relevant points. Finally, I drew out the themes and patterns in the data that would shape my study.

As mentioned, Sadler's (1989) theory informed my research at different stages. My purpose was not to test his theory but to use it as a lens to explore the interviewed teachers' formative assessment and feedback beliefs, and particularly the feedback strategies utilised in the writing lesson. Using the data, a holistic picture of each participant was developed around the concepts that marked the individual teachers,

their classroom, their teaching of writing, and their beliefs and formative feedback practices. In addition, the commentary to describe the themes that emerged from each participant was supported by the raw data in the form of quotes that were direct from the teachers. Each of the cases was written up, integrated with the data from observations, and teachers' explanations and justifications from post observation interviews.

As discussed, my focus in this cross-case analysis was to compare and contrast three cases of teacher's beliefs and classroom practices of formative feedback, with particular attention paid to the implications of their beliefs for their practices. I found that the open-endedness of using inductive analysis to code the data and analyse the interviews, observations, and documents had the advantage of allowing potential, useful and unexpected insights to surface (Patton, 2002). In this way, my cross case analysis not only highlighted the interrelated themes occurring across all three cases, but helped shape and answer two research questions. Firstly:

- **What beliefs do teachers hold about formative feedback in the writing classroom?**

Secondly, cross-case analysis of my observations, and video-assisted stimulated recall post-observation interviews, enabled me to answer the second research question:

- **How do primary teachers provide formative assessment and feedback to their students during the writing lessons?**

Figure 3.3 on the next page shows the procedures and methods of data collection in this multiple-case study research. The reason behind each method of data collection, and the triangulation of data to understand the quintain is highlighted. The exploration within and between cases for the commonality and differences is clearly indicated.

Data collection procedures and analysis
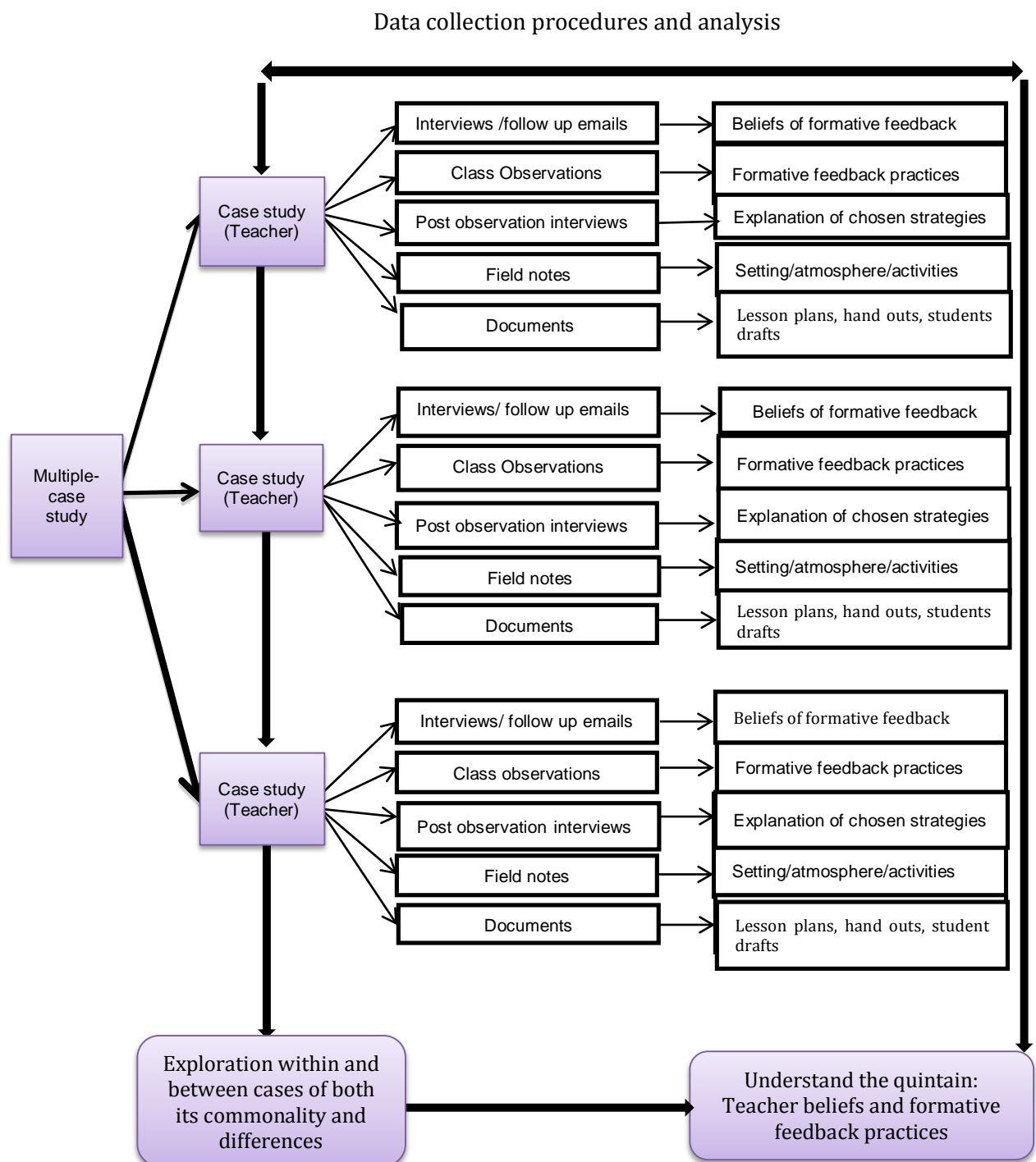
Figure 3.3: Multiple-case study procedures and data collection methods

Source: author's own

Coding and categorising

The interviews, observation videos and the post-observation interviews conducted for this thesis were all transcribed, particularly because qualitative research requires words rather than numbers as its unit of analysis (Denscombe, 2003). As I went through the data, I looked into for instances where, as Bogdan and Biklen (2006) advise, "words, patterns of behaviour, subjects' ways of thinking and events repeat and stand out" (p. 173). The qualitative perspective of this research is holistic, in that all

interviews and observations are considered to be related and interdependent.

Following the observation of such instances of repetition, I employed selective coding. Selective coding is a process of integrating and refining categories representing the main theme of the research (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). At this point, I used Sadler's (1989) theoretical framework as an inductive tool, helping to pool the categories to form a descriptive whole. This analysis involved developing a coding system called 'coding categories', in which the transcripts were read to look for regularities and patterns, and words or phrases were written down to represent the pattern.

The identification of core categories was a difficult task for an emergent researcher (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). The peer debriefing process with my academic supervisors aided in the clarification process as I began to identify categories. My academic supervisors asked challenging questions and asked that I defend my analyses and provide substantive evidence and arguments. This process helped underpin my research, and clarify my core categories. Following this process, I used qualitative software to enable me to manage my data. In the next section the use of the qualitative software will be explained further.

Qualitative software

In coding the data gathered for this thesis, I used a computer software package, OSR NVivo 8. The computer software facilitated the data analysis process and made it easy for me to assign codes. The software also enabled me to "designate boundaries or units of data to attach code symbols" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006, p. 187) and merge codes to create new themes. Using this qualitative software made it easier for me to locate materials, statements of ideas, or a particular phrase or a word (Creswell, 2007).

Trustworthiness of the Study

Rosman and Ralis (2012) suggest that trustworthiness is a set of standards that honours participants ethically through researcher sensitivity to the topic and setting. Trustworthiness is generally divided into the four aspects of credibility; transferability; dependability and confirmability (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). I achieved trustworthiness in the following ways:

Credibility

Bradley (1993) refers to credibility as the "adequate representation of the construction of the social world under study" (p. 436). In my study, interviews and observations of the participants were conducted more than once, as this enabled me to make better interpretations of the meaning of the events. This is significant as

credibility focuses on the "truthfulness of the data" and is enhanced by an extended period of data gathering, prolonged engagement, and use of multiple methods and a "merging of conceptual relationship and theoretical proposition that emerged from the study" (O'Donoghue, 2007, p. 98). I used various methods to ensure credibility. They are described in table 3.3 below:

Table 3.2 Strategies for Ensuring Credibility

Criteria	Method
Triangulation of the multiple case-studies is to "assure clarity, meaningfulness and free of researcher biasness that does not mislead reader and provides the right information and interpretation" (Stake, 2006, p.35).	I used multiple sources of data obtained over multiple instances, and a variety of methods to study the quintain. I used interviews, observations, post observation interviews, document analysis and field note.
Prolonged engagement (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).	-I visited the schools to familiarize myself with the school, classroom setting, and read about the schools' visions and mission statements. -I built a relationship with the teachers before data collection began, through emails and my orientation session. -I observed teaching and learning activities on several occasions to reduce teacher and student anxiety at having an observer in the classroom with the video equipment.
Member checking, also known as participant validation (Punch 2005).	Transcriptions of interviews, post observation interviews and outlines of observation were used to elicit further details. I used member-checking through emails to ensure the accuracy of my transcriptions so the teachers in question were able to elaborate, extend or argue the content. Two teachers in my study made minor changes to their interview transcripts, but one teacher (Debra) stated that speech is spontaneous and naturally occurring and unlike writing any grammatical mistakes should be accepted as valid.
Using **critical friends** as peer debriefers (Rossman & Rallis,	I constantly discussed the decision-making, developing of categories and building of explanation

2012).	with my academic supervisors.
Community of practice to engage in critical and sustained discussion (Rossman & Rallis, 2012).	The cohort group at the university provided me with opportunities to engage in critical and continuous discussion settings with appropriate trust. This enabled me to discuss emerging ideas, hypothesis and half-baked ideas in a safe environment.

Transferability

Transferability requires the researcher to provide thick description through detailed analysis of interview transcripts, observations, documents, and use of purposeful sampling to allow the possibility of applying the process to other contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Consequently, in this thesis I provide a concise presentation of theoretical propositions, accompanied by the relevant examples through excerpts from the data (O'Donoghue, 2007). The provisions of the data-sets generated by purposively selected participants are tools to understand the quintain and might be repeated with participants in similar settings (Stake, 2006). In this way, an interpretive inquiry provides a rich description that is grounded by contextual experience. Rich description with extensive use of the participant teachers' voices links the data to my analysis, claims and interpretations. These rich descriptions are provided in Chapters Four, Five Six and Seven.

The aim of this study was to provide multiple understandings of the individual cases I investigated. The research setting, participants and themes present the entire picture, hence providing a detailed view of the setting and situation.

Dependability

Dependability refers to the criterion of thoroughness related to the consistency of research findings (Merriam, 1998). Dependability requires an audit trail of clear documentation of all the research decisions and activities in a chain of evidence from the time of data collection to the conclusion of the research (Bryman, 2001). I completed a log from the time ethical permissions were obtained, through the data collection process, and right up to the process of data analysis and presentation of the findings in my research. Examples of the audit trail in my research are captured in memos, logs, journals, and field notes. The audit trail facilitated a reflective approach throughout the research process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). My reflexive journal allowed me to record emerging insights and areas of interest to explore. My academic supervisors provided me with guidance on both analysing the data and on the degree of depth needed for the analysis in this study.

Confirmability

Confirmability is the "extent to which the data and interpretation of the study are grounded in events" rather than the researcher's personal construction (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 324). Consequently, my research process is made explicit throughout this thesis through explicit demonstration of the links between the data and analysis. In this study, the issue of confirmability was addressed by a thorough description of my whole research process, and by clearly linking my method of data collection to my method of analysis (particularly in the findings section). Extensive appendices are provided as supporting evidence. Researcher bias is minimised by my giving detailed description of the criteria and procedures undertaken in the selection of participants, justification and explanation of the methods employed in the data collection, and the means of the analysis used to interpret the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). My interpretation of the data was double-checked by my academic supervisors to reduce bias and ensure consistency with the data.

Ethical Considerations

I adhered to Victoria University of Wellington's ethical principles and guidelines on human subjects by following processes such as gaining informed consent and minimising risk by assuring the confidentiality of the participants' identities.

Informed consent and minimisation of risk

I took into consideration the need to minimize possible risks to the participants and their students. The observations conducted in the classroom were carried out with the minimum level of disruption as I, in my position as researcher, took on the role of a non-participant observer. An information sheet addressed to the principal was sent out to the schools prior to the research being conducted. Once the principal agreed that teachers could be invited to participate, I made contact with the teacher suggested by the principal. During the introduction and orientation session, issues brought up by the principal and teachers were immediately addressed (these issues mainly pertained to the structure of the observation methods and the dates I would be able to enter the classrooms). Once the teachers agreed to participate, consent forms for the students and parents were sent home. I then collected the consent forms and made arrangements with the teacher about how best to place the students whose parents did not consent for their children to be videoed. It was important to me that my research did not interrupt these children's learning.

I found that two of the schools were proactive in obtaining completed consent forms. In the other school, there were delays in collecting consent forms, as the participant school explained that they had a passive form of getting consent form the parents; if the parents had a problem or question, they should approach the school; otherwise it was assumed that the parents agreed. However, I had to stress the importance of the consent forms being returned to me, and I had to return to the school and send out another set of forms, which took the school a further two weeks to collect from parents.

In the consent forms, it was clearly stated that the data collected (such as video-recordings) was for the exclusive viewing of the researcher (me) and my academic supervisors. The participants were assured that video data would be stored in a safe and secure location, with access being limited to the researcher. Any other data would be stored on my own personal computer, the username and password of which were available to me only.

The participant teachers' involvement in research holds potential risks such as stress, embarrassment and exploitation (Miller & Brewer, 2003). Prior to my interviews and observations, I took care to clarify my role with the participant teachers. I stressed that my role was to interpret teachers' responses and actions, not to judge their professional expertise. If I found that my probing was a cause of anxiety or stress to the participant teacher, the question or the line of questioning was dropped even if it was not fully explored.

Significant care was taken in not identifying the teachers' names, ages, and total number of years teaching, ethnicity, and leadership responsibilities. Ethic of care was a significant measure taken in assuring that their anonymity and confidentiality was an important factor during and after the research was conducted, right up to the time of the publication of the thesis. These specific identifiers were omitted purposefully as my research involved three schools and one school had only one Year 4 teacher, making the teacher easily identifiable. Specific details about the selected schools such as their locations and other identifiers were omitted in the findings chapter, as a minimisation of risk when involving real people in their natural setting.

Confidentiality

Given the potential for risks from participating in academic research (outlined above), the confidentiality of the participants was of high priority. Each school and participant was given a pseudonym to ensure that their identity was confidential to the researcher (recommended by Gregory, 2003). While there can be no absolute

assurance of confidentiality, anonymising participant teachers and schools in the process of this study helped protect their identity.

Data confidentiality was maintained by ensuring the data was separated from identifiable individuals. Written text, audio and video data files and any digital recordings were securely locked and I was the only person able to assess the files. After five years, the written data used for this thesis will be destroyed, and any audio and video data will be wiped.

I also safeguarded participants' confidentiality by transcribing all data myself. My academic supervisors were the only other people able to read the data and findings. I did not discuss issues arising from the interviews that may have made it possible to identify the participant teachers.

The principal was assured that the name of the school would not be identified at any stage of the research process. I sought the consent of the participants that data necessary to the writing of this thesis or related publications would be gathered and used without identifying them in any way whatsoever.

Researcher Bias

Given the prominence of the researcher in the selection of the data for a thesis of this nature, I accept that I myself am an important research tool. My social background, values, identity and beliefs will have a "significant bearing on the nature of the data collected and the interpretation of the data" (Denscombe, 2003, p. 234).

I attempted to correct for this bias by taking care, from the beginning of my research to the conclusion of it, to maintain a strict observer role. I refrained from making personal or evaluative comments during the interviews and observations of teaching practice. I did not interact with the students prior to, during, or after the observation of the research.

Methodological and Research Limitations

In conducting this research, there were some difficulties in recruiting participants from the schools invited to participate. Some of the schools did not return the consent forms or stated that they had misplaced them. It was difficult to meet many of the school principals, and in some cases even contact them, as administrators informed me that they were either too busy or not interested. One school had a 'no research conducted' clause in their policy. Therefore the limitation to this research has been a smaller sample size than I originally had planned.

Another difficulty I faced was the time constraints on some teachers. Two of the participant teachers had to cut short their lesson, thus cutting down my observation time, as they had syndicate or cluster meetings to attend. Moreover, I was not able to observe any of the teachers' individual student-conferencing sessions, as they were reluctant for me to observe them and did not offer any explanation for this. This therefore limited the observation section for the data on teacher/student interaction in helping students understand their achievement and learning goals of the writing lesson and plan their future learning goals, if there were any. It also limited me from obtaining data on individual feedback during conferencing that teachers had reported they planned and conducted with their students. Although the aim of my research was to capture the writing lesson and how teachers provided feedback to students, I was not able to sit through the whole writing lesson of one participant teacher, as Lyn conducts her writing lessons over for two weeks. I did, however, manage to capture feedback for four sessions.

Video recording presented another limitation, as teachers commented that a few students were behaving differently while there was a camera in the classroom. There were students whose parents did not consent for them to be video recorded, and who did not participate in the classroom discussion with the teacher. The teachers felt the camera caused changes in some students' behaviour, therefore indicating that sometimes during the teaching and learning, the student's interaction and performance were compromised or influenced and not accurate according to my interpretation of the observed lesson. This is a significant indication that the teachers' interpretation and knowledge of students were more substantial than my interpretation, which was limited to the observed lesson.

Chapter Summary

Despite using complex, methodological approaches, collection and analysis of data, it is impossible to fully capture the complexities of human behaviour. A research study can only capture a selective representation of a reality under investigation (Hammersly, 2002). Nonetheless, data were purposefully collected and analysed to provide credible evidence and content depicting the phenomenon of teachers' formative assessment and feedback beliefs and practices. (Phelan & Reynolds, 1996). Thus the selection of the research questions, research paradigm, methodology, context, participants, and methods of data collection, data analysis, and trustworthiness employed by this thesis are given in detail, providing confidence in the interpretations reported in this study.

To ensure the sufficiency of evidence Hammersley (2002) identified that evidence has to be a credible and accurate interpretation of context, convincing and strong enough to support claims, and related to the claims made. The methods of data collection were thus carefully chosen to extract evidence of teachers' beliefs about and understanding of formative feedback, and evidence was gathered in relation to teachers' self-reported practice, enactment of the self-reported beliefs in the classroom practice and justification for the practice.

Overall the details provided in the current chapter, together with the evidence from Chapters Four, Five, Six, Seven, and Eight, lead the readers from data findings to conclusions.

CHAPTER FOUR:
Case Study One: Debra

It [feedback] has to fit the kid and more to their learning needs (Debra).

As noted, the purpose of this multiple-case study is to investigate the beliefs and formative feedback practices present in a primary teacher's writing lesson. As Seidman (2006) suggests, creating a profile from interviews through the words of the participants supports the presentation of context, clarifies intentions, and gives a sense of process that is essential in a qualitative analysis. In the next three chapters, I provide a comprehensive description of each participant teacher in their own context. The description of the participants' profiles is based on researcher observation, pre and post-observation interviews, document and field note analysis, and the participant's school website.

Each case description in chapters Four, Five, and Six is presented in the following order: it begins with an introduction to the participant teachers' background, the schools they work in, their professional development, and their learning and their teaching practice. A brief background on their experience and qualifications prior to becoming a teacher is also included. This is followed by a description of their writing practices and feedback based on the observation, then a description of themes that emerged from analysis of the teacher's practices. Chapters Four, Five, and Six provide a comprehensive description of the participant teachers' beliefs and teaching practice.

Introduction to Debra

Debra (pseudonym) was a of Pakeha/New Zealand descent.

Background, education, and teaching experience

At the time of interview, Debra had been teaching in School A since she completed her Bachelor of Teaching. She had five years of teaching experience in School A at the time of research.

At the time of the study, School A was a decile 5 contributing primary school, and worked towards enhancing teachers' knowledge through teacher professional development, which included building a collegial culture and maintaining a shared focus on improving achievement by *"discussing and exchanging ideas"* (DI). Teachers were encouraged to engage in self-review using research and best practice models to increase student outcomes. In practice, this involved *"regular staff meetings watch[ing] videos and analysing good practices with literacy leaders"* (DI). The school-wide student

achievement targets are recorded as analysing data to inform teachers' decision-making and "*to improve [their teaching] practice on reading and writing*" (DI).

Specifically, the school set academic and social goals for each student by requiring teachers to evaluate student performance. These evaluations were intended to enable teachers to monitor students' progress against these goals and "*identify the next step they need to take in their learning*" (DI). The teachers in the school worked together to design and implement a school-specific curriculum that integrated *learning areas, key competencies, principles, and values* (D1).

Professional learning and development

School A made resourced professional learning and development for teachers, as the school worked in a "*cluster with other schools*" (DI). The school's leadership and teachers were required to "*look at research and discover the thing that makes the biggest difference to the kids*" and then to work on getting professional development in the identified area (DI).

Debra had attended 2 years of professional development on reading and at the time of research the "*school was just getting into the professional development on teaching of writing*" (DI). Literacy leaders worked with the teachers and would sit "*in the classroom observing*" them (DI). Teachers then had the opportunity to get "*good feedback from literacy leaders about their teaching practices and how to improve them*" (DI).

Since undertaking professional development, the teachers had practised "*video recording their teaching practices and reflecting on them*" (DI). At the time of research, the professional development program was focused on how to give feedback to students. Debra reported that this was because when the literacy leaders asked teachers to define feedback and "*not one teacher knew the definition of feedback or how to give feedback*" (DI). Since then, the professional development program in the school had centred on feedback. Debra commented that she "*was getting the hang of providing oral feedback to students*" and felt that "*oral feedback was much more difficult*" than she originally thought (DI).

Debra's classroom

Debra's classroom provided an interesting mix of students. Debra's class was a combination of 65% of students with English as their first language and 35% students who had other languages as their native tongue, including Somali, Tongan, Tagalog, Gujarati and Samoan.

I provided Debra an overview of how I would like to carry out the research and arranged dates and times for interviews and observations. She introduced me to her students. I was then able to explain my research to the students and answer their questions, and to distribute consent forms. Debra then provided me her with class roll and lesson plan. Based on Debra's timetable and our initial discussion, we agreed that each observation would be directly followed by a post-observation interview during the school lunch break. She chose three consecutive days for observation as she said she only took three or four days to complete one writing topic because she had to conduct writing lessons as her "*principal checks to know we do our writing every day*" (DI). Debra was a serious teacher both during the interviews and observations and did not joke with her students.

Debra's Understanding of Feedback

As a teacher, Debra defined feedback as "*telling students what they have done well, and what their next learning steps are*" (DI). She believed feedback should be "*be specific and clear, about the learning not the child, and be precise enough that they can use it to inform their learning*" (DE). Debra believed feedback "*is something good and feed forward is something they [students] can work on*" (DI). She believed that providing oral feedback helped direct students so that "*they knew where they were going*" (DI). Her belief was drawn from her inferred knowledge of her students and her expectation of acceptable standards from students in various groups:

> *Filipinos get their pronouns wrong, and their tense they often get them wrong and so they write everything in present tense even when it is past tense* (DI).

> *I have one Somali girl and Tongan girl who have not been here very long who write very basic sentences because of the limitation in what they can get down* (DI).

> *I think in terms of grammar, there is a definite difference between ESOL kids and the way they write* (DI).

As a result, her inferred knowledge of her students significantly influenced her beliefs and practice of providing feedback:

> *I try providing feedback but obviously I have to simplify their feedback for the ones who have less English. But then, I have other kids that I simplify feedback for their learning difficulties in other ways. I am giving feedback about grammar and stuff more to L2 students* (DI).

She believed her feedback was framed according to specific features of students' written drafts that needed attention:

I gave feedback that would encourage them to add more details according to their learning intention and the success criteria (DI).

Debra emphasised, however, that with the diverse ethnicity of students in her classroom, there was difficulty in choosing how to give feedback for understanding:

The students' level and ESOLness makes it difficult in providing feedback for common understanding from the chosen learning intentions (DI).

Planning of the Writing Lesson

Each of Debra's writing lessons ran for 40 to 50 minutes. The topic during the observation involved students writing a narrative about 'The African Elephant'. Debra believed students' language proficiency influenced their performance in the writing lesson, clearly influencing her to include more than one learning intention, and multiple success criteria for students in her lesson plan (Appendix C1). Debra claimed that although she planned her lesson meticulously, the plans "*changed*" (DI) depending on students' response to the lessons.

Debra's lesson plan was influenced by her professional development training, and she had two sets of learning aims, one of which was for shared writing to "*turn ideas into feedback*" (DI) for the whole class. In this set, the learning aim for her students was *"to write interesting and full sentences from key words/ statements - we will make our writing interesting by using our own words, including descriptive language*" (Ddoc). She developed her learning intentions and success criteria from her knowledge of students from "*their previous year's asTTle writing*" (DI). The second set of learning aims for her students were that they "*write sentences correctly, add detail to their writing, add interesting details to their writing, and use correct grammar in their writing*" (Ddoc).

The success criteria that Debra designed for the group as a whole required that they write sentences correctly by "*begin[ing] a sentence with a capital; write one idea in each sentence – star, scene and action - and end [each] sentence with a full stop*" (Ddoc). Students were encouraged to add interesting details to their writing and to "*use key words in the plan, use descriptive language, and find synonyms*" (Ddoc). The group where the aim was that they use correct grammar in their writing had success criteria requiring them to "*identify past, present, and future tense, use correct verb ending for tense and read sentence to make sure it sounds right*" (Ddoc).

Debra's lesson did not include any teaching materials originally, but she provided students pictures of elephants and read a poem on the second day of the unit as she found students did not grasp the lessons and the learning goals. The students were asked to write the same topic task that they had used for their asTTle writing as a guide on writing a paragraph.

Practice and Observations

On each day that I observed her classroom, Debra conducted the writing lesson differently. She took a 'trial and error' approach to writing lessons. As she went through the first observed lesson and realised that students were not able to grasp or achieve the desired written task, she resolved she "*[would] try something different tomorrow*" (DI). Although she had planned her feedback and writing lesson, she tried a different approach on the second day of observation, which was not based on her planned lesson when she realised that the "*students seemed confused*" (DI).

As a result of Debra's teaching practice taking this trial and error approach, her feedback opportunities for students in her classroom arose from her own assumptions of effective feedback. Figure 4.1 on the next page shows the way Debra's conducted her writing lesson during the three observed lessons.

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                        1                          2
┌──────────────┐  ┌────────────────┐  ┌────────────────────┐
│ Observation  │  │ Group discussion│  │  Individual writing │
│   Day 1      │═▶│  on selected    │  │   in small groups   │
│              │  │    topic        │  │                     │
└──────────────┘  └────────────────┘  └────────────────────┘
                            ┌─────────────────────┐
                            │ Teacher feedback based│
                            │    on noticing       │
                            └─────────────────────┘
                        1              2              3
┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
│ Observation  │  │ Poem used │  │ Whole class│  │ Individual   │
│   Day 2      │═▶│ as model  │  │ discussion │  │ writing in   │
│              │  │           │  │           │  │ groups       │
└──────────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────────┘
                        1                          2
┌──────────────┐  ┌────────────────┐  ┌────────────────────┐
│ Observation  │  │ Student read   │  │   Whole class       │
│   Day 3      │═▶│ their written  │  │   discussion        │
│              │  │ drafts         │  │                     │
└──────────────┘  └────────────────┘  └────────────────────┘
              ┌────────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
              │ Teacher feedback    │  │  Peer feedback   │
              │ based on students'  │  │                  │
              │ success criteria    │  │                  │
              └────────────────────┘  └──────────────────┘
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Figure 4.1: Debra's writing lesson

Observation Day 1

The students were asked to sit on the mat at the beginning of the lesson for a whole class discussion, and then a specific group was asked to stay on the mat while the rest of the class went back to their own desks for their writing. The groups that she concentrated on providing feedback to were described as the "*lower proficiency students and students with behavioural issues*" (DI). During the first observation, Debra wrote on the board their tasks, *"to write an interesting paragraph about the African elephant"* (DF). Debra indicated to her students that they were required "*to write an interesting paragraph*" (DI). She had used the same topic two months earlier but decided to use it again as students were unable "*to grasp the lesson or write clearly*" (DI). The task on the first observation was "*to write about elephant breeding*" (DO). She asked her students to look for their sheets and find the required session. Most of her

students were not able to locate the worksheet at she had asked, "*to paste in their draft book*" (DO). Debra told the students what she wanted them to do:

> *You are going to find the bit that says 'females have one young calf at a time, breeds every four years, no set breeding season,' and you are going to write a paragraph about their life cycle* (DO).

Once she had told them the task, students were given information on what needed to be included in their paragraph. However, while the discussion on the life cycle of an elephant was in progress, Debra changed the discussion topic to writing an interesting paragraph and describing the elephant, completely overlooking the task of writing a paragraph about the elephant life cycle. Students "*struggled to grasp*" her description of the elephant, some of the students commented that they had "*never seen an elephant*" (SO) and were not familiar with the parts of its body. Students kept gesturing to the tusks and trunk and wanted to know the terms for these parts. Students struggled to find the vocabulary and spelling needed to complete the writing task:

Avnita: (Shows the action of tusks)

Teacher: Tusks. Go and get a piece of white paper on my desk and I will
*   write it down for you* (DO).

Adolpho: Excuse me, what is this?

Teacher: It is the trunk.

Adolpho: No, two at the side.

Teacher: Tusks. They are tusks (DO).

The whole class discussion was based on writing an interesting paragraph and adding details to their writing. Debra provided a lot of examples orally and probing to get "*them to tell their ideas, so [she] didn't tell them exactly all the ideas of what to do because some will do exactly that*" (DI). Debra did not discuss the various learning intentions that she had planned based on her perception and understanding of her students' ability, but during the entire lesson she chose to discuss only one learning intention of making the writing interesting:

Teacher: When we use verbs, adjectives, nouns, adverbs and onomatopoeia, what are we
*   trying to do? What sort of words? Cassie? What are we doing if we use these*
*   words? Hemi?*

Hemi: Make our writing better.

Teacher: We already said that. What we are actually doing? What are we doing at his
*   point?*

Students: Making it interesting.

Teacher: What are we doing at this point? What sort of words?

Mathew: Key words!

Teacher: Bejide, what sort of words? Hemi, what are we doing if we are using all these
words? Hemi?

Hemi: Making it more interesting.

Teacher: We have already said that. We have already said we are making it more
interesting. What are we actually doing? What is the process? Step? What are
the steps we are doing here? What do we want to do? Jemima?

Jemima: Making the reader read on.

Teacher: We might make the reader want to read on. So what are we doing, Belinda?

Belinda: Telling the reader what it looks like.

Teacher: We are using descriptive language (DO).

Debra's questioning often included a series of probing, elicitation of reasoning, and explaining meaning that led to her "*telling students the answer*" (DI) when she felt she did not receive the required answer. She regarded these as "*effective feedback techniques*" in teaching students how to write a detailed description, and how to add details to writing to make it more interesting. Debra often intervened to share her ideas, or content that she preferred in students' writing, often giving written feedback in their books. If misconceptions or errors in understanding occurred, or their attempts fell short of desired outcomes for vocabulary or sentence she wanted, Debra referred students to the thesaurus:

Teacher: Some people in their writing wrote like this 'eat large amount bark fruit grass
leaves'. Does that sound like a sentence?

Students: No

Teacher: So, if we want to make it more interesting what are some of the words we are
going use? What is a word we use to make it more interesting, Mathew? Look in
the thesaurus, is there a better word than that one? How about 'the elephant
consumes a large amount of food'? (DO)

Students were then required to produce a written task based on the whole class' learning intentions. The rest of my observation was of students writing on their own while she walked around providing oral feedback followed by written feedback. Her feedback was on her tacitly held knowledge of learning intentions and success criteria. She did not specify to students what the success criteria were, and often provided feedback individually as she noticed its need, rather than as she had planned to do for the whole group. When Debra's students' sentences were incorrect, she gave "*as much information as*" she thought they needed to write successfully (DI), often

outside the planned success criteria for the individual student. She also provided instant written feedback as she spotted any errors:

Teacher: Tusks. They are tusks (writes it down) and when you have a vowel it comes

        after 'an' (writes it down) (DO).

Debra believed that she provided formative feedback that "*made students aware of their next learning steps*" (DI). She started her lesson by introducing learning intentions, and feedback was on the knowledge and quality of success that she tacitly held. Success criteria were not clarified to the students. She mostly used questions to exemplify that students needed to make their writing interesting:

Teacher: Who can tell me something else that they can use to describe an elephant? Who

        can describe an elephant using an adjective for describing words? Who can tell

        me something about an elephant? Thinking about what we know about an

        elephant using adjectives and describing words. Mathew, tell me something

        about the elephant about what it looks like.

Mathew: They have floppy ears.

Teacher: They have floppy ears. Which was your adjective? Which was the describing

        words?

Mathew: (Silence).

Teacher: Was it ears?

Mathew: No.

Teacher: Is ears the describing words?

Mathew: No.

Teacher: Ears is a noun.

Amy: Floppy.

Teacher: Floppy. Belinda?

Belinda: The elephant's body colour is as dark as grey hair.

Teacher: You can tell me that what is an elephant's colour?

Belinda: Grey.

Teacher: Everybody (DO).

Misconceptions by students were common in her classroom, which Debra regarded as being due to their English proficiency. I noted that students often guessed the meaning of what she was saying or used gestures to articulate their needs:

Teacher: Ok, the African elephant is grey. Please write it down. Ok, what is the star of the

        scene? I am saying the African elephant is grey (teacher writes it down on a

        sheet). What if we make the sentence more interesting? Is everything about an

        African elephant grey? (Teacher keeps touching her hands hinting to students)

What part of it is grey? I am giving you a clue. What is this (teacher pulls the skin
on the top of her palm)?

Kieran: The body.

Keera: The feet.

Teacher: The body not including the tusks. What part of it is grey (teacher touches her
skin). I am giving you a clue. What is this? (pulling her skin).

Students: Skin.

Keera: Its skin. The skin is grey (DO).

Debra herself was also the only audience to share students' ideas, as she did not plan peer feedback or shared reading of the students' written work during the first observation. She often provided directive feedback and gestures so they had sufficient information to continue their writing, or to complete their sentence to her satisfaction.

At the end of the lesson, Debra "*realised students still did not understand on the concept of writing an interesting paragraph*" and she did not "*get the results*" she wanted, so she decided to "*try something new tomorrow*" (DI). She did not collect the students' written drafts for marking.

Observation Day 2

On the second day of observation, Debra tried and **"***experimented*" with teaching students how to write, using a different approach from the one she had originally planned. This time, she "*hoped students could add details to their writing by responding to a poem*" (DI) she read aloud to her students, entitled '*The blind men and the elephant*' (DF). She decided on this new approach so "*students knew that they had to add details to their writing in order for the reader to understand their writing*" (DI). Debra felt that the "*students did not understand their task and had not done their written work correctly the previous day so she had to find a different approach*" to make them understand their learning intentions (DI)*.* She had done some "*reflection on her failure from the first day*" and decided the poem would address her concerns (DI).

Debra read and discussed the poem with the students. She then pasted 3 pictures of elephants on the board to show the differences between the African elephant and other species of elephants. The students started running towards the board to have a closer look, which "*annoyed*" her (DI). She asked them to sit down and reprimanded them for behaving as if they had not seen an elephant before. However, there were students who then told her they "*have not been to the zoo or seen an elephant before*" (Student Obs). She disagreed as she felt they would have seen an elephant "*on the television*" (DO).

Debra asked the students to "*leave their written draft that they had completed the previous day and start writing a new paragraph*" (DI). The students were asked to write "*a paragraph on describing the elephant*" (DI). Debra gave a few examples as to how she wanted the students to write their sentences. She wrote examples of sentences on the board. Students then went back to their own desks and continued writing. As she walked around the class, she noticed that some students were just copying the poem into their paragraph. As she noticed it, she indicated to students what their actual task was and explained to them how to write, often writing it down in their book and telling them to "*add details to their writing to make it interesting*" or write "*complete sentences*" (DO).

Students were exposed to a lot of "*describing words and adjectives from the poem*" as she discussed it in detail, but she felt some students "*still struggled to understand*" why the poem had been read to them, and "*had copied directly from the poem*" instead of understanding that it had been intended as an example of what they might do (DI). Additionally, many of Debra's students were confused about the difference between their learning outcomes, their specific task and success criteria for the task. This issue was prominent during the second observation and she had to discuss and explain these to them again. The extract below is indicative of their confusion:

Teacher: I am writing the task on the board so you know what you are doing.

Amiri: What does a task mean?

*Teacher: What you are doing, Amiri I have used **it** [the word task] the whole year.*

   Paragraph describing what…?

Amiri: I thought we are using WALT.

Teacher: A WALT is what you are learning, a task is what you are doing! (DO).

Once the individual writing began, Debra called the group that had to write "*one sentence correctly*" (DI) as their learning intentions to the mat to offer them help. Debra explained to the students "*the success criteria*" (DI) of writing a simple sentence. Feedback was based on the success criteria.

Teacher: What do we look for when we are writing?

Students: Our sentences

Teacher: Good, our sentences. I think I have put one up there. (Teacher puts up the
   WALT for the students).

Teacher: Full stop. How many ideas do you want to put in a sentence?

Justin: One.

Teacher: Three would be compound sentences and you can use 'and'. How many 'ands'

can you put in a sentence at the most? (DO).

The audience during the feedback, however, was the whole class, and she would get their attention when pointing out the errors and how correct them:

Amiri: A topic is telling you what the rest of the paragraph is.
Teacher: Did someone hear what Amiri said?
Students: No
Teacher: If we start with the 'The African elephant gobbles large piles of food', that tells me... what is it, Amiri?
Amiri: Topic.
Teacher: It's a topic sentence. A topic sentence tells us what our paragraph is about. If we tell them what about the food, then we have to go on and tell what that food might be (DO).

Debra clearly shared the objective of "*writing an interesting narrative*" (DO) with her students but did not follow up on the learning intentions and success criteria that she had planned for her specific groups. Feedback was provided individually, according to what she felt students needed in their writing. Students did not have opportunities to monitor their own work or to know what their group and individual success criteria were.

Debra believed that her approach enabled other students to "*check and make sure they were on track and knew what they were doing too*" (DI). Debra's students were provided with specific feedback to include her ideas into their writing. It was authoritative information students received to modify their response and guide them towards the goals and quality that Debra wanted. The main ideas came from Debra herself and she was making sure the students were "*doing what they were supposed to*" (DI) and guiding them with oral feedback. She tried to ensure all her students "*had the points that she had given them in their sentences*" (DI). Students' written drafts were not collected after the lesson.

Observation Day 3

On the third day of the observation, a whole session involving both peers and teacher feedback was conducted. Debra sat with her students on the mat in a big circle on the mat and Debra helped them "*learn to give feedback as well*" (DI). The lesson began with Debra giving a "*recap of the previous lesson*" (DI). She discussed the success criteria for the whole class: learning intentions of adding details and making the paragraph interesting. She picked students to read out their written drafts to the whole class so that "*they [could] receive feedback*" (DI). Debra modelled how to give oral

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feedback to the whole class, and then asked students to provide peer feedback to the selected students (DI). The oral feedback based on planned success criteria did not relate to the planned learning intention of individual students, but was based on their written drafts and success criteria according to Debra's conceptions of quality:

> *I want you to be thinking when the person is reading out about the success criteria and see if you have some feedback that you can give that person* (DO).

Debra and the students discussed the students' written paragraph as the students read it out. An example of teacher and peer feedback during the whole class discussion of the written task is shown in the extract below:

Amy: *The African elephant's trunk has no bone in it. The trunk feels like a snake. The elephant's skin is grey like a cloud. The skin is wrinkled. The skin is too big for the elephant [and] it looks baggy. The tusks are white like a white board.*

Teacher: *That is as far as you have got? Who can tell if Amy used some descriptive language and interesting words? Amiri can you think of some descriptive words that she has used? What sort of descriptive words did she use?*

Amiri: *Simile* (DO).

Debra believed it was useful for her students and "*they enjoyed feedback in a circle*" (DI). However, students were not required to change or alter their written text after that. The whole class discussion, which she reported as "*feedback*", was spent "*identifying the success criteria*" (DI). She finished the lesson by using the same method of asking students to read their work and asking others to provide feedback.

Debra provided written feedback on grammar and the mechanics of writing (such as spelling) in all three observation sessions. She indicated the reason for her taking responsibility for this as follows:

> *If they focus on their spelling, they just lose concentration, so it is finding a balance between the surface and the deep features and writing. Does it make sense? I strongly believe kids can either spell or they can't actually. I couldn't until I was an adult. I was a really good reader and really good writer but I couldn't spell* (DI).

However, Debra did devote some time to spelling, punctuation and clarity, as these were the "*success criteria for some of her students' writing*" (DI). Her perception of the students' English proficiency level had a profound effect on her feedback, and she "*supported students*" (DI) who she perceived as having less proficiency through both oral and written feedback. Both oral and written feedback to students was based on

their work in progress and concentrated on acknowledging the students' efforts and to "*direct them*" (DI). It was important to her that "*students knew their errors*" (DI).

Debra's written feedback on the grammar and mechanics of writing were instantaneous (see Appendix E1). She felt these were a problem in her class as "*English was their [the students] second language*" and some students with "*behavioural problem needed written feedback*" more than others (DI). She felt that providing instant feedback helped students to "*get the ideas in better and the flow of writing going*" (DI). Additionally, Debra felt she was "*trying her best where feedback was concerned*" and that written feedback was easier to give than oral feedback as she *"was still learning about feedback"* (DI). Debra was interested in the "*content and students' organisation of ideas*" (DI), and the development of these ideas was consistent with the ideas and feedback that she had provided them with.

During this third observation, Debra believed she clearly shared the "*objective of writing an interesting narrative with her students*" (DI) but did not follow up on the learning intentions and success criteria that she had planned for her specific groups. Feedback was provided according to what she "*felt students needed in their writing*" (DI). Students did not have opportunities to monitor their own work or know what their group and individual success criteria were.

Furthermore, as her attempt to move students into a discussion often met with student passivity, meaningful discourse did not materialise, Debra's lesson during this observation featured more of Debra's speaking than speech from her students, making it a teacher-centred teaching and feedback-writing lesson. Students' written drafts were collected for marking. She continued marking as she perceived necessary.

Debra's written feedback on the collected drafts to her student (for example Appendix E1) was lengthy and contained more words than the students' written draft. She asked students to "*add details*" and "*should make a plan*" before writing (DO). Students did not have to revise or write a new draft based on the feedback that was given by Debra.

The Connection between Debra's Beliefs and Practices

Debra's espoused beliefs and practices of formative feedback reflected the understanding of feedback that she gained through her teaching experiences, professional learning and development and understanding of her students' proficiency of English and needs. There were some inconsistencies between Debra's reported beliefs on feedback that is formative and her formative feedback practices. She reported that feedback moves her students forward to the "*next learning step*" (DI) but

the observations revealed the next learning steps involved supplying correct answers so students could complete a task. Her feedback helped them rewrite sentences that she thought were not "*good enough or interesting*" and "*needed to be corrected*" (DI).

Debra believed "*oral feedback was difficult*" to implement in the classroom as she was "*still learning*", and students' "*linguistic ability and behaviour*" (DI) were further hindering the process. Hence, her feedback in the classroom was often simply telling or "*directing students towards the answers*", mostly "*writing the answers down for them*" (DI). Since she believed most of her students in her classroom "*couldn't spell and some were in fact on the dyslexic spectrum*" (DI), she wrote the words and sentences down for them. However, she believed that it was good to practise feedback of any kind in the classroom and any feedback would help her students. She believed that instant feedback was useful to "*move students in their learning*" (DI), as a result provided both written and oral feedback as soon as she noticed the need. Since she believed that peer and self-assessment was difficult to implement in her classroom:

> *The students don't' understand and have some behavioural issues, English is too difficult for them so I always provide the feedback* (DI).

As long as her students had completed the task she considered she had provided effective feedback. Debra's beliefs/ practice connection is shown in figure 4.2 on the next page. Debra's reported beliefs on formative feedback during her interviews and her formative feedback strategies during the writing lesson observations.
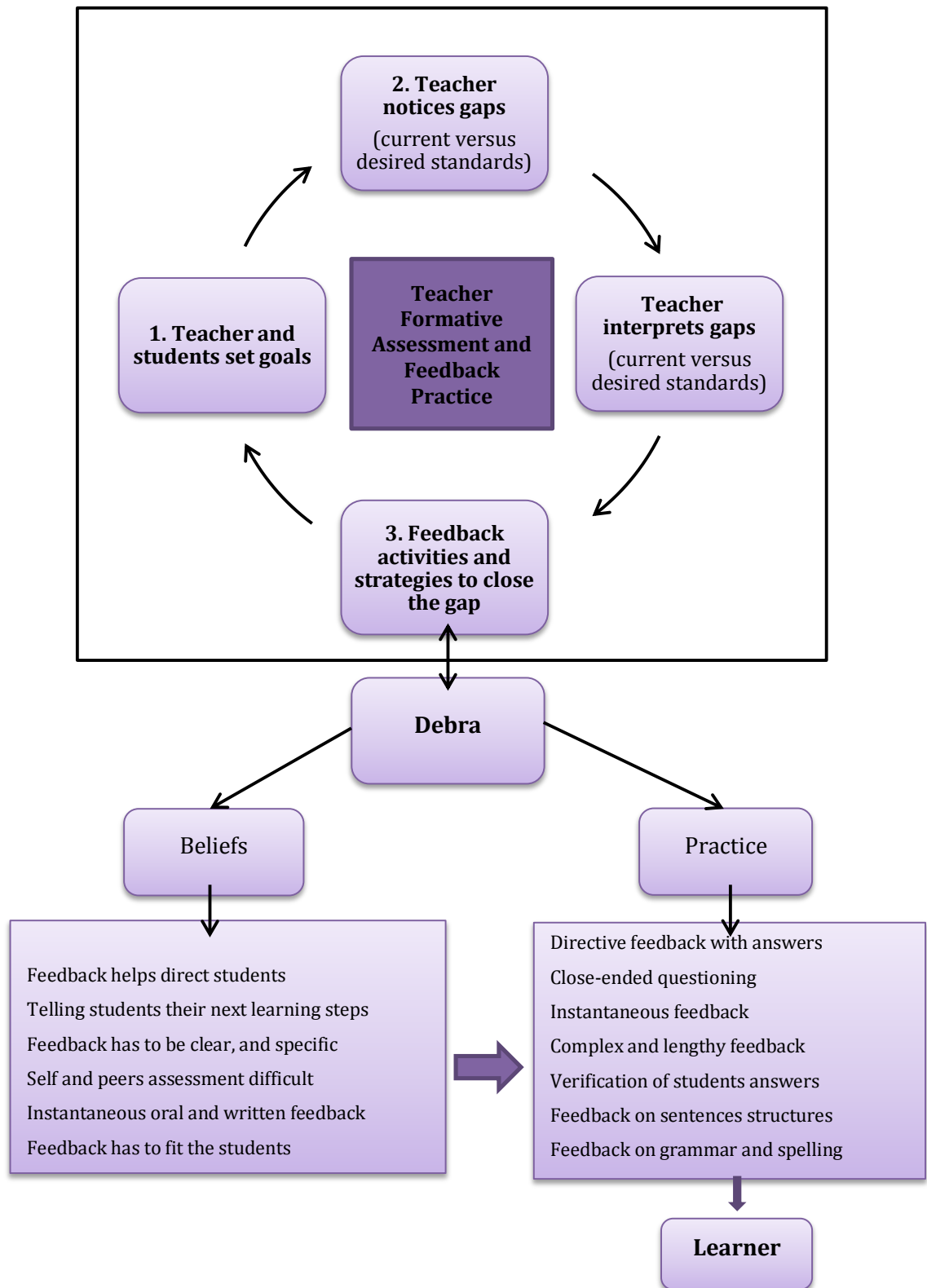
Figure 4.2: Debra's reported beliefs and observed practice

Themes

As discussed in Chapter Three, data from interviews, observations, field notes and document analysis enabled me to identify significant themes relating to Debra's

beliefs about feedback and her writing practice from her understanding of teaching and learning. Debra's case centred on the concepts of teacher-set goals, on-going learning, directing the learning and teacher as technician.

Teacher-set goals

Debra set the learning goals, learning intentions and success criteria for her students from "*their previous asTTle writing*" (DI). She felt that this helped the students focus on "*the criteria for successful writing*" and on knowing their teacher's "*expectation*" (DI). Debra planned learning intentions and success criteria for different groups of students. However, during the teaching practice and observations I did not observe instances of Debra implementing her plan by sharing these criteria with specific groups of students during the lessons, nor did I observe Debra clearly directing individual students to address the learning intentions or success criteria she held for them. She reported that her plan and teaching were based on her knowledge of students' proficiency and ability:

> *I have one group of kids that are working on getting their sentences right, but I normally have learning intentions for the whole class, something that each group is working on. As you see on my lesson plan. This is the learning intentions that we are working on as a class and then this is the learning intentions for each of these groups, the things that I see and that they have to work on. So I took this group which ties them with what I am doing with the whole class. That will be best for what they are doing* (DI).

She reported that she set her writing lesson structure to fit the students' needs and what she perceived to be "*learning intentions based on their proficiency*" (DI). She started her lessons by introducing the learning intentions in a simpler form:

> *That is what I was trying to make them do, I was making them think more of the audience and giving them enough information and because that is a weakness* (DI).

When she found students were "*struggling with their writing*" on the first day, she "*added another success criteria for the whole class*" and often "*checked*" if students had the "*understanding*" (DI) to include it in their writing:

> *We were recapping what we had done the day before with the learning intention and the success criteria and **I** added that extra success criteria from what we [teacher and students] talked and discussed about earlier in the lesson. As a reader we [the audience] have to get enough information to understand. The*

success criteria were the ones we wrote the day before and then we added the extra one on the bottom today (DI).

She often stressed the learning intentions and success criteria to the students, in their groups and as a whole class, to draw their attention to specific elements to make their writing successful. She used it at the various stages of her writing lesson:

We are learning to use descriptive language (DO).

Remember we are working on making our writing more interesting, so we need to think of those descriptive words (DO).

So we are still thinking about this, what we are thinking in our success criteria, about giving the reader enough information. We will make sure we tell them everything they need to know (DO).

We are learning to organise our writing (DO).

This interaction provides a similar example:

Teacher: We start our sentences with a…?
Students: Capital letter.
Teacher: Capital letter. We end our sentence with a….? We finish a sentence with?
Students: Full stop.
Teacher: Full stop (DO).

Debra was using the terms "learning intentions" and "success criteria" interchangeably. She did, however, know that the function of success criteria was to enable students to check their written product against the required achievement. She reworded the learning intentions of "*we are learning to make our writing interesting and using descriptive words*" (DO). During the second observation, the learning intention "*we are learning to write an interesting paragraph*" (DI) was supported by a single criterion "*organise the writing with the parts of the body*" (DO).

Debra included a list of items such as "*verb, adjectives, noun, adverb, onomatopoeia*" (DO) to be added into their written product as their success criteria as these are examples of details to make their writing more interesting:

I was still getting them to use descriptive language. That is the bit I want them to add because that is what makes their writing more interesting, basically (DI).

'Still learning' about formative feedback

Feedback was a new concept that Debra had been "*trying to include*" (DI) in her practice when teaching writing. She reported that the recent change in her thinking about her feedback comments had been due to the "*ongoing professional development*" (DI) she had undertaken. Debra was mindful of the role of feedback, as she was aware of what she wanted to do and how she was doing it. She took time to reflect on her feedback practice and her instructions:

> *I found that because I videoed myself twice [during teaching] that was in an oral setting with group work I would say 'Good" and that would the end rather than 'I like that because…'* (DI).

She assessed students as they were writing, often correcting their errors. She felt that she should make changes in her feedback methods and was trying to include them into her practice:

> *I realised that oral feedback was harder to be specific but **I** am trying to improve* (DI, emphasis mine).

She was trying to inculcate feedback 'specificity' that made students feel good about their learning and enhanced their self-esteem as learners. She thought it made learning easier and encouraged the student:

> *So the written feedback, you know talking about things, being about the learning and not about the learner and focussing on one thing at a time, whether or not you do that is not the question but the focus has been about being very specific "**I** like that because…"* (DI, emphasis mine).

"*In theory*", Debra knew she had to look at one thing at a time and tell the students what they were doing right, but often "*forgot to do this*" (DI). Increasing her feedback efforts and reflecting on her teaching practice is something she has recently "*started doing*" (DI). She has started recording her writing lessons and has realised that she is learning and wanted to "*include what she planned"* into her teaching practice (DI).

Debra's feedback focussed on the writing activity and was work-related, as she felt it was important students knew what was expected of them. However, it was something she found it difficult, as what she presumed was clear feedback on students' task was in reality so confusing to students that she had to write it down for them. She found that her own schooling experience somehow influenced her as a teacher:

> *I am very receptive learner and I found it really hard writing things down. I would do everything literally [with the students] because that is how I learnt. I don't*

need it written down, I just need to be told what to do and I will do it. So now I have to constantly tell the students what the task is and write the task down for them (DI).

I remembered to write the task on this time. I did it yesterday but later on because I forgot to do it (DI).

So on the second day she made it a point to write down their tasks clearly on the board:

Teacher: So we are still thinking about giving the reader enough information which is our success criteria. We will make sure we tell them everything they need to know about an elephant.

Students: Yes.

Teacher: Everything they need to know. Give the reader all the information they need to make a clear picture in their mind about an elephant (teacher writes it on the board). Because then the next time we write a story, an imaginary story and the person doesn't know what something looks like, we know how to write details. It is just in your imagination. I am writing a task so you know what you are going to do (DO).

She believed that she was constantly trying to provide positive feedback to her students that she directed and personalised through feedback comments based on her perception of their individual needs. She saw this as a form of reinforcement of the goal of helping them toward working on their tasks. As she put it, Debra aimed to:

Give them feedback that would encourage them to add more details and trying to see what works (DI).

This, she found, was relatively challenging as students sometimes just copied her feedback comment or ignored it completely. Debra found she had to be creative in teaching the students to write good sentences, and had her own ways of helping her students write. She explained:

We use the description of a movie. We say a complete sentence is like a movie. It has to start with a scene and has an action. So when we said the African Elephant's skin is grey and wrinkly, even though it was not quite accurate we were saying that the African Elephant is the scene, the skin is the star and it is not actually an action but the bit that is describing it is the wrinkly and grey. So it [the sentence] has to have the three components in it. So it is actually to try and make them get one idea in one sentence (DI).

However, this concept was only observed used with one group and they did not respond to the questions on what were the scene and the action.

The 'technician' of feedback

Debra adopted the 'expert role' in deciding what to include in the teaching and learning of writing. She mainly acted as 'presenter', and put her students in the position of being passive 'passengers' during the lesson. She did not provide opportunities for students to read the passage or the selected poem. She felt that she was best suited to deliver clear examples and definitions, as there were "*gaps in their [the students'] understanding*" (DI).

Debra also provided a model of writing, as she wrote a paragraph out for the students. Feedback arose from the group discussion and students' work:

Teacher: What type of plan have you been working on lately?
Student: Organise.
Teacher: Organise. So thinking of the list, you might go from its nose to its legs. You might go from top to down (DO).

Teacher: What do we look when we are writing?
Students: Our sentences
Teacher: Good. Our sentences. I think I have put one up there. (Teacher takes down the WALT for the students). Alright. So remember guys what an African elephant looks like, is it big or small? What its trunk like? How many legs has it got? What colour is it? What is its tail like? What are its ears like? You are describing what it looks like. It's not hard you can see (points to the pictures on the board). Remember we are also working on writing sentences correctly. We are having some trouble with it sometimes aren't we? (DO).

Debra's judgements of students' writing allowed her to often provide what she felt to be the necessary assessment of their writing through feedback. She made a comparison between her knowledge of the process and that of her students. She had the leading role in the feedback process, in which she always involved the whole class. She provided '*on the spot*' feedback on their spelling and grammatical errors as she felt they were not capable of correcting themselves through discussion or feedback:

> *They are all on the dyslexic spectrum and so I have said to them "I don't care about the spelling, I just want you to write and you are going to read it to me and I am here to write the spelling correctly, so we both know they are writing* (DI).

Debra thought, "*students needed that type of feedback and expected it*" from her (DI). She continually reacted to success factors that were not identified as success criteria and tried to fix them. She emphasised the right or correct response as a directive to be followed by her students:

> *Right, if you put eat or change the words to eating or eats, you are not changing the word, you are just changing the tense that you are using. What about consume? What does consume mean? Is it not a better word?* (DO).

Teacher: Could we change it a bit? Belinda?

Belinda: The amount?

Teacher: Change the 'amount' to 'piles'. Could we just say 'food' in here and go to another sentence? (DO).

Teacher: Right, they are, but can you tell me something about the skin first. What else did you notice about the skin?

Marika: Tough and wrinkly

Teacher: Yeah they are probably tough, why not tell me more about the skin before you go telling me about the elephant.

Marika: I have to start again.

Teacher: You can start again or you can do it, I don't care but you can do it. Remember we don't want our reader to be like the blind man who thought the elephant was like a snake. We try and give them enough information to know what an elephant really looks like so they can have this picture in their mind about what the elephant looks like. You understand? (DO).

Her instructions were consistent with her beliefs that the teacher should be knowledgeable and play a bigger role in the feedback process than the student. When students added partial or inaccurate information to their writing she would immediately correct them:

> *It is better for me to give them written oral or written feedback straight away. If not, they forget what I was talking about and continue to do mistakes* (DI).

She used the poem 'The three blind men examining the elephant' to prompt her students to add details to their. It was her way of, as she explained, helping her students "*fill their gaps of understanding on adding details*" (DI). She was proud that she had helped the students understand their writing task:

> *Today [Observation 2] I think has been the best of all. **I** am very pleased with my kids today* (DI, emphasis mine).

Debra felt that task-related feedback sometimes raised other issues such as students sometimes either "*ignoring the feedback or copying statements without thinking*" (DI). In her opinion, her on the spot corrections and provisions of very specific feedback in all areas was a positive way of preventing students from "*spending too much time pondering on spelling and [encouraging them to] concentrate on their drafting*" (DI). Debra felt that this was positive work-related feedback for the weaker students and "*speakers of English as second language students*" (DI).

Feedback to students was often given as a whole class so the rest of the students would not make the same mistakes and but would learn from it as well:

> *The purpose is to give feedback kind of individually but that becomes the whole class feedback. It is kind of clever when I think about it. You [the researcher] are making me think about why **I** do things. This is probably good* (DI, emphasis mine).

However, when Debra framed her feedback, questions, prompts, and gestures, she was the one who initiated and controlled the communication and responses of the students:

> *So it is [feedback] based on the need that **I** have seen* (DI, emphasis mine).

> *...by writing down I thought she got it and she will be able to spell it now because she works like that. That is why **I** did (*DI).

> *...as **I talked** to them **I wrote** it down* (DI).

The 'director' of on-the-go feedback during work-in-progress

Debra's role during the writing process was as a 'director' as the students were always required to change their sentences and structures to what she deemed satisfactory. As mentioned, her feedback to students was given whenever "*she noticed the need*" (DI) as she went around the classroom and observed students' writing, meaning that this directorial process occurred frequently. Debra elaborates:

> *So I was going around making sure that they were on the right track with their task, and just giving some feedback to kids as they started writing about whether they have followed what I said and were doing what we had talked about, and then giving them some suggestion on things that they could do* (DI).

Debra favoured this approach, partly as she felt the timing of feedback was an important process in moving students forward in learning to master the flow of their writing. Consequently, she often checked her students' writing by walking around the class and giving her oral feedback and written feedback on-the-spot:

Kieran: The elephant is big and grey.

Teacher: Did you put your capital and full stop? Did you start with a capital?

Kieran: Yes.

Teacher: Ok what is your next sentence?

Kieran: Floppy.

Teacher: What is floppy? Does it mean its skin?

Kieran: No.

Teacher: Ok put your full stop, so now. You need a capital letter to start your next
sentence don't you? Why are you rubbing it out? You don't need a capital letter
for grey; you need the capital letter for the next word. Write that 'y' back in
again. Good, get it started (DO).

She assumed her feedback comments were manageable and specific to her students' learning. An approach Debra employed during this process was to use simple questions for students to reflect on. Often she had to stimulate them for their answers:

Teacher: What interesting words do you know, Edwin? We could have said
'African elephant gobbles up gigantic piles of food like a food
machine. What language features?

Students: Simile.

Teacher: Find a sentence and use your own words. Put details into your
sentence. Use your own words. Which words would you use to
your sentences interesting? Did you know an African elephant is
an endangered animal.

Amy: An elephant is a mammal.

Teacher: Is the information here?

Students: No.

Teacher: What else can we add? A mammal has warm blood (DI).

Often the oral feedback was based on their work in progress that enabled students to add descriptions or details to their writing. She believed she provided feedback to "*stimulate their thinking*" (DI) and as a guide in improving their writing towards a required standard of writing. This was often addressed towards the whole class so that other students thought about it and included it in their writing:

Teacher: So you are saying nearly the same thing but about the feet. Maybe what you
need to say in the previous paragraph is that their legs are long and round and
you have to say that their feet are round too. You can put them together. I can see
from here what Jeremy has actually done, one paragraph for trunk, one
paragraph for feet and another paragraph for legs which is kind of same. So he

has done a paragraph with a heading. His heading looks like or is the physical features. He has done 3 paragraphs with it and I really like that. That is a nice way of dividing it up isn't it? Where do the tusks come from? Where do you find the tusks? Are they at their bottom? Where are elephant tusks? (DO)

Approving students' work and noting standards of writing achieved during the work in progress is an important form of feedback in Debra's class. Communicating how students had met particular criteria to the whole class was a sign of approval to "*build students' confidence*" (DI). Her comments of approval are noted in her interaction with the students, sometimes individually and more often for the whole class to hear:

> *I like that (reads Amiri's draft to the other group members). So this is the order you are going to be writing, is it?* (DO).

> *Fantastic, you'd rather do this than write about the life cycle huh? A better topic. Ok keep going. I like the way your sentences are coming together* (DO)*.

> *Yes, that is correct. Well done. I like the way you have written your paragraph* (DO).

She believed that providing feedback individually and at the same time, addressing the whole class helped other students in their writing as well. Debra believed that it encouraged students to engage in learning:

> *It was to kind of reinforce what I had been teaching and also was to get them to think that the idea was that they would hear feedback from other kids and think 'Oh I need to do that with my writing'. I was hoping that that would happen and I know certainly that one of the kids that came on the mat with me had taken on what she heard and had changed what she had written* (DI)*.

Chapter Summary

Debra believed that effective formative feedback was feedback delivered on the spot, and related to the particular work in progress, and this was reflected in her practice. She found it important to remind students of their learning intentions and success criteria to enable them to perform well in their written task. The learning intention was communicated to focus students on their learning goals. This was framed as a list of items and repeated.

She utilised her knowledge and expertise to provide feedback that she deemed fruitful and effective. She played a major role in the writing process, and in determining the direction and quality of the students' writing. She made decisions on the direction of students' writing and provided feedback accordingly. She believed students

depended on her judgements to assess quality and improvement in their writing, and thus gave the students a limited and restricted role in the feedback process. Their role was as consumers of feedback, and passengers on the teacher's train of ideas, and Debra's feedback had influence on her students' writing as they final product had all the ideas she discussed with the whole class. She believed students were not able to do peer-assessment as they lacked the productive skill and knowledge to evaluate and provide constructive feedback. Hence, Debra took control of the feedback practices in the classroom and offered limited opportunities for students to play a role in the feedback process.

<div align="center">

CHAPTER FIVE:

Case Study Two: Lyn

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Feedback to students is so they know what is expected of them and what to do next (Lyn).

Introduction to Lyn

Lyn (pseudonym) is a Pakeha New Zealand teacher who completed her primary and secondary schooling in New Zealand.

Background, education, and teaching experience

At the time of research, Lyn had no experience either learning or teaching outside of New Zealand. She had spent 4 years teaching at school B following her graduation from teacher's college in New Zealand.

School B is a decile 10, full primary school in a large suburb that caters for students from Years 1 to 8. The school has a high socio-economic status, with students coming from an affluent community. At the time of the research, the school roll was 733, and with students from 30 different nationalities. The school's strategic plan was developed in consultation with members of the school community. The school focuses on encouraging all children "*to be the best they can be*" (LI).

The school's achievement in reading, writing and numeracy was "*at or above national levels*" (LI) and students who were performing below expectations were supported. The students were considered active participants in their own learning as they were expected to "*lead the three-way conferencing with their parents and teachers, and share their goals*" (LI). Teaching practice was "*set a certain way*" by the school to ensure that teachers promoted students to "*self-evaluate their class work and [become] skilled in providing peer feedback*" in their classrooms (LI).

The school also offered "*buddy classes*" (LI) where senior and junior classes shared activities and learning. In these classes, each junior student was paired with a senior student, and they met once a day for reading or other kinds of activities planned by the school. Besides this, students were divided into classes of Year 1/2, Year 3/4, Year 5/6, and Year 7/8.

As Lyn noted, teachers worked in syndicates to structure their lessons, so she felt collegially supported when she first came to the school as a provisionally registered teacher (PRT) five years ago, but also that the "*other teachers there [at the school] had a similar way of organising their teaching of writing*" (LI). Lyn felt there were

"*professionally stimulating reading materials*" available for all teachers, and those resources "*were similar to the ones she had used at the university*" (LI). All the classrooms in the school were "*well-resourced with reading materials*" (LI).

Additionally, according to Lyn, the standards and practices set by the school provided a benchmark for beginner teachers setting out in their careers. This had helped Lyn, as she put it, "*blend in and work with the other teachers*" (LI). Lyn felt that her school was supportive, partly because staff engaged in "*open discussions*" with each other (LI). Student achievement was often discussed during meetings, and teachers would often *"share good examples"* (LI). Teachers "*planned, discussed, and shared ideas about the types of transactional writings they would be doing over the next term*" (LI). Teachers would then "*set common instructional goals, teach their classrooms and administer assessment to determine the students' level*" which helped them group their students (LI).

Furthermore, at Lyn's school, teachers observed each other according to need, based on the school's own "*appraisal system*" (LI). This observation provided opportunities for teachers to discuss ideas and gain feedback on their teaching practice. It also enabled the teachers to "*talk about the different levels of achievement and get better understanding by bouncing ideas off each other*" (LI).

Professional learning and development

The Board of Trustees made provision for whole-school professional development to support the school's annual goals of "*high quality of teaching … sustained across the school*" (LI). Consequently, school B provided professional development for teachers at the school level. Teachers *"don't have to go out for the professional development; the school brings it [the professional development] to them*" (LI). The choice of professional development was "*according to what they [school and board of trustees] think the teachers and students need*" (LI).

Teachers at Lyn's school had "*had a lot of professional development in other areas but not in writing*" (LI). Lyn recalled professional development focussed "*on how to set up the books, giving children feedback with exemplars and ideas on the way children learn and understand"* (LI). The professional learning was continued in their syndicate as teachers would then "*meet several times and collaborate on their teaching strategies*" (LI). This helped syndicate members identify "*areas for improvement"* and set goals for future teaching with literacy leaders that provided the PD from outside (LI).

Lyn's classroom

On the first day at Lyn's school, the principal took me to Lyn's class and introduced me to both Lyn and her students. Lyn's classroom was divided into a group discussion area on the mat, a sofa for students who needed to think and work on their own, a reading corner, and desks where students sat in their ability groups. There were current learning materials and many colourful art displays on the walls. Students' photos, artwork and science experiments were among the materials on display. Lyn was a teacher with a sense of humour that often had her students laughing as she joked with them.

Lyn's class consisted of year 3 and year 4 students "*divided into three groups according to their reading and writing ability*" (LI). The students in her class were all at the same level - "*level 2 of the curriculum*" based on their asTTLe assessment from the previous year (LI). Lyn showed me her class roll during our icebreaking session, where I met her to collect the informed consent forms. There were a total of 29 students in her classroom. Her classroom consisted of twenty New Zealand European/Pakeha students, four Indian students (one born in America, one in the Maldives, one in New Zealand and one in India), one Japanese student, two Thai students (one from Saudi Arabia and one from Thailand), one Cambodian and one British student.

At the beginning of the year, students from Lyn's school were assessed using the New Zealand Curriculum Exemplars for English for Writing and then grouped "*according to their abilities*" (LI). The school specifically assessed the written exemplars across five bands to process indicators at end of the previous year and again the beginning of the Year. Thus students were expected to progress in their knowledge and skills as writers and through "*classroom observations and their performance [the teacher] moves them to another group*" (LI). In Lyn's class, students were able to progress and move from their groups to a higher performing group if they performed.

Lyn's Understanding of Feedback

Lyn believed feedback was "*information that is communicated to a child both orally, written or through conversation*" (LE). The information encompassed interactions that "*confirms what the child is doing well and states their next steps of learning*" (LE). Lyn thought the role of feedback was to "*[provide] direction for students to act on when brought to their attention* (LI). Lyn believed that written feedback was significant only when they were able to "*read their feedback comments and act on it*" (LI).

According to Lyn, providing feedback as "*written points*" in books to remind students of a teacher/student conversation was an important "*reminder*" (LI) of a feedback discussion. This would assist students in acting upon feedback, which Lyn saw as the most important part of a formative feedback process. She asserted that her beliefs regarding good feedback strategies had been influenced by "*lectures and at University and through being provisional registered teacher here [at school B].* Her beliefs about what constituted effective formative feedback practices were further consolidated "*through tutor teacher guidance and observations*" (LI)*.* As a result, Lyn's beliefs about effective feedback practice influenced her classroom feedback strategies.

Her quality and quantity of feedback was based on "*students' ability in writing and improving their performance*" (LI). Therefore, she believed in helping students work in their ability group to enhance performance in writing:

> *Within writing, I have a small group that are sort of at slightly below expectation I guess you could say and so we are working together in improving but they are not necessarily L2 learners* (LI).

Lyn intended her formative feedback acts to stimulate students' thinking and interest in writing, and preferred to offer "*prompts and questions rather than telling students*" (LI). She believed that in this process, "*a bit of scaffolding, probing,*" and seeing the results of "*different types of feedback [had] shaped the way*" she provided effective feedback (LI). One important factor she believed made feedback effective was providing it as soon as she noticed the need. She reported instantaneous oral feedback was often her preferred form of feedback, which she saw as effective in the writing process because it would prevent students from "*losing focus on the task*" (LI).

Planning the Writing Lesson

Lyn's school writing policy, her curriculum knowledge, and her knowledge of her students influenced her during the planning when choosing the learning goals/intentions and success criteria. The writing task she set for her students was "*an integrated topic of science experiments that the students have been conducting the previous two weeks*" (LI). At the time of my research, Lyn had set producing a piece of transactional writing - specifically a "*factual recount of a science experiment*" (see lesson plan Appendix C2) - as the learning aim for her students. She had developed the same learning intentions for the whole class, following what was planned in her syndicate meeting. Lyn stated that the learning intentions for her students were to learn to "*write to show ideas clearly, to recount what has happened in a past experience, make good use of facts, use ideas based on the writer's experience, edit for grammar, paragraphing,*

capital letters, and full stops (Ldoc). Lyn explicitly stated the list of success criteria for her students in her lesson plan:

- I can plan before I write;
- I can write a draft of a recount based on a plan;
- I can write an introduction stating who, when, where;
- I can write a series of events; clearly related in sequence stating what happened;
- I can write in past tense, I can include verbs that denote action;
- I can include a range of linking words and phrases that denote time;
- I can add detail to add interest for the reader;
- I can edit my work (LDoc).

Students had another set of success criteria tailored for individual students, which she did not include in the lesson plan but which the students in question were given on post-it notes in their draft books. These success criteria were known as the "*two stars and a wish*" (LI). These were known in a simplified version of "*two success criteria they were good at and one success criteria they would be working towards*" (for example, some students had *"good at writing capital letters and complete sentences and worked towards adding verbs into their sentences"*) (LI). These criteria were developed during teacher/student conferencing, and through discussion of their writing skills and performance. Such conferencing was conducted twice a year. Figure 5.1 on the next page shows Lyn's learning aims, learning intentions and success criteria:

Learning aims	Learning intentions	Success criteria

Transactional writing: Level 2	**Learning intentions (WALT)**	**Success criteria (WILF)**
-write instructions and recount events in authentic contexts. -write instructions and explanations, state facts and opinion and recount events in a range of authentic contexts. (Ldoc)	**We are learning to…** -write to show ideas clearly. -write to recount what has happened in past experience. -make good use of facts. -use ideas based on the writer's experience. -edit for grammar, paragraphing, capital letters and full stops. (Ldoc)	**What I am looking for…** -I can plan before writing. -I can write a draft of a recount based on a plan. -I can write a series of events clearly related in sequence stating what happened. -I can write in the past tense. -I can include verbs that denote action. -I can include a range of linking words and phrases that denote time. -I can add detail to add interest for the reader. - I can edit my work. (Ldoc)

Figure 5.1: Lyn's planned lesson with learning intentions, learning goals and success
    Criteria.

To achieve these aims, Lyn prepared graphic organisers to model aims for her students, and provided individual student hand-outs for each of her writing lessons. Lyn clearly stated which graphic organisers she was going to use during the whole week of writing lessons in developing the skills required for transactional writing. These had been discussed in her syndicate meetings.

Lyn also focused on individual students, identifying herself as a teacher who encouraged writing via "*students being provided opportunities to create their own writing*" (LI). She planned that individual students would choose their own writing topic, stating that:

> *They will choose their own science topic [the observed lesson] but they all have to do factual recap as a type of writing, so that we know [through written task] that they have covered all aspects of skills for the topic by the end of the year that they need to cover* (LI).

Furthermore, she indicated in her lesson plan which group she would be helping in a smaller group discussion in that writing session. She had placed her students in three different groups according to their reading and writing ability. Her lesson plan contained information for the whole week of teaching.

Practice and Observations

Lyn's writing lesson was conducted in a similar fashion every day. Students were introduced to the learning intentions, and then she created a writing model on her whiteboard during the whole class discussion as a guide for the students. She discussed the success criteria expected to meet each of the learning intentions, and how they could be identified in the completed graphic organisers. All three observation sessions started with a new graphic organiser (Day 1: Appendix D1; Day 2: Appendix D2; Day 3: Appendix D3). Students completed these graphic organisers before writing a complete draft.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| Creating a model | Whole class discussion | Small group discussion | Individual writing | Peer discussion |

| Teacher feedback | Self-assessment | Peer feedback |

| Based on students learning intentions and success criteria |

Figure 5.2: Lyn's writing lesson
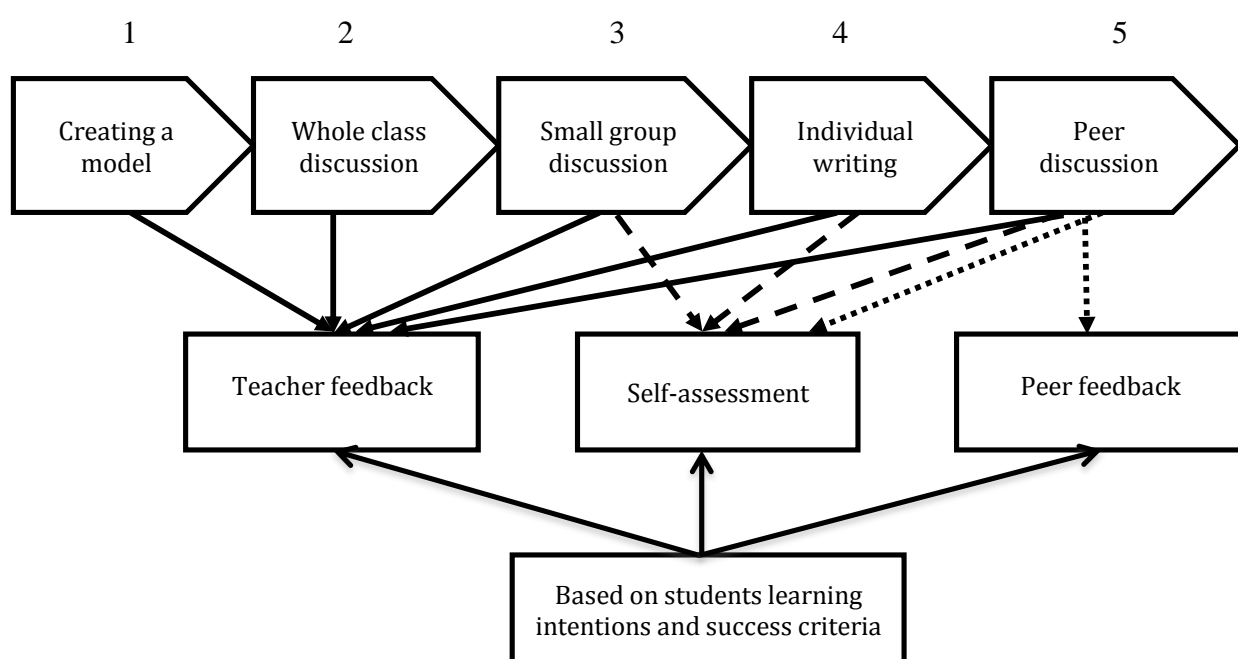
Figure 5.2 above shows Lyn's writing lesson, which went through the same procedure every day (though during the small group discussion on the mat, she helped different groups each day). Writing was "*conducted every day and books [were] collected daily for written feedback*" (LI) from the teacher. Teacher feedback, self-assessment and peer feedback was carried out during every writing lesson.

Students in Lyn's classroom were provided with "*teacher feedback, and peer and self-assessment every day*" (LI). She modelled the writing content to her students on graphic organisers, similar to the ones that she later provided to her students, and generated student discussion and ideas, presenting her model as a standard for desired achievement and a reference point for her students regarding her expectations of them:

> *It was an example of what they will be writing to give them an example of what they will be aiming for and then it is starting to break down the parts of a piece facts* (LI).

Lyn believed that the features exemplified in the writing models she created would be beneficial for students, as it drew their attention to their own performance in the production and process of writing. Lyn displayed the completed graphic organisers as models for students to use as a guide on the whiteboard in front of the class.

Lyn's structure enabled all students present to participate in the assessment of their own writing, and writing by their peers. The students were able to "*revisit their writing and add further details*" (LI) through the peer assessment strategies undertaken. The consistent grouping of the students provided a "*community of practice*" (LI) within which they could have discussions about improving their writing. She provided students with opportunities to rework their drafts after explicit instructions. Lyn's students were asked to provide multifaceted judgements on their peers' written product. Students in her classroom were "*able to carry out this complex evaluative activity*" (LI). Students had to check for all the success criteria that she had discussed with them, the content of the writing and also check for their individual success criteria.

Observation Day 1

The lesson started with all the students on the mat while Lyn held a question and answer session on writing a factual recount. She felt it was important for students' learning, stating in an interview that:

> *When you are introducing a piece of writing you need to be really explicit on what you must have, otherwise they would use a piece of writing, but it won't be specifically a piece of recount writing and it won't have success criteria they need to achieve to actually completed a piece of writing, and in that way you need to be quite explicit with what is involved because they could write quite a good piece but it wouldn't necessarily be recount* (LI).

She discussed the criteria that made a piece of writing a factual recount. She then picked students to read out a story on the Emperor Penguins, and put up a graphic

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organiser (Appendix D1) and asked her students 'Who', 'What', 'When', 'Why' questions that could be answered with information from the story. She explained that they would leave the 'How' section on her organizer for the next day. As she asked questions, she filled in the graphic organizer with student answers. She did this to *"show the students how to fill in the graphic organiser with the 5Ws"* (LI).

Lyn then asked students to recall one science experiment they had conducted in the classroom. They were asked to recall as much information as they could and were given two minutes to complete a 'mind bubble' (Appendix E2) as a brainstorming method for collecting their ideas and writing them down. As Lyn put it, this was:

> *So those ideas were not just floating in their head, they were on brainstorm so they can separate each idea and put it on in order of what aspect they were talking about, so then the next stage will be they would need to explain the what the where and the who in the first paragraph of their piece of writing* (LI).

She discussed the details about the science experiment in a mind bubble with her students. She believed it provided "*all the students details about science experiments that were important to recall*" (LI). Students then received a graphic organiser (Appendix D1), similar to the one they discussed and completed with Lyn during the group discussion. Students were asked to fill it in while thinking about "*their own science experiment*" (LO). They were provided with clear instructions for completing the graphic organisers. Her instructions contained learning intentions for the first graphic organiser and writing lesson: "*to recount what has happened in a past experience,* make *good use of facts, and* use *ideas based on the writers experience* (Ldoc). Following this, students were provided with further instruction on how to paste the graphic organiser into their books and complete their task.

The success criteria for the writing task of completing the graphic organiser ("*I can plan before I write, I can write a draft of a recount based on a plan and I can write an introduction stating 'who', 'when', where', and 'what'"* (Ldoc) were, however, not revealed to the students. In place of providing the success criteria, Lyn questioned the students and explained how to complete the graphic organiser:

> *Your brainstorm is going to be side by side with your question sheet, and you are going to look at each box and you are going to try to think of everything you can remember to answer the questions. 'When', you don't have to have the exact date but if you want to take your topic book out and have a look, you can probably can get the exact date. 'Who', is for who were you with, who was there. 'What' were you doing? 'Where' were you?* (LO).

Once students were at work, Lyn walked around the class questioning and probing students when she spotted them struggling or making errors in their work. I assumed she went to students randomly to check their work but the post-observation interview revealed otherwise:

> *At the back of my mind, I knew who would really struggle with it. Just roaming around and checking and you often you notice I go to the similar people. I go to people that I need to check that they are either on focus. I will often go around to people that are easily distracted or lose focus or need support* (LI).

Lyn believed when students were questioned or prompted without being provided the answers, it would "*allow students to progress and development of ideas and content on their own*" (LI). This was visible in her practice; that at no point during the time she went about checking her students did she provide answers or write anything down for the students she checked. Instead, she called the *"lower ability group"* (LI) students that she had planned to meet with to the mat while other students remained at their own desks to completing their task. With this smaller group, Lyn discussed further "*how to complete the graphic organiser*" (LI). Throughout the small group discussion Lyn provided some oral feedback but no written feedback.

The students then were told to get into their respective groups and they did this with ease, as they already knew which group they belonged to. Students in their respective groups were then asked to find a friend who had chosen the same science experiment, and to check if they had filled in all the "*important information of the science experiment*" (LO). Finally, Lyn asked students to self-assess and check their written tasks against the predetermined success criteria that she had planned, and asked them verbally if the items had been included. As a result, students carried out a self-assessment process after peer-assessment and discussions. Each student then either edited or added the missing details. Lyn elaborates:

> *I made them sit together as well, so if they're doing the same one, so that they could look at each other's and share ideas, building those basics and having all those ideas there* (LI).

Lyn never intentionally intervened during the writing process, as she believed it was "*important the ideas and structure of writing were from the students' own thinking*" (LI). Instead, she checked her students' produced writing against her expectations. Therefore she framed her feedback to students during their task as a support to their learning and acknowledgement of students' performance throughout a work in progress. Lyn described that aspect of her feedback process as "feed forward," explaining:

Feed forward to them is the wish of what I want them to do next (LI).

Formative feedback was frequently directed to individual students or small groups as indication of the desired information to be included. At the end of the lesson, Lyn collected the written drafts for marking and written feedback.

Lyn provided written feedback on their brainstorming mind map (Appendix E2), which was a holistic evaluation. On the graphic organiser she provided written feedback on their planning (Appendix E3) such as "*great planning and you have caught on well*" (Ldoc). Written feedback was on both the task itself, and the student's effort.

Observation Day 2

On the second day of my observation, Lyn's lesson started with the students again on the mat and Lyn recapping their previous lesson and details of their science experiment with the previous day's graphic organiser (Appendix D1) up on the board. She then put a new graphic organiser (Appendix D2) next to it. The discussion started with a list of sentence starters, and with transferring details from the first graphic organiser to the second. However, the discussion and completion of the graphic organiser was not on their science experiment but the "Emperor Penguin". She said that it helped the students know how to fill in the graphic organiser, and once the new graphic organiser was completed, she distributed a similar graphic organiser (Appendix D2) to her students. The reason she gave for providing a second graphic organiser was:

> *I wanted the children to work like that as well, so the first graphic organiser from the first day was step one, so it was getting their ideas organised into boxes, and today's graphic organiser was using those ideas, and then transferring the ideas into sentences, and that means they get used to bullet pointing their ideas and then turning those bullet points into sentences* (LI).

The learning intention for the second day observation was 'paragraphing', with success criteria of "*I can write an introduction stating who, when, where, what and how*" and "*I can write a series of events; clearly related in sequence stating what happened*" (Ldoc). Throughout the discussion the learning intentions and success criteria were used in the sentences that Lyn conveyed to her students, but she did not specifically inform the students of them.

Following the discussion outlined above, Lyn probed her students with questions once more, getting the discussion flowing toward the process of writing the 'How' section. Each different science experiment was discussed briefly so that students got a better understanding of their task. As Lyn explained:

They were becoming more confident … the more able children having their hands up all the time … because they understand what they are doing, that is their whole scaffolding things … if you build it up like that then their confidence grows, they take more risks and the writing becomes a bit more quality (LI).

Lyn believed exposure to a range of writing models "*helped develop and reinforce successful writing examples and provided students with concrete visuals*" of her expectations (LI). When this discussion was complete, she asked students to go back to their own desks, continuing the writing task individually. She walked around the classroom checking on her students:

I was checking their yesterday's graphic organiser and I was making sure that they were all on the right track, in fact half of them were definitely fine (LI)

She provided oral feedback through prompts when she noticed students struggling with their writing. She did not provide direct answers or check for grammar and spelling but however provided suggestion on ideas and content as she felt *"editing for grammar and spelling comes later and is the least important in the process"* (LI). Lyn's feedback was in the form of questioning and prompts. As soon as she noticed the need to stimulate students into making further improvement on their written drafts, she conveyed the expectation that necessary changes would provide opportunities to meet the desired outcome for their written drafts. As Lyn put it, *[Instant oral feedback] gives them more meaning and makes sure they are focussed* (LI).

While students worked at their desks, Lyn called her next group of students, the "*middle ability*" group, to the mat, where she sat with them and discussed their graphic organisers. She then asked them to exchange their books with someone who was "*writing the same science experiment*" (LO). Students were asked to check if their peer had written down all the important details needed to make the science experiment complete. She told the students:

So swap with your neighbour and get them to just check it. They are not going to correct it; they are just going to read it to see if it flows. Just the three sentences. Just check, what is good about it, what do they need to fix. They might not need to fix anything. It might be perfect, who knows (LI).

The students were then asked to provide peer assessment on each other's work. Once this was done, the books were returned to their owners, and students went through their drafts and did the amendments they deemed necessary. Lyn then collected all the written drafts for marking and written feedback (Appendix E4). The students' list of their ideas from the factual recount was marked and they proceed to

write into their draft books. Her written comments were based on whether all their ideas were present in sequence in the draft.

Observation Day 3

On the third day of my observation, Lyn's lesson started once more with everyone together on the mat. She put up the 2 graphic organisers from day 1 (Appendix D1) and day 2 (Appendix D2) side by side. The students recapped the previous lessons, going through the important points. Lyn then placed a third empty graphic organiser (Appendix D3) next to the other two. Students discussed the 'sequence' of events. Lyn stated that:

> *I needed to find out their ideas and needed to know if the students knew what*
> *sequence was to start with and establish who knew what it meant* (LI).

The learning intention for the lesson was *"paragraphing, capital letters, and full stops"* (Ldoc). The success criteria for the writing lesson were "*I can write a series of events and clearly relate in sequence stating what happened, and I can write in past tense, I can include verbs that denote action, I can include a range of linking words and phrases that denote time, and I can add detail to add interest for the reader*" (Ldoc).

She then chose a specific science experiment and had a whole class discussion on sequencing the science experiment on the third graphic organiser. In interview, she stated that her reason for choosing the specific science experiment she did was that she *"knew those children struggled a little more and so that they had the ideas there for them"* (LI). She conducted the whole class discussion with them.

Lyn continued the lesson by modelling how to use the graphic organiser and the students started their draft writing based on the three previous graphic organisers. Lyn and the students listed out all the linking words on the boards. Again, there was a whole class discussion on linking words and how to use them in sentences, and then students sat in their respective groups to do individual writing.

Lyn's students were asked to edit their work against the individual success criteria that she had established and discussed with them. Students were provided with clear instruction on the process and what they needed to do. Students were next asked to check their work against their individual criteria, stating:

> *You will do more editing. You will look at your spelling; you will look at your*
> *sentence. So the first thing you are going to be doing is hunt for your goal. So if*

your goal is to check if the full stop is in the correct place, you will spend some serious time checking. So if it is to add interesting ideas, spend some serious time checking if you have used some interesting ideas in your science experiment (LO).

For the next step, students were asked to exchange their books with each other and read their peers' written drafts, to check their sentences and content and success criteria. Lyn told her students, "*so swap with your neighbour and get them to just check it. Just check, what is good about it, what do they need to fix* (LO).

Following this, students were asked to go through their own work again, self-assessing their drafts to think about whether there was a need to amend them. Lyn asked them to check if they had all the steps needed to complete the science experiment written in their drafts. Lyn then collected the written drafts for marking and written feedback to check if their written drafts had the complete step-to-step procedure of completing the science experiment (Appendix E5). She then provided written feedback for their day 3 graphic organisers (Appendix D3), and checked their written work against the success criteria of using linking words. Her written feedback on the graphic organiser was based on students choosing appropriate linking words when sequencing their ideas before the final draft was completed (Appendix E6).

Observation Day 4

The fourth observation was only a 20 minute lesson, as the teachers had a school staff meeting to attend. Lyn told me that this lesson would focus only on students editing their written work. Lyn asked students to sit in their groups and check their written drafts for their individual success criteria of 'two stars and a wish' prepared at the beginning of the term during a three-way conferencing about their strengths and weaknesses from previous writing. Group Y, the lower ability group, was then called to the mat so Lyn could go through their work and discusses it individually, helping them to identify their individual success criteria. A transcript follows:

Teacher: If you can't find your post it note and you can't find your wish, where is
        it? I am going to come around and see and you have to point out where is the wish
        that you have done? Not me fixing it, it is you fixing it yourself. What are the
        different wishes that you have? Brian?
Brian: Use the dictionary
Teacher: Mariel?
Mariel: Use a variety of words to describe the same thing.
Teacher: So you should have a variety of post it notes on your work. Do you have

the evidence? Please check. Please tick if you have it. Please do what you were saying you were going to do. So leave the post it note there and I will check when we have our three-way conferencing (LO).

After students conducted the self-editing of their work, they were asked to exchange books with their peers. This time peers read the written draft and checked if the planned whole class success criteria were identified correctly. In interview, Lyn explained:

So now it is basically a piece of writing that they have already ticked off 3 parts of their success criteria. So it will get their ideas in sequence, order and an introduction that explains 'who', 'what', 'where' and 'when', and then the conclusion will cover why and again recap on the 'what'. So all those things will be then quite clear for them… [I make sure of] the quality of their writing and they can tick off their success criteria (LI).

Lyn did not intervene during the peer assessment stage, and students did not approach her, but instead approached each other. As she said, *"they know who to go to and they don't have to always come to me, we call it see 3 people before you come to me. So they see three people before they come to me* (LI).

This strategy involved students in the assessment and feedback process of the final draft. She provided a wider audience for the written draft, as peers contributed in reading and providing feedback:

They do a lot of pair work and assessment, they look at themselves, they look at each other they help each other, there are experts in the area that you can go to if you are stuck, so that is a really good practice to be in with the children (LI).

When the students got their books back after the peer assessment, Lyn asked them to check and go through their work. Lyn then provided written feedback on their drafts on both content and surface features based on their task (Appendix E7). Students then were provided with their self-assessment checklist (Appendix E8) to complete and Lyn provided written feedback on their attainment of the success criteria.

The Connection between Lyn's Beliefs and Practices

Lyn's reported beliefs and understanding of formative feedback were based on her school's decisions about teaching the writing programme, her teaching experiences, the professional learning and development she had undertaken at school, and her own understanding of students' development and needs in completing the task. Lyn's reported beliefs and understandings were observable in the way she went about

teaching writing. Her beliefs that feedback should be about students' next learning steps, and was best practised through scaffolding and guiding through open-ended questions, were evident throughout her teaching. She did not provide her students with answers but used elaboration through teacher/student interaction. Students were encouraged to assess their own work and Lyn facilitated them towards using their success criteria.

She believed oral feedback was more significant and important in student learning, therefore provided more oral feedback to her students based on her perceptions of their ability. She did not provide written feedback during work in progress, but after completion of their task, as she believed written feedback was less important. Spelling was not seen as important during the students' work in progress, and therefore was left to the last stage of the writing, to be edited by the students themselves. As she believed students should be able to provide feedback, they were provided information on the success criteria of their task, and self and peer-assessment were practised. Figure 5.3 bon the next page shows Lyn's reported beliefs of formative feedback during her interviews and her feedback practice in the classroom during observations.
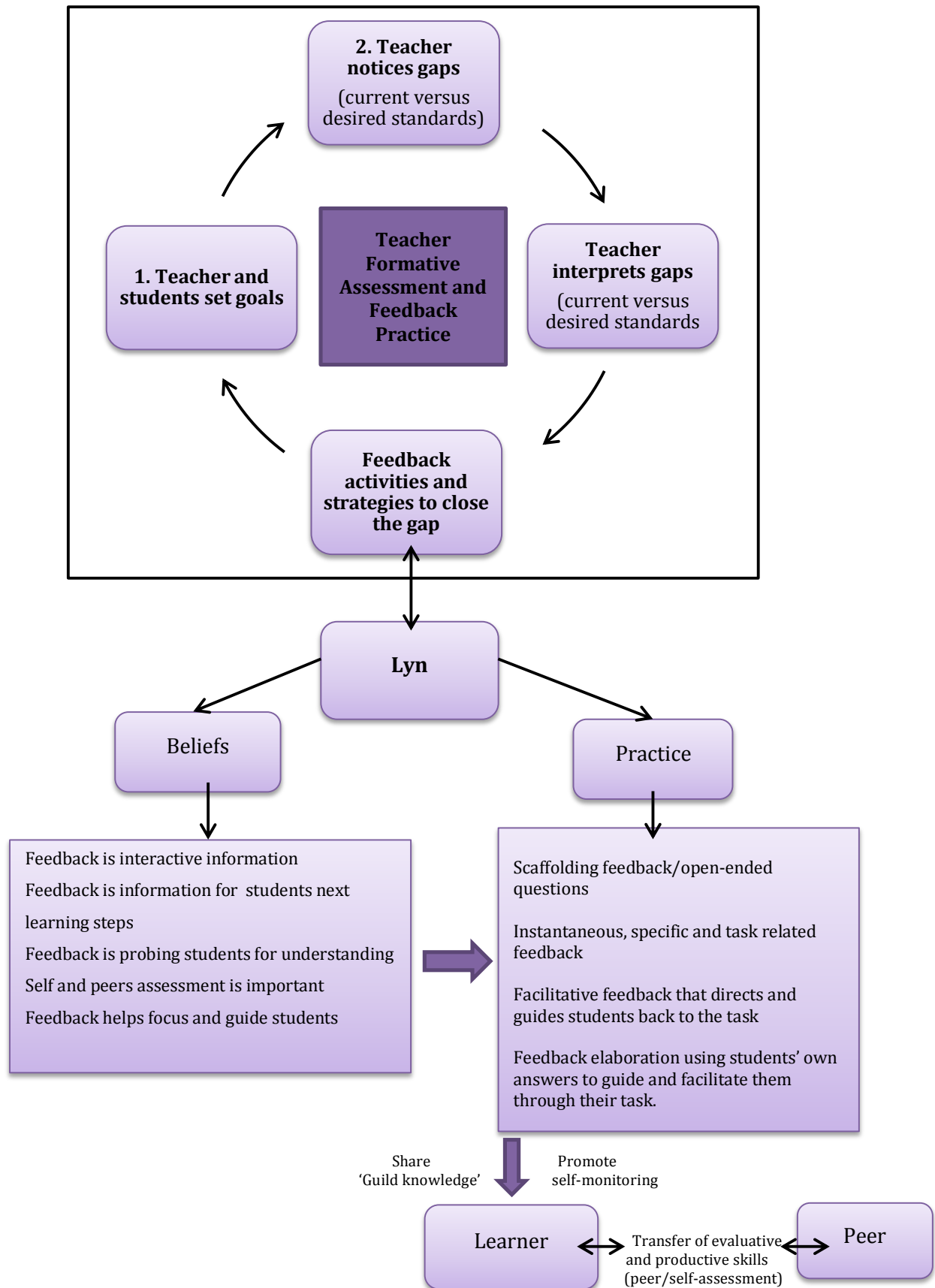
Figure 5.3: Lyn's reported beliefs and observed practice

Themes

Significant themes emerged in assessment of Lyn's stated beliefs and description of her feedback practices, and the ways they related to what was revealed in my observation and her feedback on students' work (both in progress and the final written product). The main concepts arising from Lyn's case was that writing was a routine set in a particular way, and her role was to be the navigator during feedback in her writing lesson.

The writing process is 'set that way'

Lyn's writing lesson was conducted daily in a set routine. This was because each lesson was planned at the syndicate level in the school, and each teacher carried out their own lessons in "*similar ways*" (LI). The writing lesson was constructed as a writing workshop:

> *The way that we [teachers working in syndicates] set it out is probably the way that this school sets it up. Because I haven't worked in another school, that's the way I do it* (LI).

Students used the graphic organisers as a writing frame to plan their writing and scaffold writing paragraphs. The writing process took place over "*a series of lessons that lasts usually one to two weeks before their written draft of a topic is completed*" (LI). The writing routines were the same every day so students could become more skilled in receiving and providing feedback, and also in self and peer editing. As Lyn explained:

> *In using a graphic organiser, you are organising your ideas so that your writing is easier to do. So they [the students] are very used to the process* (LI).

Success criteria were the benchmark for students' self and peer-assessment. The observation of the third and fourth observation involved students specifically editing against their individual success criteria of 'two stars and a wish'. She believed by setting the success criteria with the students, the teachers in the school were able to teach writing well:

> *We should all do that, because otherwise it is very difficult for us [teachers] to teach a child who doesn't know what they have to do, so it [the success criteria] breaks it down for the children* (LI).

Writing lessons were planned "*to enable students to use feedback: teachers and peer feedback, as well as to provide feedback*" (LI). They were able to redraft using feedback in small groups, with peers and individually, and to support each other in this process. Lyn instructed her students to:

Check that everyone in your group has all the steps that you have, and this will make the next step writing for your ideas easier to do (LO).

The first two observations involved Lyn communicating success criteria to the students to enable them to check their drafts against the required standard of quality:

Have you all covered everything you have to cover to go from the beginning of the experiment to the end? Just mentally tick it off, you don't have to put a tick on it but in your mind go 'we all have got the same thing, we all have it covered', and you are going to check that with all the people at your desk (LO).

During the interviews, Lyn constantly specified school B's method for teaching writing, and she definitely stuck to a routine of whole class discussion followed by individual writing, then group discussion, and self and peer-assessment. The length of time she provided for each different activity was strictly followed.

The 'navigator' of the writing and feedback process

Lyn's expectations for successful writing were stated, and the learning goals and success criteria were shared with the students, although not necessarily by directly informing students that they were success criteria (rather, Lyn often did this by explaining how their written tasks should look). She told them what she wanted them to do for their writing, and explained the steps they had to take to finish their task so that it would look similar to the writing model. Students knew what was expected from them for successful writing. Student self and peer-assessment processes were carefully navigated throughout her writing lesson so that students did not struggle during the process. Lyn's writing lesson was carried out systematically. Her carefully selected graphic organisers and the writing model she constructed with her students enabled the writing lesson to be completed successfully in a timely manner, and created awareness of the "*reasons they were writing*" (LI).

Learning intentions and success criteria were phrased in simple sentences and feedback was based around them, so that students were able to comprehend what they were aiming to achieve in their writing. Teacher/student conferencing enabled her to help students identify their own strengths and weakness in their writing. Students were provided opportunities to become involved in their own peer and self-assessment against the set criteria.

Lyn's believed her feedback in class "*guide[d] and provide[d] students with the direction their learning [was] going*", claiming that feedback focussed on "*students' development and understanding of tasks*" enabled them to construct a successful piece

of writing (LI). She used her role to guide students to "*bounce ideas off each other and generate ideas*" (LI). She avoided telling students the answers but used questioning, prompts and probes to elicit and to encourage their thinking:

Teacher: Who was there? I was there with you, Miss McKenna did bath bombs, and it was me for Oobleck. Sherbet and bath bombs. It would be weird if there was no teacher. Good, fantastic. Which box should we move to now? Mikiko what do you think? The 'Why' is why are we doing this, what are we trying to find out. The 'What' is for what are we doing?

Mikiko: We are doing salt dough.

Teacher: …for…

Marley: a reason…

Teacher: What is the reason?

Mikiko: A science experiment.

Teacher: Yes, that is right, for a science experiment, for science. Write it down. Write it in the 'What part' (LO).

Lyn used different graphic organisers each day to navigate her writing lesson. This provided students with a sense of direction, and the models created by the graphic organisers helped the development of detail in their writing. Lyn oversaw the whole writing lesson, and carefully steered students' progress through feedback that provided meaningful direction in their writing, through her belief that scaffolding learning was important:

I also direct them to photos on the wall, things we have done, and have a look at that. Just to take them back there so as they will try and remember the experience, and then they are going to write about that (LI).

She set the course of peer feedback to occur before self-assessment and teacher feedback, so as to provide students chances to build their skills in providing feedback. As Lyn explained to her students:

So once you have done that, can you have a look with someone from this group or another group the '2 stars and a wish' and you are looking at the linking words in the '2 stars and a wish' as well (LO).

The writing process was navigated in such a way that students had the opportunity and responsibility of choosing their own writing topics. Lyn believed that it provided students with sense of empowerment to make their own choices, while at the same time allowing to Lyn make sure they were working within their own capabilities. She helped the students that were struggling by scaffolding the writing process with them:

Teacher: Which science experiment are you going to write about Marley?

Marley: I can't really remember.

Teacher: That is why we need to brainstorm it, Mikiko?

Mikiko: Oobleck.

Teacher: What kind of day was it when we carried out the experiment?

Mikiko: It was kind of rainy and cloudy.

Teacher: Lovely, it was rainy and cloudy. I am just going to give you some ideas, not all of it.

Paresha: It was a Friday.

Teacher: Yes it was a Friday (writes it down). Just remembered it was a science day. It was a fun Friday for our science experiment. Ok let's do a couple of things for here. (Points to the graphic organiser) Who was involved? It was me, I remember standing with that group quiet a lot of the time, so I could probably say I was near, Alanna, Leisha, Marley and I can remember their Oobleck being particularly good. What group were you in, who were you with? Paresha, can you remember who you were with? (LO).

Each writing activity and lesson was steered in such a way that there were opportunities for students to self-assess their work and carry out editing. Peer-assessment was followed by self-assessment and teacher feedback.

Creating models for writing practices

Lyn modelled new strategies for writing with her students. She took a whole class approach so that students knew what was expected of them after each whole class discussion, and followed this with small group discussion and individual writing:

*[I like] giving an example on how to use the graphic organiser before we move into group*s (LI).

She gave students concrete writing models of successful writing and showed them how they should '*attack*' (LI) the graphic organiser. She placed a lot of emphasis on creating a model with the students, and connecting the model they created together and the students' tasks:

We have talked about the ideas (pointing to the graphic organiser on the white board). We have our 'What', 'Who', 'Where', 'When', 'Why' and 'How', now I want you to forget about the penguins but remember the 'where, when, why, and how' stuff and I want you to remember some of our science experiments. So what are the some of the science experiments that we have done? (LO).

Lyn felt that scaffolding writing in this way prepared individual students and peer groups for feedback and learning. It enabled her to check whether students were going in the right direction in using the strategies they had been taught for completing their writing tasks. Before each writing lesson, Lyn had already created the graphic organiser for the lesson and worked through models with the students to help guide them through the lesson for their individual writing:

> So you guys I want you to explain, when it happened and who it happened… you have to make sure you have all your sequenced ideas into our plan. If you haven't, get your brain in and squeeze it in (LO).

According to Lyn, working through the graphic organiser and modelling together before going to individual writing helped students to progress in their writing. As a result, they were able to check their work against their whole class task success criteria. During the modelling, Lyn also helped the lower ability students more by choosing the specific science experiment.

Empowering students

Students were decision-makers in choosing the science experiment that they wanted to write about. Lyn did not select the topic they should write. She empowered her students to choose according to their own preference, interest, and background knowledge of which science experiment they would feel confident in writing about:

> What are some of the science experiments that we had done that would be fun to recount? What was an exciting science experiment that you have done? As if you were writing a page in the newspaper. "Front page news, Room 10" (LO).

She empowered students to choose their own partner for the self- assessment activity and did not force them to sit with a more able student. She helped students who still struggled after the peer assessment. She only intervened once during all the four observations when a student wanted to choose a difficult topic and she was concerned that he would struggle:

> Make sure you are going to choose something you remember lots of details about. Kasem, although I agree the Volcano was a cool thing to do, I think because you did not do the volcano and I did it, you are going to find it hard to write and remember lots of the details. So if you went to the Sherbet, you would remember more of the bits of details of what you put in it and how you did it, with more details. So you decide which one you are going to do. Don't worry about the

recipes or not remembering how to make it, just decide what you are going to do (LO).

Lyn thought it was important to build their knowledge and ideas by discussion of their learning goals so students understood the direction of their learning and how to reach their success criteria. The discussions and explanations that took place among the whole class, among groups, and at the individual level were all based around students' learning intentions and whole class success criteria that she shared with her students. Students were encouraged to be active contributors to their writing through a series of questions and prompts during the small group activities:

Teacher: It was in the afternoon. Write it down in the 'When' box. Write it was in

the afternoon. So Oobleck, was it first thing in the morning or the afternoon slot?

Marley: In the morning

Teacher: I think it was in the morning too. Ok write it down. Sherbet, it was not on

a fun Friday was it, it was on a Thursday afternoon.

Costner: It was on a Monday afternoon.

Teacher: Yes, it was on a Monday afternoon and what time was it?

Kimberley: It was on the 17th.

Teacher: It was not on a writing time, maths time, it was during a science time?

Paresha: It was on the 17th in the afternoon (LO).

As students' "*confidence increased*"(LI), they were encouraged to generate feedback. Although Lyn guided this, the students had clarity about their success criteria and were able to self-assess and peer-assess their work based on the criteria. "*Discussion[s],*" as Lyn explained, *"were based around criteria that were associated with their success criteria*" (LI).

By repeatedly making learning intentions and success criteria transparent and clear to students, Lyn provided students with transparency regarding what successful attainment should look like - students were able to see what successful writing looked like when they created a model of writing with the teacher. Once students understood the learning process, they were empowered to take more responsibility in their learning:

> *So the first thing [action] you are going to be doing is hunt for your goal. So if your goal is to check if the full stop is in the correct place, you will spend some serious time checking. So if it is to add interesting ideas, spend some serious time checking if you have used some interesting ideas in your science experiment* (LO).

Students were also decision makers regarding their own written drafts, as Lyn provided opportunities for them to take on board their peers' feedback. If they felt that their written draft did not require changes, they were able to leave it as it was.

Each of Lyn's students were empowered in the process of maintaining ownership over their writing, as she did not intervene with written feedback for content, ideas, grammar or spelling. Students conducted self-editing and self-assessment of their own drafts. She did not write down what she wanted them to add to make it interesting, only noted whether or not their writing was up to their own satisfaction before collecting the drafts for teacher feedback.

Chapter Summary

Lyn believed students should have the freedom to create interesting writing guided by feedback. Students were encouraged to engage in discussions within their groups. They were able to generate and provide feedback to their peers with Lyn acting as a navigator who participated in the discussions from time to time. Lyn consistently required that students sought feedback from their peers before teacher feedback was provided. Lyn valued students' contributions during her discussion sessions, and provided opportunities for them to share their ideas and work with a wider audience, therefore instilling the skills of understanding feedback in her students.

CHAPTER SIX:

Case Study Three: Jane

[Feedback is] the next learning step or the things they should work at (Jane).

Introduction to Jane

Jane (pseudonym) is a Pakeha New Zealander with of teaching experience only from New Zealand primary schools

Background, education, and teaching experience

Jane attended primary, secondary, and tertiary education in New Zealand. She completed her teacher training at Wellington Teacher's College. While teaching, she completed an advanced Diploma in Teaching. She had a Diploma of Communications and was upgraded to a Bachelor of Education in 2005. She had taught at a range of schools and at all levels in the primary system. She had been teaching in school C since 2009.

School C was a decile 2 contributing primary school (Years 1-6) and its mission was to recognise, promote, and enhance multicultural values, which included the students' mother-tongue languages. My first meeting with the principal revealed a lot of information about the background of the school, its policies, and its future direction. The principal of the school took me around the grounds and personally introduced me to all the teachers and members of the staff. She then led me back to her office to talk informally about the school. I was permitted to take notes.

The school had a motto of '*Together we learn*'. Diversity in the school was celebrated and was supported by parents and families. The programme and environment for learning reflected the multicultural community, for example the school had a whānau room where the "*teachers and students [could] cook and share soup once or twice a week*" (JI). Students brought one vegetable to school on that day. They had their own garden at the school from which fruits and vegetables were harvested and shared during the lunch sessions. The teachers and students knew each other well; when I was at the school the principal and teachers were able to greet each other, and students, by name.

At the time of interview, Jane stated that the school was working on *"improving documentation, gathering, and using information about students' strengths, needs, and interests"* (JI). "*School-wide data [was] is collected*" (JI) in reading, writing, and numeracy to assist progress towards strategic goals, targets, and initiatives. Around

60% of students achieved at or above the school's expectations. Teachers had "*started learning to report for English Language Learners (ELLs) and reflect on strengths and progress*" (Principal). Students' achievement in reading, writing and mathematics were reported formally to the Education Department and the school and teachers believed that "*one shoe does not fit all*", requiring them to "*try to cater to individual needs*" (Principal).

At the time of this study, the school "*had not developed its curriculum to align with the New Zealand Curriculum (NZC)*" (ERO report at school website)*.* The teachers had been working on implementing documents and guidelines for literacy and numeracy in order to align with the NZC. The school's principal explained that "*a discovery programme had been introduced to integrate student learning through research, investigation, and inquiry*" (Principal). Teachers were learning how to incorporate information and communication technologies (ICT) into their classrooms.

Parents and whānau were provided with opportunities to engage with the school through a "*planned parent survey*" where they could "*deliver feedback of ways to improve student learning and development*" during meetings (JI). In response to surveys and meetings, "*teaching process and practices [were] changed to suit students and the community needs*" (JI). Jane believed that teachers and parents had built a healthy school community.

The school's appraisal system provided opportunities for "*teachers to reflect on their performance and personal goals*" (JI). However, teachers at the school had no opportunities to "*observe or share their teaching strategies with each other*" (JI). Jane did not know how other teachers conducted their writing lesson or if there was, a "*specific way*" (JI) the school wanted them to carry out their writing practice.

Even so, the school board and teachers were "*working together*" to enhance students' outcomes. In promoting writing "*[the school] put students into different writing levels and taught writing in groups [according to their abilities]* (JI). Students from Jane's class wrote for different audiences, for example for assemblies and for newsletters*.* She said, *"it [was] quite positive"* (JI).

Jane believed the school was moving to a new level of thinking about feedback on writing, following the implementation of the National Standards into schools:

> *We [teachers] are all looking at feedback that we are giving in relation to Next Steps. I guess we are moving forward and we are beginning to think about the National Standards coming in [being implemented in school]* (JI).

As a result, Jane felt teachers in her school were more aware of assessment and their writing lessons.

Professional learning and development

Jane's professional development and learning had been on "*using assessment to develop teaching and learning in literacy for the students*" (JI). This she said the school felt was significant, as it was based on responding to students' diverse needs. The teachers' latest round of professional development was targeted at "*enhancing students in mathematics*" (JI).

The board of trustees were committed to "*resourcing interventions and professional development to enhance student outcomes*" (Principal). The teachers and board of trustees reassessed these programmes at the end of each year. At the time of this study, the teachers were learning about facilitating learning and reporting on English Language Learners (ELLs) through professional development in collaboration with the university. The teachers received feedback on their literacy practice from their professional development leaders.

Jane's classroom

Jane's classroom consisted of Year 4, Year 5 and Year 6 students. Her classroom consisted of 45% students with English as their first language and 55% of students with English as their second language. Jane's students were the only students in this study that approached me to find out personally how I was and where I was from. Every day of the observation, I was greeted by my first name and asked how I was. The students in her classroom were very helpful and friendly and were always smiling. Jane was a soft-spoken teacher who, in the whole time I was in the classroom observing, never raised her voice and always spoke gently to students. It was helpful that I had placed more than one digital voice recorder around the class, as this enabled me to capture her interactions during the observations. From the second day onwards, she offered to carry one digital voice recorder when she walked and talked to students in their groups.

School C placed a lot of emphasis on using success criteria and worked towards helping students achieve these. Jane explained:

> *We have school wide success criteria [established through asTTle assessment] for what they [students] should be able to do [write] at their age and what are the steps we put in play for them to know and to learn* (JI).

However, Jane's multi-age students were working on curriculum level 1 to 4. Some of her students in Years 4 to 6 were on curriculum level 1. Jane's decided on a topic for writing after taking into account the diversity of her students' language proficiency. She felt that choosing a topic required her to be mindful of her students' familiarity with the context of the topic. Not surprisingly, she felt that the feedback given to new migrant students involved more oral and written feedback, hence quantity of feedback, or as she put it:

> *These students (L2) students need more support prompts, and questioning to help them in their writing* (JI).

Jane placed her students in groups according to proficiency and moved them if they achieved the performance level of another group. As a result, she felt the students should be aware of their writing performance against the desired standard, and would be able to work towards better achievement if they talked through the success criteria with the teacher. Jane stated that:

> *I think [it benefits students] talking about the strengths in the writing and discussing ways in which they can improve that* (JI).

Jane's Understanding of Feedback

Jane believed that feedback should be "*a specific task-related statement*" (JI). A statement "*which commends what has been achieved*" by the students, and which should also "*recommend a next step*" in learning and outline "*the efforts made*" in achieving a desired performance (JI). Jane believed that the oral feedback that she utilised more frequently in her writing lesson enhanced students' thinking and probed them "*for their ideas*" (JI). As a result of her opinions on what constituted good feedback, she emphasized "*questioning, prompting, asking and checking*" students' understanding (JI).

According to Jane, students reading and acting on her feedback comments helped to "*get them thinking about what they did*" (JI). She believed that her knowledge of "*different kinds of feedback*" and her experience as a teacher had widened her approach (JI). Subsequently, her beliefs regarding feedback were further consolidated by her "*professional development courses and the self-reflection after the professional development*" (JI).

Jane found that resources were not readily available on feedback and that the reading materials and literature on feedback that were available for her were from "*hand-outs given*" (JI). She believed that if she was not provided information on feedback, she would "*not know how to provide feedback*" (JI). Her original belief that feedback was limited to telling students that they were "*right or wrong*" or "*whether*

you were A, B, C or D" had changed over the last 10 years. In Jane's opinion, previous models of giving feedback had meant that students were often just "*assessed*" for where they were, meaning there "*wasn't a lot of thinking*" about feedback or "*being told about the next learning steps or the things to look at*" in the writing (JI). She believed that if students were not told about the quality of what they "*had done*", they could not "*improve the next time around*". She felt "*written feedback with a mark and very few comments*" did not help students (JI).

Jane's assessment of her students' linguistic proficiency was a significant factor influencing her feedback beliefs. Her impressions of her students informed her beliefs that "*students who are L1 are quite fluent in writing in English*" (JI). However, she believed "*the disadvantage for L2 students [was that] they first [had] to translate what they hear[d] into their own language and then re-translate it back to English*" (JI). As a result, in writing, "*L1 students [had] a lot more language or vocabulary to draw from*" (JI). She assumed that the L1 students' problems with writing were "*more through misunderstanding or they are not sure what do with that next step*" (JI).

In consequence, Jane considered that L2 students needed "*a lot more conferencing and questioning*" in order to meet the learning criteria (JI). Therefore, "*L2 students spen[t] a lot more time on basic language structure, spelling, and vocabulary*" (JI). In consequence, her feedback to L2 students involved "*a lot more talking about language features*", such as vocabulary or spelling (JI) than on the content and structure of their writing. Jane's beliefs influenced her to provide written corrections on every error she came across, especially to her L2 students, as she felt the "*good students could detect*" their errors (JI). She provided "*the lower proficiency students more written feedback*" believing that this helped her students, as they did not have to "*worry about not being able to spell those words*" but could concentrate on becoming confident writers (JI). She reported her L2 students could not spell and if were asked to spell they would find it too challenging and not "*produce anything*" (JI). Written feedback, she felt, helped students to concentrate less on trivial issues such as surface features and move to completing their writing, thus reaching criteria attainment.

Jane believed that the L2 students were "*unable to provide peer feedback.*" as language was a barrier so she had to play a bigger role in the feedback process. As an alternative, she tried to overcome this problem through pairing students with "*a more able student*" (JI). She did not "*consider what year they [were]*" but instead their "*ability and who would be able to help them most*" (JI).

She was knowledgeable about her students' individual abilities in writing; and was confident that her feedback helped them:

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[Anua] has just come from Tonga and very little English, I use a lot of mime to her because, and she needs it. I have worked one to one with her just with pictures and to write sentences and I am hoping today when she is working independently, she will be able to write the sentences (JI).

[Taylah] very much lacks confidence and it is hard sometimes to work out with her how much she understands. When I said can you read out what you have got written down, I ended up reading it out for her and I realised she got her ideas down but her language features in her sentence were wrong (JI).

Jane believed in providing feedback that consisted of "*a lot of questioning and based on their next learning steps orally*" to help students "*develop their thinking*" (JI). She kept working on improving her feedback to students because of the "*things*" that she saw and "*observed*" (JI). It encouraged her to *"keep thinking about [feedback]"* (JI)*.* Therefore there was greater emphasis on "*providing WALTS and success criteria before students begin so they know, before they begin, what they are supposed to do and how to do it* (JI). Because of this, feedback was very "*much related to what things they did do and how they are going make their writing interesting"* (JI).

Planning the Writing Lesson

Jane's lesson plan (Appendix C3) was divided into two sections: one each for L1 and L2 students. Although her class consisted of Year 4, 5 and 6 students, her learning task was divided into two categories of "*narrative writing*" and "*writing sentences*" (Jdoc). The narrative writing for her higher proficiency students was completing a narrative entitled "Hard to believe…". Students in the writing sentences group had to write six sentences of "At the farm" (Appendix D4) and "A day at the beach" (Appendix D5).

Jane's learning aims were: "*students will show some/ a developing understanding of how to shape texts for different purposes and use language features appropriately and organise and sequence ideas with increasing confidence*" (Jdoc). Jane had two sets of learning intentions for her students that were influenced by her knowledge of their proficiency and background in the English language, "*most L1 learners will write a complete narrative that includes some language features including simile, alliteration, metaphor and/or onomatopoeia*", and "*L2 learners will work together to write a cooperative narrative*" (JI).

A cooperative narrative was reported as a shared writing exercise involving her two Year 6 students and her highest proficiency Year 4 students. The success criteria

for the higher proficiency students were the same: "*the story should have a title, orientation, complication or problem, resolution and conclusions*", and the stories were checked for language features such as "*adjectives, alliteration, and simile*" (Jdoc). The lower proficiency students who were working on sentences had learning intentions "*to write sentences which included a verb and an adjective*" (Jdoc).

Jane did not specify particular teaching materials she would use in her lesson, but planned the writing tasks. Jane changed her writing topic weekly, so each student worked daily on the same piece of writing for five days. Jane ran her writing lessons every day for 50 minutes. She planned and prepared her lesson, worksheets and hand-outs in colour as "*it made students interested when things were colourful*" (JI).

Practice and Observations

Jane created a model for writing with the students in their respective groups. Her writing practice provided opportunities for students to carry out peer and self-assessment. Jane's writing practice and feedback practice is illustrated in figure 6.1 on the next page.
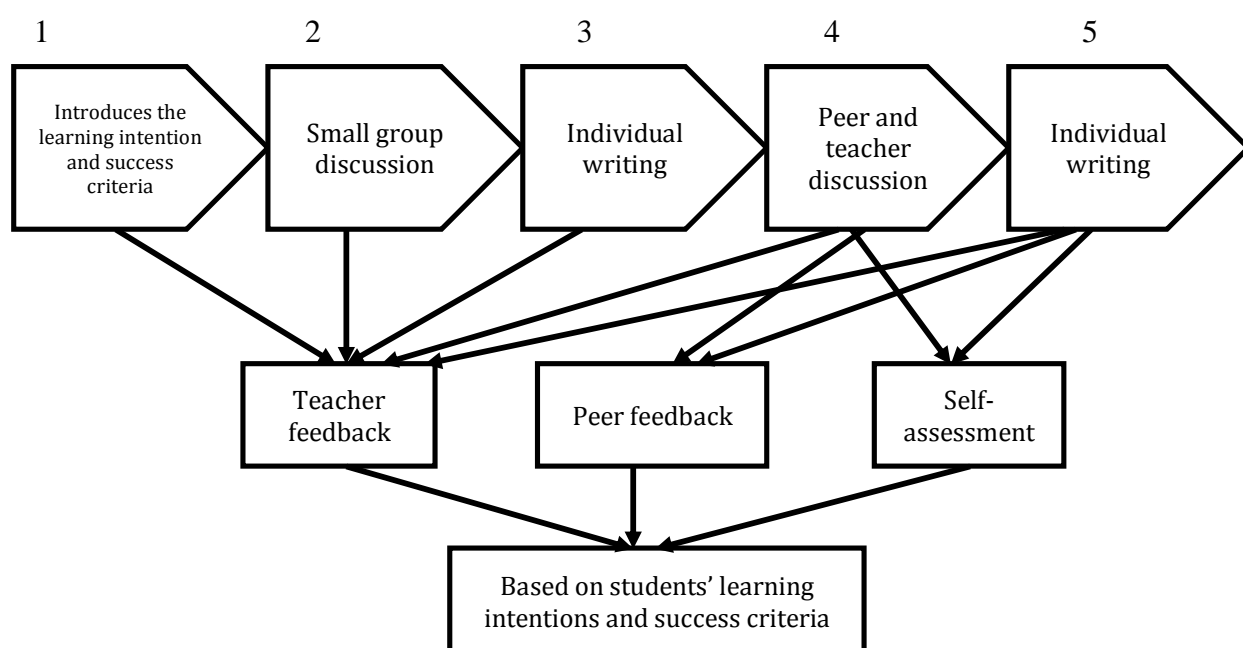

Figure 6.1: Jane's writing practice

Every writing lesson started with Jane creating a model with the lower level proficiency students for what successful writing would look like. Although she created this model for her lower proficiency group, the higher proficiency students were simply told their task. Students then carried out individual writing. Jane then helped students

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in their writing tasks as she walked around or saw students struggling. Oral feedback was often followed with written feedback.

She then provided opportunities for students to carry out peer discussion and help each other in their writing tasks using the success criteria she had discussed for the language features. Once this was completed, she followed with teacher feedback and discussion on the strengths and shortcomings of individual students' writing and how to amend or add details to achieve attainment of the success criteria. Once the peer and teacher-assessment was completed, students could then self-assess their work against their individual success criteria.

At times during the observations, the order of the peer and self-assessments were swapped in, depending on which Jane felt should be carried out first. Each of the teacher, peer and self-assessments were conducted against students' learning intentions, and against success criteria designed for the individual students that students were not told.

Observation Day 1

Jane started the lesson by distributing worksheets to the students, and asking the higher proficiency students to start writing the narrative. Jane then instructed the students writing a narrative 'Hard to believe...' to continue from "Ryan pulls back the branches and...." and distributed their worksheets. The students had to write a narrative on what they thought 'Ryan' saw. She told her students that their success criteria were "*writing a title, and opening, at least six sentences and a conclusion*" (JO). She prompted these students to think about making their writing interesting for the readers:

Teacher: We have to make sure we have all the list of things in our narrative WALT
which is to write an interesting narrative. What do you mean by the
word interesting?
James: That you write something and people think it is interesting.
Teacher: So when we put our writing together that is one thing I want you to
think about. Think about your criteria of writing an interesting narrative (JO).

Jane clarified that she placed significant emphasis on providing students their "*WALTs and success criteria before students begin so they know, before they begin, what they are supposed to do*" (JI).

She called the lower proficiency group that had the learning intentions "*to write sentences which included a verb and an adjective*" to the mat (LO). She distributed two sets of worksheets to those students. One was a picture of a farm and the other a beach.

Jane then discussed in detail the vocabulary of the things that they could see in the picture on the farm. Students were asked to point to the objects and repeat after her. She taught students to form sentences and wrote down the sentences for them. Once she completed the first picture students were asked to write individually and form six complete sentences.

She then went to check her higher proficiency students who were writing their narrative. She sat at different desks with students and discussed their narrative although she did not explain exactly how this should be constructed. She questioned and prompted the students to help them understand useful vocabulary. She then got the attention of all the higher ability students and discussed "*some language features including simile, alliteration, metaphor, and/or onomatopoeia*" which were their learning intentions (LI).

Teacher/student discussion continued as she told students the success criteria for their narrative, specifically that "*the story should have a title, orientation, complication or problem, resolution, and conclusion*" (JO). Jane and her students then discussed how students could make their writing interesting for readers. She provided a lot of examples about language features that they could add into their writing.

She went back to the group on the mat. She asked students to read out their sentences. When she realised the students were quiet or had not finished their tasks, she asked them to share their ideas with their peer so as to help each other complete the sentences. She used word cards showing complete sentences with a capital letters and full stops to help them achieve the success criteria for their written work.

The lesson ended while Jane was still helping the group on the mat. She did not collect the students' written drafts.

Observation Day 2

Jane started the lesson with a whole class discussion. She asked students to describe and explain adjectives, alliteration, onomatopoeia, metaphor and similes. She asked students to form sentences using the word simile in it. Students were then asked to write to make their narrative interesting. Students were given the freedom to choose the number of a language features they wanted to add into their writing.

Jane then wrote the success criteria for writing a narrative on the board. She wrote down that a narrative should have "*a title, orientation, complication or problem, resolution and conclusions*" (Jdoc). She discussed the success criteria in detail with the students, using examples of students' sentences. Students were asked to read out their sentences and identify which of the success criteria they had met:

So it was trying to get from them what words they might need for their sentences and that part there was just talking about our opening sentences. So we have got our opening, now we need to work on that (JI).

Once she established that students understood her instructions and their tasks, they were asked to write individually. She then called the lower proficiency students to the mat. She asked the students to "*go over [their] narrative*" of 'A day at the beach' (JO). She stressed to the students that "*title*" in their narrative was important, as it was one of their success criteria.

Jane then read the students' sentences aloud. When she realised some students had not written all 6 sentences, she instructed the students *"to write 6 sentences"* and *"put the editing cards*" out (JO). These were high frequency words used by the students, listed alphabetically and in the correct spelling (JO) for the students to refer to. She then instructed her students that "*the last thing in the report was going to be the conclusion*" (JO). She clearly indicated their success criteria, that they were "*going to write a title, an opening, at least 6 sentences and a conclusion* (JO).

This time around, Jane asked two students to pair with another student in sharing their writing. She then went around the class, once the group on the mat started their writing. She kept asking the higher proficiency group to check their writing against their success criteria of using language features:

Teacher: So if we want to write an interesting narrative what else might we
     use?
James: Adjectives, alliteration, onomatopoeia, metaphor and simile.
Teacher: So you are going to make sure you have adjectives, alliteration,
     onomatopoeia, metaphor and simile in your writing. Would you want the
     narrative you write to have all of them? (JO).

Jane walked around helping students individually in their writing, often writing down the vocabulary, spelling, or correcting their sentence structure. She then asked the students to exchange their books and read their peers' sentences. They were asked to help each other add language features to make the drafts more interesting. Jane did not collect the written drafts after the lesson.

Observation Day 3

At the beginning of the third lesson, Jane recapped their previous lessons and discussed the students' learning intentions and success criteria for writing a narrative. She provided the higher ability students with marking rubrics by writing them on the white board, which students were able to refer to as they did self- assessment of their

writing. Students were provided with opportunities to assess their attainment of success criteria in their writing by using the rubrics for themselves.

She indicated that she was making the *"their success criteria clearer to them* (JI). Students were given time to self-assess their written drafts against their success criteria. Then, she asked the students to exchange their books and carry out a peer-assessment. She provided clear instruction while pointing to the marking rubrics written on the board:

Teacher: You need to mark in the margin the orientation, title, and the resolution. The second time you go through the writing, go through the language features for example the adjectives. What do you need to do?

James: Edit it

Teacher: Yes, Now I want you to look at the board. Can you see the words? I want you to edit your written drafts and you see the language features. Not rewrite it but you have your story so you need to show where the language features are. Then in 20 minutes you are going to give your book to somebody else so they can check all those things (JO).

While the other students went on their peer and self –assessments, Jane went to help the lower ability students on the mat. She discussed their success criteria for writing the sentences:

Teacher: What do sentences start with?

Students: Capital letters.

Teacher: How do you end the sentence?

Students: Full stop.

Teacher: Look at the board. Look at the words. They are verbs. They are doing words. What are adjectives [points to the magnetic words that are in different colours]? You need to write a list of words. You look at your book. Now you check. Every sentence should have a verb and every sentence should have an adjective. It must start with a capital and end with a full stop. These are some ideas of words that you might use 'make, went, read, talk, and show' (all the words in yellow) and 'bad, nice, happy' and all the other words that are adjectives. Every sentence should start with a capital and end with a full stop. You must have an adjective and a verb in your sentence (JO).

Jane then asked students to check their written drafts against these success criteria. She asked everyone to go back to his or her place, and conducted peer and

teacher-feedback as a whole class discussion. Jane selected students to read their written drafts, while discussing the success criteria. Peer feedback was provided to students on their written work, and Jane collected their drafts at the end of the lesson. An example is provided below of both peer and teacher feedback. She specifically indicated that he was a L2 student:

Teacher: Qiomars, read your sentences.

Qiomars: I went hunting in the middle of the jungle.

Teacher: What language feature is in the sentence?

All: A verb.

Teacher: James?

James: I heard something go crack.

Teacher: When I say 'crack', what language features did James use?

All: (silence).

Teacher: Onomatopoeia. What is onomatopoeia?

James: When something goes with a sound.

Teacher: Yes, bang crash, Celia?

Celia: Head was small as one millimetre peanut.

Teacher: Head was small as one millimetre peanut. What language features does it have? (JO).

Jane's written feedback identified students' attainment of their success criteria. In the final marking for 'Hard to believe…' students, Jane provided feedback on content, spelling, capital letters, grammar and structure of their sentences (Appendix E9). She also provided written feedback by ticking off their checklist. For the students in the lower proficiency group, she provided feedback comments on their effort and the contents (Appendix E10), even adding written sentences that they might have created. Jane did not require students to revise their drafts after the written feedback. Jane then reported that she had a teacher student conferencing and provided written feedback and comments to her higher proficiency students during that time (Appendix E11- student 1 and 2). A sample of self-assessment checklist (Appendix E12) for L1 students was provided after the observations and interviews. However I did not see students using the self-assessment checklist during the teaching of writing.

The Connection between Jane's Beliefs and Practices

Jane reported that her beliefs had been formed from her teaching experience, professional learning and development and knowledge of her students' proficiency and needs. Her feedback was conducted while the students' writing was in progress. She believed her L2 students needed instantaneous oral and written feedback. Jane's

understanding that feedback involved guiding students towards their next learning steps was influenced by her conception of students' linguistic proficiency and ability to complete the task. As a result, her L2students who were provided elaborative feedback during the teacher/student interaction and her L1 students verification of teacher's answers. She specifically concentrated, on her L2 students during the writing progress as she felt her L1 students were capable in producing the written task.

She used open-ended questions with her higher proficiency and close-ended questions with her L2 students, questions that were directed towards them meeting their success criteria in their writing. Spelling was seen not important for them during their writing, so she practised writing it for them during the work in progress, as she felt too much focus on spelling prevented students from flowing with their ideas, and that the content was more important. Feedback too was task related, and simple and short enough for students to understand. She did not engage in lengthy discussions with her students. She believed language was a barrier for L2 students and their linguistic proficiency prevented her implementing self, and peer assessment with the whole class with the L2 students.

As a result of her beliefs her L1 students knew of the quality Jane wanted in the written draft and were able to detect the quality in their peer's written drafts. She however did not have to go into details with her L1 students, because of their level of proficiency; she believed they would give her the standard required. Figure 6.2 on the next page shows Jane's reported beliefs of formative feedback during her interviews and her feedback practice in the classroom during observations.
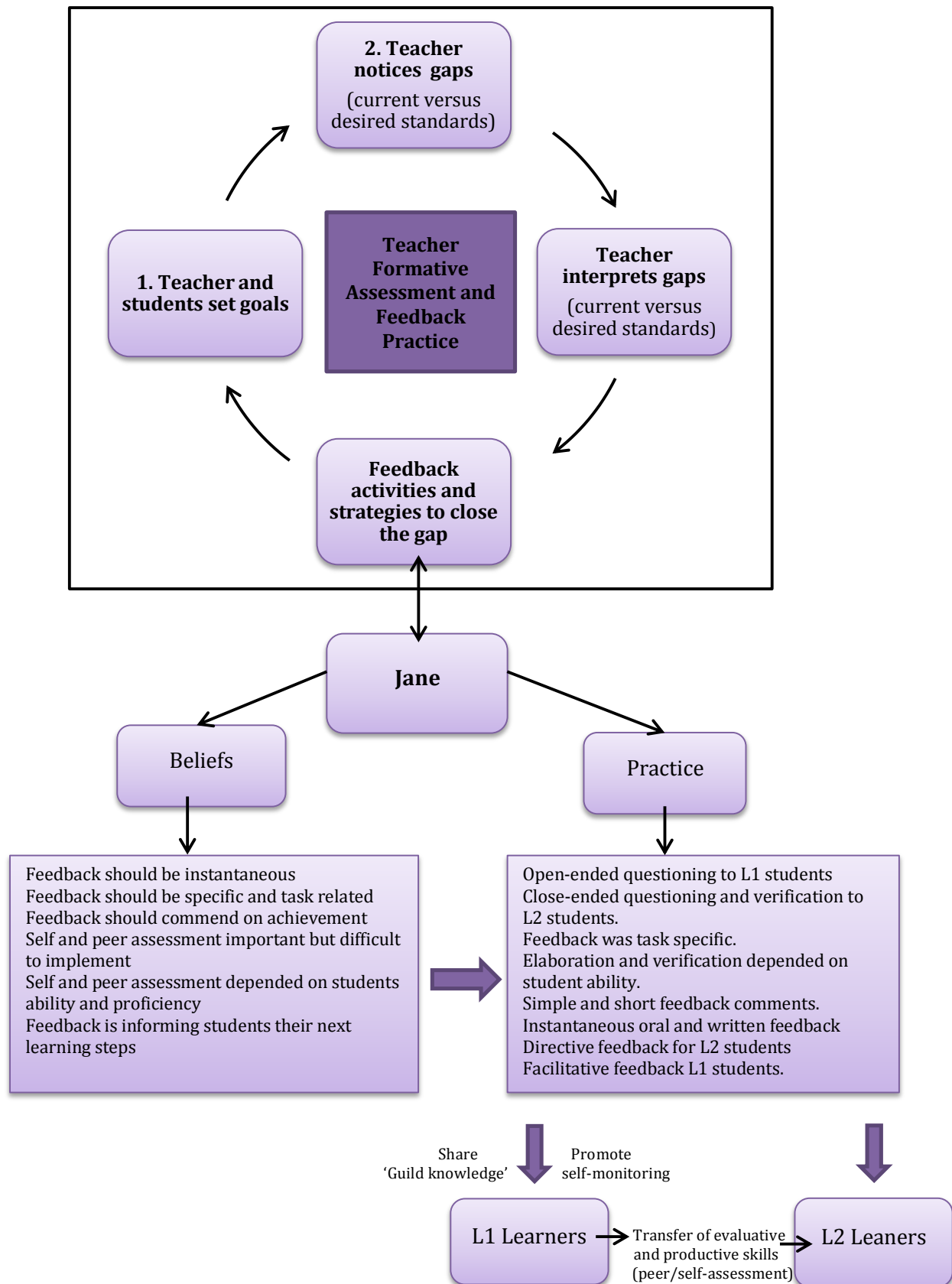
Figure 6.2: Jane's reported beliefs and observed practice

Themes

Jane's beliefs and description of feedback practices were visible in her planning, and as I observed, her feedback on students' work (both in progress and as final written product). This was most prominent in the following themes.

Shared learning and teaching opportunities

Jane's writing lesson was designed to monitor students' progress according to their linguistic proficiency. Her understanding of her students' learning and proficiency guided her to provide peer teaching, learning, and feedback opportunities. Students were provided with opportunities to produce shared writing, especially when she assumed their linguistic and personal attributes were hindrance to producing individual work. She reported and practised "*paired up*" (JI) writing, where a student who struggled was teamed with a more able student.

Jane indicated that she tried to provide students with opportunities for self-assessment and peer-assessment on their written drafts, but she believed that students' language proficiency was a barrier to optimising these practices within her classroom. She felt that group opportunities to interact and write would be a strategy to overcome language barriers, shyness and isolation during students' drafting time:

> *The other thing I guess you really don't want them to be isolated working on their own. A lot of time, there are certain things they can do on their own, it is also important to put them within a group. A lot of that language and the talking that is happening in that group, you know it is helps them and supports them in building up their own vocabulary and things like that* (JI).

If the students still struggled in a group she would specifically seek other individuals to help them in crafting their tasks to achieve the success criteria that she had planned.

> *Anahira, are you happy to help Alame with the rest of the sentences?* (JO).

> *Jason, could you help Tayla in her writing and checking if she has the language features required or if the language features she has identified are correct*? (JO).

Pairing students with the same ability provided opportunities to teach students to complete their required tasks:

Teacher: Alame, show me the castle? (Alame stares blankly at the teacher).
Teacher: Anahira, show Alame the sandcastle (Anahira doesn't know so teacher
> *points to it).*

Teacher: Alame, show the word bird (She doesn't know so the teacher points and
      then points to the object on the picture where the bird is. Teacher continues with
      the same process with the word fish and Alame points to the fish). Good girl! You
      might use these words in your sentences (JO).

Providing opportunities for students to develop evaluative skills to make judgements on their peer's writing was also important to Jane. Although she reported that she believed that peer assessment was a "*difficult process as the language proficiency was a hindrance*" which prevented it from being carried out by all the students, the more able students were given the opportunity to provide examples that she used to identify the success criteria (JI). This was in evidence during my observations:

Selena: Simile.

Teacher: Excellent description that gives you a very clear picture of what the head
      looks like. Selena?

Selena: It was roundish and kind of a green brownie colour (JO)*.*

Although sharing the criteria was a challenge, Jane was able to provide opportunities for peer feedback in the teaching and learning process. A bigger challenge that Jane faced in the implementation of this feedback strategy was students' shyness in opening up during the individual and peer feedback sessions. Hence, Jane took sole responsibility for guiding the feedback and interaction. This she overcame in some cases by encouraging students' with higher linguistic proficiency to participate.

Specifying the criteria beforehand so students were clear during the peer feedback process was carried out as a whole class activity. Jane specified to students that feedback should be task specific and based on the success criteria that she wanted them to identify:

> *So that was sort of part of making success criteria clear to them and it is so that*
> *whoever has picked up their narrative and their story would be able to, say, assess*
> *it against the criteria that we have established "Yes, I have that"* (JI).

Most of the students were provided opportunities to participate in the discussion and provide peer feedback.

Designing 'linguistically matching' writing lessons

Jane planned her writing lesson to suit both her L1 and L2 students. Although the students had the same success criteria, their writing tasks were designed to suit both their ability with writing and their linguistic proficiency. Students of higher

proficiency had to write a complete narrative, the best of which would be published in the school newspaper. The lower proficiency group, however, had to "*write sentences which included a verb and an adjective*" as learning intentions. Jane reasoned that:

> *It is very different for every child because they have such a wide range of vocabulary. I think too with ESOL students, we are assessing them on different things because we want their understanding of the vocabulary first and foremost and so it is very much important with them building sentences and writing sentences and then helping them to understand what they're writing about* (JI).

The lesson was planned not only to include tasks matching each students' linguistic ability in English, but was checked against the specific success criteria that Jane had planned from the curriculum. As she believed students with lower proficiency in English language needed extra support, she created a model with these students of "*how and what the completed sentences should have and look like*" (JI). She also provided these students with a list of essential spelling and vocabulary words to help them in their writing, stating:

> *Students work on their essential skills on the spelling list, and so in the beginning of the year, I have sorted them out with words that each of them knew, and so these spelling lists they have are individually designed for them. It's the words that they need to learn. Some of the students, not many have completed the essential list up to essential list 7, and then there is the commonly misspelt words, and some of them have moved from that. The hope is by the end of Year 4, they will be able to spell all the words from the essential spelling list 1-7, some of them will achieve that, some of them won't* (JI).

Students with higher linguistic ability were not provided with a writing frame or vocabulary samples. They were told to produce writing that fulfilled the learning intentions and success criteria without this help, but misunderstanding and errors were minimised with shared learning between students with higher linguistic abilities and students whose language skills were weaker. All students, however, had colourful teaching materials distributed as Jane felt that practice could "*increase the interest and student engagement in writing*" (JI).

As a result of her beliefs, Jane felt that positive feedback helped her students "*build their confidence*" (JI). She felt it motivated students to try harder in their writing lessons, lessons which matched their specific needs, for example Jane might say something like:

Good, but if you have 8 you write 8 sentences. So you are going to try and write 6
sentences as good as you can (JO).

Or:

Teacher: And after the complication what do we have, Selena?
Selena: Resolution
Teacher: Good. After that, what do we have…? Finally we have, Solomon?
Solomon: Conclusion.
Teacher: Good (JO).

Jane believed the difference in writing and performance in her classroom was
mainly due to the linguistic proficiency of her students. As a result, she differentiated
her planning and practice in teaching writing.

Student proficiency impacts ownership of writing

Jane believed student proficiency levels were indicators of their understanding
of writing. She used instructional strategies and activities relevant to the students'
stage in learning:

Jason's [work is] very slow and quite laboured and he doesn't have lot of
confidence putting words on paper, he is very able to write a complete paragraph,
so we are working on building sentences up with him, but he also needs reminders
to stay focused (JI).

As a result she believed she needed to provide as much vocabulary information
as possible for him to write successfully. The lower proficiency students were not only
provided with the vocabulary; often the written feedback provided almost completed
their writing tasks. This was done although they had their editing checklist with them.
Jane believed they would lose interest and would not fully "*engage*" (JI) in the written
tasks if there were "*vocabulary and spelling as obstacles*" (JI) during their writing
process. Once the writing task was completed, most of the students had written
identical sentences and these were similar to the examples provided by Jane.

She did not provide written feedback for her higher proficiency students,
therefore their writing was far more authentic, and their ownership clearer. Her
feedback to higher proficiency students focused on their learning intentions and
success criteria. Their paragraphing and sentencing of their narrative remained their
own.

In contrast to their classmates in the lower group, the higher proficiency
students produced colourful and interesting narratives. No two narratives were the

same, and students had thought of "*a lot of interesting language features which they had successfully included into their writing*" (JI). They were also capable of checking their work and providing "*peer feedback*" that did not influence or alter the original written draft.

In Jane's classroom, a students' proficiency was a clear indicator of how much ownership they had of their own writing. Jane believed less proficient students needed her help as the '*expert*' in the teaching and learning of writing.

Self-taught writing teacher

Jane believed her writing lesson and feedback practices were influenced mainly by her experience as a teacher and by observing students. Her assumption of best practice in the teaching of writing, from planning to practice, was based on her perceptions of a student's linguistic ability. The writing lesson plan was a clear indication of her understanding, as she had placed students into groups of L1 and L2 students; further identifying this for me on the written drafts I was shown.

She asked students to share and produce a piece of written draft as she felt "*the L1 students were capable of writing on their own*" but wanted the L2 to "*feed off their ideas and create a* [piece of] *writing together*" (JI). Students were at different stages with writing in her classroom, but she managed to assist students as they progressed according to their level. She wanted the students to teach each other and become more involved in their writing, rather than creating writing tasks following the thinking of "*one shoe fits all*" (JI).

Thus Jane's form of feedback often entailed questioning and prompts to her students, as some students were "*very shy and would not contribute to the teacher but among friends*" (JI). She did not force students to reply to her questions or read aloud if they were uncomfortable. She felt that cultural difference among her students affected students' willingness to speak, and said that this was something she had learnt during her professional development and through teaching a diverse population of students. This established, Jane would still allow plenty of wait time, and would try to coax her students before providing them with answers.

Chapter Summary

Jane provided feedback based on learning intentions and success criteria, both of which she used to monitor student success with written drafts. She provided students with teaching materials and writing tasks based on her perception of their linguistic proficiency level. The students worked at their own level and in some cases in

groups to produce a written draft. Recognising that native speakers of English were able to write and provide both oral and written feedback, Jane used this strength as a form of helping the lower proficiency students in developing their writing. The potential challenge of using peer and self-assessment was overcome by Jane playing a prominent role in the feedback process by providing assessment rubrics for the written peer editing process. She often specifically guided the lower proficiency students with vocabulary and spelling using written feedback. The higher proficiency students were given freedom to develop their writing skills by writing their narrative independently. However, during the teacher feedback and peer feedback for the higher proficiency students, she often emphasized their learning intentions and success criteria.

CHAPTER SEVEN:

The Influence of Teachers' Beliefs and Understanding on Formative Feedback Practices: A Discussion

In this study Sadler's (1989) theory of formative assessment and feedback was utilised to explore teachers' feedback practices in primary classrooms. Findings from Chapters Four, Five and Six revealed that teachers held some common understandings in regards to feedback that was formative in nature. These chapters also drew attention to some of the differences between teachers and their practices. The interpretive nature of my research makes it important to look for explanations for similarities and differences in teachers' beliefs and practice in providing feedback. These explanations provide better understanding of the complex meanings teachers attribute to their situation (Ezzy, 2002; Punch, 2005). As a result of an in-depth exploration of teachers' beliefs and formative feedback practices, the influence of teachers' beliefs and understanding on their practices became clearer.

The teachers' beliefs about formative feedback during the teaching and learning of writing, and about the students themselves, had significant effect on how feedback was promoted practiced in their classrooms. Therefore, in accordance with pre-existing theory, I considered teachers' beliefs significant in providing insights into the formative feedback practices of the teachers. The following discussion is structured into two sections; the first section consists of teachers' uptake and enactment of formative assessment and feedback practice. In this section, difference and similarities based on the findings, and the roles of teachers and students played in the process are compared in relation to effective formative assessment and feedback practice. In the second section, the influence of teachers' beliefs on their formative feedback strategies and how these beliefs influence the uptake and enactment of effective formative assessment and feedback is discussed. The discussion is supported by a combination of scholarly literature and research findings from the field of formative assessment and feedback and teacher beliefs.

The Uptake and Enactment of the Formative Assessment and Feedback

Formative assessment and feedback encompasses strategies that teachers engage during teaching and learning. It serves the purpose of supporting and developing students' learning, and enabling students to become autonomous and self-regulating learners (Sadler, 2009b, 2010; Swaffield, 2011). These strategies embrace the promotion of students' understanding of learning goals and expected performances,

and emphasise generation of feedback by both teachers and students on students current versus desired performances, to enhance and effect improvement (James & Pedder, 2006). Students' engagement in peer and self-assessment and taking control of their learning through self-monitoring is significant in the process of assessment to support learning (Clarke, 2001; McCallum et al., 2000).

Teachers' role in promoting formative assessment and feedback

Within the formative assessment and feedback process, teacher's role is more than just providing feedback on the content but it is to promote learning and help students understand to goal they are aiming for (Hattie & Timperley, 2007), support them to develop skills to make judgments about their learning and the required standards (Sadler, 2009a), and help students establish a repertoire of strategies to regulate their own learning (Sadler, 1989). Hence, the role of teachers in the process is significant to ensure students have the resources to monitor their own learning and engage in activities that develop their skills as self-sustaining learners. Sadler's (1989) foundational view of formative assessment as a practice and process centred on feedback loops for both teachers and students use information to close the gap is significant to identifying effective practice.

Divergent and differential learning pathways for students

Teachers' familiarity with teaching of writing through the application of standard of reference/goals, learning intentions and success criteria was a common in the planning stage among all three teachers. Teachers reported they had put in significant thought in the standard of reference/goals, learning intentions and success criteria for each individual student and the groups they belonged to. These standards were evident in their lesson plans. Black and Wiliam's (2004) paper distinguished the 'formative' way that teachers can respond and interpret information to help to build a sound model of a student's progression in the learning of the specific subject matter, and therefore select criteria that guides the formative strategy matches the students "trajectories of learning" (p.37). The learning progression articulates the trajectory by which students are expected to progress and improve in learning, significant for the formative assessment process.

Teachers in this study had divergent developing pathways for each student in their classroom. Teachers had to deal with students struggling to write a single complete sentence and generating coherent narrative during the writing lesson. As a result, there were significant differences in learning between high and low-progress learners in one classroom. Rather than a single goal, all three teachers had a range of

success criteria that might be appropriate for a particular student, and another range of criteria of success that was different for other students at different times planned. In the teaching of writing practice, teachers had a common context to teach to, but provided diverse opportunities for learning. It is important to note that teachers reported they did not operate with the concept of 'anything goes' in the classroom when teaching of writing, but rather were operating around the standard of reference/goals, learning intentions and success criteria (Black & Wiliam, 2004).

However teachers' inequalities in the knowledge and skills essential to teaching writing in a formative way can either impede or accelerate further learning, thus contribute to an ever-increasing gap between learners of differing abilities. The findings of this study clearly indicate teachers had their own perception of students' current abilities and what they were aiming for the students to achieve. A consequence of this knowledge is that all three teachers had their own method of teaching writing that led to students achieving the desired standard/goal. During the teaching and learning of the written language, Debra and Jane's formative feedback was often focussed on misconception/misunderstanding or errors that they noticed. Both the teachers did not focus on the specific learning intentions or success criteria as a point of reference for the feedback they provided. Their tacitly held knowledge of what the successful written product should consist of was presented as feedback in the form of 'telling' students. Teachers' ideas were presented to students, and students were required to modify and act on these ideas. This was specifically inherent in Debra's classroom, as feedback to students involved any set of criteria she believed was needed for the students. As a result students she intended to write one sentence were given complex set of criteria to work on.

Another significant difference that was evident in Debra's practice was that students were introduced to new criteria at the final stages of writing. These criteria were added as new properties and a more complicated notion of quality that was required, without the basic set of standards/goals, learning intention or success criteria being explained first. This contradicts Sadler's (2009b) notion that teachers need to share their tacitly held knowledge about the quality of writing at all stages of the writing process so that students become aware of the criteria of success, and thus able to translate them into their writing process. Debra's role during the various stages of the writing process was as an 'expert', and students were not fully emerged or were absent from having significant experience through conferencing on the specific learning intentions and success criteria that she had planned.

In Lyn's case, students were alerted to the notion of criteria on a piece of written draft, and were encouraged to consider methods by which the criteria

complemented the quality of their work, as well as to make judgements with reference to their whole drafts, requiring them to make judgements on their individual success criteria, and to justify their appraisal both to the teacher and their peers (Sadler 1989, 2009b). As a collective process these factors mirrored the way holistic, qualitative, multi-criterion judgements (Sadler, 2009b) were formulated by Lyn. Apparently, to Debra and Jane, they believed they had practiced the formative aspect of feedback criteria and students were aware of the direction of their learning. Both Debra and Jane believed they had inducted students to understand the sophisticated constitution of quality in a piece of work as they were able to produce the work according to the teachers' desired standards. This was visible among Jane's L1 students as she had whole class discussion, and students were able to list of all their success criteria in their written product. Both Debra and Jane believed that students at least knew what was expected of them and were brought partly into the guild knowledge, and were able to make appraisals of their own work. Lyn's students were well positioned to evaluate their work, and demonstrated considerable capacity to improve learning of their own accord, as they were accustomed to a classroom culture of formative assessment and feedback.

Teacher the 'expert' or 'students as insiders' formative practice

As learning intentions and success criteria provide teachers the standard reference of which evidence learning and performance are compared by both teachers and students, effective formative feedback is generated to close the gap between a student's current learning and their desired learning goals (Sadler, 1989, 2009b). It is significant to note that while learning goals provide the trajectory of learning progression and lead students towards desired learning, it identifies what immediate learning for the student is intended to work consistently in the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). As this is the area of effective learning, utilising formative assessment involves teachers scaffolding information, making it possible for students to achieve related to their ability, through careful observation. Significant to formative assessment is teachers providing students with experiences and support that allow them to incorporate new learning. Lyn was consistent in her classroom practice in providing students with the experience and support they needed to work on their own trajectory of learning, and providing students with support through both teacher and peer feedback.

In Lyn's classroom, formative feedback was not solely provided by the teacher, but was done with the belief that students, through engagement in teaching and learning activities, would gain a range of evaluative and productive skills in writing by

becoming 'insiders' (Sadler, 1989). Such beliefs were strong in Lyn's case, as she permitted teaching and learning in the form of equality (James & Pedder, 2006). Feedback that functioned as scaffolding information was observed in Lyn's classroom and the effectiveness was in the mutual engagement between teacher and student. Her feedback process involved eliciting, interpreting and acting on the information, as recognising and acting on the feedback information is critical to learning (Bell & Cowie, 2001). In contrast, although Jane seemingly practiced a socio-cultural perspective of feedback from her reported beliefs of understanding and providing feedback to suit the needs of learner, she maintained the control in the classroom, situating herself as the 'expert' in trying to help students close their gap. As a result, although during their self-reported practice Debra and Jane claimed their feedback was formative in nature which led students to close the gap between their current and desired performance, and both teachers claimed they tried to discard the practice associated with behaviourism, during the observation its strong influence in their classroom feedback practices was visible, even though it was done unconsciously (Black, 2000; Delandshere, 2002; Shepard, 2000).

Encapsulating task related feedback of 'closing the gap'

The purpose of feedback is to improve learning while learning is occurring. Descriptive feedback in the form of ideas and strategies by which students may employ to complete their tasks provides opportunities to close the 'gap' between their current and desired performance. Within this notion, feedback becomes instructional scaffolding in the ZPD. Interaction between Lyn and her students during observations reveal her role in supporting learning through scaffolding. According to Lyn the underlying premise of her scaffolding feedback was to provide students with temporary support that ultimately led to transfer the responsibility of learning to the students through peer and self-assessment. This was in contrast to Debra and Jane's approach. Both of these teachers displayed evidence of unidirectional and directive approaches to scaffolding that involved teacher-controlled discourse and acceptable answers, and often teachers predetermined answers or a preferred option. Supportive scaffolds, reciprocal teaching, and active learning approaches directly mirror Vygotsky's (1978) view of ZPD used for improving learning in the teacher/student interaction of closing the gap (Sadler, 1989). This was considerably evident in Lyn's classroom in the uptake and enactment of effective formative assessment and feedback strategies.

Despite the fact that the teachers I interviewed shared a common belief about their own ability to use feedback to support and enhance learning, there was significant

difference among the teachers on how feedback should be framed to students to this effect. Debra and Jane at times seemed to articulate beliefs that reflected the behaviourist theories of learning, consistent with behaviourism, the long term influence and effect of being learners themselves during the period behaviourism was influential in the assessment and feedback process (Skinner, 1968; Thorndike, 1912; Watson, 1919). This has indirect influence on some of their formative feedback strategies that they believed due to 'not knowing' alternative strategies. It was evident as both Debra and Jane articulated belief in providing feedback by 'telling'. Debra, and at times Jane, believed that the act of providing constant feedback would assist student learning, as students took on board the feedback to improve their performance.

Findings from this study indicate convenience manifest criteria were their reference for their feedback. Manifest criteria, according to Sadler (1989), are criteria that are consciously attended to while work is in progress to close the gap. All three teachers were consciously providing feedback against the manifest criteria. Criteria that were in the background known as the latent criteria is often "triggered or activated as occasions demands by some (existential) property of work that deviates from expectation" (Sadler, 1989, p.134) seemed to create challenges for teachers. This was a challenge that Lyn was able to overcome, but in Debra's case she believed she had to provide the answer to overcome the problem. Both Debra and Jane provided feedback that directly answered the students' needs when the latent criteria appeared. However, Sadler (1989) explained that the art providing formative assessment was in generating reversible progression in which criteria can be utilised for student benefit (from either latent or manifest criteria), as the aim was to provide feedback that benefited students in identifying quality, and in closing the gap. Both Debra and Jane considered the pre-specified goals were more important to their students' learning, therefore they were hesitant to embark on latent criteria, thus loosing significant teaching and learning moments. By comparison, Lyn appeared to induce other criteria when necessary and as a result adopted a more divergent practice when implementing formative assessment and feedback approaches (Torrance & Pryor, 1998).

All teachers resorted to positive reinforcement during interaction with students, providing feedback in the form of praise to students as approval of accepted answers, a practice in contrast with what is currently know with feedback (Sadler, 1998). This feedback is considered ineffective, as praise can shift attention from the task to the self (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisis, 1996), and promote surface learning that is performance focussed (Crooks, 1988; Dweck, 1986). Informed by behaviourist theories of learning principles, feedback historically was procedures of telling a learner if their response was "right or wrong" (Kulhavy, 1977, p. 211), and that

corrected their response to learners in the form of telling who were then responsible to identify and correct their responses. Kulhavy (1977) argued the corrective function of feedback was the most important aspect. This idea was influential in Debra's classroom and in her definition and beliefs about formative feedback. She provided evaluative feedback, and believed it fulfilled the requirement of students gaining information that could be used to promote learning and in closing the gap between students' current and desired performance outcomes (Askew & Lodge, 2000). Jane believed feedback in that same manner was effective with her weaker students, who needed feedback that identified the correct answers.

Teachers considered themselves experts that afforded feedback to learners, yet the set of responsibilities they undertook and role in teaching they envisaged were very distinct. This was significant within which paradigm of assessment they believed was effective. Within the formative assessment and feedback, the emphasis was on the role of teacher providing feedback, with students positioned as passive recipients. However, formative feedback within the assessment for learning paradigm shifts the emphasis onto the students' role in their own learning. This belief, while present in interviews, was a weakened practice in Debra and Jane's classrooms due to their view of students. They believed students were resistant to change because of behavioural and language proficiency issues. They felt that the challenge they faced in implementing good feedback practice was students fault, therefore maintaining the traditional view of the role of students. While they articulated beliefs to develop students' skill and expertise during formative feedback practice, the resistance they faced during implementation prevented the necessary productive skills being utilised, and times they felt overwhelmed by the feedback task itself, as they were still learning about the process.

This is another instance at which the paradigm shift between behaviourism and later models was visible in my observed classrooms. Behaviourism locates learning external to learners and as something that has to be transmitted to the learners. In this model, students are viewed as passive recipients in the learning process, with teachers playing the more prominent role. The teacher holds the expert status, and is the primary source of feedback in the classroom. In short, in a behaviourist model, it is the teachers' responsibility to tell the learners how to learn. The influence of behaviourism – and the traditional role of teachers within it - was still visible in my observed classrooms (Buhagiar, 2007). Both Debra and Jane maintained their expert status throughout the process of teaching of writing and feedback information by the way they articulated and provided their feedback, which they considered formative.

It is worthy to note the common assumption that all three teachers held: the strategies and ways they provided feedback were effective. Firstly, teachers believed

students had successfully completed their written task, therefore their feedback was effective and students had achieved attainment. These beliefs protracted to the fact that students had moved from their current performance to the desired performance, therefore the students understood the feedback. Secondly, teachers anticipated students would be able to extrapolate from the whole class feedback particular aspects of feedback that applicable to them and take the necessary actions to make the required changes to their work in relation to the success criteria.

Students' role in the formative assessment and feedback process

The socio-cultural perspective in the assessment for learning strategies promotes student participation in the process, suggests that developing a sense of belonging by becoming an insider in the practice of learning while developing their autonomous learner identity is beneficial (Black & Wiliam, 1998b). Thus, assessment for learning necessitates a need for students and teachers to radically change their roles from being teacher-centred to having teacher and student work in partnership. Research suggests that students ought not to be dependent on teachers, but rather that they should hold the key role in the process of effective learning (James & Pedder, 2006). Teachers now hold the responsibility for helping students become autonomous and self-regulating learners. In order for students to be able to judge their performance against the required goals and progress towards that goal (Butler & Winne, 1995), teachers' tacitly held 'guild knowledge' should be shared with their students. This is to enable students to hold concepts of quality similar to their teacher (Sadler, 1989) and to assist them in becoming 'insiders' in the process.

Teacher's perception of quality

It is significant for students to understand what constitutes quality of a written product, through the development of evaluative and productive expertise and understanding learning goals and success criteria (Sadler, 1989, 2009b, 2010). Another important aspect is for teachers to frame learning goals/intentions and success criteria in a manner that impacts students understanding of their written product and the process that guides their behaviour. When Debra and Jane expressed learning goals/intentions during the writing lesson, they drew attention to the task completion rather than the more significant element of the writing process (Hawe & Parr, 2013). When the writing process is conducted in a manner that it draws attention to the completed product, the specified success criteria becomes a checklist where quality can be ticked off (Timperley & Parr, 2009).

When success criteria are equated to a checklist for quality, then teachers and students unintentionally adopt the analytic approach of assessment of the written text (Sadler, 1989). Although Lyn provided students the learning goals/intentions and success criteria, she drew students' attention to the writing process from brainstorming, planning, until the full written draft was completed. In her classroom, the essential elements of the writing product and the writing process were equally important to the learning goals/intentions and success criteria. In addition students had opportunities to self-monitor their written work for the presence of the desired quality (Sadler, 2009b). In addition, Debra and Jane's students embraced the convergent approach (Torrance & Pryor, 1998), checking their written product for the presence of the required criteria methodically. However, Debra and Jane's students perception of whether or not they had successfully completed their work as they ticked of the checklist was not the attribution of their own thinking, but resulted from the notion of quality being inducted to them by properties identified as success criteria by their teachers. As a result, students were bounded by confining goals and success criteria that were expressed in a restricted and narrow manner, identified by teachers' as the expected quality.

Opportunities during learning: Insider or passive-outsider

In assessment for learning it is essential for students to develop their own evaluative and productive knowledge as they participate in an authentic appraisal of their written work, through peer and self-assessment. As a result, students develop a deeper understanding of quality similar to teachers, based on their own experience in the assessment process (Sadler, 1989; 2009b). Despite the significance of students' involvement in their own learning, especially within the teaching of written language, research often indicates that teachers have yet to fully comprehend the concept and still hold on to the traditional, teacher-centred approach (Dixon et al., 2012; Hawe & Parr, 2013; Parr & Timperley, 2010). As illustrated in the case of Debra and Jane, students were required to assess their written products during learning; however these self-assessment led to little change in students learning, as teachers retained control of the process within the nature and scope of their feedback. Teachers maintained the expert role with their influential and authoritative style of instruction, resulting in students taking on the passive outsider role in their own learning. This style of instruction denies students access into teachers 'guild knowledge' (Sadler, 1989), the access to which would ideally promote them to make comprehensive judgements about the quality of their work during learning. As a consequence, students are unable to make sound judgments on their own work for improvement purposes. This then leads

to students becoming reliant and dependent on teachers judgements about their work or specifics on how to make improvements (Sadler, 1989; 2009b; 2010). This suspension of students' involvement, and creating of teacher dependency, often done unconsciously, reflects teachers' belief that they hold the expertise and capabilities to generate feedback on students written language, a skill that is not transferable, as observed in Debra and Jane's (among L2 students) students.

In contrast, Lyn viewed her students as 'insiders' who were capable, autonomous learners. Her students contributed in the teaching and learning process through decision-making, adoption and pedagogical practices of both peer and self-assessment (Topping, 2009). Student participation in a sustained and authentic, evaluative and productive experience enables them to engage with the content being taught and initiates them into the 'guild knowledge' of their writing community (Sadler, 1989, 2009b). Lyn understood the significance of students' development in this regard: in her classroom, independence and autonomy was facilitated and guided in a way where power in learning was a shared process. Therefore, Lyn created a structure of teaching and learning to enable students to have valid, authentic insights into their own writing that encouraged meta-cognitive reflection to develop students' understanding about writing (Ward & Dix, 2001). Teacher/student interaction and formative assessment and feedback as a co-constructed activity provided opportunities for students to move forward, while at the same time understanding the critical elements necessary in developing their writing. This was a significant feature in Lyn's classroom when she encouraged students to work in groups as a community of writers. Students were encouraged during the writing process to respond to her and also their peers.

Differential evaluative and productive learning opportunities

Peer assessment and feedback encourage the process of self-monitoring to become embedded in their writing lesson and was carried out as a daily activity. These activities enable students to exchange be exposed to various authentic works produced by others and access a wider range of quality, a significant element in the development of students evaluative and productive knowledge and expertise (Sadler, 1989, 2009b). As a result of Lyn's practice, her students were provided opportunities to build on their productive and evaluative skills, and to become insiders in their learning, thus moving from being teacher-dependent to being independent self-monitoring students. Students who are able to become both the provider and recipient of feedback (Wiliam, 2006) are able internalize their learning that leads to improvement.

Teachers' individualistic identities and knowledge of teaching writing (Dix, 2012) often fitted with their theoretical beliefs and perception of writing. However, the

political and theoretical shifts in both writing and formative assessment and feedback have teachers grappling with limited experience and skills in the teaching of writing (Dix, 2012). Both Debra and Jane's observations, and subsequent reported beliefs on their actions revealed limited experience and skills in implementing peer and self-assessment among students in their classroom. Jane's belief that her L2 learners were linguistically incapable of carrying out evaluative and productive skills led her to continue to embrace the expert role in the classroom, but she provided more freedom and experience of peer and self- assessment with her L1 students. Debra on the other hand, enabled and engaged students in the process of peer and self- assessment at the end of the writing lesson in a controlled manner. It is significant to note that both teachers understood formative assessment and feedback strategies during the planning stage, but still employed a traditional approach that emphasized on explicit instruction in practice, emphasising an error-free written product with topic selected and completed within limited independent writing time (Hairston, 1982; Raimes, 1991).

Lyn embraced and practiced the process approach when teaching of writing, utilising teacher-students interaction and promoted learner autonomy and self-monitoring (in no small part, as she herself noted during interview, a result of the school writing programme). Lyn was successful in combining the writing as a process approach with formative assessment and feedback to include students in the process of learning. Her teacher/student interactions and engagement highlighted significant and important aspects of joint constructed patterns during learning (Good & Brophy, 1978). Within these activities, Lyn's students still had their goals, methods of participating, strategies and ways of self-regulating their performance. She undertook appropriate actions to lead students to close the gap between their current performance and the desired performance that was planned and co-constructed within her school syndicate and with students. As research indicates (Wiliam, 2006) feedback benefits learners when it is internalised through learning intentions and success criteria, as it can also be an element for teacher's formative assessment practice. This is because students' peer and self-assessment is a good indication of their understanding of their learning goals and success criteria and the depth of their thinking.

The differences between the roles both teachers and students played in the formative assessment and feedback process of all three teachers was individualistic and influenced by their beliefs about students' ability, their school writing programmes, and their contextual collegiality. In the next section, the interplay of teachers' beliefs and how these beliefs influenced teacher uptake and enactment of their formative assessment and writing practice is discussed. Teachers' beliefs about learning were revealed through their understanding of the roles both teachers and students should

play in learning, something that consequently influenced by the roles attributed in the formative feedback process. Teachers' beliefs about teacher and students roles in the feedback process influenced how they framed and constructed feedback in their classroom. This is consistent with Gipps' (1994) work, in particular the idea that beliefs about learning affect how content is taught to students and how it is assessed.

The Relationship between Teachers' Beliefs and their Practice

Despite the fact that studies provide evidence that teachers' beliefs influence their practice (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Munby, 1984), other studies have revealed inconsistencies between teachers' espoused beliefs and their classroom practice (for example Basturkaman et al., 2004; Lee, 2009; Phipps & Borg, 2009). In my observations, teachers' formative feedback practice supported Fang's (1996) 'consistency or inconsistency' theory. This was similar to Marshall and Drummond's (2006) observations, in which they found that teachers had adopted aspects associated with good feedback practice such as communicating goals of learning, promoting self and peer-assessment and the use of feedback in closing the gap between the current and desired performance (Sadler, 1989, 2009b). Nevertheless, there were distinctive differences between the teachers' classroom practices, a consequence of the divergent understanding that teachers held. Since teaching of writing was selected as the context for divining rich data in investigating teachers' ability to implement theoretically fitting strategies, stipulating quality of written language was challenging (Sadler, 1989, 2009b). Teachers should provide opportunities for students to develop evaluative and productive opportunities (Sadler, 2010) and not restrict formative feedback strategies to stipulating a list of criteria (Marshall, 2004).

In this study, there were distinctive differences in evaluative and productive opportunities for students, a significant aspect of formative assessment and feedback strategies promoted by teachers in their classrooms. This was particularly visible in the nature of judgement teachers asked students to make to help close gaps in their learning, student involvement in the process through self and peer-assessment activities, and the amount of control teachers exercised during the learning process. It has often been argued that teachers find promoting learner autonomy in the teaching and learning process difficult to achieve (James & Pedder 2006; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). Figure 7.1 on the next page highlights the influence of teachers' beliefs in the uptake and enactment of formative assessment and feedback strategies in the teaching of writing classroom.
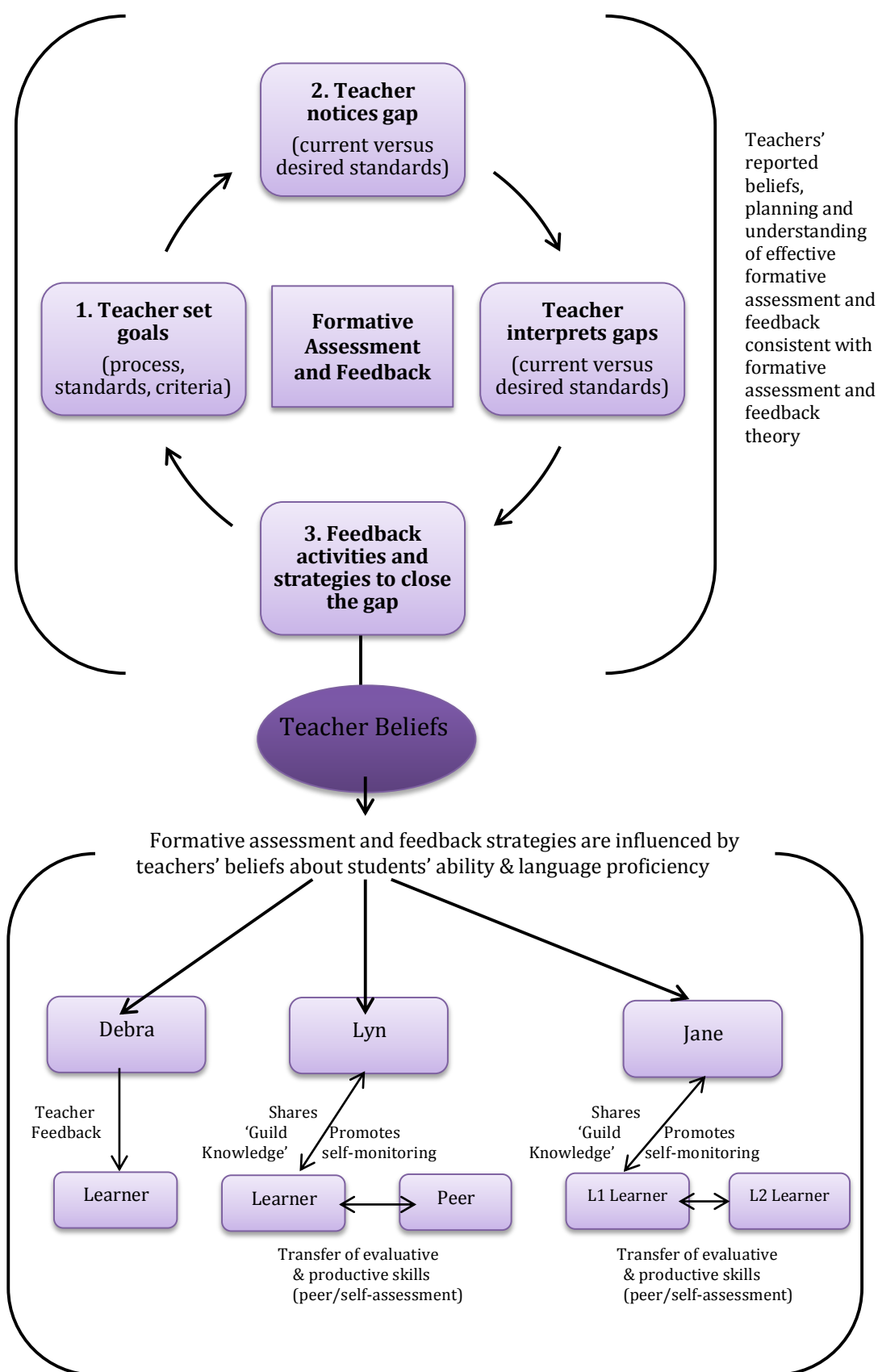
Figure 7.1: The relationship between teachers' beliefs and their formative assessment and feedback strategies

Figure 7.1 shows inconsistency between teachers' reported beliefs and the range of opportunities provided to students for their students to develop their self-regulatory skills. Debra and Jane's (L2) learners during teaching of writing, students did not have an authentic setting to engage in evaluative productive decisions about their expected learning outcomes and future learning directions. Lyn was the only teacher that provided opportunities for her students' voices to be given authentication, as they personally viewed and discussed the success criteria of their written product. As a result, in Lyn's class, students were free to respond to each other through facilitation (Smith & Higgins, 2006). Some of the opportunities were engineered by Lyn to enable students to provide feedback, a skill that the school believed each student should be able to execute. At each stage of their work-in progress, students were able to become an 'insider', with knowledge of the expected quality of performance. Lyn shared her tacitly held 'guild knowledge' with her students and promoted self-monitoring as a strategy in the classroom. Students in Lyn's classroom were able to practice their evaluative and productive expertise with the knowledge of quality within their groups.

In contrast, this significant strategy was absent from Debra's classroom practice. Students were not provided opportunities to practice their evaluative and productive skills during the work-in-progress. Debra believed that students were not capable of such a strategy because of their limited language proficiency. She adopted the role of teacher as the expert and sole provider of feedback who needed to transfer knowledge and skills to her students. Her tacitly held knowledge of quality was shared during the learning stages that she deemed necessary, a contrast to Sadler's (1989, 2009a, 2009b, 2010) argument that all learners be brought nearer to the concept of quality that is held by teachers and be able to practice using their evaluative and productive skills. Jane's belief that students with lower proficiency levels such as her L2 students were not capable of understanding the learning goals/intentions and success criteria and practicing formative feedback strategies with each other influenced her practice. Jane shared her guild knowledge and promoted self-monitoring among her L1 students. These students then provided feedback to their L2 peers and were able to self-assess both their own work and the work of their peers work against the success criteria that was given to them.

Debra and Jane reported beliefs that the students were aware of the quality of performance that was required of them and they were provided opportunities for peer feedback, but in practice that was not always the case. They still adopted a teacher centred role, and controlled the process and the scope and nature of feedback, and the information and the interaction (Marshall & Drummond, 2006). Their style of

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instruction and restriction around allowable answers and interaction reflected the initiation-response-feedback (I-R-F) sequence (Sinclair & Couldthard, 1975). There was limited evidence of student interaction that was exploratory and in-depth (Smith & Higgins, 2006). While, Jane had tried to incorporate procedural features of good feedback (James, 2006), there was still significant teacher control in the process, which limited student input, especially with Jane's L2 learners. As a result they became passive recipients. The role of learners, in both Jane and Debra's classes, was to carry out teacher directives.

The discrepancy between the espoused beliefs and practice of teachers draws attention to the socio-historical dimensions of belief construction as suggested by Poulson and Avramidis (2004), and how this affects an individual's wider belief systems (Pajares, 1992). One possible explanation for this inconsistency in relation to Debra and Jane is the lack of connection between the beliefs and practice that occurs when teachers go through policy or theory changes (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Brownlee et al., 1998; Richardson et al., 1991). Another possible answer is the lack of theoretical understanding of formative feedback practices, and their tacit beliefs continuing to influence; traditional feedback beliefs affecting current practice (Shepard, 2008). Although it is challenging to ascertain the reason for the inconsistency, tacitly held beliefs influencing teachers' practice was evident. Specifically in relation to teachers describing their practice of how they formed their learning intentions and success criteria and used it as a reference point for the feedback.

In order to make learning goals explicit, teachers reported that they believed feedback should provide information to students on their next learning steps. The difference in the way the three teachers presented this information to students was observed in practice. All the teachers mentioned the use of success criteria in their feedback information to the students. This was their point of reference for their feedback strategies, whether they supplied the success criteria or generated it with the students (as, for example, Lyn did). Their description, though, was sometimes short of best practice of effective formative assessment and feedback as outlined by Sadler (1989).

This was observed in the way learning intentions were used to make judgements on students' performance in both Debra and Jane's classes. Their adopted practice was informed by the behaviourist theory of learning. In this, it was apparent that these teachers were still had limited knowledge and skill in the process of formative assessment and feedback strategies, which was influenced by their own learning and experience (Black, 2005; Gipps, 1994; Shepard, 2000), something both teachers also expressed in interview. This is significant as two teachers in this study

would have learnt and taught from the time behaviourism had a significant influence on teaching, learning and assessment, and evidently were not provided adequate professional learning and development on the teaching of writing or assessment for learning process, a significant point in Jane's reported beliefs. Jane had the most years of experience in teaching, and did not profess having had professional learning and development on assessment or teaching of writing since she graduated. Debra had a few years teaching experience before doing an online course to qualify as a teacher and at the time of research was involved in a professional learning and development course on feedback. While teachers at a conscious level sought to conform to new innovation and reformation in assessment and feedback practice, the teachers' deep-seated and unconscious beliefs continued to shape and influence aspects of their formative feedback strategies.

Given the nature of information about quality, it is important for feedback to function qualitatively (Sadler, 1989, 2009b), and in this aim the usefulness of implicit success criteria is void. When teachers' guild knowledge is inaccessible to students, students are impacted in their learning. If students have the concept of quality roughly similar to their teachers (Sadler, 1989), it enables them to become self-monitoring and autonomous learners. This was evident both Debra and Jane's classroom. While students were requested to make judgements on their work, they had limited knowledge of what was required of them, thus impeding their self-monitoring process. By comparison, Lyn's use of lists and models of criteria for success enabled the students in her class to enter into the guild knowledge (Sadler, 1989, 2009b).

Two teachers, Debra and Jane, reported beliefs that learning intentions and success criteria were the point of reference from which they made judgements on students' performance; the influence of behaviourist thinking of teacher-centred learning was evident when the overall judgement on achievement was made. Both teachers supplied students with feedback information that required them to make changes, which led teachers to then accept the corrections as the quality being attained in their writing. Students' peer-feedback practice was at the end of the production and evaluative in nature as the students did not have opportunity to develop their thinking after the assessment. Lyn, by contrast, practiced peer feedback and executed the learning intentions and criteria of success while work was in progress, meaning the students had opportunities to develop their productive skills to their desired standard and close the gap (Sadler, 1989). The criteria were a predetermined checklist to be ticked off by both Debra and Jane. As the unit progressed, Lyn was the only teacher who talked often about the pre specified criteria and their individual criteria. As Sadler

(1989) argues, assessment is only formative as long as there is flexible development of criteria being translated for students benefit and learning.

Outcome and efficacy expectations about students and learning

Teachers' beliefs about personal efficacy have strong influence on their individual thoughts and actions. These beliefs provide teachers an avenue to exercise control over their own actions (Pajares, 1996). Self-efficacy that is goal, task and situation specific, refers to the belief in one's capabilities to "organise and execute courses of action required to deal with situations" (Bandura, 1981, p. 200). The differences between teachers in this research became obvious during the analysis of teachers self-reported beliefs (Bandura, 1977), and the efficacy beliefs in this study are my own interpretation. Teachers in this study believed they had the ability and knowledge to provide formative assessment and feedback to support students in learning, and to inform their own teaching. They believed they framed the feedback to move students to their next learning steps. Hattie and Timperley (2007) and Sadler (1998, 2009b) suggest feedback that promotes learning and is effective should contain information for students about where they are heading, how they are achieving, where they need to go next, and how to close their learning gaps. Teachers reported they identified the formative function of feedback by centring it on 'next steps' and in using feedback strategies to ensure improvement in performance.

As discussed in previous chapters, the current conception of formative feedback has radically transformed over recent decades from teacher-centred to student-centred. This transformation has involved the roles of teachers and students in its process. Effective teaching and learning practice has been reconstructed to teachers forging partnerships with students, and bringing students into the assessment process through sharing of learning goals and success criteria (Sadler, 2009b). Consequently promoting the development of self-regulatory skills and behaviour that expands the 'insider' role of students in the process of learning has been vital. As it has been argued in the literature, the current conception of feedback that is formative is challenging and complex (James, 2006; Perrenoud, 1998). Teachers therefore have to actively engage with the underpinning ideas and principles of formative feedback in their practice (James & Pedder, 2006).

Schon (1983) provides an explanation, drawing upon the concept of tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1967). Schon (1987) contends that individuals learn to implement complex performances without being able to articulate descriptions of their actual performance. He argued that often the explanation of complex performance is not only incomplete, it is often inaccurate, as the teachers often attempt to articulate tacitly held

knowledge, but are unable to describe their practices (Kagan, 1992). This may be the case of teachers in this study, as their description of their practice of formative feedback may have been inadequate and inaccurate because they were unable to access the tacitly held knowledge. This is an issue in this study as if teachers are not able to specify which aspects of their feedback are formative, but can distinguish feedback, meaning it could be difficult for them to assess whether or not they are providing feedback that is formative to their learners.

Another possibility is that if teachers felt their knowledge and implementation of formative feedback fell short of the parameters of the current context of teaching of writing, providing information could have been difficult. In an attempt to appear professional and protect their self-image and self-esteem, teachers may have intentionally or subconsciously preferred to keep their knowledge private to avoid emotional distress or embarrassment (Miller & Brewer, 2003). Undoubtedly the line of questioning in the interviews aimed at probing teachers' professional knowledge of formative feedback seemed to cause uneasiness. As a result, that facet of formative feedback was not fully explored.

In my research, I found that teachers were selective in taking on the elements of good feedback practice. Based on my observations of the writing lessons and feedback opportunities, there were key differences between the teachers in the amount of teacher/student engagement during the formative assessment and feedback process, and the roles each participant teacher took in the feedback, particularly in the extent to which teachers perceived themselves to be the experts in the formative feedback practice. Teachers' willingness to preserve with the challenges in implementing formative feedback was balanced against self-doubt about their abilities.

Teacher efficacy expectation can differ significantly between teachers (Bandura, 1977). Efficacy expectation can be limited to task related goals, while others may expect complex tasks of themselves. While teachers in this study believed they utilised feedback to support learning, there was a significant difference among the teachers. This was observed in the way to which they articulated and shared learning goals with students, something that was challenging to teachers, especially when negotiating the notion of roles and boundaries in the teaching and learning of writing. An example is the requirement of student-centred learning that requires teachers to promote self-regulating and autonomous learning through developing of self-regulatory skills is significantly more challenging to achieve. Teachers should be in a position of sharing power and control with the students in their learning and assessment process (James & Pedder, 2006).

As for two teachers, Debra and Jane, their efficacy expectations were limited to sharing the learning intentions and success criteria with the students. They did not have any other expectation from their students, given their view that fostering students in developing their evaluative and productive skills was problematic due to their beliefs about students' ability. Although they recognised and shared the goals of learning with their students, they were far less sure of their ability to foster students' self-regulatory skills and autonomy in learning. As a result, they did not expect students to be able to embark on peer or self-assess strategies during their written work, an important aspect of assessment for learning that emphasises the role of students in the teaching and learning process. This expectation was more extensive with one teacher, Lyn, as she recognised the need to promote the active involvement of the students in the process of formative feedback, as she was confident in her competence with regard to the process of including the students as insiders in the assessment and learning process.

Teachers' efficacy expectation about students and learning not only was distinctive to their classroom practice, but also in the aspect of strength (Bandura, 1977), and influence, determination, persistence and effort of teachers when faced by challenges. In my research, I found differences in the strengths of teacher efficacy expectations. Debra and Jane's interpretation of their mastery seemed to weaken when they were faced by challenges. As Bandura (1977) described, weak expectancies are easily extinguishable by experiences that do not conform to individual expectation, whereas strong expectations will persevere when faced with challenges and try to cope. This was significant both in Debra and Jane's expectations of their students' involvement in the formative assessment and feedback strategies of peer and self-assessment. Students' reactions, skills and language proficiency were seen as a significant hindrance in regards to achieving greater student involvement at various stages of the feedback process. They felt it was challenging to involve students in the development and co-construction of the learning intentions and criteria of success. In facing challenges and resistance from students due to behavioural issues and language barriers, they reduced their effort in involving students in the process. As a result they resorted to going back to an easier practice of creating the criteria for the students themselves, although it was against the appropriate formative feedback practice and students did not benefit fully by becoming insiders in the assessment process.

Lyn's mastery experience was a bit different, as she had school and collegial support. She did not voice any uncertainty on students' involvement in the process of formative assessment and strategies. Her description of formative feedback practices revealed that her expectation of students did not diminish during the teaching and learning process or the enactment of formative assessment and feedback strategies

such as peer and self-assessment. Lyn was confident about the students' ability in mastering the skills, and maintained that increased support would see successful attainment. Moreover the belief that effort on her part and students working in partnership would eventually lead to students' success and was not a difficult to overcome if students were struggling. In contrast, Debra and Jane felt that deploying a formative assessment and feedback process involving students, and moving towards student-centred learning was a difficult obstacle to overcome unless the students improved their language proficiency.

Self-doubt in the teaching process

The early conception of masterful performance is seldom interpreted into action during first attempt. This attempt will often be encountered by obstacles that in return will generate self-doubt (Bandura, 1989). It is therefore the individual response to this self-doubt that is critical. In my observations, Debra encountered difficulties introducing a new topic and thought incorporating sharing the goals of learning was easy. However during her course of action, she encountered difficulties, and the reaction of her students made her self-doubt and think of changing her way of teaching. She made references to the fact that she was still learning about the process of formative assessment and feedback strategies in interview, therefore indicating that it was natural for challenges to occur in her classroom during the teaching and learning process. As a result, she reported she would have to try new ways to overcome her obstacle, as she clearly questioned her capabilities in implementing the formative feedback strategies.

Jane on the other hand seemed to reflect that her years of teaching experience helped her overcome self-doubt, and was motivated to try to implement new strategies that she came up with herself when she paired them during the writing and as a formative feedback strategy to help the L2 students. Questioning themselves and self-doubt became challenges in teaching and learning progression and prevented Debra and Jane to move forward. Additionally, their perception of students working towards their learning goals either weakened or strengthened their attempt towards mastery in the enactment of formative feedback strategies. This in turn seemed to be connected to their beliefs about their choice of selected actions and their desired effects upon teaching and learning.

The implementation of formative feedback strategies was stronger and more resilient with Lyn and Jane's self-efficacy, specifically Jane's L1 students. This echoes Locke & Latham's (1990) statement that teachers with strong self-efficacy set higher goals and challenges. They are open to new ideas, and willing to explore new

approaches (Tschnnen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001) and become vigorous in pursuing success. Challenges are perceived as a learning curve and motivations to learn. This was not the case with Debra, as she did not show self-doubt in regards to difficult aspects of formative feedback but kept trying to implement what she knew. This is consistent with Linnenbrink and Pintrich's (2003) notion of calibration, the match concerning self-efficacy judgements and actual performance. It would appear Debra over-estimated her capabilities and had still some journey to go in implementing formative assessment and feedback strategies with a student centred approach.

Beliefs are not only about individual self but about their surroundings, and the world they live in, particularly teaching. Teachers hold a numerous educational beliefs that exist in many forms to understand the world of teaching, to create understanding and meaning. Teacher beliefs are exemplified in many ways, in their expectation of their students, and their view of teaching and learning. This is particularly significant in the findings of this study, as all three teachers had their own beliefs about formative assessment and feedback, from the uptake to enactment, and how it affected learning.

Chapter Summary

Sadler's (1989) theorisation of formative assessment and feedback clearly indicates the need for feedback in closing the gap between the current versus the desired performance. The findings of this study extends research on formative assessment and feedback among teachers in classrooms with students of diverse abilities and linguistic proficiency, varied professional learning and development experience, different amounts of collegial support and distinctive school settings. The study found that the interplay of teachers' beliefs, knowledge and skills in the formative assessment and feedback (re)creates the teachers and students role(s) and (re)positions the formative assessment and feedback process to fit their classroom settings. The (re)creation of students role(s) according to teachers conception of what is applicable in their own classroom setting and based on teachers understandings, knowledge and skills of students and pedagogical knowledge.

These findings on formative assessment and feedback on the teaching of writing in the primary classroom support the idea that teachers are aware of the importance of effective formative feedback, particularly teachers' and students' roles in the formative assessment practice of setting learning goals/intentions in order to close the gap between the current and desired performance, and facilitating students becoming insiders in their learning through formative feedback. However, the differences between the teachers' conceptions and practices revealed a lack of knowledge about how to conduct formative assessment to sustain long-term learning, a

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significant requirement for effective formative assessment practices. This indicates a necessity for teachers to address issues pertaining to empowerment, and autonomous and self-regulating learning. Teachers need to identify and assert issues with students roles in the assessment practice and assess their own constructs of learning goals/standards and success criteria, in order to facilitate student involvement and engagement in their learning, thus increasing students peer and self-assessment abilities.

The findings of this study extend the findings of research on formative assessment and feedback through investigating the influence of teachers' beliefs and their teaching practice, where similar findings show that teachers are influenced by their own perceptions and classroom settings and at times their professional learning and development experiences. In conclusion, teachers' knowledge and skills in the accurate use of formative assessment and feedback through support from professional learning and development, their schools and collegial settings is the hallmark of effective formative assessment and feedback practice in the diverse New Zealand primary school context. In New Zealand, where both individual and group learning process are important, the emphasis of peer and self- assessment has some way to go as the teachers find diverse student ability and linguistic proficiency challenging in the enactment of the specific formative assessment and feedback process.

The examination of teacher's beliefs and the influence of these beliefs in teachers understanding and practice highlight the need for significant scholarly attention on the aptitude of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on their formative assessment and feedback practice. The traditional approach of teacher-centred teaching, with teacher as expert controlling the learning, was still prevalent in their classroom practices such as Debra and Jane's classrooms. Students did not become insiders in the process and instead were consumers of the feedback information (Sadler, 1989; 2009b). While the teachers reported that their beliefs were that feedback should be formative in nature, they still struggled and found including students into the assessment process challenging. They regarded students as outsiders with limited ability to understand and embrace both peer and self-assessment to become autonomous learners. Moreover, their strong beliefs, arguably inaccurate, limited their progress towards fully embracing effective the formative assessment and feedback strategies that helped to enhance learning.

Although teachers at times tried to discard aspects of traditional feedback, a considerable amount of their practice still aligned with the traditional approach of teacher as expert, strongly observed in both Debra and Jane's classrooms and teaching of writing. As a result, developing partnerships with the students, and giving them

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greater control over their learning in certain areas of feedback, such as peer and self-assessment, was a struggle and created tensions between their beliefs and practices. Jane seemed to be negotiating her beliefs and ability to establish the best feedback practice for her students between her L1 and l2 students and their differences in proficiency. Her struggle in understanding the different needs of the students resulted in juggling between traditional and current expectations of good and effective feedback practice.

Lyn was the teacher closest to mastering the inculcation of formative assessment and feedback strategies into her classroom. Her beliefs about the role of teachers, and making students insiders in the assessment process, were influenced by the school writing and assessment process, which helped her assimilate good formative feedback strategies. Her beliefs about effective formative were embedded into her practice. Lyn's beliefs enabled her to think and act in ways that encouraged student involvement in the process. She displayed willingness to forge partnerships with students to become active participants in their learning, able to monitor and self-regulate their learning that led to them becoming autonomous learners. She provided opportunities for students to practice their evaluative and productive skills in an authentic setting. She not only gave students' knowledge and skills, but was able to make her lessons student-centred (Sadler, 1989). The tenacity in which she resolved to keep learning student-centred was a strong indicator of her movement towards gaining mastery, facing and overcoming obstacles during the uptake and enactment of formative assessment and feedback strategies.

CHAPTER EIGHT:

Conclusion

Introduction

In this chapter, I present the summary of my research findings and the pedagogical and instructional implications that arose from them. Next I discuss the limitation of the study and posit recommendations for future research. I end this chapter with a concluding statement. Central to this research has been an understanding of teachers' beliefs and conception with the formative feedback.

Summary of Research

In Chapter Two, the review of literature, I explained that assessment in education has gone through significant changes since the late 70s, significantly a reconceptualization of assessment from serving as evaluation into something formative in nature. Since then, both understanding and implementation of new feedback practices have been complex and challenging for teachers (James, 2006; Perrenoud, 1998; Shepard, 2005). The core differences have been in the role teachers and students play, the nature and purpose of feedback and its role in teaching and learning. Sadler's (1989) argument is that in order for feedback to be formative, students' involvement in the process through understanding their learning goals and engagement in strategies that will close gaps in their learning achievements (Black & Wiliam, 1998b; Boud, 2000; Hattie & Timperly, 2007; Nicol & MacFarlane-Dick, 2006). In New Zealand, teachers have been encouraged to share learning goals with students (Ministry of Education, 2007a) through student friendly language in learning intentions and success criteria (Clarke et al., 2003).

An in-depth study of primary teachers' understanding of formative feedback in relation to their practices is therefore significant. This research aimed to explore three primary teachers' beliefs about and practices of formative assessment and feedback. The literature review located my study within the qualitative paradigm, as it was my aim to get the breadth and depth of the research through interviews and observations to answer the two research questions formed:

1. What beliefs do teachers hold about formative feedback in the writing classroom?

2. How do primary teachers provide formative assessment and feedback to their students during the writing lessons?

Qualitative multiple case studies were used to investigate three primary teachers' conceptions of effective formative feedback practice, and the role it played in their classroom practice. This study thus adds to the existing research in the field of formative assessment and feedback, by complementing studies that use questionnaires and surveys as a self-report instrument. Three primary teachers' beliefs and understandings of formative assessment and feedback, factors that influenced their beliefs and their formative assessment and feedback strategies were explored. The primary data sources were interviews with the teachers that were carried out over the period of one writing unit. The observations, field notes and documents were secondary data sources and helped gain insight into teachers' implementation of formative assessment and feedback strategies. Each participant teacher's formative assessment and feedback beliefs and strategies were interpreted through Sadler's (1989) theoretical framework for formative assessment and feedback. Sadler's theorisation of formative feedback brings students into the assessment process, and closer to understanding the teachers' guild knowledge and through self and peer assessment help gain evaluative and productive knowledge. As a result, students would ideally be able to self-monitor their progress. The conclusions of this study arose from analysis of the individual cases and cross-case analysis.

Summary of Research Findings

This study reflects three important areas of complication for implanting formative assessment: firstly there were significant differences among teachers when they reported their understanding of formative feedback was and how they practiced it in their writing classroom. Secondly, these differences can be understood in terms of teachers' contexts, for example school-specific writing programmes, collegial support and interaction, students' ability, and each teacher's professional development and learning experiences. Lastly, emphasis on and implementation of formative assessment and feedback may be limited, due to the influence of teachers' pedagogical knowledge and skills.

My findings revealed that the teachers in this study were aware of and believed in feedback that is formative, using the terms consistent with contemporary literature on feedback directed towards enhancing student learning. They highlighted the need to ascertain students' current performance, and to identify where they should be heading, and understood that feedback could benefit students in their learning. This emphasized

the formative function of feedback. It was clear that these teachers' beliefs about assessment, teaching and learning played a significant role in their enactment of formative feedback processes in their classrooms.

Additionally, however, teachers had incomplete conceptualisations of the role of formative assessment and feedback, learning intentions or success criteria of, and how they should be framed as part of formative feedback. As a result of teachers' behaviourist beliefs, learning intentions and criteria shared by the teachers failed to meet the standards of good feedback practice at times. The implication of this finding is that feedback strategies in some New Zealand classrooms do not apprentice students into becoming active participants in their learning, resulting in students being passive consumers of feedback.

Criteria only function as part of formative feedback when they contain information of expected quality, supported by exemplars to provide students access into the 'guild' knowledge of the teacher, and encourage student engagement in self-monitoring and self-regulatory behaviour. My findings indicate that teachers do share learning intentions and success criteria, but do so on their own terms, giving little consideration to the quality of the learning intentions and criteria as a means of sharing guild knowledge with their students. This study highlights the importance of teachers framing learning intentions and success criteria as part of a discussion, if their practice is to become formative in nature, rather than merely instructive. Again, this might best be achieved through a comprehensive and nationwide approach to professional development.

Sadler (1989) argued that self and peer-assessment are authentic ways students can acquire evaluative and productive expertise in making judgements during working progress. The practice is of little value unless teachers build an understanding of this process with them. Teachers may still have a distance to go to understand the potential of implementing effective self and peer-assessment. Teachers may still incorporate practices into their classroom without fully understanding the principles of such practices (James & Pedder, 2006). If students are to meet the second and third of Sadler's conditions for effective feedback, a pre-requisite of evaluative and productive knowledge and skills, teachers will need to allocate time to learning and practising the process of peer and self-assessment in the classroom.

Despite the conclusion that teachers' beliefs have been influential in their interpretation and enactment of formative feedback, this study, like others, has highlighted the complex interplay between beliefs and practice. Certain pervasive aspects influence teachers' thinking and action, and findings in this study strongly

suggest that these teachers were caught in a paradigm shift between behaviourist and socio-cultural approaches to teaching and learning. This may have come about because teachers were trained under a behaviourist paradigm, while current educational reform advocates for student-centred, facilitative teaching and learning which reflect a socio-cultural understanding of learning. It appears that teachers may still be influenced by behaviourist analytical approaches that perceive feedback to be a matter of making judgements (Torrance & Pryor, 1998).

The complex interplay between belief and practice corroborated in this study reflects Fang's (1996) consistency versus inconsistency theory. At times, teachers' espoused beliefs had a high amount of consistency with their classroom practice. At other times, unconscious beliefs about both student empowerment, and about how to implement formative assessment influenced teachers' practice in a manner inconsistent with their espoused beliefs. This may have resulted from the teachers' incomplete understanding of the purposes of feedback in the formative assessment process. The conclusion of this study is that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices should not be underestimated. In fact, this interplay should be investigated further, as it will likely reveal important indicators of the specific (and powerful) ways teachers' knowledge indirectly influences students' learning outcomes.

Implications

This study indicates that not all teachers may have a complete understanding of what formative feedback means in classroom practice (Sadler, 1998). Therefore, serious consideration has to be given to the gap in teachers' understanding and knowledge, and their practice. In the following section, significant attention is paid to some of the findings from the study. The implications of the study are considered in relation to the formative assessment practice and teacher professional development. The significance of the findings is left to the reader, as the nature of this study is small-scale, and as I have noted, while cross-case analysis is intended to suggest broader implications, total generalisation is both difficult and ill-advised.

Teachers' formative assessment and feedback practice

It has been widely accepted that formative feedback is effective when students hold the concept of quality as similar to teacher through sharing of 'guild knowledge'. Sadler's (1989) argument is that students then possess the concept of standards/goals to close the gap between their current performance and their desired performance and engage in activities to close the gap. This concept has been accepted by other scholars (Buhagiar, 2007; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Nicol & MacFarlane-Dick, 2006). Policy

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makers have promoted the concept and teachers have been encouraged to promote similar strategies in their classrooms. For example, teachers in New Zealand are encouraged to share learning goals with students (Ministry of Education, 2007b, 2010a), in the form of learning intentions and success criteria (Clarke et al., 2003). As the findings of this study revealed, all three teachers understood this, and planned the notion of learning goals/intentions and success criteria for their students. They believed it was an important element to be incorporated into their classroom practice. These learning goals/intentions and success criteria became a reference point of their feedback. However, this seemed a challenge for teachers as their feedback was often in reference to the pre-specified criteria and not responsive to the writing process, thus missing significant teachable moments. Teachers believed good formative feedback practice related to feedback on students' success criteria. As a result, teachers failed to recognise that good formative assessment and feedback practice encourages teachers to utilise both manifest and latent criteria that emerge during the teaching and learning process. This was prevalent in Lyn's classroom but both Debra and Jane failed to understand and use these criteria to enhance students learning.

Thus, it is argued that teacher had inadequate knowledge and conceptualisation of formative assessment and feedback in regards to criteria and closing the gap (Sadler, 1989). The teachers had yet to gain full understanding of latent criteria in their formative feedback practice. Little attention has been given to this aspect of Sadler's theory, and the findings of this study indicate a need to address this 'gap' in teachers. Sadler's concept of 'closing the gap' should be undertaken, but this time with focus on teachers, who through targeted professional development might be helped to understand and adopt good formative feedback practice. Teachers in this study, had inadequate conceptualisations of learning goals and intentions and success criteria, and struggled with framing feedback in a formative manner. As a result, Debra and Jane often resorted to the action of 'telling' as their feedback. Teachers were unable to provide formative feedback on the planned learning intentions and success criteria for their students, thus the criteria of closing the gap between the current and desired performances fell short of good formative feedback strategy. In order for formative assessment to be effective, teachers need to plan the goals of teaching to fit the goals of students' learning, and be made aware of two distinctive types of assessment and feedback, convergent and divergent (Torrance & Pryor, 1998).

Although teachers planned the criteria for students, their significance in learning is observed when the feedback contains essential information to students on the expected quality. This information alone does not show good formative feedback if it is not supported by exemplars, informative of quality through teachers sharing of

guild knowledge with students, and students' engagement in self-regulatory exercise. In these findings, teachers have placed significant importance to sharing learning intentions and success criteria (as reported in their interviews), with exception of Lyn, who gave significant thought to the process with her students throughout her teaching practice. Debra and Jane held the notion of quality tacitly, thus while they did provide feedback based on learning intentions and success criteria, students lacked insider knowledge of the quality, and took on the feedback as providing them with the correct structure and answers. While it is impossible for all teachers to provide similar formative feedback practice, quality in relation to learning intentions and success criteria should become a point of reference of their feedback. Significant attention should be paid to how it may be utilised in the teaching and learning process, specifically regarding creating awareness within learners about the identification of quality.

Peer and self-assessment are two formative assessment and feedback strategies that Sadler (1989, 2009b) has argued create authentic experiences for students to attain evaluative and productive skills to make qualitative judgements on their work during learning. Yet, as the findings revealed not all teachers were in favour of the practice. Some teachers believed that the practice was only reserved for native L1 students who had higher linguistic ability, thus the practice of peer and self-assessment was the least utilised strategy in the classroom. Teachers were unwilling to share their guild knowledge with students they deemed has lower proficiency or ability in the process. As a result of teachers' beliefs and the limited value that teachers placed on peer and self-assessment, students were unable to develop their evaluative and productive knowledge and expertise. Teachers in this study also struggled to make explicit the expected quality of learning to students; although students were observed participating in peer and self-assessment, the full concept of formative practice was only observed in Lyn's classroom. As Sadler (1989) argues, for peer and self-assessment to be successful, and students reach their potential in learning, teachers need to re-educate both teachers and students minds and recognize students as insiders. Teachers need to accept students are capable of making qualitative judgements if the necessary tools were provided and a culture of shared learning practices is developed in the classroom. This is in contrast to a behaviourist understanding of student learning, but central to formative assessment.

The findings from this study revealed many instances where teachers incorporated formative assessment and feedback strategies into their teaching, or utilising effective strategies to move students forward in their learning to the 'next learning steps'. However findings revealed that teachers' conception of formative

assessment practices often did not include teachers' fully understanding the principles or strategies underpinning good and effective practice (James, 2008). These findings indicate that formative assessment is neither fully understood nor implemented by teachers, irrespective of their own learning experience as pre-service and in-service teachers (Dixon et al., 2011; Marshall & Drummond, 2006).

School's support

Teachers in this study were supported by distinctly different school-driven initiatives to help teachers gain the skill in teaching of writing. As noted, if students are to become active participants in their learning, teachers need sustained opportunities and support to reflect on their practice and share their experience, especially about students' ability/disability further to their own classrooms. One concern is that not all teachers have been introduced to formative feedback practice or had their existing lesson planning and implementation monitored or supported. Findings from this study indicate that teachers need continuous collegial support through discussions, syndicates meeting and opportunities to widen their experience, significantly in their planning, choices of teaching materials, and awareness of students' ability/disability.

Although collegial support by itself does not strengthen teachers' understanding of formative feedback, skill development and encouragement toward reflection on practices enables teachers to examine and alter their beliefs and teaching practices toward more effective practice (Desimone, et al., 2002). My study has highlighted how teachers' writing practice is distinctive in their contextual settings, indirectly influencing the opportunities to practice the process approach in teaching of writing and creating feedback opportunities for students. In fact, teachers in the study consistently believed they did not have knowledge or access to information on the teaching of writing, with only one teacher reporting having the support of a school writing practice. These findings underscore the importance of getting teachers into the process of deciding the knowledge and skills they want and need, through peer interactions and strong collegial support.

Teacher professional development

A range of professional development programmes (such as AToL) are available to New Zealand teachers. However, not all teachers are able to embrace all the professional learning and development programmes available; schools are free to choose the PD they want their teachers to attend, and also select the providers. Ad hoc professional development allows classrooms to become a 'black box' of information,

where teachers practise their own interpretations of how writing should be taught and how best to provide formative assessment.

The scope of this study included the effects of teacher engagement in professional development on their feedback related beliefs, understanding and practices, and revealed that teachers may believe they have not had access to PD with a focus on assessment or teaching of writing. Therefore, the findings of this study may be of interest to those who are responsible for assessment related teacher PD, in that it reveals a gap in teachers' professional learning which may also exist in other primary schools.

My study, like other studies, has highlighted how both teacher practice and also teacher belief may be influenced by PD. Teachers' teaching of writing was influenced by the type of PD they attended and this had an effect on the specific approaches they used such as graphic organisers, modelling, the influence of students' L1 and L2 and the use of video to gain further insight into feedback strategies. This indication that PD does have the power to change teachers' beliefs and practices is a further incentive to engage teachers in professional learning about formative assessment.

As PD for teachers on formative assessment and feedback and teaching of writing has been available for teachers for many years, this study suggests that there has been a negative impact from schools having the freedom to choose their PD, especially in that it appears that not all primary school teachers have been exposed to the same new learning. Although PD is not a quick fix that immediately improves teachers' existing knowledge and practice (Black & Wiliam, 2004), it can enhance teachers' knowledge and confidence to use this knowledge in a changing educational environment (Glasswell et al., 2003; Torrance 2007). This study, like others conducted through questionnaire, suggests that teachers need more knowledge about the teaching of writing (Parr & Timperley, 2010). Certain innovations and knowledge introduced through PD have fallen short in making significant changes, which may result from the fact that primary schools in New Zealand set and develop their own targets for performance (Brown, 2004). The results of this study suggest that such a model does not offer equal opportunities for all primary teachers to gain from educational innovations (Ladd & Fiske, 2001).

PD on formative assessment and feedback may not have an immediate effect on teachers' practices. It is not a matter of knowledge of a set of strategies being picked up by teachers and implemented into the classroom with little other adjustment made (James & Pedder, 2006). Teachers engaged in PD need continuous support and opportunities to reflect on their practice and examine how outmoded ideas and

assumptions can be transformed to meet the current practice (Broadfoot, 2001; Shepard, 2008). Furthermore if teachers want to make students active participants in the process of learning, attention has to be paid to developing teachers' knowledge, understanding and skills in utilising feedback that is formative and fostering self-monitoring and self-regulatory behaviour.

As discussed in Chapter Seven, teachers' espoused beliefs and tacitly held beliefs were influential on their practice of formative assessment and feedback. Teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning have received little attention in the rush to implement new innovation and strategies into classroom practice. Therefore, it is important for those who run PD programmes encourage teachers to examine their deep-seated beliefs (James & Pedder, 2006). The enactment of PD, while it is a gradual and challenging process (Guskey, 2002), is acknowledged to some extent to have influence on teachers' changing practice. PD programmes must pay attention in helping teachers gain skill in including students in the process.

Limitations of the study

Sadler's (1989) proposed theorisation of formative assessment and feedback is an attempt to offer a broader perspective on effective formative assessment and feedback practice that involves students as insiders in the process of teaching and learning. He argues that traditional feedback practice emphasized teachers as having the main role in the implementation of good feedback practice. According to him, research on formative assessment has often put teachers into the spotlight, however the focus on teachers' judgement should be concerned with more than just the presence or absence of criteria and attention paid to students. He argues that formative assessment and feedback works in any context, provided there is a teacher/student partnership and interaction in the learning process.

Although Sadler's (1989) theory was consistent with effective formative feedback, the 'closing the gaps' concepts has been inferred as too limited to account for the effectiveness of feedback (Gibbs & Simpson, 2004). These findings address the need to reposition formative assessment and feedback within a wider framework that consists of self-regulation theories, as well as behavioural and cognitive theories of learning. Formative feedback, for example, involves students becoming 'insiders' to their learning, actively taking control of their learning (behaviour) and learning to monitor their own learning through self-regulations, eventually becoming autonomous (self-regulation). Sadler's (1989) formative assessment and feedback encompassed all strategies undertaken by teachers and students to modify both teaching and learning in closing the gap, through peer and self-assessment, learning goals/intentions, and

attainment. It is therefore difficult to ascertain the *specific* strategy by which to conduct formative assessment and feedback in a manner that attributed learning and attainment to students, as according to all three teachers' students had successfully completed their task.

As a small-scale qualitative inquiry, rather than focussing on reliability of the findings, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest discerning the dependability and consistency of the findings. This involves the audit trail as discussed earlier to augment the trustworthiness of my study (Rosman and Rallis, 2012). As discussed in the previous sections, the aim of my research was not to generalise the findings and provide conclusions, but on exploring the complexity of formative assessment and feedback within one the writing lesson. So while my study identifies some significant insights into the primary classroom during the teaching of writing, particularly with regard to how teachers' beliefs influence the uptake and enactment of formative assessment and feedback practices, it has a number of limitations. For example, the utilisation of Sadler's (1989) theoretical framework was constrained by my inability to explore the link between socio-cultural aspects, professional learning and development of teachers, and their planning, or their conferencing with students for the identification of students' current level of proficiency according to teachers' perceptions of standards. To enable such connections and links to be explored, more research and further commitment from teachers would be required. In the next section, I propose further research and exploration within this area, which could form a significant to the contribution to field of research on formative assessment and feedback.

Another limitation is this research arose from the inability to report in–depth on the influence of teachers' selected formative assessment and feedback strategies on students' efficacy beliefs, motivation and achievement. It is very likely that these aspects are significant to students' achievement, and to their involvement in the assessment and feedback process (Ashwell, 2000; Askew & Lodge, 2000), that teachers' beliefs and practices were the focus of my study eliminated the prospects of collecting data from students. Therefore further research focussing on how students' efficacy beliefs, motivation and achievement influence them in uptake of formative feedback from teachers would be a valuable contribution for future research.

Future Research Directions

This study aimed to provide a rich description of teacher's beliefs, understanding, and formative feedback practice. As it was explained in Chapter 3, deliberate decisions to not include students' perception of the feedback process was

highlighted in the methodology, as this study was aimed at understanding teacher beliefs and practice. As other studies have noted (Broadfoot, 2001; Cowie, 2005), while the role of students have been given importance theoretically, a student perspective has been absent from the research agenda. Evidence from this study suggests that it may be challenging to teach students to become active participants in assessment or take on a role that provides them with opportunities to build their evaluative and productive knowledge. Therefore, an investigation into students' perceptions of formative feedback and their role within it would make a further contribution to the field of research regarding assessment, and would complement this study.

There have been calls to investigate the assessment process in the classroom in detail (Peddie, 2000), and to some extent this been researched overseas, and an increase of studies reporting the practice of feedback can be found (Black et al., 2003; Marshall & Drummond, 2006). However, research studies in New Zealand have been both limited and small scale (Knight, 2003; Hawe et al., 2008); therefore there is a need for more qualitative studies detailing New Zealand primary teachers' formative feedback practices within a range of different contexts, professional development histories and student settings. Further study on gender, ethnicity, immigration status, and linguistic differences in the formative assessment and feedback process could be conducted. There is also a need for further research on teachers' understanding of learning goals, learning intentions and criteria for success and the role they play in the feedback practice, and how teachers and students make use of them to make decisions about teaching and learning. This might include teachers' use of exemplars in developing students' evaluative and productive knowledge and feedback skills.

Findings from this study substantiated previously made claims about the relationship between teacher beliefs and practice as complex and challenging. Teachers' beliefs were influential in regards to their teaching and learning, and enactment of feedback practices in their classroom. It was beyond the scope of this study to investigate teachers' learning experience, all of their professional learning and development experience, and their family and cultural background in depth. Research that looked into these aspects would make valuable contributions to the field of formative assessment and feedback.

As I have acknowledged in Chapter 3, no one research paradigm is better than another, nor will it be able to solve all problems. The strength of qualitative, interpretive research is its ability to provide rich description of the phenomenon it investigates, especially from the perspective of the participants (Creswell, 2009). However the weakness of the qualitative research is its lack of generalizability. I acknowledge that utilising a quantitative approach to investigate teacher's formative

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feedback beliefs, understanding and practices would afford complementary information. Survey questionnaires, like those utilised by Brown (2004) or James and Pedder (2006) focussed on formative feedback beliefs and practices, could be administered to a larger sample of primary teachers across New Zealand, hence extending the scope and breadth of understanding. This would allow generalisation to a wider cross-section of the population.

Contribution of the Current Research

There have been calls for continued contribution to the field of formative assessment practice (Black & Wiliam, 2006, Sadler, 2010; Torrance & Pryor, 1998), though in all cases these calls have accepted the problems inherent to investigating teacher practice within the classroom setting. This study responds to calls for contributions to knowledge of formative feedback and feedback-related beliefs of teachers and their practices. A significant contribution of this research is its rich and detailed description of teachers' classroom practices, which has hopefully highlighted the complexity of the enactment of formative assessment and feedback. In-depth studies of the teachers in their contexts illustrate the fact that teachers' experiences and knowledge about the teaching and learning of writing do not completely fit with the current philosophy of teaching and learning.

This is significant for practising teachers who may be exploring alternative methods of effective assessment process. The three interviewed teachers provide important insights into how teachers are caught in a paradigm shift, and acknowledge that more information and skills may be needed to deal with their dynamic and changing classrooms, specifically the diverse classroom and teaching multilevel or multi-age classrooms. Within the primary school setting, little attention has been paid to these facets of teachers' practices, even though New Zealand classrooms are becoming increasingly multicultural.

My research and analysis makes a valuable contribution to the field of assessment and feedback, with respect to identifying a gap between teachers' understanding about formative assessment and feedback when compared to the three conditions for effective feedback laid out by Sadler (1989). It draws attention to teachers' limited understandings of students' ability and linguistic proficiency, noting that it often restricted them in fully utilising the formative assessment strategies in the classroom. Teachers' beliefs and assumptions about the linguistic proficiency of their students influenced the selection formative feedback strategies such self and peer-assessment.

Concluding Statement

My research has shown that teachers espouse beliefs about formative feedback that are incomplete. While I found that teachers' reported beliefs about their practice had some similarities, the way those beliefs were enacted into practice showed considerable variation. These variations were not only affected by teachers' stated beliefs, but by those beliefs they held tacitly. It is apparent that feedback that is formative cannot be enacted into classroom practice without making changes to teachers' beliefs. It is therefore important to reflect on the embedded beliefs that influence teachers' teaching and learning practice if the three conditions of effective feedback are to be met. Most importantly, teachers need professional support if they are to acquire and use this knowledge.

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Appendices

Appendix A:

Research information Sheets and Consent Forms

Appendix A1: Research information sheet: School principal

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
Te Whare Wananga o te Upoko o te Ika a Maui

Prema Shoba Perumanathan
PhD candidate
c/o Postgraduate Office
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
PO Box 17-310
Karori, Wellington
Ph (04) 463 5233 ext. 9852 (wk)
Ph (04) 938 7799 (hm)
Cell: 021 026 57078
E-mail: shoba.perumanathan@vuw.ac.nz
Date: 20th May 2010

Dear .....

Title of project: Teachers' beliefs and formative feedback practices in New Zealand primary classrooms.

Researcher: Prema Shoba Perumanathan, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington

Research Information Sheet: School Principal

I am studying for a PhD in Education at Victoria University of Wellington. As part of this degree, I am undertaking research in the area of teacher feedback to a linguistically diverse class. My PhD research is supervised by Dr. Lex McDonald and Margaret Gleeson, both at the Faculty of Education, Victoria University. The Victoria University Faculty of Education subcommittee of the Research and Human Ethics Committees have assessed approved my research (SEPP/2010/04:RM17267).

This research aims to investigate how feedback is conceptualised and implemented by teachers. Specifically the proposed investigation will seek answers to the following questions:

1. What beliefs do teachers hold about formative feedback in the writing classroom?"

2. How do primary teachers provide formative assessment and feedback to their students during the writing lessons?

More specifically, the research pursued to answer the following questions:
- What beliefs and knowledge do teachers hold about formative feedback in teaching of writing?
- Is feedback connected to setting of goals, learning intentions and success criteria by teachers?

- When and how do teachers inculcate feedback into their writing lessons?
- What formative assessment feedback strategies are utilised the most during the writing lessons?
- What roles do teachers take on during the feedback sessions?
- Do teachers hold different beliefs and conceptions of feedback?
- How do teachers' beliefs influence and impact their formative feedback strategies?
- If there are differences in teachers' beliefs and practices in providing feedback, how can those dissimilarities are explained?

This research aims to provide greater understanding of feedback, and understanding feedback and feedback strategies in linguistically diverse classrooms in New Zealand. This includes exploring the teachers' beliefs towards oral and written feedback to students. It also looks at their classroom practices in writing, in particular an examination of their written feedback practices in students' written drafts. The study will also include analysing the teaching materials. I would like to invite your school, as one of four case study primary schools in New Zealand to participate in this research. Your school has been invited as a result of the diversity of the student population.

If you are interested in your school being involved in the project I would like to invite you to complete the consent form and return this to me in the stamped addressed envelope provided. I would like permission to approach and would seek your advice on which Year 4 teacher(s) are the most appropriate for me to invite to participate in this project. I will provide the teachers with the information sheets, consent forms and stamped addressed envelope. In the event of more than one teacher wishing to be involved, I will use the first come first chosen basis of selection.

The teacher volunteer in this project by your school will be interviewed and classroom observations will be carried out. The interview would take 60-90 minutes and would be held at the time and place of the teacher's convenience. If the teacher agrees, I would like to audio tape the interview. Interviews will be transcribed and the transcriber asked to sign a confidentiality agreement. A transcript of the interview will be sent as soon after the interview as possible for verification, addition, deletion and/or amendment by the teacher.

The phase two of the research will involve:
- Three to five classroom observations taken over the course of March to July 2010. Each observation would involve me, as the researcher, observing the teacher teaching for approximately 45-60 minutes. The focus of the observation will be on aspects of feedback practices as outlined above. During the observation, I would seek permission to take written field notes about the teacher's feedback practices.
- A follow-up interview after each classroom observation will be conducted using stimulated recall method (the technique of playing back video recordings to participants and ask them to report and reflect their practices). Each interview will take approximately 30-45 minutes.

The information gathered from the interviews will be analysed and reported around common themes. All names of schools, teachers and students in this research will remain confidential to the researcher (and her supervisors). Your school will not be named in the final reports (unless you request otherwise) and will be given pseudonym. All data collected in this research will be stored with care to protect the confidentiality of participants. The information from this research will be published in my PhD thesis and some articles will be submitted for publication in academic journals and conferences.

Parents/ Guardians and students will be fully informed about the nature and the requirements of the research. Following the research, I would like to offer the school a chance to hear the findings and/or an electronic link to the final PhD thesis.

The teacher delegated has the right to withdraw from this study at any time, or withdraw information provided up until two weeks after he/she received a transcript of the interview. Transcripts, consent forms and video tapes will be stored securely for five years by the researcher and then destroyed.

If you require further information about the proposed research project on any of the above points, please do not hesitate of contact me (details above) or my supervisors at Victoria University of Wellington (details below).

I look forward to your reply.

Regards,

Prema Shoba Perumanathan

Supervisors Contact Details

Dr Lex McDonald	Margaret Gleeson
Head of School School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington, PO Box 17-310 Karori, Wellington **Email:** lex.mcdonald@vuw.ac.nz **Phone:** 04 463 **5173**	Lecturer ESOL (S) School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington, PO Box 17-310 Karori, Wellington **Email:** margaret.gleeson@vuw.ac.nz **Phone:** 04 463 **9563**

Appendix A2: Consent of participation form: Principle

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
Te Whare Wananga o te Upoko o te Ika a Maui

Consent to participate in research: Principal

Title of project: Teachers' beliefs and feedback practices to L1 and L2 learners in diverse New Zealand primary classrooms.

Researcher: Prema Shoba Perumanathan, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington

☐   I have been provided adequate information and explanation of the research project. My questions and concerns have been answered to my satisfaction.

☐   I understand that the participation of my school is voluntary. I understand that I can withdraw access to the school site at anytime (before analysis begins) without having to give reasons or without penalty of any sort.

☐   I give consent to the researcher coming onto the school site to undertake three to five classroom observations. The permission has been given voluntarily.

☐   I agree to a parent information sheet and consent form being sent home to parents informing of the project.

☐   I understand that any information provided will be kept confidential to the researcher and the supervisors. The school's name will not be used for publication and conference presentations.

☐   I request a summary of the research findings.

Suggested Year 4 teachers: _____ _____

_____ _____

Name of Principal   : _____

Signed   : _____

Date   : _____

Appendix A3: Research information sheet: Teacher

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
Te Whare Wananga o te Upoko o te Ika a Maui

Prema Shoba Perumanathan
PhD candidate
c/o Postgraduate Office
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
PO Box 17-310
Karori, Wellington
Ph (04) 463 5233 ext 9852 (wk)
Ph (04) 938 7799 (hm)
Cell: 021 026 57078
E-mail: shoba.perumanathan@vuw.ac.nz
Date : 20th May 2010

Dear .....

Title of project: Teachers' beliefs and formative feedback practices in New Zealand primary classrooms.

Researcher: Prema Shoba Perumanathan, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington

Research Information Sheet: Teacher

I am studying for a PhD in Education at Victoria University of Wellington. As part of this degree, I am undertaking research in the area of teacher feedback to a linguistically diverse class. My PhD research is supervised by Dr. Lex McDonald and Margaret Gleeson, both at the Faculty of Education, Victoria University. The Victoria University Faculty of Education subcommittee of the Research and Human Ethics Committees have assessed approved my research (SEPP/2010/04:RM17267).

This research aims to investigate how feedback is conceptualised and implemented by teachers. Specifically the proposed investigation will seek answers to the following questions:

1. What beliefs do teachers hold about formative feedback in the writing classroom?"

2. How do primary teachers provide formative assessment and feedback to their students during the writing lessons?

More specifically, the research pursued to answer the following questions:
- What beliefs and knowledge do teachers hold about formative feedback in teaching of writing?
- Is feedback connected to setting of goals, learning intentions and success criteria by teachers?

- When and how do teachers inculcate feedback into their writing lessons?
- What formative assessment feedback strategies are utilised the most during the writing lessons?
- What roles do teachers take on during the feedback sessions?
- Do teachers hold different beliefs and conceptions of feedback?
- How do teachers' beliefs influence and impact their formative feedback strategies?
- If there are differences in teachers' beliefs and practices in providing feedback, how can those dissimilarities are explained?

If you are interested in being involved in this research I would like to invite you to complete the enclosed consent form and return to me in a stamped addressed envelope provided. If you consent to participate; you will be one of the four case study teachers in the research.

You will be interviewed and classroom observations will be carried out. The interview would take 60-90 minutes and would be held at the time and place of your convenience. If you agree, I would like to audio tape the interview. Interviews will be transcribed and the transcriber asked to sign a confidentiality agreement. A transcript of the interview will be sent as soon after the interview as possible for verification, addition, deletion and/or amendment by you.
The phase two of the research will involve:

- Three to five classroom observations taken over the course of March to July 2010. Each observation would involve me, as the researcher, observing the teacher teaching for approximately 45-60 minutes. The focus of the observation will be on aspects of feedback practices as outlined above. During the observations, I seek permission to take written field notes about your feedback practices.

- A follow-up interview after each classroom observation will be conducted using stimulated recall method (the technique of playing back video recordings to participants and ask them to report and reflect their practices). Each interview will take approximately 30-45 minutes.

The information gathered from the interviews will be analysed and reported around common themes. All names of schools, teachers and students in this research will remain confidential to the researcher (and her supervisors). Your school will not be named in the final reports (unless you request otherwise) and will be given pseudonym. All data collected in this research will be stored with care to protect the confidentiality of participants. The information from this research will be published in my PhD thesis and some articles will be submitted for publication in academic journals and conferences.

You have the right to withdraw from this study at any time, or withdraw information you have provided up until two weeks after you have received a transcript of the interview. Transcripts, consent forms and video tapes will be stored securely for five years by the researcher and then destroyed.

If you require further information about the proposed research project on any of the above points, please do not hesitate of contact me (details above) or my supervisors at Victoria University of Wellington (details below).

I look forward to your reply.

Regards,

Prema Shoba Perumanathan

Supervisors' Contact Details

Dr Lex McDonald	Margaret Gleeson
Head of School School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington, PO Box 17-310 Karori, Wellington **Email:** lex.mcdonald@vuw.ac.nz **Phone:** 04 463 **5173**	Lecturer ESOL (S) School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington, PO Box 17-310 Karori, Wellington **Email:** margaret.gleeson@vuw.ac.nz **Phone:** 04 463 **9563**

Appendix A4: Consent of participation form: Teacher

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
Te Whare Wananga o te Upoko o te Ika a Maui

Title of project: Teachers' beliefs and feedback practices to L1 and L2 learners in diverse New Zealand primary classrooms.

Researcher: Prema Shoba Perumanathan, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington

☐   I have been provided adequate information and explanation of the research project. My questions and concerns have been answered to my satisfaction.

☐   I understand that my participation is voluntary. I understand that I can withdraw (before data analysis begins) without having to give reasons or without penalty of any sort.

☐   I give consent to the researcher coming into the classroom to undertake three to five classroom observations. The permission has been given voluntarily.

☐   I agree to the interview being audio-taped.

☐   I agree to the observations to be video recorded.

☐   I understand that any information provided will be kept confidential to the researcher and the supervisors. I understand that my name will not be used for publication and conference presentations.

☐   I request a summary of research findings.

Name of Teacher: _____

Signed   : _____

Date   : _____

Appendix A5: Research information sheet: Parents/Guardian

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
Te Whare Wananga o te Upoko o te Ika a Maui

Prema Shoba Perumanathan
PhD candidate
c/o Postgraduate Office
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
PO Box 17-310
Karori, Wellington
Ph (04) 463 5233 ext 9852 (wk)
Ph (04) 938 7799 (hm)
Cell: 021 026 57078
E-mail: shoba.perumanathan@vuw.ac.nz
Date :

Dear [Parent/Guardian]

Title of project: Teachers' beliefs and formative feedback practices in New Zealand primary classrooms.

Researcher: Prema Shoba Perumanathan, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington

Research Information Sheet: School Principal

I am studying for a PhD in Education at Victoria University of Wellington. As part of this degree, I am undertaking research in the area of teacher feedback to a linguistically diverse class. My PhD research is supervised by Dr. Lex McDonald and Margaret Gleeson, both at the Faculty of Education, Victoria University. The Victoria University Faculty of Education subcommittee of the Research and Human Ethics Committees have assessed approved my research (SEPP/2010/04:RM17267).

This research aims to investigate how feedback is conceptualised and implemented by teachers. Specifically the proposed investigation will seek answers to the following questions:

1. What beliefs do teachers hold about formative feedback in the writing classroom?"

2. How do primary teachers provide formative assessment and feedback to their students during the writing lessons?

More specifically, the research pursued to answer the following questions:
- What beliefs and knowledge do teachers hold about formative feedback in teaching of writing?
- Is feedback connected to setting of goals, learning intentions and success criteria by teachers?

- When and how do teachers inculcate feedback into their writing lessons?
- What formative assessment feedback strategies are utilised the most during the writing lessons?
- What roles do teachers take on during the feedback sessions?
- Do teachers hold different beliefs and conceptions of feedback?
- How do teachers' beliefs influence and impact their formative feedback strategies?
- If there are differences in teachers' beliefs and practices in providing feedback, how can those dissimilarities are explained?

I need to observe in the classrooms to gain answers to these questions. _____, your child's teacher, has kindly agreed to take part in this study. I will be observing your child's class on three to five different occasions. Each observation will take about 45-60 minutes. The focus of my observation will be on the teacher's feedback practice as it naturally occurs within their classroom daily interactions with children. The lesson that I will observe will be one that the teacher takes part in normal classroom programme. As part of my data collection I will be video recording the lesson. Your child might appear in the video recording. If you do not wish your child to be videoed, the child will be placed in a seating position not visible to the video.

I can assure you that neither the teacher's involvement in the project or my undertaking the classroom observation will disrupt the regular classroom activities in any way. The observation will not focus on the children and no identifying information will be recorded relating to any child. Prior to the observations I will speak with the children in the class to explain the project and what I will be doing in the classroom. I will emphasize to the children during the explanation that my interest is in what the teacher says and does. Please explain the purpose of my project to your child before he or she completes the children's consent form.

Yours sincerely,

Prema Shoba Perumanathan

Supervisors Contact Details

Dr Lex McDonald	Margaret Gleeson
Head of School	Lecturer ESOL (S)
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy,	School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy,
Faculty of Education,	Faculty of Education,
Victoria University of Wellington,	Victoria University of Wellington,
PO Box 17-310	PO Box 17-310
Karori,	Karori,
Wellington	Wellington
Email: lex.mcdonald@vuw.ac.nz	**Email:** margaret.gleeson@vuw.ac.nz
Phone: 04 463 **5173**	**Phone:** 04 463 **9563**

Appendix A6: Consent of participation form: Parent/Guardian

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
Te Whare Wananga o te Upoko o te Ika a Maui

Title of project: Teachers' beliefs and feedback practices to L1 and L2 learners in diverse New Zealand primary classrooms.

Researcher: Prema Shoba Perumanathan, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington

☐ I have been provided adequate information and explanation of the research project. My questions and concerns have been answered to my satisfaction.

☐ I understand that my child's participation is voluntary. I understand that I can withdraw my child (before data analysis begins) without having to give reasons or without penalty of any sort.

☐ I give consent to the researcher going into the classroom to undertake three to five classroom observations. The permission for my child to be in the video recordings has been given voluntarily.

☐ I agree to my child being video-taped during classroom interactions.

☐ I understand that any information provided will be kept confidential to the researcher and the supervisors. I understand that my child's name will not be used for publication and conference presentations.

☐ I request a summary of research findings.

I agree/ disagree that _____, who is my son/daughter/under my guardianship, may take part in this research.

Name of Parent/Guardian   : _____

Signed   : _____

Date   : _____

Appendix A7: Consent of participation form: Students

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
Te Whare Wananga o te Upoko o te Ika a Maui

Title of project: Teachers' beliefs and feedback practices to L1 and L2 learners in diverse New Zealand primary classrooms.

Researcher: Prema Shoba Perumanathan, Faculty of Education, Victoria University of Wellington

☐ I have been provided with enough information about Shoba's research project.

☐ I understand that I do not have to participate.

☐ I understand that I can tell Shoba that I do not want to take part in the research at any time.

☐ I agree for Shoba to observe my class.

☐ I agree for Shoba to video record my class.

☐ I understand that Shoba will not use my name when she writes about my class.

Name of Student   : _____

Signed   : _____

Date   : _____

Appendix A8: Agreement of non-disclosure/confidentiality of audiotape/ videotape recordings

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
Te Whare Wananga o te Upoko o te Ika a Maui

Title of project: Teachers' beliefs and feedback practices to L1 and L2 learners in diverse New Zealand primary classrooms.

Researcher: Prema Shoba Perumanathan, School of Education, Victoria University of Wellington

I agree to the audiotapes and video recordings for the above research and information may not be disclosed to, or discussed with anyone other than the researcher, Prema Shoba Perumanathan.

I hereby agree to keep all information that I hear and see, as a result of my research as a transcriber, confidential.

Name   : _____

Signature   : _____

Date   : _____

Appendix B: Semi-structured interview questions

Title of project: Teachers' beliefs and formative feedback practices in New Zealand primary classrooms.

Researcher: Prema Shoba Perumanathan, School of Education, Victoria University of Wellington

Possible questions to participants (probes will be used when deemed necessary).

General questions on background and education

- How many years of teaching experience do you have?

- How many years have you taught in the current school?

- What are the year level or curriculum level students you have taught?

- Can you tell me about your professional and academic qualifications? Where did you receive your qualifications?

- What professional development and learning have you participated in? [e.g Assessment/ writing / feedback]

General beliefs and understanding about feedback

- What is your understanding of feedback?

- Where did you learn about feedback on writing? School experience, college, university?

- What is your definition of feedback?

- Why and when do you provide feedback?

- How do you provide feedback to your students during writing? [Oral/ written/non-verbal/ whole class/groups/ individual]

- Can you tell me about the types of feedback that you received when you were a student? School, college, university?

- How did you respond to the feedback that you received when you were a students? Why?

- Has your university or college experience shaped the way you now provide feedback on writing? How?

- Can you tell me about the professional development writing programmes you have attended that have informed you about formative feedback on writing?

- Can you tell me about the literature you have read about giving feedback on writing to students?

- How do you describe your school writing programme and environment?

- Do you think there is a characteristic way of teaching writing in your school?
- Do teachers discuss the teaching of writing skill with each other?   [e.g Exchange ideas and methods/ discussions/meetings]
- Do you observe each other during the writing lessons?

- How do the school practices impact the way you provide feedback on writing?

- How would you describe your students in terms of their writing ability?

Teachers' formative feedback practice

- How do you provide feedback on writing to students?

- How do you plan you lesson to incorporate feedback? Do you incorporate learning intentions with the students?

- How do you set your learning intention and success criteria for your students? How are they developed? Who else is involved in the process?

- Can you tell me how do you use the success criteria with your student? Where does the success criteria come from? Can you give me examples of the success criteria?

- What are the challenged that you face in implementing the learning intentions and success criteria in your classroom?

- Tell me about the way you provide formative feedback to your students during the teaching of writing? How is it formative in nature?

Appendix C:

Participant Teachers' Lesson Plans

Appendix C1: Debra's lesson plan

	Learning intention: WALT	Success Criteria	Tasks	DATS
Task/L1: To write interesting and full sentence from key words/ statements- we will make our writing interesting by using our own words, including descriptive language				
Handwriting	Form letters correctly with linking	-Letters are positioned correctly -Have even slope and size -Copy the writing off the board -Link appropriate letters	-Write date at top of page or under ruling off -Copy writing off white board	Where should these letters sit? What angle should each be?
Shared Writing	Turn ideas into feedback (Focus on feedback)	-Using nouns, verb, adjectives, adverbs -Using descriptive language -Put in all the 'little' words that make sentences sound right -Add my own ideas	-Take ideas I've been given and write them into sentences to make an interesting paragraph	What does that mean? How could you say it differently? What would make that more interesting? What's another word for..?
Guided Writing				
Kieran(L1),Justin (L1), Josephine (L1), Hemi (L1), Laiqa (L2) Keera (L1),Cassie (L1)	Write sentences correctly	-Begin a sentence with a capital -Write one idea in each sentence-star scene and action -End sentence with a full stop	Write an interesting paragraph	How do you start? Tell m what you want to say next
Taine (L2), Amy (L1), Elizabeth (L1), Edwin (L1), Sandra (L1), Amiri (L1)	Add detail to their writing	-Use key words in my plan -Use descriptive language -Find synonyms	Write an interesting paragraph	What descriptive features to use? How does it sound?

Ngina (L2), Kilee (L2), Belinda (L1), Marika (L1), Mathew (L1), Jemima (L1)	Add interesting details to their writing	-Use key words in my plan -Use descriptive language -Find synonyms	Write an interesting paragraph	What descriptive features to use? How does it sound?
Bejide (L2),Avnita (L2), Chesa (L2), Adolpho (L2)	Use correct grammar in their writing	-Identify past, present, future tense -Use correct verb ending for tense -Read sentence to make sure it sounds right	Write an interesting paragraph	Is that past tense or future? Demonstrate walk, walked and walking etc
Independent writing Students need time to write for their own purposes while engaging with topics that are significant to them	Process of writing 1.Forming intentions 2.Composing 3.Revising 4.Publishing for an audience	Notes: Create "I am learning to …' cards to go in the back of each students' book so they are reminded of their personal writing goal whenever they write		

Appendix C2: Lyn's lesson plan

Achievement Objectives: Level 2 Text type: Factual recount writing Functions: Transactional writing		
Processes: Exploring language		
Learning intentions: Students will be able to Write a variety of topics, shaping, editing, and reworking texts in the genre of factual recount writing		
WALT: -write to show ideas clearly -write to recount what has happened in past experience. -make good use of facts -use ideas based on the writer's experience. -edit for grammar, paragraphing, capital letters and full stops.		WILF: -I can plan before writing -I can write a draft of a recount based on a plan. -I can write a series of events clearly related in sequence stating what happened -I can write in the past tense -I can include verba that denote action eg: went, saw, ate, returned -I can include a range of linking words and phrases that denote time eg: yesterday, before, during, eventually -I can add detail to add interest for the reader. - I can edit my work.
Modelling -Introducing factual recount writing- describes an event that has happened in the past. -It has a title that sums up what you are about to explain. -Background information: Who was involved? What happened? When did it happen? Why did it happen? -Using "voices" read Antarctic egg pg 7 and 8. -Students to discuss Who, What, When, How and the teacher to fill in graphic organiser	Modelling -Introduce orientation- Referring back to the penguins as discussion points then explaining 'Who' 'Where' 'When' during science experiments and completing the first box on the graphic organiser pg 109. "Something happened". -Focus on details of time place and events need to be clearly stated in the orientation. -Point out the need to choose a time sequence word to explain the When -Provide details of science experiments for the students to refer back for the facts	Modelling Sequence events- Jigsaw activity in groups at their desks ordering what happened in science experiment and numbering them 1-5. Continuing to complete graphic organiser focussing on the events and the order in which they come. -Recap choosing sentence starter to show time sequence
Task: Students to discuss science ideas and fill in graphic organiser page 19 (The big question) in relation to	Task: Students to complete Part 1 and 2 of graphic organiser based on yesterday chosen	Task: Students to complete their graphic organiser using the sequence starters and ensuring all of the facts are

science experiment . Choose from sherbet, salt dough, oobleck, blowing up balloons. -Considering Who What Where etc.	experiment. -Students need to ensure that they have covered Who Where When and What in the first two boxes	added for the detailed planning.
Target Group 　X	Target Group 　Y	Target Group 　Z

Appendix C3: Jane's lesson plan

Year 4-6 Writing a narrative
Achievement Objectives Level 2/3 Students will show some/ a developing understanding of how to shape texts for different purposes & use language features appropriately Organise and sequence ideas with increasing confidence
Prior Learning and Teaching: The class has been introduced to narrative form in the context of story writing. We have concentrated on writing a story which has a beginning, middle and end and the components of a narrative have been introduced Title Orientation Complication/Problem Resolution Conclusion (Most L1 leaners have already had previous experience of using some or all of these features but not in a narrative format. Some L2 learners have been introduced to alliteration and simile) Expectations It is expected that most L1 learners will write a complete narrative that includes some language features including simile, alliteration, metaphor and/or onomatopoeia. It is expected that L2 learners will work together to write a cooperative narrative.
Lesson sequence

L1 learners	L2 learners

L1 learners-Introduce students to their
       Learning intentions
     - WALT write an interesting
      Narrative
-Discuss with students the components of a narrative and record these.
 	
-Discuss with students why I have written an 'interesting narrative and what features we might use to enable us to write and interesting narrative.
 	
-Teacher and students establish: Success criteria for writing an interesting narrative.
 	
-Hand out illustration with title (It's Hard to Believe' and opening sentence- 'As Ryan pulled back the branches, he couldn't believe his eyes. There, right there in front of him.. .'
 	
Discuss illustration and opening sentence with students. Students begin thinking about the 'who, what when where and why'
 	
Discuss what problems might Ryan face and how these might be solved
	L2 learners-Introduce students to their
	       Learning intentions
	     -WALT sentences which
	      Include a verb and an
	      adjective
	
	-Recap what verbs and adjectives are
	
	-Hand out illustration of the seaside and discuss with students what they can see. (it is expected that students will identify with the illustration and have the vocabulary to describe what they see in the illustration and, with support write sentences about what they see).
	
	Each student to say what they cansee in a sentence with particular emphasis on verbs and adjectives. Eg 'I can see a little girl fishing.'
	
	Explain that they will write 6 sentences using verbs and adjectives about what they can see in the picture and discuss what words they might need.
	
	Record these words and provide each student with an editing checklist of essential words.

L1 students begin first draft. Teacher checkpoint for L1 learners: 'What language features have you used?' Each student to read out a sentence which contains one of the language features listed. L1 learners to give their work to a partner who will assess their story against the success criteria established. Does the story have : Title Orientation Complication/Problem Resolution Conclusion What features have been used? Adjectives Alliteration Simile Metaphor Onomatopoeia Students to read partner's story and report back	L2 students to begin writing their sentences. L2 leaners to share a sentence they written. Discuss as necessary and then complete sentence independently. Meet with L2 learners to construct and write narrative- 'Hard to believe' as a group, voting on and recording the most popular ideas, ensuring there is an Title Orientation-who what when and where Complication/Problem Resolution Conclusion And that we have used a range of verbs and adjectives

Individual teacher Conference with L1 and L2 students.

Collect L1 learners first draft and provided written feedback for second draft and collect L2 learners sentences.

Hand out L1 learners' stories and written feedback. Explain what they need to do for their second drafts ('next steps') L1 learners to work on 2nd draft.

Students will be given opening 'As Ryan pulled the branches, there right in front of him...'
Each student will complete the sentences. Teacher will record this and the second descriptive sentence. Group will decided on the next sentence. Teacher will record this. Students will think of their own problem and resolution. Teacher will record this. Students will then rewrite their story.

Teacher to collect L1 learners 2nd drafts.

Groups	Topic: -'Hard to believe...' Celia, Selena, Qiomars, Ione, Yukika, Solomon, Maaka, Stephen, Silei, James, Hiwa, Aveilela
	Topic: A day at the beach At the farm Anahira, Alame, Fetuu, Shanon, Fetuao, Hasani

Appendix D:

Teaching Resources and Hand-outs

The Big Question

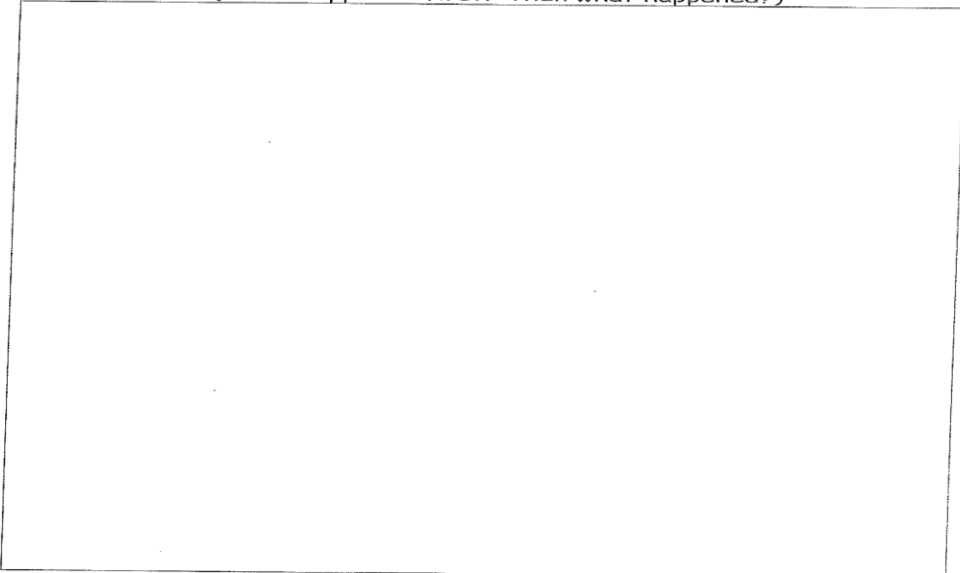When?

Who?

What?

Where?

Why?

How?

Appendix D2: Lyn's day 2 graphic organiser

How
(What happened first? Then what happened?)

17-6-2010

Appendix D3: Lyn's day 3 graphic organiser

Writing About
What Happened

TITLE:_____

1
- In the beginning
- On (date)
- First
- To begin with
- The start of
- It started when
- It began on (date)

2
- Not long after
- Second
- Next
- Then
- The second thing
- And then

3
- Next
- Third...fourth...fifth
- Now
- Then
- As
- And then

4
- After
- Finally
- Last
- At the end
- And the last thing
- After everything
- In conclusion

Appendix D4: Jane's hand-outs to lower proficiency students A
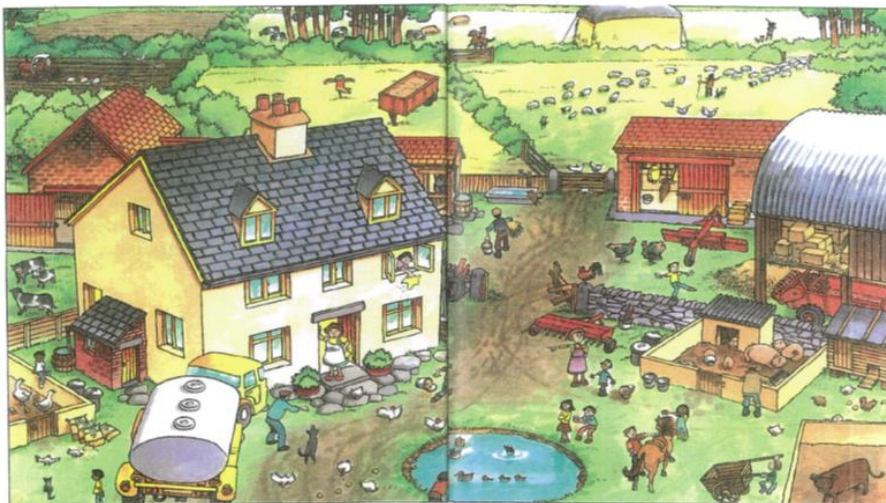
The Farm
(Now write 6 questions about the farm. Your questions must begin with a capital letter and end with a question mark.) When you have written your questions, ask a partner to write their answers in sentences).

At The Farm

A Farm is a place

Walt write a report about what we see.

The Farm
(Write 6 sentences about what you see. Remember to begin each sentence with a capital letter and end each sentence with a full stop)

Our Report will have

- A TITLE

- An INTRODUCTION. This is our opening sentence.

The Farm
(Now write 6 questions about the farm. Your questions must begin with a capital letter and end with a question mark.) When you have written your questions, ask a partner to write their answers in sentences).

- 6 SENTENCES that describe what we see.

- A CONCLUSION
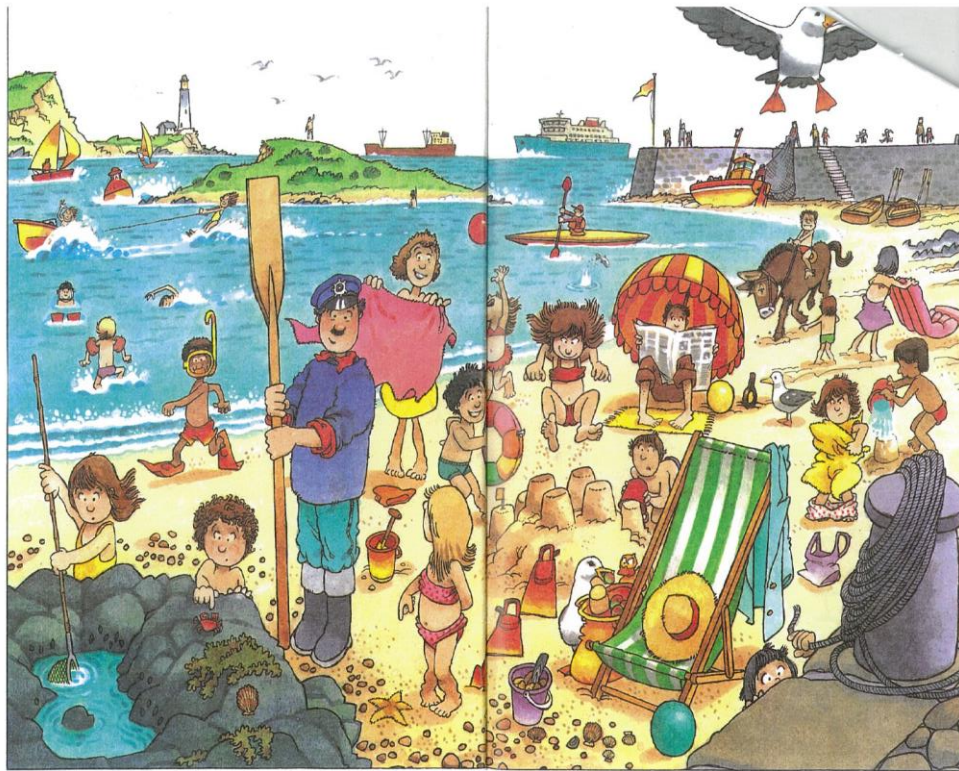
Appendix E:

Students Written Drafts with Teacher's Feedback

Appendix E1: Debra's written feedback on students' drafts

Student A

Student B

Appendix E2: Lyn's student's mind map

Sherbet

- Abby was sitting next to me 15-06-10

- Monday Sunny 17.05.10

trying to see what happen

My frend put to many crystals and it was to strong

We were figure out why it fizzed on our tounges and not in the cup

The Hiccups trying to why it our not in

Good brainstorming ideas
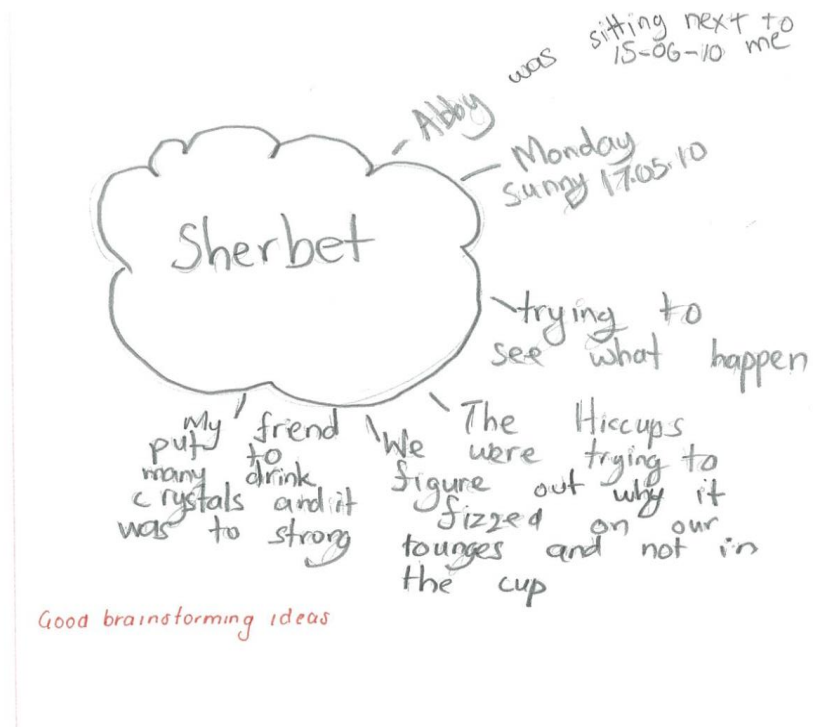
Appendix E3: Lyn's day 1 written feedback

The Big Question

When?
Monday
17th
Afternoon

What?
We were
making sherbet
for science
experiment

Who?
ollie
Nisha
Karen
Faris
Catlin

Great planning.
You have caught
up well
and
quickly
☺

Where?
at my desk
in class
in Rm 10
sitting down

Why?
to find out
what happ
would happen
in a science
experiment

How?

Appendix E4: Lyn's day 2 written feedback

How
(What happened first? Then what happened?)

① Miss It handed out the gear
② Iceing Serger in the cup
③ Put in baking soda
④ Put in citrik Acid ✓
⑤ Stur It ✓ rPaPer ✓
⑥ open loliPoP ✓
⑦ dix iT in ✓
⑧ eat iT ⑨ Waite iT foam ✓
⑩ Yum ✓
⑪ drew WaT aow Toge looked
like

I like how you have ticked off each idea as
you have used it. This tells me you have used
your plan well.

Appendix E5: Lyn's day 3 written feedback

You have thought carefully about the steps that you took to complete the science experiment.
How

① Miss ~~Hadfield~~ handed out the cups.

② We put Bakeing soda in to th cups (1 teaspoon).

③ We put citric acid in to our cups (1 tea spoon)

④ We put flower.

⑤ We mixed our the ingredients together

⑥ miss ~~Hadfield~~ handed out the lollypop

⑦ We took the wrapper off our lollpops.

⑧ We wet our lollpops by putting in our Moths.

28.06-10

⑨ We put our lollpops in our sherbet

⑩ we spread the sherbet on our lollypops on our tounge.

⑪ it went all bubbely and fizzy on our tounges

Writing About
What Happened

TITLE: _My mouth exploded on a May Monday_

1	In the beginning (circled) On (date) First To begin with The start of It started when It began on (date)	& of Term 2 on a sunny May Monday Abby was on my right and Maya was in front of me James was next to me then Duncan. We were enjoying making our special treat from Mrs Ashleigh. It was Sherbet.
2	Not long after Second Next Then The second thing And then	Then we each got cups. Next we also got a teaspoon And then took the icing sugar and put some of that in. Not long after we added some baking soda
3	Next Third...fourth...fifth Now Then As And then	Fifth we put in some citric acid to make it tangy and for it to fizz with the baking soda As soon as we were finished that step we put in the drink crystals
4	After Finally Last At the end And the last thing After everything In conclusion	Lastly we got a lolly pop and popped it in our mouth to get it wet. Finally we coated it in sherbet put it back in our mouth so it could fizz.

Great use of linking words.

added for flavoring.

Appendix E7: Lyn's day 4 written feedback on drafts

The day we made
Sherbert

It Began one Wednesday
afternoo. I was siting ⚡ with the
Hcups Not Long after miss It

who was in the Hiccups group?

an handed out the
equipment
Eqatment Then we put one ⚡

FULL STOPS

tea spon of Baking Soda
in the cup The Second
thing you do is put
the same amout of Ising
Sugar the cup too.
and then we put hat
d tea spoon of Jelly

Miss lines please

ar stalls Next
we mixed the
too geter untel it is in grder.
mixed

now g you can dip the
Lolly Popin the Shar

* Great linking words
* Lots of detail.
W - Full stops and this needs to be much more tidy.

Appendix E8: Lyn's students' self-assessment checklist feedback

How well did I go with my Factual Recount?

- I can plan before writing	☺
- I can write a draft of a recount based on a plan.	☺
- I can write an introduction stating who, when, where and what happened.	✓
- I can write a series of events that are in sequence	☺
- I can write in the past tense	✓
- I can explain what happened using detail.	✓
- I can edit my work remembering my wish	✓
- I can include a range of linking words that show time eg; First, before, next, after that, secondly.	☺
- I can add detail to add interest for the reader.	✓

What did Miss H think?

You have used your planning well. The linking words you have used show time excellently. You explained who, when, where and what happened. Perhaps you could have explained why with a little more detail? ☺

Appendix E9: Jane's written feedback to higher proficiency students

Hard to Believe   Draft 2 Year 4 L 2

pulled back the branches and there
Front of him were millons of ants
d spiders. crawling over branches. An
was stuck. He was pulling his hand
out of the sticky honey. A little
gon was eating the spider. The dragon
w the ant stuck. The dragon saw
~~me~~ Ryan ~~(fo)~~. He was eating ^ bag and ~~my~~ his
ipy pants. ~~I~~ Ryan was running away from
dragon. ~~I~~ Ryan got ~~tripo~~ over by a
snake. ~~I~~ He was in a dark cave.
dragon ~~stopod~~. "Where is the boy?"
Bear was next to ~~me~~ Ryan. ~~I~~ He was
red of the Bear. The Bear woke up.
~~Run~~ faster and faster. ~~I~~ He never,
ever came back.

Appendix E10: Jane's written feedback to lower proficiency

The Day At The beach

They were Playing at The beach.

The like going on a boat.

They were Swimming in The water.

It was cool at ^the beach.

They were (makeing) a (san) castle.

They liked the beach. It was hot at The beach.

Draft 1

Well Done Jason.

You have written lots of sentences about what you see.

Draft 2.

I can see a little boy making a sandcastle.

· Describe the boy and what he is doing.

Describe the sandcastle.

Appendix E11: Jane's written feedback and comments from teacher students' conferencing

Student 1

Writing a Narrative:

- What is Ryan's problem?

- How is this solved?

- How is the ending different to the beginning?

Language Features:

Full stops

Capital Letters

Speech Marks

Adjectives

Similes

Jo Carter ⭐

Hard to Believe

Journey   Year 6   L1

Ryan pulled back the branches and there in front of him... was this big, enormous space ship. He couldn't believe what was in front of him. It looked like... He hopped in it and when Ryan hopped in, the alien's came out and said, "Hello. You don't have to be shy, I'm friendly." and Ryan screamed and fell on to the ground and the friendly alien told them to stop. and They all had to go back to thiere own planet and the friendly alien said goodbye and waved.

My story has:

A title   Yes

An orientation which describes
Who
What
When   Yes
Where
Why

A complication/problem   No

A resolution to the problem   No

A conclusion which explains what has changed   NO

a range of verbs

a range of adjectives

similes   No

metaphors   No

alliteration   No

onomatopoeia   No

My favourite sentence is:

They all had to go back to their own planet and the friendly alien said goodbye and waved.

Next Steps:

Draft 2 - Include

- a simile to describe what the spaceship looked like and

- an adjective to exp what the alien looked like.

279

Student 2

Isabelle.

Year 4 L1

HARD TO BELIEVE

Ryan pulled back the branches and there, right there in front of him... were sssome monsters. They were Tents Centimetres tall and ...

s... ...peanut and as yellow as a banana!

There were millions of them.

The leader stepped forward and said "Zip Zap Zap" Translation: my name is Zapo. I said "My name is Ryan."

Translation in alien: Zip Zop Zap Zapp.

They took me to their cave and we had black bird pie for tea! After that We washed ... ...cats catch cranny fish in their swamp! When it was time for bed I went to their

1st whispered flad

My story has:

A title **Yes**

An orientation which describes
 Who
 What
 When
 Where **Yes**
 Why

A complication/problem **Yes**

A resolution to the problem **Yes**

A conclusion which explains
what has changed **Yes**

a range of verbs ✓

a range of adjectives ✓

similes ✓

metaphors **Great!** ☺

alliteration

onomatopoeia ✓

My favourite sentence is:

They were twenty centimetres tall and their heads were as small as a one millimetre peanut and as yellow as a banan

Next steps - Draft 2.
· Writing in the third person.
· Using a dictionary to check the spelling of words.
· Adjectives
 Jo Carter ⭐

Appendix E12: Jane's students' self-assessment checklist for higher proficiency students

<u>Writing a Narrative</u>

My story has:

A title   ☹

An orientation which describes
      Who   ☹
      What   ☹
      When   ☹
      Where   ☹
      Why   ☹

A complication/problem   ☹

A resolution to the problem   ☹

A conclusion which explains
what has changed   ☹

a range of verbs   ☹

a range of adjectives   ☹

similes   ☹

metaphors   ☹

alliteration   ☹

onomatopoeia   ☹

My favourite sentence is: