ASSESSING ORACY: CHASING THE TEACHERS' UNSPOKEN ORACY CONSTRUCT ACROSS DISCIPLINES IN THE LANDSCAPE BETWEEN POLICY AND FREEDOM

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Abstract
The aim is to capture teachers' implicit oracy construct across disciplines through surveying 495 teachers on a high-stakes oral national exam in the 10th grade. The survey and the results were interpreted with concepts and ideas from rhetorical theory and tradition. The results of the study show that teachers value a complex oracy construct. The teachers' genre expectancy for oracy seem to be a balance between the three modes of persuasion: logos (i.e., subject specific content), ethos (the ability to display character), and pathos (the ability to have an emotional influence on the audience). The constructs have specific discipline characteristics as well as features that are consistent within disciplines. For teachers, a pattern of a unified oracy construct is developed from, and embedded in, their collective everyday practices, culture, and traditions. The discussion raises issues related to future curriculum development and educational sustainability.

Keywords: oracy assessment, curriculum development and educational sustainability, oral competence, rhetoric, teachers' doxa and norms

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1. INTRODUCTION

Oral competence (oracy) allows humans to express themselves clearly and understandably and to exercise their rights in a democratic society as well as in their personal lives. Oracy is related to rhetoric and as Burke (1973) argues, rhetoric enables people to navigate through life. Likewise, oral competence is to productively collaborate and think together in creating new knowledge at work (Littleton & Mercer, 2013) and at school (Rychen & Salganik, 2003). Moreover, in school systems such as the Norwegian one, oracy plays an important part in high stakes examinations because school certificates of completion are partly based on oral exams in school disciplines.

Despite the importance of oral competence, our knowledge about how teachers define and assess oracy in schools is quite lopsided (Mercer, Warwick, & Ahmed, 2017). When oracy has been studied in test situations, previous research has tended to focus on language disciplines (Luoma, 2004), and the oracy construct has especially been under scrutiny in several L2 (English as a second language) settings (Bøhn, 2016). Thus, we know little about how oracy is conceptualized and assessed by teachers in other disciplines apart from language disciplines, and whether an overarching construct of oracy exists.

With this challenge in mind, I seek to explore what teachers understand as good quality oracy in assessment (*teachers' qualifying norms*) (Berge, 1990), and whether patterns for an oracy construct across disciplines can be detected. This will be achieved by conducting an abductive quantitative investigation on teachers' perceived assessment on a national, oral exam in the 10th grade[1] in Norway[2].

The debate on how to assess oracy is ongoing (Mercer et al., 2017). In my interpretation, two main paradigms of oracy testing research have been established in the educational setting. One paradigm is the rhetorical tradition, where rhetoric and oracy in the American educational context are more or less the same and where public speech classes and debate teams in school are prevalent (Johnson, 1991; Kinneavy, 1990). At the level of higher education, a large body of research on verbal communication, oral communication and communication in the disciplines also exists (Johnson, 1991; Kinneavy, 1990).

The other paradigm is in the British context, based partly on the work of Andrew Wilkinson, Neil Mercer and others. The term *oracy* is used to explain how children can use their first spoken language and listening skills in a variety of contexts (Mercer et al., 2017; Wilkinson, 1965). The term oracy was coined by Wilkinson in the 1960's and 1970's and is recently used in the work at the Cambridge Oracy Centre in an attempt to develop an oracy assessment toolkit for children ages 11–12 in L1 (Mercer

[1] *Note that the 10th grade is the last grade of compulsory education in Norway. This final exam will in part determine students' final grade point average.*

[2] *This article is a part of a mixed methods study with a parallel convergent design (Creswell, 2014) based on three separate articles.*

et al., 2017) based on a framework which consists of physical dimensions, cognitive dimensions, linguistic dimensions, and social and emotional dimensions.

The present study bridges the two paradigms by taking the best of the two worlds. The term oracy, from the European tradition, is selected for this article since it is a helpful term for educational purposes (Mercer et al., 2017). From the other paradigm, rhetoric is embraced for this study, since rhetoric has a vocabulary to describe qualities in oral language use and is known as the art of speaking (*rhetorica*/the discipline) as well as the science about how to speak well (*eloquentia*/the domain) (Andersen, 1995; Aristotle, 2006).

Initially, Mercer et al. (2017) identified a mismatch between the knowledge we have about oracy, the assessment of oracy in schools, and the political importance of oracy (Mercer et al., 2017). Building on the earlier work of Howe (1991) and Barnes (1980), Mercer et al. (2017) point out three reasons for this mismatch: the oral language is ephemeral, it is time consuming to assess each individual student's spoken language, and each speech situation requires a specific assessment. Moreover, Mercer et al. (2017) refer to Oliver, Haig and Rochecouste (2005), who also stress that teachers believe that it is challenging to assess oracy and they do not feel that they have the skills to assess the spoken language. Additionally, the spoken language has been considered part of a conversation with others, since there is always a speaker and a receiver; making it hard to assess at an individual level (Wilson, Neja, Scalise, Templin, William, & Torres Irriharra, 2012, in Mercer et al., 2017).

In the Nordic countries, many studies have investigated classroom dialogues (Andersson-Bakken, 2014; Dam, 1999; Danielsen, 1999; Dysthe, 1993, 1995; Haugsted, 1999; Matre, 1997; Nystrand, 1997; Sahlström, 2009, 2011, 2012; Solem, 2016) focusing on the interactional patterns of classroom talk itself. Some studies have investigated instructional and feedback practices on oral presentations in the classroom (Hertzberg, 2010; Penne, 2006; Svenkerud, Klette, & Hertzberg, 2012). Other researchers have examined the assessment conversation between teachers after (L1) oral national exams in Sweden (Mark & Palmér, 2017; Palmér, 2010; Palmér & Mark, 2017) and found that teachers are generally in agreement about the final grade. Some Nordic studies have found that classic rhetoric has a vocabulary that describes the qualities of oral language and that it is a helpful tool in working with oracy in the classroom (Gelang, 2008; Olsson Jers, 2010; Svenkerud, 2013; Svennevig, Tønnesson, Svenkerud, & Klette, 2012). As noted in the introduction, despite this research, further exploration is needed in some areas. First, little is in fact known about oracy across disciplines. Secondly, there is limited knowledge about whether a joint implicit empirical oracy construct across subjects exists where students and teachers act in the actual social and cultural reality, their *kairos*. The present study occupies this niche.

2. ORACY AND POLICY IN THE NORWEGIAN CONTEXT

A curriculum can be viewed as a top-down educational and political framework since assessment and teaching are of political importance (Evensen, Berge, Thygesen, Matre, & Solheim, 2016). For teachers' understandings and interpretations of the policies acted out in a school setting, the term *enactment* is useful (Braun, Maguire, & Ball, 2010). Policies in this study are defined as a process stemming from the actual governmental documents through their implementation and enactments by teachers in the school context (Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012), where no automatic link between policy and practice seems to be observed.

The term *norm* in this article refers to qualifying or constitutive norms, which represents the rules, regulations and framework for a type of behavior, for example, what is meant with good oral competency in one culture (Berge, 1990; Matre et al., 2011; Searle, 1969; Sundby, 1974). The type of knowledge I seek to find from the teachers might be based on a doxa knowledge, a type of knowledge that is not closely connected to theory or testable, but a type of knowledge based on accumulated experience through everyday life (Matre et al., 2011; Polanyi, 1958, 1967). Polanyi's conception of the tacit dimension helps to explain why teachers in their educational practices, for example, make sense of assessments through intuition and hunches, referring to knowing how to do an assessment but not really understanding why. The knowledge I seek to discover in this study is best expressed as implicit knowledge or the teachers' doxa. In the context of the survey, parts of the teachers' implicit knowledge can be brought to the surface and transformed through the teachers' reflections in the process of completing the survey (Gilje, 2017).

In a broader context, this study is related to an increasing global focus on education, common standards and competencies in alignment with educational policies; that is, the Organization for Economic Co-operative and Development's (OECD) Definitions and Selection of Competencies (DeSeCo, 2005). More specifically, the project is prompted by an educational reform in Norway that attempts to make oracy a cross-curricular competence (Knowledge promotion, 2006). In 2006, five key competencies[3] (oracy, writing, reading, numeracy, and digital competence) were introduced in the national curriculum (Knowledge promotion, 2006). The idea of the five key competences was drawn from the OECD's work with the DeSeCo documents (Berge, 2007; Knain, 2001; Rychen & Salganik, 2001). These competences were integrated and adapted in each subject, placing the responsibility for teaching and assessing oracy on the individual teacher (Jølle, 2014). Consequently, the Norwegian curriculum reform challenges the traditional conceptualization of teaching and assessing (Jølle, 2014) oracy as previously belonging to language subjects (L1, L2, L3).

[3] *In this article, and in alignment with the intentions of the reform, the term* competence *substitutes the Norwegian term* ferdighet*, which is usually translated as "skills" as was done in Hertzberg & Roe (2016).*

One cannot take for granted that the teachers have developed a good understanding of what oracy is and how it can be assessed. In spite of the fact that oracy is one of the five key competences in the national curriculum (LK06), it was initiated without a clear oracy construct (Hertzberg, 2009) and the assessment system was not revised accordingly (Berge et al., 2017). However, according to Aksnes (2016), Norwegian teachers have assessed oracy since 1883. Thus, there is a long tradition for teaching and assessing oracy without standard-driven policies. Therefore, one can assume that an implied empirical oracy construct exists in the teachers' experienced knowledge base.

The national oral exam has a long tradition in Norway. Traditionally, it has been assumed that the oral exam has been a test in which knowledge (logos) is in focus, and not so much the pathos and ethos of the rhetorical competencies (Penne & Hertzberg, 2015). After the introduction of the key competencies in the new core curriculum in Norway in 2006, it was assumed that all parts of rhetorical competency would be included in the assessment procedure (Penne & Hertzberg, 2015). Consequently, the oral exam has been a subject for change and dispute (Penne & Hertzberg, 2015).

The oral exam in Norway is a performance assessment (Kane, Crooks, & Cohen, 1999) to find out whether the student can perform the task at hand. The oral exam at the 10th grade level is based on a summative and final assessment and is mandatory for all students. The students are randomly assigned to one oral exam out of seven possible disciplines, all of which are represented in this study: Norwegian (L1), English (L2), German/French/Spanish (L3), mathematics, science, social sciences, and religion and ethics. The content for the oral exam is drawn from the randomly assigned subject. The preparation time for students is currently one day at school with possible assistance from the teacher of the specific discipline.

The oral exam is administered by each local educational authority, leaving the responsibility up to each school district and up to each local school in the end (Bøhn, 2016). As a result of this policy, there is no standardization in terms of task on the oral exam (Bøhn, 2016). Yet, the format is partly standardized. The examination is supposed to last for 30 minutes, whereby a third of the time should contain prepared material from the student and where the remaining twenty minutes are left for questions, related to the prepared material, from the examiners for the students to answer. The prepared part was included in the oral exam after the introduction of the school reform and the new core curriculum in 2006. In 2013, the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training suggested removing the prepared part of the oral exam. However, due to adverse reactions from the teachers, the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training decided to keep this part (Penne & Hertzberg, 2015). The national assessment study about the implementation of the core curriculum (LK06) in Norway shows that the national oral exam keeps teachers motivated to work with oracy in the classroom (Hertzberg, 2012).

Marks range from 1 (poor achievement) to 6 (excellent achievement). Two teachers are involved: one homeroom teacher who functions as an examiner and

one external teacher/examiner. Both teachers discuss and must agree upon the grade. The external teacher/examiner is supposed to ensure an external and neutral second opinion on the students' performances. In the present study, teachers and external examiners answered the digital survey separately. In order to gain insight into how different aspects of oracy are valued across subjects, three main research questions are posed:

1) To what extent do oracy dimensions vary across school subjects?
2) To what extent do teachers representing school subjects value oracy dimensions differently?
3) What tendencies of a shared oracy construct appear across subjects?

Question 2 is a specification of question 1: to what extent do the dimension found in question 1 differ between school subjects. Question 3 should be read as to what extent dimensions overlap between school subjects, thus combining question 2 and 3: to what extent are dimensions subject specific.

3. METHODS

3.1 Participants

To answer the research questions in this study, 495 teachers were surveyed with a digital questionnaire, which tapped into their conceptions of oracy. The teachers were all examiners on the final oral exam in 10th grade in the spring of 2016. For the distribution of teachers from various subjects, see Table 1.

Table 1. Type and percentage of participants

Type of teacher	N (invited)	N (responded)	Percentage responded	Percentage of responding sample
Norwegian L1		92		18.6
English L2		80		16
Foreign Languages (German/French/Spanish) L3		68		13.8
Mathematics		76		15.4
Science		68		13.8
Social Sciences		62		12.6
Religion and Ethics		49		9.9
All	1033	495	47.9	

3.2 Data collection

Sampling. Since the oral exams are administrated locally, each individual school's principal was contacted for email addresses of teachers who were examiners. Information of teachers from specific subjects was not specifically requested and therefore was not known beforehand which subject each participant represented. To have a robust sample, the goal was to reach 1000 participants; 1033 participants were reached. The survey respondents represented a broad range of teachers from all subjects. Superintendents and principals all around the country were contacted, but many were reluctant to participate during the exam period (in the spring term) since the teachers have a heavy workload at that time of the year. Each local community was randomly drawn from a pool of all municipalities (of a total of 428 possible communities, 20 communities were drawn) in Norway. As an invitation, the survey was sent electronically to 1,033 teachers as examiners. Partially answered questionnaires (302) were removed from the sample, and the final sample included 495 participants who completed all the questions. This equals a response rate of 47.9%. The digital questionnaire was completed anonymously. All data were gathered in the spring of the academic year 2015–2016 continuing into the fall of 2016. Three reminders were sent.

In terms of ethical considerations, the detailed characteristics of the participants were left out, the materials were handled anonymously, and the study was approved by the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD).

3.3 The instrument

Because instruments for tapping into teachers' conception of oracy were lacking in the Norwegian context, a questionnaire called "SNAKK," which means "TALK" in Norwegian, was developed. This instrument was tested out as a new instrument for measuring what teachers say they emphasize when assessing oracy. The instrument was piloted on a small sample of teachers in lower secondary school in an informal setting.

"SNAKK" is based on the triangular communication model in rhetorical theory and tradition. Aristotle was the first to discuss the triangular communication model, which included the speaker, the topic, and the listener (Kjeldsen, 2006). In all classic rhetoric, speech is communicated to the listener. The communicative goal of speech (*telos*) is to reach the audience and the meaning making occurs within this triangular communication model (Kjeldsen, 2006). Oracy, in this article, is *intentional oracy* (Fafner, 2005), where rhetoric creates the very foundation for the ability of knowing how to express oneself well and intentionally. In the exam situation, *kairos* equals the situation of speech or the *rhetorical situation* in this article (Bitzer, 1997) and the students or the *rhetor* has subject knowledge and facts (*atechnoi*) that have to be displayed in a convincing matter with the use of rhetorical skills (*entechnoi*) (Kjeldsen, 2006).

The core curriculum was used as a point of departure. The curriculum was examined for verbs that might be connected to the assessment of oracy from competence aims for 10th grade across the curriculum. Additionally, it was important to include the teachers' opinions. A few teachers were asked if they would accept or disregard the suggested verbs from the curriculum as well as if they would like to add verbs used in the assessment of oracy. The results of the process ended up in a few added verbs such as the ability to have eye contact, being independent of notes, and the tone of voice. In the end, a core question was developed. The verb in the core question changed from each question to the next. An example of the type of questions is, "How much does the ability *to reason* count in the assessment process on the oral exam?" The verb in the question sentence varied from question to question (see Appendix).

Table 2. Developing the instrument

Quotes from the Curriculum (in Norwegian):	Translation to English (my translation):	Verbs:	Comments from teachers:	Operationalized into Aristotle's categories in the analyzing process:
L1: "Delta i diskusjoner med begrunnende meninger og saklig argumentasjon" (p.38)	Be able to participate in discussions with valid arguments and reasoning	-argue -reason	Accepted verbs as argue and reason	Both verbs represent Aristotle's logos category

Fifteen questions about content, knowledge, professionalism, content terms, vocabulary, communication, independence, structure, and the ability to clarify, explain, justify, argue, see relationships, reflect, and analyze were used to capture the concept of *logos*.

Ten questions about creativity, originality, body language, voice, intonation, eye contact and the ability to show engagement, visualize, dramatize, and speak freely without a manuscript were used to capture the concept of *ethos*. Five questions about the ability to show situation awareness, receiver awareness, motivation, persuasion, and engagement were developed to measure the concept of *pathos*.

To control the reliability of the categorizations, one colleague looked through the questions, verified, and supported the categorization of questions used to capture these concepts. This qualitative judgment supported the initial categorization of the questions belonging to logos, ethos, and pathos categories. The questions were rated on a 5-point scale, and the questions had descriptors for all the numbers, ranging from 0 to 4: 0 (not even evaluated), 1 (of little importance), 2 (of average importance), 3 (important), and 4 (very important). The questionnaire contained 30 items in total.

3.4 Data analysis

In analyzing the data, the verbs were categorized and operationalized into Aristotle's basic three categories of persuasion: *logos, ethos,* and *pathos* verbs. In Aristotle' ancient theory of the situation of speech, this can be done through three modes of persuasion (ethos, logos, and pathos). To understand the analyzing process, it is necessary to briefly explain the exam situation related to rhetorical concepts. In the exam situation (*kairos*), the student displays his or her personal character through the spoken word in such a way that the examiners think of him or her as credible. This mode of persuasion is called ethos (Aristotle, 2006). However, the students' ethos is not previously established with the external examiner/teacher as the student has to establish his ethos through convincing subject facts and knowledge (logos) or the other two modes of persuasion. The mode of persuasion is referred to as pathos, which appeals to the examiners' sense of emotions (Aristotle, 2006). This pathos mode of persuasion occurs when the audience members, who are the teachers in this study, are set in a special circumstance or mood, such as when the teacher becomes sympathetic toward a nervously performing student. Additionally, the three modes of persuasion interplay with each other and might be present at the same time.

To indicate the internal consistency of informants' responses to the SNAKK instrument, reliability analyses were completed by calculating Cronbach's coefficient alpha for each of the three dimensions. After the initial analysis, 13 items were kept for logos, 10 items for ethos, and five for pathos. These are shown in Appendix.

The quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS Version 24. No data from the respondents were missing (given the nature of the sample selection).

4. RESULTS

4.1 The three dimensions related to the subjects

To answer the first research question, descriptive statistics presenting the teacher's value of the dimensions and the patterns of the three rhetorical dimensions are presented in Table 3. The information is presented for the subjects that the teachers are referring to in their answers. This includes number of participants, means, standard deviation, and standard error. In addition, a bivariate correlation analysis was performed to find the level of significance between the scores and value of the rhetorical dimensions within subjects.

Although all subjects seem to share the same construct of oracy, what the teachers value seem to differ between subjects. Logos is the dimension with the highest scores and the most important aspect for teachers in the assessment process of oracy (see Table 3). Logos was most valued for Norwegian (M = 3.4). In Norwegian (L1), a significant correlation is apparent between logos and ethos (Pearson's r = .38) and a more moderate significant correlation between logos and pathos (Pearson's r =

.23). In English (L2), there is a significant correlation between logos and ethos (Pearson's r = .30), logos and pathos (Pearson's r = .34), and pathos and ethos (Pearson's r = .63). In foreign languages (L3), a significant correlation is evident between logos and ethos (Pearson's r = .39), logos and pathos (Pearson's r = .63), and pathos and ethos (Pearson's r= .68). Within the subject of mathematics, there is a strong significant correlation between pathos and ethos (Pearson's r= .70). Science has a moderate significant correlation between logos and ethos (Pearson's r = .27), between logos and pathos (Pearson's r = .24), and a relatively strong significant correlation between pathos and ethos (Pearson's r= .73). In social sciences, there is a moderate significant correlation between logos and pathos (Pearson's r = .25), and a relatively strong significant correlation between pathos and ethos (Pearson's r = .70). In religion and ethics, an apparent strong correlation is evident between pathos and ethos (Pearson's r = .70).

In order to explore the variations in approaches to oracy across subjects, Cohen's d was calculated (online using M and SD) within disciplines and indicated for Norwegian a large effect size between logos and ethos (d < .8), and between logos and pathos (d < .8), and a medium effect between pathos and ethos (d < .5). For the subject of English, there is a large effect size between logos and ethos (d < .8), logos and pathos (d < .8), and a small effect between pathos and ethos (d < .2). In foreign languages, there is a small effect size between logos and ethos as well as between logos and pathos (d < .2). Mathematics has a large effect size between logos and ethos, and also between logos and pathos (d < .8); however, a small effect size between pathos and ethos (d < .2). Science has a large effect size between logos and ethos as well as between logos and pathos (d < .8). Social science has a large effect size between logos and ethos in addition to between logos and pathos (d < .8), and a small effect size between pathos and ethos (d < .2). Religion and ethics has a large effect size between logos and ethos and the same goes for the relation between logos and pathos, and a small effect size between pathos and ethos (d < .2) (see Table 3).

Table 3. Subject characteristics of the oral construct

		Logos			Ethos			Pathos			Correlations			Effect					
	N	*M*	*S.D.*	*S.E.*	*M*	*S.D.*	*S.E.*	*M*	*S.D.*	*S.E.*	*L-E*	*L-P*	*P-E*	*L > E*		*L> P*		*P> E*	
														d	*r*	*d*	*r*	*d*	*r*
Norwegian	92	3.4	0.4	0.04	2.1	0.7	0.07	2.5	0.7	0.07	.39**	.23*	n/s	2.28	.75	1.58	.62	-.57	-.27
English	80	3.2	0.4	0.05	2.2	0.6	0.06	2.4	0.6	0.07	.31**	.35**	.63**	1.96	.70	1.57	.62	-.33	-.16
Foreign Languages	68	2.5	0.7	0.08	2.2	0.6	0.08	2.2	0.8	0.10	.39**	.63**	.68**	.46	.22	.40	.20	0	0
Mathematics	76	3.1	0.4	0.04	1.6	0.6	0.07	1.8	0.8	0.09	n/s	n/s	.70**	2.94	.83	2.06	.72	.28	.14
Science	68	3.1	0.5	0.06	1.5	0.7	0.08	1.6	0.8	0.10	.27*	.24*	.73**	2.63	.80	2.24	.75	.13	.07
Social Science	62	3.2	0.4	0.06	1.8	0.6	0.08	2.1	0.8	0.10	n/s	.25*	.71**	2.75	.81	1.74	.66	.42	.21
Religion and Ethics	49	3.3	0.4	0.06	1.7	0.8	0.11	1.9	1.0	0.14	n/s	n/s	.71**	2.53	.78	1.84	.68	.22	.11

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) (Pearson correlation)
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) (Pearson correlation)

4.2 The three dimensions related between disciplines

To gain further insights in how the three dimensions of oracy varies between disciplines, Cohen's *d* was calculated (online using M and SD) between subjects and indicated between Norwegian and English a medium effect on logos ($d < .5$) and a large effect on ethos ($d < .8$). Between Norwegian and foreign languages, there is a large effect on logos ($d < .8$), and a small effect on pathos ($d < .2$). Between Norwegian and mathematics, there is a medium effect on logos and ethos ($d < .5$), and a strong effect on pathos ($d < .8$). The relation between Norwegian and Science have a medium effect on logos ($d < .5$), and a large effect ($d < .8$) on pathos and ethos. Between Norwegian and social science, there is a medium effect on logos and pathos ($d < .5$), and a small effect on ethos ($d < .2$). Norwegian and Religion and Ethics have a small effect on logos ($d < .2$), and a medium effect on pathos and ethos ($d < .5$). English and foreign languages have a large effect on logos ($d < .5$) and a small effect on pathos ($d < .2$). English and Mathematic have a small effect on logos ($d < .2$) and a large effect on pathos and ethos ($d < .8$). English and science have a small effect on logos ($d < .2$), and a large effect on ethos and pathos ($d < .8$). English and social science have a medium effect on ethos ($d < .5$), and a small effect on pathos ($d < .2$). English and religion and ethics have a small effect ($d < .2$) on logos, and a medium effect on ethos and pathos ($d < .5$). Foreign languages and mathematics have a large effect on logos and ethos ($d < .8$), and a medium effect on pathos ($d < .5$). Foreign languages and science have a large effect on logos and ethos ($d < .8$), and a medium effect on pathos ($d < .5$). Foreign languages and social science have a large effect on logos ($d < .8$), a medium effect on ethos ($d < .5$), and a small effect on pathos ($d < .2$). Foreign languages and religion and ethics have a large effect on logos ($d < .8$), medium effect on ethos ($d < .5$), and a small effect on pathos ($d < .2$). Mathematics and science have a small effect on pathos ($d < .2$). Mathematics and social science have a small effect on logos, ethos and pathos ($d < .2$). Mathematics and religion and ethics have a medium effect on logos ($d < .5$). Science and social science have a small effect on logos ($d < .2$), and a medium effect on pathos and ethos ($d < .5$). Science and religion and ethics have a small effect on logos, ethos and pathos ($d < .2$). Social science and religion and ethics have a small effect on logos and ethos ($d < .2$) (see Table 4).

Table 4. Subject characteristics of the oral construct and how the three dimensions of Logos, Ethos and Pathos relates to each other between disciplines

	Effect					
	Logos		*Ethos*		*Pathos*	
	d	*r*	*d*	*r*	*d*	*r*
Norwegian-English	.50	.24	.87	.40	.15	.08
Norwegian –Foreign Languages	1.57	.62	-.15	-.08	.40	.20
Norwegian-Mathematics	.75	.35	.77	.36	.93	.47
Norwegian-Science	.66	.31	.86	.40	1.20	.51
Norwegian –Social Science	.50	.24	.46	.22	.53	.26
Norwegian-Religion/Ethics	.25	.12	.53	.26	.70	.33
English-Foreign Languages	1.23	.52	0	0	.28	.14
English-Mathematics	.25	.12	1.00	.45	.85	.40
English and Science	.22	.11	1.07	.47	1.13	.49
English-Social Science	0	0	.67	.31	.42	.21
English-Religion/Ethics	-.25	-.12	.70	.34	.61	.29
Foreign Languages-Mathematics	-1.1	-.47	1	.45	.50	.24
Foreign Languages-Science	-.98	-.44	1.07	.47	.75	.35
Foreign Languages-Social Science	-1.2	-.52	.67	.32	.13	.06
Foreign Languages-Religion/Ethics	-1.4	-.57	.71	.34	.33	.16
Mathematics-Science	0	0	.15	.08	.25	.12
Mathematics-Social Science	-.25	-.12	-.33	-.16	-.38	-.18
Mathematics-Religion/Ethics	-.50	-.24	-.14	-.07	-.11	-.06
Science-Social Science	-.22	-.11	-.46	-.22	-.63	-.30
Science-Religion/Ethics	-.44	-.22	-.27	-.13	-.33	-.16
Social Science-Religion/Ethics	-.25	-.12	.14	.07	.22	.11

4.3 The three dimensions related between subjects

To complement the Cohens *d* analysis a one-way analysis was conducted with a sub sequent post-hoc test. A one-way between-group analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the variance between the three group dimensions (logos, ethos, and pathos) between subjects. Participants were divided in groups according to their subjects. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level between the groups: $F(6,488) = 26,4$, $p < .05$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .24. Post hoc comparison using the Bonferroni test indicated that there were statistically significant mean differences at the $p < .05$ level between the following school subjects related to logos: foreign languages (M = 2.50, SD = 0.70) and Norwegian (M = 3.36, SD = 0.40), foreign languages (M = 2.50, SD = 0.70) and religion and ethics (M = 3.26, SD = 0.43), foreign languages (M = 2.50, SD = 0.70) and English (M = 3.24, SD = 0.43), foreign languages (M = 2.50, SD = 0.70) and mathematics (M = 3.10, SD = 0.38). Related to ethos, there are apparent strong statistically significant mean differences between the following school subjects: science (M = 1.49, SD = 0.65) and foreign languages (M = 2.20, SD = 0.63), English (M = 2.19, SD = 0.56) and science (M= 1.49, SD= 0.65), Norwegian (M= 2.11, SD= 0.65) and science (M = 1.49, SD = 0.65), English (M = 2.19, SD = 0.56) and mathematics (M =

1.59, *SD* = 0.63), English (*M* = 2.19, *SD* = 0.56) and religion and ethics (.51), Norwegian (*M* = 2.11, *SD* = 0.65) and religion and ethics (*M* = 1.68, *SD* = 0.76), foreign languages (*M* = 2.20, *SD* = 0.63) and social sciences (*M* = 1.83, *SD* = 0.65) and English (*M* = 2.19, *SD* = 0.56) and social sciences (*M* = 1.83, *SD* = 0.65). Within pathos there is a strong statistically significant mean differences between: Norwegian (*M* = 2.46, *SD* = 0.71) and science (*M* = 1.64, *SD* = 0.82), English (*M* = 2.39, *SD* = 0.63) and science (*M* = 1.64, *SD* = 0.82), Norwegian (*M* = 2.46, *SD* = 0.71) and mathematics (*M* = 1.84, *SD* = 0.83), science (*M* = 1.64, *SD* = 0.82), and foreign languages (*M* = 2.20, *SD* = 0.63), Norwegian (*M* = 2.46, *SD* = 0.71) and mathematics (*M* = 1.84, *SD* = 0.83), English (*M* = 2.39, *SD* = 0.63) and mathematics (*M* = 1.84, *SD* = 0.83), English (*M* = 2.39, *SD* = 0.63) and religion and ethics (*M* = 1.91, *SD* = 0.95), social sciences (*M* = 2.07, *SD* = 0.78) and science (*M* = 1.64, *SD* = 0.82). The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. How the three dimensions of Logos, Ethos and Pathos relate to each other between different disciplines expressed in mean score differences

	Logos	Ethos	Pathos
Foreign Languages and Norwegian	.86*		
Foreign Languages and Religion/Ethics	.77*	.53*	
Foreign Languages and Science	.58*	.72*	.56*
Foreign Languages and English	.74*		
Foreign Languages and Mathematics	.60*		
Norwegian and Science	.28*	.62*	.82*
Norwegian and Mathematics	.26*	.52*	.63*
Norwegian and Religion/Ethics		.44*	.56*
English and Mathematics		.60*	.55*
English and Social Sciences		.36*	
English and Religion/Ethics		.51*	.48*
English and Sciences		.70*	.75*
Foreign Languages and Social Sciences		.37*	
Social Sciences and Sciences			.44*

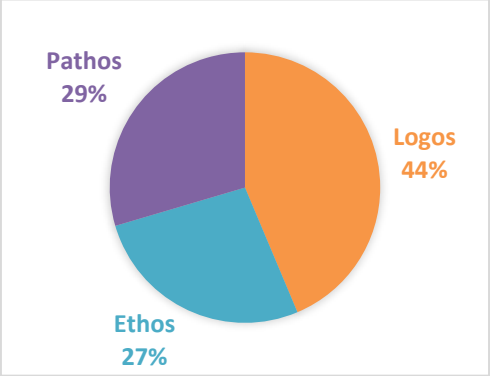
*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

4.4 Tendencies of a shared oracy construct appear across subjects

Based on the results from the analysis of the survey, the content of the utterance (logos) is the most valued part of oral competence, except in foreign languages. Logos is more valued than ethos and pathos as expressed in Table 3. Foreign languages tend to have a more balanced value of the three dimensions. Rhetorical skills—such as the ability to display the personal character of the speaker (i.e., ethos), to emotionally influence the audience/teachers (i.e., pathos)—are valued less than the ability to display content through content terminology, discussions, and argumentation (i.e., logos) (except for foreign languages). It seems that ethos and pathos are more important in the language subjects compared to what is reported for the science and social sciences subjects. The relations between the dimensions

show a pattern in the different subjects (except for foreign languages). Through the statistical methods, a survey and an analysis of the dimensions of oracy, a new hypothesis of the teachers' more or less experienced-based conception of oracy on the oral national test in Norway can be developed. The material shows us a pattern of the teachers' cross-disciplinary oracy construct (Figure 1.).

Figure 1. The teachers' doxic expectancy for oracy



4. DISCUSSION

This article has addressed how teachers report on their own concept of assessment of oral competence. The first research question was about the valued oracy dimensions used to measure oral competence in different subject domains. The teachers in the subject of Norwegian (L1) weighted logos highly, but also appreciated ethos and pathos relatively high. The correlation between logos and ethos is relatively low, but relatively small between logos and ethos. This might be due to that ethos and pathos seem to capture various elements in the teachers' understanding of oracy. The English teachers' scores indicate a very similar pattern to the one found amongst the Norwegian teachers.

When it comes to the foreign languages (Spanish, French, and German), they show the lowest logos score, but ethos and pathos still play significant roles in the assessment pattern in these (L3) subjects. This might be explained by the very fact that students have only studied these subjects for a limited time (8th to 10th grade compared to other subjects that are studied from 1st grade). Thus, teachers might not expect students to have developed an advanced vocabulary in L3. Instead, teachers seem to value the students' abilities to show an eagerness to be understood through their limited communication abilities. With limited vocabularies, the students might use mimic, gestures, and body language to express themselves and to

better be understood by the teachers as recipients. This could explain why the foreign language subjects valued all three dimensions almost most equally. A nervously performing student with a limited vocabulary and weak competency in the language and with an eagerness to perform and communicate might evoke sympathy in the teachers (audience). In the language subjects (L1, L2, L3), student oracy seems to be assessed as more or less as how effective student communication is.

In sciences, social sciences, religion and ethics, and mathematics, logos is valued most. In all these subjects, there is a high correlation between pathos and ethos, which might be due to the teachers seeming to agree on valuing these oracy dimensions less. The teachers in these subjects seem to value student comprehension of curriculum (logos) content most when assessing oracy. In these subjects, the value of student oracy seem to be related to the students' communication abilities to display and demonstrate content knowledge.

The second research question focused on how the three dimensions relate between school subjects. The school subjects seem to be divided into three groups. The first group consist of Norwegian and English, where logos has the highest score, but at the same time ethos and pathos are valued strongly. Teachers in Norwegian and English seem to value highly all three dimensions of the oracy construct, which might be due to the fact that the students have had L1 and L2 since first grade and master both languages relatively well. The second group consists of the teachers representing foreign languages (L3). They value the three oracy dimensions of logos, ethos and pathos more equally. The third group consists of social sciences, sciences, religion and ethics and mathematics. This group of subjects tend to weigh logos more in their assessment approach, which might be due to their content-oriented subject tradition, where the ability to display facts and know the right answer is most crucial. Ethos and pathos are valued in sciences and social sciences, but to a lesser degree. In a subject such as mathematics, it is not just the right answer that matters, but also the way the candidates deliver the answer through a persuasive display of personal character and emotional influence on the audience/teacher. The fact that the oral exam in Norway has a long tradition in all subjects might have influenced the way the science and social science teachers evaluated oracy in a broader sense.

The third research question is oriented towards common patterns in a possible oracy construct across disciplines. It is challenging to explain these correlations. Some of them make sense, but some are hard to explain. The students' abilities to display established knowledge with fair and unprejudiced argumentation and discussions through the speech itself seem to persuade the teachers across disciplines the most (logos). The teachers found logos, which appeal to the students' abilities to logical reasoning, to be crucial. This might be due to what has traditionally been assumed (according to Penne & Hertzberg, 2015), based on previous documents and curriculums, that the oral exam has been a test in which knowledge presentation (logos) is prominent, but not so much the other two rhetorical performance dimensions (pathos and ethos). After the introduction of the key competencies in the new core curriculum in Norway 2006, my study might demonstrate that the rhetorical

qualities of ethos and pathos as effective communication factors do matter in the assessment process of oracy across subjects, albeit to a various extent within different subject disciplines. As noted earlier, we know little about the teachers' oracy construct across disciplines, which in return provides few or no previous comparative results.

Ethos has been shown to be the least valued oracy dimension but nevertheless crucial. The students' abilities to appear credible through portraying their personal character during their performance (*actio*) in the exam situation (*kairos*) were valued across all subject domains. This may be due to the teachers' more or less experience-based knowledge and their different taste domains, which again could explain the spread on the assessment of oracy, especially with the wide spread within ethos and pathos. The teachers' consistency of consistency across subject domains indicates common denominators of the construct of oracy. The dimensions in the Norwegian teachers empirical oracy construct might be compared to the developed dimensions of oracy in Mercers and colleagues' toolkit (Mercer et al., 2017). This toolkit of the physical dimensions (voice and body language) can be compared to the ethos dimension. The cognitive dimensions (content, clarifying and summarizing, reasoning, and self-regulation) and the linguistic dimensions (vocabulary, language variety, and structure) might be compared to the logos dimension. The expressive and relational dimensions (working with others, listening and responding, and confidence in speaking) are closely linked to the pathos dimension. The Norwegian teachers' experienced-based implicit oracy construct seems to be in accordance with Mercer and colleagues' researched-based toolkit. However, the presented Norwegian teachers' construct might be more sustainable, since it seems to be embedded in the teachers' own practices.

In summary, teachers across subjects value students who argue personally and authentically when they are engaged. Teachers appreciate student abilities to express themselves in relevant and persuasive ways. The oracy construct seems to be tied to cultural traditions that do not challenge established doxa. This might be one of the explanations for the teachers' common denominators of the oracy construct across disciplines. Another reason could be that the teachers at the lower secondary level in Norway teach more than one subject, and their oracy construct might therefore have a more "fluid" character and be more cross-disciplinary in nature. Additionally, the three modes of persuasion interplay with each other and could be present at the same time.

The results of the study indicate that there are patterns in the approach teachers have in assessing oracy, although subject-specific characteristics are apparent. This is particularly interesting given that limited standardized assessment policies exist for this kind of exam. The findings thus suggest that teachers seem to develop a fairly coherent and consistent oracy construct in their collective everyday professional practices as well as when formal policies are vague. Through teachers' own initiative (Braun et al., 2010), they produce their own take on policies. In the teachers' *kairos*, the landscape between academic freedom and the reality of educational policies

that limit the teachers' actions, they develop their collective knowledge, standards, and professional judgment through their ethos, traditions and culture. However, there is a need for a clear oracy construct in such formal policies; these policies carry such educational importance that they should be developed through a bottom-up approach from the teachers' own oracy construct. The presented oracy construct hypothesis seems to have its origins, foundations, and intellectual orbits embedded in the teachers' collective professional everyday practices (Evensen et al., 2016). The results also challenge the traditional top-down approach to educational curriculum development and raise issues related to future curriculum development and educational sustainability (Evensen et al., 2016).

One shortcoming of this research is that the results are based on teachers' self-reported assessment questionnaires. Such self-reporting instruments can be biased in themselves and, at the same time, the teachers are limited in their answers to the questions in the survey. However, it is important to understand that in spite of this, the teachers are giving individual answers, and they represent collective practices as professional teachers.

5. CONCLUSION

This article has presented a theoretical framework for a construct of oracy as a key competency across school subjects. The construct has an exploratory aspect because it emerges from a self-reporting survey instrument completed by teachers. By developing this construct further, it might be possible to arrive at a clearer sense of how oracy is or can be assessed across disciplines. Such clarity might in turn contribute to more explicit and transparent assessment practices that will benefit students. In this work, the rhetorical vocabulary has been valuable.

At the same time, however, this construct seems to be in alignment with the national curriculum at a more general level. Aristotle's triangular communication model, with the speaker, the topic, and the listener (Kjeldsen, 2006), can be said to be an underlying assumption for the national curriculum and the teachers in this survey seemed to draw on this model when they reported on their assessment criteria. In fact, in comparison to the curriculum, the teachers' oracy construct might be a more complex, functional and sustainable, which "introduces an intellectual complexity that mirrors the complexity of a real-life phenomenon" (Evensen et al., 2016, p. 242).

Given the lopsided nature of oracy research, more research on oracy is still needed focusing on specific subjects across disciplines. This research might contribute to providing teachers with a common language on oracy, thereby improving their awareness of oracy. At the same time, this study has not gained insights into the reasoning and judgment behind teachers' oracy construct; this will be explored qualitatively in an upcoming article based on interviews with participants from this study. Another future study will investigate qualitative interviews of students of some of

the participants from this study, on the students' perceptions on the conceptualization, teaching and assessment of oracy.

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APPENDIX

Grading of the National Final Oral Exam in 10th Grade in the Spring of 2016

Check which subject you have been oral examiner for (if you have been an oral examiner in several subjects, choose one)
Choose one of the following:

- Norwegian (L1)
- English (L2)
- Mathematics
- Social Sciences
- Religion
- Sciences
- Foreign Languages (i.e. German, French, Spanish) (L3)

What is the main form of the oral exam?
Choose one of the following:

- Individually without aids
- Individually with aids
- Individually with preparation day at school without aids
- Individually with preparation day at school with aids
- Group exam without aids
- Group exam with aids

If aids have been used, please check which one:

- PowerPoint or Prezi (digital aids)
- Manuscript or notes
- Poster
- Black board or white board
- Other: ……..

How important is the candidate's ability to:

	Very important	Important	Of average importance	Of little importance	Not even evaluated
Explain					
Justify					
Reason					
Argue					
See connections					
Reflect					
Analyze					

How important is the candidate's ability to:

	Very important	Important	Of average importance	Of little importance	Not even evaluated
display content					
display knowledge					
be professional					
use content terms					
be independent					
be structured					

How important is the candidate's ability to:

	Very important	Important	Of average importance	Of little importance	Not even evaluated
show originality					
show engagement					
be creative					
visualize					
dramatize					
use aids					

How important is the candidate's ability to:

	Very important	Important	Of average importance	Of little importance	Not even evaluated
show recipient awareness					
use eye contact					
be independent of notes					
use body language					
use voice effectively					
use intonation effectively					
use varied vocabulary					
communicate effectively					

How important is the candidate's ability to:

	Very important	Important	Of average importance	Of little importance	Not even evaluated
engage					
motivate					

How important is the candidate's ability to:

	Very important	Important	Of average importance	Of little importance	Not even evaluated
show situational awareness					
show receiver awareness					

How important is the candidate's ability to:

	Very important	Important	Of average importance	Of little importance	Not even evaluated
be persuasive					