

# Appendix A

## Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English

### **Chapter 114. Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English**

#### **Subchapter A. Elementary**

- §114.1. Implementation of Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English, Elementary.....A-1
- §114.2. Languages Other Than English, Elementary.....A-1

#### **Subchapter B. Middle School**

- §114.11. Implementation of Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English, Middle School. ....B-1
- §114.12. Languages Other Than English, Middle School. ....B-1

#### **Subchapter C. High School**

- §114.21. Implementation of Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English, High School.....C-1
- §114.22. Levels I and II - Novice Progress Checkpoint (One Credit Per Level).....C-1
- §114.23. Levels III and IV - Intermediate Progress Checkpoint (One Credit Per Level). ....C-3
- §114.24. Levels V, VI and VII - Advanced Progress Checkpoint (One Credit Per Level). ....C-6
- §114.25. Exploratory Languages (One-Half to One Credit).....C-9
- §114.26. Cultural and Linguistic Topics (One-Half to One Credit). ....C-10

---

---

## **Chapter 114. Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English**

### **Subchapter A. Elementary**

*Statutory Authority: The provisions of this Subchapter A issued under the Texas Education Code, §28.002, unless otherwise noted.*

#### **§114.1. Implementation of Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English, Elementary.**

The provisions of this subchapter shall supersede §75.26 of this title (relating to Other Languages) beginning September 1, 1998.

*Source: The provisions of this §114.1 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

#### **§114.2. Languages Other Than English, Elementary.**

School districts are strongly encouraged to offer languages other than English in the elementary grades. For districts that offer languages in elementary, the essential knowledge and skills are those designated as Levels I and II - novice progress checkpoint, exploratory languages, and cultural and linguistic topics in Subchapter C of this chapter (relating to Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English).

*Source: The provisions of this §114.2 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

---

---

## Chapter 114. Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English

### Subchapter B. Middle School

*Statutory Authority: The provisions of this Subchapter B issued under the Texas Education Code, §28.002, unless otherwise noted.*

#### **§114.11. Implementation of Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English, Middle School.**

The provisions of this subchapter shall supersede §75.42 of this title (relating to Other Languages) beginning September 1, 1998.

*Source: The provisions of this §114.11 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

#### **§114.12. Languages Other Than English, Middle School.**

- (a) School districts are strongly encouraged to offer languages other than English in middle school. For districts that offer languages in middle school, the essential knowledge and skills are those designated as Levels I and II - novice progress checkpoint and Levels III and IV - intermediate progress checkpoint, exploratory languages, and cultural and linguistic topics in Subchapter C of this chapter (relating to Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English).
- (b) Students are awarded one unit of high school credit per level for successful completion of the level and one-half to one unit of high school credit for successful completion of a nonsequential course.
- (c) Districts may offer a level of a language in a variety of scheduling arrangements that may extend or reduce the traditional schedule when careful consideration is given to the instructional time available on a campus and the language ability, access to programs, and motivation of students.

*Source: The provisions of this §114.12 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

---

---

## Chapter 114. Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English

### Subchapter C. High School

*Statutory Authority: The provisions of this Subchapter C issued under the Texas Education Code, §28.002, unless otherwise noted.*

#### **§114.21. Implementation of Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Languages Other Than English, High School.**

The provisions of this subchapter shall supersede §75.62(a)-(g) and (k)-(o) of this title (relating to Other Languages) beginning September 1, 1998.

*Source: The provisions of this §114.21 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

#### **§114.22. Levels I and II - Novice Progress Checkpoint (One Credit Per Level).**

- (a) General requirements.
- (1) Levels I and II - Novice progress checkpoint can be offered in elementary, middle, or high school. At the high school level, students are awarded one unit of credit per level for successful completion of the level.
  - (2) Using age-appropriate activities, students develop the ability to perform the tasks of the novice language learner. The novice language learner, when dealing with familiar topics, should:
    - (A) understand short utterances when listening and respond orally with learned material;
    - (B) produce learned words, phrases, and sentences when speaking and writing;
    - (C) detect main ideas in familiar material when listening and reading;
    - (D) make lists, copy accurately, and write from dictation;
    - (E) recognize the importance in communication to know about the culture; and
    - (F) recognize the importance of acquiring accuracy of expression by knowing the components of language, including grammar.
  - (3) Students of classical languages use the skills of listening, speaking, and writing to reinforce the skill of reading.
- (b) Introduction.
- (1) Acquiring another language incorporates communication skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, viewing, and showing. Students develop these communication skills by using knowledge of the language, including grammar, and culture, communication and learning strategies, technology, and content from other subject areas to socialize, to acquire and provide information, to express feelings and opinions, and to get others to adopt a course of action. While knowledge of other cultures, connections to other disciplines, comparisons between languages and cultures, and community interaction all contribute to and enhance the communicative language learning experience, communication skills are the primary focus of language acquisition.

- 
- 
- (2) Students of languages other than English gain the knowledge to understand cultural practices (what people do) and products (what people create) and to increase their understanding of other cultures as well as to interact with members of those cultures. Through the learning of languages other than English, students obtain the tools and develop the context needed to connect with other subject areas and to use the language to acquire information and reinforce other areas of study. Students of languages other than English develop an understanding of the nature of language, including grammar, and culture and use this knowledge to compare languages and cultures and to expand insight into their own language and culture. Students enhance their personal and public lives and meet the career demands of the 21st century by using languages other than English to participate in communities in Texas, in other states, and around the world.

(c) Knowledge and skills.

- (1) **Communication.** The student communicates in a language other than English using the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

The student is expected to:

- (A) engage in oral and written exchanges of learned material to socialize and to provide and obtain information;
- (B) demonstrate understanding of simple, clearly spoken, and written language such as simple stories, high-frequency commands, and brief instructions when dealing with familiar topics; and
- (C) present information using familiar words, phrases, and sentences to listeners and readers.

- (2) **Cultures.** The student gains knowledge and understanding of other cultures.

The student is expected to:

- (A) demonstrate an understanding of the practices (what people do) and how they are related to the perspectives (how people perceive things) of the cultures studied; and
- (B) demonstrate an understanding of the products (what people create) and how they are related to the perspectives (how people perceive things) of the cultures studied.

- (3) **Connections.** The student uses the language to make connections with other subject areas and to acquire information.

The student is expected to:

- (A) use resources (that may include technology) in the language and cultures being studied to gain access to information; and
- (B) use the language to obtain, reinforce, or expand knowledge of other subject areas.

- 
- 
- (4) **Comparisons.** The student develops insight into the nature of language and culture by comparing the student's own language and culture to another.

The student is expected to:

- (A) demonstrate an understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the student's own language and the language studied;
- (B) demonstrate an understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the student's own culture and the cultures studied; and
- (C) demonstrate an understanding of the influence of one language and culture on another.

- (5) **Communities.** The student participates in communities at home and around the world by using languages other than English.

The student is expected to:

- (A) use the language both within and beyond the school setting through activities such as participating in cultural events and using technology to communicate; and
- (B) show evidence of becoming a lifelong learner by using the language for personal enrichment and career development.

*Source: The provisions of this §114.22 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

**§114.23. Levels III and IV - Intermediate Progress Checkpoint (One Credit Per Level).**

- (a) General requirements.

- (1) Levels III and IV - Intermediate progress checkpoint can be offered in middle or high school. At the high school level, students are awarded one unit of credit per level for successful completion of the level.
- (2) Using age-appropriate activities, students expand their ability to perform novice tasks and develop their ability to perform the tasks of the intermediate language learner. The intermediate language learner, when dealing with everyday topics, should:
  - (A) participate in simple face-to-face communication;
  - (B) create statements and questions to communicate independently when speaking and writing;
  - (C) understand main ideas and some details of material on familiar topics when listening and reading;
  - (D) understand simple statements and questions when listening and reading;
  - (E) meet limited practical and social writing needs;
  - (F) use knowledge of the culture in the development of communication skills;

- 
- 
- (G) use knowledge of the components of language, including grammar, to increase accuracy of expression; and
  - (H) cope successfully in straightforward social and survival situations.
- (3) In classical languages, the skills of listening, speaking, and writing are used in Level III to reinforce the skill of reading. Students of classical languages should reach intermediate proficiency in reading by the end of Level III.
- (b) Introduction.
- (1) Acquiring another language incorporates communication skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, viewing, and showing. Students develop these communication skills by using knowledge of the language, including grammar, and culture, communication and learning strategies, technology, and content from other subject areas to socialize, to acquire and provide information, to express feelings and opinions, and to get others to adopt a course of action. While knowledge of other cultures, connections to other disciplines, comparisons between languages and cultures, and community interaction all contribute to and enhance the communicative language learning experience, communication skills are the primary focus of language acquisition.
  - (2) Students of languages other than English gain the knowledge to understand cultural practices (what people do) and products (what people create) and to increase their understanding of other cultures as well as to interact with members of those cultures. Through the learning of languages other than English, students obtain the tools and develop the context needed to connect with other subject areas and to use the language to acquire information and reinforce other areas of study. Students of languages other than English develop an understanding of the nature of language, including grammar, and culture and use this knowledge to compare languages and cultures and to expand insight into their own language and culture. Students enhance their personal and public lives and meet the career demands of the 21st century by using languages other than English to participate in communities in Texas, in other states, and around the world.
- (c) Knowledge and skills.

- (1) **Communication.** The student communicates in a language other than English using the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

The student is expected to:

- (A) engage in oral and written exchanges to socialize, to provide and obtain information, to express preferences and feelings, and to satisfy basic needs;
- (B) interpret and demonstrate understanding of simple, straightforward, spoken and written language such as instructions, directions, announcements, reports, conversations, brief descriptions, and narrations; and
- (C) present information and convey short messages on everyday topics to listeners and readers.

---

(2) **Cultures.** The student gains knowledge and understanding of other cultures.

The student is expected to:

- (A) use the language at the intermediate proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the practices (what people do) and how they are related to the perspectives (how people perceive things) of the cultures studied; and
- (B) use the language at the intermediate proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the products (what people create) and how they are related to the perspectives (how people perceive things) of the cultures studied.

(3) **Connections.** The student uses the language to make connections with other subject areas and to acquire information.

The student is expected to:

- (A) use resources (that may include technology) in the language and cultures being studied at the intermediate proficiency level to gain access to information; and
- (B) use the language at the intermediate proficiency level to obtain, reinforce, or expand knowledge of other subject areas.

(4) **Comparisons.** The student develops insight into the nature of language and culture by comparing the student's own language and culture to another.

The student is expected to:

- (A) use the language at the intermediate proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the student's own language and the language studied;
- (B) use the language at the intermediate proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the student's own culture and the cultures studied; and
- (C) use the language at the intermediate proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the influence of one language and culture on another.

- 
- 
- (5) **Communities.** The student participates in communities at home and around the world by using languages other than English.

The student is expected to:

- (A) use the language at the intermediate proficiency level both within and beyond the school setting through activities such as participating in cultural events and using technology to communicate; and
- (B) show evidence of becoming a lifelong learner by using the language at the intermediate proficiency level for personal enrichment and career development.

*Source: The provisions of this §114.23 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

**§114.24. Levels V, VI and VII - Advanced Progress Checkpoint (One Credit Per Level).**

- (a) General requirements.

- (1) Levels V, VI, and VII - Advanced progress checkpoint can be offered in high school. At the high school level, students are awarded one unit of credit per level for successful completion of the level.
- (2) Using age-appropriate activities, students master novice tasks, expand their ability to perform intermediate tasks, and develop their ability to perform the tasks of the advanced language learner. The advanced language learner of modern languages, when dealing with events of the concrete world, should:
- (A) participate fully in casual conversations in culturally appropriate ways;
- (B) explain, narrate, and describe in past, present, and future time when speaking and writing;
- (C) understand main ideas and most details of material on a variety of topics when listening and reading;
- (D) write coherent paragraphs;
- (E) cope successfully in problematic social and survival situations;
- (F) achieve an acceptable level of accuracy of expression by using knowledge of language components, including grammar; and
- (G) apply knowledge of culture when communicating.
- (3) The advanced language learner of classical languages reads and comprehends authentic texts of prose and poetry of selected authors. The skills of listening, speaking, and writing are used to reinforce the skill of reading.
- (4) Students of classical languages may reach advanced proficiency in reading during Level IV. (A student who completes a College Board Advanced Placement course or the International Baccalaureate in Latin should reach advanced proficiency in reading during Level IV.)

---

---

(b) Introduction.

- (1) Acquiring another language incorporates communication skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, viewing, and showing. Students develop these communication skills by using knowledge of the language, including grammar, and culture, communication and learning strategies, technology, and content from other subject areas to socialize, to acquire and provide information, to express feelings and opinions, and to get others to adopt a course of action. While knowledge of other cultures, connections to other disciplines, comparisons between languages and cultures, and community interaction all contribute to and enhance the communicative language learning experience, communication skills are the primary focus of language acquisition.
- (2) Students of languages other than English gain the knowledge to understand cultural practices (what people do) and products (what people create) and to increase their understanding of other cultures as well as to interact with members of those cultures. Through the learning of languages other than English, students obtain the tools and develop the context needed to connect with other subject areas and to use the language to acquire information and reinforce other areas of study. Students of languages other than English develop an understanding of the nature of language, including grammar, and culture and use this knowledge to compare languages and cultures and to expand insight into their own language and culture. Students enhance their personal and public lives and meet the career demands of the 21st century by using languages other than English to participate in communities in Texas, in other states, and around the world.

(c) Knowledge and skills.

The student is expected to:

- (1) **Communication.** The student communicates in a language other than English using the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

- (A) engage in oral and written exchanges, including providing and obtaining information, expressing feelings and preferences, and exchanging ideas and opinions;
- (B) interpret and demonstrate understanding of spoken and written language, including literature, on a variety of topics; and
- (C) present information, concepts, and ideas on a variety of topics to listeners and readers.

- (2) **Cultures.** The student gains knowledge and understanding of other cultures.

The student is expected to:

- (A) use the language at the advanced proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the practices (what people do) and how they are related to the perspectives (how people perceive things) of the cultures studied; and

---

---

(3) **Connections.** The student uses the language to make connections with other subject areas and to acquire information.

(4) **Comparisons.** The student develops insight into the nature of language and culture by comparing the student's own language and culture to another.

(5) **Communities.** The student participates in communities at home and around the world by using languages other than English.

The student is expected to:

- (B) use the language at the advanced proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the products (what people create) and how they are related to the perspectives (how people perceive things) of the cultures studied.

The student is expected to:

- (A) use resources (that may include technology) in the language and cultures being studied at the advanced proficiency level to gain access to information; and
- (B) use the language at the advanced proficiency level to obtain, reinforce, or expand knowledge of other subject areas.

The student is expected to:

- (A) use the language at the advanced proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the student's own language and the language studied;
  - (B) use the language at the advanced proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the student's own culture and the cultures studied; and
  - (C) use the language at the advanced proficiency level to demonstrate an understanding of the influence of one language and culture on another.
- The student is expected to:

- (A) use the language at the advanced proficiency level both within and beyond the school setting through activities such as participating in cultural events and using technology to communicate; and
- (B) show evidence of becoming a lifelong learner by using the language at the advanced proficiency level for personal enrichment and career development.

*Source: The provisions of this §114.24 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

---

---

**§114.25. Exploratory Languages (One-Half to One Credit).**

(a) General requirements.

- (1) Exploratory languages is a nonsequential course that can be offered in elementary, middle, or high school. At the high school level, students are awarded one-half to one unit of credit for successful completion of a course.
- (2) Using age-appropriate activities, students study selected aspects of one or more languages and cultures and/or develop basic language learning and communicative skills.

(b) Introduction. Exploratory courses in languages other than English introduce the student to the study of other languages. Students use components of language, make observations about languages and cultures, develop language study skills, and/or acquire simple communicative skills by completing one or more of the knowledge and skills for exploratory languages.

(c) Knowledge and skills.

- (1) The student uses components of language.

The student is expected to:

- (A) participate in different types of language learning activities;
- (B) use the language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and/or writing;
- (C) demonstrate an awareness of some aspects of culture in using the language; and
- (D) demonstrate an awareness of the sub-systems of other languages (such as grammar, vocabulary, and phonology).

- (2) The student makes observations about languages and cultures.

The student is expected to:

- (A) compare and contrast features of other languages to English;
- (B) recognize the role of nonlinguistic elements (such as gestures) in communication;
- (C) demonstrate an understanding of the fact that human behavior is influenced by culture; and
- (D) compare some aspects of other cultures to the student's own culture.

- (3) The student develops language study skills.

The student is expected to:

- (A) practice different language learning strategies;

- (B) demonstrate an understanding of the fact that making and correcting errors is an important part of learning a language; and
- (C) demonstrate an awareness of language patterns.

*Source: The provisions of this §114.25 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

**§114.26. Cultural and Linguistic Topics (One-Half to One Credit).**

- (a) General requirements.
  - (1) Cultural and linguistic topics is a nonsequential course that can be offered in elementary, middle, or high school. At the high school level, students are awarded one-half to one unit of credit for successful completion of a course. Upon completion of the course, students may choose to receive credit for a nonsequential course in languages other than English or credit for a social studies elective course.
  - (2) Using age-appropriate activities, students study cultural, linguistic, geographical, or historical aspects of selected regions or countries.
- (b) Introduction. Courses in cultural and linguistic topics introduce students to the study of other cultures. Students gain the knowledge to understand the historical development, geographical aspects, cultural aspects, and/or linguistic aspects of selected regions or countries by completing one or more of the knowledge and skills for cultural and linguistic topics.

(c) Knowledge and skills.

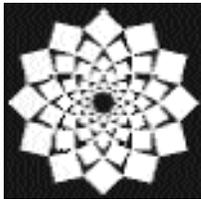
- |   |  |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) The student gains knowledge of the cultural aspects of selected regions or countries.</li> </ul>                     | <p>The student is expected to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(A) identify social, cultural, and economic changes that have affected customs and conventions in a region or country;</li> <li>(B) explain variations of cultural patterns within a region or country;</li> <li>(C) demonstrate an understanding of the role of traditions in influencing a culture's practices (what people do) and products (what people create); and</li> <li>(D) recognize the art, music, literature, drama, or other culturally related activity of a region or country.</li> </ul> |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(2) The student gains a knowledge of certain linguistic aspects of selected regions, countries, or languages.</li> </ul> | <p>The student is expected to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(A) reproduce, read, write, or demonstrate an understanding of common expressions and vocabulary used in the region, country, or language studied;</li> </ul>  |

- 
- 
- (3) The student gains knowledge of the geographical aspects of and their related influences on selected regions or countries.
- (4) The student gains knowledge of the historical aspects of selected regions or countries.
- (B) describe general aspects of a language based upon the linguistic experiences provided, such as word etymologies and derivatives; and
- (C) recognize the linguistic contributions of native speakers and writers from various regions.
- The student is expected to:
- (A) demonstrate an understanding of the influence of geography on the historical development of a region or country; and
- (B) provide examples of the interrelationships between the physical and cultural environments.
- The student is expected to:
- (A) recognize examples of the interactions of a region or country with the rest of the world;
- (B) trace historical events from their inception to the present; and
- (C) identify significant personalities in the development of a region or country.

*Source: The provisions of this §114.26 adopted to be effective September 1, 1998, 22 TexReg 4930.*

# Appendix B

## ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines



### ACTFL PROFICIENCY GUIDELINES

The 1986 proficiency guidelines represent a hierarchy of global characterizations of integrated performance in speaking, listening, reading and writing. Each description is a representative, not an exhaustive, sample of a particular range of ability, and each level subsumes all previous levels, moving from simple to complex in an “all-before-and-more” fashion.

Because these guidelines identify stages of proficiency, as opposed to achievement, they are not intended to measure what an individual has achieved through specific classroom instruction but rather to allow assessment of what an individual can and cannot do, regardless of where, when, or how the language has been learned or acquired; thus, the words “learned” and “acquired” are used in the broadest sense. These guidelines are not based on a particular linguistic theory or pedagogical method, since the guidelines are proficiency-based, as opposed to achievement-based, and are intended to be used for global assessment.

The 1986 guidelines should not be considered the definitive version, since the construction and utilization of language proficiency guidelines is a dynamic, interactive process. The academic sector, like the government sector, will continue to refine and update the criteria periodically to reflect the needs of the users and the advances of the profession. In this vein, ACTFL owes a continuing debt to the creators of the 1982 provisional proficiency guidelines and, of course, to the members of the Interagency Language Roundtable Testing Committee, the creators of the government’s Language Skill Level Descriptions.

ACTFL would like to thank the following individuals for their contributions on this current Guidelines project:

Heidi Byrnes  
James Child  
Nina Levinson  
Pardee Lowe, Jr.  
Seiichi Makino  
Irene Thompson  
A. Ronald Walton

These proficiency guidelines are the product of grants from the U.S. Department of Education.

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Inc.,  
6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801

---

---

## Generic Descriptions-Speaking

<b>Novice</b>	The Novice level is characterized by the ability to communicate minimally with learned material.
Novice-Low	Oral production consists of isolated words and perhaps a few high-frequency phrases. Essentially no functional communicative ability.
Novice-Mid	Oral production continues to consist of isolated words and learned phrases within very predictable areas of need, although quality is increased. Vocabulary is sufficient only for handling simple, elementary needs and expressing basic courtesies. Utterances rarely consist of more than two or three words and show frequent long pauses and repetition of interlocutor's words. Speaker may have some difficulty producing even the simplest utterances. Some Novice-Mid speakers will be understood only with great difficulty.
Novice-High	Able to satisfy partially the requirements of basic communicative exchanges by relying heavily on learned utterances but occasionally expanding these through simple recombinations of their elements. Can ask questions or make statements involving learned material. Shows signs of spontaneity although this falls short of real autonomy of expression. Speech continues to consist of learned utterances rather than of personalized, situationally adapted ones. Vocabulary centers on areas such as basic objects, places, and most common kinship terms. Pronunciation may still be strongly influenced by first language. Errors are frequent and, in spite of repetition, some Novice-High speakers will have difficulty being understood even by sympathetic interlocutors.
<b>Intermediate</b>	The Intermediate level is characterized by the speaker's ability to: - create with the language by combining and recombining learned elements, though primarily in a reactive mode; - initiate, minimally sustain, and close in a simple way basic communicative tasks; and - ask and answer questions.
Intermediate-Low	Able to handle successfully a limited number of interactive, task-oriented and social situations. Can ask and answer questions, initiate and respond to simple statements and maintain face-to-face conversation, although in a highly restricted manner and with much linguistic inaccuracy. Within these limitations, can perform

---

---

such tasks as introducing self, ordering a meal, asking directions, and making purchases. Vocabulary is adequate to express only the most elementary needs. Strong interference from native language may occur. Misunderstandings frequently arise, but with repetition, the Intermediate-Low speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors.

**Intermediate-Mid** Able to handle successfully a variety of uncomplicated, basic and communicative tasks and social situations. Can talk simply about self and family members. Can ask and answer questions and participate in simple conversations on topics beyond the most immediate needs; e.g., personal history and leisure time activities. Utterance length increases slightly, but speech may continue to be characterized by frequent long pauses, since the smooth incorporation of even basic conversational strategies is often hindered as the speaker struggles to create appropriate language forms. Pronunciation may continue to be strongly influenced by first language and fluency may still be strained. Although misunderstandings still arise, the Intermediate-Mid speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors.

**Intermediate-High** Able to handle successfully most uncomplicated communicative tasks and social situations. Can initiate, sustain, and close a general conversation with a number of strategies appropriate to a range of circumstances and topics, but errors are evident. Limited vocabulary, still necessitates hesitation and may bring about slightly unexpected circumlocution. There is emerging evidence of connected discourse, particularly for simple narration and description. The Intermediate-High speaker can generally be understood even by interlocutors not accustomed to dealing with speakers at this level, but repetition may still be required.

**Advanced** The Advanced level is characterized by the speaker's ability to:

- converse in a clearly participatory fashion;
- initiate, sustain, and bring to closure a wide variety of communicative tasks, including those that require an increased ability to convey meaning with diverse language strategies due to a complication or an unforeseen turn of events;
- satisfy the requirements of school and work situations; and
- narrate and describe with paragraph-length connected discourse.

**Advanced** Able to satisfy the requirements of everyday situations and routine school and work requirements. Can handle with confidence but not with facility complicated tasks and social situations, such as

---

---

elaborating, complaining, and apologizing. Can narrate and describe with some details, linking sentences together smoothly. Can communicate facts and talk casually about topics of current public and personal interest, using general vocabulary. Shortcomings can often be smoothed over by communicative strategies, such as pause fillers, stalling devices, and different rates of speech. Circumlocution which arises from vocabulary or syntactic limitations very often is quite successful, though some groping for words may still be evident. The Advanced level speaker can be understood without difficulty by native interlocutors.

**Advanced-High**

Able to satisfy the requirements of a broad variety of everyday, school, and work situations. Can discuss concrete topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence. There is emerging evidence of ability to support opinions, explain in detail, and hypothesize. The Advanced-Plus speaker often shows a well developed ability to compensate for an imperfect grasp of some forms with confident use of communicative strategies, such as paraphrasing and circumlocution. Differentiated vocabulary and intonation are effectively used to communicate fine shades of meaning. The Advanced-Plus speaker often shows remarkable fluency and ease of speech but under the demands of Superior-level, complex tasks, language may break down or prove inadequate.

**Superior**

The Superior level is characterized by the speaker's ability to:

- participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, professional, and abstract topics; and
- support opinions and hypothesize using native-like discourse strategies.

**Superior**

Able to speak the language with sufficient accuracy to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, professional, and abstract topics. Can discuss special fields of competence and interest with ease. Can support opinions and hypothesize, but may not be able to tailor language to audience or discuss in depth highly abstract or unfamiliar topics. Usually the Superior level speaker is only partially familiar with regional or other dialectical variants. The Superior level speaker commands a wide variety of interactive strategies and shows good awareness of discourse strategies. The latter involves the ability to distinguish main ideas from supporting information through syntactic, lexical and suprasegmental features (pitch, stress, intonation). Sporadic errors may occur, particularly in low-frequency structures and some complex high-frequency structures more common to formal writing, but no patterns of error are evident. Errors do not disturb the native speaker or interfere with communication.

---

---

## Generic Descriptions-Listening

These guidelines assume that all listening tasks take place in an authentic environment at a normal rate of speech using standard or near-standard norms.

Novice-Low	Understanding is limited to occasional isolated words, such as cognates, borrowed words, and high-frequency social conventions. Essentially no ability to comprehend even short utterances.
Novice-Mid	Able to understand some short, learned utterances, particularly where context strongly supports understanding and speech is clearly audible. Comprehends some words and phrases from simple questions, statements, high-frequency commands and courtesy formulae about topics that refer to basic personal information or the immediate physical setting. The listener requires long pauses for assimilation and periodically requests repetition and/or a slower rate of speech.
Novice-High	Able to understand short, learned utterances and some sentence-length utterances, particularly where context strongly supports understanding and speech is clearly audible. Comprehends words and phrases from simple questions, statements, high-frequency commands and courtesy formulae. May require repetition, rephrasing and/or a slowed rate of speech for comprehension.
Intermediate-Low	Able to understand sentence-length utterances which consist of recombinations of learned elements in a limited number of content areas, particularly if strongly supported by the situational context. Content refers to basic personal background and needs, social conventions and routine tasks, such as getting meals and receiving simple instructions and directions. Listening tasks pertain primarily to spontaneous face-to-face conversations. Understanding is often uneven; repetition and rewording may be necessary. Misunderstandings in both main ideas and details arise frequently.
Intermediate-Mid	Able to understand sentence-length utterances which consist of recombinations of learned utterances on a variety of topics. Content continues to refer primarily to basic personal background and needs, social conventions and somewhat more complex tasks, such as lodging, transportation, and shopping. Additional content areas include some personal interests and activities, and a greater diversity of instructions and directions. Listening tasks not only pertain to spontaneous face-to-face conversations but also to short routine telephone conversations and some deliberate speech, such

---



---

	as simple announcements and reports over the media. Understanding continues to be uneven.
Intermediate-High	Able to sustain understanding over longer stretches of connected discourse on a number of topics pertaining to different times and places; however, understanding is inconsistent due to failure to grasp main ideas and/or details. Thus, while topics do not differ significantly from those of an Advanced level listener, comprehension is less in quantity and poorer in quality.
Advanced	Able to understand main ideas and most details of connected discourse on a variety of topics beyond the immediacy of the situation. Comprehension may be uneven due to a variety of linguistic and extralinguistic factors, among which topic familiarity is very prominent. These texts frequently involve description and narration in different time frames or aspects, such as present, nonpast, habitual, or imperfective. Texts may include interviews, short lectures on familiar topics, and news items and reports primarily dealing with factual information. Listener is aware of cohesive devices but may not be able to use them to follow the sequence of thought in an oral text.
Advanced-High	Able to understand the main ideas of most speech in a standard dialect; however, the listener may not be able to sustain comprehension in extended discourse which is propositionally and linguistically complex. Listener shows an emerging awareness of culturally implied meanings beyond the surface meanings of the text but may fail to grasp sociocultural nuances of the message.
Superior	Able to understand the main ideas of all speech in a standard dialect, including technical discussion in a field of specialization. Can follow the essentials of extended discourse which is propositionally and linguistically complex, as in academic/professional settings, in lectures, speeches, and reports. Listener shows some appreciation of aesthetic norms of target language, of idioms, colloquialisms, and register shifting. Able to make inferences within the cultural framework of the target language. Understanding is aided by an awareness of the underlying organizational structure of the oral text and includes sensitivity for its social and cultural references and its affective overtones. Rarely misunderstands but may not understand excessively rapid, highly colloquial speech or speech that has strong cultural references.

---



---

---

---

Distinguished	Able to understand all forms and styles of speech pertinent to personal, social and professional needs tailored to different audiences. Shows strong sensitivity to social and cultural references and aesthetic norms by processing language from within the cultural framework. Texts include theater plays, screen productions, editorials, symposia, academic debates, public policy statements, literary readings, and most jokes and puns. May have difficulty with some dialects and slang.
---------------	--

## Generic Descriptions-Reading

These guidelines assume all reading texts to be authentic and legible.

Novice-Low	Able occasionally to identify isolated words and/or major phrases when strongly supported by context.
------------	---

Novice-Mid	Able to recognize the symbols of an alphabetic and/or syllabic writing system and/or a limited number of characters in a system that uses characters. The reader can identify an increasing number of highly contextualized words and/or phrases including cognates and borrowed words, where appropriate. Material understood rarely exceeds a single phrase at a time, and rereading may be required.
------------	---

Novice-High	Has sufficient control of the writing system to interpret written language in areas of practical need. Where vocabulary has been learned, can read for instructional and directional purposes standardized messages, phrases or expressions, such as some items on menus, schedules, timetables, maps, and signs. At times, but not on a consistent basis, the Novice-High level reader may be able to derive meaning from material at a slightly higher level where context and/or extralinguistic background knowledge are supportive.
-------------	--

Intermediate-Low	Able to understand main ideas and/or some facts from the simplest connected texts dealing with basic personal and social needs. Such texts are linguistically noncomplex and have a clear underlying internal structure, for example chronological sequencing. They impart basic information about which the reader has to make only minimal suppositions or to which the reader brings personal interest and/or knowledge. Examples include messages with social purposes or information for the widest possible audience, such as public announcements and short, straightforward instructions dealing with public life. Some misunderstandings will occur.
------------------	---

---



---

Intermediate-Mid	Able to read consistently with increased understanding simple connected texts dealing with a variety of basic and social needs. Such texts are still linguistically noncomplex and have a clear underlying internal structure. They impart basic information about which the reader has to make minimal suppositions and to which the reader brings personal interest and/or knowledge. Examples may include short, straightforward descriptions of persons, places, and things written for a wide audience.
Intermediate-High	Able to read consistently with full understanding simple connected texts dealing with basic personal and social needs about which the reader has personal interest and/or knowledge. Can get some main ideas and information from texts at the next higher level featuring description and narration. Structural complexity may interfere with comprehension; for example, basic grammatical relations may be misinterpreted and temporal references may rely primarily on lexical items. Has some difficulty with the cohesive factors in discourse, such as matching pronouns with referents. While texts do not differ significantly from those at the Advanced level, comprehension is less consistent. May have to read material several times for understanding.
Advanced	Able to read somewhat longer prose of several paragraphs in length, particularly if presented with a clear underlying structure. The prose is predominantly in familiar sentence patterns. Reader gets the main ideas and facts and misses some details. Comprehension derives not only from situational and subject matter knowledge but from increasing control of the language. Texts at this level include descriptions and narrations such as simple short stories, news items, bibliographical information, social notices, personal correspondence, routinized business letters and simple technical material written for the general reader.
Advanced-High	Able to follow essential points of written discourse at the Superior level in areas of special interest or knowledge. Able to understand parts of texts which are conceptually abstract and linguistically complex, and/or texts which treat unfamiliar topics and situations, as well as some texts which involve aspects of target-language culture. Able to comprehend the facts to make appropriate inferences. An emerging awareness of the aesthetic properties of language and of its literary styles permits comprehension of a wider variety of texts, including literary. Misunderstandings may occur.

---



---

---

---

Superior

Able to read with almost complete comprehension and at normal speed expository prose on unfamiliar subjects and a variety of literary texts. Reading ability is not dependent on subject matter knowledge, although the reader is not expected to comprehend thoroughly texts which are highly dependent on knowledge of the target culture. Reads easily for pleasure. Superior-level texts feature hypotheses, argumentation and supported opinions and include grammatical patterns and vocabulary ordinarily encountered in academic/professional reading. At this level, due to the control of general vocabulary and structure, the reader is almost always able to match the meanings derived from extralinguistic knowledge with meanings derived from knowledge of the language, allowing for smooth and efficient reading of diverse texts. Occasional misunderstandings may still occur; for example, the reader may experience some difficulty with unusually complex structures and low-frequency idioms. At the Superior level the reader can match strategies, top-down or bottom-up, which are most appropriate to the text. (Top-down strategies rely on real-world knowledge and prediction based on genre and organizational scheme of the text. Bottom-up strategies rely on actual linguistic knowledge.) Material at this level will include a variety of literary texts, editorials, correspondence, general reports and technical material in professional fields. Rereading is rarely necessary, and misreading is rare.

Distinguished

Able to read fluently and accurately most styles and forms of the language pertinent to academic and professional needs. Able to relate inferences in the text to real-world knowledge and understand almost all sociolinguistic and cultural references by processing language from within the cultural framework. Able to understand a writer's use of nuance and subtlety. Can readily follow unpredictable turns of thought and author intent in such materials as sophisticated editorials, specialized journal articles, and literary texts such as novels, plays, poems, as well as in any subject matter area directed to the general reader.

## Generic Descriptions-Writing

Novice-Low

Able to form some letters in an alphabetic system. In languages whose writing systems use syllabaries or characters, writer is able to both copy and produce the basic strokes. Can produce romanization of isolated characters, where applicable.

---



---

Novice-Mid	Able to copy or transcribe familiar words or phrases and reproduce some from memory. No practical communicative writing skills.
Novice-High	Able to write simple fixed expressions and limited memorized material and some recombinations thereof. Can supply information on simple forms and documents. Can write names, numbers, dates, own nationality, and other simple autobiographical information as well as some short phrases and simple lists. Can write all the symbols in an alphabetic or syllabic or 50-100 characters or compounds in a character writing system. Spelling and representation of symbols (letters, syllables, characters) may be partially correct.
Intermediate-Low	Able to meet limited practical writing needs. Can write short messages, postcards, and take down simple notes, such as telephone messages. Can create statements or questions within the scope of limited language experience. Material produced consists of recombinations of learned vocabulary, and structures into simple sentences on very familiar topics. Language is inadequate to express in writing anything but elementary needs. Frequent errors in grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and in formation of nonalphabetic symbols, but writing can be understood by natives used to the writing of nonnatives.
Intermediate-Mid	Able to meet a number of practical writing needs. Can write short, simple letters. Content involves personal preferences, daily routine, everyday events, and other topics grounded in personal experience. Can express present time or at least one other time frame or aspect consistently, e.g. nonpast, habitual, imperfective. Evidence of control of the syntax of noncomplex sentences and basic inflectional morphology, such as declensions and conjugation. Writing tends to be a loose collection of sentences or sentence fragments on a given topic and provides little evidence of conscious organization. Can be understood by natives used to the writing of nonnatives.
Intermediate-High	Able to meet most practical writing needs and limited social demands. Can take notes in some detail on familiar topics and respond in writing to personal questions. Can write simple letters, brief synopses and paraphrases, summaries of biographical data, work and school experience. In those languages relying primarily on content words and time expressions to express time, tense, or aspect, some precision is displayed; where tense and/or aspect is

---



---

---



---

	<p>expressed through verbal inflection, forms are produced rather consistently, but not always accurately. An ability to describe and narrate in paragraphs is emerging. Rarely uses basic cohesive elements, such as pronominal substitutions or synonyms in written discourse. Writing, though faulty is generally comprehensible to natives used to the writing of nonnatives.</p>
<p>Advanced</p>	<p>Able to write routine social correspondence and join sentences in simple discourse of at least several paragraphs in length on familiar topics. Can write simple social correspondence, take notes, write cohesive summaries and resumes, as well as narratives and descriptions of a factual nature. Has sufficient writing vocabulary to express self simply with some circumlocution. May still make errors in punctuation, spelling, or the formation of nonalphabetic symbols. Good control of the morphology and the most frequently used syntactic structures, e.g., common word order patterns, coordination, subordination, but makes frequent errors in producing complex sentences. Uses a limited number of cohesive devices, such as pronouns, accurately. Writing may resemble literal translations from the native language, but a sense of organization (rhetorical structure) is emerging. Writing is understandable to natives not used to the writing of nonnatives.</p>
<p>Advanced-High</p>	<p>Able to write about a variety of topics with significant precision and in detail. Can write most social and informal business correspondence. Can describe and narrate personal experiences fully, but has difficulty supporting points of view in written discourse. Can write about the concrete aspects of topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence. Often shows remarkable fluency and ease of expression, but under time constraints and pressure writing may be inaccurate. Generally strong in either grammar or vocabulary, but not in both. Weakness and unevenness in one of the foregoing or in spelling or character writing formation may result in occasional miscommunication. Some misuse of vocabulary may still be evident. Style may still be obviously foreign.</p>
<p>Superior</p>	<p>Able to express self effectively in most formal and informal writing on practical, social and professional topics. Can write most types of correspondence, such as memos as well as social and business letters, and short research papers and statements of position in areas of special interest or in special fields. Good control of a full range of structures, spelling or nonalphabetic symbol production, and a wide general vocabulary allow the writer to hypothesize and pre-</p>

---



---

---

---

sent arguments or points of view accurately and effectively. An underlying organization, such as chronological ordering, logical ordering, cause and effect, comparison, and thematic development is strongly evident, although not thoroughly executed and/or not totally reflecting target language patterns. Although sensitive to differences in formal and informal style, still may not tailor writing precisely to a variety of purposes and/or readers. Errors in writing rarely disturb natives or cause miscommunication.

# Appendix C

## Selected Resources

### *Inclusion*

- Anderson & Adams. (1992). Acknowledging the learning styles of diverse populations: Implication for instructional design. In L. Border & N. Chism (Eds.), Teaching for diversity, new directions in teaching and learning (pp. 19-33). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Donato, R., & McCormick, D. (1994). A sociocultural perspective on language learning strategies: The role of mediation. The Modern Language Journal, 78, 453-464.
- Ehrman, M. E. (1996). Understanding second language learning difficulties. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gardner, D., & Miller, L. (1994). Directions in self-access language learning. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Gardner, H. (1985). Frames of mind. The theory of multiple intelligences. New York: Harper Collins.
- Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional intelligence. New York: Bantam Books.
- INTASC, Council of Chief State School Officers (1992). Model standards for beginning teacher licensing and development: A resource for state dialogue. Washington, D.C.: Author.
- Kohn, A. (1993). Choices for children: Why and how to let students decide. Phi Delta Kappan, 7 (5), 8-16; 18-20.

- 
- 
- Lee, J. F., & VanPatten, B. (1995). Making communicative language teaching happen. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. (1992). Toward high and rigorous standards for the teaching profession: Initial policies and perspectives of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. Detroit, MI: Author.
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). Language learning strategies — What every teacher should know. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Pemberton, R. et al. (Eds.). (1996). Taking control: Autonomy in language learning. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Richards. (1990). The language learning matrix. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Rubin, J., & Thompson, I. (1994). How to be a more successful language learner. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & S. Madden (Eds.), Input in second language acquisition. Cambridge: Newbury House.
- Texas Education Agency. (1994). High expectations: Creating success for every student (TEA Publication No. GE5 601 08). Austin, TX: Author.
- Vann & Abraham. (1990). Strategies of unsuccessful language learners. TESOL Quarterly, 24(2), 177-98.
- Wing, B. (Ed.). (1996). Foreign languages for all: Challenges and choices. (Northeast Conference Reports). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

## *Communication and Cultures*

- Adoni, H. (1995). Literacy and reading in a multimedia environment. Journal of Communication, 45, 152-177.
- Barnes, D. (1990). From communication to curriculum. London: Pelican.
- Blanchard, R. O., & Christ, W. G. (1993). Media education and the liberal arts: A blueprint for the new professionalism. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- 
- 
- Bloom, B. S. (Ed.). (1956). Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals. Handbook I: Cognitive domain. New York: David McKay.
- Brookfield, S. (1986). Media power and the development of media literacy: An adult educational interpretation. Harvard Educational Review, 56, 151-170.
- Brookfield, S. (1987). Developing critical thinkers: Challenging adults to explore alternative ways of thinking and acting. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Brooks, F. B. (1993). Some problems and caveats in communicative discourse: Toward a conceptualization of the foreign language classroom. Foreign Language Annals, 26(2), 233-242.
- Buckingham, D. (1993). Going critical: The limits of media literacy. Australian Journal of Education, 37(2), 142-152.
- Cortés, C. E. (1992). Media literacy: An educational basic for the information age. Education and Urban Society, 24(4), 489-497.
- Fowles, J. (1992). Why viewers watch: A reappraisal of television's effects. London: Sage Publications.
- Kramsch, C. (1987). Socialization and literacy in a foreign language: Learning through interaction. Theory Into Practice, 26: 243-250.
- Kramsch, C. (1993). Context and culture in language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Krathwohl, D. L., Bloom, B. S. & Masia, B. B. (1964). Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals. Handbook II: Affective domain. New York: David McKay.
- Lafayette, R. C. (1993). Subject-matter content: what every foreign language teacher needs to know. In G. Guntermann (Ed.), Developing language teachers for a changing world. The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series (pp. 124-158). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Lange, D. L. (1997, April). Collaboration on national and state standards for culture: Is there alignment? Presentation at the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, New York City.
- McKay, S., & Hornberger, N. (1996). Sociolinguistics and language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- 
- 
- Paige, R. M. (1993). Education for the intercultural experience. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.
- Postman, N. (1985). Amusing ourselves to death: Public discourse in the age of show business. New York: Penguin Books.
- Postman, N. (1992). Technopoly: The surrender of culture to technology. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Quin, R. (1993). Monitoring standards in media studies: Problems and strategies. Australian Journal of Education, 37(2), 182-197.
- Robinson, G. L. (1993). Culture learning in the foreign language classroom: A model for second culture acquisition. In B. A. Lafford & M. Schockey (Eds.), Culture and content: Perspectives on the acquisition of cultural competence in the foreign language classroom (pp. 68). (Southwest Conference on Language Teaching Monograph Series No. 4), Tempe, AZ: Southwest Conference on Language Teaching.
- Seeyle, H. N. (1993). Teaching culture: Strategies for intercultural communication. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Singerman, A. J. (Ed). (1996). Acquiring cross cultural competence. Four stages for students of French. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Trend, D. (1993). Nationalities, pedagogies, and media. Cultural Studies, 7, 89-106.
- Turnbull, S. (1993). The media: Moral lessons and moral careers. Australian Journal of Education, 37, 153-168.

## ***Connections, Comparisons, Communities***

- Brinton, D., Snow, M. A., & Bingham Wesche, M. (1989). Content-based second language instruction. New York: Newbury House Publishers.
- Cantoni-Harvey, G. (1987). Content-area language instruction: Approaches and strategies. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing.
- Curtain, H., & Pesola, C. A. (1994). Languages and children: Making the match. White Plains, NY: Longman.

---

---

Law, S., & Bikson, T. (1995). Global preparedness or else. Corporate and academic perspectives on the human resource implications of globalism. Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corporation.

Schrier, L.L. (1996). A prototype for articulating Spanish as a foreign language in elementary schools. Hispania, 79, 3, 515-523.

## *Curriculum and Instruction*

Adair-Hauck, B., Donato, R., & Cumo, P. (1994). Using a whole-language approach to teach grammar. In J. Shrum & E. Glisan, Teacher's handbook: Contextualized language instruction (pp. 90-111). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Anderson, L.W. (Ed). (1995). International encyclopedia of teaching and teacher education. Oxford, UK: Pergammon Press.

Ashton, P. (1996). Improving the preparation of teachers. Educational Researcher, 25(9), 21-22, 35.

Blanco, G. (1995). El hispanohablante y la gramática. Bilingual Research Journal 18 (3 & 4), 23-46.

Blanco, G. (1995). Spanish for Spanish speakers. In J.M. Díaz (Ed.), Teacher's guide to the advanced placement (AP) course in Spanish language. New York: The College Board.

Brooks, F. B. (1993). Some problems and caveats in communicative discourse: Toward a conceptualization of the foreign language classroom. Foreign Language Annals, 26(3), 233-242.

Brooks, F. B., & Donato, R. (1994). Vygotskian approaches to understanding foreign language learner discourse. Hispania, 77(2), 262-274.

Brosh, H. (1996). Perceived characteristics of the effective language teachers. Foreign Language Annals, 29(2), 125-138.

Brown, J. D. (1995). The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development. Boston: Heinle & Heinle

Donato, R., & Adair-Hauck, B. (1992). Discourse perspectives on formal instruction. Language Awareness 1(2), 73-89.

- 
- 
- Donato, R., & McCormick, D. (1994). A sociocultural perspective on language learning strategies: The role of mediation. The Modern Language Journal, 78(4), 453-464.
- Everson, M. E.(1993). Toward a process view of teaching reading in the second language Chinese curriculum. Theory into Practice, 33(1), 4-9.
- Everson, M. E. (1994). Research in the less commonly taught languages. In A. Omaggio Hadley (Ed.), Research in language learning: principles, processes, and prospects (pp.198-228). Lincolnwood: National Textbook Company.
- Freeman, D., & Richards, J. C . (Eds.). ( 1996). Teacher learning in language teaching. New York: Cambridge.
- Glisan, E. (1988). A plan for teaching listening comprehension: Adaptation of an instructional reading model. Foreign Language Annals, 21(1), 9-16.
- Guntermann, G. (Ed.). (1993). Preparing teachers for a changing world. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company
- Hall, J. K. (1995). 'Aw, man, where we goin'? : Classroom interaction and the development of L2 interactional competence. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 6(2), 37-62.
- Harper, J. Lively, M. & Williams, M. (Eds.). (1998). The coming of age of the profession. Issues and emerging ideas for the teaching of foreign languages. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers
- The Holmes Group, Inc. (1986). Tomorrow's teachers. East Lansing, MI: Author.
- The Holmes Group, Inc. (1990). Tomorrow's schools. Principles for the design of professional development schools. East Lansing, MI: Author.
- The Holmes Group, Inc. (1995). Tomorrow's schools of education. East Lansing, MI: Author.
- Johnson, K. E. (1995). Understanding communication in second language classrooms. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kennedy, M.K. (1997). The connection between research and practice. Educational Researcher, 26 (7), 4-12.
- Krashen, S. (1982). Principles and practice in second language acquisition. London: Pergamon.

- 
- 
- Lange, D. L. (1990). A blueprint for a teacher development program. In J. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.), Second language teacher education (pp. 245-268). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lantolf, J., & Appel, G. (1994). Theoretical framework: An introduction to Vygotskian approaches to second language research. In J. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), Vygotskian approaches to second language research (pp. 1-32). Norwood, NJ: Albex Publishing.
- Larsen-Freedman D., & Long, M. (1991). An introduction to second language acquisition research. New York: Longman.
- LaFleur R. A. (1998). Latin for the 21st century. From concept to classroom. Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman-Addison Wesley.
- Markee, N. (1997). Second language acquisition research: A resource for changing teachers' professional cultures. The Modern Language Journal, 81(i), 80-93.
- Met, M. (1989). Walking on water and other characteristics of effective elementary school teachers. Foreign Language Annals, 22(2), 175-189.
- Moore, Z. (Ed.). (1996). Foreign language teacher education: Multiple perspectives. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Murray, F. (Ed.). (1996). The teacher educator's handbook: Building a knowledge base for the preparation of teachers. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Nunan, D., & Lamb, C. (1996). The self-directed teacher: Managing the learning process. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Omaggio-Hadley, A. (Ed.). (1994). Research in language learning: principles, processes, and prospects. Lincolnwood: National Textbook Company.
- Phillips, J.K. (Ed.) (1997). Collaborations: meeting new goals, new realities. The reports of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Platt, E., & Brooks, F. B. (1994). The "acquisition-rich environment" revisited. The Modern Language Journal, 78(4), 497-511.
- Ramírez, A. G. (1995). Creating contexts for second language acquisition: Theory and methods. New York: Longman.

- 
- Richards, J.C., & Nunan, D. (Eds.). (1990). Second language teacher educator. Cambridge, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Robinson, D.W. et al. (1997). Developing future teachers: Working together across diverse contexts. In R. Donato (Ed.), Building community through language learning. Central states conference report. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Rubin, J. (1994). A review of second language listening comprehension research. The Modern Language Journal, 78(4), 199-221.
- Schrier, L. L. (1993). Prospects for the professionalization of foreign language teaching. In G. Guntermann (Ed.), Developing language teachers for a changing world. pp.105-123. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Slavin, R. (1995). A model of effective instruction. The Educational Forum, 59, 166-176.
- Smylie, M. (1996). From bureaucratic control to building human capital: The importance of teacher learning in education reform. Educational Researcher, 25(9), 9-11.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: a step towards second language learning. Applied Linguistics, 16(3), 371-391.
- Texas Education Agency. (1991). Spotlight on the middle. A source book of notable Texas middle school programs (TEA Publication No. FS1-501-04). Austin, TX: Author.
- Texas Education Agency. (1992). One student at a time (TEA Publication No. GE2 091 05). Austin, TX: Author.
- Texas Education Agency. (1994). First impressions. Primeras impresiones (TEA Publication No. GE4 170 04). Austin, TX: Author.
- Tedick, D. & Walker, C. (1995). From theory to practice: How do we prepare teachers for second language classrooms? Foreign Language Annals, 28(4), 499-517.
- Tedick, D. & Walker, C. (1996). R(t)eaching all students: necessary changes in teacher education. In B. Wing (Ed.), Foreign languages for all: Challenges and choices. Report of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Tharp, R.G., & Gallimore, R. (1988). Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling in social contexts. New York: Cambridge University Press.

---

---

Tshirner, E. (1996). Scope and sequence: Rethinking beginning foreign language instruction. The Modern Language Journal, 80(1), 1-14.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). Thought and language. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Walker, G. & McGinnis, S. (1995). Learning less commonly taught languages: An agreement on the bases for the training of teachers. Columbus, OH: Foreign Language Publications.

Wells, G. (1996). Using the tool-kit of discourse in the activity of learning and teaching. Mind, Culture, and Activity, 3(2), 74-101.

## *Technology*

Beauvois, M. H. (1995). Computer-assisted classroom discussion in the foreign language classroom: Conversation in slow motion. Foreign Language Annals, 25, 455-464.

Bush, M. (1997). Technology-enhanced language learning. ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

Fast, M.G. (in press). Remote access for foreign or second language acquisition: New interpretations of distance learning. In J. Muyskens (Ed.), New ways of learning and teaching: Focus on technology and foreign language education. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Garrett, N. (1991). Technology in the service of language learning: Trends and issues. The Modern Language Journal, 75, 74-101.

Garza, T.J. (1990). What you see is what you get...Or is it? Bringing cultural literacy into the foreign language classroom through video. In J.E. Alatis (Ed.), Georgetown University Roundtable on Languages and Linguistics (pp. 285-292). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Garza, T.J. (1991). Evaluating the use of captioned video materials in advanced foreign language learning. Foreign Language Annals 24 (3), 239-258.

Garza, T.J. (1996). The message is the medium: Using video materials to facilitate foreign language performance. Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education, 2(2), 1-18.

- 
- 
- Joiner, E. G. (1990). Choosing and using videotext. Foreign Language Annals, 23, 53-64.
- Jung, H. & Vanderplank, R. (Eds.). (1994). Barriers and bridges: Media technology in language learning. Frankfurt, Germany: Peter Lang.
- Otto, S. K., & Pusack, J. P. (1996). Technological choices to meet the challenges. In B. Wing (Ed.), Foreign languages for all: Challenges and choices. Northeast Conference Reports (pp. 141-186). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Waschauer, M. (Ed.). (1995). Virtual connections: On-line activities and projects for net-working language learners. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.
- Wresch, W. (1997). A teacher's guide to the information highway. Columbus: Prentice Hall.

## *Assessment*

- Alderson, J.C., and Beretta, A. (Eds.). (1992). Evaluating second language education. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Beretta, A. (1986). A case for field experimentation in program evaluation. Language Learning, 36(3), 295-309.
- Beretta, A. (1986). Program-fair language teaching evaluation. TESOL Quarterly, 20(3), 431-444.
- Beretta, A. (1986). Toward a methodology of ESL program evaluation. TESOL Quarterly, 20(1), 144-155.
- Cumming, A. (1987). What is a second-language program evaluation? The Canadian Modern Language Review, 43(4), 678-700.
- Duhamel, R.J. (1971). Second language program evaluation. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 27(2), 37-43.
- Genesee, F., & Upshur, J. A. (1996). Classroom-based evaluation in second language education. New York: Cambridge.
- Hancock, C. (Ed.). (1994). Teaching, testing, and assessment: Making the connection. Northeast Conference Reports. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

- 
- 
- Henning G. (1982). Growth-referenced evaluation of foreign language instructional programs. TESOL Quarterly, 16(4), 467-477.
- Johnson, R.K. (Ed.). (1989). The second language curriculum. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Long M.H. (1984). Process and product in ESL program evaluation. TESOL Quarterly, 18(3), 409-425.
- Mackay, R., and Palmer, J.D. (1981). Languages for specific purposes: Program design and evaluation. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Marshall, J., & Peters, M. (1985). Evaluation and education: The ideal learning community. Policy Sciences, 18, 263-288.
- Milleret, M. (1990). Evaluation and the summer language program abroad: A review essay. The Modern Language Journal, 74(4), 483-488.
- Omaggio, A.C., Eddy, P.A., McKim, L.W., & Pfannkuche, A. (1979). Looking at the results. In J.K. Phillips (Ed.), The ACTFL foreign language education series: No. 10. Building on experience — Building for success (pp. 233-270). Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Robertson, L. (1994). How to evaluate a language program. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 78, 13-17.
- Robison, R. E. (1992). Developing practical speaking tests for the foreign language classroom: A small group approach. Foreign Language Annals, 25(6), 487-496.
- Shohamy, E. (1991). Connecting testing and learning in the classroom and on the program level. In J. K. Phillips (Ed.), Building bridges and making connections. Northeast Conference Reports (pp. 154-178). So. Burlington, VT: Northeast Conference.
- Tierney, R. J., Carter, M. A., & Desai, L. E. (1991). Portfolio assessment in the reading-writing classroom. Norwood, MA: Christopher Gordon Publishers, Inc.
- Weslander, D., & Stephany, G.V. (1983). Evaluation of an English as a Second Language program for Southeast Asian students. TESOL Quarterly, 17(3), 473-480.

---

---

## *Professional Growth*

- Antonek, J.L., McCormick, D.E., & Donato, R. (1997). The student teacher portfolio as autobiography: Developing a professional identity. The Modern Language Journal, 81(i), 15-25.
- Baratz-Snowden, J. (1993). Assessment of teachers: A view from the national board for professional teaching standards. Theory Into Practice, 32(2), 82-85.
- Burnaford, G. et al. (1996). Teachers doing research. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Glisan, E. (1995). A collaborative approach to professional development. In R. Lafayette (Ed.), National standards: A catalyst for reform. The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series (pp. 57-95). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Glisan, E., & Phillips, J. K. (1989). Immersion experiences for teachers: A vehicle for strengthening language teaching. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 45(3), 478-84.
- Goldenberg, C., & Gallimore, R. (1991). Changing teaching takes more than a one-shot workshop. Educational Leadership, 49, 69-72.
- Goodlad, J. (1991). Why we need a complete redesign of teacher education. Educational Leadership, 49, 4-10.
- Guntermann, G.(Ed.) (1993). Developing language teachers for a changing world. The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Markee, N. (1997). Managing curricular innovation. New York: Cambridge.
- Nunan, D. (1990). Action research in the language classroom. In J.C. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.), Second language teacher education (pp. 62-81). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D., & Lamb, C. (1996). The self-directed teacher: Managing the learning process. New York: Cambridge.
- Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1994). Reflective teaching in second language classrooms. Cambridge Language Education Series. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

---

---

Schon, D.A. (1983). The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action. New York: Basic Books.

Schrier, L. L. (1994). Preparing teachers of the critical languages for the 21st century. In K. Komiya Samimy (Ed.), Foreign language education: Teaching critical languages in American schools. Columbus, OH: Theory into Practice.

Schrier, L. L., & Hammadou, J. A. (1994). Assessment in foreign language teacher education. In C. D. Hancock (Ed.), Making the connections: Teaching, assessment, testing. pp.211-234. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook.

Shrum, J.L., & Gilsan, E. W. (1994). Teacher's handbook: Contextualized language instruction. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach. New York: Cambridge.

## *State and National Standards*

American Classical League, American Philological Association, & Regional Classical Associations. (1997). Standards for classical language learning. Oxford, OH: American Classical League. (Note: ACL has published its language-specific standards; in 1998 AATF, AATG, AATI, AATSP, ACTR, ATJ, and CLASS will publish their language-specific standards. See "Organizations" on page K-14 for addresses of these organizations.)

Connecticut Department of Education. (1998). Guide to K-12 program development in world languages. Hartford, CT: Author.

Delaware Department of Education. (1997). State of Delaware foreign languages curriculum framework. Content standards. Dover, DE: Author.

Florida Department of Education. (1996). Florida curriculum framework: Foreign languages. A guide for teachers to help students achieve the Sunshine State Standards. Tallahassee, FL: Author.

Jackson, C. W. (1996). National standards and the challenge of articulation. In B. Wing (Ed.), Foreign languages for all: Challenges and choices. Northeast Conference Reports (pp. 115-139). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

Lafayette, R. C. & Draper, J. B. (1996). National standards: A catalyst for reform. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

---

---

Massachusetts Department of Education. (1995). The Massachusetts world languages curriculum framework. Making connections through world languages. Malden, MA: Author.

National K-12 Foreign Language Resource Center. (1997). Bringing the standards into the classroom: A teacher's guide. Ames, IA: Author.

Nebraska Department of Education. (1996). Foreign language frameworks. Lincoln, NE: Author.

Phillips, J.(Ed.). (1997). Collaborations: Meeting new goals, new realities. Northeast conference reports. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

Standards for Foreign Language Learning Project. (1996). Standards for foreign language learning project: Preparing for the 21st century. Yonkers, NY: Author.

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. (1997). Wisconsin's model academic standards for Foreign Languages. Madison, WI: Author.

## *Organizations*

American Association of Teachers of French (AATF), Jayne Abrate, Executive Director, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4510

American Association of Teachers of German (AATG), Helene Zimmer-Loew, Executive Director, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034

American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI), Anthony Mollica, Faculty of Education, Brock University, St. Catherines, Ontario, L3B 2S1

American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portuguese (AATSP), Lynn Sandstedt, Executive Director, 210 Butler-Hancock Hall, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO 80639

American Classical League (ACL), Miami University, Oxford, OH 45056

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, (ACTFL) C. Edward Scebold, Executive Director, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801

American Council of Teachers of Russian (ACTR), 1776 Massachusetts Ave, N.W., Suite 700, Washington, D.C. 20036

---

---

American Philological Association (APA), John Marincola, Executive Director, New York University, 19 University Place, Room 328, New York, NY 10003-4556

Association of Teachers of Japanese (ATJ), Campus Box 279, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80309-0279

Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Rosalie Cheatham, Executive Director, University of Arkansas-Little Rock, 2801 South University, Little Rock, AR 72204

Chinese Language Association of Secondary-Elementary Schools (CLASS) P.O. Box 2348, Livingston, NJ 07039

Classical Association of the Middle West and South (CAMWS), Gregory Daugherty, Secretary-Treasurer, Randolph - Macon College, Department of Classics, P.O. Box 5005, Ashland, VA 23005-5505

International Baccalaureate North America, 200 Madison Avenue, Suite 2007, New York, NY 10016

National Network for Early Language Learning, Nancy Rhodes, Executive Secretary, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd Street NW, Washington, DC 20037

Southwest Conference on Language Teaching (SWCOLT), Audrey Cournia, Executive Director, 1348 Coachman Drive, Sparks, NV 89434

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314

Texas Classical Association (TCA), Doris Kays, Executive Secretary-Treasurer, 2535 Turkey Oak, San Antonio, TX 78232

Texas Foreign Language Association (TFLA), Eugenia Simons, Executive Secretary-Treasurer, 1320 Modiste Dr., Houston, TX 77055

# Appendix D

## Testing in an Age of Assessment: Some Theoretical and Practical Considerations

*An edited version of an address given by Dr. Judith Liskin-Gasparro at the Symposium on Spanish Second-Language Acquisition at the University of Texas at Austin (Fall 1997)*

I would like to discuss one of my favorite topics--testing. I have had an unusual career path. I consider myself a kind of “born-again SLA researcher,” having started out my career in foreign language studies with ten years as a testing technocrat with Educational Testing Service. That experience, coupled with my work with oral proficiency testing on the ACTFL model and my testing activities as a teacher of Spanish, has given me a fairly broad perspective on the topic. At the very least, it has given me a lot of opinions, which this forum gives me license to share with you.

I said earlier that I was a testing “technocrat.” I use that word because, although my mission was to serve students and the institutions that they attended, in ten years I never saw or met or talked to a single student who took the College Board Advanced Placement, CLEP, and Achievement Tests that I developed. Our notions of test validity and reliability were based solely on the numbers generated for us by the statisticians. And believe me, the numbers looked good--after all, my job depended on it. But the larger picture was obscured. I had no direct contact with the larger reality of what kind of learning was being measured by these tests and, more importantly, what kind of Spanish language learning was **not** being measured by them. These issues, not to mention the curricular compromises and contortions of teachers to balance the competing demands of using their own professional judgment versus teaching so that their students would do well on the College Board (and other standardized tests) were far removed from me as a test developer at ETS.

My goal is to take a critical look at one of the “sacred cow” beliefs of test developers and teachers alike--that teaching to the test can be either good or bad, depending on the test. If the test is one of those old fill-in-the-blank in discrete sentences tests, then clearly teaching to the test is bad, because it will naturally result in fill-in-the-blank discrete-point teaching, and students will end up thinking that the Spanish language is one giant set of non-sequiturs. But what if the test is a good one, one that measures language skills in a global sense, and requires that students show us what they know and can do by working on a project over a period of time--an oral proficiency assessment or a portfolio of selected writing samples? Wouldn't teaching to tests like these result in good teaching and lots of learning?

The reason that this question has become a pressing one in the current decade is that we are in the midst of an era of intense interest in educational reform. Starting in the early 1980s, there has been one report after another about the scandalous state of education: social promotions to the next grade for

elementary school children who haven't learned to read, teenagers working at fast-food restaurants who don't know how to make change, high school graduates who can't fill out a job application, and reports of poor performance by U.S. students on math or geography tests in comparison to students in Japan, Germany, and other countries. Inevitably, along with these reports of impending educational doom come calls for new tests--both to assess the extent of the problem and to serve as the engine that will drive education reform efforts.

It is not news that tests of achievement can influence teaching and learning (Frederiksen, 1984). What we might call the "modern era" of testing dates back to the latter part of the 18th century, when the concepts of *ranking* and the *quantifiable mark* were invented (Madaus & Kellaghan, 1993). But what is relatively new--certainly a product of the twentieth century--are the technological advances that have made possible such developments as multiple-choice testing, machine-scorable answer sheets, new statistical methods, even the number 2 pencil (a little joke). But all of the technical apparatuses surrounding modern testing and assessment--from the quantified mark to the number 2 pencil to computer-adapted testing--are really versions of the irresistible appeal of technology.

Consider for a moment what happened historically after the invention of the quantifiable mark and the development of the concept of ranking of students on the basis of test scores. These innovations, developed a little over 200 years ago, led to the development of new kinds of test questions. Those questions could be quickly identified as right or wrong--not necessarily because they were better than the traditional style of testing, which was based on individual performances and emphasized eloquence and mastery of a range of rhetorical styles--but simply because it could be done. It soon became apparent that quantified test results could be used to rank, sort, and classify individual students and could also be aggregated so as to rank, average, and norm scores for groups of students. This, in turn, made it possible to describe or compare groups or institutions and to fix individuals and institutions in statistical distributions. Thus was born the technology of high-stakes testing for accountability (Madaus & Kellaghan, 1993) that has been with us ever since.

Closer to home, testing has been used openly as a tool for exercising financial control over educational institutions and over curriculum and educational policy since the 1960s. In the mid-1960s, as part of an earlier wave of educational reform, the U.S. Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. This legislation poured unprecedented amounts of money into state and local school districts for instructional innovations of all kinds. Testing was used as the accountability mechanism; programs funded under the Act were evaluated by testing the children and those schools and districts whose students performed at a certain level could qualify for continued funding. This was the first time in our history that educational performance of students in local school districts had reverberations at the national level. As the testing researcher W. James Popham wrote, "Tests were being employed to make keep-or-kill decisions about educational programs. Big dollars . . . were riding on the results of achievement tests . . . . The days of penny-ante assessment were over." (Popham, as cited in Frederiksen, 1984, p. 194).

Since that time, testing of school children across the U.S. has grown exponentially. Sales of standardized tests to public schools more than doubled between 1960 and 1989, creating by that point a one hundred million dollar a year industry, while school enrollments during that time increased by only 15 percent (Sacks 1997, p. 25). And in spite of an anti-standardized testing backlash that emerged in the 1980s (by 1995, some 230 colleges and universities had made standardized tests *optional* for admission), Educational Testing Service reported a 256 percent increase in total sales for the period from 1980 to 1996, including a rise of more than 300 percent for tests for teachers (Sacks, 1997). In other words, despite the criticisms of standardized tests, they are big business and are growing even bigger at an extraordinarily healthy rate.

What is this American love affair with testing? Where does it come from? It is clear that for the American public, tests have come to have a kind of symbolic value, reassuring us that something is being done to address problems in public education. Test performance has become, to a large extent, a synonym for merit. Everyone in this room (since our very presence here signifies that we have bought

into the educational enterprise in this country) at some point in our academic and professional lives, and most likely on many occasions, we have been rewarded for excellent performance on tests. Ironically enough, this puts us in the unusual and uncomfortable position of simultaneously being the beneficiaries of the test-mediated educational merit system and the ones who are in the best position to see its flaws.

But let me start with the love affair that we are now having with a new kind of assessment, born of the dissatisfaction with the traditional, machine-mediated, standardized, multiple-choice tests that were considered the key to educational reform just a generation ago. These are what are variously called “authentic assessments,” “alternative assessments,” and “performance assessments.” They are being hailed as the true path to educational reform. With assessment that is performance-oriented, the thinking goes, the aim is to measure not only the correctness of a response but also the thought processes involved in arriving at the response. This encourages students to reflect on their own learning in both depth and breadth and the belief is that instruction will be pushed into a more thoughtful, more reflexive, richer mode as well. Teachers who teach to these kinds of alternative assessments will naturally teach in ways that emphasize reflection, critical thinking, and personal investment in one’s own learning. Surely this is a good thing.

But what I argue is that the promise of authentic assessments is in imminent danger of being seriously compromised when it is undertaken on a large scale by the high-tech mentality that currently underlies and pervades our notions of testing. I have found that no assessment, no matter how alternative or authentic, can avoid the unintended consequences that, rather than changing instruction for the better, inevitably come to distort the very educational processes that the assessment was designed to measure and enrich. The distortion occurs because high stakes, for either students or teachers, are being attached to these new assessments.

Let me describe more specifically the nature of these new authentic assessments. As language people, we can take a bit of the outsider’s perspective here, because up to this point, none of the state-wide assessments intended for elementary and secondary school students have dealt with foreign languages. The emphasis has been on reading, writing, and math primarily. So as I describe the characteristics of these new assessments, you should be thinking about how the features would be applied in our own context.

When we talk about these new assessment models, in principle we are talking about types of assessments whose natural home is in a single classroom or language program since they do not lend themselves to large-scale administrations, right-or-wrong responses, machine scoring, or reports of state or national norms.

Grant Wiggins (1989a, 1989b, 1990, 1994) has written extensively on authentic assessment and on the differences between traditional tests and the new assessment models. His discussion (Wiggins 1994) on the etymologies of the words “test” and “assessment” provides some interesting insights. The original *testum* was an earthenware pot that was used as a colander, to separate gold from the surrounding ore. The term was later extended to the notion of determining the worth of a product or of a person’s effort. The key notion here is that a test measures knowledge or ability after the fact, with the assumption that the product of learning will contain in itself all of the information that the evaluator needs to know about the learners and the quality of their thinking processes.

The root of the term “assessment” is *assidere*, which is also the root of the French *asseoir*, to seat or set. It was first used in the sense of setting the value of property to apportion a tax. Assessors traditionally make a site visit; they inspect the property or the situation and its documents; they categorize its functions; they hear from the owner of the property; they evaluate it by setting it against already-existing standards; and so forth. The assessment requires time, as well as interaction between the assessor and the person or property being assessed, so that the congruence of perception with reality or, in our case, the congruence between underlying mental processes and surface observation, can be verified. The idea here is that the product alone is not sufficient evidence of the quality of the thinking processes that produced it.

The discussions of the new assessment models in much of the education reform literature are admittedly quite polemic, with authentic assessment cast as the hero and standardized, paper-and-pencil tests as the villain. Some of the more salient distinctions drawn are the following (Haney and Madaus 1989; Wiggins 1990; among others).

- First, authentic assessments are viewed as “direct” measures of student performance since tasks are designed to incorporate the contexts, problems, and solution strategies that students would use in real life. Traditional standardized tests, in contrast, are seen as “indirect” measures since test items are designed to “represent competence” by extracting knowledge and skills from their real-life contexts.

- Second, items on standardized instruments tend to test only one domain of knowledge or skill so as to avoid ambiguity for the test taker. Authentic assessment tasks are by design “ill-structured challenges” (Frederiksen, 1984), since their goal is to help students prepare for the complex ambiguities of the adult world.

- Third, authentic assessments focus on processes and rationales. There is no single correct answer; instead, students are led to craft polished, thorough, and justifiable responses, performances, and products. Traditional tests, on the other hand, are one-time measures that rely on a single correct response to each item; they offer no opportunity for demonstration of thought processes, revision, or interaction with the teacher. Because they usually require brief responses which are often machine-scored, students construct their responses in only the most minimal way and often by only plugging in a piece of knowledge. There is limited potential for traditional tests to measure higher-order thinking skills since, by definition, those skills involve analysis, interpretation, and multiple perspectives. I remember well from my “previous life” as a test developer that it was almost impossible to write interpretive or thoughtfully analytical multiple-choice items that had one and only one correct response.

- Fourth, the new assessment models involve long-range projects, exhibits, and performances that are linked to the curriculum. Students are aware of how and on what knowledge and skills they are to be assessed. Assessment is conceived of as both an evaluative device and a learning activity. Traditional tests, in contrast, must be kept under lock and key so students do not have knowledge about or access to them ahead of time. Thus, traditional tests may seek to improve student performance in a general way via the washback effect (they will study in a particular way in the hope that this will improve their test performance) but there is virtually no way that students can “learn by doing” while taking a traditional test in the way that they learn while engaging in a performance-based assessment.

- Fifth, in the new assessment models, the teacher is an important collaborator in creating tasks as well as in developing guidelines for scoring and interpretation. Teachers may write traditional tests for their own students and are then responsible for fitting the content and format of the test to the curriculum, but many large-scale tests are developed externally and do not involve at all the teachers whose students are being evaluated. In addition, little or no teacher judgment is required to decide whether a response on a traditional test is correct or incorrect. All of this promotes greater distance between teachers and traditional assessment activities in general and has historically made the study of assessment a pretty dry and unappealing topic in teacher education programs.

- Finally, there is the sticky area of **validity** and **reliability**, both of which are essential features of good assessment instruments. **Validity** has to do with the faithfulness of a test to its purpose; in other words, how well it measures what it actually purports to measure. **Reliability** refers to the consistency and precision of test scores, in other words, how closely the score an individual gets on a particular assessment measure reflects what could be considered his or her “true score.” Traditional tests can’t be beaten when it comes to reliability, not to mention efficiency. When responses are obviously right or wrong, there is little chance that the scores on a test will vary between one rater and another or if the student takes two parallel versions of the same test. This means that traditional tests lend themselves to a wide range of statistical analyses and comparisons because we can be fairly confident that the true score on a test is very close to the reported score.

The new assessments, on the other hand, are by design ill-structured, messy, open-ended, and complex. And the designers of these authentic assessments *like* that this is the case. Because authentic assessments involve students constructing complex, open-ended responses, those who use them will have to struggle with issues of reliability. In Vermont, for example, where portfolios are being used for the evaluation of student work in language arts and math, the reliability of the portfolio scores is high enough for educators to make statements about aggregated student performance at the state level where the overall numbers are large. It is not, however, high enough for them to make statements with the same degree of confidence about student performance at the district, school, or individual levels. This enables educators in Vermont to look at trends in overall student performance in the state over time but does not give them trustworthy data to rank individual students or to compare the performance of one school to another. This is probably just as well for reasons I will address shortly.

Where authentic, performance-based assessments shine is when it comes to validity. They reflect real-life tasks as well as the multi-faceted character of curriculum and pedagogy in ways that a one-shot evaluation cannot. To use an analogy, an authentic assessment is like a videotape of student learning whereas a traditional test is more like a single snapshot.

Authentic assessments have been criticized for their subjectivity; this refers largely to the reliability issue, and it is certainly true that it is far more difficult to develop standards for evaluation and apply them consistently across a group of portfolios, oral performances or research projects than it is to do the same for a paper-and-pencil test. But the apparent objectivity of traditional tests hides a host of unanswered, and often unasked, questions: Who selected the domains of knowledge to be tested? On what basis? Why were the omitted domains left out? The biases that underlie the development and evaluation of alternative assessments are right there on the surface to be seen, critiqued and, we hope, addressed and corrected whereas the biases built into traditional tests usually go undetected because they are hidden beneath the surface-level meanings of the test items which in isolation might seem just fine.

If we think about the kinds of foreign language assessments that could be classified as “authentic” or “performance-based” assessments, what would they be? If in the courses you teach or have taken, students have worked on a research project that had stages to it (where they turned in drafts and had conferences with you and where the learning over time was documented as part of the project) in addition to the final product, then that was an example of an authentic assessment. If a group of students wrote a skit, got feedback on drafts of the script, staged it and performed it, that would also be an authentic assessment. What I am talking about is a multi-stage project that involves reiterative rounds of planning, researching, and producing language, culminating in a product or a performance.

What about oral proficiency assessments like the TOPT, used in Texas for bilingual and foreign language teacher certification, or an ACTFL oral proficiency interview? Are these authentic assessments? Using the concept of authentic assessments as Wiggins and others have, they are marginal since they are one-shot events that don’t allow for demonstration of both process and product the way a project-oriented assessment does. But given the practical difficulties of measuring foreign language speaking ability, I think we should consider oral proficiency interviews and tests like the TOPT to be as authentic as a speaking skills assessment is likely to be.

Let us now return to the notion that tests can exert a positive influence on instruction--as long as they are the right kinds of tests. Authentic assessments at the state level are being coupled with the National Standards in the various subject areas in several states, including Texas; do we not have a public mandate to finally reform education in the right way? On the face of the issue, who could argue with the notion of measurement-driven instruction when the measurement of student learning is accomplished by means of performance-based, multi-faceted, project-oriented assessments? If measurement-driven instruction can be, and has been, a negative force in education, can it not be an equally powerful force for positive educational reform to expand the curriculum and expand learning opportunities for students?

These are some of the questions that I would like to consider now. Although authentic assessment has much to recommend it, we must keep in mind that it does not exist in isolation. Assessment, like the entire educational enterprise, is embedded in and shaped by the social and political environment that surrounds it. So while performance-based assessments are extremely appealing--there is no question about that--the real question is whether the politics of education, the underfunding of schools that results in overstretched human and material resources, and the shortcuts that must be made for practical reasons when it comes to assessing the skills and knowledge of large numbers of students will leave enough room and fresh air for authentic assessments to flower and mature.

I would like now to analyze two case studies of places where authentic assessment programs are being used as a lever for positive change in education. The first is Arizona, which instituted state-wide performance assessments of elementary and secondary school children in language arts and math. This case study reveals the mess that is made when assessment is used both for instructional improvement *and* as a tool of state-level electoral politics. The second case is the use of the TOPT in Texas to improve instruction in the language departments of the colleges and universities that train future bilingual and foreign language teachers.

I will start with Arizona. Prior to 1990, mandated assessments in Arizona were of the traditional type: schools tested every child, every year, using standardized, norm-referenced tests (e.g., the Iowa Test of Basic Skills) as well as criterion-referenced assessments. Results were published by school and by grade level, and newspapers ranked schools according to test results. Given the high stakes involved in these assessments--school rankings affected community reputation, which affected real estate values, and so on--many districts aligned their entire curriculum to the tests and spent an inordinate amount of time in preparation for them (Haas, Haladyna, & Nolen, 1989). But in 1990, a new assessment plan was put into effect to counteract the negative effects of the tests on students, teachers, curriculum, and instructional time. The new program, called ASAP, the Arizona Student Assessment Program, reduced standardized testing to just three grades and introduced new performance assessments in grades 3, 8, and 12.

Since the crafting of any state-level policy involves satisfying numerous constituencies, the final product was an amalgam of goals that turned out to be quite problematic. One constituency, the educators, lobbied for the new performance assessments with the hope that they would make curriculum and pedagogy more learner-centered and holistic in nature. The other powerful constituency, the politicians, insisted on school and district accountability; hence the continuation of the standardized tests. Following only one year of pilot administration and scoring and a single study of the reliability and validity of the performance test, the new ASAP program was implemented throughout the state. The state department of education created and distributed to schools more than 200 different forms of reading, writing, and mathematics performance-based tests for use as instructional activities and assessment so that teachers could begin to realign their curricula and teaching with the new assessments.

Districts were still required to indicate student progress toward mastery of the Arizona Essential Skills at every grade but now had more options for testing. They could report results on the old criterion-referenced tests, one of the many alternative forms of the new performance assessments that districts received from the state, or a portfolio assessment.

What we can see is that the state department of education tried to combine two different assessment functions, **instructional improvement** and **district accountability**. These two functions do not form a happy or easy partnership under any circumstances. According to a 1994 report, at that point **accountability and standardization** were quickly taking the upper hand, and instructional improvement at the classroom level was largely being ignored. Why was this? In my opinion, the **high stakes** attached to the assessments were to blame. The performance assessments were intended to expand and integrate the curriculum, but the fact that districts still had to report scores for every student at every grade level every year meant that pressures for standardization were immediately re-imposed. Students took the test on the same day under timed conditions; teachers' roles as mediators and facilitators were

restricted; and the kind of collaborative work students had been learning to do with each other in class was instantly re-labeled as “cheating.” To deal with the scoring reliability issue, the state department of education issued scoring criteria so that the richness and complexity of students’ responses were reduced to a number on a 5-point scale. After the pilot study and first year of statewide implementation of the new assessments, results were published in the old, familiar format. Scores were reported according to mean, median, and standard deviation as well as by gender and race or ethnicity. District scores for reading, writing and mathematics once again became headline news in Arizona newspapers as officials bemoaned the low scores and called for further school reform.

What does this story tell us? I think it raises a number of issues that go far beyond this particular case.

First, and perhaps most basic, educational policy is political big business. As we go up the line in education, from the student to the classroom teacher to the building administrator to the district to the state, ultimately educational policy is not about doing what is right for our nation’s children but is most fundamentally an arm of electoral politics. Educational issues get media attention precisely because they frequently are (or they can be manipulated to become) hot-button issues that can sway public opinion toward or against high-level elected officials.

The second issue that this story raises is our time-honored belief in measurement-driven instruction. It is clear that the almost instantaneous distortion of the instructional reform that the assessment program in Arizona had been instituted to encourage--students working collaboratively, teachers taking on the role of guides and mediators for student-directed learning, significant discovery-based, project-oriented refocusing of the curriculum--was almost immediately converted and pushed into a standardized testing framework. This happened simply because schools were still being judged in the media and in political rhetoric according to the ranking of schools which, in turn, was based on the assessment results of individual students.

Resnick & Resnick (1989, as cited by Noble & Smith, 1994, p. 116), proponents of testing as agents of educational change and believers in teaching to the test, have asserted three principles that underlie the ability of performance assessments to promote educational reform. First, you get what you assess; second, you do not get what you do not assess; and third, you should build assessments toward how you want educators to teach. Their argument is that since teaching to the test is accepted by teachers as necessary for their survival, policy makers can use this dynamic to their advantage, even in contexts of high-stakes accountability. They also argue that policy makers can use performance-based assessments to push teachers and school administrators to reform curriculum and instruction in ways that are consonant with the new, challenging state and national standards.

But look at what happened in Arizona. Performance assessments came head-to-head with high-stakes accountability, and in the end, accountability (the immediate pressure to show good statistics) won. Resnick & Resnick’s principles seem to be missing something.

What they are missing is a different dynamic, summarized best in the six principles on the impact of measurement-driven reform that have been proposed by Madaus, yet another educational policy critic. What Madaus says is that no matter how good the assessment is on its own merits, if the stakes of test performance are perceived to be high, teachers will narrow the focus of the curriculum, and instruction will become increasingly more like test preparation and less like fostering and guiding learning. The goal of educational improvement, the whole reason for designing and implementing the assessment in the first place, will be confounded with the means (which is improved student test performance). Ultimately, says Madaus, even the best assessment program, precisely because it is a high-stakes test, will come to distort the very educational processes that it was intended to improve and expand. When test results are the arbiter of future educational or life choices for students or of significant negative or positive publicity for schools, as in Arizona, everyone tends to treat the assessment results as the major goal of schooling rather than as a useful but fallible indicator of student achievement (Madaus, 1988).

This brings me to the case of language competency assessment as a component of foreign language and bilingual teacher certification in Texas. As many of you know, the TOPT (the Texas Oral Proficiency Test) was the result of almost a decade of high-quality work in the state. It was developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics with input from teachers, administrators, parents, and community members--everyone who had a stake in the linguistic competence of language and bilingual teachers. The test development process was careful and thorough, and the piloting process took place in stages and was not rushed. In other words, the validity of the test was respected and even nurtured throughout the process. The rating process was also done well with the utmost care and attention to issues of reliability. It was implemented for the first time in 1992. As a test development effort, it was among the best I have seen or heard about.

Still, the TOPT is a high-stakes test so it is vulnerable to Madaus' Six Principles. Let us take a look at what has happened over the last five years and what seems to be looming on the horizon. I will focus only on Spanish, because the lion's share of the TOPTs administered in this state each year are for Spanish. In 1995-96, for example, 87 percent of the TOPTs were taken in Spanish, and 13 percent were in French.

The problem that emerged almost immediately was that the percentage of teacher candidates who passed the TOPT was low: in the first year, 83 percent passed, but when it was broken down by self-reported ethnicity, the passing rate for Hispanics was 87 percent, but for non-Hispanics was 57 percent. The passing score was set at Advanced for two main reasons. First, in the opinion of the language professionals who participated in the development effort and who were familiar with the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines, it was the appropriate level for beginning teachers. Second, and this is very interesting, the development effort included a standard-setting study in which native speakers of Spanish, representative of all of the constituencies who had a stake in the language competency of bilingual and foreign language teachers, listened to samples of speech from a draft version of the TOPT that were arranged in random order on a tape. For each sample, they had to make a yes-no decision: Is a person who speaks Spanish like this capable of teaching a bilingual class or a Spanish as a foreign language class? The results of the standard-setting study undeniably showed that the participants chose those of the advanced level; speech samples that had been rated lower than Advanced were considered unacceptable by the raters.

Even after several years of experience with the TOPT, the passing scores are still low, even lower, in fact, than they were when the TOPT was new. In 1995-96, the most recent complete year for which data are available, the passing rate for Hispanic candidates remained very high at 88 percent, but for non-Hispanics it had dropped to a very disturbing 35 percent.

What does this mean? On the face of it, it means that two-thirds of students whose primary contact with the Spanish language is through their academic course work in post-secondary institutions in Texas are not reaching the Advanced level of proficiency. Why is this? We don't really know, but it doesn't take a rocket scientist to formulate some hypotheses. First, it can be assumed that not very many of them study abroad and second, that their college Spanish programs are not providing the kind of intensive and extensive input and output work needed to bring learners to the Advanced level of oral proficiency.

What has been the response to this situation? Predictably, high-stakes accountability mechanisms have kicked in. A concern for teacher-certification test performance in all fields motivated the Texas Legislature to establish the Accountability System for Educator Preparation Programs (ASEP) and to direct the State Board for Educator Certification to establish standards to "govern the continuing accountability of all educator preparation programs" (State Board for Educator Certification). These standards, currently in preparation, entail using both the results of certification examinations and a performance appraisal measure for beginning teachers as indicators of the quality of teacher preparation programs. As outlined by statute, the status of programs whose graduates fall short of the standards will be in jeopardy:

- (c) The board shall propose rules establishing performance standards for the Accountability System for Educator Preparation for accrediting educator preparation programs.... The board shall propose rules for the sanction of educator preparation programs and shall annually review the accreditation status of each educator preparation program.
- (d) The executive director of the board shall appoint an oversight team of educators to make recommendations and provide assistance to educator preparation programs that do not meet accreditation standards. If, after one year, an educator preparation program has not fulfilled the recommendations of the oversight team, the executive director shall appoint a person to administer and manage the operations of the program. If the program does not improve after two years, the board shall revoke the approval of the program to prepare educators for state certification. (Texas Education Code, Chapter 21, Subchapter B, §21.045, as cited in State Board for Educator Certification)

If the legislation stands in its current form, the TOPT will take on an even more powerful role than it currently enjoys. Up until now, those affected by an institution's low passing score were the individual students, many of whom find themselves in the uncomfortable situation of having satisfied all of their institution's requirements for graduation as a language major and an educator, only to find that their accomplishments do not translate into a score of Advanced on the TOPT. But with the legislation I just cited comes much higher stakes, this time for the post-secondary institutions that prepare foreign language and bilingual teachers.

What will the effect of the legislation be, if in fact it goes through in something like its current form? I invite you to consider the very real possibility that Madaus's Principles 2 and 3 will start work upon the educational landscape. Surely deans and vice presidents of colleges and universities, fearful that their foreign language teacher preparation programs will be shut down, will bring pressure to bear on their language departments to change their curricula and instructional approaches so that a higher percentage of their students will pass the TOPT. But there has been no talk of a new allocation of resources to allow for the requirement of students to spend a semester in Latin America as part of their teacher preparation work. Nor has there been a movement for this preparation work for the professional development of the language faculty, many of whom profess a belief in communicative language teaching but who run their own classes in ways very contradictory to those professed beliefs. Nor, to my knowledge, has anyone dared mention the obvious fact that faculty members in literature will also need to retool themselves pedagogically so that their upper-division undergraduate courses become forums for high-level communicative language teaching. There is no doubt in my mind that the Texas legislation has been drafted with the best of intentions. If I could read the minds of the legislators and those who have advised them, I would imagine them to be saying something like this:

The TOPT is a good test — it has been carefully designed and validated to correspond to the linguistic demands of language teaching, and it is consonant with standards set by national foreign language professional organizations. It is the perfect mechanism to forcefully encourage (to put it delicately) language departments to expand their curricula and update their pedagogical approaches. If they don't wake up and smell the coffee, we will shut down the teacher certification program and they will lose a large number of their majors. Surely this will get their attention.

And in principle it should. But consider Resnick & Resnick's first and second principles: **You get what you assess, and You don't get what you don't assess.** Consider also Madaus's third principle: **In every setting where a high-stakes test operates, a tradition of past tests develops which eventually de facto defines the curriculum.** This proposed legislation is tantamount to a directive to

language departments to redefine the goal of their undergraduate Spanish major as the ability to attain a score of Advanced on the TOPT. Given the time pressures and lack of resources to consider how to save the baby while throwing out the bathwater, desperate language faculties, particularly at smaller institutions, might decide to eliminate the content richness of their upper-division courses — the literature and civilization courses — and replace them with language practice courses. When looked at as the sum total of what a beginning Spanish teacher should know and be able to do, and not as the baseline linguistic competence for beginning teachers (or just another component of a Spanish major), a rating of Advanced on the TOPT looks like an awfully poor excuse for the goals of an undergraduate Spanish major.

Another danger that I see from the proposed legislation is that open warfare will break out between language department faculty and faculty members in education. If an institution loses its accreditation to prepare foreign language teachers, the jobs that will be in the most immediate jeopardy will be those of the faculty in education departments. But who controls the fate of these faculty members? Not they themselves but their colleagues in another department or even another college if it is a large university. And there is no history of warm and fuzzy collegial collaboration between language faculty and education faculty.

Do I see anything other than doom and gloom in this situation? A little bit: the good news is that there are some signs in Texas institutions of the positive washback effect the TOPT can have. I would define a “positive washback effect of the TOPT” in modest terms at this point: carefully conceived courses and programs that anticipate and support students’ performance on the TOPT by integrating language skill development with other aspects of a future teacher’s preparation. UT-Austin, our host for this conference, for example, now offers a course in advanced Spanish conversation that is based on principles of discourse analysis. Students analyze the rhetorical structure of various types of printed and oral texts and then construct their own discourse on the same models. Students develop skills of rhetorical organization and practice impromptu oral performances, both of which can be applied on the TOPT. Another faculty member in the same department, Sharon Foerster, conducts an intensive three-week course in Mexico that she designed for Intermediate High speakers who are planning to take the TOPT (Foerster, Personal communication).

The upper-division Spanish offerings at UT-San Antonio have undergone more extensive revision. A fifth-semester composition and conversation course has been added as a required bridge course between the language requirement sequence and upper-division courses in literature, civilization, and advanced language. Two conversation courses have been added, one a junior-level course that sequences language tasks by proficiency level and the other a senior-level public-speaking course. The department has also created two courses in advanced writing and one in advanced reading. Requirements for the major have undergone some changes as well; students must take a minimum of nine semester hours of advanced language courses to complement their content courses in literature and civilization. The department has instituted an oral assessment that students take as juniors when they declare their intention to seek teaching certification. The results of the assessment are used solely for advising, not for entrance or exit.

Interestingly enough, both the UT-Austin and UT-San Antonio initiatives have taken place in a low-stakes environment. The new courses and programs were designed and introduced simply in response to the low passing score data, considerably before the proposed legislation was drafted and publicized. They have had the luxury of time to study the situation, consider the options, gather opinions from colleagues and administrators, and then decide on a course of action that fits the needs of the students and the areas of expertise of the faculty. But institutions that are facing the same need to change in a high-stakes environment will be pushed into an unreflexive decision-making mode because they will perceive the situation as a high-stakes emergency.

Barbara González Pino (Personal communication) has been gathering data on teacher education

in Texas since 1994. In the first phase of the research, she asked language department faculty to respond to a questionnaire about their teaching philosophy and pedagogical practices. In the second phase, she and her collaborators observed language classes at various levels in all of the institutions in the state that have foreign language teacher preparation programs. They found that the communicative language teaching philosophies reported in the questionnaires did not correspond to observed classroom practices. The typical classroom they observed was teacher-centered; students had limited opportunities to speak and even fewer opportunities to produce the kind of extemporaneous, extended discourse that characterizes the TOPT. They also found that some faculty members were allowing their students to take the TOPT as juniors, a practice that puts these students at a disadvantage compared to those who take the test for the first time after 4-6 additional courses in their language major.

I hope that through these case studies I have built a convincing case for the inherent dangers of teaching to the test, particularly in the high-stakes environment that characterizes so much assessment activity. The question that now remains to address is: What can we do as second language instructors to keep our teaching from being distorted by the high-stakes pressures of external assessment mandates?

- First, some guidelines for those of you who are graduate teaching assistants or future teachers: Learn all you can about testing and assessment. Take a course or, if the kind of course you think you need doesn't exist, ask for one enthusiastically and persuasively until you get someone to offer it. When you make your own tests, give them as much of the flavor of authentic assessments as you can. Learn how to evaluate free responses reliably, experiment with portfolios and journals, find ways to evaluate students in groups where collaboration among the students is a component of the evaluation. Are the stakes high? Not very, but beware of pressures on you to reduce your testing and teaching to things that are right or wrong. The biggest pressures for shrinking of the curriculum and reducing the scope of evaluation may be time (it is a lot quicker to grade fill-in-the-blanks than free responses) and concern about your student evaluations.

- For elementary and secondary teachers: Keep the stakes low by following the example of UT-Austin and UT-San Antonio and start now to orient your in-service and other professional development energy to learning all you can about the new alternative assessments. Build a critical mass of teachers in languages and other subject areas who want to experiment with portfolio assessments, multi-disciplinary instructional projects, and various forms of holistic assessment. Become the local experts in this area, and when the time comes for state-mandated assessments in foreign languages, volunteer to work on them. In other words, keep control over the assessment of your students by being at the cutting edge.

- For post-secondary faculty: Increase your commitment to reflexive teaching. Reflect on your teaching; videotape your classes and analyze your performance in light of your beliefs about communicative language teaching. Are you practicing what you preach? Ask a colleague who has a reputation as an excellent language instructor to observe your classes and visit your colleague's classes; then talk openly about what you saw, particularly about the degree of correspondence between your intentions and the implementation. If you teach upper-division courses, work to make them student-centered; set realistic expectations for students' oral production, focusing particularly on the language functions that characterize the Advanced level.

It is clear that the challenge that all of us are facing is to become proactive assessors. We live in an age of assessment, but an age in which the stakes of assessment are so high that these new alternative, authentic, performance-based assessments come to have all of the negative features of traditional standardized tests and run the risk of being used in ways that are contradictory to their initial purpose. Becoming proactive in our approach to these new assessments is, in the final analysis, our best aid in walking the tightrope of high-stakes accountability while at the same time keeping as our first priority the curricular and pedagogical innovations that will expand and enhance the educational experience of our students.

## SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON ISSUES IN ASSESSMENT

- Buck, K., Byrnes, H., & Thompson, I., Eds.(1989). *The ACTFL oral proficiency interview tester training manual*. Yonkers, NY: ACTFL.
- Courts, P.L., & McInerney, K.H. (1993). *Assessment in higher education: Politics, policy, and portfolios*. Westport: Praeger.
- Haney, W., and Madaus, G. (1989). Searching for alternatives to standardized tests: Whys, whats, and whithers. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 70, 9:683-687.
- Hiebert, F., & Calfee, R.C. (1992). Assessment of literacy: From standardized tests to performances and portfolios. In A.E. Farstrup & S.J. Samuels (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Hiple, D., & Manley, J. (1987). Testing how well foreign language teachers speak: A state mandate. *Foreign Language Annals*, 20, 147-153.
- Lafayette, R.C., Ed. (1996). *National standards: A catalyst for reform. ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series*. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Liskin-Gasparro, J.E. (1995). Practical approaches to outcomes assessment: The undergraduate major in foreign languages and literatures. *ADFL Bulletin*, 26, 2, 21-27.
- Madaus, G.F. (1988). The distortion of teaching and testing: High-stakes teaching and testing. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 65, 3, 29-46.
- Madaus, G.F. (1988). The influence of testing on the curriculum. *Critical issues in curriculum*. 87<sup>th</sup> Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (pp. 83-121). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Madaus, G.F. (1998). Legal and professional issues in teacher-certification testing: A psychometric snark hunt. In J.V. Mitchell, Jr., S.L. Wise, & B.S. Plake (Eds.), *Assessment of teaching: Purposes, practices, and implications for the profession* (pp. 209-259). Buross-Nebraska Symposium on Measurement & Testing. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Madaus, G.F., & Kellaghan, T. (1993). Testing as a mechanism of public policy: A brief history and description. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 26, 6-10.
- Moore, Z.T. (1994). The portfolio and testing culture. In C. Hancock, (Ed.), *Teaching, testing, and assessment: Making the connection*. Northeast Conference Reports. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Noble, A.J., & Smith, M.L. (1994). Old and new beliefs about measurement-driven instruction: Build it and they will come. *Educational Policy*, 8, 112-136.

- Resnick, D.P. (1987). Expansion, quality, and testing in American education. In D. Bray & M.J. Belcher (Eds.), *Issues in student assessment*. New Directions for Community Colleges, 59. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Resnick, L.B., & Resnick, D.P. (1989). *Assessing the thinking curriculum: New tools for educational reform*. Chestnut Hill, MA: National Commission on Testing and Public Policy.
- Stansfield, C.W. (1990). A comparative analysis of simulated and direct oral proficiency interviews. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Regional Language Centre Conference, Singapore, April 1990.
- Stansfield, C.W., & Kenyon, D.M. (1991). *Development of the Texas oral proficiency test (TOPT): Final Report*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. ED332522.
- State Board for Educator Certification, State of Texas. *Development of the ASEP (Accountability System for Educator Preparation)*. Internal document. Austin, Texas: State Board for Educator Certification. 16 May 1997.
- Wiggins, G. (1989). A true test: Toward more authentic and equitable assessment. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 70, 9: 703-713.
- Wiggins, G. (1989). Teaching to the (authentic) test. *Educational Leadership*, 46, 7, 41-47.
- Wiggins, G. (1990). The case for authentic assessment. *ERIC Digest*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests, Measurement, and Evaluation.
- Wiggins, G. (1994). Toward more authentic assessment of language performances. In C. Hancock (Ed.), *Teaching, testing, and assessment: Making the connection*. Northeast Conference Reports. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

# Appendix E

## Student Self-Assessment Forms

Read the descriptions of tasks that you can do as a result of completing level I.  
Check the appropriate areas to rate yourself.

I can do the following:	Yes.	Yes, with help.	Not Yet.	Comments:
say my name and ask someone his/her name				
introduce one person to another				
give my phone and address; ask someone for his/hers				
give my age; ask someone for his/hers				
say where I'm from and state my nationality; ask someone the same about him/herself				
say what languages I speak; ask someone the same				
say hello and good-bye appropriately, both formally and casually				
address someone formally and casually (use <i>tu</i> and <i>vous</i> appropriately)				
respond to commands (open the book, stand up, etc.)				
name several areas where French is spoken				
list my family members				
ask and answer questions about family members				
talk about things I own (possession)				
list presence or absence of common objects: <i>there is / are...</i> and <i>there isn't / aren't any...</i>				
name the parts of the body				
briefly describe people				
say what I like and dislike to do				
ask and answer questions about preferences/wishes				
offer an invitation to do something with someone				
describe my daily routine				
narrate my typical day in logical order				
ask and answer questions about future plans				
ask simple questions about the above topics				
take notes and share that information				
use and understand numbers to the thousands				
say and ask the time and date				
say and ask who people are				
say and ask where people or things are				
ask and answer questions about the weather				

**Greenfield Community College Student Self Assessment of Foreign Language Performance**

Charlotte Gifford (Greenfield Community College) and Jeanne Mullaney (Community College of Rhode Island)



# Appendix F

## Additional Information on Program Goals, Communication Modes, and Progress Checkpoints

---

### Notes

#### A Note on

#### “Viewing” and “Showing”

**Viewing** means understanding and interpreting non-linguistic communication like gestures, seeing a presentation of a play (and not just reading it), observing cultural practices and manifestations (e.g., noticing that French windows are different from American windows), looking at cultural products, such as works of art, and gaining visual information in addition to linguistic information from advertisements and television programs. Interpretation is the communication mode used primarily for viewing.

**Showing** includes expressing understanding of non-linguistic elements such as gestures, demonstrations of cultural practices, (e.g., dances), using graphics and illustrations with presentations, and role-playing. Presentation is the communication mode used primarily for showing.

### The Five Program Goals and Communication Modes

#### Communication

Communication skills are the primary focus of language study. These skills include the usual skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as well as viewing and showing skills. Students develop communication skills by using knowledge of language and culture, communication strategies, learning strategies, and content from other subject areas. Through the Communication goal, students develop the skills necessary to manipulate the content of the other four Program Goals.

Communicative proficiency derives from control of three modes of communication: interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational. Students need practice in all three types of communication throughout a program in order to satisfy their most commonly expressed reason for taking a language class: to learn to communicate.

#### *Interpersonal mode:*

In the interpersonal mode, there is direct exchange of communication between individuals, either listeners and speakers, or readers and writers. This mode calls for active negotiation of meaning among the individuals and requires a natural pattern of adjustment and clarification in order to achieve successful communication. Both receptive skills (listening and reading, sometimes enhanced by viewing) and productive skills (speaking and writing, sometimes enhanced by showing) are required in the interpersonal mode.

*Interpretive mode:*

The interpretive mode includes the receptive skills of listening and reading. The communicative source (e.g., the author, speaker, or actor) is not present or accessible; therefore, negotiation of meaning is not possible. The listener or reader must determine the meaning by using prior knowledge of the language and culture, personal knowledge about the subject, learning strategies, and, perhaps, reference materials. Interpretation of any medium is enhanced by viewing, whether of pictures, staging, setting, or body language.

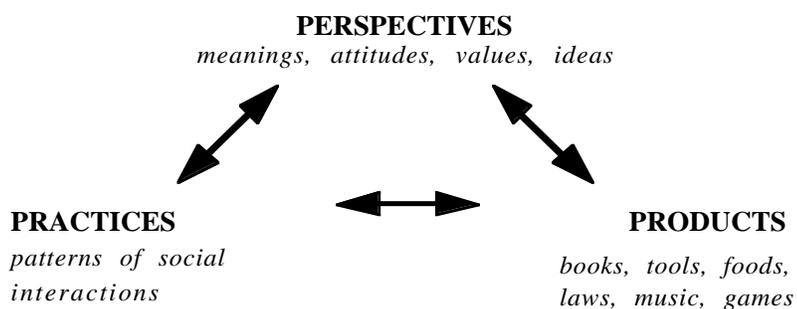
*Presentational mode:*

The presentational mode calls for the creation of formal messages, public speaking or an editorial, for example, to be interpreted by listeners or readers where there is no opportunity for active negotiation of meaning between listeners and speakers or readers and writers. The productive skills (speaking and writing) are used in this mode. The presentational mode is enhanced by the showing of non-linguistic elements such as photographs, gestures, demonstrations of cultural practices (e.g., dances, sports), the use of graphics or illustrations, and role-playing.

### Cultures

Students learn about and experience other cultures as an integral part of studying languages other than English. This includes studying and experiencing the following three cultural components of a society:

- Perspectives:* The way people perceive things; their attitudes and values
- Practices:* What people do; their patterns of behavior
- Products:* What people create, both tangible and intangible: their literature, art, music, tools, food, laws, games, etc.



### Notes

Note: Grasping the “perspectives-practices-products” concept has been challenging for many teachers of LOTE. This diagram has been quite helpful in explaining the concept. You may wish to draw it on a transparency as you discuss the Cultures Program Goal.

---

## Notes

*Products* include both the great accomplishments of a culture and the institutions that characterize how the society functions. This element has been referred to as “Big C” culture and includes art, music, dance, drama, poetry, and literature, as well as social, economic, and political systems.

Cultural *practices* are also a vital component of communication. Inappropriate body language can convey an unintended meaning even when the words are correct (e.g., a gesture intended to be a “good-bye wave” could be confused with the “come here” gesture in Italian). Unexpected behavior can cause one to misinterpret someone else’s meaning (e.g., arriving “late” to an appointment may mean only that the person has a different understanding of time).

Learning about and understanding cultures increases student motivation to learn the language, fosters divergent thinking, and connects language learning to other subject areas. In addition, the Program Goal of Cultures provides knowledge to enhance any future contacts with native speakers of the language studied, either informal (through friends or travel experiences) or formal (in business or professional contexts).

Using products, practices, and perspectives to frame the study of culture represents a relatively new way of thinking about culture for most language teachers. *Perspectives*, in particular, may be a difficult concept to grasp. In fact, not all teachers of LOTE will know all of the perspectives of a given culture, e.g., their values and attitudes. Yet understanding how people view things, perspectives, is integral to understanding practices and products because perspectives often determine the manifestations of the practices and products. (For example, in the U.S., attitudes about time and food determine a product — fast food — and a practice — getting food from a drive-through window.) The goal is to teach about observing and analyzing cultural information in order to determine what the perspectives of individuals and groups in the culture are. Studying the cultural perspectives behind the behavioral patterns of people in that culture (practices) and behind the tangible and intangible creations of art; literature; dance; music; and social, economic, and political institutions (products) creates a balanced approach to understanding a culture.

Because novice level students may not have sufficient knowledge of the language to use it exclusively to discuss culture, teachers may choose to use English to help students

---

understand and discuss the perspectives behind cultural practices and products. Students can then apply this knowledge in tasks matched to their ability to use the language, such as listing practices that are common among speakers of English, speakers of the language being studied, or speakers in both cultures. Intermediate and advanced level students, however, would use the language to learn about culture through the interpretation and discussion of authentic materials. For example, while novice level students might speak in English about why *Día de los Muertos* (Day of the Dead) is an important ritual in Mexico before applying that knowledge by matching contrasting phrases as descriptive of Mexico or of the United States, intermediate and advanced level students would interpret the unique cartoons and other *Día de los Muertos* features in Mexican newspapers through discussion in Spanish.

Resources that provide cultural information include videos, literature, periodicals, and guest speakers. Students should be made aware of the cultural context of language segments and taught to look for cultural information. As they role play, write stories, or conduct interviews, they should do so in a culturally-appropriate manner.

### **Connections**

Knowledge of other languages and cultures provides the tools and context for connecting with *other subject areas* such as health, social studies, sciences, mathematics, and English. Through Connections, students have *access to information* in the language and use the language to connect to other subject areas.

Acquiring languages other than English becomes more relevant and engaging to students when they acquire information that is pertinent to other disciplines and in-line with their personal interests. Using another language to connect with other disciplines provides learners with the skills and interests to look beyond the limits of their immediate circle of experience and to see how language skills apply to education and other real-world concerns. Language skills also provide students increased access to the whole range of information available internationally through print, the Internet, satellite technology, and video.

Students make connections in different ways at different grade levels. Because linguistic development (native language and other languages) and other cognitive development take place

**Notes**

---

## Notes

simultaneously in the early elementary grades, examples of Connections appropriate for younger learners could include learning the basic concepts of the solar system, the parts of a plant, or the life cycle of a butterfly completely in the second language. In middle school, students might experiment with Connections through a historical role-play using the second language. For example, German students could set up an Ellis Island-type immigration station with a twist — non-language students play the role of the immigrants in the late 1800's while German students operate the station in German. At the high school level, intermediate and advanced students often create their own personal connections, with the language teacher serving as a coach. Students may apply their second language skills to acquire information, such as materials on food exports in international agribusiness, original French research on leukemia, or recordings of contemporary Chinese musical opera.

In immersion and content-based language programs, students develop language skills by using the language as a medium for learning other school subjects. In LOTE programs, students not only connect to other subject areas, but use their new language to gain access to information available only in the language and to hear and read artistic works in their original, untranslated forms.

### Comparisons

Learning another language involves an implicit or explicit analysis of the *nature of language* and *concepts of culture*. A natural result of learning another language is the comparison of the language being learned with the native language. As a result of these comparisons, students focus, often for the first time, on how their own language functions (e.g., the use of gender or the placement of adjectives). They gain a deeper understanding of vocabulary through the study of cognates and derivatives. Such comparisons also highlight the differences between languages and help students to understand that there are many different ways to communicate the same idea. The insights gained from language comparisons enable students to be better language learners.

The same type of comparisons occur when it comes to cultures. Students learn about different traditions, customs, and practices, as well as discover that they share many things in common with people of another culture. Students realize how one culture can have an impact upon another culture.

---

Exploring cultural concepts with limited language skills requires activities that ask students to interpret materials for their main ideas and to present information in formats that match their language ability, such as listing for novice level learners. Activities can be designed that help students express complex cultural comparisons with simple language. For example, students can be asked to check their comprehension or insight on a cultural topic by responding to statements with a check in the appropriate column: this is common in the United States, this is common in the foreign country, or this is common in both cultures. As students progress through a LOTE program, their growing sophistication in cultural insights will be matched by their growing sophistication in using the LOTE.

## Notes

### **Communities**

Learning languages other than English occurs both *within and beyond the school*. It increases opportunities for participation in communities in Texas, in other states, and around the world. Students use languages to enhance their personal and public lives, for *personal enrichment* and *career development*.

Students may participate in Texas communities by attending cultural events or concerts, or visiting museums or exhibitions. As part of their language study, they may participate in or plan their own celebrations of the traditions of cultural and linguistic communities that are the same or different from their own. They may also use the language to converse with speakers of that language outside of class (e.g., helping a Spanish-speaking parent in the school office, or using Vietnamese to serve a patron at a restaurant). Students may also participate in communities in other states and around the world by traveling or by using technology to inform themselves about other places, peoples, and cultures.

In studying Communities, students learn how knowing more than one language is an asset for future career and business opportunities, and thus how it can expand their possibilities for employment. High school students may apply their language skills by tutoring elementary grade native speakers or by doing an internship during part of the school day in a business setting where the language being studied is used, such as in the international marketing section of a manufacturing company or in the international exchange center of a bank. In addition, knowing more than one language provides a means of future learning and personal enrichment. Regardless of the language studied, students of LOTE learn how to use languages to communicate across cultural borders, a skill that is applicable throughout one's life.

## Progress Checkpoints for LOTE

Language proficiency is not developed in a strict linear progression, a progression of equal-sized blocks of material learned and tested. Rather, language proficiency develops when practice is guided repeatedly over time to help students gain confidence and fluency in different language functions. Teachers plan classroom activities to help students get closer and closer to authentic use of language structures and vocabulary, knowing that students' experimentation with language will falter as structured support (such as written sheets to guide pair work) is removed, but will then progress again as students stretch to creatively apply their language tools. In this section, Progress Checkpoints along the path of proficiency are described. These checkpoints cannot be precisely equated with year-long courses, since experience makes clear that students do not neatly reach a new checkpoint at the end of each school year. The pathway is constant, but the time it takes each student to reach each checkpoint is not. These Progress Checkpoints help guide the teacher and students to know first the goals for designing developmental activities and second the signs showing that students are reaching a given checkpoint. In this way, the Progress Checkpoints will guide curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

The Progress Checkpoints in the TEKS for LOTE represent different learning stages also known as proficiency levels (Novice, Intermediate, and Advanced). An inverted triangle is often used to show that as students advance from Progress Checkpoint to Progress Checkpoint, the amount of time and practice needed to reach the next stage increases. A student can move relatively quickly through the early stage of mimicking memorized words and phrases, a stage that is limited, controlled, and comfortable. To move into later stages, characterized by flexible, challenging, and creative use of language, requires longer periods of practice and an increasingly meaningful volume of experiences.

Gaining proficiency is a process that requires repeated exposure and opportunities to practice new language functions, vocabulary, and structures; to receive feedback; and to use skills in increasingly sophisticated contexts. A topic introduced at one level might reappear in the next as a challenge in a new context; learners reach for the next level as they begin to control the tasks of the present level. "Mastery" does not come two or three weeks after material is introduced,

---

but rather after the student has had many opportunities to practice the material in meaningful ways. In addition, students do not “wake up” one day having changed Progress Checkpoints; instead, they move through stages within the Progress Checkpoint (e.g., novice-low, novice-mid, novice-high) as they progress toward the next Progress Checkpoint by showing increasing control over and consistency in the use of the language proficiency characteristics at the next checkpoint.

### ***A Word on Accuracy***

Accuracy is the degree to which communication is structurally correct and culturally appropriate. In real-life situations, communication occurs without complete structural precision, that is, grammar mistakes do not necessarily equate to lack of communication. However, a high degree of accuracy, including communicating in a socially and culturally appropriate manner, is very important to achieving high levels of proficiency.

At different levels of proficiency, students exhibit different degrees of accuracy. Novices, for example, may repeat memorized phrases with nearly perfect grammar and pronunciation. As they begin to combine these learned phrases in an effort to build more creative ones, accuracy initially declines. Temporary fluctuations in accuracy normally accompany increases in skill development. As students grow more secure in their understanding of another culture, their ability to behave in culturally appropriate ways increases. The overall goal is to gradually use and mesh cultural and linguistic skills with increasing accuracy in order to obtain a high level of language proficiency.

### ***Progress Checkpoint Descriptions***

Progress Checkpoints describe what students should know and be able to do at the end of each level of proficiency. They provide an overall view of the expectations for student performance at critical points along the language learning continuum. As students progress, they may experiment with and show some ability in language characteristics normally beyond their proficiency level; however, for most students their consistent and independent use of the language follows the progression from Novice, through Intermediate, to Advanced. Progress Checkpoints will influence the design of class activities and assessment by providing a broad focus for the evaluation of student work.

**Notes**

---

## Notes

### *Novice level:*

Using age-appropriate activities, students develop the ability to perform the tasks of the novice language learner. The novice language learner, when dealing with familiar topics, should:

- understand short utterances when listening and respond orally with learned material;
- produce learned words, phrases, and sentences when speaking and writing;
- detect main ideas in familiar material when listening and reading;
- make lists, copy accurately, and write from dictation;
- recognize the importance of communicating in a culturally appropriate manner; and
- recognize the importance of acquiring accuracy of expression by knowing the components of language, including grammar.

### *Intermediate level:*

The intermediate language learner, when dealing with everyday topics, should:

- participate in simple face-to-face communication;
- create statements and questions to communicate independently when speaking and writing;
- understand main ideas and some details of material on familiar topics when listening and reading;
- understand simple statements and questions when listening and reading;
- meet limited practical and social writing needs;
- use knowledge of the culture in the development of communication skills;
- use knowledge of the components of language, including grammar, to increase accuracy of expression; and
- cope successfully in straightforward social and survival situations.

### *Advanced level:*

The advanced language learner, when dealing with events of the concrete world, should:

- participate fully in casual conversations in culturally appropriate ways;
- explain, narrate, and describe in past, present, and future time when speaking and writing;
- understand main ideas and most details of material on a variety of topics when listening and reading;

- 
- write coherent paragraphs;
  - cope successfully in problematic social and survival situations;
  - achieve an acceptable level of accuracy of expression by using knowledge of language components, including grammar; and
  - apply knowledge of culture when communicating.

(\* For an adaptation of these Progress Checkpoints for classical languages, see Appendix D of the Framework.)

**Notes**

# Appendix G

## Criteria for Authenticity

**Directions:** *Cut the following criteria for authenticity (from Grant Wiggins) into strips. Providing one statement to each pair or small group, ask them to first discuss, then summarize for the whole group.*

Wiggins, G. (1994). Toward more authentic assessment of language performances. In C. Hancock (Ed.). *Teaching, testing, and assessment* (pp. 75-76). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Co.

---

Authentic tests of intellectual performance involve...

1. **engaging and worthy problems** or questions of importance, in which students must use knowledge to fashion performances effectively and creatively; tasks are either replicas of or analogous to the kinds of problems faced by professionals in the field, or adult citizens and consumers.

Authentic tests of intellectual performance involve...

2. **faithful representations of the contexts** facing workers in a field of study, or **the real-life “tests” of adult life**; formal *options, constraints and access to resources* are apt as opposed to arbitrary; particularly the use of excessive secrecy, limits on methods, the imposition of arbitrary deadlines or restraints on the use of resources to rethink, consult, revise, etc.—all with the aim of making testing more efficient—should be minimized and evaluated.

Authentic tests of intellectual performance involve...

3. **non-routine and multi-staged tasks**; real problems; recall or “plugging in” is insufficient or irrelevant; problems require a repertoire of knowledge, hence, good judgment in determining which knowledge is apt when and where; and skill in prioritizing and organizing the phases of problem clarification and solution.

Authentic tests of intellectual performance involve...

4. tasks that require the student to **produce quality product and/or performance**.

Authentic tests of intellectual performance involve...

5. **transparent or demystified criteria and standards**; the test allows for thorough preparation, as well as accurate self-assessment and self-adjustment by the student; questions and tasks may be discussed, clarified and even appropriately modified, etc. through discussion with assessor and/or one's colleagues.

Authentic tests of intellectual performance involve...

6. **interaction between assessor and assessee**; tests ask the student to justify answers or choices, and often respond to follow-up or probing questions.

Authentic tests of intellectual performance involve...

7. **response-contingent challenges** where the *effect* of both process and product/performance (sensitivity to audience, situation and context) determine the quality of the result; thus, there is concurrent feedback and the possibility of self-adjustment during the test.

Authentic tests of intellectual performance involve...

8. **trained assessor judgment**, in reference to clear and appropriate criteria; an oversight or audit function exists; there is always the possibility of questioning and perhaps altering a result, given the open and fallible nature of the formal judgment.

Authentic tests of intellectual performance involve...

9. the search for **patterns of response**, in diverse settings, under differing constraints; emphasis is on the consistency of student work—the assessment of habits of mind in performance.