



UTPL
La Universidad Católica de Loja

Modalidad Abierta y a Distancia

Language Testing

Guía didáctica



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Facultad de Ciencias Sociales, Educación y Humanidades

Departamento de Filosofía, Artes y Humanidades

Language Testing

Guía didáctica

Carrera	PAO Nivel
▪ Pedagogía de los Idiomas Nacionales y Extranjeros	V

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Asesoría virtual
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Universidad Técnica Particular de Loja

Language Testing

Guía didáctica

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1. Informative data

1.1. Course presentation



1.2. UTPL Generic Competencies

Critical and reflective thinking

Commitment and social involvement

Ethical behavior, organization and time planning

1.3. Program Specific Competencies

Integrates pedagogical, linguistic, didactic, and curricular knowledge that allow, in an interdisciplinary manner, to update pedagogical models, the use of learning methodologies and the incorporation

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of knowledge for teaching English as a foreign language in a practical and systematic way that is based on the development of critical, reflective, creative and experiential thinking in relation to the development of the person and his/her context.

Applies the linguistic knowledge of the English language at a level that allows effective communication to perform professionally in teaching English to children and young people in accordance with international standards.

1.4. Issues addressed in the course

Limited methodological and didactic knowledge, as well as little development of critical and reflective thinking.

Limited knowledge on the design, application and evaluation of educational resources and strategies for the adaptation, flexibility and comprehensiveness of personalized learning experiences.



2. Learning methodology

According to Slavin (2018) constructivist strategies are called student-centered instruction because their emphasis on students as active learners. In this sense, Language Testing puts the students' interests first by focusing on student-centered learning which allow learners to discover by themselves; the teacher is a guide on the side that supports students' learning instead of lecturing or controlling activities (Slaving, 2018).

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The learning activities, strategies and tools have been carefully selected in relation to the achievement of learning outcomes and the development competencies that contribute to the professional exit profile of the program.

The formative process is based on three types of activities:

- Teaching activities
- Application and Experimentation Activities
- Autonomous Activities

Teaching activities are carried out under the supervision and direct assistance of the teacher, using synchronous or asynchronous technological tools such as video collaboration, chat or forum for the development of collaborative work between the participants of a study group.

The application and experimentation activities are presented as a task that each student carries out throughout the course individually and presents it through a written work, collaborative work, and through discussions under the requirements established by the professor.

Autonomous work requires students to develop their capacity to generate and build learning in a self-regulated way, basically through research, reading, and reflection on the materials and resources provided.

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3. Academic guidelines per learning outcome



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Learning Result 1

Designs different types of tests
for different purposes

Contents, resources, and learning activities

Throughout the study of the contents proposed for units 1 and 2, the resources, materials, and activities provided allow learners to achieve the learning result since they are involved in tasks that give a variety of opportunities to improve critical thinking skills by questioning and completing hands-on-activities.



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Unit 1. Language Assessment and Testing

According to Tosuncuoglu (2018), there are a variety of reasons to assess the foreign language teaching and learning process. One of the reasons is that assessment helps to determine the amount of students that have achieved the learning objectives, the students that have any difficulties with their learning, and the techniques that are useful during the teaching and learning process. The other reason implies the teacher's decision on whether continue the foreign language-teaching program or not. In addition, Taras (2005) claims that assessment is an important part of teaching since educators are able to determine the level of skills or knowledge of their students.

In this context, I suggest that you think about the way teachers assessed your learning. The following questions give you some ideas on what issues to consider: Did they use written tests? Did they use interactive activities? Were you provided with opportunities to put into practice what you have learned? Did teachers support your learning with comments on how to improve? Were group work and individual activities used in the classroom?

Now that you recalled some important issues that relate to the way in which you have learned, I suggest that you reflect on the activities that have helped you improve your learning.

With this in mind, I invite you to study the differences between testing and assessment.

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1.1. Differences Between Assessment and Testing

Some researchers have investigated the differences between testing and assessment; for example, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) claim that these two terms are used as synonyms but they mean something different. The authors suggest that Assessment is an ongoing process that involves the use of a variety of methodological techniques as for example when teachers appraises students' performance when responding to a question, offering a comment, or when trying a new word or structure.

On the other hand, the authors argue that tests are a subset of assessment. For example, a test is a prepared administrative procedure that is applied at a certain time in a program such as a mid-term exam, a final test, among other formal tests. Testing involves measurement and evaluation of student's responses. According to Hughes (2008), testing is one form of assessment which nature is summative and can be used at the end of the term, semester, or year to determine what groups and individuals have achieved.

So far, we have presented a summary of what testing and assessment is. Now, I invite you to read about the differences between Assessment and Testing in the following link:

<https://www.theclassroom.com/differences-between-testing-assessment-8090151.html> Once that you have read the article, I suggest that you take some notes as a strategy to better understand the topic.

According to the information that you have analyzed so far, you are ready to complete the following chart with the characteristics of assessment and testing.

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Assessment	Testing

Table 1. *Assessment vs Testing*

As you were completing the chart, you might have thought of the activities or methods you have used to assess EFL learners. Now, it is time to put all your ideas together to complete the following activity.

Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) suggest that assessment is an ongoing process that involves the use of a variety of methodological techniques. With this in mind, I invite you to think of any methodological technique that you have used or that you would use to assess learners.

In your own words, describe the benefits that assessment and testing bring to the teaching and learning process.

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In addition to the previous activities, the following video is important to reinforce your understanding on the topic. The video “Assessment not Testing” is available in the following [link](#). It provides useful information on how assessment provides opportunities for tailoring instruction to be more effective. Keep in mind that assessment helps teachers in supporting students to take control of their own learning while testing gives scores that do not help teachers to tailor instruction to each learner.

After watching the video, make a list of tasks that you may use as part of assessment and another list of the tasks you may use as part of testing. Which of the tasks that you identify do you think is useful to favor students’ learning?



Recommended learning activity

Now that you have become more familiar with the topic Assessment and Testing, write a short paragraph in favor of applying assessment or testing in the EFL classroom.

You already know the differences between testing and assessment and their importance in the teaching and learning process. Now, we are ready to move to the next topic.

1.2. Types of Testing

Throughout this unit we have placed strong emphasis on testing and assessment and their use in the classroom for qualification or to provide feedback during the course. The consideration of the types of assessments is also important to make decisions on which type is the most appropriate according to our necessities.

Harmer (2015) states that there are four reasons for testing; therefore, he highlights four categories of test. The first category is **Placement tests** which purpose is to place students in the right class according to their level. The design of this type of test is based on syllabuses and materials the students will study as part of the course in the level they were placed. In addition, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) argue that the students' performance on the test should indicate that the material they will follow is appropriately challenging, neither too easy nor too difficult. Additionally, placement tests offer diagnostic information on a student's performance.

Moreover, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) suggest that placement tests assess comprehension and production by using written and oral responses, open-ended and limited responses, selection and gap-filling formats. However, existing standardized proficiency tests are used as well because of their practicality. Course-based assessments that constitute diagnostic instruments are also preferred as placement tests because they provided information about students' abilities as well.

As demonstrated in the previous paragraphs, the information obtained from placement tests is used to assigned students to classes at different levels (Hughs, 2008). Now that you already know what placement tests are used for, it is time to continue to the next type of test.

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According to Brown & Lee (2015), a **diagnostic test** as its name says is used to diagnose a particular aspect of a language. The author provides some clear examples to better illustrate this type of assessment. For example, if the main focus is on pronunciation, the test might determine the phonological features that are difficult for learners and should be included in the curriculum. Moreover, a writing diagnostic elicits a writing sample from students to identify from a list of rhetorical features the ones students need to have special focus. The author claims that the information offered by diagnostic tests help to work immediately on students' needs.

Harmer 2015 suggests that students' performance on diagnostic tests expose their difficulties, gaps, and skills deficiencies during a course. He believes that once we know what the problems are, we can do something to help learners. By the same token, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) claim that the purpose of a diagnostic test is to identify aspects of a language that students need to develop that should be included in the course. This information about learners is more detailed and subcategorized.

Additionally, Hughes (2008) argues that diagnostic tests provide evidence of students' strengths and weaknesses; therefore, it is possible to determine what learning still needs to take place. Once gaps are identified, students are directed to sources of information, exemplifications, and practice.

So far, we have learned about placement and diagnostic tests. It is helpful to stop here and have a look at the differences between these two types of tests by answering the following questions:

- Can we use a placement test and a diagnostic test for the same purpose? Explain your reasons.
- Placements tests are used to identify gaps in students' knowledge. Do you agree? Explain your reasons.

Another type of test is the **achievement test** which purpose is to measure learners' language and skill progress in relation to the program of studies. One important consideration about this test is that teachers are the ones who design the test focused on the contents covered and on the items types which the students are familiar with. They should be applied every few weeks to determine how well students are doing (Harmer, 2015).

On the contrary, the author asserts that the use of new materials to design an achievement test does not provide any evidence that helps the teacher to measure learning that has been taking place. In this context, it is suggested that teachers carefully consider learning outcomes, content, and item types to offer learners with opportunities to take a test that will inform about their strengths and weaknesses based on what they have been studied.

Finally, Harmer (2015) believe that achievement tests should reflect progress not failure. They are applied at the end of a term, unit, course, etc. and the results should be considered to reinforce the learning not to expose weaknesses. An achievement test is also useful to decide on changes to future teaching programs paying special attention to the parts where students did worse in the test than we might have expected.

Concerning **proficiency tests**, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) explain that they are used to test global competence in a language. Therefore, a proficiency test is not limited to a course, curriculum,

or single skill in the language. According to the authors, this type of test offers evidence of overall ability. By the same token, Hughes (2008) says that this test measures people's ability in the language without regard to the training they may have had. Therefore, it is not based on the content or objectives of a language program. The author suggests that the objective of the test is to determine what the candidate is able to do in the language to be considered proficient.

The level and kind of English needed is also taken into consideration by proficiency tests. For example, one test might focus on arts subjects or sciences. In contrast, there are other proficiency tests that do not have any occupation or course of study in mind; for example, the Cambridge First Certificate in English examination (FCE) and the Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English examination (CPE) are used to show have reached the standards concerning a set of specified abilities.

We need to establish the difference between achievement and proficiency tests to have an understanding on what test to incorporate in the EFL classroom. With the information of the previous paragraphs in mind, you are ready to answer the following questions:

- According to Harmer (2015), proficiency tests are used to provide a general picture of a student's knowledge and ability. Do you agree? Explain your reasons.
- We apply achievement tests when students need to obtain some kind of certificate to be admitted to a university or get a job. Do you agree? Explain your reasons.

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Recommended Learning Activity

You already know the types of testing and their purposes, it is time to read the article “On the development and implementation of English language placement achievement and proficiency tests” because it constitutes an excellent resource to increase your understanding on the topic.

Study Resources

It is clear that this article and the information studied along didactic guide really help you better understand the different types of testing. Now it is time to recalled what you have learned and complete the following chart.

Type of testing	Purpose	Characteristics
Placement test		
Diagnostic test		
Achievement test		
Proficiency test		

Table 2. *Types of Testing*

After studying the first two topics of Unit 1 and completing the activities to reinforce your knowledge, I suggest that you reflect on what you have learned and how useful and valuable this information is to improve your teaching practice and apply the appropriate tools to assess students' learning.

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Week 2

1.3. The purposes of assessments

In week 1, we studied the types of testing and you may be wondering about the purposes of assessment. Some researchers have focused their attention on this topic. For example, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) suggest that assessments may have formal or informal and formative or summative purposes. To better understand their purposes, I invite you to study the following material.

There is a variety of resources that relate to assessment. For example, the video in the following link https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EgigvbAP_6Y provides clear information and examples of informal classroom assessment. I strongly suggest that after watching the video, it is a good strategy to self-assess your understanding thus it is useful that you complete the following chart with information that you recall from what you understood in the video concerning informal assessment.

Characteristics of informal assessment	Examples of informal assessment

Table 3. *Characteristics and examples of informal assessment*

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From the information you included in the chart, think of some of the benefits that the use of informal assessment brings to the teaching and learning process. This is a good strategy to consolidate learning.

As you were watching the video, you might have thought of the difference between formal and informal assessment. Therefore, I suggest another video that clearly explains their differences. Please click the following link to begin watching the video <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0hnmcqY03QE&t=36s> it is important to take some notes to help you better analyze the information provided.

There is some important literature that focuses on the purposes of assessment. For example, the article A conversation analytic investigation into L2 classroom interaction and informal formative assessment by Dasking (2017) addresses informal formative assessment and classroom interaction and formal assessment as well. Therefore, I invite you to read and carefully analyze [Formative Assessment as a Component of the Future English Teacher Training](#). After reading the article, please make some questions related to the topic and use the information you have studied in order to answer those questions.

You already know the differences between formal and informal assessments, now it is time to continue studying formative and summative assessment. According to Hughes (2008), formative assessment allows teachers to check their students' progress and it plays an important role to determine to which extent they have mastered what they should have learned. The information obtained from formative assessment helps to modify future teaching plans and constitutes a basis for feedback to the students. Examples of formative assessment may be informal tests or quizzes. In addition, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) suggest comments or suggestions or calling attention to errors as examples of formative assessment that offer feedback to improve students' language ability.

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On the contrary, summative assessment is used to measure what students have achieved. Summative assessment is applied at the end of the term, semester, or year through formal tests (Hughes, 2008). Similarly, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) argue that summative assessment summarizes what students have learned by looking back and taking stock of how well they have accomplished objectives. Some examples of summative assessment are mid-term exams, final exams, and general proficiency exams.

Now that you have a general understanding of formative and summative assessments, I invite you to study the following material.

The article *Understanding formative and summative assessment for EFL teachers: Theoretical reflections on assessment for learning* will help you better understand the differences between formative and summative assessment. Let's read the information provided

[**Unit 1\1.3\UNDERSTANDING FORMATIVE AND SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT FOR EFL TEACHERS THEORETICAL REFLECTIONS ON ASSESSMENT FOR LEARNING**](#)

Consider that while reading the article you may highlight or underline the most important ideas since it constitutes a good study strategy to better understand its content. After reading, please complete the following chart.

Characteristics of formative assessment	Characteristics of summative assessment

Table 4. *Characteristics of formative and summative assessment*

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Recommended Learning Activity

Now that you have learned the four purposes of assessment, you are ready to give your own opinion about their differences and the role that they play in the teaching and learning process. I invite you to use the following lines to write your ideas down because it is a good strategy to help you better consolidate learning.

1.4. Alternatives in assessment

It is well-known that reading opens doors of knowledge and there is a great variety of academic resources that may expand our knowledge on certain topics. Therefore, the first activity that I propose for the study of this topic is analyzing the information in the following article: [EFL Primary School Teachers' Attitudes, Knowledge and Skills in Alternative Assessment](#).

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As you may have noticed, the study is focused on investigating female EFL primary school teachers' attitudes as well as teachers' knowledge and skills in alternative assessment. Even though this study was conducted with primary school teachers, the information of alternative assessment is useful to have a better understanding of its role and how we can incorporate this type of assessment in the classroom.

The authors claim that the use of oral questioning, teacher observation, student self and peer-assessment, role-plays, oral presentations, and portfolios as examples of alternatives in assessment. In addition to the article, I invite you to watch a video that better illustrates the alternatives in assessment. Please click the following link to access the video https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TSfYddYvF_g

I suggest to take some notes from the article and the video in order to have information for completing the following recommended learning activity.



Recommended Learning Activity

The information you analyzed in the article and in the video provided you with the opportunity to increase your knowledge about the great variety of alternatives that can be incorporated in the EFL classroom. Now you are ready to use the information to make a concept map about the contents studied. If you prefer feel free to look for some tools on the Internet that may help you to make the concept map

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online; for example, you may analyze MIRO concept map maker, Lucidchart, Canva, and select the most appropriate for you. On the contrary, work in the traditional way and draw your own concept map using paper and pencil.

1.5. Standards-based assessment and standardized testing

Standards or benchmarks are appropriate and very necessary in language assessment since they guide teachers on how to help learners to reach certain performance levels. There are some countries such as China, England, and Japan that have implemented standards-based education. In Europe and in The United States, standards-based education is being implemented as well. Standards are beneficial in education because they clarify what students should know and what they should achieve.

As you may have noticed, this topic is relevant and interesting, thus it deserves further study because of its importance in the teaching and learning process. To better illustrate the idea of Standards-based education, please analyze the information in the following link <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/level-descriptions> since it provides useful information about the CEFR levels. It is also important to highlight that the set of standards known as the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for languages helps make foreign language classrooms more communicative for both teachers and students.

The information provided about the CEFR levels by The Council of Europe also includes some links to other topics such as The Reference Level Descriptors, Common Reference levels: Global scale, Common Reference levels: Self-assessment grid, and Common Reference levels: Qualitative aspects of spoken language use that I suggest to study for your further use.

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As you may have noticed, this topic deserves a lot of attention and there are some resources available that can be used for increasing our understanding on the topic. For example, I suggest the videos Standards-Based Assessment for ESL Curriculum <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Uw60KzQS2jl> and Standardized Testing for Second Language Acquisition <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qDQJ4isoJzw> since they provide detailed information and clear examples.

After studying the resources provided for this topic, I suggest to analyze The TOEFL and IELTS proficiency tests and research about their main characteristics.



Recommended Learning Activity

This time, I suggest to use a KWL chart to help you better understand the information in these two videos. Even though, it is mostly used in reading activities, a KWL chart is useful when audio visual material is applied in the classroom. Before watching the video, please *brainstorm* some ideas you may *know* about the topic and record the information in the *K* column. Remember that the information provided in the video is about Standards-Based Assessment and Standardized testing, what do you want to know about this topic? With the ideas you have, make a list of questions of some possible issues you would like to learn and record them in the *W column*. Finally, after watching the video, record the information that you have learned about Standards-based assessment and Standardized testing.

K	W	L

Table 5. *KWL chart*

Complete this self-evaluation, you will acquire and test your learning of the contents studied

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Self-assessment 1

Self-assess your knowledge by choosing the correct answer.

1. _____ is a formal, systematic (usually paper-and-pencil) procedure used to gather information about student's achievement.
 - a. A test.
 - b. An assessment.
 - c. An ongoing process.

2. A variety of evidence – eliciting techniques and activities used to evaluate students' progress and growth on a daily basis is called:
 - a. Testing.
 - b. Assessment.
 - c. Evaluation.

3. The primary role of _____ test is to determine whether course objectives have been met -and appropriate knowledge and skills acquired- by the end of a given period of instruction.
 - a. A placement.
 - b. An achievement.
 - c. A proficiency.

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4. Formal assessments are_____.
- a. Used to evaluate students in the process of forming their competencies and skills.
 - b. Exercises or procedures specifically designed to tap into a storehouse of skills or knowledge
 - c. Incidental unplanned comments and responses, along with coaching and impromptu feedback to the student.
5. Informal assessment _____.
- a. Is nonjudgmental and ultimate decisions about students' performance are not made. Here performance is elicited without recording results.
 - b. Constitutes a set of procedures constructed to give the teacher and student an appraisal of student achievement.
 - c. Measures what a student has learned by looking back and taking stock of how well that student has accomplished objectives.

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Self-asses your understanding by writing in the letter of the information on the right that matches the type of assessment or test on the left.

6	___ Informal assessment	a	uses tasks that are meaningful, engaging, and authentic, they also call for integrated language skills.
7	___ Formative assessment	b	identify aspects of a language that students need to develop or that a course should include.
8	___ Proficiency tests	c	focuses on the ongoing development of the learners' language.
9	___ Diagnostic tests	d	look to the future situation of language use without necessarily any reference to the previous process of teaching.
10	___ Performance-based assessment	e	Includes unplanned comments, responses, and impromptu feedback

Answer Key



Week 3



Unit 2. Using Classroom-Based Language Assessment

Bachman & Dambok (2017) share some questions that teachers generally ask before assessing students. These questions are:

- When and how often should I assess my students?
- What aspects of my students' language ability should I assess?
- What kinds of assessment tasks or items should I use and how many should I include in the assessment?
- How will I score my students' responses?
- How many points should the assessment be worth?
- How will I make sure that the results of my assessment are consistent and provide meaningful information about my students' language ability?

As we can notice, teachers' concerns about classroom assessment are focused on the issues they generally consider for assessing students that are reflected in the previous questions. It is interesting that the authors believe that these questions are related to very different assessment issues but they are interconnected. In this sense, Bachman & Dambok (2017) there are some considerations to have in order to answer the questions. For example, focusing on

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the assessment tasks to use, it is necessary to consider the aspects of the students' language ability you want to assess. To determine when and how often to assess students, it is important to consider what you will do with the information obtained from the assessment. According to the authors, answering these questions individually do not support in providing an integrated approach to assess students.

Therefore, they propose an approach that will help you be aware of what are the beneficial consequences you want to help bring about by using an assessment. Here you will consider to which extent the assessment that you plan to use is appropriate for improving your teaching or how it will help your students learn better. This approach has the benefit of linking the intended beneficial consequences with what (areas of language ability) and how (kinds of assessment tasks) you will assess. Consequently, the information you obtain from these assessments guide your instructional activities and your students' learning.

With this information in mind, it is time to begin the study of this unit.

2.1. Language teaching and classroom-based language assessment

Bachman & Dambok (2017) suggest the following three questions that serve to be aware of how language assessment functions as part of language teaching.

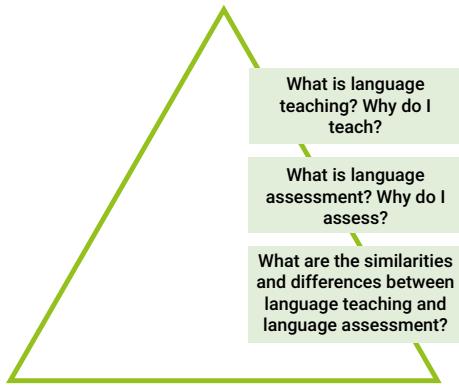


Figure 1. Language teaching vs Language assessment

After analyzing the information in this figure, I invite you to study the topic Language teaching and Classroom-based language assessment in the textbook *Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers*. Pay special attention to *Language teaching* and *Language assessment*, their similarities and differences.

While you were studying this topic, you found information about language use tasks, language teaching, language teaching/learning tasks and about language assessment tasks, language assessment, and classroom-based language assessment as well. To increase your understanding, it is important that you make a chart that includes the characteristics of these topics.

In addition, I suggest that you analyze the information in the following article [Teaching and Testing Are Interrelated. But to What Extent?](#) because it provides you with more information about the topic. It is also suggested to analyze the [A Contrastive Analysis of Classroom-Based Language Assessments](#) since it constitutes an excellent guide to understand classroom-based assessment. These resources are important to help you reflect on the importance of classroom-

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based assessment. I suggest to pay special attention to what you think about language assessment now that you have studied about classroom-based language assessment than before.

The information in the previous resources together with the analysis of Table 2.1 in the textbook “Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers” will help you better understand the similarities and differences between language teaching and language assessment. This table provides information about the participants, task requirements, and the purpose of the tasks. According to what you have learned about language teaching and language assessment, they serve different purposes but they inform each other. Bachman & Dambok (2017) suggest that there are two ways in which language teaching informs classroom-based language assessment. First, the areas of language ability you want to assess is based on the content or learning objectives of the language instruction. Second, the tasks of assessment tasks are also based on the teaching/learning tasks that are used in the classroom. The authors claim that assessment inform teaching because the information obtained from assessments helps teachers make specific changes in their way of teaching and in the content that is necessary to be reviewed or emphasized.

Now that you have a clear idea of language teaching and language assessment, it is time to continue with the next topic.

2.2. Decisions made on the basis of classroom-based assessments

In the previous topic, you have learned about language assessment; now it is time to refer to the information obtained from assessments because of their importance in making decisions. According to Bachman and Dambok (2017), teachers are constantly making decisions in the classroom; for example, they make decisions about

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Recommended learning activity

Now that you have a better understanding of the importance of making decisions, I invite you to complete activity 2.1 in the textbook. There is a chart with some examples of decisions; please, analyze each decision and put a check (✓) in formative or summative as appropriate. In addition, determine when these decisions will be made and write before, during, or after the process of teaching and learning.

2.3. Modes of classroom-based assessments

Bachman & Dambok (2017) proposed two examples to illustrate the modes of classroom-based assessment. The first example involves the use of a question and the student is asked to provide an answer.

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Depending on the student's response, the teacher decides to correct the answer, briefly explains to the class, asks another student to provide an answer, or move on and ask a different question. The authors also mention that there are times when assessments are used for collecting information; for example, at the beginning of a new unit of instruction students might be informed that a test should be applied at the end of a lesson.

After these two examples, I invite you to study the information in the textbook to learn about the implicit and explicit modes of classroom-based assessment and once you are ready please complete the following chart.

Implicit mode	Explicit mode

Table 6. *Modes of assessment*

After completing this chart, I am sure that you have a better idea of classroom-based assessment. Additionally, it is important that you analyze the similarities and differences between implicit and explicit modes of assessment in Table 2.3 in the textbook.

As you have learned, implicit and explicit modes of assessment are continuous (on-going process) and cyclical (it returns over and over during the process of teaching). Figure 2.2 better illustrates these two concepts.

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Recommended learning activities

After you analyzed what the implicit and explicit modes of assessments are, it is important to reflect on your own teaching practice. Can you identify which of the assessments you have used in the classroom are implicit and which are explicit? Make a list of those assessments for your further reference.

2.4. Using classroom-based language assessments

Bachman & Dambok (2017) argue that assessments are used in the classroom to identify students' language ability and to make decisions using the information obtained from those assessments. To have a clear view of classroom-based language assessment it is important to study the topic Using classroom-based language assessments in the textbook. Pay special attention to what language assessment use is to how this process works and to understand its primary purpose.

The comprehensive reading of the topic Understanding classroom-based language assessment will provide you with the opportunity to increase your knowledge. Now that you have studied this topic, I invite you to use the information about the links in using classroom-based language assessments and complete the following graph with some ideas that will help you identify the role of each link in classroom-based language assessment.

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Assessment records	Interpretations	Decisions	Consequences

Table 7. *Links in classroom-based language assessment.*

After you completed the graph with the most important ideas, it is important that you reflect on these links with a real example; for this reason, please analyze Figure 2.4 in your textbook that will help you clarify assessment use. Once that you analyzed the example, it is time that you put into practice what you have learned. Please read the description of an assessment in Activity 2.3 and complete it with your own ideas.

Now that we have completed the study of the contents proposed for week 3, it is time to move onto the contents for week 4.



Week 4

2.5. Consequences: Why do we need to assess our students?

Have you thought about why you need to assess your students before deciding on any kind of assessment? This is a very important issue to consider since it will help us determine the beneficial consequences for students, teachers, and other stakeholders. At this point, I consider it is necessary to stop here and invite you watch the video

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Engaging stakeholders in the following link <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=> to have a better understanding of what the term stakeholders means when we talk about teaching and assessment.

Now that you are more familiar with the term stakeholders and its role in classroom-based language assessment, it is time to continue with the study of consequences that According to Bachman & Dambok (2017) is called Claim 1 of an assessment use argument (AUA) which provides the conceptual framework for developing and using classroom-based assessments.

With this information in mind, please analyze the assessment developing questions for claim 1. The information provided for each of these questions will help you increase your knowledge about the intended consequences, their impact on instruction, learning and on stakeholders, and about the quality of the intended consequences.

To better understand the intended consequences, please analyze the summary provided in Table 4.1 in the textbook. After this analysis, it is of great importance that you carefully read the example in stating Claim 1. Pay special attention to the Setting and its corresponding intended consequences and intended stakeholders. The analysis of this information will help you identify other possible setting and their corresponding intended consequences and stakeholders.

Another important consideration to have is the beneficial consequences we want to bring about. In this sense, Bachman & Dambok (2017) suggest that in order to plan, develop, and use an assessment, it is necessary to identify and describe its possible consequences. For example, the authors refer to washback as the consequence of using a classroom assessment and their impact on teaching and learning. To help you have a better understanding of what washback is; I invite you to watch the video in the following link https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vdk2I8g8u-0&feature=emb_logo

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After watching this video, please study the information in your textbook about the topic *Intended consequences* and think about the usefulness of identifying consequences before using an assessment. Now that you are familiar with the intended consequences of an assessment, I invite you to complete the following chart with your own ideas.

Intended consequences of an assessment

Table 8. *Intended consequences of an assessment*

Now that you have a better understanding on the intended consequences, it is time to continue with the stakeholders that will be affected by the assessments. As we already studied stakeholders can be teachers, students, parents, etc. and all of them can be affected by the consequences of any assessment. Now I invite you to study this topic in the textbook and after that please complete the following chart with your own ideas about the intended consequences (the same intended consequences you completed in the previous chart) and the intended stakeholders.

Before completing this chart, please analyze the example in Table 4.1 in the textbook because there you will find some intended consequences and stakeholder groups affected. This information is useful to provide you with ideas for writing your own examples.

Intended consequences of an assessment	Intended stakeholders

Table 9. *Intended consequences and intended stakeholders*

We have already learned about the intended consequences and intended stakeholders, now it is time to continue with the intended quality of the consequences. According to Bachman & Dambok (2017) beneficence is the quality of the intended consequences. It is the degree to which the consequences and decisions promote good and are not detrimental to stakeholders. The authors also provide some examples of questions that we may ask before planning and using an assessment; for example, we may ask I what specific ways will I benefit from using the assessment. They also offer some possible beneficial consequences such as I will improve my teaching and become a more effective teacher.

To continue, I suggest to study the topic Quality of the intended consequences in the textbook because you will find some more examples that will be useful to better comprehend this topic. The examples provided for stating Claim 1 will be also of great importance to help you understand the intended consequences and intended stakeholders for any assessment that you may use.



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Well done! After studying these topics, you are ready to analyze the examples for stating claim 1 in the textbook. They are very practical and help you work on your own examples. Please pay special attention to Tables 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3 and then read and analyze the settings provided because it will be useful to help you complete activities 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 in the textbook.



Week 5

2.6. Decisions: What do we need to assess our students?

Have you ever thought about when and how you need to assess your students before deciding on any kind of assessment? When and how assessing learners is an important consideration to have and it can be established by determining the kinds of decisions we need to make and when to make those decisions. Bachman & Dambok (2017) refer to Decisions as the Claim 2 of an assessment use argument (AUA).

In order to decide if we are assessing our students too much or if we are not assessing them often enough, it is necessary to determine when and how we need to use an assessment.

Now that you have a general understanding of the role of decisions in assessment, I invite you to study the following topics in the textbook: The first topic is What decisions need to be made? In relation to this question, the authors suggest that in order to bring about beneficial consequences, we need to take actions; in other words, make decisions. The second topic, Who will be affected by the intended decisions? help you understand that stakeholders that might be

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affected by the decisions are necessarily the same stakeholders that are affected by the intended consequences. Regarding the topic Who will make the intended decisions?, Bachman & Dambok (2017) argue that different individuals can be responsible for the intended decisions depending in their purposes. Concerning the topic When do these decisions need to be made?, there is the need for these decisions to be made in time to help bring about the intended consequences. Finally, regarding the qualities of the intended decisions, the authors claim that their qualities are values-sensitive and equitability.



Recommended learning activity

Well done! After studying these topics, you are ready to analyze the examples for stating claim 2 in the textbook. They are very practical and help you work on your own examples. Please pay special attention to Table 5.1 Intended decisions to be made for the example of Claim 2, read the settings provided and complete activities 5.1 and 5.2 in the textbook.



Week 6

2.7. Interpretations: What and how should we assess?

Bachman & Dambok (2017) propose Claim 3 of an assessment use argument (AUA) that is about the interpretations of the students' language ability that we would like to arrive at on the basis of an

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assessment. They state the following questions when beginning to develop a language assessment: how do you decide what you want to assess? Where do you find the content you want to assess? How do you decide how you should assess? How do you know what kinds of assessment tasks you should use?

In order to determine *what to assess*, it is important to identify what information about students' language ability we need to make our intended decisions, and then we are able to define those areas of language ability we need to assess. For the question, *how we should assess*, the authors believe that it is necessary to identify and describe the kinds of language use tasks students need to perform.

Concerning the question *How should we assess?* that is focused on the assessment tasks, something interesting about this topic that the authors claim is that when applying an assessment, the interest is not on how the students perform on the assessment itself but on the information that their assessment performance provides about their ability to use the language or on the performance of language use tasks in context beyond the assessment itself.

In order to have a better understanding of intended interpretations, I invite you to study the qualities of interpretations that are addressed in the following topics: Identifying the interpretations we need for making decisions, Defining the areas of language ability to be assessed, and How should we assess? Assessment tasks, Impartiality of interpretations. In addition, analyze the following topics: source of ability definitions, content of a language course, areas of language ability needed in contexts outside the language course, and identify TLU domains and TLU tasks.

With this brief information in mind, it is important to summarize what an intended interpretation is. Bachman & Dambok (2017) claim that an intended interpretation is the understanding of students' language ability that we want to arrive at based on their assessment records. As you can see, assessment records are central for determining interpretations. In the next topic, we will address assessment records.



Recommended learning activity

After studying this topic, I invite you to analyze the qualities of interpretations again and make a mind map in a notebook. Additionally, analyze the examples for stating Claim 3 in the textbook. They are very practical and help you work on your own examples. Please read the settings provided and complete the intended interpretation according to what have you learned during this week.

2.8. Assessment Records: How can we record our students' assessment performance?

Now that we have covered the topic *Interpretations*, it is time to continue with the topic *Assessment record: How can we record our students' assessment performance?* that is also called Claim 4 of an assessment use argument (AUA). In stating Claim 4, we have two questions to consider. They are illustrated in the following chart.

- | |
|--|
| 1. What kind of assessment records-descriptions, scores, or grades or marks do I need? |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ What kind of assessment record will be most appropriate for the intended uses of my assessment? |
| 2. What is the intended quality of the assessment records I will use? |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ What are the potential sources of inconsistency for my assessment?▪ What can I do to minimize these sources of inconsistency? |

Table 10. *Issues in assessment records*

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In order to answer the first question, I invite you to study the topic assessment records in the textbook. There you will find information about Assessment performance, An assessment record, and A score. You will also find information about the types of assessment records.

In order to answer the second question, please analyze the topic Quality of assessment records; pay especial attention to the possible sources of inconsistency and how to minimize their effects.

To better understand assessment records, I invite you to analyze what checklists, rating scales, and rubrics are in the video in the following link <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=543zJ6dazJM> Now that you have analyzed the information provided in the video, you are ready to identify the main uses of a checklist, a rating scale, and a rubric. Please make a mind map that includes their uses.



Recommended learning activity

After studying the topics proposed for this week, and analyzing the assessment records proposed in the video, I invite you to complete activities 7.1, 7.2, 7.3, and 7.4 in your textbook.



Self-assessment 2

Self-assess your understanding by writing in the letter of the information on the right that matches the words on the left.

1	<u> </u> A language use task	a	is aimed at improving students' language learning, enhance learners' cognitive, emotional, and social development.
2	<u> </u> Language teaching	b	Is a language use task that is aimed at collecting samples of students' language performance
3	<u> </u> A language teaching/learning task	c	is a type of language assessment develop by one or more teachers in the classroom.
4	<u> </u> A language assessment task	d	is an activity that involves students in the use of language to achieve a particular goal.
5	<u> </u> A language assessment	e	is a process in which students are engage in language use tasks to improve their language ability.
6	<u> </u> A classroom-based language assessment	f	is the collection of individual language assessment tasks or items
7	<u> </u> Formative decisions	g	are used to classify students into groups that show students who advance or do not advance. These decisions are made after the process of teaching and learning.
8	<u> </u> Summative decisions	h	among other aspects, they are used to make changes in teaching and learning tasks, in the teaching materials, or in the teaching syllabus.

9	<input type="text"/> Implicit mode of classroom-based assessment	i	is a separate activity from teaching and used for summative decisions most of the time. In this modes, teacher and the students know it is an assessment.
10	<input type="text"/> Explicit mode of classroom-based assessment	j	is the type of assessment in which students are not aware that assessment is taking place. It is instantaneous, continuous and cyclical, a part of classroom teaching. It is used for formative decisions.

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Learning Result 2

Applies the five principles of the language evaluation.

Contents, resources, and learning activities

In unit 3, learners are involved in the analysis of a language test or any other kind of assessment with the purpose of determining if the five principles of language assessment were applied for its design. Though the study of the contents proposed for this unit and the completion of the proposed activities, learners do have great opportunities to achieve the proposed learning result.



Week 7



Unit 3. Principles of Language Assessment

3.1. The five principles of language assessment

Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) state five major principles of language assessment; practicality, reliability, validity, authenticity, and washback. These principles can be applied to formal tests and to assessments of all kinds. In addition, the author suggest that

these principles of assessment can be applied to a various kinds of classroom assessments.

The authors claim that in order to determine if a test is effective, appropriate, useful, or good, it is necessary to respond to the following questions:

- Can the test be given within appropriate administrative constraints?
- Is it dependable?
- Does it accurately measure what you want it to measure?
- Does the language in the test represent real-world language use?
- Does the test provide information that is useful for the learner?

These questions guide to determine the test practicality, reliability, validity,

authenticity and if it provides effective washback.

Concerning *Practicality*, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) claim that this principle refers to the logistical, administrative issues in making, giving, and scoring any kind of assessment. Aspects such as costs, the amount of time in constructing and administering the test, easy of scoring, and easy of interpreting and reporting the results are considered when applying this principle. I suggest to analyze what practicality is by watching the video in the following link: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HP1_wOqvP0Q Now that you have a good working knowledge about practicality, it is time to continue with the second principle.

Regarding *Reliability*, a test is reliable when it is consistent and dependable. The authors say that when a test is given to the same student on two different occasions and the results are similar, the test is reliable. In addition, a reliable test has consistent conditions across two or more administrations, gives clear directions for

scoring and evaluation, has uniform rubrics for scoring and evaluation, lends itself to consistent application of rubrics by the scorer, and contains tasks that are unambiguous to the test-taker.

The third principle is *Validity* that according to Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) is the extent to which the inferences made from the results of an assessment are appropriate, meaningful and useful in terms of the assessment's purpose. The authors claim that a valid test has the following characteristics:

A Valid test ...

- Measures exactly what it proposes to measure
- Does not measure irrelevant variables
- Relies as much as possible on empirical evidence (performance)
- Involves performance that samples the test's criterion (objective)
- Offers useful, meaningful information about a test-taker's ability
- Is supported by a theoretical rationale or argument.

Now that you have a better understanding of Reliability and Validity, I invite you to analyze more information about these principles in the following video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gzv8Cm1jC4M>

Authenticity is the next principle to be studied in this week. According to Brown & Abeywickrama (2019), an authentic test includes tasks that can be enacted in the real world or simulate real-world tasks. The authors argue that an authentic test uses natural language, contextualized items, the topics included in the tests are relevant, meaningful, and interesting. In addition, an authentic test provides

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thematic organization to items; for example, by using a story line or episode. With this brief information in mind; I suggest to read the following articles to expand your knowledge on this topic [The Investigation of the Effects of Authentic Assessment Approach on Prospective Teachers' Problem-Solving Skills.](#)

The last principle of language assessment is washback. It is defined according to Hughes (2008) as the effect that testing has on teaching and learning. Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) claim that tests that offer beneficial washback positively influences what and how teachers teach and what and how learners learn. They also suggest that tests that apply washback offer chances to adequately prepare, offers feedback that enhances learners' language development, is more formative than summative, and offers conditions for peak performance by the learners. Now you have learned some important information about washback, it is time to continue working on this topic and this time, I invite you to watch the following video and analyze the benefits that washback provided for teachers and learners <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uPNoCg9OzgE&t=11s>

Before completing the study of this unit, I invite you to watch the following video that provides reliable and important information about the five principles of language assessment <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cQWDJeaswhU&t=157s>



Recommended learning activity

After studying the five principles of language assessment, you are ready to determine if a language test or any other kind of assessment applies these principles. I suggest that you select a language test or any other kind of assessment that you have designed or an example from the Internet and then analyze if you have considered any of the principles of assessment. This activity is useful for you to understand the importance of these principles and their use.



Self-assessment 3

Self-assess your understanding by choosing the correct response.

1. If a test is easy to construct, administer, score, and interpret, we speak about its:
 - a. reliability.
 - b. practicality.
 - c. validity.

2. If a test is consistent and yields similar results when administered to different student groups, we say that it has a high degree of:
 - a. practicality.
 - b. reliability.
 - c. authenticity.

3. If a test measures what it proposes to measure and offers meaningful information about a student's ability, so this test is:
 - a. authentic.
 - b. reliable.
 - c. valid.

4. If a test contains natural language, meaningful and relevant topics and contextualized items that replicate real-world tasks, we say that this test is:
 - a. reliable.
 - b. authentic.
 - c. valid.

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5. A test that provides beneficial washback, _____.
 - a. positively influences what and how learners learn.
 - b. offers tasks that replicate real-world tasks.
 - c. measure exactly what it proposed to measure.
6. A valid test of reading ability _____.
 - a. measures previous knowledge of a subject.
 - b. actually measures ability on this skill.
 - c. provides clear directions for administration.
7. Which of the following options is a good example of a practical test?
 - a. A test that offers learners the opportunity to complete it within the set time frame is a practical test.
 - b. A test that uses good scoring rubrics is a practical test.
 - c. A test that applies tasks that closely approximate real-world tasks is a practical test.

Self-assess your understanding by writing in the letter of the information on the right that matches the words on the left.

8	Reliability	a	Tasks are likely to be enacted in the real world.
9	Authenticy	b	Students receive written feedback that include comments that contribute to students' formative development.
10	Washback	c	All students receive the same quality of input whether written or auditory.

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Final midterm activities



Week 8

During this week, it is important that you analyze again all the topics studied in the first term. Pay special attention to the self-assessment proposed for units 1, 2, and 3, the recommended learning activities, the graded and non-graded activities because it will help you recall all the topics we have studied so far.

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Learning Result 3

Designs different types of items to evaluate English skills.

Contents, resources, and learning activities

In unit 4 and 5 learners encounter a great amount of essential issues that will form them in the process of creating assessment tasks. As learners will be involved in activities that favor the increase of their critical thinking skills through hands-on activities, the possibility to create their own test from the theory and the examples provided gives them many opportunities to achieve the learning result proposed for these units.



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Unit 4. Applying Classroom-Based Language Assessments

Bachman & Dambok (2017) propose some procedures for the development of an assessment task template that links the assessment tasks to the assessment use argument AUA. Assessment tasks play an important role when assessing learners and a template is necessary to better develop a task that can positively influence teaching and learning. Therefore, in Unit 4, we will study how to select, describe, and modify a (target language use) TLU task, how to develop method for recording/scoring students' performance, and how to evaluate the modified task/assessment task template in terms of assessment qualities

4.1. Developing Assessment Tasks Templates



Have you heard about assessment tasks and assessment task templates? Before we begin studying Unit 4, I invite you to brainstorm some ideas regarding assessment tasks and assessment task templates.

Write down your ideas in the following chart and then compare them with the information you are about to study in this week.

Assessment tasks	Assessment task templates

Table 11. *Assessment tasks vs Assessment task templates*

Now that you have a general understanding of the topic, consider that according to Bachman & Dambok (2017) a classroom-based assessment consist of a variety of assessment tasks or items. As a way to illustrate assessment tasks, the authors suggest that for assessing vocabulary a sufficient number of assessment tasks can be used to determine if students have mastered the vocabulary studied in the lesson or not. At this point, it is necessary to recall some of the qualities stated on Claims 3 and 4: meaningfulness, generalizability, consistency, and practicality. To learn the role that these qualities play in developing an assessment task template, I invite you to study the topic: Developing Assessment Task Templates in the textbook Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers.

Now that you have already studied about the qualities, reflect on what you have learned about assessment tasks in terms of meaningfulness, generalizability, consistency, and practicality.

Continuing with this topic, the authors propose some steps to follow in developing assessment task templates. These steps are illustrated in the following graph.

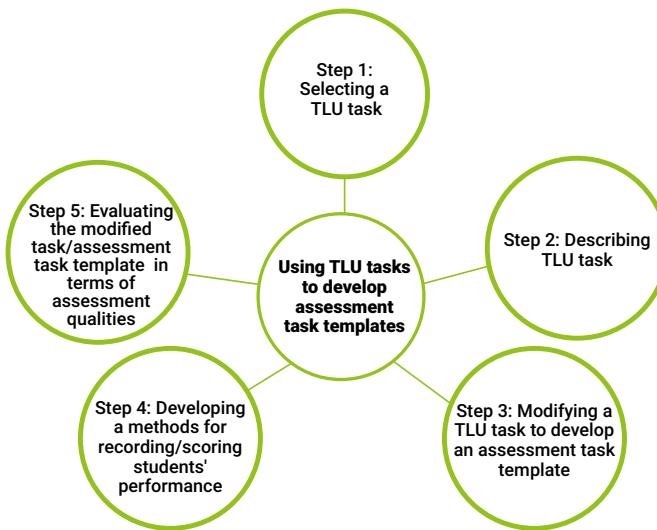


Figure 2. Target Language Use tasks

Now that you have a general understanding of these steps, I suggest to study in detail each of them in the textbook “Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers”



Recommended learning activity

After studying these steps, I invite you to complete the following chart with your ideas as a strategy to better understand the topic.

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5

Table 12. *Steps to develop assessment tasks templates*



Week 10

4.2. Creating Language Assessment Tasks

Now that we have studied about language assessment task templates, we are ready to learn how to create language assessment tasks. First of all, I invite you to watch this short video to understand the assessment task in the following link <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Rj9Q3rlw8jU>. After watching the video, reflect on the importance of identifying key words and expanding the task.

Continuing with this topic, Bachman & Dambok (2017) suggest that a language assessment includes many assessment tasks because a single assessment task is not adequate for providing consistent scores, and meaningful and generalizable interpretations. Performance may not be enough and assessment tasks may not sample the different tasks in the (Target Language Use) TLU domain.

With this information in mind, I suggest you to study the topic Creating Language Assessment Tasks in the textbook Classroom

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Assessment for Language Teachers. Here you will learn how to create multiple assessment tasks of the same ability.

Now that you have a better understanding of this topic, I propose these two questions for you to reflect on the assessment tasks.

- What is an assessment task type?
- What have you learned about a model assessment task?
- To which extend does the model assessment task help you create multiple assessment tasks?

Once that you have read the theory and as a way to illustrate how to develop multiple assessment tasks of the same ability, I invite you to review and analyze the examples in the textbook “Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers” You will find 4 examples that include: a setting, the task characteristics (TCs) for the assessment task template, the recording method, and three example tasks.

As you can observe, examples two and three have some TCs changed to create additional tasks



Recommended learning activity

After studying this topic and analyzing the examples provided, you are ready to complete Activity 9.1, Activity 9.2, Activity 9.3, and Activity 9.4. The completion of these activities will help you be ready to create your own language assessment task templates and create multiple language tasks of the same ability.



Week 11

4.3. Blueprints to guide assessment development

Another important issue in assessment is the assessment blueprint or assessment specifications. According to Brown and Abeywicrama (2019), test specifications can be an outline of the test. It shows what the test will look like. The authors suggest that test specifications can be seen as the test blueprint that include: the skills/abilities assessed, a description of its content, task/item types (methods, such as multiple-choice and cloze), tasks such as written essay, reading a short passage, skills to be included, specific procedures to be used to score the test, an explanation of how the test results will be reported to students.

For now, I invite you to watch the video about test blueprint in the following link <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MkXR825jX0&t=> The information will help you better comprehend what an assessment blueprint is.

After watching the video, think about the importance of an assessment print for developing assessment tasks. Why do you think assessment blueprints or specifications can provide quality control for the development of assessments?

Now that you have some useful ideas about an assessment blueprint, I invite you to expand your knowledge by reading additional information about what is a blueprint is in the textbook “Language for Classroom Teachers” pay special attention to the Assessment specifications, Procedures and instructions for the whole assessment, and Assessment task template.

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In addition to what we have studied so far, Bachman & Dambok (2017) provide some situation that can help on how to use a blueprint to guide assessment development. They claim that an assessment developed by a single teacher can contain multiple assessment tasks. An assessment developed by a group of teachers or by different teachers can be possible because of the collaboration of several teachers that teach different classes at the same level. In relation to similar assessments that are to be given at different times, the same blueprint can be used for all of the assessments that are necessary to be applied; for example, end-of-unit assessment but considering the creation of different assessment tasks that reflect the different assessment focus according to the unis of instruction.

Bachman & Dambok (2017) state the following question: How can you use a blueprint to maintain quality control? And in order to find the answer to this important question, I invite you to study the information provided in the textbook “Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers” Now that you have focused on blueprints, what have you learned about their use for creating language assessment tasks?



Week 12

4.4. Administrative procedures and instructions

Administrative procedures and instructions is another fundamental issue in assessment because they can help students understand what they are supposed to do, how to respond to the tasks in the assessment, how their responses will be scored. In other words,

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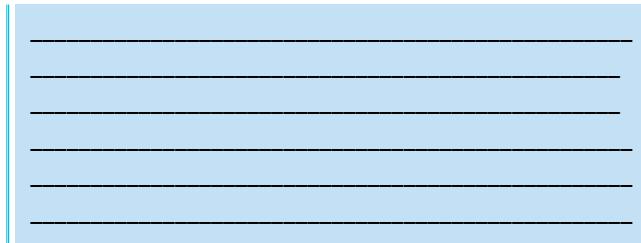
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according to Bachman & Dambok (2017) administrative procedures and instructions assure the quality of our assessments.

Do you have any idea about administrative procedures? Do you know what we need to specify administrative procedures? If you have any ideas on how to respond to these questions, please write them down in the following chart.



A light blue rectangular box containing five horizontal lines for writing.

After writing your ideas, I invite you to analyze the information in the textbook "Language assessment for Classroom Teacher" and make a comparison of what you think and what the authors say about this topic.

Now that you have a better understanding of administrative procedures, look for the activities that the administrative procedures will include. Consider that the authors suggest three activities. Write them down in the following chart.

Activities in administrative procedures
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

After identifying the three useful activities that we need to specify administrative procedures, I suggest to analyze what we have to do in each activity and write the main points in the following chart.

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Summary of the activities in administrative procedures		
1.	2.	3

Concerning instructions, they need to be clear and given in advance. According to Bachman & Dambok (2017) instructions should provide information like the purpose for which the test results will be used, the areas of language ability that will be tested, a description of the procedures and tasks, and a description of the way students' responses will be scored. Understandable instructions allow students to better perform on the test. In order to make clear instructions, it is important to pay attention to the language and form. Moreover, the length of the instruction is another important issue to have into consideration. In this regard, the authors suggest that we do not need instructions that are long or complex; we need effective and efficient instructions.

With this brief information in mind, I invite you to expand your knowledge by studying this topic in the textbook "Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers" and reflect on the instructions that you have given your students when applying any type of assessment. Were they given according to what the authors propose? Were they effective and efficient?



Self-assessment 4

Self-assess your understanding by writing in the letter of the information on the right that matches the words on the left.

1	Task characteristics TCs	a	consists of the circumstances under which the assessment takes place.
2	The setting	b	is the material included in the task that students are expected to process and respond.
3	The input	c	is the expected response from students. It can be verbal or non-verbal.
4	The expected response	d	help to create different assessment tasks
5	Assessment task templates	e	are aspects of language use tasks that help describe the task with more precision than just giving it a label.
6	A blueprint	f	is created by changing some TCs of the same assessment task template.
7	Administrative procedures	g	is created following the specifications in an assessment task template.
8	Instructions	h	guarantee that the students' performance on the assessment will provide information about their language ability.
9	An assessment task type	i	help students understand the assessment procedure, the test tasks included in the test, how they are expected to respond and how their responses will be scored.
10	A model assessment task	j	is a guide that specifies the content and format of an assessment.

[Answer Key](#)



Week 13



Unit 5. Assessing Language Skills

5.1. Assessing Listening

According to Brown & Abeywickrama (2019), it is necessary to examine three introductory concepts to help you view the separate skills from the perspective of the integration of skills. The authors establish the following questions:

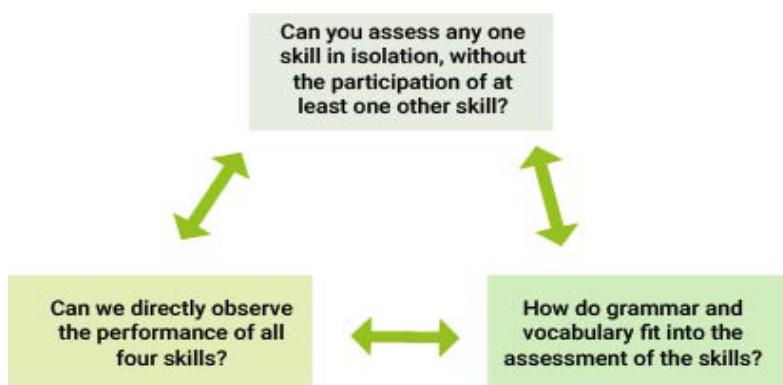


Figure 3. Integration of language skills

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Regarding the integration of skills in language assessment, the authors argue that single-skill use is evident in a few authentic manifestations in everyday language performance but the authors also believe that the overwhelming proportion of linguistic performance involves the integration of at least two skills. For example, speaking and listening are involved in conversations, reading can be necessary for performing writing tasks. Something important that the authors highlight is that in the classroom, a good proportion of time is dedicated to the integration of skills; for instance, discussions, asking questions, group work, responding to readings, solving problems engage language users in the parallel processing of at least two skills.

Concerning assessing grammar and vocabulary, Brown & Abeywickrama (2019), highlight that grammar or vocabulary tests invoke two or more separate skills of listening, speaking, reading, or writing. In addition, prompts used in vocabulary quizzes or grammar tests must be heard or read and the answers must be given in written or oral form.

In relation to observing the performance of the four skills, it is necessary to see the relationship between performance and observation. The authors argue that language users perform the acts of listening, speaking, reading and writing relying on their competence to accomplish performance. It is important to be aware that when we assess students' ability, we assess their competence but we observe their performance. If we talk about competence, there is the need to consider that performance is not a good indicator of competence because of some external factors such as a bad night's rest, illness, an emotional distraction, test anxiety, or a memory block that could affect performance. When assessing learners' competence, a single performance is not advisable; for this reason, it is necessary to triangulate measurements.

Focusing on Listening, it is as important as any other language skill and it is often implied as a component of speaking. In addition, it is necessary to be aware of the process that occurs while listening. The following diagram helps you to analyze this process.

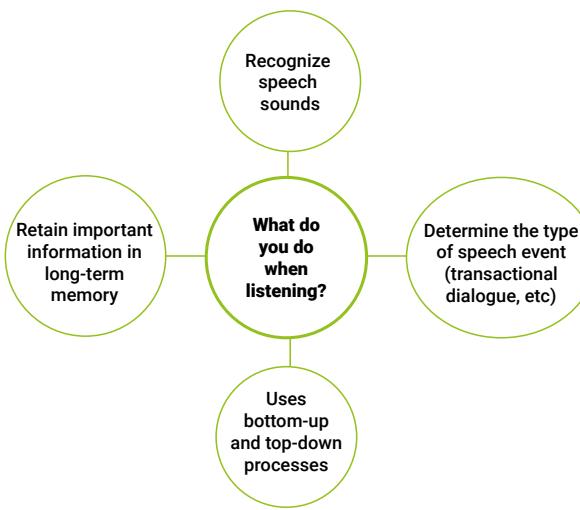


Figure 4. Process of listening

After analyzing this figure, you may be thinking bottom up and top-down processes in listening. To better understand these processes, please analyze the information in the following videos:

Video	Links
Bottom-up processing	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5gGcByGChSI
Top-down processing	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RLTCveq0RKo

According to the information provided in the video, we can say that bottom-up processing focuses on the features of a listening text such as sounds, words, group of words, phonemes, morphemes, collocations, chunks of language, sentences and the whole text; in other words, bottom-up processing focusses on the language

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knowledge (sounds, grammar, and vocabulary). While top-down processing focusses on understanding the topic, the worlds, the genre that belong to the background knowledge.

In addition, the performance of listening comprehension implies some micro- and macro skills. A list of these micro- and macro skills is presented in the book in which they provide 17 different objectives to assess listening.

Within the microskills, we can distinguish the following: discriminate among the distinctive sounds of English, retain chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory, and recognize reduced forms of words among others. In relation to the macroskills, the following examples can be identified: from events and ideas described, predict outcomes, infer links, and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification, use facial, kinesic, body language, non-verbal clues to decipher meaning, detect key words, guess the meaning of words from context, appeal for help, and signal comprehension or lack thereof.

So far we have learned about some important issues related to the assessment of students' language skills. Continuing with the topic, it is necessary to highlight that there are four types of listening. In order to learn each type of listening, their characteristics and tasks used for assessing listening, I suggest you to analyze the information in the following PPT presentation Unit 5\5.1 Assessing Listening.ppt

Study Resources

Now that you have study the information in this guide and in the PPT presentation, you are ready to identify and use appropriate tasks for assessing listening according to its different types.



Recommended learning activity

I invite you to put into practice what you have learned during this week. In addition, it is necessary to integrate what you have learned about the creation of language assessment tasks. First of all, review again the information in Example 9.3: Listening for specific details and Example 4: listening, answering questions about free-time activities (teens, intermediate level) in the textbook Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers.

After you analyze the examples in the textbook. Please create your own assessment task for assessing listening. Choose one of the tasks proposed by Brown and Abeiwyckrama (2019) that are illustrated in the PPT presentation Assessing Listening.
[Recommended Learning Activity_5.1 Assessing Listening.pdf](#)

[Study Resources](#)

5.2. Assessing Speaking

Brown and Abeiwyckrama (2019) suggest five categories of speaking performance which are imitative, intensive, responsive, interactive, and extensive. The information in the following chart will help you identify the characteristics of these categories.

Types of speaking	Characteristics
Imitative	The main focus when assessing speaking is on pronunciation.
Intensive	The speaker demonstrates competence in a narrow band of grammatical, phrasal, lexical, or phonological relationships (such as prosodic elements-intonation, stress, rhythm, juncture.)
Responsive	Tasks such as short conversations, standard greetings and small talk are involved in responsive speaking.
Interactive	Tasks in interactive speaking involve multiple exchanges and/or multiple participants.
Extensive	Speeches, oral presentations, and storytelling are involved in extensive speaking.

Table 13. *Basic types of speaking*

In addition to the basic types of speaking, the authors suggest a list of micro and macroskills of speaking that serves as a taxonomy of skills that can be used to become the objective or objectives of an assessment task. The microskills focuses on the production of smaller chunks of language such as phonemes, morphemes, words, collocations, and phrasal units while the macroskills implies the speaker's focus on the larger elements such as fluency, discourse, function, style, cohesion, non-verbal communication, and strategic options.

The following chart illustrate each of the micro and macroskills of speaking.

Microskills	Macroskills
Produce reduced forms of words and phrases.	Convey facial features, kinesics, body language, and other nonverbal cues along with verbal language.
Produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery.	Appropriately accomplish communicative functions according to situations, participants, and goals.

Microskills	Macroskills
Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.	Develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well your interlocutor is understanding you.

Table 14. *Micro- and macroskills of speaking*

Once that we have analyzed the types of speaking and the micro and macroskills of speaking it is time to watch an interesting video that will help you better understand this topic <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-xlaXmhzSxk> In addition, I suggest you to watch the video in this link <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4huI11zvWcw> since the information presented there will help you with a variety of speaking activities an information about assessment.

Continuing with the topic Assessing Speaking, I encourage you to analyze this PPT presentation Unit 5\5.2 Assessing Speaking.ppt Here you find a variety of tasks proposed by Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) to assess each type of speaking.

Study Resources

After studying the tasks for assessing speaking, it is time to put into practice what you have learned. Therefore, I invite you to complete the following activity.

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Recommended learning activity

The same as you did for creating an assessment task for listening you will do in this section but this time, you will use the template to create an assessment task for speaking. Please pay careful attention to the following instructions:

First of all, review again the information in Example 3: Speaking, describing my favorite place (teens, intermediate level) in the textbook Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers.

After you analyze the examples in the textbook. Please create your own assessment task for assessing speaking. Choose one of the tasks proposed by Brown and Abeiwyckrama (2019) that are illustrated in the PPT presentation Assessing Speaking.

Use the following template to create the task for assessing speaking:
Unit 5\Recommended Learning Activity_5.2 Assessing Speaking.docx

Study Resources



Week 14

5.3. Assessing Reading

Brown and Abeijwyckrama (2019) suggest three genres of reading that are part of the specifications for assessing reading ability. In the following figure, we can see the genres of reading and their corresponding examples.

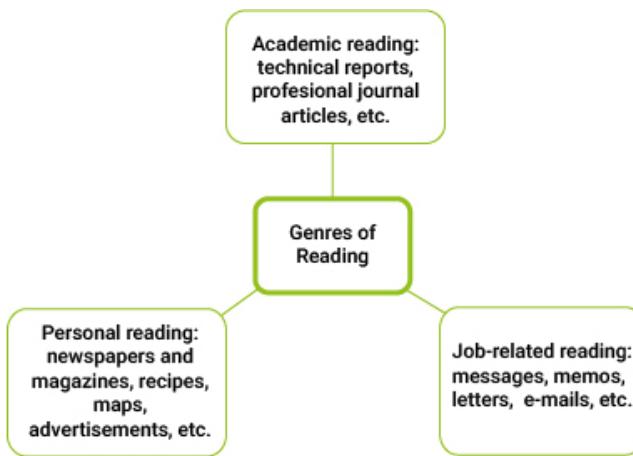


Table 15. *Genres of reading*

The information in this figure help us identify and select the appropriate material to be used in an assessment task depending on our students' necessity; for example, if we need to assess our students based on academic issues, academic reading is required. For this reason, materials such as professional journals articles can be considered.

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Continuing with this topic, it is also important to study the Microskills, Macroskills, and Strategies for Reading. Therefore, I invite you to analyze the following information:

Microskills	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory.▪ Recognize a core of words and interpret word order patterns and their significance.▪ Recognize that a particular meaning can be expressed in different grammatical forms.
Macroskills	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Recognize the communicative functions of written texts, according to form and purpose.▪ From described events, ideas, etc. infer links and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, etc.▪ Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Use lexical analysis (prefixes, roots, suffixes, etc,) to determine meaning.▪ Identify your purpose in reading a text.▪ Scan the text for specific information (names, dates, key words).

Once that you have analyzed the genres of reading, the micro, macro skills, and the strategies of reading, we are ready to study the basic types of reading; perceptive, selective, interactive, and extensive. As well as, we will have opportunities to learn several types of tasks for assessing each of these types of reading. Now, I invite you to analyze the information in the following PPT presentation Unit 5\5.3 Assessing Reading.ppt

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After studying the resources provided, it would be important that you look for some tasks useful for assessing reading, I also suggest that you analyze some tasks of your own that you have used with your students. Think about the effectiveness of those task in the assessment process.

5.4. Assessing Writing

In this week, we will study the great variety of tasks than can be used for assessing writing but first of all, it is important to analyze the genres of writing that we have available and constitute a good reference for selecting materials according to the genre needed for assessment. Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) suggest the following list of genres that are part of the specifications for assessment of reading ability.

Academic writing	Job-related writing	Personal writing
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Papers and general subject reports▪ Essays, compositions▪ Short-answer test responses▪ Theses, dissertation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Messages▪ Letters/e-mails▪ Reports▪ Advertisements▪ Announcements▪ Manuals	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Letters, e-mail, greeting cards, invitations▪ Messages, notes▪ Shopping lists, remainders▪ Medical reports

Table 16. *Genres if writing*

Now that we have analyzed the genres of writing, we can continue with the list of micro and macriskills of writing. The purpose of micro- and macroskills of writing is to assist in defining the ultimate criterion of an assessment procedure. We already distinguish between micro- and macroskills of listening, speaking, and reading. It is good because this knowledge helps us to have a better

understanding of the topic and it is easier to comprehend the micro and macroskills of writing.

Microskills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Produce writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose. ▪ Produce an acceptable core of words and use appropriate word order.
Macroskills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Appropriately accomplish the communicative functions of written texts according to form and purpose. ▪ Distinguish between literal and implied meanings when writing

Table 17. *Micro- and macroskills of writing*

According to Brown & Abeywickrama (2019), these skills are useful in guiding on the selection of the types of writing needed for assessment. In this sense, microskills are applied more appropriately to imitative and intensive types of writing while macroskills are necessary for the successful mastery of responsive and extensive writing.

The key to create an assessment task, among other important aspects, is to understand the basic types of writing. In the following chart, we have the opportunity to analyze these types and their characteristics

Basic types of writing	Characteristics
Imitative	At this category, the learner must attain skills in the fundamental, basic tasks of writing letters, words, punctuation, and very brief sentences.
Intensive	Learners produce appropriate vocabulary within a context, collocations and idioms, and correct grammar features up to the length of a sentence. Meaning and context are of some importance in determining correctness and appropriateness.

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Basic types of writing	Characteristics
Responsive	Learners perform at a limited discourse level, connecting sentences into a paragraph and creating a logically connected sequence of two or three paragraphs.
Extensive	It implies successful management of all the processes and strategies of writing for all purposes, up to the length to an essay, a term paper, a major research project report, or even a thesis.

Table 18. *Basic types of writing*

After analyzing the information in the chart above, you may be thinking about the differences between these four types of writing. And in fact, as you may be reflecting on, learners attain skills at different levels, from the most basic to writing to achieve a purpose, demonstrating syntactic and lexical variety, among others.

Continuing with the topic, I invite you to analyze the information in the following PPT presentation Unit 5\5.4 Assessing Writing.ppt_to illustrate the types of tasks for assessing writing.

Study Resources

After studying the materials provided for this topic, I would like to suggest that you look for some ways to assess writing. Have you used tasks that are different from the ones that you have studied?

5.5. Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

The teaching and assessing of grammar is essential because it is at the center of language use. Through the times, language has been taught without focusing on communicative purpose and the Grammar Translation Method was used to learn the structure of the language.

Now the focus is on Communicative Language Teaching paying attention on grammar as well.

Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) highlight the following assessment for assessing grammar: selected response, limited production, and extended production tasks. Under this classification of assessment tasks, we can distinguish a variety of tasks as follows:

Selected Response	Limited Production	Extended Production
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ multiple-choice tasks ▪ discrimination tasks ▪ noticing tasks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ gap-filling tasks ▪ short-answer tasks ▪ dialogue-completion tasks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ information gap tasks ▪ role-play or simulation tasks

Table 19. *Basic types of grammar tasks*

As you can see, some of these tasks are familiar to you because we have already reviewed them in the previous weeks. For example, multiple-choice tasks imply that test-takers choose a correct response from options that are given, discrimination tasks require test-takers to attend to input that can be either language or non-language and to respond in the form of a choice between or among contrasts

Concerning vocabulary, as proposed by Brown and Abeywickrama (2019), we can distinguish some assessment tasks that can be considered when creating tasks for assessing vocabulary. Please review the information provided in the charts below.

Receptive Vocabulary	Productive Vocabulary
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ vocabulary in a one-sentence context: high-frequency words ▪ vocabulary in a one-sentence context: low-frequency words ▪ vocabulary matching exercises 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ fill-in-the-blank ▪ selective deletion cloze

Table 20. *Basic types of vocabulary tasks*

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As you can see, among the tasks for assessing vocabulary, we have matching exercises, fill in the blanks, selective deletion cloze, etc. In addition, it is important to analyze the information in this PPT presentation which provide you with a summary of the main points related to the assessment of grammar and vocabulary Unit 5\5.5 Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary.ppt

Study Resources

Now, it is time to compare the tasks for assessing grammar and vocabulary presented in these resources with the tasks that you have created for assessing your students' learning. Think about the similarities and differences between those tasks?

During the two last weeks we have been studying a variety of issues that are central in the creation of tasks for assessing language skills, you have been provided with some resources and exercises that are useful to help you put into practice what you have learned; however, if you consider that it is necessary additional support to better understand these topics, I invite you to contact me anytime you need academic advice.



Self-assessment 5

Self-asses your understanding by choosing the correct response.

1. As a Responsive listening techniques, a teacher may ask students to:
 - a. write a brief summary.
 - b. provide short answers to short questions.
 - c. write some comprehension questions based on the listening.

2. Grammar assessment tasks should:
 - a. test student's creativity and thinking ability.
 - b. reflect real - life uses of grammar in context.
 - c. be presented in a test with a more numerous number of items.

3. As Extensive Listening activity, teacher may ask students to:
 - a. answer the comprehension questions based on the listening.
 - b. pay attention to the use of grammar structures.
 - c. to make a list of all unknown words from the.

4. Oral presentations, picture-cued storytelling, retelling a story represent _____ speaking assessment:
 - a. intensive.
 - b. extensive.
 - c. narrative.

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5. Responding a questions, giving directions or instructions, paraphrasing represent:
 - a. directed-response tasks.
 - b. extensive speaking tasks.
 - c. responsive speaking.
6. As an interactive speaking task, a teacher may use:
 - a. interviews or discussions.
 - b. storytelling or translations.
 - c. description of something or reading aloud.
7. Within the Extensive Reading tasks, a teacher may ask the students to:
 - a. find all phrasal verbs used in a text.
 - b. write a short summary of each paragraph of reading.
 - c. find and circle/underline all irregular verbs.
8. Writing letters, e-mails, messages, reminders, greeting cards, filling financial documents represent _____ writing:
 - a. personal.
 - b. job-related.
 - c. academic.

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9. Assessment tasks that consist of copying of letters, words, filling the blanks with words, form completion tasks, represent _____ writing:
- a. responsive.
 - b. interactive.
 - c. imitative.
10. Analyze the following example and decide to which category of speaking performance it belongs.

The task includes interaction and tests comprehension but at the limited level of short conversations, standard greetings, small talks, requests, and comments.

- a. Intensive.
- b. Responsive.
- c. Interactive.

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Learning Result 4 | Designs rubrics for assessment.

Contents, resources, and learning activities

The contents covered in Unit 6 assure that learners analyze and decide on the most appropriate method for scoring and evaluation. The resources proposed for this unit provide learners with ample opportunities to reflect on the role of scoring methods and evaluation that constitute a good strategy for achieving the learning result.



Week 15



Unit 6. Scoring and Grading Tests and Assignments

6.1. Scoring rubrics and evaluation

A scoring rubric allows to assess students' performance on open-ended responses According to Brown & Abeywickrama (2019), A scoring rubric is a guide that uses a range of criteria for assessing students' performance. A scoring key that is used for example in multiple choice tasks or matching tasks is not appropriate in open ended-responses because they may vary.

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In order to analyze information related to scoring rubrics and examples, I invite you to watch the following videos:

Video	Link
Introduction to rubrics	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2o3iaChHF2M
Creating rubrics	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JgjBylERjV8
7 steps for creating rubrics	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vfRP9HGVHGo

The information in the videos provided you with a clear understanding of rubrics and its role on scoring open-ended responses. Now it is time to analyze the types of rubrics that we can use thus I invite you to read the following article Unit 6\6.1 Scoring grading rubrics.pdf

Study Resources

After watching the videos and analyzing the article, please complete the following charts with main ideas of each type of rubric that you just studied.

Holistic rubric	Holistic rubric

Additionally, I suggest to analyze the information in the following PPT presentation in which you will find a summary of this important topic analytic vs holistic rubrics Unit 6\6.1 Scoring rubrics and evaluation.ppt

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Besides the information I have shared so far, I suggest to analyze what Bachman & Dambok (2017) suggest about scoring students' test performance and reporting results in the book Language Assessment for Classroom Teachers. The authors provide useful information concerning scoring methods, rating scales, among other essential issues that relate to the main topic of this week.

Now that you have a better understanding of this topic, I invite you to reflect on the type of rubric you consider most appropriate for assessing productive skills (speaking and writing)? Would you use a holistic or analytic rubric? Explain your reasons.



Self-assessment 6

Self-assess your understanding by writing in the letter of the information on the right that matches the words on the left.

1	A scoring method	a	require students to choose one or more responses from a variety of options. For example multiple choice or matching tasks.
2	Selected response tasks	b	guides the teacher to arrive at a score according to the students' performances. It includes the criteria for evaluating the correctness or quality of responses.
3	Limited production response tasks	c	Require longer oral or written responses given in two sentences or longer stretches of discourse; for example, written paragraphs, essays, oral interviews, among others.
4	Extended production response tasks	d	Require students to provide short answers in oral or written way. Responses may vary from a single word or words to a single sentence or utterance. Completion tasks are also included in this type of tasks.
5	A scoring key	e	are used to score limited production and extended production tasks by specifying different levels on the ability to be assessed and descriptor for each level.
6	A rating scale	f	rates general quality or general level of ability of students' performance. It provides a single rating for students' assessment performance.
7	A global rating scale	g	is used to rate students' performance considering multiple components that are rated on a separate scale.

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8	An analytic rating scale	h	is used for scoring selected responses and indicates the correct responses and how many points are assigned for each correct response.
9	A grade	i	uses numbers to express students' level of achievement
10	A mark	j	uses letters to express students' level of achievement

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Final midterm activities



Week 16

In week 16, it is suggested to recall the contents studied from week 9 to week 15. Pay special attention to the self-assessment proposed for units 4, 5, and 6, the recommended learning activities, and the graded and non-graded activities because they all were planned it will help to allow you with meaningful opportunities for learning.

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4. Answer key

Self-evaluation 1	
Answer	Question
1	a
2	b
3	b
4	b
5	a
6	e
7	c
8	d
9	b
10	a

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Self-evaluation 2	
Answer	Question
1	d
2	e
3	a
4	b
5	f
6	c
7	h
8	g
9	j
10	i

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Self-evaluation 3	
Answer	Question
1	b
2	b
3	c
4	b
5	a
6	b
7	a
8	g
9	j
10	i

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Self-evaluation 4	
Answer	Question
1	e
2	a
3	b
4	c
5	d
6	j
7	h
8	i
9	f
10	g

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Self-evaluation 5	
Answer	Question
1	b
2	b
3	a
4	b
5	c
6	a
7	b
8	a
9	c
10	b

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Self-evaluation 6	
Answer	Question
1	b
2	a
3	d
4	c
5	h
6	e
7	f
8	g
9	j
10	i

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6. Resources

1. "On the development and implementation of English language placement achievement and proficiency tests"

12

Вестник ХНАДУ, вип. 68, 2015

УДК 811.111:001.891.5=111

ON THE DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE PLACEMENT, ACHIEVEMENT AND PROFICIENCY TESTS

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Abstract. The article deals with the description of three types of English language tests: namely placement, achievement and proficiency ones. Attention is given to different approaches to testing which makes it possible to simulate real life situations.

Key words: approach, testing, communication, situations, simulation.

РОЗРОБКА ТА ІМПЛЕМЕНТАЦІЯ СТАРТОВИХ, КОНТРОЛІННИХ ТЕСТИВ
І ТЕСТИВ ЗА ФАХОМ

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Анотація. Розглядаються три типи тестів з англійської мови, а саме, стартові, контролльні та тести за фахом. Приділено увагу різним підходам до тестування, що дозволяє симулювати повсякденні ситуації.

Ключові слова: підхід, тестування, спілкування, ситуації, моделювання.

РАЗРАБОТКА И ИМПЛЕМЕНТАЦИЯ СТАРТОВЫХ, КОНТРОЛЬНЫХ
ТЕСТОВ И ТЕСТОВ ПО СПЕЦИАЛЬНОСТИ

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Аннотация. Рассматриваются три типа тестов по английскому языку, а именно, стартовые, контрольные и тесты по специальности. Уделается внимание различным подходам к тестированию, что позволяет имитировать повседневные ситуации.

Ключевые слова: подход, тестирование, общение, ситуации, моделирование.

Introduction

Development of English language tests for students, masters, specialists, postgraduates in technical specialties in Kharkiv National Automobile and Highway University is a crucial issue. A key point of the quality tests provision is to meet multifaceted and strict requirements to their design and implementation. On the one hand, the requirements have been identified by the national and international standards for the English Language Proficiency Level, on the other hand, the requirements reflect the demands for high efficient tests.

Literature review

Placement, achievement, proficiency and other tests in English language teaching are devoted much attention to methodological literature. The most valuable and up-to-date in this field are the elaborations by professor David Crystal (Cambridge University) published in his works «English language assessment» and «Language and Internet». Professor Penny Ur from Cambridge University in the article "English the International language" proposes different tests and methods of their implementation in English language teaching. Mention should be made here of

professor B.V. Lihachev (Moscow) working in this sphere. The tests, described in the offered article are the development of the author to estimate students' knowledge of English at Kharkiv Automobile and Highway University.

Purpose and task

English language tests for above mentioned learners should be considered as a comprehensive procedure based on a relevant approach to evaluation. It is of great importance that this approach should reflect approaches to English for special purpose (ESP) teaching and learning, namely, the communicative approach and the learner-centered approach. Therefore tests should be recognized for the important role they play in the teaching-learning process.

The communicative approach to testing allows simulating real life situations within the testing environment. Communicative language tests are tests of communicative skills, typically used in contradistinction to tests of grammatical knowledge. Such tests may be of specificity of context, authenticity of material or the simulation of real-life performance [1].

The reflection of a learner-centered approach to such testing development would provide better evaluation of English Language learner's competence. Competency-based assessment of speciality learners testing means an approach to assessment which places primary emphasis on the competences to perform a particular job adequately. In teaching and assessment of a foreign language, the focus is on the intended outcomes of language training, that is, the sorts of tasks are expected to deal within the target (non-standard situation).

Thus, these communicative tests should take into account specific learning needs. These specific needs are identified by English language competence required for Bachelors training in transportation, ecology, mechatronics, road-building construction and etc.

English language tests development and implementation

Such assessment is necessarily criterion-referenced. The main difficulty in assessing language knowledge within such a framework is in defining what the necessary skills or competences are in establishing mastery levels, par-

ticularly where language skills or competence are not only one contributing factor of success (occupational knowledge and personal qualities being other relevant skills). This fact could be one of the reasons offering development of such testing in general English for technical students of Bachelor course. There arises a question how much these tests based on this scale will be a reliable tool to measure student's competence? First of all these tests require knowledge of the subject. Therefore, the test will measure both the integrated language and professional skills. This may lead to reducing both the tests value and their reliability. To keep these tests at the proper level it is necessary to care of the relevant balance between both complexity of subject knowledge and language skills required to go through the texts tasks.

Any language teaching course has certain evaluation requirements and these requirements should be strictly observed at composing different tests. All three kinds of tests can be used as diagnostic tests to determine the areas of learners' weakness.

As it has already been noted before, evaluation can have two functions – assessment and feedback. Assessment is a matter of measuring what the learners already know. But any assessment should also provide a positive feedback to inform teachers and learners about what is still not known, thus providing important input to the content and methods of future work.

Speaking about such testing it is possible to point out three basic types of assessment tests: placement, achievement and proficiency.

The placement tests are used to place learners in the course most suited to their needs. The placement test comes before the course begins. The aim of the placement tests is to determine the learner's state of knowledge before English language university course starts. The tests results should indicate what form of course the students should take. In the first instance, therefore, the placement test is a diagnostic one, indicating how far and in what ways the student falls short of the proficiency level. In this respect the test has a formative value – the test results can be used in forming the nature and content of training.

What should be borne in mind is that any placement test can only be an approximate guide

and should be treated with caution. A good placement test should also reveal positive factors. It should show not just what the learner lacks, but also what potential for learning can be exploited in the English language for technical students course [2].

The achievement tests show how well the learner is keeping up with the syllabus and can be administered any time through the course. Achievement tests, is a kind of test being the least problematic, since it is usually internal to the course. The achievement test is, however, a kind of testing which the teacher of English is most likely to conduct. In constructing a good achievement test, one should follow the same basic principles as for constructing any test, namely:

1. The test reasonably assumes what the learners have learnt. This is not necessarily the same they have been taught.
2. Bias in the test should be avoided. For example, the test items should not demand specialist subject knowledge or cultural knowledge. This is a problem with any kind of language test, but it is more apparent in achievement tests, which may often involve the use of specialist content. The important point is that getting a correct answer should not depend on special subject knowledge outside the material used in the text, unit to have been studied.

For the achievement test it is also important to take into account the ability of the learners to any stand stressful situation which can occur as non-standard ones.

Speaking about proficiency tests it is necessary to stress that these tests assess whether or not the learner copes with the demands of a particular non-standard situation, which may require appropriate levels of skills to use plain English within the communication in English for Special Purposes [3]. Proficiency testing is identified as testing designed to assess whether candidates will be able to perform the language tasks required of them therefore such tests are primarily criterion-referenced. In other words the candidate's ability is assessed according to how it matches the certain criterion judged to be essen-

tial for proficiency in a particular task. Proficiency tests are criterion-referenced and therein lies a problem what should the criteria be? Should they vary within different subject areas? How specific are skills and knowledge for any particular tasks?

The move towards proficiency testing fits very nearly with the context of ESP which is crucially concerned with enabling learners to perform certain language tasks. Proficiency tests for specific purposes should be able to give reliable indication of whether a master, a post-graduate or engineer is proficient enough to carry out the tasks that will be required for getting a decent workplace.

Conclusion

In conclusion, all three types of tests can be used as diagnostic tests to determine the areas of weakness such tests may have. The diagnostic evidence can then be used as a means of determining what for and how much tuition needs such testing.

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2. Understanding formative and summative assessment for efl teachers theoretical reflections on assessment for learning

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A conversation analytic investigation into L2 classroom interaction and informal formative assessment

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A conversation analytic investigation into L2 classroom interaction and informal formative assessment

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Abstract

With the reconceptualization of Formative Assessment (FA) as a much more complicated, a locally situated and a dynamic process, it is now acknowledged that FA does not only involve formal practices but also informal ones which occur in and through interaction. This study adopts the term “informal formative assessment” (Ruiz-Primo, 2011) to refer to any of those FA practices emerging in and through language classroom interaction. Although the informal dimension to FA has been discussed in theory, how informal FA emerges in practice in naturally-occurring classroom interaction has not been explored adequately. While classroom interaction research neglects the relevance of their findings to FA practices, classroom-based assessment research is heavily concerned with formal FA disregarding the place of interaction in assessment practices. Aiming to bring the two kind of research together, this article, in a single case analysis, proposes Conversation Analysis (CA) for illustrating how FA informally emerges as an interactional practice in an L2 classroom. Sample data is presented from a corpus of video-recordings of an EFL class (55 classroom hours) in a preparatory school at a Turkish state university.

Keywords: informal formative assessment, classroom interaction, conversation analysis

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Informal Formative Assessment and Classroom Interaction

Formative Assessment (FA) commonly defined as “assessment-for-learning” has many aspects not yet discovered. Compared to the other aspects of testing and assessment, FA has been neglected even though the interface between teaching and assessment has long been recognized (Hatipoğlu, 2010, 2013, 2015b, 2016; Rea-Dickins & Gardner, 2000). This is clear in the lack of consensus on the definition of FA. Black and Wiliam (1998b) have presented a definition that is most commonly referred to: “All those activities undertaken by teachers - and by their students in assessing themselves - that provide information to be used as feedback to modify teaching and learning activities” (p.140). They later restated their definition as

Practice in a classroom is formative to the extent that evidence about student achievement is elicited, interpreted, and used by teachers, learners, or their peers, to make decisions about the next steps in instruction that are likely to be better, or better founded, than the decisions they would have taken in the absence of the evidence that was elicited. (Black & Wiliam, 2009, p.9)

Another common definition is provided by the Assessment Reform Group as “Assessment for Learning is the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for use by learners and their teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there” (ARG, 2002). However, in order to clarify the ambiguities and misunderstandings deriving from the definitions, an international conference on assessment for learning in Dunedin in 2009 draws on the discussion at two earlier conferences and critically examine the prevailing definitions by summing up the available ideas in a new definition to better highlight the central focus on student learning: “Assessment for Learning is part of everyday practice by students, teachers and peers that seeks, reflects upon and responds to information from dialogue, demonstration and observation in ways that enhance ongoing learning” (Klenowski, 2009, p.264).

The revisited definition of FA at the conference (Klenowski, 2009) is more comprehensive and distinct than others in bringing out five aspects of FA or assessment for learning. One is that it uses the term “everyday practice” to emphasize the interactive and dialogic nature of teaching and learning. The second aspect is that the definition lists “students” first followed by teachers and peers as they are the ultimate goal of FA which should assist them in their learning although it is the teachers who carry out the practices for FA. The other aspect is that it employs the terms “seeks, reflects upon and responds to” to underline the active nature of FA which involves not only the process of obtaining evidence of student understanding but also interpreting and acting upon this evidence. Black and Wiliam (1998a) also emphasize that for assessment to be formative and more specifically, for feedback to exist, the information about the gap between students’ current level of performance and desired level is used to close or modify the gap by making instructional adjustments. Otherwise, the information about students’ present learning state on its own cannot function as truly feedback as the original meaning of “feedback” also suggests that the information generated is used to affect future performance (Wiliam, 2011). Therefore, there are two dimensions to FA at the most basic level- one is the means through which information

is generated about students' learning state in relation to the desired goal and the other is the means through which the information is used to make decisions that would enhance ongoing learning. In the adjustments of the learning processes, FA occurs in "moments of contingency" (Black & Wiliam, 2009, p.12). These moments of contingency may require further intervention which should involve "an incursion into the representation and thought processes of the pupil to accelerate a breakthrough in understanding a new point of view or the shaping of a notion which can immediately become operative" (Perrenoud, 1998, p.97).

The other two aspects that the definition underlines are that it clearly states the various sources of evidence (i.e. information from dialogue, demonstration and observation) to show that these sources can be non-verbal as well as verbal behaviours and thus, can take place during both planned and unplanned events throughout the ongoing instructional activity and that the information provided by these sources are used to "enhance ongoing learning" by offering students the necessary help not by simply advising them to do better but by actively engaging students in a remedial work even if this work does not guarantee a complete solution (Klenowski, 2009).

Considering the FA practices in language classrooms in particular, the aspects of assessment for learning highlighted in the definition reflect those elements of formative language assessment reconsidered after the "social turn" in second language acquisition (Block, 2003; Firth & Wagner, 1997). Formative language assessment has been reconceptualised in theory as it is now recognized that unlike standardised formal assessment, formative language assessment (1) is locally situated and dynamic, (2) is co-constructed in classroom interaction and hence, is not only about language tests and paper-and-pencil procedures, (3) involves not only individual learning outcome or performance but also collective performance, (4) is integrated with teaching, (5) spontaneously and informally achieved, (6) is not simply about giving feedback in feedback/evaluation move of the IRF/E exchanges (Initiation-Response- Feedback/Evaluation) (Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) since not all evaluation moves can function truly as formative, and (7) places equal emphasis both on teachers and students as agent and decision-makers (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2009; Leung & Mohan, 2004; McNamara, 2001; Sherris, 2011; Whitehead, 2007). Similarly, Rea-Dickins and Gardner (2000) also state that

The teacher's knowledge as a result of class-based assessment is not documented in any written (e.g., curriculum) document or formal way (e.g., minutes of meetings) but appears, nonetheless, to be highly significant in the teacher's decision-making process about language development, attainment and ability of individual pupils ... (p. 231)

The revisited definition by the international conference (Klenowski, 2009) and the reconceptualization of FA in language classrooms underline the importance of interaction in and through which FA practices emerge. It is now recognized that "classroom assessment is socially constructed through interaction and as such the quality of the assessment is dependent on the interaction per se" (Anton, 2015, p.74). That is, FA is as much an informal process as a formal one and it is the study of those informal processes that are neglected. Because of the emphasis on formal FA, teachers consider FA practices as something extra and unrealistic and feel a burden on themselves (Black & Wiliam, 1998a) but if they reconsider what they already

do in the classroom, they will figure out that they are continuously and spontaneously assessing their learners. With regard to this, Ruiz-Primo (2011) asserts that “much of what teachers and students do in the classroom can be described as potential assessments that can provide evidence about the students’ level of understanding” (p.15). As well as assessments and tests formally applied for formative purposes, everyday instructional activities enacted in and through classroom interaction can also serve the purpose of FA.

A number of terms have been used to make a distinction between formal and planned FA and informal and spontaneous FA practices. Ellis (2003) comes up with incidental FA in relation to planned FA which involves direct testing of language knowledge and describes it as being “implemented through the instructional conversations that arise between teachers and students during normal classroom pedagogical activity” (Ellis, 2003, p. 314). Sherris (2011, p.59) uses the term “spontaneous formative language assessment” to explain those practices of FA that take place spontaneously through interaction in language classrooms. Finally, Ruiz-Primo (2011) employs the expression “informal formative assessment” to reframe much of classroom interaction as “assessment conversations, or dialogic interactions or exchanges, which continuously happen in the classroom” and describes it as an “unceremonious type of formative assessment” (p.15). For the purposes of this study, the term “informal formative assessment” is adopted to refer to any of those FA practices emerging in language classroom interaction. This term is preferred over incidental and spontaneous FA since it more clearly emphasizes FA practices occurring in and through interaction while spontaneous or incidental FA is ambiguous in that it can also be carried out in formal ways. For example, a teacher can spontaneously decide to ask students to answer some questions in the form of a quiz or test. Therefore, informal FA better encompasses those practices that are carried out not only spontaneously but also through unconventional means (i.e. everyday classroom interaction).

Unlike formal FA, informal FA involves the teacher interpreting evidence about students’ understanding and acting in response to this evidence quickly, spontaneously and flexibly. It is rather more frequent as it is an important part of classroom interaction and does not require the use of formally designed assessment instrument or task. For this reason, informal FA practices are usually not recorded formally. Besides, Ruiz-Primo (2011) reframes instructional dialogues which take place to verify and clarify student understanding as “assessment conversations” and describes these conversations as “dialogues that embed assessment into an activity already occurring in the classroom” (p.17). In other words, they are integrated into everyday classroom practice. Assessment conversations display students’ understanding or learning state so that teachers can recognize and act on it by shaping the instructional activities in order to enhance learning. However, in spite of the revisited definition of FA and its reconceptualization in theory which emphasize the informal dimension to FA embedded in classroom interaction, how in practice FA emerges informally in naturally-occurring classroom interaction has not been investigated adequately.

Considering informal FA in L2 classrooms in particular, it is quite neglected relative to formal FA practices. On the one hand, the literature is heavily based on the discussion of standardized testing and assessment whether administered for formative purposes or not (Black & William, 1998b; Fulcher, 2012) and such discussion is not applicable to classroom practices. Where the functions and importance of FA is discussed, it is done so in relation to

progress or achievement tests and standardized formal testing (Anton, 2015; Fulcher, 2012; Leung & Mohan, 2004; Rea-Dickins & Gardner, 2000) although an informal dimension to classroom-based FA largely exists. Many language testing courses and textbooks do not go beyond the such commonly emphasized topics as test construction, analysis of tests, measuring the four skills, validity, item analysis etc. (Brown & Bailey, 2008). Fulcher (2012) also points out the inadequacy of many testing textbooks for presenting the techniques in large-scale standardized testing as the needs of classroom teachers. While there has been an interest in measurement issues such as validity and reliability in classroom-based assessment to critically examine the relation of classroom-based assessment to the demands of standardized assessment (e.g. Cohen, 1994; Brown & Hudson, 1998; Gipps, 1994; Teasdale & Leung, 2000), not much has been revealed regarding the formative aspects of the actual classroom practices. As Leung and Mohan (2004) put forward “special features of the formative and for-learning perspective are likely to be lost if it is assimilated into a standardized assessment paradigm” and thus “there is a need to examine in depth the formative teacher for-learning assessment issues in their own right if we are to understand how the formative aspects are actually accomplished in classroom interaction” (p.337). As for the research methodology adopted in the study of FA, many studies on FA are experimental and thus, quantitative not revealing the complexity of classroom interaction in relation to assessment and learning. In their review article, Black and William (1998a) reveal that most of the studies investigate the effect of FA practices on learning in an experimental design and show significant learning gains. Ruiz-Primo (2011) in her review show that where qualitative studies are conducted on FA, many involve observation rather than the micro-analytic investigation of classroom interaction and hence, calls for sequential analysis.

As well as the skills and knowledge required of teachers to prepare and administer tests, teachers also need to develop the interactional competence necessary for classroom-based FA practices. Therefore, interactional competence needed for effective classroom-based assessment practices should be discussed as part of assessment literacy which involves the range of skills and knowledge that stakeholders need in order to deal with the new world of assessment (Stiggins, 1991). However, studies on FA and assessment literacy do not discuss the interactional competence required for effective classroom-based assessment practices. In order to define assessment literacy more broadly, the studies have used surveys whether in the form of closed or constructed response items and quantitative treatment (Fulcher, 2012; Hasselgreen, Carlsen & Helness, 2004; Plake & Impara, 1993) but have not included the analyses of the actual classroom interaction with regard to assessment practices. In addition to asking teachers about their perceptions or practices regarding classroom-based assessment, there is a need to analyse what they exactly do in the actual classroom interaction for assessment practices about which they may or may not be aware of. Besides, it is found that teachers had more problems with classroom-based assessment than with formal evaluation and that they needed training on classroom-based assessment (Hatipoğlu, 2010, 2015a, 2015b, 2017). However, before training teachers, what those classroom-based assessment practices involve need to be described extensively so that teacher educators know what to present to teachers.

On the other hand, there are those studies that investigate L2 classroom interaction but do not discuss their findings in terms of FA. Investigation of classroom interaction has received great attention and has been carried out from various perspectives. While the early studies of classroom interaction focused on the observation and description of interaction using coding schemes, the later research involved interactionist (e.g. the study of negotiation of meaning, corrective feedback in second language acquisition), sociolinguistic, sociocultural and conversation analytic orientation to the study of classroom interaction. However, although most of these studies are relevant for classroom-based assessment processes and can reveal important aspects of those processes, they have not been concerned with assessment (Anton, 2015). In fact, the relevance of their findings is inevitable since “assessment is an integral part of every aspect of teaching and learning and this is particularly evident in the analysis of classroom interaction” (Anton, 2015, p.76).

As a result, considering the gap between classroom interaction and classroom-based assessment research, this article, through a single case analysis, proposes Conversation Analysis (CA) as a methodology for illustrating how FA informally emerges as an interactional practice in the moment-by-moment unfolding of classroom interaction. Different from the studies in the field, this study uses CA as a methodology which involves a micro-analytic investigation of naturally occurring data from an emic perspective revealing details that otherwise might go unnoticed.

Conversation Analysis

This study proposes CA as a research methodology to empirically investigate informal FA practices occurring in and through classroom interaction. Unlike interaction and discourse analysis which usually involve the use of coding systems and observer's or researcher's interpretation of events rather than that of participants (i.e. etic perspective), CA does not impose any predetermined categories and by its nature, it is based on the principle that social contexts are not static but are dynamically created by the participants through their use of language and by the sequential organization of interaction (Walsh, 2011).

Conversation Analysis (CA) is defined as “the study of recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction” (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p.12) and draws on the following principles (Seedhouse, 2004): (1) interaction is structurally and systematically organized, (2) contributions to interactions are “context-shaped and context-renewing”, that is “any one contribution is both shaped by and shapes the context in which it occurs, which means that any understanding of turns-at-talk can only take place by reference to the sequential environment in which they occur” (Walsh & Li, 2013, p.5), (3) analysis is bottom-up and data driven, i.e. the data “speak for themselves” (Walsh, 2002, p.7) with no theoretical assumptions and preconceived categories in mind (i.e. emic perspective), (4) the details in talk are important to capture a full view of the interaction requiring a detailed micro-analysis of naturally occurring data from an emic perspective. CA argues that participants use “methods” such as turn-taking, sequence organisation, repair, and preference organisation to display their understanding of each other's utterances (i.e. to display mutual understanding/intersubjectivity) (Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010). Both the participants and the

analysts have access to the same resources. In other words, the analysts gain access to the participants' display of understanding to each other by reference to the interactional organisations just like the participants display their understanding and orient to each other's utterances also by reference to such organisations. This brings us to one of the most important principles of CA that is developing an emic perspective in analysis (Seedhouse, 2005). As Sert (2015) points out

emic perspective in analysing social interaction requires that only participants' orientations to each other's utterances should be used to make claims on social phenomena, rather than their given identities (e.g. teacher, French, Muslim etc.), the researcher's assumptions, or *a priori* etic (i.e. exogenous, external) theories. (p.10)

Overall, CA offers "fitting lens" through which a detailed scrutiny of actual conduct can be achieved (Waring, 2011).

After the social turn in language acquisition, CA has had an important place in SLA literature in the late 1990s and hence, has come to be known as CA-SLA (Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Markee & Kasper, 2004) which aims to show "how learning is constructed by the use of interactional resources and to explicate the progress of their learning and their socially distributed cognition or intersubjectivity" (Seedhouse, 2005). Although the central goal of FA is to enhance learning, studies of FA rarely define "learning". This study uses the term "learning" in the sense CA-SLA employs it. Foreign/second language (L2) learning from a CA perspective builds on the view of language as a resource for interaction and cognition as socially distributed and situated. From a CA-SLA perspective, language learning is not viewed as a cognitive, individual phenomenon but is defined as "a change in a socially-displayed cognitive state" (Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010, p.127). It is embedded, situated and co-constructed in the turn-by-turn unfolding of social interaction and at least part of it is embodied in interaction suggesting that part of this learning as a social process is analysable and observable through such elements as repair, hesitation, repetition, turn-taking and sequential organization as well as non-verbal behaviour (e.g. gaze, gesture, body orientation and the manipulation of objects) (Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010). The researcher in CA-SLA tries to bring evidence for learners' understanding with reference to such interactional organisation and in this way aims to reveal the common interactional practices through which these understandings are co-constructed and thus, to demonstrate the "micro-moments of language learning" (Sert, 2015, p.33). Therefore, L2 learning is "a sociocognitive process that is embedded in the context of locally accomplished social practices" and involves not only the internalisation of linguistic knowledge but also "the continuous adaptation of linguistic and other semiotic resources in response to locally emergent communicative needs" (Pekarek Doehler, 2010, p.106).

CA-SLA does not deny that learning takes place in the mind of individuals and that it is biologically determined but it argues that learning cannot be independent of social interactional dimensions and is co-constructed and emergent in the micro-details of social interaction (Pekarek Doehler, 2010). Because CA-SLA does not aim to bring evidence for what is happening in the brain regarding language learning, many studies in this field refrain from using the word "learning" alone and rather use the terms "learning behaviour" (Markee,

2008) and “learning state” (Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010) to refer to the behavioural and social dimensions of learning. In this study as well, rather than using the word “learning”, “Learning behaviours” which refer to the interactional process and procedure of learning and “learning state” which refers to the learning of language items or patterns as a product are preferred.

Review of Literature

It has already been noted that there is a gap between classroom interaction research and classroom-based assessment research. While the former does not discuss the relevance of their findings to FA practises, the latter does not empirically illustrate the informal FA practises occurring in and through real classroom interaction. From an interactionist point of view, there are studies in mainstream SLA investigating teacher feedback, recasts and negotiation of meaning usually under experimental conditions but they do not reframe them as formative assessment (e.g. Mackey, 2012; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Oliver, 1998). As for those studies investigating naturally occurring classroom interaction, many have been interested in using conversation analysis for the micro analytic investigation of the relation between interaction and learning (e.g. Koshik, 2002; Markee, 2004; Sert, 2011, 2013; Waring, 2008). Some of these studies reveal patterns for Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC) (Can-Daşkin, 2015a; Sert, 2015; Walsh, 2002, 2006, 2011, 2012; Walsh & Li, 2013) defined as “teachers’ and learners’ ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning” (Walsh, 2011, p.158). Although CIC studies have uncovered some components of interactional competence needed for successful L2 instruction, they have not been concerned with the interactional competence required for classroom-interaction based assessment practices or with the implications of their findings for such practices. In other words, the ways teachers informally assess learners in and through interaction for formative purposes have not been examined and discussed as part of CIC.

Only a few of the studies analyse naturally occurring classroom interaction from the perspective of interaction hypothesis or systemic functional linguistics and highlight the importance of interaction for classroom-based formative assessment (Leung & Mohan, 2004; Sherris, 2011). From the perspective of interaction hypothesis, Sherris (2011) shows how such communicative strategies as recasts and clarification requests reflect and constitute spontaneous formative assessment. From the perspective of systemic functional linguistics, Leung & Mohan (2004) show how formative teacher for learning assessment focus on students’ decision-making, student processes and interaction. However, there has been no conversation analytic study on the practices of informal FA. Therefore, as well as planned or systematically designed formal assessment or tests which have long been an issue in literature on FA (e.g. Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Weir, 1993), there is a need to reveal patterns for informal FA in actual classroom interaction.

Sample Analysis

In this study, sample data is presented from a corpus of video-recordings of an EFL class (55 classroom hours) in a preparatory school at a state university. The corpus is

established for a larger project that set out to investigate teacher-student interactional practices but the unmotivated examination of the data has revealed the relevance of some of the extracts to informal FA practices. So, the selected extract is transcribed using the transcription system adopted from Gail Jefferson (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008) (See Appendix) and Conversation Analysis (CA) is used as the data analysis method.

The class that was recorded was at an intermediate level of English and consisted of 32 students (7 males, 25 females). The students were taking the course to develop their English language skills and knowledge so that they could move to their own departments. The teacher had a teaching experience for more than six years and held an MA degree in the field of English language teaching. After the students and the teacher gave their consent for the data collection, the class was recorded using three cameras and four audio recorders accompanied by the researcher's non-participant observation for seven weeks.

In the analysis of the following extract, the sequential analysis is presented first followed by the discussion of the analysis in relation to informal FA practices. In the analysed extract, the teacher goes over the highlighted words in a text given in the coursebook by asking students to guess their meaning from the context. They are up to the word "bothering" as highlighted in the text and the teacher presents it in relation to its another meaning they worked on earlier.

Extract: bother

- 1 T1: şimdi biz çok hızlı geçtik bothering'i
 2 biz daha önce rob ve jenny arasındaki diyaloglardan
 3 hatırlarsak
 now, we didn't spend much time on "bothering"
 if you remember from the dialogues between
 rob and jenny earlier
 4 T1: [şu kalibi gördük
 we worked on this fixed expression
 5 EM: [°rahatsız olmak°
 to be bothered
 6 MD: i'm sorry to bother you= #1
 7 T1: =sorry to: (.) bother you demişti rob.
 said rob
 #1 (lines 4-7) T1 writes "sorry to bother you" on the board as she articulates it
 8→ telefon görüşmesinde hangi anlamdaydı o?
 what did it mean in the phone call?
 +makes a phone call hand gesture

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9 (1.1)

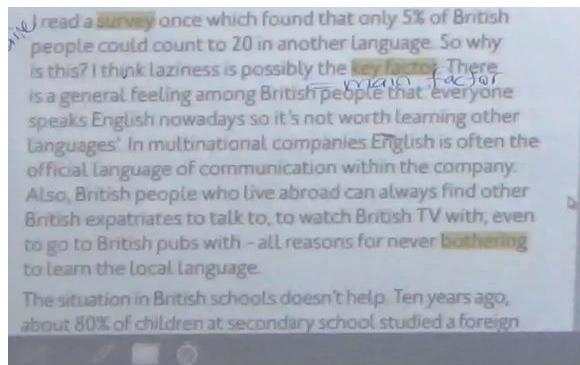
10 MS: rahatsız etmek
to bother

11 T1: rahatsız ettiğim için üzgünüm diyo rahatsız etmek

12 anlamındaydi=

*it says i'm sorry to bother you it had the meaning
"to bother"*

13 T1: =burada anlami farklı
it has a different meaning here
+points at "bothering" on the board- "bothering" is highlighted in the text in their coursebook
and the text is projected on the board



((T1 answers HU's question about the number of the page in their coursebook that they are working on))

14 (4.0)

15 T1: burada uğraşmak (.) çabalamak anlami var
it has the meaning "to try" "to deal" here

16 trying gibi.
like
+writes "trying" under the word "bothering" on the board

17 ne diyo (.)[#]all reasons bunlar neyin nedenleriymiş
what does it say "all reasons" they are the reasons for what

- 18 for never bothering to learn the local language^{#2}
 #2 (lines 22-23) T1 points at the relevant words in the sentence projected on the board as she reads it out
- 19 [genelde öğrenmemenin= usually for not learning
- 20 iB: [genelde öğrenmeme usually for not learning
- 21 T1: =öğrenmeye uğraşmamanın bütün nedenleri diyor.
- 22 böyle bir çaba böyle bir zahmete girmiyorlar. it says all reasons for never bothering to learn.
 they do not make such an effort.

The extract begins with the teacher's remark that "bothering" is an expression they studied earlier as it was used in a dialogue between Rob and Jenny. In Turkish, she explicitly reminds students of this dialogue and mentions that they could not spend much time on the expression "bother" when they were working on the dialogue (lines 1-3). In this way, she implies that it is not an expression about which the students have no idea at all and that it is now time to study it more thoroughly. Here, she openly employs Reference to a Past Learning Event (RPLE) (Can Daşkin, 2015b) which is an interactional resource employed by the teacher who spontaneously diverges from the main focus of the activity to language items and topics presented in a past learning event usually to check on students' past knowledge and/or to deal with trouble sources in students' learning states in and through classroom interaction. RPLE in lines 1-3 is marked by the Turkish expressions "hatırlarsak" (if you remember) and "daha önce" (earlier) and the past tense particle (-tik attached to "geç") and the first person plural "biz". In line 4, she continues with her action of RPLE as she shows that the students encountered the word "bother" in a past learning event as part of the fixed expression "sorry to bother you" and starts writing the fixed expression on the board (#1). Overlapping with the teacher's talk in line 4 and her action of writing on the board, EM with a soft tone of voice provides a partly inaccurate Turkish translation of the expression in line 5 although she is not asked to do so (*rahatsız olmak*). The translation expresses the meaning of the passive form of the fixed expression (i.e. to be bothered) rather than the meaning of "to bother somebody" and thus, to some degree displays lack of understanding of the target expression. However, her turn is not oriented to by the teacher who most probably could not hear her talk. Before the teacher completes writing the expression on the board, MD in line 6 offers the complete fixed expression (*i'm sorry to bother you*) and demonstrates his knowledge of the expression. Latching MD's turn, the teacher, simultaneous with her action of writing on the board, articulates the whole expression and adds that it is what Rob said in the dialogue. In her same turn in line 8, she, in Turkish, asks students about the meaning of "bother" as used as part of the fixed expression in the phone call in the dialogue. By resorting to RPLE in line 8, she takes the opportunity to check whether the students can recall the meaning of the expression previously encountered. At the onset of her question, she makes a phone call hand

gesture to illustrate the meaning of her question and to emphasize that she is asking about the meaning of the expression that is used in the context of a phone call. After 1.1 seconds of silence, MS delivers the Turkish meaning of “bother” (*rahatsız etmek*). By providing the Turkish meaning, MS aligns with the teacher’s turn in line 8 in which the teacher also posed the question in Turkish. The teacher in the follow-up turn accepts MS’s response by producing the translation of the whole expression first (*rahatsız ettiğim için üzgünüm*) and then in her next TCU, she repeats the Turkish expression MS provided for the word “bother” (lines 11-12). As well as repeating, she also marks that the Turkish expression “rahatsız etmek” is what “bother” meant in the particular dialogue studied in a past learning event and thus, by using past tense, she once again employs RPLE.

In line 13, the teacher continues with her turn and diverts the attention from the past learning event to the new context through the Turkish indexical “burada” (here) which initiates the transition to the new context in relation to students’ past learning experience. She turns to the text projected on the board and as she points at the highlighted word “bothering”, she specifies that the word has a different meaning in this particular new context. After HU’s question about the page number that the teacher refers to in the coursebook and the teacher’s dealing with this procedural trouble followed by 4 seconds of silence, the teacher gets back to the explanation she initiated in line 13 and completes it in lines 15-22. In line 15, she provides the Turkish words which correspond to the meaning of “bothering” used in the new context. In the next line, she offers the English synonym “trying” for “bothering” to make sure that the students understand the use of “bothering” in a new context in relation to what they are familiar with. Simultaneous with her articulation of “trying”, she also writes it under the word “bothering” on the board. In her next TCU in line 17, the teacher this time progresses to the meaning of “bothering” at sentence level. That is, she now focuses on the sentence in which “bothering” is used and the kind of meaning the word “bothering” gives to the sentence. In doing so, she reads out the first part of the sentence (all reasons) and translates it into Turkish (*bunlar neyin nedenleriymiş*) and then reads out the rest of the sentence in line 18 (for never bothering to learn the local language) as she points at the relevant words in the sentence projected on the board (#2). In her next TCU, she starts delivering the Turkish translation of the part of the sentence she has just read out and the part that includes the word “bothering” (lines 21-22). In line 20, IB in overlapping turns with the teacher also starts providing the translation but then lets the teacher complete it.

The analysed extract demonstrates how informal FA is carried out in a specific instructional setting. Although the aim of the activity is to guess the meaning of the highlighted words (i.e. in this case the meaning of “to bother”) given in a text, the teacher does not initiate with the main activity but puts it on hold and instead initiates the sequence through RPLE to set the ground for the main activity. After presenting the fixed expression “sorry to bother you” and reminding the students of the context in which the expression was studied and which, thus, constitutes a past learning event, the teacher in line 8 asks students about the meaning of the expression. In this way, she checks whether the students can remember the meaning of the expression presented in a past learning event. One aspect of informal FA is evident in line 8- that is obtaining information about students’ learning state in and through interaction by spontaneously diverging from the main focus of the activity so that

necessary measures can be taken before the main activity. MS's response in line 10 on behalf of the whole class shows positive evidence of their learning state as the teacher also confirms it in the subsequent turn. If the students' responses revealed gap in their knowledge and hence, required treatment, then the teacher would most probably initiate repair by making instructional adjustments but here building on students' past knowledge of "bother", she proceeds with the main activity by presenting a new use of the same expression (i.e. to bother to do something). It is only after she elicits a correct response regarding the meaning of "sorry to bother you" studied earlier that she proceeds with the present activity and marks that the word "bother" emerging in the new activity is not the one they encountered before. In fact, EM's partially inaccurate response in line 5 and with only MS responding, many students remaining silent to the teacher's question of RPLE in line 8 do display some kind of trouble in understanding the meaning of the previously studied expression "sorry to bother you". However, as the nature of "multilogue" in such an instructional setting entails (Schwab, 2011), the teacher's bringing up this expression has reference to not only those who directly participate in the interaction but also all the others and thus, may have enhanced the learning state of many students though this cannot be directly claimed based on the interactional data available.

With respect to the revisited definition of FA discussed above, the question of RPLE in line 8 spontaneously emerges as preliminary to the main activity and thus, as embedded in an everyday classroom practice in order to seek evidence of students' knowledge of a previously studied expression that is important for the transition to the new learning context in which a new use of the same expression is presented. In this way, the teacher can use the evidence obtained to decide whether there is any repairable or trouble source in students' learning state since the presence of a repairable may indicate trouble with the transition to the main activity. It can be said that the teacher's action in line 8 acts as a precautionary measure and may prevent the occurrence of a trouble both with the previously taught item and with its relevant form in the new learning event and the connection between the two uses of the same expression. By having access to students' understanding of an earlier expression, the teacher tries to enhance the understanding of a different use of the same expression by prompting students to distinguish between the two uses of the expression. In this way, her action of assessing learners' past knowledge is formative as it is this past knowledge that the teacher builds on in the main activity which is initiated and presented in comparison with or in relation to a past learning experience proving that FA does not always have a retrospective function as it does not necessarily deal with incorrect learner responses and learning difficulties but uses correct responses to shape the subsequent instructional activity. Unlike the conventional understanding of FA, it is not simply about saying right or wrong for the students' responses and making corrections. Lastly, different from formal FA which requires the use of specially designed assessment instruments at pre-specified times, the practice of informal FA as evident in the analysed extract is embedded into an everyday instructional activity which involves guessing the meaning of highlighted words in a given text and emerges in and through interaction quickly and spontaneously by means of which the flow of the activity is shaped.

Conclusion

This study highlights the place of interaction in informal FA practices in an L2 classroom and calls for conversation analytic studies to empirically reveal the complexity of interaction lying behind such practices by analysing naturally occurring classroom data and eventually to encourage a connection between classroom interaction research and classroom-based assessment research. That is, this study calls for classroom-based assessment and assessment literacy studies to better reveal the role of interaction and interactional competence and the classroom-interaction studies to reframe or discuss their analysis in the light of assessment practices. For this reason, this study has illustrated the connection between interaction and FA in an L2 classroom through a single case analysis and has partly discussed the interactional competence needed for such classroom-based assessment practices as informal FA. The analysis has shown that the interactional competence required for informal FA is an integral part of teacher Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC) (Walsh, 2002). The teacher assessing learners' past knowledge in and through interaction to seek evidence of their learning state and then using this evidence to make decisions about moving on with the actual instructional activity and thus, to lay the ground for the new learning context displays how she uses interaction as a tool to assess, as a result of which to assist learning. While CIC discusses the role of interaction in creating learning opportunities, it should also extend to discussing the place of interaction in assessment practices which, in turn, can generate learning opportunities.

The analysis in this study has shown that for a teacher who is supposed to be concerned with students' learning, informal FA emerges spontaneously in and through interaction and hence, FA practices are not something extra. In fact, the analysis proves that such practices occur even in traditional L2 classrooms which are teacher-fronted and grammar oriented. Rather than simply saying right or wrong for students' responses, the teacher in the analysis uses students' responses to make the transition to a new learning context and enhances the quality of feedback. By assessing learners' past knowledge, the teacher creates an opportunity for pupils to express their knowledge and understanding which initiates an interaction through which FA shapes learning. Such a practice also allows the students to reflect on their own learning and encourages them to make a distinction between their past learning experience of a language item (i.e. to bother somebody) and their present learning experience of a different use of the same item (i.e. to bother to do something). As a result, this study proves that interaction "empowers teachers with assessment tools that are more meaningful to the classroom context and provides a different dimension of learning not easily captured by traditional means of assessment" (Anton, 2015, p.86).

This study has important implications for teacher education which should help teacher trainees gain an understanding of the relationship between interaction and assessment so that they can better understand the context and enhance learning. The data and its analysis in this study can also be used to help teacher trainees gain insight into informal FA practices emerging in and through classroom interaction and the interactional competence needed for such practices. As for further research, conversation analytic studies that track learning behaviour as a result of assessment practices by analysing longitudinal data are required and

thus, considered to better reveal the extent to which informal FA practices do enhance learning.

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Appendix. Transcription Conventions

Adapted from Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008)

- (1.8) Numbers enclosed in parentheses indicate a pause. The number represents the number of seconds of duration of the pause, to one decimal place. A pause of less than 0.2 seconds is marked by (.)
- [] Brackets around portions of utterances show that those portions overlap with a portion of another speaker's utterance.
- = An equal sign is used to show that there is no time lapse between the portions connected by the equal signs. This is used where a second speaker begins their utterance just at the moment when the first speaker finishes.
- :: A colon after a vowel or a word is used to show that the sound is extended. The number of colons shows the length of the extension.
- (hm, hh) These are onomatopoeic representations of the audible exhalation of air)
- .hh This indicates an audible inhalation of air, for example, as a gasp. The more h's, the longer the in-breath.
- ? A question mark indicates that there is slightly rising intonation.
- . A period indicates that there is slightly falling intonation.
- , A comma indicates a continuation of tone.
- A dash indicates an abrupt cut off, where the speaker stopped speaking suddenly.
- ↑ ↓ Up or down arrows are used to indicate that there is sharply rising or falling intonation. The arrow is placed just before the syllable in which the change in intonation occurs.
- Under Underlines indicate speaker emphasis on the underlined portion of the word.
- CAPS Capital letters indicate that the speaker spoke the capitalized portion of the utterance at a higher volume than the speaker's normal volume.
- ° This indicates an utterance that is much softer than the normal speech of the speaker. This symbol will appear at the beginning and at the end of the utterance in question.
- > <, <> 'Greater than' and 'less than' signs indicate that the talk they surround was noticeably faster, or slower than the surrounding talk.
- (would) When a word appears in parentheses, it indicates that the transcriber has guessed as to what was said, because it was indecipherable on the tape. If the transcriber was unable to guess what was said, nothing appears within the parentheses.
- fC'monf Sterling signs are used to indicate a smiley or jokey voice.

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- + marks the onset of a non-verbal action (e.g. shift of gaze, pointing)
italics English translation

Another Convention by Balaman (2016):

1#...#1 The onset and offset point of the non-verbal activity accompanying the talk

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5. Language Teaching and Language Testing: away and ways to make appropriate connections

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Language Teaching and Language Testing: a way and ways to make appropriate connections

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Resumen

LA ENSEÑANZA Y LA EVALUACIÓN DE LA LENGUA: FORMAS DE ESTABLECER CONEXIONES APPROPPIADAS

En este artículo se discute la relación pedagógica entre la enseñanza de idiomas extranjeros y/o segundas lenguas y su evaluación. El autor desarrolla su exposición en torno a distintas formas de evaluación que contribuyen a establecer la conexión entre enseñanza, aprendizaje y evaluación. Presenta ejemplos concretos sobre cómo evaluar el lenguaje hablado mediante la aplicación de la Entrevista de Suficiencia Oral (Oral Proficiency Interview), el uso de los portafolios y las rúbricas para valorar la suficiencia escrita. El artículo se basa en estudios llevados a cabo en los Estados Unidos durante las últimas décadas y relacionados con la enseñanza de la competencia comunicativa, los estándares nacionales para lenguas extranjeras y los principios generales de evaluación aplicados a cualquier disciplina académica, y que pueden ser aplicados a la enseñanza de lenguas. Finalmente, el autor cita el siguiente proverbio africano: «Comienza donde estás, pero no te quedes allí», cuyo mensaje es un estímulo hacia la búsqueda del aprendizaje como crecimiento personal para toda la vida.

Palabras clave: Evaluación formativa, evaluación sumativa, enseñanza, lenguas extranjeras/segundas lenguas.

Abstract

This article addresses the pedagogical principle of connecting the way [or ways] foreign and second languages are taught with the ways they are evaluated or tested. The author poses that this important connection can be made by providing concrete instructional applications including spoken language, through the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), portfolios and rubrics for assessing students' writing proficiency. The article is based on studies conducted in the US during the past few decades. These are related to communicative language teaching, the national foreign language standards, and general testing principles applicable to any academic discipline; however, they can also be applied for language instruction and testing worldwide. The author quotes a wide known African proverb that says, «start where you are but do not stay there,» to encourage life long learning and growth.

Key words: Assessment, teaching, testing, foreign/second languages.

Résumé

ENSEIGNEMENT ET ÉVALUATION DES LANGUES: DES FAÇONS POUR FAIRE DES CONNEXIONS APPROPPIÉES

Cet article discute la relation pédagogique entre la forme ou les formes d'enseigner les idiomes étrangers et / ou les langues secondes et la manière comment ceux-ci sont évalués. L'auteur développe son exposé autour des différentes formes d'établir cette liaison si importante en présentant, à manière d'illustration, des exemples concrets de comment évaluer le langage parlé à travers l'application de l'Entrevue Orale de Capacité (Oral Proficiency Interview) et l'utilisation des dossiers et des rubriques pour évaluer la capacité écrite. L'article est fondé sur des études menées aux Etats-Unis pendant les dernières décades concernant l'enseignement de la compétence communicative, les standards nationaux pour les langues étrangères et les principes généraux d'évaluation appliqués à n'importe quelle discipline académique mais, en tenant compte que les principes pour les langues secondes et les exemples donnés sont primordiales pour l'enseignement de toutes les langues. Nous incluons une courte liste de références actualisées lesquelles peuvent donner par la suite, une précieuse information. L'auteur insiste auprès des lecteurs à suivre le proverbe africain suivant: « commence où tu es, mais ne reste pas là » dont le message positif motive à la recherche de l'apprentissage comme croissance de chaque jour.

Mots-clés: évaluation formative, évaluation sommative, enseignement, langues étrangères, langues secondes.

1. Introduction

This essay is written from the perspective of an experienced American foreign language educator who has worked in the field of language teaching, testing and assessment for more than 25 years. It is designed to provide readers with insight about a major trend in the field of language testing during the past few decades, namely linking the *ways we teach* foreign and second languages with the *ways we test* our students. So, readers may find the article informative whether they are novice or experienced language instructors. The author requests that, as a reader, you «start where you are but don't stay there,» an African proverb from Zambia which means that one should always remain open to new developing new perspectives.

Historically speaking, language teaching, including English as a foreign language, has seen an emphasis on communicative language teaching methods since the early 1970's when the term communicative competence was first introduced to the language teaching profession by Dell Hymes. Since that time teachers have attempted to incorporate real world language usage in their classes and in their instructional materials, especially in adolescent and adult language instruction. However, language testing has not kept up with communicative instructional practices.

2. Real world use of languages

Often students express a desire to communicate in authentic language, meaning they want to hear and use language outside of the language classroom. It has probably been the case for most readers of this essay that your students want to be able to use English for functional purposes. They may want to order food in a restaurant, understand telephone answering machine messages, send an e-mail message to a friend or acquaintance, make travel reservations, listen to music, or read a written note from an English-speaking person. As language educators, we can often motivate our students by including activities in our classrooms that have real world applications. Indeed this type of focus often helps us convince the students that they are making

progress in trying to become proficient in their new language, even though they may still be making numerous errors in pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary usage.

One of the interesting challenges for many language teachers is that the real world classroom activities that we utilize are often not included in the textbooks, although that has changed a lot in the last few decades. The dilemma becomes how to test the students if these types of topics, functions, and tasks are not integrated into our textbooks and commercial testing programs. Another typical dilemma is often how to evaluate our students' progress in terms of their functional ability in English (as a foreign language). And, of course, these types of dilemmas lead us naturally to the question of the purposes of classroom language testing.

3. Purposes for language learning and language testing

Given the variety of foreign language classrooms, the diversity of student reasons for enrolling in language classes, the choices language instructors make in terms of textbooks and other instructional materials they wish to use in their teaching, and the relatively new tool of the Internet as an instructional resource, it goes without saying that the purposes of language testing are numerous. Sometimes, language teachers choose to test students via periodic quizzes and tests of achievement. At other times, instructors assess students' language proficiency [i.e., their global ability to use the foreign or second language], perhaps at the end of several years of language study. At other times, language teachers use tests for placement and diagnostic reasons and other purposes. Shohamy (2001) wrote a wonderful book about the power that tests can exert in the lives of students. She offers a lot of case studies in her book about students who have been impacted by the results of test scores. She reports that no matter what the teacher's purpose for the language test may be, students are sometimes devastated by the results of tests. And this is particularly true of so called «high stakes» tests such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) that is required for international students who want to enter English-speaking colleges

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and universities in the United States, Canada, New Zealand, and other countries.

So, tests can have a wash back effect, which means that they may result in instructional programs or teaching practices changing to reflect the test contents because language teachers want their students to do well on high stakes tests for many different reasons. In some respects, standardized test can be expected to have an indirect effect on what language teachers teach and sometimes even how they teach the foreign language. As an experienced language educator, the author of this essay accepts the inevitability of the wash back effect of major tests, even those given at the end of the term by the instructor because we are sometimes obligated to «teach to the test.» However, once this inevitability is accepted, foreign language teachers often advocate for an even more important outcome than passing the test. They often teach their students to become autonomous language learners, meaning we want students to become independent learners so they continue to learn the language long after they have completed formal language study. The familiar adage is «teach a person to fish and he can

eat for a lifetime, but if you give him a fish every time he is hungry, he will not become independent.» The same is true of foreign language learners...we have to help them to become autonomous language learners, and testing can play a role in this important teaching. This takes us nicely to the meaning of tests versus assessments.

4. Testing versus Assessment

A major paradigm shift has occurred in testing in the past few decades and that is to ask language teachers to include both tests (given at a single point in time) and assessments (continuous, ongoing evaluation) in language programs. Wiggins (1994) raised excellent questions about assessment that is designed to improve performance not just audit it. He asked, for example, «What kinds of challenges would be of most value to the students (and to the teachers concerning the abilities of their students)? How will the results of this test be used to help students know their strengths and weaknesses on essential tasks? What kind of evaluating will provide the best kinds of incentives and aims, thus enabling

Table 1
Traditional versus the current ways of evaluating student knowledge and skills in language education

Tests	Assessments
1) Usually announced so students can prepare for them	1) Usually unannounced because the purpose is to informally check on student progress
2) Are often achievement checks on a unit of instruction (e.g., a chapter test, a semester exam)	2) Are typically designed to check student progress informally (purpose is to see what students need to have re-taught or need to practice more)
3) Are mainly designed to result in a grade or test score	3) Many times - informal and de-emphasize the grade or test score
4) Occur at a single time and place	4) Are often ongoing and continuous
5) Typical test item formats include multiple choice, correct answers, and other ways of evaluating students	5) May include the use of rubrics easily scored, sometimes discrete
6) Often not contextualized	6) Usually contextualized

SOURCE: HANCOCK, 2006

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students to raise their own standards? (p. 70). The following table illustrates some of the traditional versus the current ways of viewing evaluating student knowledge and skills in language education:

5. Some Ways of Integrating Teaching and Testing in Foreign Language Classrooms

In the past few decades, the emphasis on communicative language teaching has continued to be encouraged by the language teaching profession worldwide. Perhaps one of the reasons for the popularity of this approach is that student often expect to be able to use the second or foreign language that they student for functional purposes. Students often want to be able to use the language to leave or listen to a telephone message on an answering machine. Or, they want to be able to read and write e-mail messages to friends and acquaintances. So, if these are the types of communicative outcomes students want to achieve, it makes sense to provide classroom and other external opportunities for them practice these tasks. Textbooks and teacher-designed instructional strategies have increasingly been emphasizing communicative competence. And, therefore, the instructional programs in language classrooms worldwide tend to focus on these types of activities.

This article advocates an increased emphasis on aligning teaching approaches and content with related testing and assessment approaches. In other words, we ought to integrate classroom language teaching and testing approaches. Let's take a concrete example of how this might work in a language classroom. We can take the case of a hypothetical college classroom in which students are learning to listen, speak, read, and write English [or any other modern foreign language]. Their instructor provides both direct instruction in which students are taught rules of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, some of the basic areas of most foreign language classes all over the globe. Let's also assume that the instructor is seeking ways to increase opportunities to link her/his teaching program to his/her testing program for the students.

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign

Languages (ACTFL) has a popular set of Oral Proficiency Guidelines that instructors may use to evaluate their students' oral performances. ACTFL advocates the use of the Oral Proficiency interview (OPI), a strategy in which an instructor can interact with students in an interview format to rate the students of a scale from Novice, Intermediate, Advance, to Superior proficiency. It is a relatively easy to use scale, but it requires some degree of basic training for effective use.

The interview lasts approximately 20-25 minutes of either face-to-face interaction or via the telephone and must contain the following parts:

- Warm-Up (designed for psychological purposes to relax the student)
- Level Check (designed to determine the proficiency level — Novice, etc.)
- Probe (designed to see if the student can perform at a higher proficiency level)
- Role Play (designed to provide a short context for interactive language use)
- Wind-Down (designed to relax the student at the end of the interview)

A language teacher who wishes to use this ACTFL OPI technique on a regular basis would be well advised to see training beyond what this article can provide. However, the intent of including the OPI in this publication is to encourage its use. Further information in the form of responses to frequently asked questions about is available from ACTFL's website <http://www.languagetesting.com>. This web site contains excellent information to help instructors learn about the ACTFL OPI interview from a student's point of view. Some of the questions include: What is the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview? How is the interview structured? What happens during the interview? Will I only be required to answer questions? And what are the best strategies for success on the OPI?

Continuing with the typical OPI, an instructor would include a short role-play situation such as the following to provide an opportunity for the student to engage in a bit of sustained conversation with the instructor. Two different sample role-play situations are presented below as concrete examples of situations that an instructor might include in an OPI, depending, of course, on the student's level of

language proficiency. The first one is simple and the second is more complex.

- Role Play 1: Pretend that a friend has asked you to go to the movies and that you agree to go. Later, another friend asks you to go to a movie that you would much rather watch. Call the first friend and explain why you can't go with that friend and that maybe you can go another day.
- Role Play 2: Pretend that you are in a band or musical singing group. Explain that you are going to miss rehearsal for the third time in two weeks. The director wants to talk to you about your absences. Explain the situation and convince the director not to dismiss you from the group.

These two role-plays are not equal in level of difficulty for a second language learner. The second one is more challenging for the student because it involves both narration and a higher functional in use of language to convince. Nevertheless, both role-plays provide opportunities for the language student to practice using language in context in a situation that is realistic, meaning it could happen in real life. In other words, students are presented with an opportunity to use language to communicate with someone [e.g., their instructor or interviewer in the case of an OPI] in situations that reflect real world use of language. The goal is to determine if the student can handle a simulated real-life situation.

Perhaps the reader is able to see this type of role-playing as an example of a context-base communicative language task, particularly if it is used in conjunction with an oral proficiency interview. The link with instruction is that students would practice the interview strategies such as answering questions and role playing in the instructional part of the program (i.e., the classroom) and then have an opportunity to demonstrate their proficiency in a simulated interview with their instructor or another interviewer.

One well-known American assessment expert, Grant Wiggins, has called this type of testing to be a test worth taking. He argues that many classroom tests are problem-solving tasks that do not resemble the types of real-world tests that are taken once students complete their studies. Certainly, that cannot be said for assessments like the OPI because it includes many typical interview strategies required

in real interviews for jobs, business, personal relationships, and everyday conversations. The point is that the OPI links communicative teaching with communicative testing in a very transparent way.

Another way of integrating teaching and testing is the use of portfolios and scoring rubrics that are very popular in the field of composition instruction. Many first and second language instructors use portfolios, for example, to provide opportunities for students to show samples of their academic work and its development in a portfolio. In the language classroom, this technique is very valuable because students are empowered to make decisions about which samples of their work to include and also to write reflective comments about why they chose to include certain samples of their work and judgments about their own skill development over the course of the academic term. Rubrics, especially those developed in cooperatively between the instructor and the students, are a means of sharing the power invested in the instructor with the students.

In one class, the author recently used the following rubric for evaluating an essay that was part of a larger portfolio. It is included (Table 2) here as an example of how to connect language teaching and testing. This rubric was adapted from a similar one in New Ways of Classroom Assessment (1998).

The above assessment provided an opportunity for both the instructor and students to work together in determining the criteria to be used in evaluating the language student's essay. It also provided excellent opportunities for empowering the students (Shohamy, 2001) and developing their autonomy as language learners. In this way, second language learners participate actively in judging their own writing with input from the instructor. This way also demonstrates a strategy for linking language teaching and testing by softening the artificial, sometimes hard, boundaries that exist between teaching and testing in second language classes where teachers are proficient the language and students are not.

A relatively novel way of linking teaching and testing in a language program is to focus on what is called the called Five Cs: Communication, Communities, Cultures, Comparisons, and Connections. These are the priorities of the national

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Table 2
Essay Rubrics

		Excellent			Fair
1.-	Is the topic clearly identified? Comment:	5	4	3	2
2.-	Is there unit of ideas? Comment:	5	4	3	2
3.-	Is there coherence? Comment:	5	4	3	2
4.-	Does the style of writing match the task? Comment:	5	4	3	2
5.-	Is language used appropriately? Comment:	5	4	3	2
6.-	What did you like about this essay? (Question addressed to the instructor)				
7.-	What did you dislike about this essay? (Question addressed to the instructor)				

SOURCE: ADAPTED COMPOSITION RUBRIC. HANCOCK, 2005

foreign language standards (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1996). They are a way of organizing language instruction around «big ideas» and concepts. They serve as a way of linking second language learning to the uses of foreign and second language study beyond the language classroom. While it is fairly clear what each of these terms means in language education, a brief explanation is, nevertheless, presented below to make the case for using the Five Cs as a way of linking the way foreign language is taught to the way it is tested.

Communication - a common reason why students worldwide study foreign and second languages, that is, to learn to communicate. For example, many students these days want to communicate with their peers via e-mail and text messages. However, they may also need to learn to communicate for business or career purposes using a more formal variety of the foreign language.

Communities - real languages are used in real

communities for people to be able to communicate with each other, even though the Internet and other technology has made global communication much more facile than it has ever been in history. For example, families communicate regularly with each other verbally and non-verbally on a regular basis. When exchange students have the opportunity to participate in family stay experiences, they seem to pick up so much more than the rules of pronunciation of a language or its vocabulary; they seem to develop proficiency in a naturalistic way.

Cultures – a concept that is very complex and has many different meanings, but in the context of the Five Cs, it refers mainly to the life styles, mores, beliefs, and habits of people who share not only a language (e.g., Spanish) but who also share deeper values. In languages like Spanish with more than twenty different countries where it is spoken and many different cultures within each country and English with its many variations in countries as different as the Australia, England, New Zealand,

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Nigeria, and the U.S.A, it is clear why this is a complex concept. Any yet, language instructors worldwide share the view that culture is intricately related to language and therefore cannot be avoided when a foreign language is taught.

Comparisons - related to culture, this concept means that language learners, almost without exception, tend to make comparisons between their L1 and their L2 during the language program and even after completing language study; its is, therefore, perhaps useful for language instructors to help students make appropriate connection and avoid unhelpful ones in their language study. For example, many novice language learners make comments like, but they way they in native speakers language pronounce certain sounds is strange, or they way their grammar works is weird, etc. Most language instructors typically try to convince their students that making judgmental comparisons is sometimes not helpful when trying to develop proficiency in a language.

Connections – a concept that is related to learning theory in which it is often helpful for instructors to help students make connections with their prior knowledge, life experiences, and how they process information when they are trying to learn something new like a foreign language. For example, some language instructors help student to make connections between two aspects of the foreign language (e.g., pretérito and imperfecto in Spanish or the complexities of spelling in English with such words a *through*, *though*, and *thought*). The «C» means that the more students can learn to make good connections, the better their acquisition of the foreign language.

Good, practical classroom testing and assessment practices

It can be argued that good teaching is good teaching, no matter if one is teaching foreign language, mathematics, or music. It can also be argued that there are significant differences in the teaching and testing methods that are appropriate for an academic discipline. It makes intuitive sense, however, to link instruction with testing/assessment no matter what the discipline.

For testing and assessment to be valid (testing what is supposed to be tested) and reliable (getting consistent results), the instructor must make the connection between the way she/he teaches and the way she/he tests. It is just common sense, but there are also pedagogically sound reasons for finding ways to connect one's teaching and testing. These reasons include key factors for the treatment of students: equity, fairness, and transparency. Is it equitable not to treat all students to the same L2 instructional program? How fair is it for language teachers to emphasize communication in their teaching and then test students on the rules of grammar? And, in this day and age, should language instructors not be very open about both their instructional strategies and their testing strategies so all students know the rules? The above questions highlight commonly accepted principles of pedagogy not only for language instructors but all instructors, particularly high school and college instructors who teach students who are capable of abstract reasoning and learning to become autonomous language learners. It goes without saying that language instructors want to teach students «how to fish» [i.e., acquire another language] when they are hungry, to use the old saying about teaching a hungry person to acquire food for themselves, instead of giving them a meal to take care of their immediate hunger.

6. Conclusion

This article has taken the premise that foreign or second language teaching and instructors must link testing in deliberate ways. It has been argued that there are many different ways that this goal can be accomplished in the field of language education. While language testing has traditionally focused on sampling what students know (e.g., the rules of grammar or vocabulary in the language classroom), contemporary language teaching practice advocates assessing what students can do with the language and less on what they know. The article is written from the perspective that language educators need to «start where they are» with this topic of connecting teaching and testing, «but not stay there.»

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6. Bringing Classroom-Based Assessment into the EFL classroom

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Bringing Classroom-Based Assessment into the EFL classroom

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Abstract

This paper describes how English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers can bring reliable, valid, user-friendly assessment into their classrooms, and thus improve the quality of learning that occurs there. Based on the experience of the author as a an EFL teacher and teacher-trainer, it is suggested that the promotion and development of autonomy, intrinsic motivation, and self-esteem that takes place in a Classroom-Based Assessment (CBA) environment facilitates an holistic approach to language learning and prepares the students for the high-stakes tests that often determine their motivation for learning English. Rather than relying on the memorization of language code, form, lexis, and prepared answers, students who have learned in a CBA environment are able to self-assess, peer-assess, build portfolios, and edit their own work. Not only does this reduce the assessment burden on the teacher, but it also develops the skills of problem-solving, critical thinking, and summarization in the students, in addition to a heightened awareness of the language-learning process. By learning how to set goals, assess their achievements, and reflect on their future learning needs, students become more efficient language learners. While acknowledging the place of standardized, summative tests in contemporary society, it is suggested that CBA in the EFL classroom can enhance long-term learning and consequently enable and empower students to prepare for their future learning needs.

Keywords: EFL; Classroom-Based Assessment (CBA); long-term learning; empowerment; holistic language learning.

Introduction

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructors of secondary, tertiary, and adult students in East Asia and Korea in

particular, face a common dilemma posed by standardized, high-stakes tests such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and

the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), as well as local university entrance exams and end-of-semester tests, all of which promote extrinsic motivation, intensive study over short periods of time, last-minute cramming, and memorization of prepared answers. While these tests all serve a well-defined purpose, their effect in the EFL classroom can be deleterious in terms of real learning, in that the attention of all the stakeholders in the learning process (parents, students, principals, and teachers) is directed to the passing of these tests and the associated rewards that go with this, rather than the lifelong learning process itself. Language instructors who are aware of the benefits of long-term learning strategies and the development of autonomy, intrinsic motivation, and self-esteem, can find themselves caught in the test-preparation trap, rather than promote lifelong-learning strategies in their students. Despite the extensive research findings against the use of high-stakes, one-off tests as sole determiners of the students' future careers (Hout & Elliott, 2011), the practice of short-term test-preparation continues to overwhelm language-learning curricula in Korea¹, even in teacher-training institutes, where the national Teachers' Test dominates all pedagogical considerations, in apparent contradiction to the humanistic "Principles and general objectives of education" (UNESCO 2010/2011) as set out in the National Curriculum (KEDI, 2007). This is an indication of the seriousness of the current situation, in that the very institutes that should be leading the field by advocating and producing alternative, pedagogically sound methods of language

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teaching and assessment, are caught in the same test-preparation paradigm, in effect teaching future language teachers how to prepare their students for high stakes tests, and ignoring the effects that this approach is having on students (Nathan, 2002).²

In view of these considerations, this paper attempts to show that Classroom-Based Assessment offers an effective, bottom-up approach to the problem of extrinsically motivated language learning and can be effective in developing the higher-order thinking skills that students need when preparing for high-stakes tests. However, it will be appropriate at this point to take a brief look at the current situation facing TEFL practitioners, with regard to assessment:

1. Teachers of English need to assess their students' learning needs and achievements. This is an important part of their daily work, whether at elementary, secondary (middle school, high school) or tertiary (university, college) level.
2. Assessment of language learning is a topic in which TEFL professionals in Korea rarely receive tuition (teacher-training) or opportunities for professional development (seminars, workshops and conferences).
3. ELT Textbooks used in secondary and tertiary education in Korea typically contain no assessment materials. Middle school and high-school books in particular provide

¹ This paper refers to English language education in Korea. However, the content is largely applicable to the EFL contexts in many parts of East Asia.

² The 'test-hell' has already claimed eight student suicides in the city of Daegu alone this year (Korea Herald, 2012).

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very basic content matter for the national university entrance exam, but they offer no feedback for teachers and students in terms of assessment content and practice. Because of this:

- If teachers want to review Chapters in the school textbook, they must make their own assessment materials.
 - If teachers want to perform pre-course needs analyses and post-course reviews of learning based on the syllabus in the textbook, they must make their own materials.
 - If high school teachers want to prepare students more effectively for the university entrance test (government-approved textbooks are typically too narrow in their focus), they must use independently published test-preparation books, or the government-subsidized Educational Broadcasting Service (EBS) test-preparation books.
4. Most secondary EFL teaching in Korea is test-driven:
- Many teachers are under pressure to teach test-taking skills rather than linguistic competence or the intrinsic love of language learning.
 - Students who have to acquire large amounts of vocabulary and grammar for the College Scholastic Achievement Test (CSAT), the TOEFL, or the TOEIC are not interested in language activities which (however enjoyable and motivational) do not appear to be related to the test for which they are studying.
 - 5. High-stakes, standardized tests offer

little or no feedback to teachers regarding test-construction criteria and test-item results. This makes it even more difficult to prepare students for these tests.

It is evident from this list that the EFL teacher in Korea is largely on his/her own in terms of developing test-design skills and finding ways to check on comprehension and acquisition of syllabus content. This paper therefore aims to help teachers and students to develop the skills they need for realistic evaluation of learning achievements and needs. In order to do this, it focuses on CBA, with its various learning-centered methods of investigating the events occurring in the language classroom. These methods include:

- Investigating the learning environment;
- gathering information;
- teacher-designed and student-designed formative tests;
- self- and peer-assessment;
- performance assessment;
- language portfolios;
- learner journals and diaries;
- projects;
- web-based assessment;
- comprehensive tests; and
- grade-negotiation.

What is CBA?

Classroom-Based Assessment deals with *internal* testing – the assessment events that occur in the EFL classroom. This assessment focuses on the immediate learning needs of the students, providing

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appropriate feedback for each class, helping the teacher to prepare learning materials for future lessons, and helping students learn how to learn. CBA has a number of characteristics:

- CBA is part of the learning content (the means is the end);
- CBA examines student development over a period of time (rather than taking a summative snapshot at one point in time);
- CBA focuses on what students can do (not on what they can't do);
- Students are evaluated on their performance (rather than on their memory);
- CBA is concerned with the process of learning (though product can be present in forms of CBA such as journals, portfolios and projects);
- CBA is absolute (looking at individual growth) rather than relative (comparing students with each other); and
- CBA recognizes the complexity of factors affecting learning in the EFL classroom (learning styles, language proficiencies, cultural and educational backgrounds, emotional management, social skills, etc.).

CBA thus aims to make language evaluation more authentic, meaningful and relevant to the students and the teacher. In addition to being an integral part of the learning cycle in the classroom, it also helps students to become aware of the language learning process, to examine their learning needs, to make realistic learning goals, to assess their achievement of those goals, to reflect on their achievements, and to make new goals.

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CBA takes evaluation to the learner, and gives him/her the information he/she needs in order to take responsibility for his/her learning. CBA focuses on the immediate learning needs of the students, providing feedback specific to each class, helping the teacher to prepare learning materials for future lessons, and helping students to learn how to learn. The affective and social benefits of this approach extend far beyond the classroom, since students who learn how to set realistic goals and how to evaluate their achievement of those goals are acquiring a valuable life skill. CBA is not simply an item of theoretical debate. It is a valuable learning tool.

CBA in the EFL context has a number of characteristics that differentiate it from other types of assessment. These can be effectively described by adapting and expanding Kohonen's table (1999, p. 285) from his paper on authentic assessment (Table 1):

Table 1: Comparison of standardized and classroom-based assessment (based on Kohonen, 1999, p. 285)

Standardized testing	Authentic classroom-based assessment
Testing and instruction are regarded as separate activities.	Assessment is an integral part of instruction (the means is the end).
Students are treated in a uniform way.	Each learner is treated as a unique person, in recognition of the many factors affecting learning (learning styles, proficiency, cultural and educational background, emotional management, social skills, etc.).
Emphasis is on weaknesses and failures: what students cannot do.	Emphasis is on strengths and progress: what learners can do.
Decisions are based on single sets of data (test scores)	Multiple sources of data provide a more informative view.
One-shot, "summative" exams are used.	Ongoing, "formative" assessment provides a fuller picture.
Judgment is given, without suggestions for improvement.	Useful information for improving/guiding learning is provided.
There is a socio-economic status bias (test-scores reflect parents' wealth).	CBA is more socio-economically fair.
There is a focus on one "correct answer."	The possibility of several perspectives is accepted.
There is a focus on the product (<u>what</u>) of learning.	The main focus is on the process (<u>how</u>) of learning.
The focus is on lower-order knowledge (facts) and skills (rote-learning).	The emphasis is on higher-order learning outcomes and thinking skills
There is a focus on language <u>usage</u> (knowledge of rules and structures).	The focus is on language <u>use</u> (ability to apply rules and structures in real situations).
Language-learning is seen as linear, predictable and measurable.	Language-learning is seen as complex, cyclic and unpredictable.
Teachers are pressured to teach only what is tested.	Teachers are allowed to develop meaningful curricula.
Students are forbidden to interact.	Collaborative interaction is encouraged.
Passive learning is promoted.	Active awareness of learning is promoted.
Mutually exclusive competition is promoted ("You win, I lose".)	Collaborative learning is promoted ("We all learn together").
Students are compared with each other (normative assessment).	Learners are assessed according to their own performances (absolute assessment).
Motivation is extrinsic (learning for a grade).	Motivation is intrinsic (learning for its own sake).
Students learn how to fail (it is impossible for everyone to pass standardized tests).	Students are all allowed to be successful. Effort and motivation produce results at every level.
Continued "failure" results in low self-esteem.	Confidence is enhanced through continued success.
If we look closely at these basic principles of CBA (Table 1), we can see that they involve and require a student-centered, non-threatening learning environment. According to this approach, assessment is an integral part of instruction, each learner is treated as a unique person, the emphasis is on strengths and progress (finding out and building on: what learners can do), assessment is used for improving and	guiding learning, the emphasis is on higher-order learning outcomes and thinking skills, and collaborative learning enables learners to help each other and work as teams. Finally, learning is seen as valuable for its own sake (intrinsic learning).
	CBA thus aims to make language evaluation more authentic, meaningful and relevant to the students and the teacher, and it presents

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an effective means of investigating and improving learning in the secondary language classroom, despite any restrictions concerning syllabus and lesson content. Not only does this approach make students more aware of the learning process, but it also reduces the assessment burden on the teacher (by involving students in the evaluation process), giving him/her more time to manage the learning environment. If such considerations seem idealistic, especially in the test-driven language classroom, we must ask ourselves, as educators, why it is that “ideal” conditions are lacking in the education system or in our classes. If ministerial educational objectives aim to promote “the ability to achieve an independent life and acquire the qualifications of democratic citizens, and to be able to participate in the building of a democratic state and promoting the prosperity of all humankind” (Park, 2001, p. 3), then it is the responsibility of teachers to produce learning environments that realize that goal.

The current high-stakes testing cloud appears to have a silver lining, however, and there are signs of change in terms of educational reform in Asia. In Korea, for example, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources has initiated development of a National English Ability Test (NEAT) that tests all four skills (instead of just reading and listening as in the CSAT) and will begin in 2015. High school class work will also be given more weight when students apply for university (Jin, 2004). If these changes become reality, then teachers will be empowered to focus on intrinsic motivation and development of performance skills and learning strategies in their

Bringing Classroom-Based Assessment classrooms, and CBA will become a powerful tool for enhancing that learning.

Why should we use CBA?

Before considering the topic of assessing language learning, it is necessary first to ask how language learning occurs. The solution to this question continues to evade researchers, though certain factors can be identified:

1. construction of meaning;
2. sharing of experiences;
3. identification of needs and purposes;
4. critical evaluation of performance strategies; and
5. awareness of this process (Harri-Augstein & Thomas, 1991, p. 7).

CBA pays attention to these factors, using reflective forms of assessment in instructionally relevant classroom activities (communicative performance assessment, language portfolios and self-assessment) and focusing on curriculum goals, enhancement of individual competence, and integration of instruction and assessment. In this two-way process, “the essentially interactive nature of learning is extended to the process of assessment” (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 42). This approach to assessment examines what learners can do with their language, through real-life language-use tasks (cf. Weir, 1998, p. 9). The result is a process-oriented means of evaluating communicative competence, cognitive abilities and affective learning (Hart, 1994, p. 9; O’Malley & Pierce, 1996, pp. x-6; Kohonen, 1999, p. 284).

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The principles behind CBA are largely concerned with promoting effective learning, to the benefit of everyone concerned. At this point, therefore, it is relevant to refer to the "Ten considerations crucial for language teachers" offered by Williams & Burden (1997).

1. There is a difference between learning and education.
2. Learners learn what is meaningful to them.
3. Learners learn in ways that are meaningful to them.
4. Learners learn better if they feel in control of what they are learning.
5. Learning is closely linked to how people feel about themselves.
6. Learning takes place in a social context through interactions with other people.
7. What teachers do in the classroom reflects their own beliefs and attitudes.
8. There is a significant role for the teacher as mediator in the language classroom.
9. Learning tasks represent an interface between teachers and learners.
10. Learning is influenced by the situation in which it occurs.
(Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 204)

How can we use CBA?

Despite the restrictions of the test-driven classroom and other localized (specific to individual schools) demands on the teacher, the author has found that there are a number of ways in which principles and practices of CBA can be introduced into the EFL classroom.

1. USE GROUPWORK IN CLASS. Learners in groups learn more than they do as individuals (Vygotsky, 1978). This is true for all members of the group. Not only do the weaker members benefit from being instructed by someone who shares their zone of proximal development (ZPD), but the stronger members also benefit, since the best way to learn something is to teach it to someone else.
2. INTRODUCE REGULAR NEEDS ANALYSES (PRE-COURSE, POST-COURSE) AND ONGOING SELF-ASSESSMENTS. Allow the students to complete these themselves, using an interview format (exchange worksheets and write the partner's responses on his/her sheet). The worksheets can be stored in individual portfolios.
3. USE PORTFOLIOS. Portfolios combine process and product, giving students and teachers an ongoing view of the learning that takes place. These can be either collection portfolios (including everything that has happened in class) or showcase portfolios (including only the work which the student wants others to see).
4. USE LEARNER JOURNALS OR DIARIES. Writing is a skill that improves with practice, and diaries encourage students to write regularly and meaningfully. Learner journals also help them to reflect on the learning process and to become more effective learners.
5. USE COLLABORATION RATHER THAN COMPETITION. The "Mutually Exclusive Goal

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"Attainment" (MEGA) (Kohn, 1992, p. 4) approach of competitive language learning encourages "learned helplessness" and demotivation. Even if groups compete against each other, there can be only one winner, and the focus of work tends towards competing rather than learning. For an excellent description of the dangers of using competition in the classroom, the reader is referred to Kohn's book *No contest: The case against competition* (1992).

6. MOTIVATE STUDENTS INTRINSICALLY. Rewards are a two-edged sword, and can quickly become meaningless. If they are given to the "winners" then other students become demotivated. If the are given to everyone, then the hierarchical function of the rewards is lost and the teacher becomes a dispenser of candies and gold stars. Readers who are interested in pursuing this topic further are recommended to read another exceptional book by Alfie Kohn: *Punished by rewards* (1999).

7. USE ABSOLUTE ASSESSMENT RATHER THAN RELATIVE ASSESSMENT. Even if end-of-term exams are relative (comparing students with each other and therefore defining many students as losers), absolute assessment can be used in class during the semester. This allows teachers to encourage individual (and group) growth rather than pitting students against each other. Slow learners can be confident that their development is seen as valid by the teacher, and quick

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learners (including those who have lived in an English-speaking country) must also understand that they have to show evidence of continuous improvement in order to receive good grades.

8. USE PROJECT-BASED LEARNING WHEN POSSIBLE. Projects (e.g. a class newspaper) enable learners to work in groups, to define objectives (goal setting), to work on individual tasks (allocation of responsibility and accountability), to reflect on what still needs to be done (formative assessment) and to work together on a finished product (achievement). Projects can also promote intrinsic learning and are effectively assessed through peer-assessment. For an excellent discussion of the advantages of using projects, the reader is referred to Legutke & Thomas' book *Process and experience in the language classroom* (1991).

Naturalistic enquiry

In addition to performing needs analyses, EFL teachers acquire a great deal of information about their students based on observations and personal instincts, and this information can be used to improve learning and the learning environment. Naturalistic teacher insights are not to be dismissed as "subjective" impressions, but should be seen as valuable, professional judgments:

The status of evaluation in the twentieth century represents one of the most striking paradoxes in the history of thought: An

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essential - and perhaps the most important - ingredient in all intellectual and practical activity has been explicitly banned or implicitly excluded from discussion or acknowledgement in most of its natural territory. (Scriven, 1991, p. 10)

This “most important ingredient” referred to by Scriven is the professional, informed opinion of the teacher, which has been defined as worthless by “objective” evaluation. Such an impersonal approach ignores the fact that the classroom is “the social-psychological and material environment in which students and teachers work together” (Parlett & Hamilton, 1975, p. 145) and represents a network of cultural, social, institutional and psychological variables that interact in complex ways. Because of this, assessment must be transparent, non-threatening, student-centered and formative (feeding back into the course to improve it). It must also consider every aspect of learning (linguistic, cognitive, affective, emotional, cultural, and social). Qualitative methods of assessment are therefore appropriate for CBA, though this is not to exclude quantitative methods when appropriate. If learning and growth are examined qualitatively (through interviews, journals, learning conversations, etc.) it is possible to get an overall picture and then make quantitative questionnaires and tests to investigate in more detail. It should also be remembered that the student is at the center of the learning process, and should be in the same place in terms of assessment.

A variety of information-gathering techniques are used in naturalistic enquiry: i)

interviews; ii) questionnaires; iii) observation; iv) diaries; v) student records; and vi) portfolios. We might also add self/peer-assessment and learning conversations to this list, bringing us back to the fact that the best way to improve the learning environment is to get the students actively involved in assessing and improving their learning. The process of continuous self/peer-assessment and consequent raised awareness is in itself a beneficial reflection on and use of data. The construction of a learner-centered, non-threatening, environment, in which assessment is an integral part of instruction, is therefore an end in itself, and will produce its own positive results (Finch, 2001).

Naturalistic enquiry can thus provide important information to the most important people in the learning process – the students and the teacher. From the point of view of the students, there can be attention to product as well as process, in that they can have a learning journal (diary) and one or more portfolios as evidence of the growth that has occurred during the language course. They might also have videos of projects designed and performed by them. These will all assist in the formation of positive attitudes to learning, and will therefore improve the quality of learning itself (success breeds success).

Naturalistic data analysis happens all the time. The teacher sets up a non-threatening CBA environment, with portfolios, journals, self-assessment, etc., and then observes the results and the process. As time passes, trends appear, and it becomes evident that certain aspects of learning need extra

attention. At that time, the teacher can adjust his/her teaching accordingly, and repair the learning process at first hand, without delay, and on an individual, group or class basis. If we acknowledge the teacher as a professional, an expert who can make informed decisions, then we can see that CBA (and naturalistic enquiry) provide the personalized data upon which those decisions can be made. The answer to how to use the data is left in the hands of the teacher.

CBA produces a wealth of naturalistic (deep, rich, personal) data that can be examined and used as appropriate. Rather than an impersonalized set of numbers, this data comes *from* the students and is *about* the students. It is important that this assessment information comes from various sources. Just as a single test can only give the information it is designed to give, so the use of only one method of CBA can produce misleading results. Teachers therefore need to "triangulate." This means using different methods of assessment and comparing them with each other as follows:

- Learning journals can uncover anxieties and emotional problems that are interfering with learning;
- portfolios can show that organizational and time-management skills have been acquired;
- observations can bring interaction issues to light; and
- semi-structured or open-ended interviews can reveal concerns previously unimagined by the teacher³.

³ It must be remembered that questionnaires only tell us what we want to know. They do not expose

Bringing Classroom-Based Assessment CBA in practice

It is not possible to describe in depth the results of CBA in the author's EFL classroom, since i) this is largely a theory-based paper, and ii) there is a lack of space for descriptions of methodology and classroom practice. However, reference to the author's language-learning website (www.finckpark.com/courses/) will confirm that he has been using CBA for more than ten years, and that it is now an integral part of his teacher-training courses and seminars. This can be seen in particular in the Learning Journal, *English Reflections* (<http://www.finckpark.com/books/lj/index2.htm>), which introduces a number of self-assessment instruments, discussion activities (about language learning), and peer-assessment activities. By working through this learning journal, undergraduate English Education students in particular have opportunities to learn how to set their own language learning goals, assess their achievements, discuss their learning needs, and reflect on the learning process. Contrary to the received truth that Korean students prefer passive learning⁴, examination of these journals over the past 10 years (Finch, 2008) has shown that these students quickly

problems that we have not identified or imagined. There are also many reasons for not answering questionnaires sincerely. This provides another reason for triangulation of results.

⁴ Such received truths often use circular logic. For example, it is often claimed that Korean students prefer rote learning, simply because they have experienced nothing else. However, the author's experience is that Korean students are very quick to develop learning strategies and to take on autonomous, task-based learning when given the chance to do this. Just because they have never experienced effective learning strategies and methods, this does not mean that they do not like such approaches.

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become adept in self- and peer-assessment and consequently in learning how to learn – a skill that is vital for the 21st century, when everyone can expect to reskill during their careers.

Further implementation of the CBA concept has recently been carried out by the author in the Freshman English program of his university in Korea. Having been invited to design and implement a Freshman English program that would provide essential academic and career-oriented English language skills to freshman students in all disciplines, the author of this paper designed and wrote the textbooks for an integrated-skills program (Finch, 2012a; 2012b) that promoted English speaking and writing. Each Unit of this program made use of self-assessment, peer-assessment, and peer editing - three skills that students typically did not possess when they entered the university Freshman English program, having experienced only memory-based test-preparation in high school. Despite this fact, the first year of implementation of this program has shown that students of all levels and all disciplines are able to learn the skills associated with self/peer-assessment of language skills, and of peer-editing (in a process-writing context) in particular. They have also shown an ability to quickly acquire the organizational skills involved in keeping a portfolio of their assignments and their written drafts.

While CBA has been shown by the author and other researchers to be a viable and practical method of empowering language learners in this part of Asia, it is important to remember that students and teachers new to

CBA need to acquire and develop the appropriate skills. Rather than blaming students for not knowing how to set goals, how to perform a needs analysis, how to make a portfolio, how to assess themselves and each other, and how to critically reflect on their achievements, it is important to take into account the fact that they have never had any tuition in this field and that problems such as peer-pressure and unwillingness to criticize each other are bound to arise. However, when the classroom is seen as a microcosm of society it is possible to deal with such problems as they arise and to work them through in a democratic and sensitive manner. Given the opportunity to think about the issues involved and to learn about the vital importance of self-assessment in their lives, students are typically quick to acquire the necessary critical-thinking skills and to become effective learners.

Conclusion

Knowledge of the elements of a language in fact counts for nothing unless the user is able to combine them in new and appropriate ways to meet the linguistic demands of the situation in which he wishes to use the language. (Morrow, 1979, p. 145)

Educational theory is currently addressing the problems associated with an under-performing education system by revisiting ideas that Rogers, Dewey, Bruner, Friere and Vygotsky were expressing even before Applied Linguistics was born, in 1961. Indeed, a holistic view of education, which

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can be traced back to Aristotle, Plato, and early oriental philosophers, represents a return to basic principles, rather than simply another fashionable trend. In Korea, the ideal of *Hongik-Ingan* (contributing to the overall benefit of humankind) has always been at the heart of education (UNESCO, 2010/2011; KEDI, 2007). Such an emphasis must be given utmost urgency in these times of natural and man-made disasters; times in which society, in its deification of monetary gain, has neglected moral education; times in which an ethical awareness must extend to every aspect of life.

Stevick (1976) identifies four forms of alienation which have resulted in the failure of modern language teaching:

1. alienation of the learners from the materials;
2. alienation of the learners from themselves;
3. alienation of the learners from the class; and
4. alienation of the learners from the teacher. (Stevick, 1976, p. 225)

These alienations result from an impersonal education system which values intellect over emotion, and behaviorist learning over moral responsibility. However, changes that occurred in the 20th century in social science, psychology, philosophy, and political science, indicate that in modern society, learning and understanding meta-skills (problem-solving, critical thinking, etc.) is more important than knowledge. Furthermore, the various kinds of social awareness (minority rights, the status of women, rights of patients, etc.) that have arisen have helped to make quality of life

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 the new marker of social progress. A radical rethinking of education is therefore necessary, since the present model would be unsatisfactory even if it worked! Imagine a society full of A⁺ students as defined by traditional education. Who would drive the trains, clean the streets, grow the food, and deliver the newspapers? Such roles are integral to society, yet their artisans are seen (and perceive themselves) as unsuccessful products of the school system. Young people who possess practical skills are forced to attend institutions that tell them they are failures. They then move on to Technical and Vocational Colleges, learning skills that are the lifeblood of the community, but which are not taught in high-level institutions.

Language education is typically poor in producing learners who can be termed successful, even within the narrow criterion of linguistic proficiency. Because of this, the question "How can language be taught effectively?" must be exchanged for "How can the language classroom become an instrument of positive attitude change?" In other words, "How can language classrooms mirror changes in social development, and produce future citizens equipped to take on the challenges of a century in which the only constant factor will be change?" Legutke & Thomas (1991, pp. 7-10) pose a number of questions that are relevant at this point:

Question 1: Is it possible and feasible to turn learners' classrooms into whole-person events, where body and soul, intellect and feeling, head, hand and heart converge in action?

Question 2: Can second-language (L2) learning be a satisfying activity

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in itself, in the here and now of the classroom? What adventures and challenges are possible under the very conditions of L2 learning?

Question 3: What needs to be done to regain some of this creative potential in the L2 classroom? Do we have to consider individual and cultural differences?

Question 4: What needs to be done to create situations and scenarios where communication in the target language could be more meaningful? What are the roles of teacher, learners, topic and input in such scenarios? Could even inter- and intra-student discourse be carried out in the target language?

Question 5: What needs to be done to develop in learners such a capacity for critique? How can they become co-managers of their learning and participate in their own teaching? How do we create the learning space so that learners can take initiatives to pursue their own learning for their own benefit, and to discover their own learning styles? (Legutke & Thomas, 1991, pp. 7-10)

These questions highlight both the problem and a means of addressing it. It is no longer defensible to use discrete-item testing of dubious constructs. Instead, the need to understand performance itself and the processing (and affective) factors that influence it, suggests the use of reflective forms of assessment in instructionally relevant classroom activities (communicative performance assessment, language portfolios and self-assessment), which focus on integration of instruction and assessment. In this two-way process, the essentially interactive nature of learning can

be extended to the process of assessment (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 42), examining what learners can do with their language, through real-life language use tasks (cf. Weir, 1998, p. 9).

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7. Authentic Assessment: Implications for EFL Performance Testing in Korea

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Authentic Assessment: Implications for EFL Performance Testing in Korea

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This paper examines current theory and practice regarding the assessment of foreign language oral performance, and discusses implications for curriculum designers and teachers in tertiary learning institutions in the republic of Korea. In addition to suggesting that norm-referenced assessment be replaced with criteria-referenced, "authentic" assessment in these establishments, the first part of the paper also concludes that the current grading of students in National Universities according to a prescribed bell-curve is inappropriate for language assessment, being intrinsically demotivating for students and teachers. It is therefore argued that tertiary English programs should act on recent research findings and government policy statements by promoting positive affect (attitudes, beliefs, confidence, motivation, etc.) in non-threatening learning environments, using criterion-referenced, authentic assessment.

The second part of this paper recognizes two modes of authentic assessment (self- and peer-assessment) as reliable and valid methods of evaluation, particularly suitable for assessment of oral skills at tertiary level. These reflective models encourage students to become involved in their learning, and promote positive attitude change in the fostering of life-long learning skills and socially responsible citizens. It is suggested, therefore, that when employed in a student-centered, holistic setting, self- and peer-assessment are practical and effective evaluation tools for tertiary language education.

I. INTRODUCTION

A systematic testing component is an essential part of every language program and of most language classrooms (despite the fact that many teachers feel intimidated by the terminology and use of statistical concepts, Brown, 1995, p. 12), being used to measure language aptitude, proficiency, placement, diagnosis, progress, and achievement, and providing feedback for the program evaluator(s), washback information for teachers and students, and motivational washforward implications for all concerned. However, the field of language testing in general and of performance testing in particular, is fraught with problems of theory and practice. Before discussing appropriate evaluation models for university English programs in Korea, therefore, it is appropriate at this point to view a brief survey of language assessment research.

II. ORAL TESTING: HISTORY OF RESEARCH

1. Beginnings

Defining a test as "a systematic method of eliciting performance which is intended to be the basis for some sort of decision making" (Skehan, 1998, p. 153), Skehan notes the tendency of testers to

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place an emphasis on "care and standardization in assessment in the belief that such methods of examining performance will have more to contribute to reliable measurement than informal assessment by people who may be very familiar with particular language users" (Skehan, 1998, p. 153). This attitude follows on from the assumption that "there are knowable best ways of learning and that these can be discovered using a scientific method which has long been discarded by contemporary philosophers (Popper), scientists (Medawar) and physicists (Heisenberg)" (Harri-Augstein & Thomas, 1991, p. 7), and has been at the heart of language testing from its "pre-scientific" stage (Spolsky, 1975, p. 148), to its psychometric-structuralist "scientific" stage (when discrete-point testing represented the accepted behaviorist truth). According to this view, language can be learned by studying its parts in isolation, acquisition of these parts can be tested and will successfully predict performance levels, and the learner will somehow reconstruct the parts in meaningful situations when necessary. This view continued into the "psycholinguistic-sociolinguistic" stage (the 1970's), when integrative testing (e.g. cloze tests and dictation) claimed to come from a sounder theoretical base (Oller, 1979) but was shown by commentators such as Alderson (1981), Morrow (1979) and Carroll (1981, p. 9) to be still concerned with *usage* rather than *use*, therefore being only indirect tests of potential efficiency. Kelly (1978, pp. 245-246) also pointed out that it is possible to develop proficiency in the integrative test itself, and that indirect tests cannot diagnose specific areas of difficulty in relation to the authentic task. Such tests can only supply information on a candidate's linguistic competence, and have nothing to offer in terms of performance ability (Weir, 1998).

A consensus that "knowledge of the elements of a language in fact counts for nothing unless the user is able to combine them in new and appropriate ways to meet the linguistic demands of the situation in which he wishes to use the language" (Morrow, 1979, p. 145), and an acknowledgement that the easily quantifiable, reliable, and efficient data obtained from discrete (and cloze) testing implies that proficiency is neatly quantifiable in such a fashion (Oller, 1979, p. 212), led to a perception that the ability to perform should be tested in a specified socio-linguistic setting. Based on work by Hymes (1972), Canale & Swain (1980), and Morrow (1979), the emphasis shifted from linguistic accuracy to the ability to function effectively through language in particular contexts of situation (a demonstration of competence and of the ability to use this competence), and communicative testing was adopted as a means of assessing language acquisition (though with some lack of initial agreement or direction, cf. McClean 1995, p. 137; Benson, 1991).

The components of communicative language ability to be tested were variously described at this time (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983), and early frameworks for testing communicative competence were proposed. However, these were neither practical, systematic, nor comprehensive (cf. Cziko, 1984), and were unable to advance prediction and generalization in any substantial way. This problem was addressed by Bachman (1990) through the application of categories to real contexts, and resulted in a model of oral testing which was: i) more detailed in its specification of component language competences; ii) more precise in the interrelationships between the different component competences; iii) more grounded in contemporary linguistic theory; and iv) more empirically based, allowing a more effective mapping of components of competence onto language use situations, and more principled comparisons of those components. Despite these improvements, however, Bachman's model still lacked a "rationale founded in psycholinguistic mechanisms and processes (and research findings) which can enable [it to] make functional statements about the nature of performance and the way it is grounded in competence" (Skehan, 1998, p. 164). Skehan (1988) articulated the dilemma of communicative language testing at the end of the 1980s:

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What we need is a theory which guides and predicts how an underlying communicative competence is manifested in actual performance; how situations are related to one another, how competence can be assessed by examples of performance on actual tests; what components communicative competence actually has; and how these interrelate. Since such definitive theories do not exist, testers have to do the best they can with such theories as are available. (Skehan, 1988, cited in Weir, 1998, p. 7)

2. Task-based oral testing

Bachman's (1990) model used familiar empirical research methods in which data was perceived in terms of the underlying structural model, to infer abilities, via a static picture of proficiency, based on the assumption that there are competence-oriented underlying abilities made up of different interacting components (cf. Canale & Swain, 1980). However, cognitive theory shows that second language performers, faced with a developing inter-language and performance pressures such as fluency, accuracy and complexity, do not draw upon "a generalized and stable underlying competence", (Skehan, 1998, p. 169) but allocate limited processing attention in appropriate ways, drawing on parallel coding systems for efficiency of real-time communication. Skehan therefore proposed a construct of "ability for use", which would allow a processing competence to operate and to be assessed, and advocated the use of tasks as a central unit within a testing context (Skehan, 1998, p. 169). In contrast to performance evaluations which use reliable analytic scales (in areas such as grammar, vocabulary, fluency, appropriateness, and pronunciation) but which do not allow for affect and for competing demands on attention, a processing approach in a task-based framework allows generalizations to be made on the three basic language-sampling issues of: i) fluency; ii) breadth/complexity of language used; and iii) accuracy (Skehan, 1998, p. 177), though these criteria compete for processing resources in the performer, and the score may be influenced by whichever processing goals are emphasized by him/her.

While advocating tasks as the basic unit of oral testing (c.f. Lee, 1991), Skehan notes that "we need to know more about the way tasks themselves influence (and constrain) performance" (Skehan, 1998, p. 169), and that tasks also need to be rated in terms of planning, time pressure, modality, stakes, opportunity for control, manufactured surprise, and degree of support, since these factors will also affect the outcome. Task performance conditions and the way these affect performance represent "a fertile area for research" (Skehan, 1998, p. 177).

3. Authentic assessment

Kohonen (1999) extended Skehan's task-based framework, proposing "authentic assessment" as a process-oriented means of evaluating communicative competence, cognitive abilities and affective learning (Kohonen, 1999, p. 284; cf. Hart, 1994, p. 9; O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, pp. x-6), using reflective forms of assessment in instructionally-relevant classroom activities (communicative performance assessment, language portfolios and self-assessment), and focusing on curriculum goals, enhancement of individual competence and integration of instruction and assessment. In this two-way process, "the essentially interactive nature of learning is extended to the process of assessment" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 42), examining what learners can do with their language, through real-life language use tasks (cf. Weir, 1998, p. 9). For the learner this means developing reflective

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awareness through self-assessment and peer assessment, learning "how to manage learning , rather than just managing to learn" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 291). For the teacher (whose professional judgement and commitment to enhancing student learning is an important part of this process), authentic assessment means collecting information about learner progress and the social learning environment in the class, along with a re-assessment of classroom roles and responsibilities. Such a teacher becomes a:

... tool-maker and provider, observer and joint interpreter of the evolving conversational experiment in which both subject and [teacher] are full but different participants. ... Only the subject/learner can tap his or her personal *experience*, but the experimenter can observe *behaviour* and recruit methodological skills to drive the experiment forward. (Harri-Augstein & Thomas, 1991, p. 6)

Kohonen (1999) offers a list of 13 ways in which authentic assessment can enhance learning, and summarizes how this approach contrasts with standardized testing (Table I, below):

TABLE 1
Comparison of standardized testing and authentic assessment (Kohonen, 1999, p. 285).

	Standardized testing	Authentic testing
1	Testing and instruction are regarded as separate activities.	Assessment is an integral part of instruction.
2	Students are treated in a uniform way.	Each learner is treated as a unique person.
3	Decisions are based on single sets of data (test scores).	Provides multiple sources of data; a more informative view.
4	Emphasis on weakness/failures: what students cannot do.	Emphasis on strengths/progress: what learners can do.
5	One-shot exams	Ongoing assessment
6	Cultural/socio-economic status bias	More culture-fair
7	Focus on one 'right answer'	Possibility of several perspectives
8	Judgement without suggestions for improvement.	Useful information for improving/guiding learning
9	Pressures teachers to narrow teaching to what is tested).	Allows teachers to develop meaningful curricula.
10	Focus on lower-order knowledge skills.	Emphasis on higher-order learning outcomes and thinking skills.
11	Forbids students to interact promotes comparisons between students (norm-referencing).	Encourages collaborative learning compares learners to their own past performances and the aims.
12	Intrinsic learning for a grade.	Extrinsic learning for its own sake.

As can be seen from this list, authentic assessment is a learning tool, providing evaluative information to both learners and teachers. Its focus on student-centered and student-managed ongoing assessment also reflects educational thought in other areas of language acquisition: collaborative learning (Vygotsky, 1978); individual learning styles and preferences (Bickley, 1989; Keefe, [Ed.],

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1979; Reid, 1987); the importance of affect (Arnold, [Ed.], 1999); and the process syllabus (Breen, 1984). The authentic assessment model is thus particularly suitable for tertiary students, since it encourages them to gradually assume responsibility for their own learning and for the assessment of that learning, as the cycle of intention, action and reflection becomes a personal endeavor, facilitated by: portfolios, projects, self- and peer-assessment, learning conversations, and reflective journals. In addition, an institutional trust and respect for the learner (which must be implicit in this approach), sees him/her as an active and socially responsible agent, fully capable of needs analysis, goal setting, and assessment of achievement.

4. Validity/reliability

Before concluding this brief overview of oral performance testing, it is appropriate to mention that language testing has traditionally been limited by considerations of validity (whether tests actually measure what they are supposed to measure [Thrasher, 1984]), reliability (whether they produce similar results on more than one occasion), and efficiency (logistics of test administration) (Weir, 1998, p. 1). Validity (seen by Spolsky, 1975, and Messick, 1988, as the major problem in foreign language testing) includes content validity (the test is a representative sample of the language skills and structures it is meant to test), criterion-related validity, construct-validity (the extent to which the test matches a theoretical construct, Bachman, 1990), face-validity (the test looks reasonable to the test-taker), predictive validity (the predictive force of the test), concurrent-validity (the test and the criterion are administered at the same time, Davies, 1990), and educational validity (the relationship between positive test effects and students study habits, Thrasher, 1984). Nakamura (1995, p. 135) argues that predictive validity, educational validity, construct validity, concurrent validity, face validity and content validity should be analysed in tests of speaking ability, and Kohonen (1999, p. 291) also stresses validity in communicative evaluation.

Williams and Burden (1997), however, argue that the energy spent by test constructors on strengthening the reliability and validity of their tests so that they can be standardized, is largely misspent, since this assumes that the test is measuring a relatively fixed characteristic, rather than a hypothetical construct (the researcher's best attempt to define what is involved). In fact, individual- and affect-related traits are variable, and often context specific, such that "a test should be expected to produce different results on different occasions" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 90). As Kelly mentions (1955, p. 77), when a subject fails to meet the experimenter's expectations, all that can be said is that he/she has not conformed to those expectations or to the experimenter's definition of learning: "The point is that it is extremely difficult to construct a test which is truly valid in that it really measures what it is supposed to measure" (Kelly, 1955, p. 77). Weir (1998, p. 7) also points out that the validity of "communicative" tests is dependant on the test-constructor's understanding and definition of the term, and Van Lier (1996) goes deeper still into "accountability", noting that tests can only measure that which is measurable:

It is quite possible that the deepest, most satisfying aspects of achievement, and the most profound effects of education, both in positive and negative terms, are entirely unmeasurable. ... What if we held educators accountable for the quality of the memories they gave to their students, rather than for averages on national tests? (Van Lier, 1996, p. 120)

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5. Summary

Oral language testing has evolved in a short time from a "physical science" approach (in which language learners are impersonal data) to a "personal science" (in which people explain themselves to themselves), and more recently, to a "conversational science" approach, based on the premise that the unique attribute of humans is that they converse. Testing which continues to concentrate on the "target-like appearance of forms" (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 155) ignores the fact that "we have no mechanism for deciding which of the phenomena described or reported to be carried out by the learner are in fact those that lead to language acquisition" (Seliger, 1984, p. 37), as well as the fact that the learner's internal grammar is not a steady commodity and often deteriorates prior to internalizing new content. Even if we could identify and measure all of the factors in second language acquisition, complexity theory tells us that "we would still be unable to predict the outcome of their combination" (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 157).

Psychologists and educators still know little about how language learning occurs, and why and how some individuals are more competent than others, so that it is inappropriate to define and test discrete symptoms of the process. However, observable factors that appear to be associated with learning include construction of meaning, sharing of experiences, identification of needs and purposes, critical evaluation of performance strategies, and awareness of this process (Harri-Augstein & Thomas, 1991, p. 7). These factors can be satisfactorily examined (from the point of view of both teacher and student) using reflective, authentic assessment methods in appropriate learner-centered classroom activities. Integrated into the day-to-day curriculum, assessment can become both a means and an end, and considerations of validity, reliability and efficiency cease to be a major issue in the ongoing reflective self-examination of language performance.

III. CRITERION-REFERENCED/NORM-REFERENCED TESTING

Authentic assessment in a task-based process setting implies a focus on language mastery (criterion-referenced performance) rather than relative performance (norm-referenced performance), a focus which Ames and Archer (1988) found to be highly motivating in the classroom, fostering long-term use of learning strategies and helping students form realistic but challenging goals. When relative performance was the goal however, learners believed that ability was shown by success with little effort, and they judged their ability lower. As Darling-Hammond (1994, p. 110) points out, assessment needs to support authentic forms of teaching and learning.

Task-based process assessment involves a criterion-referenced orientation, with Criterion-Referenced Tests (CRTs) providing direct information "about what the learner can actually do with the target language." (McClean, 1995, p. 137). Strengths and weaknesses can be isolated across the whole test population, and specific information can be gained about an individual's performance, in contrast to Norm-Related Tests (NRTs), which tend to give information only about learners at either ends of the scale (cf. McClean, 1995, p. 146; Cartier, 1968; Czikó, 1982; Hudson & Lynch, 1984; Brown, 1988; 1989; Bachman, 1989; 1990).

Brown (1995) classifies CRTs and NRTs according to their test characteristics and logistical dimensions (Table 2, below). as can be seen from this table, CRTs are appropriate for assessment of oral foreign language performance, in that they foster learning (learning how to learn), they are classroom specific, and they are formative, being concerned with ongoing needs analysis and the

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feedback of relevant data into the learning process. In contrast, NRTs are concerned with the administration of the learners, and are summative in nature, assessing whether learners have been (or are likely to be) successful (however this is defined), but unable to comment on why or how, or on what should happen next (cf. Williams & Burden, 1994, p. 22). NRTs thus differ from CRTs in focus, timing, purpose and theoretical motivation and reflect different perspectives and goals. :

TABLE 2
Differences between NRTs and CRTS (Brown, 1995, p.12).

	CRTs	NRTs
Test Characteristics		
Underlying Purposes	Foster learning	Classify/group students
Types of Decisions	Diagnosis, progress, achievement	Aptitude, proficiency, placement
Levels of Generality	Classroom specific	Overall, global
Students'	Know content to expect	Do not know content
Expectations		
Score Interpretations	Percent	Percentile
Score Report	Tests and answers to students	Only scores go to students
Strategies		
Logistical Dimensions		
Group Size	Relatively small group	Large group
Range of Abilities	Relatively homogeneous	Wide range of abilities
Test Length	Relatively few questions	Large number of questions
Time Allocated	Relatively short time	Long (2-4 hours) administration
Cost	Teacher time & duplication	Test booklets, tapes, proctor

IV. THE KOREAN SITUATION

1. The 7th Curriculum

The advocacy of CRTs, and in particular of authentic assessment, in tertiary EFL classrooms in Korea, is especially appropriate in the light of the goals of school education as stated in section 1 ("The direction of curriculum design") of the Korean Ministry of Education 7th Curriculum document (한국, 2001, p. 3). Here we find the ideal of *홍익인간* (*hongik-ingan*: contributing to the overall benefit of humankind) at the foundation of educational objectives which aim to foster "the ability to achieve an independent life and acquire the qualifications of democratic citizens, and to be able to participate in the building of a democratic state and promoting the prosperity of all humankind" (한국, 2001, p. 3). The well-educated person that these goals aim to promote is further defined as:

1. A person who seeks to develop his/her own individuality on the basis of well-rounded and wholesome development

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2. A person who demonstrates creative ability on the basis of a solid grounding in basic knowledge and skills
3. A person who explores career paths on the basis of broad intellectual knowledge and skills in diverse academic disciplines
4. A person who creates new values on the basis of an understanding of the national culture
5. A person who contributes to the development of the community where he/she lives on the basis of democratic citizenship. (이기현, 2001, p. 4)

Such a humanistic, holistic view of education provides an excellent reference-point for curriculum designers and school teachers when considering learning environments, curriculum content, and assessment models, for it is immediately apparent that the promotion of responsible, creative individuals with critical thinking skills and awareness of professional ethics (the sort of people who will contribute actively and constructively to society in the 21st century), is not to be (and has not been) achieved through the norm-referenced assessment model, which is evidently inappropriate for language learning (especially at tertiary level), since it promotes competition, exclusion and summative testing above the ethics of *hongik-ingan*. If education is to successfully foster autonomous, informed learners who are aware of their learning goals, confident of their ability to achieve them, motivated to learn, and possessing the learning skills that will enable them to take on the unpredictable learning situations of the future, then the use of collaborative, student-centered assessment is imperative. CRTs, with their focus on real-life situations, problem-solving, learning skills, and responsibility for learning, must be adopted at every level of education, and language classrooms must focus on development of student autonomy, responsibility, confidence, and motivation.

Such a process can begin most conveniently at tertiary level, since designers of language programs at this level have the expertise and freedom (within certain restrictions) to construct student-centered conversation-based courses (e.f. Finch, 2001). However, there are instances of the NRT approach at tertiary level which must be addressed in order for this process to gain momentum.

2. The bell curve

One such educational dinosaur is the prescribed application of proportional grading (here referred to as a bell-curve) in the grading of language courses. This practice began as an attempt to ensure consistency in grading across all the academic disciplines in the Freshman year of study, since professors who assigned abnormally strict or lax grades disproportionately affected the prospects of their students (entry to second-year courses is dependant on first-year grades). Student expectations regarding final grades were also reflected in class sizes. Because of this situation, National Universities in Korea introduced a system in which professors were required to assign grades according to a given bell-curve: a defined percentage of students would receive an "A" grade, another percentage of students would receive a "B" grade, and the remainder would receive "C" or below. With the advent of online recording of grades, grading software was designed to accept only grades which conformed to these requirements.

What began as an attempt to solve a difficult situation has, however, produced its own problems, especially in the conversation-English classroom. If (as the government advises) students are to be encouraged to develop communicative competence in English, along with problem-solving, creative thinking and social awareness, then the learning environment must promote the acquisition of such

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qualities through responsibility, collaboration, motivation, and positive attitude change. As can be seen, however, the bell-curve fosters competition, aggression, and exclusion, encouraging students to be "successful" despite (rather than in tandem with) their peers.

If we consider (for example) a class of well motivated students, all of whom are doing their utmost (individually and together) to set linguistic goals, work towards them, and reflect upon their achievements (i.e. a class in which the teacher has successfully promoted affective, cognitive and social growth), 30% of these excellent students must receive "C" grades, and the teacher must find "reasons" for assigning them. In another class of unmotivated students, none of whom show any interest in learning, and all of whom reject the advice and counseling of the teacher, no more than 30% can be allocated a "C" grade. The remainder of the class must be assigned "A" or "B" grades, irrespective of their lack of progress relative to students in the previously-mentioned class. The situation is particularly hard on the teacher who aims to promote positive affect (motivation, confidence, reduced stress) and attitude change. If he/she manages to fire up a student with enthusiasm to learn and with love of learning *per se*, the resultant improvement in that student's grades must be matched by the demotion of two other students (if one student rises from "C" to "A", then one must also fall from "A" to "B", and another from "B" to "C"). How are teachers to motivate students in this situation? What are they to say to the highly motivated student who receives a "C" grade simply because he/she is in a class of extremely highly motivated peers? The topic of how to provide realistic assessment information on oral achievement is largely irrelevant for the student who realizes from day 1 of the semester that he/she will receive a low grade, and who therefore makes no effort to improve.

Professors and language teachers need the freedom not only to award high grades where they are merited, but also to award low grades, thus providing students with the information that their academic efforts are inadequate. A recommendation of this paper is, therefore, that the "bell-curve" system of grade allocation be dropped forthwith. If professors and teachers are successful in motivating their students to achieve excellence, then these students deserve appropriate grades, just as the student who shows sudden improvement must not punish the others by his/her success.

V. SELF/PEER-ASSESSMENT

1. Introduction

Returning to the promotion of oral skills in a student-centered setting, with authentic assessment integrated into the curriculum, we find that self- and peer-assessment are forms of CRT-based assessment which have proved practical and effective. The majority of the research in this area has been performed on self-assessment, though the findings also apply to peer-assessment, which is justified largely by the same arguments (Tudor, 1996, p. 182).

2. Justifications

Based on work carried out since the late 1970s, various authors and researchers agree on self-assessment as a vital part of learner autonomy (Henner-Stanchina & Holec, 1985, p. 98; Dickinson, 1987, p. 16; Blanche, 1988, p. 75; Harris, 1997, p. 12), providing the opportunity for learners to assess their own progress and thus helping them to focus on their own learning. Hunt, Gow

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and Barnes (1989) even claim that without learner self-evaluation and self-assessment "there can be no real autonomy" (Hunt et. al., 1989, p. 207). Rea (1981) sees self-appraisal as helping the learner become aware of his/her responsibilities in planning, executing and monitoring his/her language learning activities, and Oscarsson (1978), while agreeing on this formative prime aim, adds a more summative secondary aim of enabling the learner "to assess his total achievement at the end of a course or course unit". Dickinson points out that this does not necessarily devalue or conflict with external evaluation, which still has relevance for supplying official certification of learning (Dickinson, 1987, p. 136). Rather, as Dickinson and Carver observe:

A language course can only deal with a small fraction of the foreign language therefore one objective of language courses should be to teach learners how to carry on learning the language independently. Part of the training learners need for this purpose is training in self-assessment and self-monitoring. (Dickinson & Carver, 1980, p. 7)

The favourable correlation of self-rating scores and external test scores in research findings mostly support the use of self-assessment in second language learning, and Oscarsson's "rationale of self-assessment procedures in language learning" (1989, p. 3) serves as a framework for the various justifications for self-assessment that have been proposed: i) promotion of learning; ii) raised level of awareness; iii) improved goal orientation; iv) expansion of range of assessment; v) shared assessment burden; and vi) beneficial postcourse effects.

Harris sees self-assessment as appropriate in test-driven secondary and tertiary education, claiming that self-assessment can help learners in such environments to become more active, to locate their own strengths and weaknesses, and to realize that they have the ultimate responsibility for learning. By encouraging individual reflection, "self-assessment can begin to make students see their learning in personal terms [and] can help learners get better marks." (Harris, 1997, p. 13). Peer assessment is especially applicable to the classroom setting, aiming to encourage students to take increased responsibility for their own curricula and to become active participants in the learning process (Hill, 1994, p. 214; Miller & Ng, 1996, p. 134). Tudor adds that critical reflection on the abilities of other learners with respect to a shared goal is a practical form of learner training which helps individuals to assess their own performance, and which reduces the stress of error correction through identifying them in others (Tudor, 1996, p. 182). Thus, Assinder (1991, pp. 218-28) reports increased motivation, participation, real communication, in-depth understanding, commitment, confidence, meaningful practice and accuracy, when students prepare and deliver learning tasks for each other.

Haughton & Dickinson (1989) (cited in Miller & Ng, 1996, p. 135) set out to test nine hypotheses about peer assessment in their study of a collaborative post-writing assessment. Five of these hypotheses (items 1 to 5, below) dealt with the practicality of peer assessment, and four (6 to 9) with the benefits of the scheme:

1. Students are sincere and do not use the scheme as a means of obtaining higher grades than they themselves think they deserve.
2. Students are or become able to assess themselves at about the same level as their tutors, i.e. they can interpret the criteria in the same way.
3. Students are or become able to negotiate with tutors on the appropriate level of criteria.
4. Students are or become able to negotiate grades in a meaningful and satisfying manner.
5. The scheme does not result in a lowering of standards on the course.

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6. Students perceive collaborative assessment as fairer than other (traditional) forms of assessment.
7. Students benefit in enhanced understanding of and attitude towards assessment.
8. Students become more self-directed as a result.
9. The scheme demands more thoroughly worked out criteria of assessment and hence results in fairer assessment.

This study showed "a relatively high level of agreement between the peer assessments and the marks given by the lecturers" (Miller & Ng, 1996, p. 139). Similar reliability of results was reported by Bachman and Palmer (1982) with the self-rating of communicative language ability of ESL learners (aged 17-67) in the USA . Fok (1981), looking at a group of university students in Hong Kong, also found a high degree of similarity between the students' self-assessment and past academic records for Reading and Speaking. Haughton and Dickinson (1989) claim that to a large extent the scheme worked and that the students were able to assess their own work realistically. Miller & Ng (1996, p. 141), commenting on the scheme, considered that: i) the students were sincere; ii) they demonstrated a similar level of assessment to that of the lecturers; iii) the scheme did not result in a lowering of standards; and iv) the students benefited in their understanding of and attitude towards assessment by taking part in the study:

Language students are able to make a realistic assessment of each others' oral language ability. (Miller & Ng, 1996, p. 142)

3. Implications and issues

Self- and peer-assessment are thus practical and effective assessment methods in tertiary language classes, addressing educational goals espoused in the 7th National Curriculum (■ 2001). In handing over a large part of the assessment burden and responsibility to the learners, these forms of authentic assessment offer opportunities for affective (and cognitive) growth and development of social awareness - opportunities that can be monitored by the teacher, and used in conjunction with the students for reflection on issues as they arise.

Such issues (e.g. plagiarism, peer-pressure, and unrealistic expectations) have been cited as disadvantages of self-assessment. However, they have all received adequate responses ("•", below) in research literature:

1. Doubts on the reliability and feasibility of learners assessing their own self-directed learning and carrying out individual needs analysis (Dickinson, 1987, p. 150).
 - There is evidence that learners can make satisfactorily accurate self-assessments (Blanche, 1988, p. 85; Blue, 1988, p. 100) and that there is a fairly consistent overall agreement between self-assessment and external criteria (Dickinson 1987, p. 150).
2. Doubts about the sincerity of the learners (Dickinson 1987, pp. 150-151).
 - One reason put forward by teachers for not sharing responsibility for assessment is that students will "cheat" and produce unrealistic scores. Dickinson (1987), however, points out that "cheating" (a process in which a learner seeks to obtain personal advantage by unfair means [Dickinson, 1987, p. 150]), is not about learning but about demonstrating the results of learning to someone else, usually in situations which value scores and rank over actual

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- learning: "Where the learner is concerned with real learning objectives, and where self-assessment is mainly used, cheating offers no advantages" (Dickinson, 1987, p. 151).
3. Doubts regarding the reliability of self-assessment in formal education (Blue, 1988, p. 100; Janssen-van Dieten, 1989, p. 31; Pierce, Swain & Hart, 1993, p. 38).
 - Research on peer assessment (cf. Miller & Ng, 1996) has shown that peer- self-assessment has an important place in formal education, and that it focuses attention on communicative competence levels in the classroom (Blanche, 1988, p. 85).
 4. Reluctance of teachers to lose control of assessment (Blue, 1988, p. 100).
 - Teachers need to be aware of the rationale behind self-assessment as well as the means of promoting it: "Relevant training of teachers may actually constitute a prerequisite for the effective realization of student-centred evaluation techniques" (Oscarsson, 1989, p. 11).
 5. The need for learners to receive training and practice in assessing their own performances (Nunan, 1996, p. 22).
 - Learner training for self-assessment can help learners successfully identify their needs. This not only enhances learning, but also frees the teacher to concentrate on developing learning materials and giving help in other parts of the learning process (Blue, 1988, p. 101).
 6. Conflict of the need for students to be in control of aspects of evaluation, and demands of external imperatives (Dickinson, 1978). The question of whether self-assessment is both formative and summative, or whether it should only be seen as a process-oriented, integrative, and ongoing (formative) activity (Oscarsson, 1997).
 - Self-assessment for formative self-monitoring is "both possible and desirable" (Dickinson, 1987, p. 151). It is also feasible for placement testing, diagnostic testing, and self-evaluation of "total achievement at the end of a course or course unit" (Oscarsson, 1978, p. 3).

VI. CONCLUSION

In the shift from transmission of knowledge to transformation of knowledge and to integration of knowledge with existing personal constructs and meanings (Kohonen, 1999, p. 280), evaluation is taking on new affective goals in which the personal growth of the learner is becoming increasingly important (Ranson, 1994, p. 116). Thus it is no longer defensible to use discrete-item testing of dubious constructs or to sample performance as a means of inferring underlying competence or abilities, if assessment is really concerned with providing information on learning.

Self- and peer-assessment offer ways of addressing this situation by encouraging the student to become part of the whole process of language learning, and to be aware of his/her progress. Of particular significance for students in Korea, Harris (1997, p. 19) sees self-assessment as a practical tool that should be integrated into everyday classroom activities, and Blanche suggests that it "would be particularly helpful in the case of false beginners" (Blanche, 1988, p. 85).

It would be possible to close at this point, concluding that authentic assessment in a CRT context is both feasible and desirable for the tertiary language classroom in Korea, promoting as it does the qualities of "the educated person" as defined by the 7th National Curriculum, and also fostering cognitive and affective development in the students. However, it is important to take a step further, and to recognize the importance of the promotion of social awareness, which is also a feature of authentic assessment. Even a very brief survey of quotations made by educators and others on this topic shows a consensus that the role of education goes beyond the preparation of an individual for a

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prospective career (the following quotations, apart from the one by Rogers, are from "The quotations page": <http://www.quotationspage.com/>):

Education is not merely a means for earning a living or an instrument for the acquisition of wealth. It is an initiation into life of spirit, a training of the human soul in the pursuit of truth and the practice of virtue. (Vijaya Lakshmi Pandit)

Education is not the filling of a pail, but the lighting of a fire. (W. B. Yeats)

The object of education is to prepare the young to educate themselves throughout their lives. (R. M. Hutchins)

The aim of education should be to teach us rather how to think, than what to think - rather to improve our minds, so as to enable us to think for ourselves, than to load the memory with thoughts of other men. (Bill Beattie)

The only person who is educated is the one who has learned how to learn and how to change (Rogers, 1969, p. 120)

Putting such quotations into context, it can be claimed that the immediate goal of mass education when it began (in Korea and elsewhere) was the need for a society of knowledgeable citizens who could contribute to the economic growth of an emerging nation, and that intense intellectualization of learning was therefore necessary and excusable. Since that time, however, industrialism and consumerism have shown destructive potential, and education is currently seen by many educators not simply as a means of improving society, but of preventing its collapse:

Human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe. (H. G. Wells: <http://www.quotationspage.com/>)

Thus Harri-Augstein and Thomas (1991, p. 7) call for attention to "our capacity for learning " to "provide us with the resource to negotiate change, to prevent man-made catastrophes, to achieve success and to attain new standards of excellence and quality in our various human endeavors." In such a light, a call for the use of authentic assessment in CRT contexts is also a call for the fostering of social responsibility in the language classroom. It has never been justifiable to state that "I am just a language teacher. I teach language", but such an attitude is even more indefensible in a contemporary society crying out for creative, problem-solving, critical-thinking citizens. The 7th National Curriculum highlights the qualities that must be promoted in students in every educational establishment, and in every classroom. Authentic assessment, self- and peer-assessment are practical means towards this goal, and can be adopted by teachers at the local level, while waiting for them to be adopted globally by educational policy makers. Promotion of **종의인간** in the language classroom requires program designers to incorporate authentic oral testing into their programs, and university administrators to drop the "bell-curve" requirement for class grades, trusting professors and teachers to assess students according to their professional judgement and expertise.

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Applicable levels: secondary, tertiary, adult

Key words: alternative assessment, authentic assessment, communicative language testing, curriculum, criterion-referenced testing

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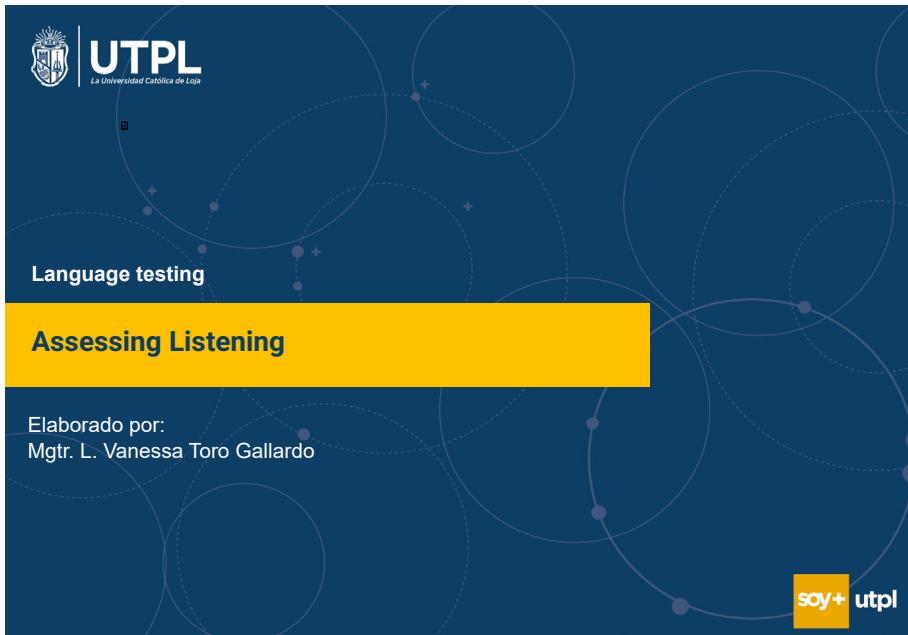
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8. Assessing Listening



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Assessing Listening

In assessing language, a "two-way street" between the teacher/tester is always implied: A set of questions is produced by the teacher and comprehended by the test-taker. Such integration is of course authentic in its simulation of real-world communication.



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Assessing Listening

Assessing grammar and vocabulary

- Tests of grammar and vocabulary invoke one or more of the separate skills of listening, speaking, reading, or writing.



Assessing Listening

Table 7.1. Observable performance of the four skills

Can the teacher <i>directly observe</i> ...		
	the process?	the product?
Listening	No	No
Speaking	Yes	No*
Reading	No	No
Writing	Yes	Yes

*Except in the case of an audio or video recording that preserves the output

Assessing Listening

Basic Types of Listening	Characteristics
Intensive	In intensive listening, tasks look for performance such as minimal phonetic pair recognition and extensive comprehension of language in communicative context.
Responsive	In responsive listening, lower-end listening tasks are used through a question and answer format.
Selective	In selective listening, a limited quantity of aural input is used and the test-takers discern some specific information.
Extensive	In extensive listening, we move from smaller to larger stretches of language.

Assessing Listening

Intensive

Recognizing Phonological and Morphological Elements (L, R)

1. Phonemic pair, consonants
2. Phonemic pair, vowel
3. Morphological pair, -ed ending
4. Stress pattern in can't
5. One-word stimulus

Paraphrase recognition (L, R)

1. Sentence paraphrase
2. Dialogue paraphrase



Assessing Listening

Responsive

Appropriate response to a question (L, R)
Open-ended response to a question (L, S, W)



Assessing Listening

Selective

Listening cloze (L, R, W)
Information Transfer:
1. Multiple-picture-cued selection (L)
2. Single-picture-cued verbal multiple-choice (L, R)
3. Chart-filling (L, R, W)

Sentence Repetition (L, S)



Extensive

Assessing Listening

Dictation (L, W)
Communicative Stimulus-Response Tasks:

1. Dialogue and multiple-choice comprehension items (L, R)
 2. Dialogue and authentic questions on details (L, R)
- Authentic Listening Tasks:**

1. Note-taking (L, W):
2. Editing
3. Interpretive tasks
4. Retelling



Assessing Listening

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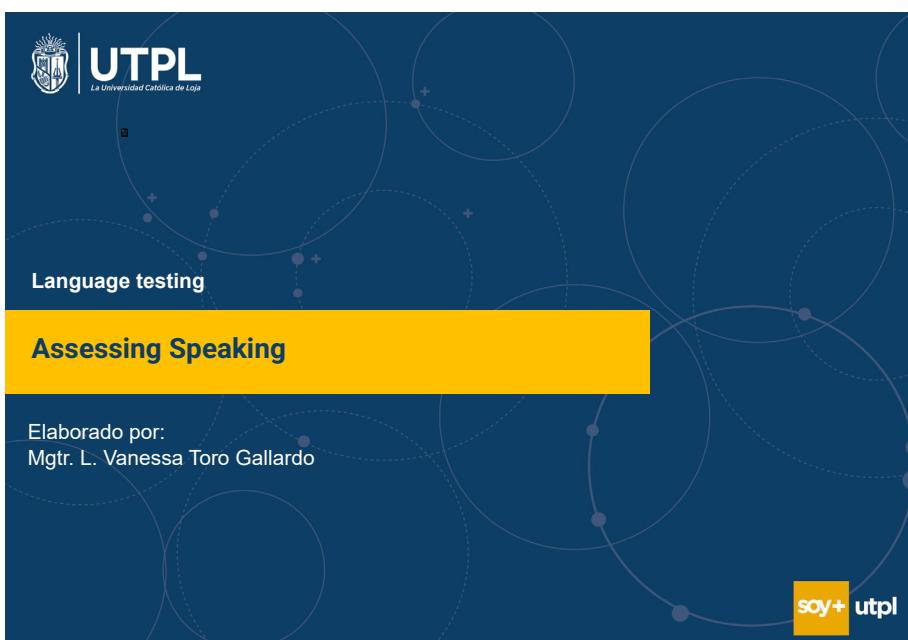
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The slide features a dark blue background with a faint circular watermark pattern. In the top left corner is the UTPL logo with the text "UTPL La Universidad Católica de Loja". A yellow horizontal bar across the middle contains the text "Assessing Speaking". Below this bar, the text "Elaborado por: Mgtr. L. Vanessa Toro Gallardo" is displayed. In the bottom right corner is a small yellow square containing the text "soy+ utpl".



Assessing Speaking

Characteristics of open-ended tasks	Solution
The challenge is greater in scoring due to the freedom of choice given to the test-takers.	Assign several scores for each response, with each score representing one of several traits (pronunciation, fluency, vocabulary use, grammar, comprehensibility, etc.)



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Assessing Speaking

Basic types of speaking	Characteristics
Imitative	Pronunciation is the main focus
Intensive	The speaker must be aware of semantic properties to be able to respond. Interaction with an interlocutor is minimal.
Responsive	Interaction and test comprehension at limited level of short conversations, standard greetings, and small talk, simple request, and comments.
Interactive	Interaction is long and complex.

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Assessing Speaking

Imitative	- Word and sentence repetition tasks Imitative speaking tasks range from word level to sentence level, usually with each item focusing on a specific phonological criterion. In a simple repetition task, test-takers repeat the stimulus, whether it is a pair of words, a sentence, or perhaps a question (to test for intonation production).
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Assessing Speaking

Intensive speaking tasks	Characteristics
Directed Response Tasks	A particular grammatical form or a transformation of a sentence are elicited.
Read-Aloud Tasks	Test-takers read beyond the sentence level up to a paragraph or two.
Sentence/Dialogue Completion Tasks and Oral Questionnaire	Test-takers read a dialogue and are given time to fill in the lines.
Picture-Cued Tasks	Test-takers are given with a picture-cued stimulus for them to describe the picture.
Translation	Native-language words, phrases, or sentences are asked to be translated by test-takers.

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Assessing Speaking

Responsive speaking tasks	Characteristics
Question and answer	Can consist of one or two questions from an interviewer. Also, a portion of questions and prompts in an oral interview can be made up.
Giving instructions and directions	Test-takers are engaged in extended stretches of discourse, to be clear and specific, and to use appropriate discourse markers and connectors.
Paraphrasing	Test-takers read or hear a short story or description with a limited number of sentences (two to five) and produce a paraphrase of the story.

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Assessing Speaking

Interactive speaking tasks	Characteristics
Interview	A test administrator and a test-taker sit down in a direct face to face exchange a proceed through a protocol of questions and directives.
Role play	Have the effect of lowering anxiety as students can take on the persona of someone other than themselves. Test-taker pretends to be a tourist asking for directions.
Discussions and conversations	Offer authenticity and spontaneity.
Games	Are informal assessments, their nature is formative and offer washback for the students.

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Assessing Speaking

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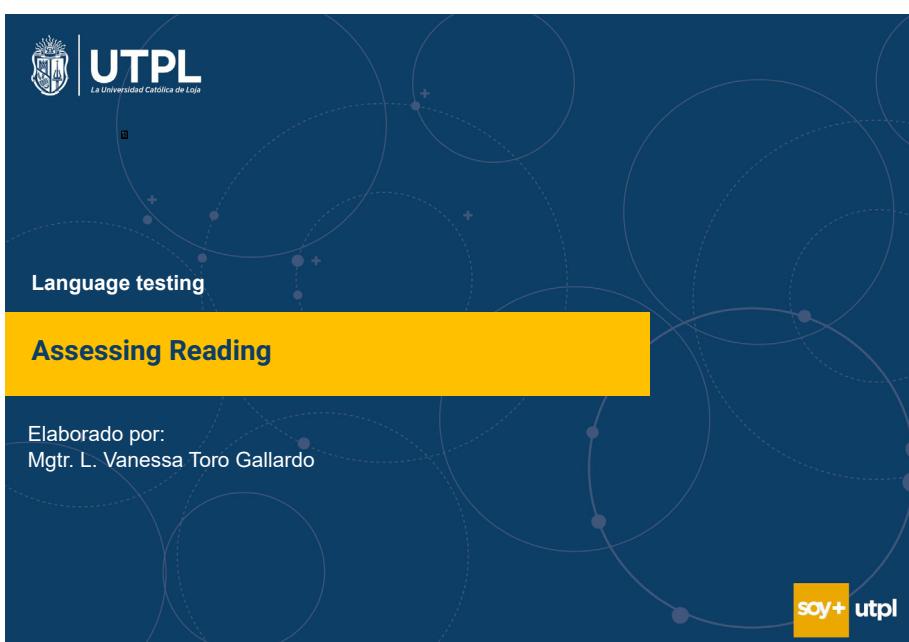
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Assessing Reading

Basic Types of Reading	Characteristics
Perceptive	Involve attending to letters, words, punctuation, etc. Bottom-up processing is implied.
Selective	Stimuli include sentences, brief paragraphs, and simple charts and graphs. Brief responses are intended as well. Bottom-up and top-down processing may be used.
Interactive	Descriptions, excerpts from longer texts, directions, recipes, etc. are used in interactive reading. The focus of interactive tasks is to identify relevant features (lexical, symbolic, grammatical, and discourse)
Extensive	The purpose is to tap into a learner's global understanding of a text.



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Assessing Reading

Perceptive

Recognition of alphabetic symbols, capitalized and lowercase letters, punctuation, and grapheme-phoneme correspondence is implied in perceptive reading tasks.

Examples:

- Read aloud
- Picture-cued tasks
- Multiple-choice
- Written responses



Assessing Reading

Types of perceptive reading tasks

Characteristics

Reading aloud Test-takers see and read separate letters, words, and short sentences.

Written response To assess reading a writing response is required.

Multiple-choice Same/different, circle the answer, true/false, choose the letter, and matching are some of the formats used to assess reading.

Picture-cued items A picture is shown to the test-taker along with a written text.



Assessing Reading

Selective

Selective reading tasks involve the test-taker in formal aspects of language (lexical, grammatical, and a few discourse features)



Assessing Reading

Types of selective reading tasks

Characteristics

Multiple-choice	They serve as vocabulary and grammar check.
Matching tasks	The test-taker task is to respond correctly. The most frequently appearing criterion in matching procedures is vocabulary.
Editing tasks	Editing for grammatical or rhetorical errors. Test-takers discern errors in written passages.
Picture-cued tasks	Test-takers read a sentence or passage and choose one of the pictures that is being described.
Gap-filling tasks	The test-taker response is to write a word or phrase.



Assessing Reading

Types of Interactive Reading tasks

Information transfer

Cloze tasks

IR + comprehension questions

Ordering tasks

Scanning

Short-answer tasks

Editing (longer texts)



Assessing Reading

Types of Extensive Reading tasks

Notetaking and outlining

Skimming tasks

Summarizing and responding

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Assessing Reading

References

Brown, D. & Abeywickrama, P. (2019). Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices. (3rd. Ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education, Inc.



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Assessing Reading

Thank you



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12. Assessing Writing



Assessing Writing

Types of imitative writing tasks

Writing letters,
words, and
punctuation

Spelling tasks,
phoneme-grapheme
correspondence

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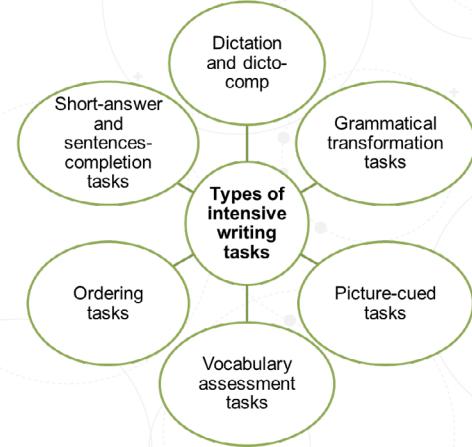


Assessing Writing

Type of writing	Type of task	Characteristics
Imitative	Writing letters, words, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">CopyingListening cloze selection tasksPicture-cued tasksForm completion tasksConverting numbers and abbreviations to words
	Spelling tasks, phoneme-grapheme correspondence	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Spelling testsPicture-cued tasksMultiple-choice techniquesMatching phonetic symbols



Assessing Writing



Students produce language to display their competence in grammar, vocabulary, or sentence formation.

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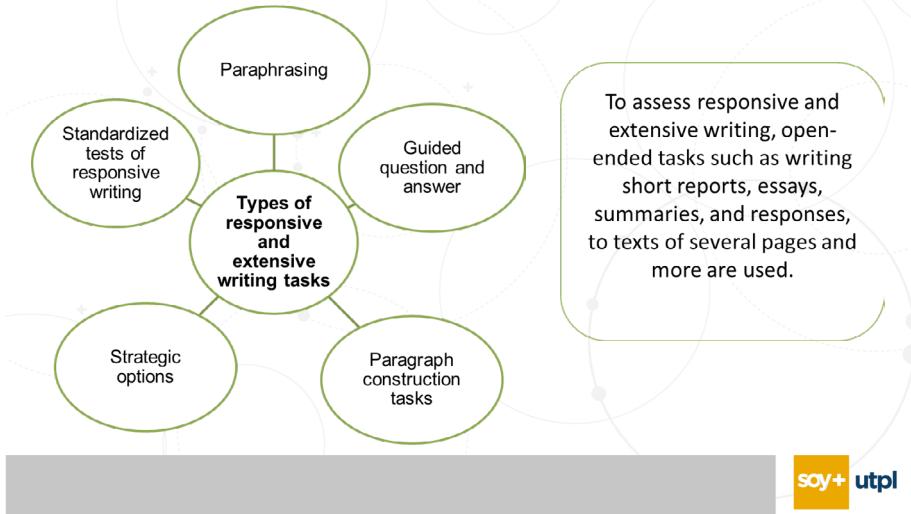
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Assessing Writing



Assessing Writing

References

- Brown, D. & Abeywickrama, P. (2019). Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices. (3rd. Ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education, Inc.



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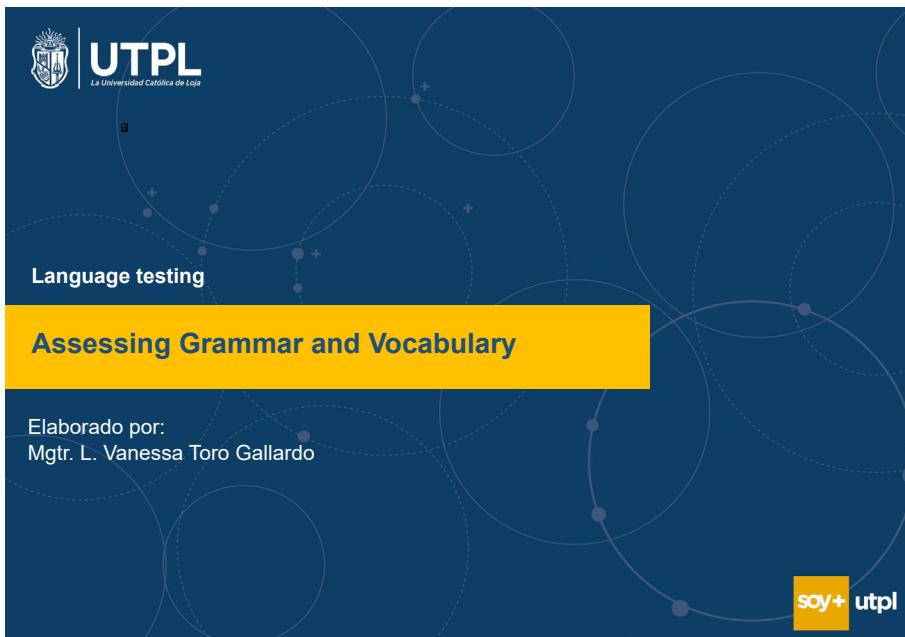
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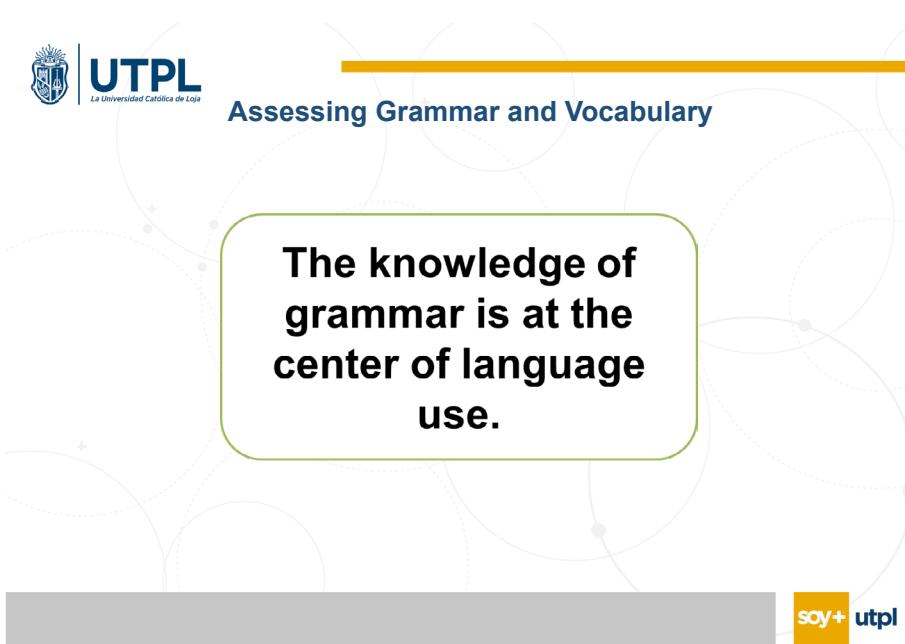
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13. Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary



The slide features a dark blue background with a light blue circular pattern. In the top left corner is the UTPL logo and the text "UTPL La Universidad Católica de Loja". A yellow horizontal bar across the middle contains the title "Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary". Below this bar, the text "Language testing" is visible. In the bottom left corner, it says "Elaborado por: Mgtr. L. Vanessa Toro Gallardo". In the bottom right corner is a yellow square containing the text "soy+ utpl".



The slide has a white background with a light blue circular pattern. At the top left is the UTPL logo and the text "UTPL La Universidad Católica de Loja". Below the logo is a yellow horizontal bar containing the title "Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary". In the center of the slide is a green-bordered box containing the text "The knowledge of grammar is at the center of language use." In the bottom right corner is a yellow square containing the text "soy+ utpl".

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Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

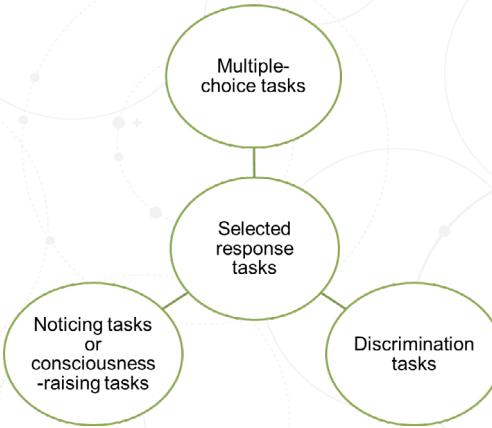
**Attention to teaching
grammar is necessary
because grammatical
competence is integral
to language use**

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Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary



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Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Types of tasks	Characteristics
Selected response	The test-taker is expected to select the correct response, which is meant to measure the knowledge of grammatical form and/or meaning.
Limited production	The test-taker's response represents only a limited amount of language production. This response can vary from a single word to a sentence depending on the grammatical ability or construct that is defined.
Extended production	The purpose of extended production is to obtain larger amounts of language from the test-taker and to allow for more creative construction; these tasks are likely to elicit instances of authentic language use.



Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Selected response tasks	Characteristics
Multiple-choice tasks	The most common selected response task presents a blank or underlined word/words in a sentence and the test-taker must choose the correct response from options that are given
Discrimination tasks	Discrimination items are used to measure the difference between two similar areas of grammatical knowledge such as true/false, right/wrong, same/different, etc.
Noticing tasks or Consciousness-raising tasks	By attending consciously to form and/or meaning, learners become aware of the existence of specific language features in English.



Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Limited Production Tasks

Responses to limited production tasks can vary from a single word to a sentence depending on the grammatical ability or construct that is defined.

Scoring can be:

Dichotomous scoring	Partial credit scoring
There is one criterion for correctness (form or meaning), and test-takers get it right or wrong.	Multiple criteria for correctness can be used (form or meaning) and allows for adding up the scores for the item in terms of full (2), partial (1), or no credit (0).



Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Gap-filling tasks

Limited production tasks

Dialogue-completion tasks

Short-answer tasks

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Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Limited production tasks	Characteristics
Gap-filling tasks	A number of words are deleted in a sentence, dialogue, or passage to test one or more areas of grammatical knowledge, such as vocabulary knowledge or grammatical ability.
Short-answer tasks	The stimulus is presented in the form of a question or questions following a reading passage or oral/visual stimulus. The response can vary from a single word to a sentence or two.
Dialogue-completion tasks	A short conversation or dialogue is presented in which a part of the exchange or the entire exchange is left blank and the expected response is meant to be grammatically correct.



Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Extended Production Tasks

The purpose of extended production is to obtain larger amounts of language from the test-taker and to allow for more creative construction; therefore these tasks are likely to elicit instances of authentic language use.

Because the responses of test-takers are usually open-ended with a number of possible correct options, rating scales are used to score these tasks.



Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Extended production tasks

Information gap tasks

Role-play or simulation tasks

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Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Function words

- Words that have little or no meaningful content.
- Belong to the grammar of the language more than vocabulary.
- Join sentences and make them coherent.
- Prepositions, articles, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, etc

Example

The boy does not like his city.

Content words

- Provide a primary lexical meaning.
- Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs.

Example:

The child went to the park.

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Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Steps to create tasks for assessing vocabulary

1. Clarify your purpose
2. Define your construct
3. Select your target words
4. Determine mode of performance



Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Receptive vocabulary

Vocabulary in one-sentence context: high-frequency word

Vocabulary in one-sentence context: low-frequency word

Vocabulary matching exercise

Words association

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Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

Productive vocabulary

Fill in the blanks

Selective deletion cloze

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- Brown, D. & Abeywickrama, P. (2019). Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices. (3rd. Ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education, Inc.

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Assessing Grammar and Vocabulary

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14. Language Assessment Task for assessing listening

Test takers	
Age group	
Level of language ability	
Language	
Language use activity	
Intended uses	

Setting:

Assessment use argument

Claim 1: Intended consequences

Intended consequences	Intended stakeholders

Claim 2: Intended decisions

Decision(s) to be made	Individual(s) who will make the decision(s)	When the decision(s) will be made	Stakeholders who will (or might be) affected by the decisions

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Caim 3: Intended interpretations

Claim 4: Assessment records

Assessment task development

Step 1 TLU task selected for development of assessment task

11. Short descriptive label for TLU task:
12. Areas of language ability the TLU task engage:

Step 2 Description of the TLU task:

1. Activities and procedures to be followed:
2. Task characteristics of TLU task:

Task characteristics	
Setting	Physical circumstances: Participants: Time of the task:
Input	Form: Language: Topical content:
Expected response	Form: Language: Topical content

3. Listening TLU task:

(write the instruction of the task here)

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15. Language Assessment Task for assessing speaking

Test takers	
Age group	
Level of language ability	
Language	
Language use activity	
Intended uses	

Setting:

Assessment use argument

Claim 1: Intended consequences

Intended consequences	Intended stakeholders

Claim 2: Intended decisions

Decision(s) to be made	Individual(s) who will make the decision(s)	When the decision(s) will be made	Stakeholders who will (or might be) affected by the decisions

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Caim 3: Intended interpretations

Claim 4: Assessment records

Assessment task development

Step 1 TLU task selected for development of assessment task

1. Short descriptive label for TLU task:
2. Areas of language ability the TLU task engage:

Step 2 Description of the TLU task:

1. Activities and procedures to be followed:
2. Task characteristics of TLU task:

Task characteristics	
Setting	Physical circumstances:
	Participants:
	Time of the task:

Task characteristics	
Input	Form: Language: Topical content:
Expected response	Form: Language: Topical content

3. Speaking TLU task:

(write the instruction of the task here)

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Developing Grading Rubrics

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Developing Grading Rubrics

What is a rubric?

- A systematic scoring guideline to evaluate students' performance (papers, speeches, problem solutions, portfolios, cases) through the use of a detailed description of performance standards.
- Used to get consistent scores across all students.
- Allows students to be more aware of the expectations for performance and consequently improve their performance.

What questions do rubrics answer?

- By what criteria should performance be judged?
- Where should you look and what should you look for to judge successful performance?
- What does the range in quality performance look like?
- How do you determine validly, reliably, and fairly what score should be given to a student and what that score means?
- How should the different levels of quality be described and distinguished from one another?

What are the essential parts of a rubric?

- A *scale* of points to be assigned in scoring a piece of work on a continuum of quality. High numbers are typically assigned to the best work.
- Descriptors* for each level of performance that contain criteria and standards by which the performance will be judged
 - Indicators are often used in descriptors to provide examples or signs of performance in each level
- Criteria* that describe the conditions that any performance must meet to be successful
 - Five categories to consider:
 - Impact
 - Craftsmanship
 - Methods
 - Content
 - Sophistication of the performance
 - Should describe both strengths and errors (errors should be described particularly in lower levels of performance)
- Standards* that specify how well criteria must be met
- Example:
 - Task: Solve calculus problem
 - Scale: 1 to 3
 - Criteria: Solve the problem with clear and appropriate logic (method) and substantiation (content)
 - "Clear and appropriate logic" indicators: provides an explanation, includes a diagram, identified elements of the problem
 - Standard for "Clear and appropriate logic" score of "3": Gives a complete response with clear, coherent, unambiguous and elegant explanation; includes a clear and simplified diagram; identified all the important elements of the problem

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Types of rubrics

- Rubrics can be holistic or analytic, general or task specific
- Holistic vs. analytic
 - Holistic rubrics provide a single score based on an overall impression of a student's performance on a task.
 - Advantages: quick scoring, provides overview of student achievement.
 - Disadvantages: does not provide detailed information, may be difficult to provide one overall score.
 - Analytic rubrics provide specific feedback along several dimensions.
 - Advantages: more detailed feedback, scoring more consistent across students and graders.
 - Disadvantage: time consuming to score.
- General vs. task specific
 - General rubrics contain criteria that are general across tasks.
 - Advantage: can use the same rubric across different tasks.
 - Disadvantage: feedback may not be specific enough.
 - Task specific rubrics are unique to a specific task.
 - Advantage: more reliable assessment of performance on the task.
 - Disadvantage: difficult to construct rubrics for all specific tasks

What type of rubric works best for your purposes?

- Use a holistic rubric when:
 - You want a quick snapshot of achievement.
 - A single dimension is adequate to define quality.
- Use an analytic rubric when:
 - You want to see relative strengths and weaknesses.
 - You want detailed feedback.
 - You want to assess complicated skills or performance.
 - You want students to self-assess their understanding or performance.
- Use a general rubric when:
 - You want to assess reasoning, skills and products.
 - All students are not doing exactly the same task.
- Use a task specific rubric when:
 - You want to assess knowledge.
 - When consistency of scoring is extremely important.

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Development of a rubric

- Steps in the development process:
 1. Clearly define the assignment including the topic, the process that the students will work through and the product they are expected to produce.
 2. Determine the key components that you interested in (e.g. For a writing assignment: coherence, content, and organization).
 3. Decide on what type of rubric to use (holistic/general, holistic/task specific, analytic/general, analytic/task specific).
 - The type of rubric you develop will depend on the type of assignment and what you are interested in evaluating.
 4. Clearly define those key components (e.g., what do you mean by coherence? What does coherent writing look like?).
 5. Establish clear and detailed standards for performance for each component
 - Determine what the different levels of performance look like within each category of assessment.
 - Think of the lowest, middle-range, and highest level of performance.
 - Try to avoid relying on comparative language when distinguishing among performance levels. For example, don't define the highest level of performance as thorough and accurate and the middle level of performance as less thorough and less accurate. Find qualities and descriptors that are unique to each performance standard.
 6. Develop a scoring scale
 - Determine how many score levels you want to use based on the performance standards you set in step five.
 - Clearly define the difference between the score levels.
 - The scoring scale should be consistent across all key components when using an analytic rubric (e.g. a score of 4 for one area is comparable to a score of 4 in another area).

How can I involve students in rubric development?

- After clearly defining the assignment for the students, they can follow the guidelines outlined above to create a rubric.
- Depending on your preference you may or may not want to provide the students with the key components of the assignment and the type of rubric to create.
- Students can either work in teams or as a whole class.
- If students work in teams, you may want to let the students use team-based rubrics or have a class discussion about the team rubrics to reach consensus on one rubric for all students in the class.
- To ease in the development process, provide students with examples of rubrics, a rubric template and previous examples of student work if available.
- As an alternative to having students create a rubric, ask them to give feedback on or to add more detail to existing rubrics.

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How do rubrics enhance student learning?

- When students are made aware of the rubrics prior to instruction and assessment, they know the level of performance expected and they are more motivated to reach those standards.
- When students are involved in rubric construction, the assignment itself becomes more meaningful to the students.

Using rubrics for assessment

- If you are providing a rubric, share it with students before they complete the assignment. This will help them understand the performance standards.
- Rubrics can provide both a grade (summative) and detailed feedback to improve future performance (formative).
- Use rubrics to promote student self-assessment of their own learning and performance.
- Avoid mandating process, format, method or approach.

Using multiple raters

- In order to use a scoring rubric to get meaningful and consistent results, the rater(s) should be trained in the proper use of the rubric.
- If different raters are used to rate the works, make every effort to ensure that the raters are as consistent as possible in their scoring.
- To promote consistency between raters, adequate training with discussion and examples should be provided.

References:

Arter, J. (2000). *Rubrics, scoring guides, and performance criteria: Classroom tools for assessing and improving student learning*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, 2000.

Nitko, A. J. (1996). *Educational assessment of students*, 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Taggart, G. L., Phifer, S. J., Nixon, J. A., & Wood, M. (Eds.) (n.d.). *Rubrics: Handbook for construction and use*. Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Co.

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Example General Analytic Writing Rubric

Evaluators should rank each piece of writing on the following criteria on a scale of 1 (lowest) to 3 (highest)

1. Introduction

- 1 = no or poor introduction.
- 2 = some introduction; nothing beyond a forecast.
- 3 = introduction grasps reader's attention (engages the reader) and forecasts major points.

2. Articulation of thesis

- 1 = no or poor articulation of thesis.
- 2 = some articulation of thesis
- 3 = clear articulation of thesis or argument.

3. Paragraph development

- 1 = poor paragraphs with no clear topic sentence; multiple topics; little or no development
- 2 = some structure and development of paragraphs and/or some with clear topic sentences or focus, but not consistently.
- 3 = paragraphs are consistently well developed, with a clear topic sentence and appropriate number of sentences that provide examples and develop points.

4. Use of examples

- 1 = little or no use of examples.
- 2 = some use of examples or evidence, but not consistent; no examples or evidence in places where they are needed
- 3 = frequent or consistent use of examples and evidence; example or evidence appears whenever the reader asks, "For instance?"

5. Conclusion

- 1 = no or poor conclusion or summary of argument
- 2 = some summary of points made, but nothing beyond summary; no broad conclusions/lessons
- 3 = a conclusion going beyond summary of what was written in the body of the essay.

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6. Transitions

- 1 = little or no transition between paragraphs; poor flow
- 2 = some transition or flow between paragraphs; partial structure to argument
- 3 = strong and/or consistent transition between points in essay; strong flow

7. Variation of sentences

- 1 = little or no variation of sentences; monotonous use of sentence type. (length/complexity).
- 2 = some variation of sentences. Sentences of varying length or type, but not varied effectively.
- 3 = effective variation of sentence length and type.

8. Coherence

- 1 = lack of coherence; i.e. mismatch between the thesis and the body; tangents
- 2 = occasional tangents; repetition
- 3 = every paragraph works to support the thesis; “linked” paragraphs

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Example General Holistic Oral Presentation Rubric

5 – Excellent	The student clearly describes the question studied and provides strong reasons for its importance. Specific information is given to support the conclusions that are drawn and described. The delivery is engaging and sentence structure is consistently correct. Eye contact is made and sustained throughout the presentation. There is strong evidence of preparation, organization, and enthusiasm for the topic. The visual aid is used to make the presentation more effective. Questions from the audience are clearly answered with specific and appropriate information.
4 – Very Good	The student describes the question studied and provides reasons for its importance. An adequate amount of information is given to support the conclusions that are drawn and described. The delivery and sentence structure are generally correct. There is evidence of preparation, organization and enthusiasm for the topic. The visual aid is mentioned and used. Questions from the audience are answered clearly.
3 – Good	The student describes the question studies and conclusions are stated, but supporting information is not as strong as a 4 or 5. The delivery and sentence structure are generally correct. There is some indication of preparation and organization. The visual aid is mentioned. Questions from the audience are answered.
2 – Limited	The student states the question studied but fails to describe it fully. No conclusions are given to answer the question. The delivery and sentence structure are understandable, but with some errors. Evidence of preparation and organization is lacking. The visual aid may or may not be mentioned. Questions from the audience are answered with only the most basic response.
1 – Poor	The student makes a presentation without stating the question or its importance. The topic is unclear and no adequate conclusions are stated. The delivery is difficult to follow. There is no indication of preparation or organization. Questions from the audience receive only the most basic or no response.
0	No oral presentation is attempted.

Reference:

Wiggins, G. (1998). *Educative assessment: Designing assessments to inform and improve student performance*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

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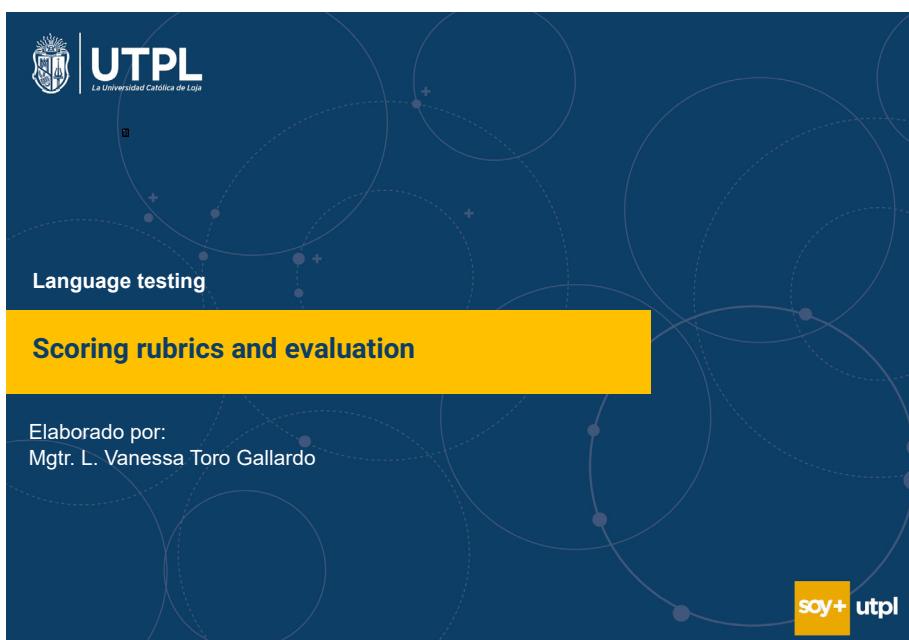
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Scoring rubrics and evaluation

The Philosophy of Grading: What should
grades reflect?

The importance of triangulation suggests us that all abilities of a student may not be apparent on **achievement tests** and **measured performances**. One of the arguments for considering **alternatives in assessment** is that we may not be able to capture the totally of **students' competence** through **formal tests**; other observations are also significant indicators of ability.



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Scoring rubrics and evaluation

Guidelines for Selecting Grading Criteria

1. Components of grading have to be consistent with an institutional philosophy and/or regulations.
2. All of the components of a final grade need to be explicitly stated in writing to students at the beginning of a term of study.
3. If your grading system includes improvement, behavior, effort, motivation, it is important for you to recognize their subjectivity. They can be observable and measurable results. Charts, checklists, and note-taking systems allow you to convey to the student the basis for your conclusions.
4. Allocate relatively small weights to oral participation in class and motivation so that a grade primarily reflects achievement

Scoring rubrics and evaluation

What do Letter Grades “Mean”?

Letter grades connote a **holistic score** that sums up a multitude of performances throughout a course.

In the case of writing or of oral production, it is necessary to:

- Use a carefully constructed system of grading
- Assign grades on the basis of explicitly stated criteria
- Base the criteria on objectives of a course or assessment procedure(s)



Scoring rubrics and evaluation

Alternatives to Letter Grading

1. Self-assessment

- Checklist
- A guided journal (reflection on the content and linguistic objectives)
- An essay that self-assesses
- A teacher-student conference

2. Narrative evaluations

- Narrative evaluation



Scoring rubrics and evaluation

Alternatives to Letter Grading

3. Checklist evaluation

Midterm evaluation checklist

4. Conferences

Scoring rubrics and evaluation

References

Brown, D. & Abeywickrama, P. (2019). Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices. (3rd. Ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education, Inc.

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Scoring rubrics and evaluation

Thank you



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