

Teachers' beliefs of pre-service German teachers about student self-assessment

Stephan Schicker

University of Graz, Center for Germans as a Second Language and Language Education

Received 1st November 2022 / final version received 24th April 2023/ accepted 25th April 2023

Abstract: The aim of the research is to investigate beliefs of Austrian and Czech pre-service teachers of German about student self-assessment (SSA). In the first part of the paper important theoretical and empirical findings on and principles of SSA and about teachers' beliefs are discussed. After the description of the research design the data analysis is presented. Results show that only a minority of trainee teachers participating in this survey have experienced SSA as students themselves and that even fewer have been able to implement SSA as teachers in their classroom. Moreover, it was verified that most of the trainee teachers have theoretical knowledge about student self-assessment. If one looks at the statements of the individual pre-service teachers as a whole and assign them to a growth mindset (=self-assessment skills can be learned with suitable training) or a fixed mindset (=self-assessment skills are only mastered by certain particularly reflective students), it is evident that although 43.8% cannot be classified and 9.4% make statements that can be assigned to both mindsets, 28.1% of the prospective teachers can be assigned to a growth mindset and 18.8% to a fixed mindset. Didactically, it would be desirable if it were clearly accentuated that self-assessment skills can be learned through suitable didactic training.

Keywords: student self-assessment, teachers' beliefs, self-regulated learning, German as a second language, German as a foreign language

Beim ersten Mal funktioniert es meistens noch nicht so gut, aber nach etwas Übung wird es besser und kann effektiv zur Verbesserung eines Textes beitragen. (AT_3, Pos. 7; translation: It usually doesn't work so well the first time, but after a little practice it gets better and can be effective in improving a text.)

This quote from a pre-service German teacher from Austria refers to a process, in which learners evaluate their own work or their learning process. Various terms have been established that refer to the assessment of one's own performance by learners. These terms, which may also have different theoretical foundations, include "self-assessment", "self-evaluation" (judgments used for grading), "self-reflection", "self-monitoring" and "reflection" (cf. Ross, 2006, p. 2). In this paper, the term student

self-assessment and its abbreviation SSA will be used henceforth to refer to the following process:

Self-assessment is a process of formative assessment during which students reflect on and evaluate the quality of their work and their learning, judge the degree to which they reflect explicitly stated goals or criteria, identify strengths and weaknesses in their work, and revise accordingly. (Andrade & Du, 2007, p. 160)

Most other definitions of the term have a significant overlap with this definition by Andrade above: Brown and Harris (2013, p. 368), for example, define the term as a “descriptive and evaluative act that the student undertakes in relation to his or her own work and academic skills.” According to Panadero et al. (2016, p. 804) the term refers to a “variety of mechanisms and techniques students use to describe (i.e. assess) and potentially assign value (i.e. evaluate) to the qualities of their own learning processes and products.” Epstein et al. (2008, p. 5) define SSA for the area of science as the ability “to notice our own actions, curiosity to examine the effects of those actions, and willingness to use those observations to improve behavior and thinking in the future.” Even though these quotes make it clear that there is a common ground between the definitions of student self-assessment, the term itself refers to various didactic activities, “such as assigning a happy or sad face to a story just told, estimating the number of correct answers [...], using a rubric to identify strengths and weaknesses in one’s persuasive essay, writing reflective journal entries, and so on” (Andrade, 2019, p. 1). However, what all these activities have in common, is that they require some type of assessment of one’s own performance. SSA can have different purposes in language classes, which can range from raising awareness about language aspects to self-reflections about the current language level or future learning goals. As this article will outline, there is extensive evidence of the benefits of SSA: It can promote metacognitive skills (cf. Siegesmund, 2016), academic performance (cf. Brown & Harris, 2013), learning autonomy (cf. Andrade & Du, 2007) and motivation (cf. Brown & Harris, 2013). Moreover, “from a pedagogical perspective, effective learning can only occur when students have a realistic sense of their own performance so that they can direct their further learning on critical aspects of their learning needs” (Yan et al., 2020, p. 509). Yet, these empirical findings alone do not guarantee that SSA is going to be implemented in the classroom because teachers play a decisive role in facilitating the implementation of didactic concepts. Their beliefs about,

experiences with and attitudes towards SSA are significant factors for the implementation of SSA. Research shows that teachers' beliefs not only have a central function in planning, designing, and managing classrooms (e.g., cf. Kratzmann et al., 2017; Bromme, 2014), but they also determine individual acceptance of (new) didactic concepts (cf. Bredthauer & Engfer, 2018, p. 2) such as SSA. Hence, the purpose of this research is to investigate beliefs that pre-service German teachers have about SSA.

For the scope of this research, two specifications must be made to these remarks. Firstly, the explanations on self-assessments in the theory section, which discuss empirical as well as theoretical findings on SSA, are meant to provide the basis in terms of objective theories of language didactics for comparison with teachers' subjective theories (beliefs) on SSA in the empirical part. Secondly, this paper does not address teacher beliefs on SSA on the whole, but investigates them in language learning and more specifically SSA to written work in language classes¹. This focus on written work is based on the understanding of SSA as expressed in the quote above that it is ultimately about revision for learner work based on self-assessment. Such a revision is only possible to a limited extent in the case of (oral) utterances of students.

First, important theoretical and empirical findings on and principles of SSA and about teachers' beliefs are presented in Section 1. After the description of the research design of this paper (data collection, data analysis, research questions, etc.) in Section 2, the data analysis about teacher's beliefs of pre-service German teachers is presented (Section 3), before the findings from the analysis are summarized in the concluding section.

1 Theoretical overview

In the following part, the scientific and didactical discourse on the aspects of SSA relevant for this survey are presented in order to introduce objective theories of didactics before subjective theories of the teachers are analyzed and related to these "objective" theories of didactics.

¹ Most of the references made in the following article refer directly to theoretical findings or empirical studies from the field of language learning. If references are also made to other academic disciplines, these mostly concern the didactic concept of SSA in general, so that it can be assumed that they also apply to language learning to a large extent.

1.1 Student self-assessment in language learning: Formative or summative

An important question of SSA is if it should be formative, i.e. feedback that is provided during the learning process so that students can still improve their (written) learning outcomes, or summative, which means that feedback is given after the assessment in the form of a final mark. In the definition of SSA above it is clear that Andrade & Du (2007) perceive SSA as a formative feedback tool. They ground this in its function as a way of providing feedback that then leads to revision or optimization of the learning outcomes:

Why do we ask students to self-assess? I have long held that self-assessment is feedback [...] and that the purpose of feedback is to inform adjustments to processes and products that deepen learning and enhance performance; [...] if there is no opportunity for adjustment and correction, self-assessment is almost pointless. (Andrade, 2019, p. 2)

Panadero et al. (2019, p. 147) use a similar argument. They suggest that the concept of SSA should be moved towards self-feedback, "in which the final goal is for students to produce and search for feedback to close the gap between their current and desired performance."

Research (e.g. Tejeiro et al., 2012) shows that summative SSA (especially when the assessment contributes to the final grade) is perceived by students mostly as a tool to give oneself a better grade rather than to really evaluate the qualities of one's own texts. When the purpose of SSA is learning-oriented, the student judgments of their learning outcomes or texts are more consistent with judgments of professors or experts/researchers (cf. Barney et al., 2012; Panadero & Romero, 2014) or teachers (cf. Chang et al., 2012). In summary, it can be stated that if SSA does not play a role in the final grade, the learner's judgment may not always be accurate either, but deliberate distortions in favor of a better grade are avoided and a stronger focus on the learning process seems more likely to be guaranteed.

1.2 The effects of student self-assessment on written skills in language learning

There are numerous studies, especially in the Anglo-American world, which investigate the effectiveness of SSA in relation to (language) teaching and written performance: For a broader understanding of the topic, two meta-analyses of the effects of SSA on learning are presented. Brown & Harris (2013), who included 24 studies in their meta-study, found a median effect

from $|d|^2 = 0.40$ to 0.45 on academic achievement in general. The meta-analysis of Graham et al. (2015) including 11 studies, which investigated the effects of SSA on writing, yielded an average effect size of $|d| = 0.62$.

With reference to language learning and written performances, some studies will now be discussed in detail. Andrade et al. (2008) and Andrade & Boulay (2003) conducted quasi-experimental studies to investigate the effect of using rubrics³ when revising a text. The first study was conducted at the primary level (116 learners) and shows significant effects ($|d| = 0.87$). The second study (107 learners) was conducted at the secondary level and shows no effect ($|d| = 0.00$) of training on the text quality of revisions. It is noteworthy that the intervention group in Andrade & Boulay (2003) was only very briefly trained in self-assessing their own texts through “rubrics”, which could be an explanation for the outcome. The learners in the intervention group in Andrade (2008), however analyzed a model text and used this model essay to generate a list of criteria that made the model text a well-written text.

Sadler & Good (2006) and Andrade et al. (2010) also reported significant effects ($|d| = 0.82$ and $|d| = 0.66$, respectively) for lower secondary level (126 learners) in a quasi-experimental setting and for primary level (162 learners) in a quasi-experimental setting by using “rubrics.” Duke (2003), Guastello (2001) and Ross et al. (1999) investigated for different age groups the influence of using rubrics when revising text structure (composition). While Duke (2003) for the upper secondary level (164 learners) and Ross et al. (1999) for the 4th to 6th grades (296 learners) could only prove minimal effects of SSA on text composition ($|d| = 0.29$ and $|d| = 0.20$), Guastello (2001) found a significant improvement ($|d| = 1.27$) for the fourth grade (167 students). Glaser et al. (2010) found rather moderate influences ($|d| = 0.38$) in a true experimental study at the primary level (105 learners), in which they investigated the effects of self-regulation and assessment training on the writing performance and the self-efficacy of

² The effect sizes used in this article are those indices that are also given in the original publications. In this case, these are Cohen’s $|d|$, Hedge’s $|g|$ and the η^2 (η^2). These effect sizes can be interpreted as follows:

Cohen’s $|d|$ and hedge’s $|g|$: small effect size: $|d| \leq 0.2$; medium size effect: $|d| \leq 0.5$; large effect size: $|d| \leq 0.8$;

η^2 (η^2): small effect size ≤ 0.05 ; medium size effect ≤ 0.13 ; large size effect ≥ 0.14 ;

³ Andrade & Du (2005, p. 5) define rubrics as “a document that articulates the expectations for an assignment by listing the criteria, or what counts, and describing levels of quality from excellent to poor.”

learners. The results of the intervention study of Schicker (2020) confirm the effectiveness of a didactic setting which focuses on SSA in terms of promoting textual assessment skills, revision skills, the learner's argumentative writing skills and increasing the motivation for revision. Depending on the selected rated texts, there is a medium or large effect of the didactic setting on the textual assessment skills of the learners ($\eta^2 = .12$ or $\eta^2 = .21$), as well as on the interrater reliability of the intervention groups (intervention groups posttest: $ICC_2 = 0.97$, control groups: $ICC_2 = 0.57$). There is a substantial effect on the revision motivation ($\eta^2 = .24$) and revision skills ($\eta^2 = .23$) and a medium effect on the argumentative writing skills ($\eta^2 = .08$).

This above-depicted potential of SSA to promote written language skills is theoretically (and empirically) also explained by its link to foster self-regulated-learning (SRL)⁴ skills. This competence of "learning to learn" is closely connected to the ability to assess one's own texts or skills. Brown & Harris (2014, p. 8) even see SSA as an essential component of SRL as self-reflection is an integral part of self-regulated learning. In Brown & Harris (2013) they also proved the connection between SRL and SSA empirically.

1.3 Didactic implications

Research shows that the following didactic premises and aspects are of especially great importance for the success of SSA and its promises. First, studies (cf. Eva & Regehr, 2008) have shown that (formative) SSA is more effective when it is more task-specific rather than generic to a very abstract competency. Hence, it is more effective for learning to give the feedback that the composition of a particular text does not follow standard text type norms than simply stating that one is generally bad at writing. This is certainly also of particular importance with the "growth mindsets"⁵ and "fixed mindsets"⁶ identified by Dweck (2008) in her psychological studies on motivational aspects of learning. Learners with a growth mindset focus on the learning process and that they can in general acquire (almost all) skills if they try hard enough. Dweck (2008) deals in her work with changing such a "mindset" in

⁴ Zimmerman (2000, p. 14) defines SRL as "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals."

⁵ A growth mindset can be defined as "a belief that suggests that one's intelligence can be grown or developed with persistence, effort and a focus on learning" (Ricci, 2013, p. 3).

⁶ A fixed mindset is "a belief system that suggests that a person has a predetermined amount of intelligence, skills or talents" (Ricci, 2013, p. 3).

the course of pedagogical practices. For learners, concrete and task-specific criteria would make it more transparent in which areas they need to improve their performances or their skills because “students assess their own writing to appraise growth, determine strengths, and identify areas in need of further development” (Graham et al., 2011, p. 11f).

Secondly, research (cf. Andrade & Boulay, 2003; Andrade & Du, 2007; Andrade et al., 2008, 2010; Panadero & Romero, 2014) also indicates that a clear reference to standards or criteria as scaffolds for the learning process is beneficial for the learning process. Most frequently, these specific standards or criteria are given in the forms of rubrics. Jönsson & Panadero (2017, p. 99) define them broadly as “assessment instruments designed to assist in identifying and evaluating qualitative differences in student performance.” More specifically, Andrade (2008, p. 61) outlines that a “rubric is a document that lists criteria and describes varying levels of quality, from excellent to poor, for a specific assignment.”⁷ In the context of SSA, research also highlights the importance of rubrics. They can “aid assessors in achieving higher levels of consistency when scoring performance tasks” and they “promote learning and/or improve instruction by making assessment expectations explicit and aiding the feedback process” (Jönsson & Panadero, 2017, p. 99). Looking at the effects of using rubrics, Andrade (2019, p.4) reports an average effect size of small to moderate considering all the studies, which focused on SSA using rubrics compared to control groups.

Jönsson & Panadero (2017, p. 99) outline that the two main difficulties students face when using feedback are that they do not comprehend the feedback or they do not know how they can use the feedback to improve their skills. Rubrics make assessment criteria explicit so that students can understand the feedback. Because of the fact that rubrics include detailed descriptions of student performance, they also have the potential to give students “instructions” on how to use feedback.

⁷ This definition indicates that rubrics contain more information than “Kriterienkataloge” (Becker-Mrotzek 2014), which are often used in the context of German as a first, second and foreign language teaching, as rubrics also specify different levels for each criterion with precise descriptions of various levels for achievement.

For their use, Panadero et al. (2016, p. 317f) recommend the following principles:

- Define the criteria by which students assess their work
- Teach students how to apply the criteria
- Give students feedback on their self-assessments
- Give students help in using self-assessment data to improve performance
- Provide sufficient time for revision after self-assessment
- Do not turn self-assessment into self-evaluation by counting it towards a grade.

More generally for feedback, Panadero et al. (2016, p. 321) also highlight that it can be very beneficial if students are involved in developing the assessment criteria. Studies (cf. Sadler & Good, 2006; Andrade et al., 2010) show that students who are involved in formulating criteria for assessment also achieve better results. Jönsson & Panadero (2017, p. 108) add to the following three aspects to these principles. It can be beneficial (1) to use an analytic scoring instrument “so that the aspects to be assessed are explicitly spelled out” and (2) to use various quality levels, “so that the quality sought becomes visible to the students.” Moreover, it can be helpful (3) to specify task-levels, “so that rubrics are neither too closely tied to the particular task nor too generic.”

This section dealing with didactic principles for the implementation of SSA shows that clear criteria that are comprehensible for learners are of great importance for the implementation of SSA.

1.4 Consistency instead of accuracy

When it comes to measuring the “significance” of SSA, ratings of students are often compared with ratings of teachers or other professionals in terms of correlations to measure their “quality”. For this correlation, Andrade (2019) argues that the term consistency is more precise than the term accuracy as there is much evidence that ratings of teachers or other professionals are also unreliable (cf. Brown et al., 2015). Generally, Brown & Harris (2013) reported for a very broad variation of forms of SSA from weak to strong correlations between ratings of students of their own work and external ratings (e.g. from teachers, experts) (ranging from $r = 0.20$ to 0.80). Research

(cf. Butler, 2018) also indicates that more skilled and more competent learners are more consistent with external evaluators than less experienced learners. Hence, consistency can be improved by more experience in SSA (cf. Lopez and Kossack, 2007) and the use of rubrics (cf. Panadero & Romero, 2014). Additionally, older research also shows that – not surprisingly – the degree of accuracy/consistency of SSA rises with simple and concrete tasks (cf. Bradshaw, 2001). For narrating a story, Kaderavek et al. (2004) were able to verify in the case of formative assessment that older, higher qualified students were more consistent in their judgements than younger, less qualified students. In addition, male students had the tendency of being more likely to overestimate the quality of their works than female students.

When it comes to SSA, Andrade (2019, p. 6) also states that consistency is not the goal of SSA, as the goal of SSA is learning-oriented:

Many if not most of the articles about the accuracy of self-assessment are grounded in the assumption that accuracy is necessary for self-assessment to be useful, particularly in terms of subsequent studying and revision behaviors. Although it seems obvious that accurate evaluations of their performance positively influence students' study strategy selection, which should produce improvements in achievement, I have not seen relevant research that tests those conjectures.

This section emphasizes that the didactic value of SSA lies less in a consistency of learner judgements with expert judgements but rather in the intensive engagement of learners with their performance or learning process.

1.5 Student perceptions

There are also a number of studies focusing on how students, pupils, and learners perceive SSA (e.g., cf. Micán & Medina, 2017; Bourke, 2014; Ndoye, 2017; van Helvoort, 2012; Siow, 2015). These studies confirm that it is very important for students to understand the purpose of SSA. Bourke (2016) was able to show in her study that younger students often do not understand the purpose of SSA and this leads to the result that the processes of SSA are often insufficiently or poorly executed. In contrast, students in higher education or university students tend to consider SSA to be beneficial and useful for their learning process (cf. Micán & Medina, 2017; Lopez & Kossack, 2007; Bourke, 2014; Ndoye, 2017; van Helvoort, 2012; Siow, 2015). For this context, research (e.g., cf. Bourke, 2014) also suggests that – as already mentioned above – it is additionally beneficial if learners can formulate and develop the criteria for assessment themselves.

1.6 *Teachers' beliefs*

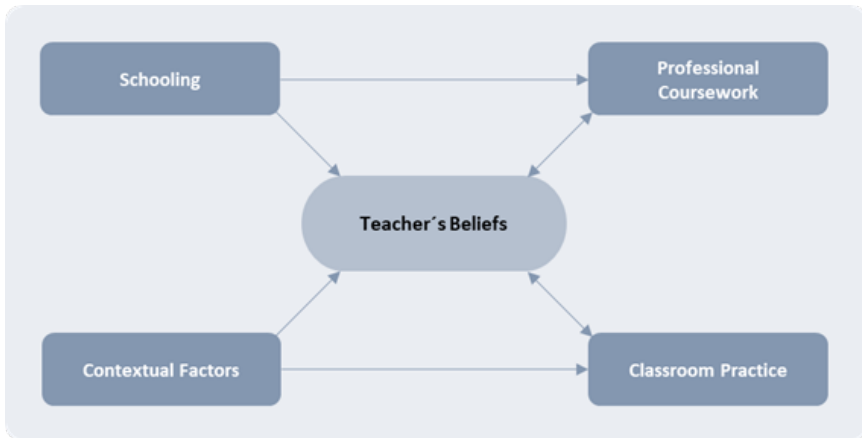
The effectiveness of SSA for language learning in general and for the promotion of writing skills in particular has been discussed above and proven in numerous studies (cf. Section 1.2). There are also numerous studies on how to implement SSA (e.g. cf. Jönsson & Panadero, 2017; Andrade et al., 2008, 2010; see Section 1.4). In language teaching, however, not only scientific theories and empirical findings are vital for didactic choices made in the classroom, but also the beliefs or conceptions of teachers concerning how language is best learned/taught, are crucial. For the implementation and application of SSA concepts in classrooms, it is therefore also significant that teachers subjectively perceive this didactic concept as effective and beneficial.

Before we clarify the connection between SSA and teachers' beliefs, the teachers's beliefs are reviewed in general. Bredthauer & Engfer (2018, p. 3) use the term teachers' beliefs to refer to "teachers' perceptions, attitudes, and internal representations of instruction." Borg (2006, p. 272) defines the term as "an inclusive term referring to the complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work." Such teachers' beliefs play a central role when it comes to implementing didactic concepts. In fact, most research (cf. e.g., Bredthauer & Engfer, 2018; Kratzmann et al., 2017) from the field of teachers' beliefs is based on the view that these beliefs have a major influence on the practice of teaching. Hence, as "teachers' beliefs guide teachers in understanding educational policies, deciding what is important, and determining what should be done" (Panadero & Brown, 2017, p. 134), it is first necessary to understand and change the beliefs of teachers (about feedback) to alter classroom practices.

The following adapted figure based on Borg (2003, p. 82) shows factors that have the potential to influence teachers' beliefs: It highlights that next to contextual aspects and classroom practice one's own language learning experience and the teacher training itself are important factors.

Figure 1

Teacher's beliefs (own illustration, based on Borg 2003, p. 82)



The present study is located at an important intersection as far as its subjects are concerned. The subjects (pre-service teachers of German) are presumably still strongly influenced by their own language learning experiences during their own school years and they are currently undergoing studies in which they are confronted with objective theories about language learning. Regarding the relationship between one's own language learning experiences in school and scientific theories in teacher education, Haukås (2019, p. 346) notes how "a number of studies show that beliefs that were established prior to language teacher education are resolutely held and that it can be difficult to change students' views."

It is of significance for the research interest of this study that there are already studies on "teachers' beliefs" about SSA in foreign language learning (particular for English) available internationally (e.g., cf. Remesal, 2007; Brown & Harris, 2013; Cephe & Yalcin, 2015; Gebril & Brown, 2020), but a desideratum is still the question of how prospective German teachers in the Czech Republic and Austria view SSA and its didactic potential.

2 Research design

The present study explores the beliefs pre-service teachers have about SSA: All participating Czech German teachers are trained in teaching German as a foreign language, all participating Austrian German teachers are trained in teaching German as a second and first language.

An anonymous self-report questionnaire, consisting of 23 open questions was used as a survey tool. The questionnaire consisted of five big thematic blocks: (a) demographic information, (b) experience in SSA, (c) perceived advantages/disadvantages of SSA, (d) consistency of SSA and (e) received training in SSA. On the questionnaire, the definition of SSA was also provided, as specified introduction of this paper.

Before the survey was carried out, the questionnaire was tested in a pilot study with one prospective teacher, who also conducted the survey. By means of the „thinking aloud“ procedure (cf. Schramm, 2018, p. 65) the participant verbalized everything that went through his mind during the survey. With the results of the thinking-aloud protocol, the questionnaire was slightly revised in relation to linguistic aspects and then employed in a seminar and a workshop on feedback at the beginning of the seminar.

The results of the survey were coded in the MAXQDA program and then categorized and evaluated according to qualitative content analysis according to Mayring (2010, p. 60). An inductive approach was taken to the analysis and the category system was adapted several times as part of a cyclical revision process. In the first step, the statements of the students were paraphrased and, in the second step, summarized into categories on a higher level of abstraction. During the analysis, there was an external coder in addition to the researcher. In the first step, both coded the data material independently of each other with the help of the coding guide⁸. In case of discrepancies, coding was made consensually in the second step after a comparison.

A total number of 8 students from the Czech Republic (2 male students, 6 female students) and 23 students from Austria (6 male students and

⁸ The two coders first agreed on steps on how to proceed with the coding: These included independently passages relevant to the previously formulated research questions and summarizing them at a higher level of abstraction in a code. In the coding guide, the two coders also collected actual examples for the formulation of codes together from the corpus in advance, so that there was a common basis of understanding of the level of abstraction.

17 female students) participated in the survey. The students studying in the Czech Republic were between 23 and 26 years old (average age: 24,6), they were, on average, in their 9th semester of study and had an average of 17.7 months of practical experience in teaching German classes in school. The students studying in Austria were between 21 and 38 years old (average age: 24,8), they were, on average, in their 8th semester of study and had an average of 7.6 months of practical experience in teaching German in schools.

The questionnaire was used to collect data to answer the following research questions:

- RQ 1: What experience do pre-service teachers have with various aspects of SSA?
- RQ 2: How do pre-service teachers think SSA is best implemented (didactic approach, aims, target group)?
- RQ 3: What advantages and possible problems do pre-service teachers see in SSA?
- RQ 4: Do pre-service teachers consider SSA “accurate” and how do they justify their opinion?
- RQ5: How can the statements of the participants be assigned to the concepts of a growth and fixed mindset?

3 Analysis

Due to the small size of the sample and the fact that there are hardly any systematic differences in the answers of students from the two countries, the evaluation for most questions is presented for both countries together and not separately by country.

RQ1: What experience do pre-service teachers have with various aspects of SSA?

Table 1 shows that the majority of trainee teachers (CZ 75%; AT 52%) in both countries have not used SSA in their classrooms. Interestingly, the second largest group is of those who say they have had experience with SSA, but only in relation to their own work (i.e. for planning a lesson) and not in their own teaching as a teacher. Those students then also state that they have had very positive experiences with SSA in relation to their own work, as this text quote shows:

Sehr gute Erfahrungen; wichtig für Entwicklung der Lehrpersönlichkeit; hoher Lernfaktor. (AT21, Pos. 7; translation: Very good experience; important for the development of the teaching personality; high learning factor)

Table 1*SSA used in once classroom*

Use of SSA	CZ		AT	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
no	6	75	13	52
yes, for my own work (lesson planning)	1	12.5	4	16
yes, unspecified (generally for feedback)	1	12.5	3	12
with private tutoring (one-to-one teaching setting)	0	0	2	8
at the end of chapters to reflect on the progress of learning	0	0	1	4
to check prior knowledge	0	0	1	4
yes, for revision	0	0	1	4
Total number	8	100	25	100

Some further questions related to whether the student teachers experienced SSA personally as learners. Also, with this question only very small differences can be found between the two countries: Only half of the participating students from the Czech Republic and 42,85 percent of the students from Austria have experienced forms of SSA as learners.

Table 2*Experience with SSA as a student*

Experience with SSA as a Student?	CZ		AT	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
no	4	50	12	57,14
yes, but it was difficult	1	12,5	4	19,05
yes, in foreign language teaching	1	12,5	2	9,52
yes, at university level	1	12,5	1	4,76
yes, with positive experiences	1	12,5	1	4,76
yes, entrance examination for teacher training	0	0	1	4,76
Total number	8	100	21	100

A sub-question to this research question shows what concrete experiences those students who have already used SSA in their teaching have had (Table 3). Consistent with the research findings, students emphasize that criteria as scaffolds are very important for students (cf. Andrade et al., 2008, 2010; Panadero & Romero, 2014), that assessment skills can be increased through training (cf. Schicker, 2020) and that assessing other people's texts seems to be easier for students than assessing their own texts (cf. Fix, 2006, p. 176f).

Table 3

Experience

Experience Using SSA?	Frequency	%
no experience	11	47.83
precise and clear criteria/questions or scaffolds are important	3	13.04
good experience with SSA (unspecified)	3	13.04
self-evaluation-competence increases with experience	2	8.7
to increase the ability of learners to self-reflect	2	8.7
it is easier to evaluate another person's text than to self-evaluate one's own text	2	8.7
Total number	23	100

RQ2: How do pre-service teachers think SSA is best implemented (didactic approach, aims, target group)?

To answer the second research question, the trainee teachers were first asked how they have or would didactically guide SSA (Table 4).

Table 4*Methodical procedure*

Methodical Procedure	Frequency	%
with a questionnaire	7	29.17
categories/criteria were provided	5	20.83
comparing self-evaluation with external evaluation	5	20.83
digital instruments	4	16.67
learning journal	1	4.17
explaining SA	1	4.17
pupils line up according to self-assessment	1	4.17
Total number	24	100

Similar to the question above, most prospective teachers make statements regarding the didactic procedure that have also been discussed theoretically in the didactic discourse (see Section 1.3) and are empirically examined as effective. These include, in particular, working with concrete criteria or questionnaires, in which reference can also be made to criteria for assessment in the form of questions. Further suggestions of the students concerning the didactic implementation, such as keeping a learning journal or the comparison of external and self-assessment, can also be classified in the didactic discourse as theoretically well-founded and meaningful. A student from Austria makes a practical suggestion for the didactic procedure of comparing self-assessment and peer assessment:

Ich würde es eventuell im Anschluss an eine schriftliche Übung oder ein Referat machen und die Schüler*innen [SuS] bitten, ihre eigene Leistung in Kategorien einzuschätzen und anschließend im Plenum die Kategorien (unabhängig von jenen der/des SuS) besprechen und um ein konstruktives Feedback bitten. Der/die SuS hat dabei die eigene Bewertung noch im Hinterkopf und kann sich dann an der Fremdeinschätzung orientieren (AT_1, Pos. 5; translation: I would possibly do it after a written exercise or a presentation and ask the students to assess their own performance in categories and then discuss the categories (independently of those of the student) in plenary and ask for constructive feedback. The student still has his/her own evaluation in mind and can then orientate him/herself on the external evaluation.)

It is interesting to note that this suggested didactic approach can also be found in the principles formulated by Panadero et al. (2016, p. 317f, see Section 1.4.).

Another aspect of RQ 2 referred to the learning goals of SSA (Table 5). The trainee teachers listed numerous learning objectives that can be achieved with the help of SSA.

Table 5

Learning goals

Learning Goals	Frequency	%
to assess/reflect one's skills and knowledge	13	35.14
promoting skills for revision	8	21.62
promoting motivation	6	16.22
self-assessment ability is promoted	6	16.22
promoting literacy skills	3	8.11
learning as a process activity becomes visible	1	2.7
Total number	37	100

In addition to the frequently mentioned learning objective of being able to assess one's own abilities, many prospective teachers locate the central objective of SSA in carrying out revisions or increasing motivation. The importance of SSA for revisions is shown in the modeling of the revision process by Bereiter & Scardamalia (2009). Revision is successful when conspicuities are identified by comparing intention and its realization (=compare), the discrepancy or inadequacies are identified (=diagnose) and only then improvements are made (=operate).

For the mentioned learning goal of enhancing motivation through SSA, studies show that SSA is associated with improved motivation, more engagement, and self-efficacy (cf. Munns & Woodward, 2006; Ross, 2006, p. 6). The answers to this question (learning goal) are also connected with the question whether SSA should be implemented for summative or formative purposes (see Section 1.1). The answers of the majority of the students accentuate the role of SSA as a formative feedback tool as they highlight its function for revision, self-reflection or as part of the learning process.

A related question regarding the implementation of SSA refers to the suitable target groups of SSA (Table 6). The answers to the question about target groups indicate that many trainee teachers consider the assessment ability of learners analogous to a fixed mindset as relatively static and not trainable. There are some answers to this question, such as “more effective from upper school onwards as students are more reflective” (Pilsen_AT21, item 27; German translation: Ab Oberstufe wirksamer, da SuS reflektierter sind), which neglect the aspect that training and experience with SSA also increase learners' ability to assess and improve their knowledge and products through SSA. A student from the Czech Republic points to the aspect of the importance of training self-assessment skills when she writes that she “believes that it is also suitable for younger ones already, but you have to work it out step by step according to the learning level of the students.” (Pilsen_CZ5, item 27; translation: “Ich glaube, dass es auch für Kleinere schon geeignet ist, aber man muss es schrittweise nach der Lernstufe der Schülerinnen erarbeiten“.)

Table 6

Target group

Target Groups	Frequency	%
secondary level II	14	41.18
for all levels	7	20.59
secondary level (I and II) + higher levels	6	17.65
only in classes with „good“ students	3	8.82
only for university students	2	5.88
students need (years of) training in SA	2	5.88
Total number	34	100

RQ3: What advantages and possible problems do pre-service teachers see in SSA?

The third research question is related to what benefits (Table 7) and possible problems (Table 8) prospective teachers see in SSA. With regard to the benefits of SSA, the respondents emphasize, among other things, its importance in promoting the self-reflective skills of learners and learner autonomy (the promotion of learner autonomy and students do not have to depend on the feedback of teachers). In the Anglo-American world, this aspect of „self-assessment“ to promote learner autonomy (cf. Andrade & Du,

2007, p. 161) and self-regulated learning (see Section 1.3) is accentuated. One trainee teacher emphasizes this, for example, when she writes that learners can “track their own progress” thanks to SSA (Pilsen_CZ6, item 11; translation: “Sie können ihren Fortschritt selbst verfolgen”).

Table 7

Advantages

Advantages SSA	Frequency	%
self-reflection: reflection of one’s own learning progress	12	26.67
students learn to assess their own works and skills	9	20
promotion of learner autonomy	8	17.78
documentation of the learning process (for others)	5	11.11
increases self-confidence	5	11.11
authentic feedback (about the skills of students)	2	4.44
the ability to criticize is encouraged	2	4.44
students do not have to depend on feedback from teachers	1	2.22
Promotion of language awareness	1	2.22
Total number	45	100

The prospective teachers see possible disadvantages or problems in the use of SSA mainly in the fact that the students „misjudge“ themselves. As discussed in Section 1.1 and 1.4, Brown et al. (2015, p. 4) address this fear of trainee teachers by highlighting a significant aspect of assessment processes: “Does it matter if students are inaccurate in their self-assessments, as long as they are engaged in thinking about the quality of their work?”

Table 8*Possible problems*

Possible Problems	Frequency	%
underestimation or overestimation	10	26.32
mismatch between self-assessment and external assessment	9	23.68
pupils with incorrect SA could be strengthened in this	5	13.16
students have no motivation for SA	4	10.53
students do not take it seriously	3	7.89
shyness/fear to assess themselves	3	7.89
too little experience	2	5.26
institutional frameworks are not suitable for SA	1	2.63
time-consuming	1	2.63
Total number	38	100

RQ 4: Do pre-service teachers consider SSA accurate and how do they justify their opinion?

When asked whether they consider SSA to be accurate and objective, the relative majority of trainees state that it is on the whole neither accurate nor objective (Table 9). And as stated in Section 1.4. with reference to research findings, a smaller percentage of trainee teachers also state that as empirically proven the consistency of judgment with expert judgment can be increased through more experience and the provision of clear criteria. In a sub-question to this, trainee teachers were also asked in which direction they thought students tended to be wrong in their judgments. Here, most student teachers state that they believe students tend to both overestimate and underestimate themselves (62.5%). A quarter of students believe that students tend to overestimate themselves and 12.5% of students believe that students tend to underestimate themselves.

Table 9*SSA accuracy and objectivity*

Is SSA accurate and objective?	Frequency	%
no, it is difficult to assess one's own abilities (subjective)	13	46.43
yes (various other reasons or unspecified)	5	17.86
only if the questions or criteria are clear/precise	4	14.29
only with training in SSA	3	10.71
only with certain (good) classes	2	7.14
only in a limited way	1	3.57
Total number	28	100

RQ5: How can the statements of the participants be assigned to the concepts of a growth and fixed mindset?

All statements made by the respondents were also examined to determine whether indicators of a growth or fixed mindset could be derived from them. For example, the answer that in "lower school only certain pupils are suitable for SSA" (AT_3, pos. 29-30; translation: "Unterstufe nur bei geeigneten SuS") was seen as an indicator that the trainee teacher sees the ability to assess one's own assignments more as a predetermined skills which cannot be changed by training (=fixed mindset).

When assigning the statements of all the pre-service teachers as a whole to a growth mindset (=self-assessment skills can be learned with suitable training) or a fixed mindset (=self-assessment skills are only mastered by certain particularly reflective students), it is evident that although 43.8% cannot be classified and 9.4% make statements that can be assigned to both mindsets, 28.1% of the prospective teachers can be assigned to a growth mindset and 18.8% to a fixed mindset.

4 Conclusion and limitations

4.1 Conclusion

Summarizing the results of this research, it appears that only a minority of trainee teachers participating in this survey have experienced SSA as students themselves (in total for both countries: 46.4%) and that even fewer have been able to implement SSA as teachers in their classroom (in

total for both countries: 22.25%). However, the answers of the pre-service teachers on how best to implement SSA didactically certainly reflect the current didactic research discourse. The fact that the trainee teachers have theoretical knowledge about SSA is not only evident in their answers to the question of how best to implement SSA in the classroom, but also in the fact that in both countries, 71.6% of the study participants state that they have already learned and heard something about SSA in their teacher training.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the results of the survey. Firstly, although the results show that the vast majority of trainee teachers have learned something about SSA in their teacher training, only a minority have been able to carry out self-assessments themselves as learners at school and in their university studies. This circumstance must ultimately also be taken into account in the didactic design of seminars at the university. As it seems that it still occurs all too often that concepts such as SSA are taught in teacher training but are then not implemented in the didactic design of seminars in university teaching.

Secondly, if one looks at the statements of the individual prospective teachers as a whole and assign them to a growth mindset (self-assessment skills can be learned with suitable training) or a fixed mindset (self-assessment skills are only mastered by certain particularly reflective students), it is evident that 9.4% make statements that can be assigned to both mindsets, and 18.8% to a fixed mindset. Didactically, it would be desirable if it were clearly accentuated that self-assessment skills can be learned through suitable didactic training, and (linguistic) competencies can thus not only be appropriately assessed but also promoted. Two student teachers emphasize this aspect when they write that "nicht nur die LP hat die Aufgabe den Lernfortschritt der SuS festzustellen, sondern die Schüler werden aktiv eingebunden (Pilsen_AT16, Pos. 11; translation: Not only the teacher has the task to determine the learning progress of the pupils, but the pupils are actively involved) and that SSA "macht deutlich, dass man Schreiben nicht einfach ‚kann‘, sondern ‚lernen‘ kann" (AT_7, Pos. 12; translation: Makes it clear that one cannot simply "do" writing but can "learn" it).

4.2 *Limitations*

Due to the qualitative nature of the study and the small, non-representative sample, the results of the study cannot be generalized beyond the current sample. The other major limitation of this study is its self-reported nature. As

the survey investigates teachers' perceptions, responses may reflect despite the anonymity of the survey some elements of social desirability. Perhaps quite different results would emerge were the students of these teachers surveyed or their classrooms observed. For future studies a triangulation of the investigation beliefs and actual classroom practice would be desirable. In addition, an analysis of the teacher training curricula that the students have gone through would be of interest in order to be able to establish points of reference to the concrete statements made by the students and their training.

References

- Abdou, N. (2017). Peer/self-assessment and student learning. *The International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 29, 255.
- Andrade, H. (2008). Self-assessment through rubrics. *Educational Leadership*, 65(4), 60–63.
- Andrade, H. (2019). A critical review of research on student self-assessment. *Frontiers in Education*, 4. <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/educ.2019.00087>
- Andrade, H., & Boulay, B. (2003). Role of rubric-referenced self-assessment in learning to write. *Journal of Educational Research*. (97), 21–34.
- Andrade, H., & Du, Y. (2005). Student perspectives on rubric-referenced assessment. *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation*, 10(3), 5–16.
- Andrade, H., & Du, Y. (2007). Student responses to criteria-referenced self-assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 32(2), 159–181.
- Andrade, H., Du, Y., & Mycek, K. (2010). Rubric-referenced self-assessment and middle school students' writing. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 17(2), 199–214.
- Andrade, H., Du, Y., & Wang, X. (2008). Putting rubrics to the test: The effect of a model, criteria generation, and rubric-referenced self-assessment on elementary school students' writing. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, 27, 3–13.
- Barney, S., Khurum, M., Petersen, K., Unterkalmsteiner, M., & Jabangwe, R. (2012). Improving students with rubric-based self-assessment and oral feedback. *IEEE Transactions on Education*, 55(3), 319–325.
- Becker-Mrotzek, M. (2014). Schreibleistungen bewerten und beurteilen. In H. Feilke & T. Pohl (Eds.), *Deutschunterricht in Theorie und Praxis. (DTP) Handbuch zur Didaktik der deutschen Sprache und Literatur in elf Bänden. 4. Schriftlicher Sprachgebrauch – Texte verfassen* (pp. 501–513). Schneider-Verl. Hohengehren.
- Bereiter, C., & Scardamalia, M. (2009). *The psychology of written composition. The psychology of education and instruction*. Routledge.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), 81–109. <https://www.cambridge.org/core/article/teacher-cognition-in-language-teaching-a-review-of-research-on-what-language-teachers-think-know-believe-and-do/F6B40C79983C27649FC1157D4023A776>.
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. Continuum.

- Bourke, R. (2014). Self-assessment in professional programmes within tertiary institutions. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 19(8), 908–918.
- Bradshaw, B. (2001). Do students effectively monitor their comprehension. *Reading Horizons*, 41(3), 143–154.
- Bredthauer, S., & Engfer, H. (2018). *Natürlich ist Mehrsprachigkeit toll! Aber was hat das mit meinem Unterricht zu tun?* <https://kups.ub.uni-koeln.de/8092/>.
- Bromme, R. (2014). *Der Lehrer als Experte. Zur Psychologie des professionellen Wissens*. Waxmann.
- Brown, G. T. L., Andrade, H. L., & Chen, F. (2015). Accuracy in student self-assessment: Directions and cautions for research. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 22(4), 444–457.
- Brown, G. T. L., & Harris, L. R. (2013). Student self-assessment. In J. H. McMillan (Ed.), *SAGE handbook of research on classroom assessment* (pp. 367–393). SAGE.
- Brown, G. T. L., & Harris, L. R. (2014). The future of self-assessment in classroom practice: Reframing self-assessment as a core competency. *Frontline Learning Research*, 2(1), 22–30.
- Butler, Y. (2018). Young learners' processes and rationales for responding to self-assessment items: Cases of generic can-do and five-point, Likert-type formats. In J. M. Davis, J. M. Norris, M. E. Malone, T. H. McKay, & Y.-A. Son (Eds.), *Useful assessment and evaluation in language education* (pp. 21–40). Georgetown University Press.
- Carless, D., Bridges, S. M., Chan, C. K. Y., & Glofcheski, R. (Eds.) (2018). *The enabling power of assessment: Vol. 5. Scaling up assessment for learning in higher education*. Springer Nature Singapore.
- Carlsen, C., Dypedahl, M., & Iversen, S. H. (Eds.) (2019). *Teaching and learning English*. Cappelen Damm Akademisk.
- Cephe, P. T., & Yalcin, C. G. (2015). Beliefs about foreign language learning: The effects of teacher beliefs on learner beliefs. *The Anthropologist*, 19(1), 167–173.
- Chang, C.-C., Tseng, K.-H., & Lou, S.-J. (2012). A comparative analysis of the consistency and difference among teacher-assessment, student self-assessment and peer-assessment in a web-based portfolio assessment environment for high school students. *Computers & Education*, 58, 303–320.
- Davis, J. M., Norris, J. M., Malone, M. E., McKay, T. H., & Son, Y.-A. (Eds.) (2018). *Useful assessment and evaluation in language education*. Georgetown University Press.
- Duke, B. L. (2003). *The influence of using cognitive strategy instruction through writing rubrics on high school students' writing self-efficacy, achievement goal orientation, perceptions of classroom goal structures, self-regulation, and writing achievement*. Norman.
- Dweck, C. (2008). *Mindset: The new psychology of success*. Ballantine Books.
- Epstein, R., Siegel, D., & Silberman, J. (2008). Self-monitoring in clinical practice: A challenge for medical educators. *The Journal of Continuing Education in the Health Professions*, 28(1), 5–13. <https://doi.org/10.1002/chp.149>
- Eva, K. W., & Regehr, G. (2008). "I'll never play professional football" and other fallacies of self-assessment. *The Journal of Continuing Education in the Health Professions*, 28(1), 14–19.
- Falchikov, N. (2005). *Improving assessment through student involvement: Practical solutions for aiding learning in higher and further education*. Routledge Falmer.
- Fitzgerald, J., & Markham, L. (1987). Teaching children about revision in writing. *Cognition and Instruction*, 4, 3–24.

- Fix, M. (2006). *Texte schreiben: Schreibprozesse im Deutschunterricht*. UTB.
- Gebriel, A., & Brown, G. (2019). Student self-assessment foreign language quality of feedback in TESOL: A learning-oriented assessment perspective. In J. de Dios Martínez (Ed.), *Quality in TESOL and teacher education. From a results culture towards a quality culture* (pp. 140–149). Routledge.
- Glaser, C., Kessler, C., Palm, D., & Brunstein, J. (2010). Improving fourth graders' self-regulated writing skills: Specialized and shared effects of process-oriented and outcome-related self-regulation procedures on students' task performance, strategy use, and self-evaluation. *Zeitschrift für Pädagogische Psychologie*, 24(3), 177–190.
- Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Hebert, M. (2011). *Informing writing: The benefits of formative assessment*. Carnegie Corporation of New York.
- Graham, S., Hebert, M., & Harris, K. R. (2015). Formative assessment and writing: A meta-analysis. *The Elementary School Journal*, 115(4), 523–547. <https://doi.org/10.1086/681947>
- Guastello, E. F. (2001). Parents as partners: Improving children's writing. In *Twenty-third yearbook of the College Reading Association* (pp. 279–293).
- Haukås, Å. (2019). Teachers' beliefs about language instruction. In C. Carlsen, M. Dypedahl, & S. H. Iversen (Eds.), *Teaching and learning English* (pp. 343–357). Cappelen Damm Akademisk.
- Jönsson, A., Panadero, E. (2017). The Use and Design of Rubrics to Support Assessment for Learning. In: Carless, D., Bridges, S., Chan, C., Glofcheski, R. (eds) *Scaling up Assessment for Learning in Higher Education. The Enabling Power of Assessment*, vol 5. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-3045-1_7.
- Kaderavek, J. N., Gillam, R. B., Ukrainetz, T. A., Justice, L. M., & Eisenberg, S. N. (2004). School-age children's self-assessment of oral narrative production. *Communication Disorders Quarterly*, 26(1), 37–48.
- Kostons, D., van Gog, T., & Paas, F. (2012). Training self-assessment and task-selection skills: A cognitive approach to improving self-regulated learning. *Learning and Instruction*, 22, 121–132.
- Kratzmann, J., Jahreiß, S., Frank, M., & Ertanir, B. (2017). Einstellungen pädagogischer Fachkräfte in Kindertageseinrichtungen zur Mehrsprachigkeit. *Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft*, 20(2), 237–258.
- Lopez, R., & Kossack, S. (2007). Effects of recurring use of self-assessment in university courses. *The International Journal of Learning: Annual Review*, 12, 203–216.
- Mayring, P. (2010). *Qualitative Inhaltsanalyse: Grundlagen und Techniken*. Beltz Verlagsgruppe.
- Micán, A., & Medina, L. (2017). Boosting vocabulary learning through self-assessment in an English language teaching context. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 42(3), 398–414.
- Munns, G., & Woodward, H. (2006). Student engagement and student self-assessment: The REAL framework. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 13(2), 193–213.
- Ndoye, A. (2017). Peer/self assessment and student learning. *The International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 29, 255–269.
- Panadero, E., Brown, G., & Courtney, M. (2014). Teachers' reasons for using self-assessment: A survey self-report of Spanish teachers. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 21(4), 365–383.

- Panadero, E., Brown, G., & Strijbos, J.-W. (2016). The future of student self-assessment: A review of known unknowns and potential directions. *Educational Psychology Review*, 28, 803–830. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-015-9350-2>
- Panadero, E., & Brown, G. T. L. (2017). Teachers' reasons for using peer assessment: Positive experience predicts use. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 32(1), 133–156. www.jstor.org/stable/44951865.
- Panadero, E., Jönsson, A., & Botella, J. (2017). Effects of self-assessment on self-regulated learning and self-efficacy: Four meta-analyses. *Educational Research Review*, 22, 74–98. <http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:hkr:diva-17143>
- Panadero, E., Jönsson, A., & Strijbos, J.-W. (2016). Scaffolding self-regulated learning through self-assessment and peer assessment: Guidelines for classroom implementation. In D. Laveault & L. Allal (Eds.), *Assessment for learning: Meeting the challenge of implementation* (pp. 311–326). Springer International Publishing.
- Panadero, E., Lipnevich, A., & Broadbent, J. (2019). Turning self-assessment into self-feedback. In M. Henderson, R. Ajjawi, D. Boud, & E. Molloy (Eds.), *The impact of feedback in higher education. Improving assessment outcomes for learners* (pp. 147–163). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Panadero, E., & Romero, M. (2014). To rubric or not to rubric? The effects of self-assessment on self-regulation, performance and self-efficacy. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 21(2), 133–148.
- Remesal, A. (2007). Educational reform and primary and secondary teachers' conceptions of assessment: The Spanish instance, building upon Black and Wiliam. *The Curriculum Journal*, 18(1), 27–38.
- Reynolds, C. J., Hill, D. S., Swassing, R. H., & Ward, M. E. (1988). The effects of revision strategy instruction on the writing performance of students with learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, (21), 540–545.
- Ross, J. A. (2006). The reliability, validity, and utility of self-assessment. *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation* 11, (10). <http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=11&n=10>
- Ross, J. A., Rolheiser, C., & Hogaboam-Gray, A. (1999). Effects of self-evaluation training on narrative writing. *Assessing Writing*, 6, 107–132.
- Sadler, P. M., & Good, E. (2006). The impact of self- and peer-grading on student learning. *Educational Assessment*, 11(1), 1–31.
- Sanchez, C., Atkinson, K. M., Koenka, A. C., Moshontz, H., & Cooper, H. (2017). Self-grading and peer-grading for formative and summative assessments in 3rd through 12th grade classrooms: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 109, 1049–1066.
- Schicker, S. (2020). *Förderung der Textbeurteilungskompetenz von Lernenden: Eine Interventionsstudie in sprachlich heterogenen Klassen. Sprachliche Bildung Studien: Band 4.* Waxmann.
- Schramm, K. (2018). Methoden zur empirischen Erforschung des Schreibens in Deutsch als Zweitsprache. In W. Grieshaber, S. Schmöler-Eibinger, & H. Roll (Eds.), *DaZ-Handbücher. Schreiben in der Zweitsprache Deutsch. Ein Handbuch* (pp. 33–49).
- Siegesmund, A. (2016). Increasing student metacognition and learning through classroom-based learning communities and self-assessment. *Journal of Microbiology & Biology Education*, 17(2), 204–214.
- Siow, L.-F. (2015). Students' perceptions on self- and peer-assessment in enhancing learning experience. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 3, 21–35.

- Tejeiro, R. A., Gomez-Vallecillo, J. L., Romero, A. F., Pelegrina, M., Wallace, A., Emberley, E. (2012). Summative self-assessment in higher education: Implications of its counting towards the final mark. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 10(2), 789–812.
- van Helvoort, A. J. (2012). How adult students in information studies use a scoring rubric for the development of their information literacy skills. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship*, 38(3), 165–171. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0099133312000596>.
- Yan, Z., Brown, G. T. L., Lee, J. C.-K., & Qiu, X.-L. (2020). Student self-assessment: Why do they do it? *Educational Psychology*, 40(4), 509–532.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Attaining self-regulation: A social cognitive perspective. In M. Boekaerts, M. Zeidner, & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 13–39). Academic Press.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Moylan, A. R. (2009). Self-regulation: Where metacognition and motivation intersect. In D. J. Hacker, J. Dunlosky, & A. C. Graesser (Eds.), *The educational psychology series. Handbook of metacognition in education* (1st ed., pp. 299–315). Routledge.

Author

Stephan Schicker, University of Graz, Center for German as a Second Language and language education, Universitätsplatz 1/I, 8010 Graz, Austria, e-mail: stephan.schicker@uni-graz.at

Přesvědčení budoucích učitelů německého jazyka o sebehodnocení studentů

Abstrakt: Cílem studie je prozkoumat přesvědčení rakouských a českých budoucích učitelů německého jazyka ohledně sebehodnocení studentů. V první části studie jsou diskutována empirická zjištění a principy týkající se sebehodnocení, a také přesvědčení učitelů. Dále je prezentována metodologie sběru a analýzy dat. Výsledky ukazují, že jen málo učitelů zažilo sebehodnocení, když byli sami studenty, a ještě méně jich využilo sebehodnocení v rámci vlastní praxe. Většina respondentů má teoretické znalosti sebehodnocení. Při analýze výroků budoucích učitelů z hlediska „growth mindset“ (= sebehodnocení jako dovednost, které se lze naučit) a „fixed mindset“ (= sebehodnotící dovednosti jsou osvojitelné jen velmi reflektivně založenými jedinci) se ukázalo, že 28,1 % budoucích učitelů lze zařadit ke „growth mindset“ a 18,8 % k „fixed mindset“ (43,8 % nešlo zařadit a 9,4 % bylo možné zařadit k oběma). Z didaktického hlediska je žádoucí, aby učitelé vnímali sebehodnocení jak o osvojitelné skrze vhodný trénink.

Klíčová slova: sebehodnocení studentů, přesvědčení učitelů, autoregulované učení, němčina jako cizí jazyk, němčina jako druhý jazyk