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**EFL Teachers' Multiple Assessment Practices: The Case of Three
Government Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa**

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**EFL Teachers' Multiple Assessment Practices: The Case of Three
Government Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa**

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature
(Graduate Program)**

**Presented in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)**

By

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This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Badima Belay Agenagnew, entitled EFL Teachers' Multiple Assessment Practices: The Case of Three Government Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa and submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for any degree to any university, and that all relevant sources used in the thesis have been fully acknowledged.

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EFL Teachers' Multiple Assessment Practices

Abstract of the Study

The main objective of this thesis was to describe and portray EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices in three government secondary schools in Addis Ababa. A total of 29 EFL teachers and 330 students participated in this case study. The study adopted a range of data collection methods including: classroom observation, teacher interview, document analysis, student focus group discussion and questionnaire. The research has addressed three main questions. These were how secondary school EFL teachers assess their students; what aspects of learning they assess; and for what specific purposes they use multiple classroom assessments. The main findings of the study are categorized in relation to these research questions. Regarding the first research question, the study found that sample EFL teachers frequently practiced less beneficial informal assessment actions such as, asking display oral questions, correcting and judging rather than more beneficial ones like observing process and metacognitive questioning. Their informal assessments also lacked student engagement. Moreover, formal assessments were not frequently administered in the sample schools and such assessments lacked to reflect an integral part of the material being taught. Both formal and informal classroom assessments also lacked to provide various feedback possibilities to students. In relation to the second research question, the study found that sample EFL teachers assessed only few non-cognitive factors. They commonly assessed students' motivation for learning and their personal details. They were not fully informed about their students' learning style preferences, their learning strategies, their self esteem and their classroom social behaviors. They also assessed only students' lower order cognitive skills (particularly their remembering and understanding abilities). In answering the third question, the study found that EFL teachers emphasized some formative purposes more than others. They mainly employed informal assessments for monitoring, motivating, managing behavior and providing feedback. In addition, they practiced formal assessments for three main purposes: to determine the final grades for their students; to encourage students to work harder; and to prepare students for the national exam. Lastly, the implications of such findings for EFL learning and recommendations are forwarded.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

Within the last few decades, the field of TEFL has witnessed a paradigm shift both in teaching and in assessment. The change in teaching has involved a shift of emphasis from a teacher-centered approach to teaching to a more student-centered approach. This major methodological change in EFL teaching has also shifted the focus of assessment from a traditional testing system to an alternative assessment system (Alderson, 2002; Bachman, 2002). Moreover, the focus of assessment has become assessing what students can do rather than what they cannot do (Gipps, 1994). Thus, in the new paradigm, EFL learners' success is gauged not only on the basis of once and for all tests at the end of a semester or year but also on the basis of multiple and continuous classroom assessment results.

Effective EFL teaching requires understanding about students' knowledge, skills, interests, attitudes and behaviors (Anderson, 1989). Any decisions that the teacher makes about his/her students should be based on solid foundations. However, teachers can only do this if they are able to assess their students through multiple assessment methods (Chan, 2008). A fairly reliable picture of a student's ability is built up when the teacher uses various kinds of assessments as no single assessment method is capable of fully describing students' ability or learning (Ibid). Regarding this, many educators have also claimed that teachers who implement multiple and continuous classroom assessments can provide successful instructions (Chan, 2008; Guskey, 2003; Brown, 2004).

In addition, variety in assessment techniques is a desirable quality, not just because different learning goals are amenable to assessment by different devices, but because the mode of assessment interacts in complex ways with the very nature of what is being assessed (Shepard, 2000). Shepard elaborates this by using the following example:

The ability to retell a story after reading it might be fundamentally a different learning construct than being able to answer comprehension questions about the story; both might be important instructionally. Therefore, even for the same learning objective, there are compelling

reasons to assess in more than one way, both to ensure sound measurement and to support development of flexible and robust understandings. (Shepard, 2000:48)

On the other hand, it has been repeatedly demonstrated that assessment influences both what students learn and what teachers teach. Some earlier scholars even go further by saying that what influenced students most is not the teaching but the assessment (Snyder, 1971; Miller and Parlett, 1974). Assessment-related activities used in the classroom convey important information about what is valued there, and hence have an influence on students' learning (Ames, 1992; Harlen & Crick, 2003). Accordingly, teachers assign a large amount of their classroom time to assessment-related activities (Harlen & Crick, 2003). Thus, when teachers' classroom assessments become an integral part of the instructional process and a central ingredient in their efforts to help students learn, the benefits of assessment for both students and teachers will be boundless.

Therefore, due to its important role in the teaching and learning process, researchers in the field have focused greater attention on classroom assessment (McMillan, Myran and Workman, 2002; Stiggins, 2002). In this regard, Rowntree (1987:1) suggests, "If we wish to discover the truth about an educational system, we must first look to its assessment procedures". Taking the above suggestions into consideration, in the current study, there is also a move to further understand EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices in order to improve EFL teaching and learning.

1.1.1. The Current English Language Syllabus for General Secondary Schools

English language education has a long history in the Ethiopian education system. It is closely related to the introduction of modern education into the country in the early 20th century (Dejenie, 1990). Although French was dominant and had served as the medium of instruction in the early stages of modern education in Ethiopia, later, the English language challenged French and took its role (Ibid). Currently, English is taught as a subject starting from Grade 1 and is used as a medium of instruction at the secondary and tertiary levels.

Secondary school system in Ethiopia is presently categorized into two cycles. The first cycle (General Secondary School) comprises Grades 9-10 and the second cycle (College Preparatory School) includes Grades 11-12. It is at Grade 9 that most Ethiopian students find the English language as a medium of instruction and face challenges of both language and academic knowledge.

For both secondary school cycles, the English language syllabuses are designed to enable students achieve sufficient mastery of the language that makes them capable of using the language effectively both as a subject and medium of instruction in secondary school (MOE, 2010). Particularly, the English language syllabus for Grade 9 specifies certain academic functions which the students need to master in order to be successful in a learning situation where English is used as the medium of instruction.

Grade 9 English for Ethiopia focuses on the development of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills for communication in a wide variety of contexts, informal to formal. It also focuses on the understanding and application of English grammar rules, as well as the development of English vocabulary (particularly subject-specific vocabulary that relates to other areas of secondary curriculum). Important sub-skills are developed throughout the course too, such as understanding and applying spelling rules; using a dictionary; and punctuating a written work correctly.

(MOE, 2010: viii)

Therefore, the Grade 9 English syllabus “focuses on all four language skills equally” (MOE 2010: viii). The syllabus also specifies certain social functions which the students should be able to understand and express appropriately in a variety of everyday or social situations. Moreover, psychological preparations (such as motivating students to learn and developing in them a positive attitude to language learning) are given due attention in the syllabus. Thus, throughout the course of the syllabus, there is a strong emphasis on engaging the students in ways that encourage them to discuss ideas, form opinions and apply their learning to the life beyond the classroom.

Regarding textbook tasks, Grade 9 English for Ethiopia is designed to encourage interaction amongst students through pair work, group work and whole class activities.

A balance is provided between interactive, communicative exercises in the form of discussion, debate, dialogue, role play and so on, and independent exercises in the form of composition writing, silent reading, grammar practice, etc. In this way, students learn and practise English which is meaningful to them and which has a real purpose and context. For this reason, the focus is on the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Grammar, vocabulary and social expressions are integrated into practice of these skills. (MOE, 2010: viii)

The Grade 9 English textbook which is currently in use is comprehensive in that it is designed for general English language teaching. The textbook has twelve units based around a topic. Each unit consists of several sections that cover a broad range of language skills. The sections include: (a) the introduction section (which introduces the topic and stimulates students' interest and curiosity); (b) the reading section (which often includes two reading passages and aims to develop students reading skills); (c) increase your word power section (which aims to encourage students acquire new words, understand how words are formed and apply spelling rules); (d) language focus section (which focuses on the understanding and use of grammar rules in English); (e) the speaking section (which demands students to communicate orally in English in different situations, both formal and informal); (f) the listening section (which aims to develop students' abilities to listen for general and specific information); (g) the writing section (where students learn to write for different purposes); and (h) study skills sections (that aims to develop students' independent study skill across the curriculum).

In general, “topics covered in Grade 9 English for Ethiopia ... are directly linked to other school subjects and reflect the national focus on Science and Technology. For reading and listening there is increasing use of authentic materials” (MOE 2010: viii).

1.1.2. EFL Assessment in General Secondary Schools (as prescribed in the syllabus)

The current English language syllabus for Grade 9 urges teachers to assess their students on a continuous basis by using assessment activities and revision units in the textbook. It also urges teachers to use unit end, semester end and end-of-year examinations in order to fully assess their students.

Regarding conducting continuous assessment during lessons, Grade 9 English Teacher's Guide states that teachers may assess their students informally (such as, informally monitoring the development of students' oral skills) during pair or group works. In doing so, teachers should decide which exercises they wish to collect for marking. At the end of every unit in the teacher's Guide, there are assessment exercises which are designed for this purpose.

Students can complete these exercises individually or in pairs or in small groups. They can do the exercises in their exercise books. [The teacher] Check them together afterwards by asking individuals to call out

their answers. You [the teacher] can write them on the board too. You should also make a note of what needs further revision, extension work or re-teaching. (MoE, 2010: xi)

Thus, it is important for teachers to plan beforehand what they want to assess and how they will assess it (MoE, 2010).

Concerning formal assessment methods, the Teacher's Guide also states:

There are four tests altogether that are designed to assess students' progress and to provide a record of their performance at regular stages during the year. They may be used for diagnostic purposes too, indicating those aspects of language that require remediation, further practice or re-teaching. (MoE, 2010: ix)

These tests appear after every third unit in the Student Book and take the format of a mini exam. The Teacher's Guide states that students should complete each of these tests within one 40-60 minutes lesson and they should complete it individually. Moreover, it is indicated in the Guide that the total mark for the tests is 60. The guide also recommends teachers to keep a record of each student's score and use it as a part of the final term/ year mark. However, these tests are intended not only for summative purposes but also for a variety of purposes including remediation and checking progress.

In addition to these four tests, an end-of-year examination is included in the Teacher's Guide. The end-of-year examination consists of two papers: Paper 1 examines students' writing skill and consists of two sections, A and B. Paper 2 examines students' reading comprehension, grammar, vocabulary and spelling. The total mark for Paper 1 is 40 and for Paper 2 is 60; making the sum total for both papers 100. The Teacher's Guide states that in the first exam (Paper 1), students must answer either Section A or Section B and the time given for completing it is one hour. For the second exam (Paper 2), students have an hour and a quarter to complete it. Moreover, the guide recommends teachers to keep a record of each of student's score and use it as part of the final year mark. "You [the teacher] may wish to combine it with the marks they have scored for the tests in the course to create a more valid and comprehensive final year mark" (MoE, 2010: 89).

The syllabus also suggests self- and peer-assessments to be included into the assessment process. Particularly in assessing students' writing, the Teacher's Guide repeatedly suggests 'Students should check their answers with their partners'.

Generally, in principle, the English language classroom assessment in general secondary schools should be on-going (continuous) and should incorporate various methods like self-assessment, peer-assessment and formal assessments (i.e., quizzes, tests and examinations). Therefore, secondary school EFL teachers are expected to use multiple assessment procedures in their classroom.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

As briefly described above, the new English language syllabus for general secondary schools advocates the use of multiple classroom assessment procedures. Moreover, many scholars in the field recommend that EFL teaching and learning should be supported by multiple classroom assessment procedures (Nitko, 2001; Stiggins et al., 1989; Chan, 2008; Brown, 2004; Brindley, 2001; Hsu, 2003). Hence, both the syllabus and the literature strongly suggest that EFL teachers should employ multiple and continuous classroom assessment procedures in order to make the teaching and learning process more effective.

However, unless EFL teachers' actual classroom assessment practices are studied and confirmed, there is no guaranty that teachers make use of such assessments properly only because it is mentioned in the syllabus or in any literature. On the contrary, the purpose of classroom assessment in most schools seems to be confused and, therefore, not supporting learning (Swan, 1993; Stiggins, 2002). In the case of Ethiopian secondary schools, where most of EFL teachers do not take any language testing or assessment courses while they were in universities, the situation could be worse. Hence, the researcher is concerned about EFL teachers' actual classroom assessment practices in general secondary schools since this is one major area where teachers need to implement properly to ensure effective EFL teaching (Rea-Dickins & Gardner, 2000).

In the field of TEFL, there is also a growing interest in classroom assessment practices employed by ESL/EFL teachers (Cheng, et al. 2008). Therefore, this growing interest in general and the need for using multiple assessment procedures in Ethiopian secondary schools in particular

motivated the current researcher to conduct this study. Moreover, the researcher believes that it is timely to conduct a study on Ethiopian secondary school EFL teachers' actual classroom assessment practices because it is almost unknown what is going on in the classrooms.

In line with the above concern, internationally, there are a number of studies that focus on EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices (Chan, 2008; Cheng, et al. 2008; Edelenbos & Kubanek-German, 2004; Gattullo, 2000; Greenstein, 2004; Rea-Dickins & Gardner, 2000). For example, Cheng, et al. (2008) studied the assessment practices used by the ESL/EFL university instructors who were teaching English at the tertiary level in three different ESL/EFL instructional settings: Canada, Hong Kong, and China. The study was conducted through interviewing ESL/EFL instructors to gain in-depth information on their assessment planning; the type of assessment methods that they used; the purposes each assessment was used for, the source of each method used; and when they used each method. The results of this study point to "the complexity of the assessment practices chosen and/or developed by ESL/EFL university instructors, and that these procedures differ not only among but within the three contexts considered" (Cheng, et al. 2008: 25).

Gattullo (2000) also conducted a two phase study on the formative assessment practices of EFL teachers in primary schools in Italy. In the first phase of the pilot study, Gattullo observed four teachers' lessons, administered students' questionnaires, interviewed teachers and analyzed assessment materials used for teaching. Thus, the findings from the pilot study highlighted a number of areas of weakness and/or of teacher concern. In the second phase, Gattullo investigated further issues as identifying different formative assessment processes- such as questioning, correcting, counter-suggesting, marking, observing and so forth. By gathering data through classroom observations, audio records and meetings with teachers in three schools, Gallutto found that a high proportion of the actions of formative assessment are mostly targeted at rehearsing knowledge and/or at enhancing motivation.

However, in the Ethiopian context, little is known about the issue of multiple classroom assessment practice particularly about what EFL teachers actually assess and how they assess their students and it needs further study. Although the researcher regrets the absence of comprehensive local studies to be cited on the issue of multiple classroom assessment, there are very few studies conducted on EFL teachers' assessment practices. For instance, Teshome (2001)

conducted a study on the issue of language testing and evaluation training and practice at primary school level. He examined the syllabus and the textbooks for the training of primary school teachers to assess the adequacy of the training in language testing. Then, he collected a survey data through questionnaire to see the actual state of affairs in language testing in some primary schools in Addis Ababa. Thus, in examining the syllabus and the textbooks, he found a limited but good beginning in that the teaching and testing of English was skills-based and integrated. In addition, in the survey phase of his study, he found “primary school teachers practice continuous assessment and share experiences and views with colleagues in preparing tests and examinations, and interpreting scores” (Teshome, 2001: 25). However, Teshome’s study lacks observing the EFL teachers’ actual classroom assessment practices. Therefore, the current study has tried to make a closer look at such assessment practices in secondary schools.

Mebea (2008) also conducted a survey study on EFL teachers’ continuous assessment practice at Debre Birhan Teachers’ College and found that continuous oral assessment is a neglected area of practice in the college. Moreover, regarding the implementation of traditional/formal classroom assessment, Bekele (2001) conducted a survey study on teacher-made EFL tests of four secondary schools in Addis Ababa and revealed that changes in the syllabus were not accompanied by innovations in testing. He stated it as “contents of the syllabus/textbooks and the test papers vary greatly. Moreover, it was found out that grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension are the most emphasized language areas in classroom lessons and classroom tests”(Ibid: ix).

Apart from the above local survey studies, the researcher did not come across studies intending to explore the actual classroom assessment practices of EFL teachers in Ethiopian secondary schools contexts. Thus, this study tried to investigate what assessment practices have been employed in reality in the general secondary school EFL classrooms as compared with what has been prescribed in the syllabus and what is recommended in the review literature.

In doing this, the researcher used the following basic research questions as a guide for his investigation.

Research Questions:

1. How do secondary school EFL teachers assess their students?
 - a. How do they assess their students informally?
 - b. How do they assess their students formally?
 - c. What kinds of feedback do they provide to their students in these assessments?
2. What aspects of learning do secondary school EFL teachers assess?
 - a. What do they assess in the cognitive domain of learning?
 - b. What do they assess in the non-cognitive domain of learning?
3. For what specific purposes do secondary school EFL teachers use multiple classroom assessments?
 - a. Why do they carry out informal assessments?
 - b. Why do they practice formal assessments?

1.3.Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective

This study has aimed to describe and portray the overall classroom assessment practices of general secondary school EFL teachers by deeply looking into the cases of three government secondary schools in Addis Ababa. Thus, the main objective was to better understand their actual classroom assessment practices since this is an area where interventions should be made to improve EFL learning.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

Specifically, the study intends:

- To describe how secondary school EFL teachers collect assessment evidence.
- To find out what secondary school EFL teachers assess.
- To explain why secondary school EFL teachers use multiple classroom assessments.

1.4. Significance of the Study

So far, apart from making EFL assessment policies, there is little or no effort that has been made to study the Ethiopian general secondary school EFL teachers' actual classroom assessment practices. Thus, the findings of this study give insights for teacher educators, curriculum designers and other policy makers about the current classroom assessment practices of EFL teachers (their weaknesses and strengths) so that these decision making bodies will consider how to provide language testing courses and trainings for pre-service and in-service secondary school EFL teachers. The study also serves as a mirror for secondary school EFL teachers to look at the common areas of weakness in EFL classroom assessments. Thus, they will self-evaluate their own classroom assessment procedures.

Apart from the above practical significances, the findings of this study might be helpful to develop a theory about how EFL teaching and learning in secondary schools should be supported by multiple classroom assessment procedures.

Furthermore, since there has been very few or no studies on EFL teachers' multiple classroom assessment practices in Ethiopian context, this research topic is valuable in its potential to bring insights from this particular setting into the international domain of knowledge.

1.5. Scope of the Study

It is neither possible to cover all the potential government secondary schools in this study nor possible to see all what happened in the classroom. Hence, the scope of this study has been confined in the following terms.

The study has been delimited to three government general secondary schools in Addis Ababa City. Moreover, from the two grade levels (Grades 9 and 10), the study focused only on Grade 9 English Teachers and students of the three schools. This is because, unlike Grade 10 where students take national exams, the English language assessment process at Grade 9 is entirely classroom-based (school-based). Thus, teachers' classroom assessment practices could have a stronger effect on the teaching-learning process. Moreover, it is at this grade level that most of the students face English as a medium of instruction and that they need the language more than ever before. Hence, the researcher believes that at this grade level, the effectiveness of both the teaching and the assessment practices of the language should be given much emphasis.

On the other hand, conceptually, this study has been confined only to describing EFL teachers' actual classroom assessment practices. Although the researcher believes that some variables (such as, teaching methodology and textbook tasks) have effects on teachers' actual classroom assessment practices, it was not manageable to include these variables in this study nor it was the concern of the study.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

As stated in the significance section of this chapter, it is hoped that the findings of this study provide useful data for different parties in the field. However, it does not mean that the study is free from any short comings. It has some limitations that should be addressed here as it is natural for any research. Thus, the study has the following limitations.

Limitations of the study include:

1. The researcher's presence during classroom observations could have an effect on teacher's and students' performance and behavior. However, the researcher has tried to minimize its effect by increasing the number of observations and by trying to collect their most natural classroom behaviors and practice.
2. Because convenience sampling was used in selecting focal participating teachers, the researcher cannot say with confidence the samples are representatives of the population (Creswell, 2002).
3. The initial plan for the duration of the main data collection was two semesters (8 months). However, this plan was abandoned due to shortage of time and the duration was minimized into four months (one semester). Had the duration of data collection been extended, the study would have produced a better picture of the current EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices in government secondary schools in the city.

1.7. Operational Definitions of Terms

1. Formal assessment

Formal assessments or alternatively called tests are assessment procedures where test or exam conditions are established. Formal assessments could be oral tests or paper and pencil tests.

2. Informal assessment

Informal assessments are carried out by the teacher not under special test conditions, but in the normal classroom environment (for example, with students helping each other when necessary).

3. Cognitive domain of learning

This domain of learning refers to the mental processes that a student performs in learning a language. Such cognitive processes include a range of intellectual activities like remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating.

4. Multiple Classroom Assessment

It refers to assessing multiple student behaviors with multiple assessment methods and procedures. Moreover, the assessment results obtained from these various methods and procedures are used for multiple purposes.

5. Non-cognitive domain of learning

Non-cognitive domain includes all the aspects of learning except those which are mentioned under cognitive domain. These aspects include students' learning styles, their motivation, their personal traits and their on-going social behaviors.

6. Traditional Assessments

Traditional assessments are those which rely heavily on paper-and-pencil tests. They present a single, highly structured task that does not simulate performance in the real world.

1.8. Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized in eight chapters. Chapters One and Two discuss about the introduction and the review of related literature respectively. Chapter Three discusses the methodological considerations and Chapters Four to Seven present the data analyses and discussions. The last Chapter presents findings of the study.

Chapter One describes the general background of the study (which focuses on describing the need for EFL classroom assessment), the nature of English language syllabus for general secondary schools and the nature of EFL classroom assessment as prescribed in the syllabus. In addition, in this chapter, statement of the problem, objectives, significance, scope of the study, limitations of the study and definition of terms are discussed.

The relevant literature related to classroom assessment is viewed in Chapter Two. The literature survey, which is organized into Eight sections, discusses about the wider and the basic concept of assessment, the theories underlying classroom assessment, the contents of assessment, the methods of assessment, the purposes of assessment, as well as related studies on EFL classroom assessment (both local and international). Moreover, the review describes the conceptual framework for the study.

Chapter Three deals with the research methodology of the study. It presents the definitions and uses of a Case Study as a research strategy. It also describes how the data were collected, recoded and analyzed. In addition, it discusses about the pilot study, its findings and the ethical issues of the research.

The data obtained from the three case studies are discussed and analyzed in chapters Four, Five and Six. The results of the case study of Bole Community Secondary school are presented in Chapter Four while results of case studies of Dil Ber and Yekatit 23 secondary schools are presented in Chapters Five and Six respectively.

In Chapter Seven, the results obtained from each case study are cross-checked and further analyses are made. This was done to make a comparative analysis among the assessment practices of EFL teachers in the three schools. In the analysis, it was intended to identify the assessment methods and procedures, the contents of assessment and the purposes of assessment emphasized in the three groups of EFL teachers' classrooms.

A summary of the main findings, the conclusion of the study and recommendations are found in Chapter Eight of this report. In addition, implications of the finding of the study to EFL teaching and learning are described in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

2.1. The Concept of Assessment and Testing in ELT

The two terms ‘testing’ and ‘assessment’ are so frequently used interchangeably and they are often thought to have identical meanings. Yet, there are distinct differences between the two words and their intentions are different.

Assessment is defined as the process of collecting, synthesizing, interpreting, and using both qualitative and quantitative information about how students are progressing in their learning (Airasian, 1997; Gallagher, 1998; McMillan, 1997; Nitko, 2001). It refers to a variety of ways of collecting information (both formally and informally) on a learner’s language ability or achievement. Language testing, on the other hand, is a “formal, systematic, usually paper and pencil procedure to gather information about pupils’ learning” (Airasian, 1997:3). The term ‘testing’ is applied more often to the construction and administration of standardized tests (Clapham, 2003).

Although both testing and assessment attempt to monitor students’ learning, it is apparent that their main objectives are different. The main objectives of assessment are to improve, develop, and draw a parallel between ability and performance (Eisner, 1999). It is used to strengthen individual student progress (Stiggins, 2002). Moreover, according to Airasian (1997:5), “much of the assessment data teachers gather is used to identify, understand and remedy pupils’ problems and learning difficulties”. Whereas, the main objective of testing is to compare student achievement generally for ranking purposes (Stiggins, 2002).

The other difference between the two terms (assessment and testing) lies on the time in which evaluation about students’ learning occurs. Allan (2000: 27) calls tests “snapshots”, which are brief moments in the continuous learning process, while he regards assessment as “a set of processes that go on the whole time”. Therefore, the tester spends a limited, specified time on evaluation (constructing the test and marking it), whereas, the assessor’s work is spread over a longer period since assessment monitors, documents, and assesses work in progress.

The other significant difference between the two terms is the student - teacher interaction during evaluation. During assessment, the assessor is in frequent contact and communication with students and he/she needs to show patience, consideration and willingness to provide continuous guidance (Wiggins, 1993). The test giver, on the other hand, is often detached from the students. This might be explained by the fact that the testing process, by its very nature, segregates teacher and student. In a testing situation the students are seated apart from the tester in an environment where communication between them is either discouraged or forbidden. In some test situations, such as standardized testing and achievement testing, the students have never met the teachers who administer the test, which results in feelings of uneasiness and apprehension (Grabin, 2007).

Although the above explanation describes the difference between ‘assessment’ and ‘testing’, it is difficult to make boundaries between the two terms. Rather, it is essential to understand ‘assessment’ as a more expansive term than ‘testing’ and as a result, the role of the assessor becomes more comprehensive than the role of the tester. Lynch (2001:371) considers a test as an instrument “producing varieties of measures that exist for assessment purposes,” whereas assessment is the “super ordinate term” covering a range of procedures that includes traditional quantitative measurement, testing, and other assessment approaches (as illustrated in Figure 2.1).

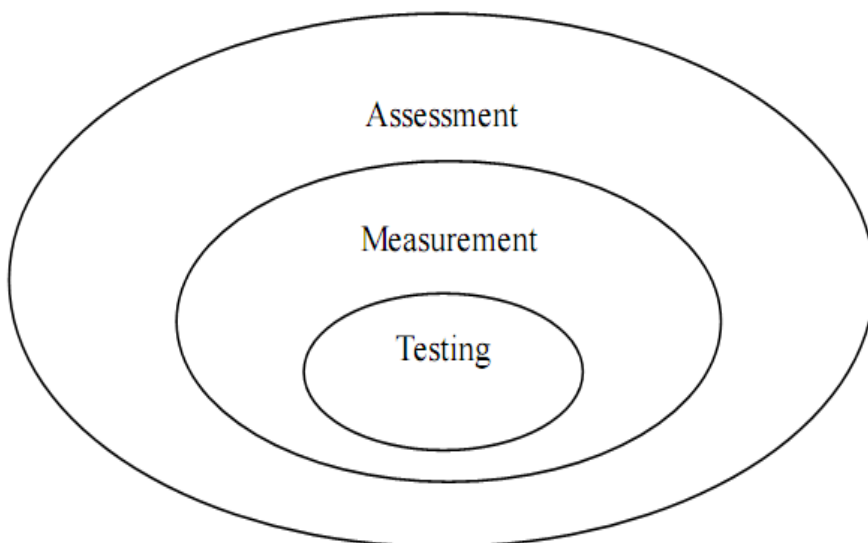


Figure 2.1 – Assessment, measurement and testing (Lynch, 2001: 360)

Therefore, according to Lynch, assessment is an umbrella term for all types of measures including both formal and informal procedures used to evaluate student progress; whereas,

measurement and testing are usually associated with formal assessment techniques. Similarly, Cunningham (1998:10) describes measurement as “the process of quantifying human characteristics by using numbers to indicate the degree to which an individual possesses a given trait”. Through the use of tests, instruments or scales, measurement provides or arrives at numbers to indicate students’ progress or achievement. Moreover, Cunningham states “Measurement tends to be associated with conventional methods of assessing students” (p.10). Hence, tests can be categorized under both measurement and assessment. On the other hand, testing as a component of assessment also entails different forms. It takes a variety of forms ranging from standardized formal tests to short classroom based tests. Based on its purpose, a test can also be placement, aptitude, progress, achievement, or proficiency test (Brown, 1987).

Therefore, testing is one of the various forms of assessment procedures which are useful for gathering information about the students’ language ability; whereas, assessment is a more inclusive term which refers to “the general process of monitoring or keeping track of the learners’ progress” (Hedge, 2000: 376). Thus, in this thesis, assessment will be used to encompass both formal and informal student evaluation procedures, whereas testing will be mainly used to refer only to the formal procedures (e.g. examinations).

2.2. Theories underlying Learning and Classroom Assessment

Theories of learning are rapidly changing and influencing conceptions of appropriate instruction (Cizek, 1997). As researchers reveal new information and develop new theories on how knowledge is acquired, teachers are also busy in adapting new approaches to teaching which accommodate the new theories of learning. As a result, the assessment procedures also change in order to best suite the different approaches to teaching and to incorporate principles based on the newest theories.

Thus, following theories and findings of various studies in the field of education, assessment methods have changed over time. The most prominent theories that have influenced assessment and led to changes in assessment practices were: behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism and multiplicity of intelligence.

2.2.1. Behaviorism

Behaviorism, as a learning theory, dominated the study of learning throughout the mid-20th century. During this period, learning was viewed as behavior and no inferences were made about what went on inside a student's head (Cizek, 1997). Behaviorists believed that internal mental states had no effect on how learning occurs, and thus, how the human mind works was an impossible topic for scientific inquiry. For behaviorists, a change in behavior is the only appropriate indicator that learning has occurred. According to their view, “all organisms come into the world with a blank mind, or, more formally, a tabula rasa (blank slate), on which the environment writes the history of learning for that organism” (Halpern & Donaghey, 2002: 1459). As a result, according to Walling (2002:118), “behaviorism tends to see the teacher as a dispenser of knowledge”.

Behavioral theorists emphasize breaking behaviors and skills into component tasks and mastering each subcomponent. They believe that learning could be maximized by the accumulation of small bits of knowledge, and by rigidly organizing information in sequential and hierarchical order (Mitchell & Myles, 1998; Shepard, 2000). They also emphasize the importance of modeling desired behavior and using feedback and reinforcement to guide students toward desired goals. Hence, they consider that a person’s actions were completely based on stimuli or random occurrences in the environment. The focus of learning was on the external environment and the ways in which it shapes behavior.

This idea of dividing process into numerous, small steps led teachers to focus on factual and procedural rules that students were required to follow. Similarly, study materials were broken down into small instructional steps, and memorization, drilling and rote learning were considered effective methods of learning. Thus, behaviorists promoted a mechanical approach to learning, which did not demand the learners to play any active role.

Classroom assessment had been heavily influenced by the behaviorist theory of learning. Since behaviorists believed that students’ actions and motivation for learning were completely based on stimuli or the reinforcement of numerous small steps, the “one-skill-at-a-time” (matching, multiple-choice, true/false) test items were popular with behaviorists (Shepard, 2000:5). Such test items were considered as effective tools in depicting behaviors that students needed to

master. Thus, students were asked questions like multiple-choice, true/false, matching, and fill-ins that could check the distinct skills they needed to master by relying on responses to external stimuli (i.e. test items) rather than requiring students to develop their own streams of thought (Worthen, 1993).

2.2.2. Cognitivism

Cognitive theories grew from the concern that behavior (learning) involves more than an environmental stimulus and a response. It became clear that new theories of learning were necessary, because "the behavioral theories of the mid-20th century that generated behavioral objectives could not adequately describe complex processes of thought, reasoning and problem solving" (Glaser and Silver,1994:401). Thus, in the 1960s, a rejection of the previously accepted behaviorist theories was remarked (Halpern & Donaghey, 2002).

The assumptions about learning under cognitive theories are not the same as those for behaviorist theories, because thinking and remembering are internal events. In the cognitive approaches, "students are no longer regarded as empty vessels to be filled with knowledge. They are viewed as inherently active 'apprentice learners'., who benefit from participation... in goal-oriented, collaborative activities" (Reid and Stone 1991:8). Thus, the cognitive revolution, which gained recognition in the 1960s, emphasized the importance of the mind in the learning process. Although repetition and reinforcement were still considered important, attention was given to how the individual processes and stores information. Learning is seen as "an active process of mental construction and sense making" (Shepard, 2000:65).

Cognitive theorists believe that students need to process information and relate it to their own experiences. In addition, cognitive abilities are created and strengthened through socially supported interactions. Therefore, it is understandable that as language began to center its communicative role, more emphasis was placed on the importance of social interaction and performance in authentic situations connected to the real world (Shepard, 2000).

Cognitivism has heavily influenced classroom assessment. In cognitivism, learning is an active process of mental construction and sense making. Therefore, the advocators of this theory claim that learning needs to be assessed by methods that call for greater student activity and involvement. According to cognitive theorists, assessment needs to extend beyond factual recall

and selecting a correct response from a choice of possible answers. Assessment should reflect understanding, reasoning and problem solving (Shavelson & Baxter, 1992). Thus, in this theory of learning, alternative assessments are more favored than the traditional types of assessment.

2.2.3. Constructivism

Constructivism is a multi-dimensional paradigm which integrates linguistic, psycholinguistic and socio-cultural theories of language acquisition (Hayatdavoudi & Ansari, 2011). Like cognitivism, constructivism also rejects the behaviorists' theory of learning which claims that students learn by passively "soaking up" knowledge that is transmitted to them by teachers or others (Vye, 2002: 1152). Instead, constructivists assume students as active participants in the acquisition of knowledge, building their own understandings, drawing on prior knowledge and formulating mental concepts (Perkins, 1992).

Constructivism developed the cognitive theorists' view of placing the individual at the center of the learning process even further in the 1990s. According to constructivists' view, learning does not occur by transmitting information from the teacher or the textbook (or the video or the demonstration) to the child's brain. Instead, each child constructs his or her own meaning by combining prior information with new information such that the new knowledge provides personal meaning to the child (Vye, 2002).

A typical feature of constructivism is that learning is intimately connected with experience. Students come into a classroom with their own experiences and a cognitive structure based on those experiences. They build their own knowledge and their own representations of knowledge from their own experiences and thought (Perkins, 1992). Thus, students who are involved in their own learning experience – by making their own associations and creating their own understandings – tend to be more effective and motivated learners (Ibid).

Constructivism views the teacher as a facilitator who helps students acquire understandings and put them to individual use (Walling 2002). Constructivists believe that students learn more if the teacher engages them in activities, such as defining problems, clarifying misunderstandings, generating solutions, and so forth, instead of lecturing students how to solve problems (Vye, 2002). According to Tolman & Hardy (1995), teaching in constructivism theory is guided by five

basic principles; (1) activating prior knowledge, (2) acquiring knowledge, (3) understanding knowledge, (4) using knowledge, and (5) reflecting on knowledge.

Constructivism hypothesizes that before coming to class students have a multiple of unique experiences including personal beliefs and knowledge about how the world works. Therefore, activating their prior experience or prior knowledge is very important since what is learned is always learned in relation to what one already knows. When teachers are familiar with a students' prior knowledge, they can provide learning experiences to build on these existing understandings (Steffe & D'Ambrosio, 1995). Teachers who try to use students' prior knowledge as part of the teaching process enable them to understand students' thinking and provide insights from which they can plan instruction (Gurney, 1995).

Therefore, assessment in a constructivist perspective is more about enhancing the student's learning and the teacher's understanding of the student's thinking. Rather than saying "No" when a student does not give the exact answer being required, the constructivist teacher attempts to understand the student's current thinking about the topic (Brooks and Brooks, 1993). Through nonjudgmental questioning, the teacher leads the student to construct new understanding and acquire new skills (Ibid). As a result, assessment reform movement started to draw the attention of educators on the concept of formative assessment and on improving student learning (Noonan & Duncan, 2005).

Instructional conversations and authentic assessment are the two major operational techniques of constructivism (Mantero, 2002). Thus, discursive and dialogic assessment procedures have become part of the process of learning and classroom discourse.

According to constructivists, assessment has to serve and foster learning processes, enhance learners' awareness of their strengths and weaknesses, provide descriptive feedback, modify teaching and learning acts and address affective considerations in language learning (Mantero, 2002).

2.2.4. Multiple Intelligences

A final new development might be called the "multiple intelligences" view. The multiple intelligences theory which is developed by Gardner (1983) points out that children think and

learn based on individual intellectual strengths. This theory provides a strong foundation for recognizing the different abilities and talents of students.

Gardner initially identified seven intelligences – musical, bodily-kinesthetic, logical-mathematical, linguistic, spatial, interpersonal, and intrapersonal – and later in 1995, he added one more (i.e. naturalistic intelligence) (Walling, 2002). Gardner believes that an individual has a number of specific types of intelligence in varying degrees, and he proposes that instruction should be related to the student's individual needs (Gardner, 1993). He justifies his theory that people think differently and, therefore, a single educational approach cannot possibly serve everyone

According to Gardner (1993), intelligence cannot be sufficiently measured in a short period of time. He proposes that learning and teaching should focus on the particular intellectual abilities of each individual student and should be monitored over time.

Multiple intelligences theory has had a significant influence on assessment practices due to the understanding that learners need to be offered a variety of opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge and skills and to allow for varied approaches to learning (Ghosn, 1997). Approaching and assessing learning in this manner allows a wider range of students to successfully participate in classroom learning (Brualdi, 1996). Gardner (1993) suggests that rather than asking the degree of intelligence that each student possesses (i.e. intelligence testing), a better consideration would be to examine the ways in which the student exhibits intelligence and to offer opportunities where he/she can successfully demonstrate his/her abilities.

According to Armstrong (1994: 115), multiple intelligences theory suggests “a system that relies far less on formal standardised or norm-referenced tests and much more on authentic measures that are criterion-referenced, benchmarked or ipsative (i.e. that compare a student to his or her own past performances)”.

Generally, as educators began to embrace new theories, the trends in education shifted to meet the new demands of alternative approaches to learning and assessment. Although traditional assessment had retained prominence throughout the period when behaviorist theories were popular, in the light of more current research, this form of evaluation was no longer considered to be relevant or productive. As a result of this understanding, new thought was given to

discussing and deciding what were the purposes and principles of assessment and how teachers could most effectively evaluate their students. Thus, it is clear that the last three theories (i.e. cognitivism, constructivism and multiple intelligences) underlie the current assessment practices in schools and colleges in most part of the world.

2.3. Multiple Classroom Assessment

Classroom assessment involves a wide range of activities from designing paper-pencil tests and performance measures to grading, communicating assessment results, and using them in decision-making (Zhang & Burry-Stock, 2003). Leung (2005:871) also defines classroom assessment as “nonstandardized local assessment carried out by teachers in the classroom”. Thus, according to Leung, classroom assessment is a local assessment designed (or adapted) and implemented by teachers in their classrooms to accommodate the specific characteristics of their own students.

Currently, scholars recommend multiple classroom assessment methods to evaluate language learners (Chen, 2003; Brown, 2004; Brindley, 2001; Hsu, 2003). According to Chen (2003), no single assessment is able to thoroughly cover the learning progress or achievement of students. In other words, Chen suggests the use of multiple assessment procedures in language learning classrooms. The use of multiple strategies and instruments in language assessment is based on the assertion that “language ability is a broad and complex construct that cannot be fully measured by tests” (Shohamy, 1994:135). Similarly, Brady (1997) suggests that different forms of assessment are better suited for different aspects of learning.

The notion of ‘multiple’ in multiple assessment can be interpreted from different perspectives. Assessment can be multiple, in terms of method of assessment, purpose of assessment or content of assessment (Yeh, 2001; Brown, 2001).

In terms of methods of assessment, multiple classroom assessment can be categorized into two broad assessment types: *traditional* and *alternative* assessments. This classification is based on the extent to which the tasks simulate performance in the real world; the extent to which they measure higher learning outcomes and requires demonstration of multiple skills; the amount of time needed for the assessment; and the amount of judgment involved in scoring (Gronlund,

2006). Similarly, such assessment methods are also leveled as formal and informal. This will be discussed in the following section.

In terms of purpose, assessment can be multiple by involving formative and summative assessments. Formative assessment is administered during the learning process with the aim of using the results to improve instruction; and summative assessment is performed at the end of a course often for the purpose of providing aggregate information on program outcomes to educational authorities (Brindley, 2001). According to Hedge (2000), assessment is said to be formative if the purpose is pedagogically motivated, whereas it is said to be summative if the purpose is product-oriented. This means that formative assessment is ongoing feedback during the learning. Summative assessment, on the other hand, summarizes the process at the end.

Assessment can also be multiple in terms of the contents of assessment or what is assessed in the classroom. In such cases, multiple classroom assessment involves assessing cognitive and non-cognitive qualities.

2.3.1. Methods of Assessment: *Formal versus Informal Assessments*

2.3.1.1. Formal Assessments

Formal assessments are also known as classroom tests due to the fact that they rely heavily on paper-and-pencil tests that require students to choose the correct or best answer as in multiple-choice, true-false, and matching assessment tasks; or to respond with a word, short phrase, or complete essay answer (Gronlund, 1998). Formal assessments are often lower in realism and complexity of the tasks assessed, but require little time to administer and can be scored quickly and objectively (Gronlund, 2006).

Henning (1987) identifies six kinds of information that tests or formal assessments provide about students. These are:

- Diagnosis and feedback
- Screening and selection
- Placement
- Program evaluation
- Providing research criteria

- Assessment of attitudes and socio-psychological differences

Alderson, et al. (1995:11-12) have a different classification scheme. They sort tests into these broad categories: placement, progress, achievement, proficiency and diagnostic.

i. Placement Test

Placement tests assess students' level of language ability so they can be placed in an appropriate course or class. This type of test indicates the level at which a student will learn most effectively. In designing a placement test, the test developer may base the test content either on a theory of general language proficiency or on learning objectives of the curriculum. Some placement tests are based on aspects of the syllabus taught at the institution, or it may be based on some unrelated materials (Alderson, et al., 1995).

At some institutions, students are placed according to their overall rank in the test results combined from all skills. At other schools and colleges, students are placed according to their level in each skill area. Additionally, placement test scores are used to determine if a student needs further instruction in the language or could matriculate directly into an academic program without taking preparatory language courses (Hughes, 1989; Alderson, et al., 1995).

ii. Progress Tests

Progress language tests measure the progress that students are making toward defined course or program goals. They are administered at various stages throughout a language course to determine what students have learned, usually after certain segments of instruction have been completed. Progress tests are generally teacher produced and narrow in focus than achievement tests because they cover less material and assess fewer objectives (Hughes, 1989; Alderson, et al., 1995)

iii. Achievement Tests

Achievement tests are similar to progress tests in that they determine what a student has learned with regard to stated course outcomes. They are usually administered at mid- and end-point of the semester or academic year. The content of achievement tests is generally based on the

specific course content or on the course objectives. Achievement tests are often cumulative, covering material drawn from an entire course or semester (Hughes, 1989; Alderson, et al., 1995)

iv. Proficiency Tests

Proficiency tests, on the other hand, are not based on a particular curriculum or language program. They assess the overall language ability of students at varying levels. They may also tell us how capable a person is in a particular language skill area (e.g., reading). In other words, proficiency tests describe what students are capable of doing in a language (Hughes, 1989; Alderson, et al.1995)

Proficiency tests are typically developed by external bodies such as examination boards like Educational Testing Services (ETS), the College Board, or Cambridge ESOL.

v. Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostic tests identify language areas in which a student needs further help. Harris and McCann (1994: 29) point out that where “other types of tests are based on success; diagnostic tests are based on failure”. The information gained from diagnostic tests is crucial for further course activities and providing students with remediation. Because diagnostic tests are different to write, placement tests often serve a dual function of both placement and diagnosis (Harris & McCann, 1994; Davies et al., 1999).

From the above language test types, classroom tests are leveled mostly under achievement, progress or diagnostic test categories.

The other form of classifying language tests, in general, is as: (a) Objective vs. Subjective; (b) Criterion- vs. Norm-Referenced; (c) High- vs. Low-stakes Tests

(A) Objective vs. Subjective Tests

An objective test is one that is scored by comparing a student’s responses with an established set of acceptable/correct responses on an answer key. With objectively scored tests, no particular knowledge or training in the examined area is required of the scorer. Conversely, a subjective test requires scoring by opinion or personal judgment. In this type of test, the human element is very important (Hughes, 1989).

Testing formats associated with objective tests are multiple choice questions, true/false questions, yes/no questions, matching, and so on. Objectively-scored tests are ideal for computer scanning. On the other hand, subjectively scored tests include essay tests, interviews or comprehension questions. Even experienced scorers or markers need moderation sessions to ensure inter-rater reliability (Hughes, 1989).

(B) Criterion- vs. Norm-Referenced Tests

Criterion-referenced tests (CRT) are designed to enable the test user to interpret a test score with reference to a criterion level of ability or domain of content (Bachman, 1990). Similarly, Brown (2005) states criterion-referenced tests are usually developed to measure mastery of well-defined instructional objectives specific to a particular course or program. Their purpose is to measure how much learning has occurred. Student performance is compared only to the amount or percentage of material learned.

Norm-referenced tests (NRT) or standardized tests differ from criterion-referenced tests in a number of ways. By definition, NRTs are designed to measure global language ability. Test results are interpreted with reference to the performance of a given group who took the test. The purpose of norm-referenced tests is to spread students out along a continuum of scores so that those with low ability in a certain skill are at one end of the normal distribution and those with high scores are at the other end, with the majority of the students falling between the extremes (Brown, 1995, 2005; Bachman, 1990; Cziko, 1982; Hudson & Lynch, 1984).

(C) High- vs. Low-stakes Tests

High-stakes tests are those where the results are likely to have a major impact on the lives of large numbers of individuals, or on large programs. For example, a test like the TOEFL is high-stakes in that admission to a university program is often contingent upon receiving a sufficient language proficiency score (Hughes, 1989; Alderson, et al., 1995)

Low-stakes tests are those where the results have a relatively minor impact on the lives of the individual or on small programs. In-class progress tests or short quizzes are examples of low-stakes (Hughes, 1989; Alderson, et al., 1995)

Thus, by summarizing the above literature, it can be stated that traditional classroom assessments (classroom tests) are those designed and implemented by the classroom teacher to assess students' achievement of the learning goals; to evaluate their progress in the program; and/or to diagnose the language areas which they need further help.

Moreover, classroom tests can be subjective or objective type; or they can be criterion-referenced or norm-referenced. However, these tests are all low-stakes tests.

2.3.1.2. Informal Classroom Assessments

Informal assessment is a way of collecting information about our students' performance in normal classroom conditions (Harris & McCann, 1994). This is done without establishing test conditions such as in the case of formal assessment. Thus, the term 'informal' is used in this definition to indicate techniques that can easily be incorporated into classroom routines and learning activities.

Informal assessment requires a clear understanding of the levels of ability the students bring with them. It seeks to identify the strengths and needs of individual students in every day classroom instruction. However, in the case of formal tests, there is a single set of expectations for all students and teachers come usually with prescribed criteria for scoring and interpretation (Harris & McCann, 1994).

Informal assessment is sometimes referred to as *authentic assessment*, *performance assessment*, *continuous assessment*, and *on-going assessment*. Although all these terms could be included under the umbrella term 'informal assessments', there are still some specific characters for each of them.

▪ Authentic Assessment

According to Kohonen (1997), authentic assessment emphasizes the communicative meaningfulness of evaluation.

It uses such forms of assessment that reflect student learning, achievement, motivation and attitudes on instructionally-relevant classroom activities ... Its results can be used to improve instruction, based on the knowledge of learner progress. (Kohonen, 1997:13)

Thus, authentic assessment is a process-oriented means of evaluating communicative competence, cognitive abilities and affective learning (Kohonen, 1999; O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). It uses reflective forms of assessment in instructionally-relevant classroom activities (communicative performance assessment, language portfolios and self-assessment), and focuses on curriculum goals, enhancement of individual competence and integration of instruction and assessment.

▪ **Performance Assessment**

Performance assessment is an assessment procedure based on observation and judgment; we look at a performance or product and make a judgment as to its quality (Stiggins, et al., 2004; Aschbacher, 1991; Shavelson, et al., 1992; Soodak, 2000). Stiggins, et al., (2004) elaborates this by using the following examples:

- *Complex performances such as playing a musical instrument, carrying out the steps in a scientific experiment, speaking a foreign language, reading aloud with fluency, repairing an engine, or working productively in a group. In these cases it is the doing-the process-that is important.*
- *Creating complex products such as a term paper, a lab report, or a working of art. In these cases what counts is not so much the process of creation (although that may be evaluated, too), but the level of quality of the product itself.* (Stiggins, et al., 2004: 92)

As with extended written response assessments, performance assessments have two parts: a performance task or exercise and a scoring guide. Again, the scoring guide can award points for specific features of a performance or product that are present, or it can take the form of a rubric, in which levels of quality are described (Stiggins, et al., 2004).

▪ **Continuous Assessment**

Continuous assessment of learners' progress could be defined as a mechanism whereby the final grading of learners in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of learning systematically takes account of all their performances during a day to day practice of learners within a period of schooling (Glover & Thomas, 1999). Continuous assessment occurs as part of the daily interaction between teachers and students, revealing valuable information about student learning, in terms of knowledge, thinking and reasoning (Ali & Akube, 1988).

Thus, continuous assessment is described as a way of collecting information about student learning throughout the school year, primarily by regular observation and evaluation of students' performance in normal classroom conditions (Glover & Thomas, 1999; Puhl, 1997).

- **On-Going Assessment**

Ongoing assessment is the process of providing students with clear responses to their performances of understanding in a way that will help to improve next performances (Carbery, 1999; Croker, 1999). There are two principle components of the ongoing assessment process: establishing criteria and providing feedback.

Criteria for each performance of understanding need to be *clear* (articulated explicitly at the beginning of each performance), *relevant* (closely related to the understanding goals for the unit), and *public* (everyone in the classroom knows and understands them). Moreover, feedback needs to occur frequently and come from a variety of perspectives: from students' reflection on their own work, from classmates reflecting on one another's work, and from the teacher (Carbery, 1999; Croker, 1999).

Although these terms (authentic, performance, continuous and on-going assessments) share almost the same meaning with each other and can be called 'informal assessments', there are also some points which make each type of assessment unique. For instance; (A) Authentic assessment emphasizes on the communicative usefulness of evaluation and evaluating communicative competence; (B) Performance assessment emphasizes on observing and giving judgment on students' performance or product; (C) Continuous assessment emphasizes on evaluating students' progress on a day to day classroom learning situation; (D) On-going assessment emphasizes on evaluating students' performance and providing feedback.

Therefore, the term 'informal assessment' is used in this paper since it is more generic than the other terms and it incorporates characteristics of the other commonly-used labels. It can take place in a variety of settings and with very different purposes. Informal assessment can also cover all the aspects of knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes and behavior that formal methods might address. It can be intuitive, undertaken on the spur of the moment, random and unrecorded. Equally, it can be pre-planned, focused, and a record may be kept of it.

Several types of informal assessment techniques can be used with great success in today's language classrooms. By reviewing the works of different scholars (such as Brown, 1998; Cohen, 1994; Hamayan, 1995; Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlou, 2003), Tsagari (2004) lists the following most commonly used types of informal assessment:

- *Conferences*
- *Observations*
- *Debates*
- *Peer-assessment*
- *Demonstrations*
- *Portfolios*
- *Diaries/Journals*
- *Projects*
- *Dramatizations*
- *Self-assessment*
- *Exhibitions*
- *Story retelling*
- *Games*
- *Think-alouds*

(Tsagari, 2004: 11)

These informal assessments can also be categorized under four common forms of evidence-gathering techniques:

- **Marking pieces of work** (e.g. *note books, exercise books, diaries/journals, portfolios, etc.*)
- **Observation** (**Aural observation**, e.g. *conferences/presentations, debates, dramatizations/role plays, story retellings, games etc.* **Visual observation**, e.g. *demonstrations, exhibitions, games, etc.*)
- **Classroom questioning** (e.g. *individual/ whole class questions, display/referential questions*)
- **Self- and peer-assessments**

After teachers collected all sorts of informal assessment evidences, they frequently record such evidences through: anecdotal records, progress cards, checklists, questionnaires, learner profiles and rating scales (Tsagari, 2004).

(i) Marking Pieces of Work

The most common way of assessing students informally has traditionally been by marking pieces of work that students do either in class or for homework. These marks are then added up at the end of the assessment period to work out a final grade (Harris & McCann, 1994). Without doubt

this marking of students' work is one of the most important sources of information that we have. However, according to Harris & McCann (1994), this approach has serious drawbacks:

- *Firstly, it means that we might tend to concentrate on written work and on grammar exercises rather than focusing on oral skills.*
- *Secondly, when we mark work we might assign marks on the basis of the 'impression' that we have of the work. We are not thinking in detail about what exactly we expect the students to achieve.*
- *Finally, when we add up marks at the end of term we tend to make judgments in terms of impressions and without a clear idea of what we are assessing. (Harris & McCann, 1994:9)*

Therefore, it is important to make a conscious effort to assess oral skills during classes and establish clear criteria to assess specific performance by students and come to decisions about students' progress.

(ii) Observation

Observation is the most frequently used informal assessment approach that classroom teachers use to collect data about the teaching-learning process (Airasian, 1997). Observation involves watching pupils carry out some activity or listening to pupils speak, read and discuss things.

When pupils mispronounce words in oral reading, interact in groups, speak out in class, bully other pupils, lose their concentration, have puzzled looks on their faces, patiently wait their turn, raise their hands in class, dress shabbily, and fail to sit still for more than three minutes, teachers become aware of these behaviors through visual and aural observation. (Airasian, 1997:12)

Thus, much of the information that is essential for minute-to-minute decision making in classrooms comes from teacher observation, not from paper-and-pencil procedures (Ibid).

Observation can be planned (formal) or unplanned (informal). Some of teacher's observations are formal and planned, as when pupils read aloud in reading group or present an oral report to the class. In such situations the teacher structures the classroom environment so that he or she can look for a particular action the pupil is expected to demonstrate. Because the observation is planned, the teacher has time to identify in advance of the observation the particular behaviors

the pupils will be expected to perform and to arrange the classroom accordingly. Hence, he or she usually uses scoring criteria or checklists (Airasian, 2000; Stiggins & Bridgeford, 1985).

Other observations are unplanned and informal. Much of the inside classroom component of assessment comes from the informal observation of momentary unplanned happenings, such as when a student does or says something, that the teacher mentally records and interprets (Airasian, 2000). Such observations may include:

...when a teacher sees students talking when they should be working, notices the pained expression on a pupil's face when a classmate makes fun of his clothes, or observes the pupils fidgeting and looking out the window during a lesson. (Airasian, 1997:12)

Thus, the information teachers get from informal observation help them to identify problem areas and modify their teaching accordingly.

(iii) Classroom Questioning

Questioning is the most common form of evidence-gathering technique used by teachers (William & Black, 1996). Although the teacher can question students both orally and in writing, it is the oral form that is normally practised in most classrooms. On average, teachers spend almost half their class time on oral questioning (Broadfoot, 1996).

There have been many classifications of teachers' questions. One simple division is between lower order and higher order questions. This is quite a crude distinction. Lower order questions require students to simply retrieve and manipulate factual knowledge; whereas, higher order questions require students to build on this factual recall and engage in solving new problems. The second type of category is convergent and divergent questions. Convergent questions (also called 'closed-ended') have a single correct answer and divergent questions (also called 'open-ended') may have many appropriate answers (Airasian, 2000).

Another distinction of teachers' classroom questions is display and referential questions (Long & Santo, 1983). This distinction has been made based on whether the teacher is asking for information which he already knows (display questions) or he/she does not know (referential questions) (Ibid).

A further division among teachers' questions is also 'comprehension checks', 'confirmation checks', and 'clarification requests' (Chaudron, 1988). A comprehension check elicits assurance from the listener that a message has been received correctly, whereas confirmation checks and clarification requests allow the speaker to correctly interpret reactions by the listener, the former presupposing a positive answer and the latter being much more open-ended (Ibid).

Regarding classroom questioning, Wilen & Clegg (1986) suggest teachers employ the following research supported practices to foster higher student achievement:

- *phrase questions clearly;*
- *ask questions of primarily an academic nature*
- *allow three to five seconds of wait time after asking a question before requesting a student's response, particularly when high-cognitive level questions are asked;*
- *encourage students to respond in some way to each question asked;*
- *balance responses from volunteering and nonvolunteering students;*
- *elicit a high percentage of correct responses from students and assist with incorrect responses;*
- *probe students' responses to have them clarify ideas, support a point of view, or extend their thinking;*
- *acknowledge correct responses from students and use praise specifically and discriminately.* (Wilen & Clegg, 1986:23)

(iv) Self- and peer-assessments

Self-assessment refers to the student's evaluation of his or her own performance at various points in a course. Self-assessment can be helpful to both the student and the teacher. When students reflect on their accomplishments, they gain a sense of control and self-motivation. It also helps them feel more responsible. The information can also help teachers plan additional instruction or assistance that is tailor-made for each student. Students will have been aided to make their own plans as well (Blanche & Merino, 1989)

Another term with a slightly different meaning is 'peer-assessment'. Topping (1998: 250) defines peer-assessment as "an arrangement in which individuals consider the amount, level, value, worth, quality, or success of the products or outcomes of learning of peers of similar status". The process of peer assessment ought to involve students grading and/or giving feedback on their peers' work, and being judged for the quality of the appraisals they made (Davies,

2006). Such an assessment method is usually associated with group work in which students wish to separate the assessment of individual contributions from the assessment of the groups' final products.

Thus, as Brown (2004) states, both self and peer assessment involve students in their own destiny, encourage autonomy, and increase motivation.

2.3.2. Purposes of Assessment: *Summative versus Formative*

Glaser (1990) stresses that assessments serve different educational purposes. He states that it is necessary to consider what kind of information teachers and policy makers require and what the results of an assessment actually indicate. Hence, as he describes, assessments should be practiced for pupil diagnosis. The information gathered is also usable and is indeed used in making day to day classroom decisions which are essential to the educational process.

The purpose of assessment is usually put in a form of list. Gipps & Stobart (1993) provide one of the more comprehensive lists. They identified six uses of assessment:

- i. **Screening:** This refers to the process of testing groups of students, normally at primary level, to identify individuals who are in need of special help;
- ii. **Diagnosis:** This involves the use of tests to identify students' strengths and (more usually) weakness. Much of the diagnostic assessment occurs in the classroom on an informal basis rather than very 'formal' approaches of collecting diagnostic information usually through paper and pencil techniques (Brown, 1991);
- iii. **Record-keeping:** Test scores and teacher assessments are put into student records to then help in the transfer process from one school level to the next;
- iv. **Feedback:** Results provide feedback about the progress of individual students and the teacher's success. On the other hand, results of classes can provide information to the school administration about the progress and success across the school, and school results can be used by outsiders to 'evaluate' schools and teachers;
- v. **Certification:** A student is provided with a qualification that signifies that he or she has reached a certain level of competence or knowledge;
- vi. **Selection:** Students are selected into different institutions for further and higher education. They can also be allocated to different streams or sets within institutions.

However, the above list has not specifically identified motivation for learning as a significant function of classroom assessment. According to Crooks (1988), through classroom assessment results, students should be encouraged to think positively about their learning and should see their progress in relation to their own previous achievement rather than merely in relation to that of others. This enables them to have a better self-esteem since that progress can be recognized by both student and teacher. Such reinforcement of success rather than failure leads to increased motivation (Broadfoot, 1979; Crooks, 1988).

Moreover, assessment has a communication function which informs the pupils of their achievement level in a range of activities (Broadfoot, 1987). Reports can encourage learning if they provide information with clarity about the strengths and weakness of the student's performance or work, accompanied with a positive comment (Stewart & White, 1976).

Generally, classroom assessment can have two purposes: summative or formative. In the above list, Gipps & Storbart (1993) indicated that the six uses of assessment can be classified into 'professional' or 'managerial' nomenclatures based on whether the assessment helps respectively to enhance the educational process (formative purpose) or to manage and monitor the education system (summative purpose).

2.3.2.1. Summative Assessment

Summative assessment refers to “the assessments that are given at the end of a certain period of teaching/learning and are designed to judge students' learning for the purpose of grading, certification, evaluation of progress or to judge the effectiveness of a curriculum” (Bloom, et al., 1971:117). They are end-of-unit (instructional unit, month, year, or marking period) assessments used to provide summary information about student performance (Shermis & Di Vesta, 2011). Thus, it can be stated that summative assessments are given periodically to determine what students know and do not know at a particular point in time.

The kind of assessment that immediately comes to mind when we speak of summative assessment is a traditional test. This is due to the fact that summative assessment relies heavily on paper-and-pencil tests that require students to choose the correct or best answer as in multiple-choice, true-false, and matching assessment tasks; or to respond with a word, or short phrase answer (Brindley, 2001; Gronlund, 1998). Although many times they are multiple-choice

tests, there is no rule or requirement for this format because portfolios, written essays, or extended-response items can be summative. The results typically are used to measure mastery of a prescribed set of standards or content and as part of an accountability system or to otherwise inform policy (Perie, et al., 2007).

The key is to think of summative assessment as a means to gauge, at a particular point in time, student learning relative to content standards. Although the information gleaned from this type of assessment is important, it can only help in evaluating certain aspects of the learning process. Because they are spread out and occur after instruction every few weeks, months, or once a year, summative assessments are tools to help evaluate the effectiveness of programs, school improvement goals, alignment of curriculum, or student placement in specific programs. Summative assessments happen too far down the learning path to provide information at the classroom level and to make instructional adjustments and interventions during the learning process. It takes formative assessment to accomplish this.

2.3.2.2. Formative Assessment

Formative assessment is composed of assessments integrated with instruction for making instructional decisions (Linn, 1989) during the course of instruction. When incorporated into classroom practice, it provides the information needed to adjust teaching and learning while they are happening. In this sense, formative assessment informs both teachers and students about student understanding at a point when timely adjustments can be made. These adjustments help to ensure students achieve targeted standards-based learning goals within a set time frame. Although formative assessment strategies appear in a variety of formats, there are some distinct ways to distinguish them from summative assessments.

One distinction is to think of formative assessment as ‘practice’. Formative assessment helps teachers determine next steps during the learning process. It helps teachers to make instructional adjustments based on feedback about student performance (Popham, 2006) and to monitor student progress during learning (Dunn & Mulvenon, 2009; Stiggins, 2002).

Another distinction that underpins formative assessment is student involvement. If students are not involved in the assessment process, formative assessment is not practiced or implemented to its full effectiveness (Stiggins, 2002). Students need to be involved both as assessors of their own

learning and as resources to other students. There are numerous strategies teachers can implement to engage students.

One of the key components of engaging students in the assessment of their own learning is providing them with descriptive feedback as they learn (Dunn & Mulvenon, 2009; Popham, 2006). Descriptive feedback provides students with an understanding of what they are doing well, links to classroom learning, and gives specific input on how to reach the next step in the learning progression.

When teachers use sound instructional practice for the purpose of gathering information on student learning, they are applying this information in a formative way. Thus, the purpose of formative assessment is clearly pedagogical and cannot be separated from instruction. It is what all teachers do. The distinction lies in what teachers actually do with the information they gather. How is it being used to inform instruction? How is it being shared with and engaging students? It's not teachers just collecting information/data on student learning; it's what they do with the information they collect.

In summary, regarding the formative-summative debate, rather than the actual assessments, it is the interpretation of the resulting data that may distinguish formative from summative practice (William & Black, 1996). Therefore, the same assessment can be used both formatively and summatively. Moreover, teachers have the duty as educators to focus on the formative as well as summative functions of assessment (Ibid).

2.3.3. Content of Assessment: *Cognitive versus Non-cognitive Domains*

The academic learning demonstrated by students is not of a single type. Classroom learning can run the range from rote memorization of vocabulary, facts, and concepts, to critical thinking, reasoning, and problem solving. However, very frequently assessments are global. This pupil is good, fair or poor but it is not made clear in what (Satterly, 1989). Definition in advance means distinguishing between assessment of attainment, effort or ability, improvement or deterioration. This definition of what is being assessed adds meaning to the exercise (Satterly, 1989). Hence, in the following sub-sections, the cognitive and non- cognitive aspects of language learning and the weight teachers place on each category while assessing their students will be briefly reviewed.

2.3.3.1. Assessment of Learning in the Cognitive Domain

To help teachers identify and assess different kinds of academic learning, several frameworks for assessment have been developed. The two most frequently used frames of reference are Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain (Bloom, et al., 1956 as cited in Airasian, 1997) and Quellmalz's framework for evaluating the reasoning process (Quellmalz, 1987). These taxonomies have many similarities rather than differences.

Quellmalz's taxonomy includes five categories: recall, analysis, comparison, inference, and evaluation. On the other hand, Bloom's Taxonomy is organized into six levels, each representing a more complex type of cognitive thinking or behavior. Starting from the simple and moving to the complex, the six levels are: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation (Bloom, et al., 1956 as cited in Airasian, 1997).

Bloom's Taxonomy is widely used in describing different types of cognitive processes. Airasian (1997: 9) provides examples of activities at each level as follows.

1. **Knowledge:** memorizing formulas, poems, spellings, words, state capitals.
2. **Comprehension:** summarizing what one has read or explaining an idea in one's own words.
3. **Application:** using information to solve unfamiliar problems – for example predicting the outcome of actions.
4. **Analysis:** breaking a large body of information into smaller parts, as in analyzing the tone, style, form, and meaning of a poem.
5. **Synthesis:** combining smaller bits of information into a generalization or conclusion.
6. **Evaluation:** judging the merits or worth of a performance, object, or idea, as in weighing the pros and cons of a course of action and making a decision about what to do.

In assessing these cognitive processes, teachers may look for various learner actions. These actions are usually described in the learning objectives. Table 2.1 below lists action verbs or terms that could be used to describe such objectives in the cognitive domain.

Table 2.1: Examples of terms used to determine learner actions (objectives of learning) in the cognitive domain (Taken from Airasian, 1997: 86)

Cognitive						
Domain	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Analysis	Synthesis	Evaluation
Behaviors	Count	Classify	Change	Break dawn	Arrange	Appraise
	Define	Compare	Compute	Diagram	Combine	Conclude
	Identify	Convert	Construct	Differentiate	Compile	Contrast
	Level	Contrast	Demonstrate	Discriminate	Construct	Critique
	List	Discuss	Illustrate	Outline	Create	Criticize
	Match	Distinguish	Predict	Relate	Design	Grade
	Name	Estimate	Relate	Separate	Formulate	Judge
	Outline	Explain	Solve	Subdivide	Generalize	Justify
	Point out	Generalize			Generate	Interpret
	Quote	Give examples			Group	Support
	Recite	Infer			Integrate	Recommend
	Repeat	Interpret			Organize	
	Reproduce	Paraphrase			Relate	
	Select	Rewrite			Summarize	
	State	Summarize				
Trace	Translate					

After nearly half a century, Anderson & Krathwohl (2001) revised Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive processing by changing some of the terminologies and their order of difficulty level in the taxonomy. The categories in the revised cognitive taxonomy include: remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluation and creating. These cognitive processes are arranged from lower-order to higher-order thinking skills.

Similarly, Airasian (1997: 8) states that cognitive processing includes a range of intellectual activities such as “memorizing, interpreting, applying, problem-solving, reasoning, and thinking critically”. According to Airasian, most tests that students take in schools are intended to measure one or more of these cognitive activities.

2.3.3.2. Assessment of Learning in the Non-cognitive Domain

Although assessment of learning in the cognitive domain is a dominant interest for teachers, they also observe, evaluate and act upon hints of on-going social behavior and upon their perceptions of the more or less prevailing personal traits of students (Airasian, 1997). All these non-cognitive assessments are done informally. Teachers' informal assessments inform them about attitudes, behaviors and other affective features of their students, such as who is trying hard, who cares about the lesson, who is good classroom citizen (Ibid).

Teachers use information about students' participation and involvement in the lesson to judge how well their lesson is going, and value information on their students' affective characteristics (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Woods & Naphthali (1975), for instance, found that the teachers in their study preferred to have information mainly about the following six affective attributes: interest, class participation, quietness, confidence, tidiness and behavior. These were classified as non-cognitive qualities.

However, Rowntree (1987) pointed out that teachers are not always aware of what students' characteristics they are assessing. Teachers may say, for instance, they are trying to assess students' recall of the homework assignment; then they start selectively encouraging and discouraging, condemning and ignoring students during the assessment episode. Hence, in this example, they are also assessing compliance with their classroom rules, about shouting out answers, hand raising, listening to others, keeping quiet when the teacher speaks, avoiding local dialect, and so on. This means that there are explicit and implicit assessment constructs (Ibid).

Teachers, in general, want their students to express respect to others and the rules of the classroom and to try hard to learn what is taught. Teachers also hope their students will develop an interest in the teaching unit and enjoy learning about it. However, such objectives are rarely stated explicitly by the teacher or assessed with formal assessment procedures. This happens because, first, affective objectives like interest and attitude are thought to be private behaviors (Airasian, 1996) and second, affective outcomes are difficult to assess (Broadfoot, 1979).

Although these non-cognitive behaviors are difficult to assess, they affect student achievement if they are not assessed and handled well. Tsagari (2004) stresses that assessing the following non-cognitive factors should be seen as an integral part of students' assessment.

- *learning strategies (e.g. whether the student takes risks, improvises, focuses on meaning/form, self-corrects, uses first language strategies)*
- *affective and personality styles (e.g. whether the student is enthusiastic, self-reliant, resourceful, passive)*
- *students' work habits (e.g. whether the student is punctual, follows instructions well, meets goals, prepares for class homework, seeks assistance when needed)*
- *students' social behavior (e.g. whether the student works cooperatively, socializes with peers, participates in class discussion)*
- *reactions to the course (e.g. student participates actively in class activities, requires extra guidance, shows initiative). (Tzagari 2004:8)*

2.4. Classroom Assessment Feedback

The term 'feedback' is used to express an opinion or a reaction to another person's performance (Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000). It is a strategy where the teacher is imparting directly a judgment of a learner's strategies, skills, or attainment, and giving information about the judgment (Askew, 2000). Furthermore, it could be used to praise achievement or to point out an error or a mistake (Marzano, 2003).

In the classroom settings, teachers constantly conduct various kinds of assessments to draw inferences about their students, for example, their knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviors, etc (Anderson, 1989). At the same time, they also provide various kinds of feedback to their students so as to create a link between assessment and learning (Wragg, 2001). Therefore, as Costa & Kallick (1995) states, feedback is a chain in the continuous system of teaching, learning and assessment and it makes the whole system function as an upward spiral. It helps both the teacher and students to know about their teaching and learning respectively.

It has been increasingly recognized that teachers' feedback is an important factor influencing students learning (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Lack of clear feedback about the line of reasoning students are supposed to be following leaves them confused and eventually they lose interest (Wragg, 2001). Thus, feedback has immense power to encourage students to work hard and indicate what they need to focus on when they are having difficulty.

Feedback often takes one of three forms: verbal, non-verbal, or written. How teachers can use these different methods to provide feedback in the ESL/EFL classroom will be elaborated below.

(i) Verbal Feedback

During lessons, teachers use a lot of verbal feedback to let students know how they are doing and also to transition from one section to another. Short expressions such as ‘*Good*’, ‘*Great!*’ or ‘*Well done!*’ can be used to praise students for correct answers.

Rather than telling students directly that they are incorrect, it is better to ask them to try again or reconsider their answers. The goal is to elicit the correct answer from the class and students should not be afraid of being wrong so teachers need to keep their reactions positive (Chumun, 2002).

Hernández, et al. (2010:246-247) lists the following oral corrective feedback types which occur during a lesson.

Recast involves the teacher’s reformulation of all of or part of a student’s utterance minus the error. Recasts are generally implicit in that they are not introduced by phrases such as ‘You mean,’ ‘Use this word,’ and ‘You should say’. However, some recasts are more salient than others in that they may focus on one word only, whereas others incorporate the grammatical or lexical modification into a sustained piece of discourse. Recasts also include translations in response to a student’s use of the L1 (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Clarification request: this is a feedback type that the teacher indicates students either that their utterance has been misunderstood or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required. A clarification request includes phrases such as ‘Pardon me’, ‘Come again’ and ‘Say that again’. It may also include a repetition of the error as in ‘What do you mean by X?’ (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Metalinguistic feedback contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Elicitation: teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to ‘fill in the blank’. Such ‘elicit completion’ moves may be preceded by some metalinguistic comment such as ‘No, not that. It’s a’ or by a repetition of the error as in the following oral feedback type.

Repetition of error refers to the teacher’s repetition, in isolation, of the student’s erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

All of the above verbal feedback techniques are indirect. Indirect feedback is a strategy of providing feedback commonly used by teachers to help students correct their errors by indicating an error without providing the correct form (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Indirect feedback takes place when teachers only provide indications which in some way make students aware that an error exists but they do not provide the students with the correction.

Another verbal feedback strategy commonly used by teachers is direct feedback. Direct feedback is a strategy of providing feedback to students to help them correct their errors by providing the correct linguistic form (Ferris, 2006) or linguistic structure of the target language.

Research on second language acquisition shows that indirect feedback is more powerful in facilitating students’ learning than direct feedback (Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Sheen, et al., 2009) because it engages students in the correction activity and helps them reflect to upon it (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). This, in turn, helps students foster their long-term acquisition of the target language (O’Sullivan & Chambers, 2006) and make them engaged in “guided learning and problem-solving” (Lalande, 1982) in correcting their errors. In addition, many experts agree that indirect feedback has the most potential for helping students in developing their second language proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005) and has more benefits than direct feedback on students’ long-term development (Ferris, 2003).

There is also a variation among the above mentioned indirect verbal feedback strategies. In investigating whether particular verbal feedback type is better than other, Lyster & Ranta (1997) and Sheen (2004) found that recast feedback is generally the most frequently deployed type, and elicitation feedback is generally more effective at producing uptake. However, the type of

feedback used appears to be a function of the students' age level, the purpose of the part of the lesson in which it occurs and many other factors in addition to the response (Chumun, 2002).

(ii) Non-verbal Feedback

Non-verbal feedback refers to the paralinguistic expressions and bodily movements such as body posture and orientation, gestures, eye contact, body contact, and facial expressions that teachers use in their classroom to praise student achievement or to point out an error or a mistake (Marzano, 2003). With this type of feedback, the teacher may use either a facial expression or a body movement to indicate how students are doing in class. Among which, frown, head shaking, and hand movements are commonly used non-verbal feedbacks (Shujen, 2000 as cited in Hernández, et al., 2010). Teachers may use non-verbal feedback with or without verbal feedback.

If the teacher uses the same non-verbal expression each time students say the incorrect answer, they will pick up on that. This non-verbal feedback allows the teacher to give students another chance without verbally telling them they are wrong (Marzano, 2003).

(iii) Written Feedback

Teachers often have the opportunity to give students written feedback on homework assignments, on exams, and at the end of each term. These are great opportunities to point out what students did well and what areas they still need to work on (Hattie, 1987). Homework with feedback that provided students with information about how and why they understand or misunderstand and strategies for future improvement is much more effective than homework without feedback (Ibid).

In general, regardless of how often the teacher uses the above different types of feedback, it is important to ensure that students are given a clear image of their performance as well as their goals. This enables them to identify their strengths and weaknesses and shows them how to improve where they are weak or build upon what they do best. Giving constructive criticism and providing students with both the materials and support they need to succeed are also important. Doing these things help students excel in their studies and maintain a positive attitude towards education (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

2.5. Principles of Effective Classroom Assessment

Classroom-based assessment provides regular feedback and allows teachers and students to reflect on progress and adjust instruction and learning accordingly (McKay, 2006; McMillan, 2007; Torrance & Pryor, 1998). In doing so, there are certain principles to be fulfilled. Alberta Education (2008:3) states the following principles of effective classroom assessment:

i. Assessment is ongoing

Assessment is a continuous process in which teachers gather information about student learning and consider it as they plan instruction. Ongoing student assessment facilitates decisions on how to best support student learning while students work toward achieving the outcomes in the program of studies.

Assessment and evaluation provide feedback to teachers, students and parents about student learning. The goal of this feedback is to help improve students' future performance. The assessment process has no beginning or end; it is a continuous process that enhances teaching and learning.

ii. Assessment employs a variety of strategies

“The most accurate profile of student achievement is based on the findings gathered from assessing student performance in a variety of contexts.” When teachers use a variety of assessment strategies, they are able to communicate about student performance in a range of outcomes in the program of studies.

iii. Assessment criteria are clearly communicated

Assessment criteria describe what students are expected to do to meet intended learning outcomes. Assessment criteria, written in age-appropriate language, are communicated to students before they begin any assessment activity. Sharing criteria with students empowers them to monitor their own learning and tell others about their progress.

iv. Assessment involves students

Involve students in identifying their learning needs and goals. Facilitate self-assessment, peer assessment, conferencing and goal setting to enhance learning and allow students to become effective users of assessment information.

v. Assessment demonstrates sensitivity to individual differences

Assessment impacts student motivation and self-esteem and, therefore, needs to be sensitive to how individual students learn. Assessment focuses on a student's progress and growth in relation to specific outcomes. Information is shared with students and parents to compare a student's performance with his or her previous performances. This involves ongoing, specific and descriptive feedback (i.e. both verbal and written) that highlights student strengths and suggests goals for improvement.

As a summary, Alberta Education (2008: 3) forwards the following characteristics of effective classroom assessments. It states that effective classroom assessment:

- *addresses specific outcomes in the program of studies*
- *shares intended specific outcomes with students prior to instruction*
- *assesses before, during and after instruction*
- *employs a variety of assessment strategies and evaluation tools to indicate student achievement*
- *grounds assessment within contexts that are meaningful to students*
- *shares criteria with students before assessment activity begins*
- *provides frequent and descriptive specific feedback to students*
- *facilitates students' communication with others who have a right to know about their progress and achievement*
- *ensures students can describe what comes next in their learning. (Alberta Education, 2008:3)*

Similarly, by reviewing different professional literatures, Wood, et al. (2007: 207) also synthesized the following principles of effective literacy assessment:

- *Assessment is a continuous process, not just a once -a-year event.*
- *Assessment must be varied and must include both formal and informal techniques, with a greater emphasis on the latter, more authentic, sources of information.*

- *Assessment must be flexible and take place in many forms and in many contexts; performance changes when the social structure changes*
- *Assessment must effectively capture both the scope and objectives of the assignments.*
- *Assessment is not just for teachers; we need to include the view points of both teachers and students.*
- *Assessment must be based on students' reading and response to multiple sources, including all of the texts that students read and evaluative prompts that go beyond end-of-chapter questions.*
- *To help teachers focus on diverse learners, assessment should both be based on instruction and should also inform instruction. That is, assessment should allow students to display their knowledge through multiple formats (e.g., discussion, illustration, written response), and it should also lead teachers to incorporate students' preferred or strong learning modes into routine instructional activities. (Wood, et al., 2007:207)*

Gronlund (2006) also suggests that a sound classroom assessment requires a clear conception of all intended learning outcomes of the instruction and a variety of assessment procedures that are relevant to the instruction, adequately sample student performance, and fair to everyone. In addition, a sound assessment requires the specifications of criteria for judging successful performance and timely and detailed feedback to students emphasizing strengths of their performance and weaknesses to be corrected (Ibid).

Thus, teachers are required to develop classroom assessment and grading that align with practices recommended by experts of educational measurement and assessment. Such recommendations include: students should clearly be informed about the grading procedure in advance and involved in the assessment process (Stiggins, 1994; Stiggins & Chapuis, 2005; Stiggins, et al., 1989); student personal characteristics such as ability, effort, motivation, interest, and neatness of work should not be incorporated into grading due to the lack of objective measurement (Stiggins, et al., 1989); a final grade for borderline cases should be determined using additional academic achievement data rather than non achievement data (Stiggins, et al., 1989); and students should be given continuous and informative assessment feedback rather than judgmental feedback about their academic performance (Brookhart, 1994).

In addition, teachers are encouraged to use a variety of assessment techniques that clearly reflect the communicative, learner-centred, task-based approach to second language learning (Gronlund, 2006; Nitko, 2001).

2.6. Factors Influencing Teachers' Classroom Assessment Practices

Many factors influence which assessment practices teachers use in their classroom during the school year. Among the factors which may influence a teacher's preference for one assessment practice over another include: beliefs; personality; training; experience; lesson objective(s); perceptions of student abilities; parental expectations; external tests and school, district, or state policies (Stiggins & Conklin, 1992).

Moreover, according to Xu and Liu (2009), teachers' prior assessment experience, power relationships in the workplace and professional knowledge are the major factors that influence teachers' classroom assessment practices.

i. Assessment Policies

School, district, or state assessment policies induce teachers to use some classroom assessment techniques more often than others (Murphy, 2008). In addition, teachers' practices in the classroom are influenced by curriculum and policy at the social order level and beliefs and experience at the individual level (Ibid).

However, some argue that policies do not influence teachers' classroom assessment practices as it might be expected:

Policy is an area about which classroom teachers appear to be relatively uninformed and about which they concern themselves very little. Even where district or school assessment and assessment related policies exist, teachers are largely unaware of them. When they are aware of certain policies, they appear to have the autonomy to ignore them by and large. Teachers very broadly control the conduct of their own classrooms, including assessment aspects. (Stiggins & Conklin, 1992: 149-150)

Thus, the existence of an assessment policy alone may not influence teachers' classroom assessment practices. In order to bring changes in teachers' assessment practices through

the implementation of school or state policy, teachers should be well informed about the policy and accept it as useful.

ii. Training and Experience

Other than assessment policy, teacher's choice of assessment practice might also be influenced by their training and experience. For instance, regarding training, Stiggins & Conklin, (1992) have stated that teachers who are trained using specific assessment practices are more likely to use them in assessing their students' ability. Similarly, Gullickson & Hopkins, (1987) have found that pre-service teachers who have taken assessment courses have focused on statistics and standardized testing systems and dominantly use multiple-choice formats. It is plausible that teachers who pursue further education (e.g., a master's degree) are more likely to use alternative techniques of assessment.

Regarding teachers experience, Bol et al. (1998) have found that the most experienced teachers indicated the use of alternative assessment more often than the least experienced teachers. On the other hand, Alsarimi (2000) found that years of teaching experience does not have any significant effect on teachers' classroom assessment practices.

iii. Teachers' Beliefs

Beliefs are formed through personal experiences and interactions in every day life and interpretations of events individuals have engaged in (Hsieh, 2002). These beliefs are transformed into attitudes, which in turn influence intentions, with intentions becoming the bases for decisions that lead to action (Bauch, 1984). These beliefs largely direct teachers' choice and practice, such as addressing teaching objectives, designing lessons, selecting tasks and activities, and assessing student performance (Rios, 1996). The stronger beliefs on the multiple assessments the EFL teachers had, the more frequently they used multiple assessments in their teaching practices (Chen, 2003).

iv. Student Ability

Traditional assessment techniques are particularly equipped to measure knowledge and simple understanding (Linn, Baker & Dunbar, 1991; Quellmalz, 1985). Thus, if a student has difficulty with complex subject matter, traditional assessments provide that student with the opportunity to

demonstrate learning. A teacher sensitive to these concerns might be more inclined to use traditional assessments in classes with less-able students. Thus, having a class with higher-ability students is expected to have a negative effect on traditional practices and a positive effect on alternative practices.

v. Resource Constraints

Teachers in schools with resource constraints will be more inclined to use less resource-intensive (i.e., traditional) means of assessment. Traditional means of assessment are less resource-intensive because of the relative ease of grading and the fewer materials required to produce them (i.e., at the extreme end, a teacher could conceivably use a multiple-choice test that the publisher includes with the reading material). Thus, the resource constraints of being in a) an urban school, b) a school with a higher pupil-teacher ratio, and c) a school with a higher proportion of students eligible for free or reduced-price lunch, are expected to have a positive effect on traditional practices and a negative effect on alternative practices.

vi. External tests

Teachers' assessment practices can be influenced by the nature of high-stakes tests. Regarding the issue of assessment practices in specific educational contexts, such as in Israel (Ferman, 2004) and in China (Cheng, 2004), studies indicate that teachers tended to use similar assessment methods to those included in external exams in order to coach students toward the external test. Moreover, in another study, Chang, et al. (2004) found that the assessment methods teacher used and the procedures they followed revealed a marked influence of large class size and objectively scored external testing culture.

Generally, other explanations that have been offered for classroom assessment practices include the prevalence of poorly qualified teachers, large class sizes, poor facilities, and shortages of learning materials (including books).

2.7. Studies on EFL Teachers' Classroom Assessment Practices

2.7.1. International Studies

A number of studies have been conducted on EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices in different countries. However, for the purpose of this study, only a few more related studies to the current study will be discussed. The summaries of these studies are presented in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: International studies on EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices

Studies	Summary
Chan (2008)	This quantitative study investigated teachers' beliefs and practices of multiple assessments and explored the difficulties affecting their practices. A questionnaire comprising a self-report Likert Scale, multiple choice and open-ended questions was completed by 520 elementary school EFL teachers from Northern Taiwan. Results of the study indicated that these teachers had a better understanding of the concepts of assessment and multiple assessments. They also applied most of the multiple assessments in their teaching. Concerning the types of multiple assessments, the study found that the paper-and-pencil test type was the most frequently-used assessment type and the second frequently-used assessment was classroom observation.
Cheng, et al. (2004)	In this study, the researchers carried out a comparative survey conducted in three educational contexts at tertiary level (Canada, Hong Kong and China). The main objective of the research was to find out the purposes, methods and procedures of assessment of 98 ESL-teachers in Canada, 45 ESL/EFL-teachers in Hong Kong, and 124 EFL-teachers in Beijing. The findings of the study demonstrated the complex and multifaceted roles that assessment plays in different teaching and learning settings.
Edelenbos & Kubanek-German (2004)	This study, employing qualitative methods, explored EFL teachers' assessment behaviors by observing twenty-five lessons in ten schools in the Netherlands. Results of the study indicated that those teachers' assessment behaviors included informal questioning, test administration, and observations.
Gattullo (2000)	This qualitative study explored four EFL teachers' assessment behaviors in Italy by interviews and classroom observations. Results of the study indicated that those teachers' assessment behaviors were: informal questioning, correcting, judging, rewarding, observing process, and examining products.
Greenstein (2004)	This study, employing both quantitative and qualitative methods, examined how high school teachers assess student learning and how they use the information from assessment to inform and guide instruction. Data were

collected from 115 teachers in two Connecticut high schools by interviews and questionnaire. As a result, the primary findings indicated large variability or disconnect between teachers' instruction and assessment, and limited assessment literacy. The study also revealed a limited and inconsistent use of formative assessment and student self-assessment.

Rea-Dickins & Rixon (1999) The study was conducted employing both quantitative and qualitative research methods. It investigated 120 EFL teachers' assessment practices by questionnaire, interviews and classroom observations in Europe. Results of the study indicated that those teachers' main assessment tasks used were traditional paper-and-pencil tests. The results also showed a strong mismatch between curricular aims, pedagogy and test content.

Among the prominent studies summarized in Table 2.2, the earliest research is the Rea-Dickins & Rixons' (1999) study. They investigated 120 EFL teachers' and teacher trainers' experiences of assessment practices. The major focus of the investigation was to understand the assessment type used by those teachers. These researchers began with a survey questionnaire to provide an overview of teachers' assessment practices. Then they conducted two school-based case studies to probe the responses to the survey questionnaire by observations and interviews. In addition, they collected assessment instruments used by those teachers and analyzed them in order to examine teachers' reported assessment practices. Results of these various sources of data showed that teachers mainly utilized traditional paper-and-pencil assessment. The majority of these traditional tests were commercially produced, either found in the textbook or other books instead of locally developed by those teachers.

Somewhat different to the above study, Gattullo (2000) conducted a study focusing only on EFL teachers' assessment behaviors as teaching proceeds. She explored four EFL teachers' assessment behaviors through classroom observations and interviews. Results of the study showed that those teachers' assessment behaviors, in order from the most to the least frequent, included informal questioning, correcting, judging, rewarding, observing process, examining products, clarifying, task criteria, and metacognitive questioning. Thus, Gattullo concluded that a high proportion of the actions of formative assessment are mostly targeted at rehearsing knowledge and/or at enhancing motivation.

Similar with Gattullo (2000), Edelenbos & Kubanek-German (2004) also explored EFL teachers' assessment behaviors by observing twenty-five lessons in ten elementary schools. The frequency

of each assessment behavior was documented in this study. The findings indicated that these teachers most commonly used informal questioning, test administration, and observations in the order of frequency.

Cheng, et al. (2004) carried out a comparative survey conducted in three educational contexts at tertiary level (Canada, Hong Kong & China). The main objective of the research was to find out the purposes, methods and procedures of assessment of 98 ESL-teachers in Canada, 45 ESL/EFL-teachers in Hong Kong, and 124 EFL-teachers in Beijing. The study indicated that the type of courses in each institution, the participants' teaching experience, their knowledge of assessment methods, the students' needs in each context and the impact of standardised tests contributed to the differences in the results of the survey in the three institutions. Thus, findings of the study demonstrated the complex and multifaceted roles that assessment plays in different teaching and learning settings.

Greenstein (2004), employing both quantitative and qualitative methods, examined how high school teachers assess student learning and how they use the information from assessment to inform and guide instruction. Data were collected from 115 teachers in two Connecticut high schools through interviews and questionnaire. As a result, the primary findings indicated large variability or disconnect between teachers' instruction and assessment, and limited assessment literacy. The study also revealed a limited and inconsistent use of formative assessment and student self-assessment. Similarly, Chan's (2008) study also found that EFL teachers frequently use paper-and-pencil test type to assess their students.

Thus, the summary in Table 2.2 shows that EFL teachers in these studies used a variety of classroom assessment techniques in their classroom such as: informal questioning, formal and informal observations, paper-and-pencil tests, oral exams, role play, student-teacher conferences, performance tasks, projects, self assessment, peer assessment, portfolios, correction, judging, and examination of products. These studies shed light on EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices; however, most of the studies either lacked observing closely the classroom teaching-learning process or lacked supporting the observation data with documents, interviews and questionnaires. Therefore, this study attempts to fulfill these gaps by using observations, documents, interviews and questionnaires.

2.7.2. Local Studies

Studies about EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices in the Ethiopian schools context are extremely rare. Although the main objectives of the following local studies are not directly related to the current study, it is worth mentioning them here. Most of these studies were conducted at the MA thesis level. These studies are summarized in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3: Local Studies on EFL Teachers' Classroom Assessment Practices in Ethiopian Schools

Studies	Summary
Abraham Merid (2002)	The purpose of this study was to evaluate whether teacher-made tests aim for the general objectives of the syllabus. The study attempted to see the match between the achievement tests of grade 7 from two randomly selected schools and the syllabus for the specific grade. The findings of the two tests have shown a minimum match between the aim of the test items and the expected outcome in the syllabus. Such a result was gained by considering minimum requirement of a test for the given syllabus.
Bekele Gerba (2001)	In this study, an attempt was made to explore whether testing had also been changed in accordance with change of the syllabuses. To investigate this, contents of the new Grade 11 English textbooks were compared with the contents of the 1992 E.C. test papers of the four sample high school in Addis Ababa. Additionally two sets of questionnaires were distributed to 208 students and 20 teachers to gather information regarding the skills/subskills and test formats emphasized in classroom teaching and testing. The study revealed that contents of the syllabus/textbooks and the test papers vary greatly. Moreover, it was found that grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension were the most emphasized language areas in classroom lessons and classroom tests; multiple-choice was the most dominant test format employed in testing. Finally, Bekele concluded that changes in the syllabus were not accompanied by innovations in testing.
Bogale Tessema (1994)	In this quasi-experimental study an attempt was made to investigate the validity, reliability and feasibility of continuous assessment in a traditional ethiopian secondary school context. To find out whether or not continuous assessment in the teaching of English was more effective than the non-continuous traditional assessment practiced in high schools, Bogale conducted an experiment for ten weeks with a sample population of 138 Grade Eleven Students (74 control and 64 experimental). The findings of the study revealed that continuous assessment had a better effect on students' post-test scores. The result also showed a very strong positive correlation between the aggregate scores obtained from the continuous assessment and scores obtained from the post-test. However, based on his

findings, Bogale expressed his doubt about the feasibility of continuous assessment in Ethiopian schools due to various reasons. Therefore, he concluded that his experimental continuous assessment was valid and reliable but there were some issues for its feasibility.

**Kifle
Kebede
(1995)**

The main objective of this study was to examine whether or not high school English language tests administered in schools adequately represent – both in content and in format – the practice exercises contained in the corresponding textbooks. The main data sources were Grade 10 English language textbook and test papers gathered from different government comprehensive, vocational and senior secondary schools in Addis Ababa.

The results of the study showed that the contents of the sample test papers generally correlate with the contents of the textbook. However, in specific terms, the different content areas of the textbook were not proportionally allocated to the various content areas and skills in the sample test papers. Regarding the formats, the two materials (the textbook and the sample test papers) were found to be at variance. In the sample examination papers, limited formats were employed as compared to the formats of exercises presented in the textbook. Therefore, the study concluded that the English language examinations administered at Grade Ten level had low content validity.

**Teshome
Demissie
(2001)**

This study focused on the issue of language testing and evaluation training and practice at primary school level. Teshome examined the syllabus and the booklets for the training of primary school teachers to assess the adequacy of the training in language testing. Then, he collected a survey data through questionnaire to see the actual state of affairs in language testing in some primary schools in Addis Ababa. Thus, by examining the syllabus and the booklets, he found a limited but good progress in teaching and testing the trainees. In addition, in the survey phase of his study, he also found that primary school teachers practiced continuous assessment and shared experiences and views with colleagues in preparing tests and examinations, and interpreting scores.

Three of the above local studies (Abreham, 2002; Bekele, 2001; and Kifle, 1995) aimed in checking the validity of teacher-made tests. These studies attempted to see the match between the contents of teacher tests and the syllabus. The earliest of these three studies, Kifle (1995), conducted a document analysis (the text book and the tests) to check the validity of Grade 10 tests in ten secondary schools in Addis Ababa. Thus, the results of the study showed that the English language tests administered at Grade Ten level had low content validity. Abreham, (2002) also conducted a similar study with a small sample at Grade 7. He evaluated the match between the achievement tests and the syllabus of Grade 7 from two randomly selected schools. The findings of the study indicated a minimum match between the aim of the test items and the

expected outcome in the syllabus. Another study with almost the same purpose was Bekele (2001). Bekele conducted his study on Grade 11 teacher made English tests of four sample schools in Addis Ababa. He evaluated the tests to check their connection to the contents of textbook and the aims of the syllabus. Unlike the above two studies, Bekele (2001) employed teachers' questionnaire to supplement his data obtained from documents (the textbook and tests). Hence, the results of the study showed a disparity between contents of the textbook and contents of the test papers of the sample schools in terms of grammatical components, functions, skills/subskills, and test formats. To sum up, the above three local studies conducted at different grade levels and at different times indicated that teacher made tests in Ethiopian schools have low content validity. However, these studies were not interested to evaluate the non-formal and day- to-day assessment practices of EFL teachers.

With a different aim from the above studies, Bogale (1994) attempted to check the validity, reliability and feasibility of continuous assessment in one secondary school in Addis Ababa through a pre-test/post-test quasi-experimental study. Bogale also supplemented his data through questionnaire from five more sample schools. Finally, he found that students who were taught with continuous assessment scored better in the post test than students who were taught without continuous assessment. Moreover, to check the reliability of the results obtained from the continuous assessment, he computed the aggregate scores obtained from the continuous assessment with the post-test scores. Hence, the result indicated a very strong positive correlation. However, Bogale (1994) stated that due to the low morale of both students and teachers and the high teacher-student ratio, the feasibility of continuous assessment in Ethiopian schools was uncertain. Therefore, he concluded that his experimental continuous assessment was valid and reliable but there were some issues for its feasibility.

Another significant study on EFL assessment in the Ethiopian school context is Teshome (2001). This study had two major objectives: (i) to check the adequacy of teacher trainings for primary schools, and (ii) to see the actual EFL testing practice in the primary schools. To achieve the first objective, Teshome examined the syllabus and booklets used for training primary school teachers. Thus, the results of the study showed that there was a limited but good beginning in that the teaching and testing of English was skills-based and integrated. Moreover, to meet the second major objective of this study, he collected data through questionnaire from 134 teachers

in 15 schools in Addis Ababa. Hence, the findings of the study indicated that primary school teachers practiced continuous assessment and shared experiences and views with colleagues in preparing tests and examinations, and interpreting scores. However, the study lacks to look closely on the actual classroom assessment practices in both the college training programs and primary school classrooms.

Generally, the reviewed local studies so far either lacked to see the overall assessment practices of EFL teacher (both the traditional and alternative assessments) or limit themselves to document analysis or surveying. They never included observation as their data collection instrument.

2.8. Conceptual Framework for the Study

As mentioned earlier in the first chapter of this thesis, the present study has attempted to reveal EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices mainly by observing their actual classroom practices and by interviewing sample teachers. It has also tried to compare the teachers' actual classroom assessment practices to the recommended standards of assessment. In doing so, earlier theories of learning and assessment were consulted and used as a starting point.

Among the theories of learning, constructivism is a prominent theory which guided the present study. As described earlier in Section 2.2, constructivism views learning as an active process of mental construction and sense making. Constructivists explain that before coming to class, students have a multiple of unique experiences including personal beliefs and knowledge about how the world works. Thus, these existing knowledge structures and beliefs work to enable or impede new learning (Shepard, 2000).

Hence, in order to facilitate learning, teachers need to know and activate their students' prior experiences or prior knowledge (Brooks & Brooks, 1994). They should also know about a number of other student characteristics including personal behaviors, social behaviors, and academic characteristics (Gurney, 1995).

To help teachers identify and assess different kinds of academic learning, several frameworks for assessment have been developed. The two most frequently used frames of reference are Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain (Bloom, et al., 1956) and Quellmalz's framework for evaluating the reasoning process (Quallmalz, 1987). Bloom's Taxonomy is organized into six

levels, each representing a more complex type of cognitive thinking. Starting from the simple and moving to the complex, the six levels are: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. On the other hand, Quallmalz's Taxonomy includes five categories: recall, analysis, comparison, inference, and evaluation. An interesting observation based on a comparison of the two frameworks is the absence of the application and comprehension levels or components in Quallmalz's classification scheme. Moreover, Quallmalz's approach reflects the contemporary influence of cognitive theory and provides a basis for assessing the constructive process of learning. The cognitive influence is also reflected in the emphasis placed on the reconstruction of knowledge. Both approaches are used extensively by commercial producers of assessment materials as well as classroom teachers engaged in developing informal assessment options (Phye, 1997).

By reviewing Bloom's Taxonomy, Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) developed another more fruitful framework for assessing the mental processing of students. Bloom's revised taxonomy includes six cognitive processes; such as: remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluation and creating. These cognitive processes are arranged from lower-order to higher-order thinking skills. The revision includes some changes in terminology. For example, 'knowledge' is renamed as 'remembering'. 'Comprehension' and 'synthesis' are also renamed as 'understanding' and 'creating'. Additionally, the authors rearranged two of the subcategories in the cognitive process since they wanted to arrange them in the order of increased difficulty. Consequently, they exchanged the order of 'synthesis' and 'evaluation' which are 'create' and 'evaluate' in the new taxonomy because they stated that creative thinking is more difficult than critical thinking. They elaborated it by saying that one can be critical without necessarily being creative, but creative production often necessitates critical thinking. Thus, in the new taxonomy, creating is shown to be more complex than evaluating.

The researcher of this study has found the above reasoning for categorizing and ordering the thinking skills more convincing. Moreover, this revised taxonomy is suitable to see learning and EFL assessment from constructivist's point of view since it includes additional knowledge dimensions like: Factual Knowledge, conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge and meta-cognitive knowledge. Hence, Bloom's revised taxonomy is used as the theoretical framework for the current study, particularly for describing what aspects of learning EFL teachers' assess.

Taking this theoretical framework into consideration, the aspects of learning that need to be assessed in the teaching-learning process are categorized into two domains: Cognitive and Non-cognitive domains. Cognitive domain is intended to include students' knowledge and abilities which are mentioned in the Bloom's revised taxonomy of cognitive processing (i.e. remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluation and creating). On the other hand, the non-cognitive domain is designed to include the other aspects of learning which also have crucial roles in language learning and knowledge construction. These are features of learning related to the learners themselves, their motivation, their learning style preferences and learner strategies. These features are also categorized under affective domains which include motivation, interest, attitude, values, beliefs and other social and individual behaviors. According to constructivist, learning and knowledge are generated through meaning construction in the social world rather than objective reflections of an external world (Piaget, 1971; Rogoff, 1999; Vygotsky, 1978). Hence, feelings and emotions are very important variables in social interactions. Similarly, in language learning, students' affective aspects are essential since students are very affective about learning. This means that their attitudes about the teacher, the target language, or the way of learning are based more on their emotions and feelings (Dörnyei & R. Schmidt, 2001). This implies that the teacher should pay special attention to this aspect and make use of it when motivating, giving feedback, or teaching new language items (Gardner, et al., 2004).

Therefore, in a constructivist paradigm, assessment has to serve and foster learning processes, enhance learners' awareness of their strengths and weaknesses, provide descriptive feedback, modify teaching and learning acts and address affective considerations in language learning (Mantero, 2002). This will happen only when teachers are fully informed about their students and when they are better prepared to make appropriate instructional and curriculum decisions (Chan, 2004). The assessment data must also provide information about students' current ability and knowledge within the subject matter as well as information about students' interests, learning styles, and pace. Thus, to know all about their students, teachers must rely on data collected through a variety of methods. In identifying the various methods employed by EFL teachers', the researcher has adapted the assessment framework developed by Torrance and Pryor (1998). These scholars identified fourteen informal assessment actions which are typical in a constructivist foreign language classroom. These are questioning, clarifying, metacognitive

questioning, observing process, checking product, judging, rewarding, setting task criteria, setting quality criteria, correcting, criticizing work, planning next teaching and planning next time lesson.

In general, this study has intended to investigate EFL teachers' multiple assessment practices mainly from constructivists' point of view. Theorists in the constructive paradigm recommend teacher efforts that center on examining the process (as well as the products) of performing complex tasks in typical learning and application contexts (Johnston, 1992; Moore, 2000; Wilson, 1996). Therefore, the current researcher started his investigation from this constructivists' theory of learning and assessment. In doing so, he used the following conceptual framework which is illustrated in Figure 2.2.

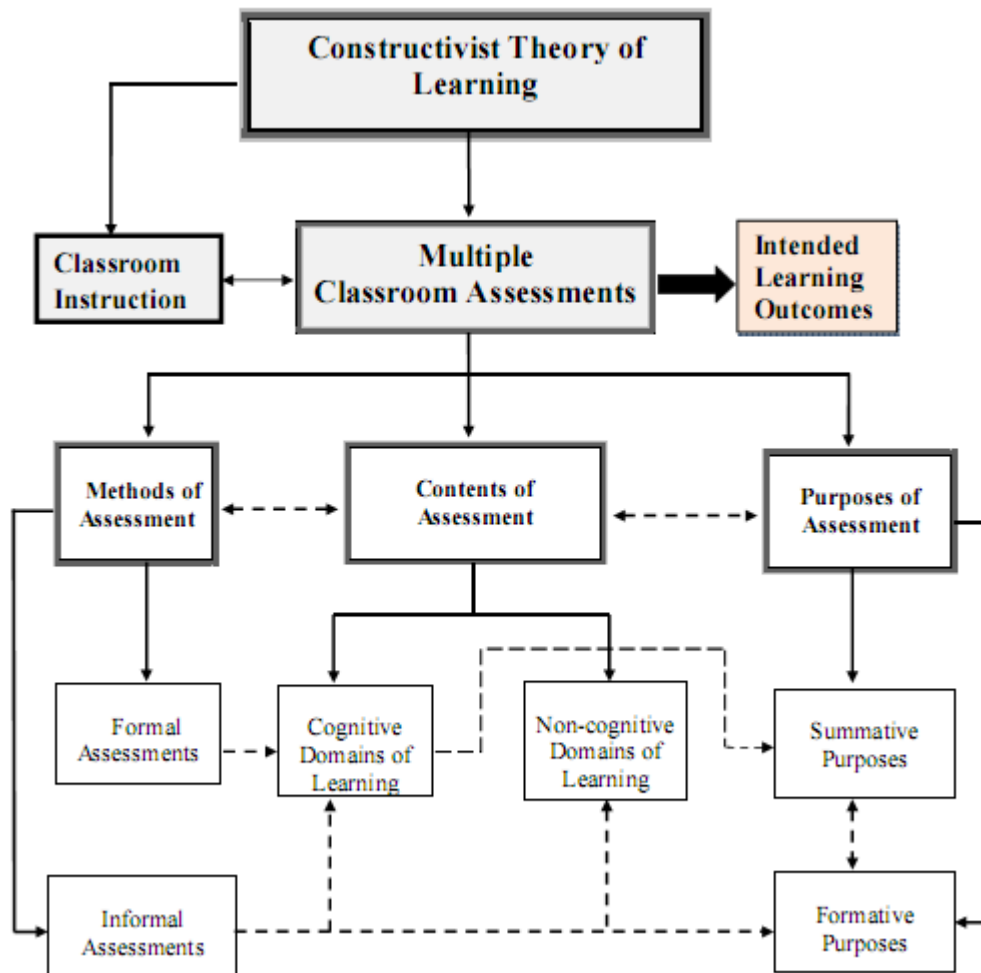


Figure 2.2 – A Conceptual Framework for this Study

CHAPTER THREE

Research Methodology

3.1. Research Design

The choice of a research design depends on: (a) the research questions posed; (b) the kind of control an investigator has over actual situations; and (c) whether the research focuses on contemporary or historical phenomena (Yin, 2003). Similarly, Merriam (1998) states that the research design depends on what the researcher wants to know. “One’s selection of a research design is determined by how well it allows full investigation of a particular research question” (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006:13). Hence, before choosing any research design, it is important to focus on the objective or intention of the research.

The present study has intended to describe and portray ‘the overall classroom assessment practices of EFL teachers’ by deeply looking into the cases of three government secondary schools in Addis Ababa. Specifically, it intends to:

- Describe how secondary school EFL teachers collect assessment evidence.
- Find out what secondary school EFL teachers assess.
- Explain why secondary school EFL teachers use multiple classroom assessments.

In order to understand and interpret teachers’ classroom assessment practices, data should be collected at classroom level by observing and/or interviewing the main actors of assessment (i.e. teachers and students). Therefore, in order to effectively achieve the objectives of this study, the researcher has used a case study design for it seeks to understand humans engaged in action and interaction with in a particular context (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003).

A case study involves “a careful and complete observation of a social unit, be that unit a person, a family, an institution, a cultural group or even the entire community. It is a method of study in depth rather than breadth. The case study places more emphasis on the full analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their interrelations” (Kothari, 2004:113). There are several types of case study. Based on its outcomes, Yin (1984) and Hancock & Algozzine, (2006) identify three types of case study: (a) *exploratory* (as a pilot to other studies or research questions); (b) *explanatory* (testing theories); (c) *descriptive* (providing narrative accounts).

Stake (1995, 2005) as cited in Dörnyei, (2007) also identifies three main types of case study: (a) the '*intrinsic case study*' (a study that is undertaken in order to understand the nature of a particular case); (b) the '*instrumental case study*' (examining a particular case in order to gain insight into a wider issue or a theory); (c) the '*multiple or collective case study*' (groups of individual studies that are undertaken to gain a fuller picture). Thus, a multiple case study is, in effect, an instrumental case study extended to several cases. Such case study design can be seen as fairly typical in applied linguistics research and it ensures subject morbidity where there will likely be attrition among the participants (Duff, 2006 cited in Dörnyei, 2007). Conducting case study with two or more cases also allows comparative analysis, facilitating more in-depth discussion into the research problem (Yin, 2003).

Likewise, the current study demands involvement of multiple cases due to two main reasons: (i) to make cross-case analysis so that a relatively comprehensive result about EFL teachers' assessment practices could be gained, and (ii) to avoid subject morbidity. Since this study was conducted for months, in the middle of the study, some of the sample teachers might have stopped teaching. This could have limited the amount of data gathered. However, the researcher did not want to take this risk by selecting samples only from a single case study.

Therefore, this study has employed a multiple case study design in order to describe and interpret the research phenomenon.

3.2. Selection of Cases and Subjects

A 'case' can be an individual person, a group, an institution, an event, or a social activity (Yin, 2003). It could be a class, a school, a community, or a specific policy (Merriam, 1998).

This study has encompassed three government secondary schools as case units. These are: Yekatit 23 Secondary School, Bole Community School and Dil Ber Secondary School. The reasons behind using three cases rather than one are, first, a three-case design is stronger in external validity as compared to one-case study. As Yin (2003: 46) asserts "the evidence from more than one-case study is often considered more compelling, and the overall study is therefore regarded as being more robust". If this study had included more than three cases, it would have achieved even stronger external validity than the current one. However, it was unmanageable for the researcher to include more than three-cases in the study. The second reason in using three

cases is to address concerns of variations in local settings. Using designs which include more than one-case is advisable to address concerns of variations in local settings (Rogoff, 2003).

Thus, the three schools (Dil Ber, Yekatit 23 and Bole Community secondary schools) were selected out of all government general secondary schools of Addis Ababa through multistage sampling technique. In multistage sampling “we first sample higher-level sites (e.g. local education authorities) at random, then randomly sample a lower stage (e.g. schools in those local education authorities), and then randomly sample members of the population in that stage (e.g. pupils within a school)” (Muijs, 2004: 39-40). Hence, in this study, first, three sub-cities (Bole, Addis Ketema and Gullele sub-cities) were selected randomly out of ten sub-cities. Then, from each sub-city, one secondary school was selected by the same sampling technique. Therefore, by using multistage sampling strategy, an attempt was made to reduce concerns of variations in local settings.

Regarding the grade level, this study has focused particularly on Grade 9. This was due to the fact that: (a) the English language syllabus for Grade 9 demands teachers to implement multiple classroom assessments; (b) all the assessment methods at this grade level depend entirely on classroom assessment; and (c) it is at Grade 9 that most of Ethiopian school children find English as a medium of instruction for the first time. As a result, EFL teachers’ classroom assessment practice at this grade level is expected to play vital roles in the teaching-learning process.

After selecting the three sample schools and the grade level to be studied, the next thing that the researcher did was selecting the subjects of the study (the English teachers and their students). Accordingly, all Grade 9 English teachers in each sample schools were selected as samples of the study. All of them participated in filling the questionnaire. However, out of these teachers, only two focal participants were selected from each school for the more detailed data collecting processes (classroom observation and interviews). These two focal participants were selected by convenience sampling technique. Convenience sampling refers to selecting individuals particularly because they are willing and available to be studied (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). This type of sampling is an appropriate sampling strategy for a case study or a series of case studies (Cohen, et al. 2000). The present study, which was conducted mainly through a number of classroom observations, demanded volunteer teachers. Therefore, the researcher has chosen

the two focal participants in each school mainly because they were voluntary to be observed and interviewed.

Focal participating teachers were teaching averagely three classes. All of the teachers were teaching both Grades 9 and 10 students. As a result, among the three classes, only one or two were Grade 9 students and the rest were Grade 10. Therefore, from the teachers who have been teaching two classes of Grade 9 students, one class was selected randomly but from the teachers who have been teaching only one class of Grade 9, the class was selected without any further sampling strategy. Moreover, from each sample class, a group of 6 students were selected randomly as focal subjects of the study. These students were selected to serve as participants of the focus group discussion and as a source of documents (particularly exercise books).

In general, this study has encompassed three schools or cases, 29 sample teachers (among these, 6 were focal participating teachers) and 330 sample students (among these, 36 were focal participating students). The summary is presented in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Sample Population

Sub-city	Sample Schools	Total number of Participants		Number of Focal participants	
		Students	Teachers	Students	Teachers
Bole	Bole community School	140	5	12	2
Gullele	Dil Ber Secondary School	100	9	12	2
Addis Ketema	Yekatit 23 Secondary School	90	15	12	2
	TOTAL	330	29	36	6

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of a research phenomenon, using a complete set of qualitative data collection methods is indispensable (Patton, 1990). These methods include: (i) interviews; (ii) direct observation; and (iii) written documents (Ibid).

Likewise, the main data collection instruments for this study were observation, interview and document analysis. Moreover, to supplement these instruments, questionnaire and focus group discussion were used.

3.3.1. Observation

Observation is a data gathering procedure in which open-ended, firsthand qualitative information is collected by observing at a research site (Creswell, 2008). It provides an opportunity to study actual behaviors by observing individuals in their natural settings. Observations are frequently used in the course of case study research (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). Researchers who conduct such studies focus upon events more than words and concentrate on interactions and behaviors.

According to Hancock & Algozzine (2006), researchers should consider five important issues while conducting observations in a case study. The first most important issue for the researcher during observation is identifying what must be observed. Second, a case study researcher “should create an observation guide – a list of features to be addressed during a particular observation” (Ibid: 46). Third, a case study researcher “must gain access to the research setting” (Ibid: 46). Fourth, during observation, the researcher must recognize his or her personal role and biases related to the research; and fifth, when conducting observations, researchers must be careful not to violate legal or ethical protections.

Taking the above principles into consideration, in the present study, the emphasis of the observation was on two main classroom assessment practices: (i) specific classroom assessment actions which are mentioned in Torrance and Pryor’s (1998) classroom assessment framework (e.g. questioning, metacognitive questioning, observing process, observing product, correcting, rewarding and criticizing work); (ii) the kind of assessment feedback provided to the students. Moreover, students’ involvement in the assessment practice was also observed.

The observation data were collected through an observation schedule (check-list) and audio-recording material. The schedule was designed to facilitate note-taking and retrieval of

information when needed. It has two main parts: Part One is about background information (which includes classroom context and lessons observed); and Part Two is about EFL teachers' assessment practices (which includes the assessment techniques used, student involvement in the assessment activities and feedbacks given to the students) (see Appendix 3).

During observation, the researcher has taken the role of a non-participant observer and has completed the observation schedule. Non-participant observation is particularly useful when the observer makes observations of participants' outward behavior (Perry, 2005). Hence, in this study, in order to obtain data about teachers' actual classroom assessment practices, the observer has no need to interact with either the teachers or students. The best illustration of the non-participant observer role is perhaps the case of "the researcher sitting at the back of a classroom coding up every three seconds the verbal exchanges between teacher and pupils by means of a structured set of observational categories" (Cohen, et. al, 2000: 187). This was what the current researcher did while he was observing the classrooms.

Moreover, in order to obtain data about the details of teachers' assessment practices and to cross check the data collected through the observation schedule, the researcher has audio-taped the observed lessons of each of the participating English teacher's classes. The lessons were selected purposefully based on the teachers' weekly lesson plan in order to include lessons of all language skills in the observation.

3.3.2. Interviews

Interview is a very common form of data collection in case study research. It allows the researcher to attain rich, personalized information (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). According to Patton (1980), we interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe like feelings, thoughts and intentions. Apart from providing access to the participants' personal feelings, thoughts and intentions, interviews can also bring the researcher in contact with past events or events that are out of his or her reach (Patton, 1990). The purpose of interviewing, then, is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective or to access the other person's experience about past events.

The present study has employed semi-structured interviews. The rationale for using semi-structured interviews relates to the fact that interviewing, in this approach, is both controlled and

flexible. It is controlled in a sense that the researcher poses predetermined and sequenced questions with the aid of an interview guide and controls the situation. However, the researcher has still a room to make it proceed like a normal conversation by asking follow-up questions so as to probe more deeply issues of interest to individual interviewees (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). Therefore, this interview format has been preferred since it allows the researcher to identify or confirm some facts about the interviewees' classroom assessment practices and at the same time to seek clarification and elaboration of their comments and responses.

Thus, using the same interview guide, the researcher has conducted interviews with each of the sample teachers. The interview guide consists of two major parts: The first part seeks information about gender, age, academic status, duration of teaching experience, and assessment-related trainings received; and the second part focuses on EFL teachers' actual classroom assessment practices. Specifically, the second part is designed to investigate: (1) methods of formal and informal assessments employed by sample teachers, (2) contents of assessment during their formal and informal assessments, (3) primary reasons for their formal and informal assessments, and (4) their overall classroom assessment practice (see Appendix 2).

3.3.3. Documents

The analysis of documents is a commonly used method in case study research. Together with interviews and observations, document analysis is used in most case studies due to the fact that "When combined with information from interviews and observations, information gained from documents provides the case study researcher with important information from multiple data sources that must be summarized and interpreted in order to address the research questions under investigation" (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006: 52).

However, for a document analysis to be effective there must be a clear and direct connection between the content of the document that is studied and the objective of the research (Borg & Gall, 1996). Hancock & Algozzine (2006:52) also recommend case study researchers, "If you decide to use documentary evidence, you should have a clear view for why this method is appropriate (e.g., available information provides meaningful answers to your research questions). You should also have access to key documents and a well-developed plan for analyzing them". Therefore, the researcher must be clear with what kind of documents he needs to get to achieve his research

objectives; where he can get such documents; and what specific criteria he needs to analyze the documents.

In this study, the main objective of using documents as sources of data was to check how sample EFL teachers assess their students formally using quizzes, tests, and semester exams. Moreover, students' exercise books were used as documents so as to see the practice of informal assessment and assessment feedback. The sample EFL teachers and their students were sources of the collected documents.

The collected documents were studied and analyzed by means of a criteria developed based on the objectives and tasks in the students' textbook and the literature (see Appendix 7).

3.3.4. Questionnaire

To triangulate the data obtained from observations, interviews and documents, teachers' questionnaire was employed in this study.

The questionnaire was developed mainly in the form of a checklist requiring respondents to rate on a five-scale, ranging from 1 (Not at All) to 5 (A Very Great Extent). It has two parts. The first part was designed to establish background information about the sample EFL teachers and it contains two open-ended items. The second part is the main part of the questionnaire and it was designed to address EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices. It contains 6 close-ended items and one open-ended item. Except Items 5 and 8, all of the items in the questionnaire were developed by the researcher himself. However, Item 5 was adapted from Alderson & Krathwohl (2001) and Item 8 was adapted from Chan (2003).

Based on the conceptual framework of the study, the items in the second part of the questionnaire are categorized into four major categories. These are: (1) methods and procedures of assessment, (2) contents of assessment, (3) purposes of assessment, and (4) Teachers' overall classroom assessment practices (see Appendix 4).

3.3.5. Focus Group Discussion

Powell and Single (1996: 499) define a focus group as "a group of individuals chosen and brought together by researchers to discuss and comment on the subject of the research using their

personal experience”. Focus group discussion, which often lead to lively interactions between group members, are suitable to generate richer data and are, therefore, used a lot in qualitative studies to provide parallel data (Barbour, 2007).

Focus group discussion was employed in this study in order to triangulate the data obtained from other sources. The participants of the focus group discussion were sample students. The researcher selected one focus group randomly from each sample classroom. Each focus group has included six participants. This is due to the fact that such a number in a group encourages and enables all the members of the group to take an active part in discussions (Merton et al., 1990). Similarly, Morgan (1998) and Krueger (2002) suggest six to eight participants as the ideal number, whereas Berg (1998) states a focus group usually involves six to ten participants.

The discussion was about their EFL teachers’ classroom assessment practices (the methods and procedures of classroom assessment employed, feedback provided to students and students’ involvement in the assessment process) (See Appendix 5).

In order to minimize problems related to medium of communication, the students’ focus group discussion was conducted in Amharic and later translated into English during the data analysis process.

3.4. Data Analysis Procedure

The mode of data analysis depends on the form of the instrumentation or the kinds of data gathered (Cohen, et al. 2000). In this study, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. The data obtained from classroom observations (audio records), interviews, open-ended items of the questionnaire and documents were mainly qualitative and analyzed qualitatively. Moreover, the data obtained from closed-ended items of the questionnaire were quantitative and analyzed quantitatively.

The analysis was made according to the order of the research questions of this study. Hence, the researcher moves from description of what is the case to explanation of why that is the case.

3.4.1. Analyzing the Qualitative Data

Four major qualitative data types were collected in this study. These include: the classroom observation data (audio recordings), the interview data, the focus group discussion data and the

documents. Each qualitative data obtained from each instrument was transcribed, coded and documented separately for analysis.

The data obtained from classroom observation were first sorted out into two groups: (i) data obtained from the lesson observation schedule or checklist; and (ii) data obtained from audio recordings. The first group of data were more of quantitative and analyzed quantitatively. These data were used as a supplementary to the audio recordings. The second group of data which were obtained from the audio recordings were analyzed qualitatively. Thus, the qualitative data obtained from classroom observation were analyzed as follows.

First, each audio recording was heard repeatedly so as to identify assessment events. Then, important assessment events (such as: questioning and answering, feedback providing, and ordering students to do something) were selected and transcribed for analysis. The transcribed data were analyzed qualitatively by adding supporting data and commentaries from the lesson observation schedule or checklist.

The other qualitative data were obtained from teacher interviews. With respect to the interviews, the first step involved the transcription of the entire interviews word for word. Then, by selecting themes from the transcription, elaborations were given to the topic of discussion. This provided a complete picture of the discussion and facilitated analysis of data.

Moreover, the data obtained from open-ended items of the questionnaire, documents and focus group discussions were also analyzed qualitatively. Regarding the focus group discussion, the first step was transcribing the discussion word for word. Then, the next step after transcription involved selecting the contents of the discussion in order to look for evidences about teachers' assessment practices and using such evidences in the analysis so as to strengthen the data obtained from the other instruments.

3.4.2. Analyzing the Quantitative Data

Although the present study relies heavily on the qualitative data analysis, it also employed quantitative methods of analysis. Regarding the quantitative data, the closed-ended items of the questionnaire were first tallied, coded and tabulated. Then, by referring to the number of respondents to each item, analysis was made. Moreover, the quantitative data obtained from the observation checklist were analyzed in the same way by using numerical counts.

Generally, in this study, both qualitative and quantitative methods of data analysis were used to strengthen the topic of discussion and to get comprehensible findings. Both types of data were analyzed simultaneously in order to supplement each other.

3.5. The Pilot Study

The pilot study was conducted during the first semester of 2012 academic year. The study included only one secondary school (Bethlehem Secondary School) as a research site. This site was used only in the piloting phase. The study involved two groups of research participants: two Grade 9 English teachers and two classes of their students (one class from each teacher).

The pilot study was conducted for two primary purposes: to validate the data collecting instruments and to check the effectiveness of the whole research framework in meeting the intended research aims. Thus, four tools for the collection of data were piloted. These included the teacher interview schedule, the observation schedule, the questionnaire and the student focus group discussion schedule. In addition, the data collecting procedures including observational note-taking, audio-taping the classroom instructions and interviewing the sample teachers were practiced.

Therefore, the results of the pilot study indicated that some adjustments were needed both in the research questions and in some terminologies in the instruments. This was due to the need for the research framework adjustment. Initially, the study had aimed to describe assessment events and practices within three instructional time frameworks (prior to, during and after instruction). This assessment framework was adapted from Airasian (1997). However, due to two main reasons, the researcher found this assessment framework not working as intended in the pilot study. First, the instructional divisions (before, during and after instruction) did not have any specified time limit which work for all teachers. Taking only the first week of the academic year as a time limit for prior instruction did not work for all teachers. Thus, it was confusing for the researcher to say a certain assessment event has happened prior to instruction or during instruction. Second, this framework did not yield any significant difference regarding contents of assessment, methods of assessment and purposes of assessment between two instructional times (i.e. before and during instruction). Thus, the terms ‘Before Instruction’, ‘During Instruction’ and ‘After Instruction’ which were used in almost all parts of the pilot study are omitted in the main study. Hence, the current study focused on the general picture of classroom assessment practices without further

dividing them into such instructional times. Other than the need for this adjustment, both the data collection instruments and the research framework were working as intended.

The full procedure of the pilot study is described in Appendix 1. The appendix includes six sections. The first section presents a brief description of the research setting of the pilot study. Section two includes objectives of the pilot study. The third section puts a description of the pilot study research participants. The fourth section discusses about data collection and data analysis procedures of the pilot study. The fifth section provides the pilot study results; based upon the pilot study outcomes, the sixth section presents the conclusions made and the rationale for the need to adjust the research framework.

3.6. Ethical Issues

Common ethical issues were considered while collecting data from the subjects through questionnaire, teachers' interviews, students' focus group discussions, as well as documents. These ethical issues were guaranteeing anonymity/confidentiality, explaining the purpose of the study, the right to participate and withdraw and the use of tape recorder.

In describing anonymity as a research ethics, Cohen et.al (2000) state that the information provided by participants should in no way reveal their identity. They further state that protecting the anonymity of research participants and keeping research data confidential is obligatory and should be fulfilled at all costs unless arrangements to the contrary are made with the participants in advance.

In this study, all the teachers who completed the questionnaire (except those 6 teachers who indicated their willingness to participate in the interviews and classroom observations) were guaranteed anonymity. However, the 6 teachers who participated in the interviews and classroom observations could not be guaranteed anonymity since they were willing to do the face to face interviews. "A subject agreeing to a face-to-face interview, [...] can in no way expect anonymity. At most, the interviewer can promise confidentiality" (Cohen, et.al, 2000: 61). This is because at least one person (the interviewer) knows who said what and the interviewee is no more anonymous. Thus, the 6 teachers who did the face-to-face interviews and the students who participated in the focus group discussions could not be guaranteed anonymity; rather they were assured of confidentiality. This is the second way of protecting a participant's right to privacy

(Ibid). In line with this, all the names of teachers and pupils in the transcriptions from the interviews and classroom observations were pseudonyms.

Moreover, all of the subjects of the study were provided information relating to the purpose of the study, highlighting its relevance to teachers' classroom practices and to students learning. For instance, the covering page of the questionnaire provided such information to the subjects. This information was designed to encourage the teachers to complete the questionnaire. According to Cohen, et.al (2000), respondents cannot be forced into completing a questionnaire. During the distribution of the questionnaire, the researcher also told the teachers they were not under any obligation to complete the questionnaire if they felt strongly about it. In addition, at the beginning of classroom observation, the researcher reminded them that the decision whether to become involved and when to withdraw from the research was entirely theirs.

Furthermore, prior to each interview and each focus group discussion, the researcher re-stated the purpose of the research study, assured teachers of confidentiality and told them they had the right to withdraw when they felt so. He also sought permission from each teacher to record the conversation by using a tape recorder.

3.7. Trustworthiness

The notion of 'trustworthiness' replaces the more conventional views of reliability and validity, and that this notion is devolved on issues of credibility, confirmability, transferability and dependability (Cohen, et.al, 2000). These components of trustworthiness which are used in a qualitative research have also similar terms in a quantitative research method. Lincoln & Guba (1985) state that the quantitative term 'internal reliability' has been replaced with the term 'credibility'; 'external validity' has been replaced with the term 'transferability'; 'reliability' has been replaced with the term 'dependability'; and 'objectivity' has been replaced with the term 'confirmability'.

Thus, in this study, the terms 'credibility', 'confirmability', 'transferability' and 'dependability' are used to show the trustworthiness of the work since the study was mainly a qualitative one.

3.7.1. Credibility

Credibility and internal validity are considered to be parallel concepts. A study possesses internal validity if the researchers have successfully measured what they sought to measure. In contrast, a credible study is one where the researchers have accurately and richly described the phenomenon in question (Given & Saumure, 2008). Thus, in order to be credible, a qualitative study needs to provide enough details so that the reader could make sense of the researcher's conclusion.

To ensure the credibility of a qualitative study, Creswell (2007) and Lincoln & Guba (1985), suggest using (a) prolonged engagement and observations, (b) triangulation, (c) member checking, (d) thick description, and (e) member feedback.

(a) Prolonged engagement and observation

Long-term engagement and observation in the field allow the researcher to build trust with participants, learn the culture, and check for misinformation that stems from distortions introduced by the researcher or participants (Creswell, 2007). Hence, observing over an extended timeframe verifies the accounts gathered by the researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

In this study, the researcher has spent four months in the field, visiting each school every two weeks to meet the participants and check how they were doing regarding classroom assessments. Within this time, the researcher has made five pre-arranged classroom observations in each sample teacher's classrooms (with a total of thirty classroom observations for the whole six focal participating teachers). The duration of one classroom visit was forty-five minutes. Moreover, he has also managed to make three additional meetings with each of the focal participating teachers. Thus, this repeated visit allowed the participants to become accustomed to the researcher and enabled him to build rapport with them. This in turn has contributed to the trustworthiness of this study.

(b) Triangulation

Qualitative researchers suggest the use of triangulation which incorporates the use of multiple sources of data or multiple methods to reach a holistic understanding (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995).

Collecting data from different sources is typically used to shed light on a theme or perspective. In this study, data were obtained from three different sources (students, teachers and documents) to confirm the emergent findings. Hence, within the same topic of analysis, triangulation was made across these three information sources.

Moreover, the researcher has tried to enhance the credibility of this study by using multiple methods (interviews, observations, a questionnaire, and focus group discussions). He has also audio taped and transcribed interviews and classroom observation that further explained what has been seen during such observations. Accordingly, the consistency of information across all these data collecting methods was verified.

(c) Member Checking

Member checking refers to giving participants with copies of the data analysis. Stake (1995) describes ‘member checking’ as a way to invite the participant to evaluate and verify the accuracy of the comments and interpretations by the researcher.

Initially, the researcher had intended to do member checking by showing the participants the initial analysis of the study and asking them to comment on those analyses. However, he was unable to do this fully due to time constraints. Instead, the researcher has listened to the audio recordings carefully, and did an initial rough analysis before the next observation, so that he could check his analysis and understanding of what they had said and did during the first observation. Moreover, during informal conversations with sample teachers, he used to ask questions about classroom assessment events that had been observed that morning and before; allowing the teacher to provide clarification and background. Colleagues have also reviewed the interview transcripts and interpretive summaries for the purpose of peer debriefing.

3.7.2. Transferability

The term ‘transferability’ can be compared with the quantitative term ‘generalizability’ (Given & Saumure, 2008). Although generalizability refers to situations where research findings can be applied across the widest possible contexts, transferability reflects the need to be aware of and to describe the scope of one’s qualitative study so that its applicability to different contexts (broad

and narrow) can be readily discerned (Ibid). Thus, transferability seeks to produce understandings of one situation based on the knowledge of another situation.

The strategy for establishing transferability is to provide rich, ‘thick’ description (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998). A detailed description of the participants and setting enables the reader to determine how closely his or her situation resembles the research situation and thus whether the findings can be transferred.

Accordingly, in this study, the researcher attempted to provide a ‘thick’ description of the research setting and the participants. Therefore, with a complete and detailed description of the case, the readers may find their situation similar to the situation of this study, and may utilize the findings of this study in their own situation. However, the study did not aim to create a complete picture that is applicable to other contexts in an absolute sense.

3.7.3. Dependability

Dependability can relate to the notion of reliability, and its underlying concept is consistency. Findings are considered to be reliable if they can be replicated exactly when using the same context and procedure. Achieving reproducibility or reliability in this way can be challenging for the qualitative researcher who studies the constantly changing social world. As a result, dependability becomes a more realistic notion in the qualitative context. Thus, qualitative researchers are not concerned with whether other people not involved in the study would get the same results when they follow the same procedures. Rather, they are concerned with whether outsiders would agree that the findings and interpretations are consistent and make sense from the data collected (Merriam, 1998).

Several strategies can be used to ensure that findings are dependable. First, triangulation strengthens not only credibility but also dependability (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998). In order to ensure the dependability of this study, multiple data collection methods (e.g., interviews, observations, focus group discussions, questionnaire and documents) were used and data were gathered from the students and the teachers.

Second, an auditor who has no connection to the study can assess the accuracy of the findings, interpretations, and conclusions by following the same procedures as the researcher (Lincoln &

Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998). In this regard, two researcher's friends (who are also PhD candidates at Addis Ababa University) assessed the whole process of the work and conducted quality discussions with the researcher about the analyses. Moreover, the researcher took an auditing approach while he was describing all the phases of the research. By doing so, he attempted to achieve a high degree of transparency in the work.

3.7.4. Confirmability

Confirmability reflects the need to ensure that the interpretations and findings match the data. That is, no claims are made that cannot be supported by the data (Given & Saumure, 2008). Similarly, Lincoln & Guba (1985) state that a study is confirmable if the degree to which the findings of an inquiry are determined by the respondents and conditions of the inquiry and not by the biases, motivations, interests or perspectives of the inquirer. Therefore, the underlying concept of confirmability is neutrality.

Establishing confirmability involves documenting evidence on which researchers base their claims and interpretations. Such evidence enables the reader to "examine the data and confirm, modify, or reject the researcher's interpretations" (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 180).

Following this strategy, the current study has included most of the raw data in the appendices so that the readers can decide whether they agree or disagree with the interpretations and claims presented in the analysis of the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

Case Study One: The Case of Bole Community School

4.1. Case Description

Bole Community Primary and Secondary School is located in the eastern part of Addis Ababa, Bole Sub-city. It was founded in 1975 by the then city administration. Until 2011, the school had been owned by the community. However, since 2011, it has been transferred to government ownership; and since then, it has been run by Bole Sub-city Education Bureau officials.

It is relatively a small school. In 2013/14 academic year, the number of students enrolled at the secondary level (Grades 9 and 10) is 739. Among these, 380 (51.4%) were boys and 359 (48.6%) were girls. However, since the school gives service to students from KG to Grade 10, its total enrollment capacity exceeds from this number. In a class, averagely 70 students attend their education.

There are a total of 70 teachers in the school: 45 males and 25 females. Nearly 62% of these teachers teach at the primary level and 38% of them teach at Grades 9 and 10. Moreover, except one female teacher who teaches at secondary level, most female teachers teach at the primary level. In the English language department, there are 5 teachers who teach at Grades 9 and 10. All of them teach at both Grades. In addition to the teachers, there are also 25 non-teaching staff members in the school whose responsibilities are administrative, secretarial, maintenance and upkeep of the premises and grounds.

Academic subjects that have been taught in the school include: Amharic, English, History, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Geography, ICT, Civics and Ethical Education, and HPE. English seems to be getting much attention in the school; it is taught six periods per week. But the rest subjects are taught less than six periods per week. Each period has 45 minutes duration. In the morning session there are five periods and in the afternoon session there are two periods. In the morning session, there is a 15 minute break and during launch time there is one hour and 30 minutes break.

There are more or less basic facilities in the school including: library, laboratory, computer room, playing ground and café. The school library is very small, with a couple of bookshelves

and few reading tables. Hence, it is obvious that the school library has shortage of books and space for reading. In addition, as sample students stated, students are not allowed to borrow books from the library. Regarding laboratory, there is only one poorly equipped science laboratory in the school. There is no language laboratory or any audio-visual center in the school. The computer room contains 22 desktop computers. Students use these computers only once a week during ICT class. The café gives service only for teachers and other employees of the school. Apart from these facilities, there is also a playground for students to take part in various sports activities. The playground is also students' canteen from where they eat their lunch scattered on it. The flag ceremony, physical education and assemblies are also held in the playground.

The school has crowded classrooms. Students' desks are set in rows facing the blackboard and the benches are attached to these desks (see Figure 4.1 below). In a classroom, there are averagely seven rows of seats by four columns. At the front wall of each classroom, there is a fixed blackboard which is the basic teaching tool in Ethiopian primary and secondary classrooms. At the corner of the classroom, there is also a Plasma TV which is used as an aid in teaching seven subjects (English, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Civics and Geography). The lessons are transmitted directly from the central broadcasting station. At its introduction stage in the Ethiopian secondary schools in 2004, the Plasma TV instruction had dominated the conventional classroom lessons by taking almost 80% of the class time. But, currently, the time allocation for the Plasma TV instruction is reduced to cover only 50% of the class time. Hence, in the school, other than the blackboard which is still the basic teaching tool, plasma TV instruction is used as an instructional medium. Apart from these facilities, there was no notice board or any other teaching aid displayed in the classrooms. However, it was stated by the sample teachers and students of the school that every student has got English textbooks.



Figure 4.1 – Classroom Picture in the Sample School

As previously stated in the methodology section, in this sample school, two English teachers were selected as focal participants of the study. They are referred in this thesis as Daniel and Tilahun (pseudo names).

Daniel, who is in his early thirties, is a BEd graduate in English language. He has been teaching English for about five years. His first teaching experience starts at primary school level. After teaching for two years at Grades 7 and 8, he has taught at the secondary level for the last three years. Hence, he has three years of experience in teaching English for Grade 9 and Grade 10 students. Currently, He teaches two sections at Grade 9 and one section at Grade 10. His students at Grade 9 are averagely fourteen years old and at Grade 10 are fifteen. As stated previously, the average class size at both grades is 70.

Similarly, Tilahun, who is in his late forties, is a BA graduate in English Language and Literature. He has 18 years of teaching experience and his teaching experience can be evenly divided into two parts – the first half at primary level and the second half at secondary level. Presently, he teaches three sections (one section at Grade 9 and two sections at Grade 10). The age of his students at both grades and the class size is similar to Daniel’s classes.

In general, both of these English teachers are male. They have had a university degree in teaching English. However, none of them have taken any EFL testing/assessment course or any related in-service training before.

4.2. Methods and procedures of Assessment

In this sample school, the collected data about EFL teachers' classroom assessment methods and procedures are analyzed under two categories: informal and formal assessment procedures.

First, the informal assessment practices of the two focal participating teachers are described based on the data gained from the classroom observations. In order to identify different informal assessment practices, the researcher has focused on particular assessment events or 'incidents' as the unit of analysis. Hence, a key interest is "in the social construction of assessment and learning in action, in ordinary classroom settings" (Torrance and Pryor, 1998:5). Second, the formal assessment practices of the sample EFL teachers in the school are discussed based on the data obtained from the documents, interviews and the questionnaire.

4.2.1. Informal Assessments

As stated previously, the two focal participating teachers in this school were Daniel and Tilahun. Each teacher's classroom was observed five times and the assessment events are identified and described as follows.

Daniel's classroom

In order to observe Daniel's informal assessment practice, five lessons had been selected based on his weekly lesson plan. These were a reading lesson, a speaking lesson, a writing lesson, a listening lesson and a grammar lesson. However, it was challenging for the researcher to follow the prearranged classroom observation sessions as planned. This is due to the fact that, during such preplanned classroom visits, Daniel was frequently deviating from his weekly lesson plan and was teaching unpredictably. This was also the case for the rest of the focal participating teachers in this study. Even with his random lesson plan, the researcher managed to observe two grammar lessons, a reading lesson, a speaking lesson and a vocabulary lesson from Daniel's classroom. Therefore, the sample assessment actions described below are those which were reflected during these lessons.

From the fourteen formative assessment actions mentioned in Torrance and Pryor's (1998:160) classroom assessment framework, six of them were frequently observed in Daniel's classroom instructions. These include: oral questioning, correcting, judging, rewarding, examining product, and observing process. Although it was to some extent, clarifying and moving forward were also his informal assessment procedures (see Appendix 8). Similarly, metacognitive questioning was used to some extent in his reading lesson. However, assessment events like critiquing, setting quality criteria, setting task criteria, influencing attribute and planning next time lesson were not evident in Daniel's classroom instruction.

Daniel's dominant informal assessment practice, questioning, was characterized by asking questions (often display questions) and then repeating students' words with instructional intervention. During his instructional intervention, he purposefully leaves some sentences incomplete by making the sound 'Ahha?' so that his students could fill it. The following excerpt which is taken from his grammar lesson shows this fact.

Excerpt 1: Daniel's Grammar Instruction

No.	Turns	Lesson extract
1.	Daniel	The form of the passive... The passive is formed by different forms of the verb 'to be' plus, Ahha?
2.	SS	V3 (in chorus)
3.	Daniel	... V3 or past participle form of the verb. Ok. Verb 'to be' in different forms include: am, Ahha?
4.	SS	Is/Are (in chorus)
5.	Daniel	Yes. Is, are, was, were.... So, these different forms of verb 'to be' are used to show the time of action or to show the tense.
6.	Daniel	Now, let's look at different examples of changing active voice into passive voice. e.g. 'The gazelle was killed by the lion'. Now, what is the form of this tense?
7.	SS	(No response)
8.	Daniel	Look at the verb form. The verb is, Ahha?....,
9.	SS	(Murmur)
10.	Daniel	... 'was killed'. From this verb phrase, we can understand that the sentence is in the passive form. So, this is not active. Can you give me now its equivalent active form? Yah, you. I give you the chance to answer it.
11.	S1	The lion kill the gazelle
12.	Daniel	The lion kill the gazelle. No! It should be in the simple past form. Who can correct it?
13.	S2	The lion killed the gazelle
14.	Daniel	Very good! The lion killed the gazelle.

-
15. Daniel So, in the simple past, the passive is, Ahha?....., was or were plus, Ahha?....., past participle form of the verb.
-

This excerpt illustrates a common pattern in Daniel's class, in which he uses comprehension checks (particularly the sound 'Ahha?') during his instruction and then he waits for students' responses (Turns 1, 3, 8 and 15). Although students at times are unresponsive, he moves on by filling the incomplete sentences by himself. All these are coded as eliciting or questioning. It is also illustrated in the above extract that Daniel repeats student's words as a sign of approval or disapproval of their answers (see Turns 3 and 5 from excerpt 1). These assessment actions are categorized under 'rewarding'. Hence, next to questioning, he has frequently used rewarding in his assessment procedure. Similarly, he has used 'correcting' as his main assessment practice (Turn 12). Questioning and rewarding were also his dominant assessment actions in his speaking classes (see Appendix 8).

In the other skills lessons, Daniel was also observed using oral questioning predominantly. However, specifically during the reading and vocabulary lessons, his questions were complete sentences (without interruption) and most of them were directly taken from the text book. Moreover, during such skills lessons, his other dominant informal assessment practices were correcting/signing/marking seat works and home works which can be categorized under 'judging' and 'examining product'.

Thus, Daniel's main informal assessment actions based on their occurrence in the observed classrooms are questioning (typically display questions), rewarding, correcting, judging, examining product and observing process.

Tilahun's Classroom

From Tilahun's class, the researcher managed to observe two grammar instructions, two reading instructions and a vocabulary instruction.

Like Daniel's classroom, the informal assessment practices in Tilahun's grammar instructions were dominated by oral questioning. Although Tilahun uses oral questioning in his classroom instruction, his questioning strategy is a bit different from Daniel's. Unlike Daniel, who repeatedly asks his students by interrupting his instruction saying 'Ahha?', Tilahun asks

complete display questions as a comprehension check immediately after his instruction. The following excerpt illustrates this.

Excerpt 2: Tilahun’s Grammar Instruction

No.	Turns	Lesson Extract
1	Tilahun:	...We use simple present tense to express general truth. Can you give me an example sentence which expresses a general truth? Anyone? Yes, Saron?
2	Saron:	The sun rises in the East.
3	Tilahun:	Good. The sun rises in the East. Another, example? Ok, Yabsira?
4	Yabsira:	It rains in Addis Ababa
5	Tilahun:	Umm, no! It is not a general truth sentence but the sentence is in simple present. Yes, Samuel?
6	Samuel	Rain comes from the sky
7	Tilahun:	Very good! Rain comes from the sky. Now, can you tell me the other uses of simple present tense?

Other than questioning, as the above sample extract illustrates, Tilahun also uses ‘rewarding’ in his informal assessment procedures both by saying ‘good’, ‘very good’ and by repeating the words of students as an approval of their answers. He also uses correcting as in Turn 5 above.

Apart from the grammar instruction, in the other language skills lessons, Talahun also uses the above oral questioning strategy as one of his main informal assessment procedures. Moreover, particularly in reading and vocabulary lessons, he was observed practicing mainly judging, rewarding and examining product. The following extract from his reading lesson illustrates this.

Excerpt 3: Tilahun’s Reading Instruction

No.	Turns	Lesson extract
1	Tilahun	Take out your textbook on page 27. There is a reading passage about planning a tour. Page 27. Read the passage carefully and there is a class work. You are going to do exercise 2 from 1-5 in your exercise book.
3	Tilahun	(Moves round the class and orders students in Amharic to take out their textbook and do the reading task). እናንተ ሰባታችሁ! ብዙ ጊዜ ነው ያየኋችሁ! ከክፍል አስወጣችኋለሁ! [You three! I have been watching you disturbing so many times. I will expel you from my class!]
4	S1	(After some minutes of teacher’s repeated observation and monitoring students), ጨረስሁ:: ይታረማል? [I have finished. Will you mark it?]
5	Tilahun	Ok, I will mark it. (teacher goes on marking as many as 10 students’ exercise books and stopped marking to discuss the reading task)
8	Tilahun	Ok that is enough! Let’s see it together....

11	Tilahun	Who can answer number one based on the passage?
12	Tilahun	Tell me the names of places on the first day of the tour? Ok, at the back, Beza? (Looking at her, raising her hand)
13	Beza	Bishoftu, Adama, Dodola, Dinsho, Goba
14	Tilahun	Very Good.
15	Tilahun	What about the second day of the tour?
16	SS	(more hands raised at this time)
17	Tilahun	(He goes on the same pattern in doing the reading task by giving chances only to those who raised their hands)

As the above excerpt shows, in this reading lesson, questioning (Turns 8, 11 and 12), judging (Turn 5), and rewarding (Turn 14) were his main informal assessment procedures. His questioning and rewarding patterns are also repeated as it is indicated in Turn 17. Moreover, as Turn 3 in the above excerpt shows, Tilahun checks students while they are at work which can be categorized under ‘observing process’. However, his observation was more on monitoring student behavior and checking their engagement on the task rather than focusing on what they are really doing.

Thus, based on the classroom observation data, both Daniel and Tilahun’s main informal assessment procedures (from more frequent moving to less frequent actions) were: questioning, rewarding, correcting, judging, examining product and observing process.

Furthermore, according to the interviews held with the two teachers, it is also clear that oral questioning, rewarding, judging and examining product were the teachers’ major informal assessment actions. During the interview, Daniel put this as follows:

I check whether students did their home work or not. Then, I advise those students who didn’t do their homework or punish them by ordering them to stand in front of the class. I also sign on their exercise books for those who did their homework. After I have done this, I ask students to read their homework and then I give corrections for their work. I also ask students oral questions which are related to the topic that I taught in order to know their understanding about the lesson.

What is mentioned in this interview indicates that there is also the use of ‘correction’ as an assessment action. According to Torrance and Pryor (1998), correction includes providing information to students or making counter suggestions in order to correct what a student has said

or done. Although correction was there in teachers' classroom instruction, during the classroom observation sessions what has been frequently observed was teachers' reaction to students' responses by saying 'Yes', 'No', 'Good', 'Very good' and so on. Hence, there was lack of extended elaborations to students' responses during corrections.

The questionnaire data also proves that sample teachers employ oral questioning, rewarding, correcting, judging, and examining product to a greater extent. All of the five sample teachers who filled the questionnaire indicated that they primarily ask their students display oral questions. Three of them also indicated that they mainly practice examining product of work (i.e. after students completed a task, as in class work or homework); asking for clarification (e.g. about what has been done, is being done or will be done); assigning mark, grade or summary judgment on the quality of students' work; and providing corrections and making counter suggestions.

On the other hand, according to the questionnaire data, majority of the teachers (three out of five) indicated that they rarely practice such informal assessment actions as: asking students referential oral questions to get unknown information such as, their prior experiences and prior knowledge, their interests, etc.; asking students metacognitive questioning (about how and why specific actions have been taken); using peer assessments and self assessments.

4.2.2. Formal Assessments

Formal assessments or tests are the dominant student evaluation mechanisms in a traditional classroom. However, this does not mean that tests have no value in a constructivist language classroom. As repeatedly mentioned in this thesis, teachers should use multiple methods of assessment to provide effective instruction to their students. Thus, tests should also be one of the methods of EFL teachers' assessment practices. In addition, teachers need to use various test formats and test types (Shepard, 2000).

In this regard, the sample EFL teachers were interviewed about their formal assessment practices. Hence, both of the interviewed teachers stated that they mainly use quizzes, mid-semester exams and semester final exams. Moreover, they also said that the language skills which are assessed in their tests include reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar. Tilahun states this as:

...you see, I don't entirely depend only on the final exam. As I have told you, 60% of students' score is counted from formal evaluations. These also include quizzes and mid-exams. ...

However, while the researcher was asking both of the focal participating teachers to give him the sample papers of all the quizzes and exams, they gave him only sample mid-semester and semester final exam papers. They could not provide him the quiz papers that they were talking about. During the focus group discussion, students also mentioned that their teachers were giving them class works and home works, which did not follow any testing situation. Apart from these activities, they said that their English teachers did not give them any other quizzes. Hence, according to their response, the only formal assessment methods which their English teachers provided them were mid-semester and semester final examinations.

Regarding the language skills assessed, the collected mid-semester and final exam papers also showed that teachers in the sample school heavily rely on vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension questions which usually contain close-ended items. All of the twenty items of the mid-semester exam and most of the items in the semester final exam (thirty out of forty items) were multiple choice items. The remaining ten items of the semester final exam include fill-in the blank and short answer types. Thus, the three language skills were the focus of both exams.

The questionnaire data also show that among the four major and two minor language skills, teachers prioritize in testing grammar, reading and vocabulary. Table 4.1 presents the data collected from the five sample English teachers.

Table 4.1: Language Skills Formally Assessed by Bole Community School EFL Teachers

Skills Assessed	not at all	small extent	some extent	great extent	very great extent
a. Speaking Tests	1	3	1	-	-
b. Listening Tests	1	3	1	-	-
c. Reading Tests	-	-	1	3	1
d. Writing Tests	-	1	3	1	-
e. Vocabulary Tests	-	-	1	4	-
f. Grammar Tests	-	-	1	2	2

Note: N= 5 teacher

In the above table, the detailed items of the questionnaire (Appendix 4) are summarized into each language skill categories. Thus, the average data indicate that the skills less assessed formally are

listening and speaking. Majority of the sample teachers (three out five) also indicated that they practice writing skills tests to some extent. However, this was not supported by the data collected from documents. On the other hand, more than three of the respondents replied that their formal assessments include grammar, vocabulary and reading skills to a greater extent.

Therefore, the data collected from this case study confirmed that EFL teachers mostly employ two types of formal assessments: mid-semester and semester final examinations. The exams contain mainly close-ended items (multiple choice, fill-in the blanks and short answer types). Moreover, teachers mainly focus on assessing three language skills in their formal assessments: grammar, reading and vocabulary. However, they rarely practice writing, speaking and listening tests in their classrooms.

4.2.3. EFL Teachers' Assessment Feedback

Feedback is an important part of classroom instruction and classroom assessment. During instruction, teachers usually assess their students informally and at the same time they also provide various kinds of feedback to their students. Teachers' instructional feedback which is also known as corrective oral feedback occurs as one or more of the following types: (a) Recast (b) Clarification request (c) Metalinguistic feedback (d) Elicitation of completion (e) Repetition of error (f) Explicit oral feedback (g) Body Language (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). This list is the basis for the analytical framework of this section of the thesis.

In the classroom observation, it was clearly evident that Daniel has used four major feedback strategies: explicit oral feedback, elicitation of completion, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error. Table 4.2 below shows the field note data collected from Daniel's classroom during the five classroom observation sessions.

Table 4.2: Oral Feedback Strategies Observed in Bole Community School EFL Classrooms

Feedback Strategies	Not evident	Somewhat evident	clearly evident
a. Recast	3	2	-
b. Clarification request	3	1	1
c. Metalinguistic feedback	-	1	4
d. Elicitation	-	-	5
e. Repetition of error	-	3	2
f. Explicit oral feedback	-	2	3

N = 5 observation sessions

The above table illustrates that elicitation was clearly evident in all of the five classroom observation sessions. As previously described in Section 4.2.1 of this thesis, Daniel was frequently observed in eliciting the correct form from the students. He strategically pauses to allow students to complete the utterances. Moreover, he was frequently observed (in four out of five observation sessions) using metalinguistic feedback. His other dominant feedback strategies were explicit oral feedback and repetition of errors. However, in his classroom instruction, he was rarely observed using recasts and clarification requests such as, ‘excuse me’, ‘could you say that again?’.

Similarly, Tilahun was frequently observed using four of the above oral feedback strategies (explicit oral feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error). For instance, he used metalinguistic feedback as illustrated in the following lesson excerpt.

Excerpt 4: Tilahun’s Grammar Instruction

No.	Turns	Lesson Extract
1	Tilahun:	‘The man never visits his children.’ Can you tell me the adverb in this sentence? Which one is the adverb? Yes, Senait.
2	Senait:	‘Visits’
3	Tilahun:	Umm, no! ‘Visits’ is not an adverb. It is a verb..... Yes, Jemal?
4	Jemal	‘Never’
5	Tilahun:	Very good! Never. Never is an adverb. What type of adverb is it?
6	SS:	Adverb of frequency
7	Tilahun:	Yes. It is an adverb of frequency. Can you tell me other adverbs of frequency?

Here, in this excerpt, Tilahun was clearly providing comments or information about why Senait's answer was incorrect but he did not provide her the correct answer explicitly. Instead, he asked for another correct replay from students. This can be referred as metalinguistic feedback.

Therefore, in both Daniel's and Tilahun's classroom instructions, four oral feedback strategies (explicit oral feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error) were clearly evident. However, both teachers did not employ 'clarification request' and 'recast' during their instruction.

On the other hand, the two sample teachers were observed responding to students' replies in the form of actions and body languages. As repeatedly indicated in the field note, both teachers were mainly using head-shaking or nodding as a sign of agreement to students' responses. In addition, Tilahun has been using a special type of non-verbal feedback. He was leaning forward to a student who was responding. This clearly shows that the student has got the full attention of the teacher which, in turn, could be taken as non-verbal feedback. On the other hand, Daniel was frequently observed staring at students who seemed non-attentive.

Regarding written feedback, the collected data from students' exercise books and interviews indicated that both Daniel and Tilahun have provided their students similar type of feedback. In the students' exercise books, mainly three kinds of teacher's written feedbacks were observed. These were big '√' and 'x' marks indicating students' works as right or wrong respectively; words like 'good', 'very good' and 'excellent'; and teacher's signature.

During the interviews, both teachers also described that they write on students' exam papers such evaluative feedbacks as 'Very good!', 'Keep it up!' and 'Excellent!' The questionnaire data also confirmed this same result.

4.3. Contents of Assessment

4.3.1. Assessment of Learning in the Non-cognitive Domain

As described in the first chapter of this thesis, the non-cognitive domain of learning includes students' learning styles, their motivation, their personal traits and their on-going social behaviors. These factors play an important role in students' learning.

In order to find out what kind of assessment that sample teachers practice with regard to the non-cognitive domain of learning, data were collected mainly through in-depth interview and teachers' questionnaire. Table 4.3 below presents the questionnaire data.

Table 4.3: Bole Community School EFL Teachers' Assessment Practices of the Non-cognitive Factors

Items	A	B	C	D	E
I look for students' personal details (e.g. their names, schools last attended, and their family background)	-	1	3	1	-
I assess their personal beliefs (e.g. their beliefs about learning English)	1	3	1	-	-
I check their emotional and psychological characteristics	-	3	1	1	-
I check their self esteem	1	-	3	1	-
I evaluate their motivation for learning (e.g. their participation in class)	-	-	1	1	3
I check their learning needs and interests	-	1	4	-	-
I assess their learning style preferences	1	3	1	-	-
I assess their learning strategies (e.g. whether they take risks, focus on meaning/form, or self-correct)	1	2	1	1	-
I assess their learning problems	-	1	3	1	-
I look for their out-of-school activities	2	2	-	1	-
I evaluate their social behaviors during <i>task-related interactions</i> (e.g. their dominance, reticence, cooperativeness, disruptiveness and friendliness)	-	2	3	-	-
I check their social behaviors during <i>non-task-related interactions</i> (e.g. their dominance, reticence, cooperativeness, disruptiveness and friendliness)	1	3	1	-	-

Note: N = 5; A = not at all; B = small extent; C = some extent; D = great extent E = very great extent

According to the data illustrated in the above table, the only non-cognitive factor that more than half of the respondents mainly assess was students' motivation for learning such as, their participation in class. This non-cognitive factor can be categorized under students' academic behavior. Based on the data, it is also possible to say that to some extent sample EFL teachers assess such non-cognitive factors as: students' personal details, self esteem, learning needs and interests, learning problems and social behaviors during task-related interactions. On the other

hand, more than half of the respondents replied that they rarely assess students' personal beliefs, emotional and psychological characteristics, learning style preferences, learning strategies, out-of-school activities and social behaviors during non-task-related interactions.

By interviewing the two focal participating teachers, the researcher also attempted to get an insight into what teachers assess in the non-cognitive domain of learning. As a result, both Daniel and Tilahun provided nearly the same responses.

Daniel was asked if he assessed his students' non-cognitive aspects of learning and he answered:

I actually check many of my students' characteristics. I check who is attending the class regularly; who is paying attention during instruction; who is participating in class discussions; and who is devoting out-of-school time to studying and completing homework.

Here, Daniel explains that his assessment includes non-cognitive factors which can be categorized under academic behaviors. These behaviors are commonly associated with being a "good student" or what Airasian (1998) calls a "good classroom citizen". Moreover, he was also asked to mention personal details of his students (particularly their names and their emotional and psychological behaviors). Regarding their names, he could mention as many as 12 students in a class of 70 students. Later, when he was asked about their emotional and psychological behaviors, interests, learning styles and learning strategies, the only thing he described was this:

Eyob is a very good student. He is very clever. Hana, emm, she is also good. She participates actively in every class instruction. ... Nahom is a very difficult boy. He always disturbs and he doesn't do his class work and home work properly. Mathias is also like Nahom. He is naughty...

In his description, Daniel could only mention the names of those "good students" and "bad students". It is obvious that there would also be average students in his class. But he did not mention their names.

Furthermore, other than their names and their academic behaviors, Daniel said he did not know anything about their family background or any other detail information about his students' out-of-school activities. This response matches with what sample teachers provided in the questionnaire. However, when he was asked to tell the researcher about the name of his favorite student and the students' family background, he said:

Eyob is my favorite student. ... He is from a middle income family. His father works in a bank.... Once, when we were chatting in the teachers' room, I heard a teacher who knows Eyob's father talking about it.

Although, at first Daniel said he did not know any of his students' personal details other than their academic behavior, he confirmed to the researcher that he actually knew something about his students' family background. Moreover, when he was also asked the same thing about a student who has the worst academic behavior in his class, he said:

Emm...Mathias. Mathias is a very difficult boy. He does not often do anything in the class. He only chats with other students, laughs and disturbs the class. He is repeatedly absent from school ... I heard from some teachers that he cut classes and spent the day in 'Chat Chewing' houses. He has a single parent. He lives with his mother. When we call her to come to school and talk his case with her, she tells us that she can't even control him any more...It's so difficult.

Daniel was describing about the students' personal details, including his activities outside of the school. It is obvious that students' social and personal activities outside the classroom also affect the classroom behavior of students. This in turn affects student performance. Therefore, one way or another, teachers need to assess such non-cognitive behaviors of their students.

However, as the above interview data indicate, teachers are not always aware of what student characteristics they are assessing and how they are assessing it. At first, Daniel said he did not know anything about his students' out-side-classroom activities. But when he was asked specifically about his "good" and "bad" students, he implicitly confirmed that he has actually assessed such non-cognitive student behaviors.

The interview held with Tilahun also illustrates similar evidence. He has mainly assessed his students' motivation for learning. He stated this as:

I know when my students lose interest in the lesson and when they are motivated to learn. By observing their face and their physical activity, I can tell who is interested and who is not. Mostly when a student loses his interest, he becomes restless and over listens what I am talking about. Sometimes, some students sleep on their desks when they lose interest in the lesson ...

Here, Tilahun focuses on assessing his students' interests and motivation on his instruction. However, like Daniel, he couldn't also tell the researcher anything special about the other non-cognitive aspects of learning, particularly about their learning styles and their learning strategies.

Therefore, it can be stated that in the non-cognitive domain of learning, the sample EFL teachers mainly assess students' motivation for learning such as, their participation in class. Moreover, they also assess their students' personal details though they are usually unaware of what student characteristics they are assessing. To some extent, they also assess their self esteem, learning needs and interests, learning problems, social behaviors during task-related interactions and out-of-school activities. However, they rarely assess their learning styles, learning strategies, personal beliefs, emotional and psychological characteristics and social behaviors during non-task-related interactions.

4.3.2. Assessment of Learning in the Cognitive Domain

To depict what the two focal participating EFL teachers assess in the cognitive domain of students' learning, five observation sessions were conducted in each teacher's classroom. The observation data collected in each classroom is discussed and presented separately. Then, this individual analysis is followed by a general analysis of the documents (tests) and the questionnaire data.

Daniel's classroom

One of the five classroom observations conducted in Daniel's classroom was a reading lesson. In this lesson, Daniel was mainly using text-book questions that he had given his students as a home work in the previous class. The reading exercise had ten questions. Moreover, he was observed using his own word definition questions. The excerpt from his lesson is presented below.

Excerpt 5: Daniel's Reading Instruction

Turn	Lesson Extract
1	... What fruits are grown in the writers village? Ahha, Abraham?
6	Number 2: Why do many people like growing oranges? Ahha?
8	...Question number 3: What was the air like under the trees? Ahha, ok, Bereket?
12	Yah, you are right. It says so. But can you tell me the meaning of cold and cool? Do they have the same meaning?

-
- 14** ... Now, who can answer the next question? Why did the writer's brother seldom help to pick oranges? Ahha, Tsega?
- 16** Very good. He did not like oranges.Ok, question number 5; Who ate the oranges that the writer peeled? Ahha?
- 18** Number 6. When was there no time for play? Ahha?
- 20** Yes.... Number 7. The writer peeled the oranges as her mother did, but what other method did she use? Ahha, Elias?
- 22**Number 8. What does Vitamin C do for our bodies?
- 24**Number 9. What advice did the writer give us?
- 26**The last question. Who can answer the last question? "The more oranges one eats, the fewer one gets." Who can complete this sentence?
-

In the above excerpt, there are eleven main questions which have significant values to the topic of discussion. The first question (in Turn 1) is "What fruits are grown in the writers village?" To answer this question, students only need to list names of fruits which are mentioned in the reading text which requires understanding what is stated in the passage. Hence, it is codified as 'Un' (understanding). The second question (in Turn 6), "Why do many people like growing oranges?", asks students to give reasons based on the information given in the text. Similarly, to answer this question, students do not need to think critically since the answer is directly indicated in the reading passage. They only need to understand those reasons mentioned in the passage. Thus, it is also codified as 'Un' (understanding or making meaning from learning materials). The third question is presented in Turn 8 as "What was the air like under the trees?" This question also does not require students to apply any higher order thinking. In answering it, students only need to explain the weather based on what is mentioned in the text. Thus, it is also codified as 'un'. Similarly, the rest of the questions which were observed in Daniel's reading instruction are codified. Thus, all of the questions are coded as 'understanding'. However, the rest cognitive processes mentioned in the Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (remembering, applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating) were not observed in this particular reading lesson.

It is worth noting that higher levels of thinking happens when learners search beyond the content they are reading, to find out the answer or achieve comprehension. Predicting, concluding, inferring are instances of reading comprehension strategies that evoke higher levels of thinking. However, these were not the case in the observed reading lesson.

Moreover, during the other four observed lessons in Daniel’s classroom, ‘remembering’ and ‘understanding’ were the primary student cognitive processes assessed (see excerpt 1, Section 4.2.1). Therefore, the classroom observation data in Daniel’s classroom indicated that his assessment practice focuses on these two lower level cognitive processes.

Tilahun’s Classroom

In Tilahun’s classroom, his vocabulary instruction was observed as one of the five observation session. The lesson was mainly based on the textbook tasks. He provided vocabulary class work from the textbook and waited for students until they finish it. Later he did the vocabulary task as a whole class task. The excerpt of his instruction is presented below.

Excerpt 6: Tilahun’s Vocabulary Instruction

No.	Turn	Lesson extract
1	Tilahun	... Page 78, what are homonyms? ... (waiting), Homonyms, or lexical sets, are pair of words that look and sound the same, but have different meaning.
2	Tilahun	Now, let’s see some examples. “The writing on the board was so faint we couldn’t read it.” “Help! Halima has fainted! It must be the heat.” In these two sentences can you tell me the two words which are homonyms?
3	S1	Faint
4	Tilahun	Very good, faint is found both in the first sentence and in the second sentence. Can you tell me the meaning difference?
5	S2	Faint in the second sentence is ‘ራስን ስቶ መውደቅ’ [falling unconsciously]. And, umm, the first... umm, (run out of words)
6	Tilahun	Ok, any other answer?
7	S3	In the second sentence, faint means “ራስን ስቶ መውደቅ ሲሆን” [falling unconsciously] and in the first sentence faint means ‘በደንብ የማየታይ ማለት ነው’ [not clearly visible]
8	Tilahun	Very good. In the first sentence faint means Now, you are going to do exercise one up to three in your exercise book.
9	Tilahun	(After waiting for about 15 Minutes, the teacher changed the task into a whole class discussion). Ok, enough! Let’s do it together.
10	Tilahun	Identify the homonym that completes each pair of sentences. Question number one... a. we _____ the other team by 4-1. b. I could feel my heart _____ as I went into the headmaster’s office.
11	Ss
13	Tilahun	Now, identify the homonym that goes with both definitions. 1. _____ a. Something you stick on a letter before you post it. b. If you do this with your foot, it means you are angry.

14	Ss
16	Tilahun	The last question. Tell me all the vocabulary related to food and drink from this unit and sort them into homonyms. Example: Pair, pear
17	Ss

As the above excerpt shows, in this vocabulary lesson, six main questions can be identified. The questions are indicated in Turns 1, 2, 4, 10, 13 and 16. In Turn 1, Tilahun asked a question about the meaning of the word ‘homonym’. In answering this question, students do not need to think critically. Instead, the question demands them to recall the meaning of the word. Hence, it is codified as ‘remembering’. In Turn 2, he asked students to identify two homonyms from the example sentences. Here, the students are required to recognize those words from the sentences. As a result, this question is also codified as ‘remembering’. The question in Turn 4 asks students to provide meanings or definitions of words based on their contexts and this demands them to understand the context. Therefore, it is codified as ‘Understanding’. To answer the question in Turn 10, students are required both to recall appropriate words and to understand the meanings of the given incomplete sentences. Hence, it is codified as both ‘remembering’ and ‘understanding’. The question in Turn 13 is different from the previous questions. It is like a pun. It gives clues to students and then it demands their organizing ability to arrive at a word. In order to answer this question, students need to think critically. Therefore, it is codified as ‘analyzing’. The last question which indicated in Turn 16 asks students to recall the words they have been taught within the unit. Hence, it is just codified as ‘remembering’.

In this vocabulary instruction, like Daniel’s reading instruction, Tilahun was observed assessing students’ lower order cognitive processes, particularly their ‘remembering’ and ‘understanding’ abilities. Apart from this, Tilahun was also observed assessing students’ analyzing ability.

Tilahun’s other observed lessons (two grammar and two reading lessons) are also evidences that he focuses more on assessing his students’ remembering and understanding abilities. Therefore, it can be stated that in Tilahun’s classroom instruction, what is mainly assessed is students’ remembering and understanding ability. To some extent, students’ analyzing ability is also assessed.

Furthermore, in order to see what is assessed in the formal assessments of the school, the mid-semester and semester final examination items are analyzed as follows.

The mid-semester English Examination

This exam has twenty close-ended items. All the items are in the multiple choice format. Like teachers' classroom informal assessments, the content of this formal assessment is also analyzed and codified using Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. In order to show how the items were codified and analyzed, some items of the exam are presented as an example.

6. *I'm very happy; I just won the lottery.*

- A. am going to B. has C. have D. might*

The correct choice is Choice C. Since the learners are required **to recognize** the correct verb form from a multiple choice question, this question is codified as 'remembering'.

13. *You are in Addis Ababa for the first time. You would like to know the way to Cinema Ethiopia. Which of the following questions would you ask?*

- A. You show me where Cinema Ethiopia is.*
B. Excuse me, could you tell me the right way to Cinema Ethiopia?
C. I'm afraid I don't know where Cinema Ethiopia is.
D. Excuse me, have you ever visited Cinema Ethiopia?

The correct choice is Choice B. Because learners indirectly deal with how **to use or implement** the language in a specific situation, this question is codified as 'applying'.

Using such analyzing strategy, all the twenty items in the mid-semester exam are codified and summarized in the table below.

Table 4.4: The Cognitive Abilities Assessed in Bole Community School Mid-semester English Examination

No.	Cognitive abilities	Number of items (N)	Percentage
1	Remembering Ability	14	70%
2	Understanding Ability	6	30%
3	Applying Ability	-	0%
4	Analyzing Ability	-	0%
5	Evaluating Ability	-	0%
6	Creating Ability	-	0%

Note: N = 20 items

As Table 4.4 above clearly indicates, majority of the items in the mid-semester exam (70% of them) are dedicated to evaluate students' remembering ability. Apart from this, the rest 30% of the items in the exam focus on assessing students' understanding abilities. Thus, all of the items in the exam assess students' cognitive processes which are in the lower order level of thinking. There is no item in the exam that requires students to think critically.

The semester final exam also shows the same result. The exam includes forty closed-ended items. All of the items are presented in a multiple choice format. Unlike the mid-semester exam, in the final exam, a reading passage is included. Table 4.5 illustrates the summary of items of the semester final exam and the student cognitive abilities assessed in these items.

Table 4.5: The Cognitive Abilities Assessed in Bole Community School Semester Final English Examination

No.	Cognitive abilities	Number of items (N)	Percentage
1	Remembering Ability	18	45%
2	Understanding Ability	20	50%
3	Applying Ability	2	5%
4	Analyzing Ability	-	0%
5	Evaluating Ability	-	0%
6	Creating Ability	-	0%

Note: N = 40 items

Table 4.5 illustrates that nearly half of the items in the final exam (45%) deal with assessing students' remembering ability and the other half of the items (50%) are devoted to assessing students understanding ability. It is only 5% of the items that demand students' applying ability.

Regarding the contents of assessment, the questionnaire data collected from the sample teachers in the school brought no special evidence apart from strengthening the same evidence gained in the classroom observation and documents (sample exam papers). Table 4.6 below illustrates this.

Table 4.6: Bole Community School EFL Teachers' Assessment Practices of the Cognitive Factors

No.	Cognitive abilities	not at all	small extent	some extent	great extent	very great extent
1	Remembering Ability	-	-	1	1	3
2	Understanding Ability	-	-	1	2	2
3	Applying Ability	-	1	3	1	-
4	Analyzing Ability	1	2	1	-	1
5	Evaluating Ability	1	2	2	-	-
6	Creating Ability	1	2	1	1	-

Note: N = 5 respondents

In the questionnaire, majority of the respondents (four out of five) indicated that they greatly assess their students' remembering and understanding ability. More than half of them also replied that to some extent they also assess their students' applying ability. However, more than half of the respondents stated that they rarely or not at all assess higher order levels of thinking such as analysis, evaluation and creation.

From all what has been discussed, it can be stated that in the sample school EFL teachers mainly assess their students' remembering and understanding abilities. To some extent, they also assess their students applying ability. However, students are rarely assessed in the higher order levels of thinking (analysis, evaluation and creation).

4.4. Purposes of Assessment

Teachers assess students for many reasons. They assess because they are required to do so by an external body or they assess for their own emergent needs in the teaching learning process. In this section of the study, teachers' reasons in assessing their students are discussed in two parts.

The first is about the purposes of informal assessments and the second part deals with purposes of formal assessments.

4.4.1. Purposes of Informal Assessments

In the interview sessions, both Daniel and Tilahun explained that they use informal assessments so as to monitor students' progress in learning; to motivate students to learn; and to manage student behavior. They replied to the interview question as follows:

Q: What are your primary reasons in applying informal assessments?

Daniel: *I informally assess my students for many purposes. Through assessment, I check what they are doing...Are they following up the lesson attentively? Are they chatting about non academic matters? Are they talking in Amharic or in English? I check all of these things to make sure they are learning properly. ...*

Tilahun: *... to hold their attention and to motivate them. You know, if you don't look at each student and follow up what he or she is doing, they don't care about the lesson and they may disturb or do other things. Moreover, in order to check who has understood the lesson and who hasn't, I assess them in each class.*

In addition, during the classroom observation sessions, both Daniel and Tilahun were observed trying to manage student behavior problems through informal observation and to stress the main concepts of the lesson through oral question strategies. Tilahun's reading lesson excerpt which was presented previously in Section 4.2.1 could be taken here as an example.

Tilahun: *(Moves round the class and orders students in Amharic to take out their textbook and do the reading task). እናንተ ሰሰታችሁ! ብዙ ጊዜ ነው ያየኋችሁ! ከክፍል አስወጣችኋለሁ! [You three! I have been watching you disturbing so many times. I will expel you from my class!]*

In this reading lesson extract, Tilahun has used informal observation so as to manage his students' classroom behavior. This is an inevitable task in any face to face classroom instruction. However, the degree varies based on the behavior of the teacher, the subject matter or topic of discussion and students' behavior. Between these two focal participating teachers, for instance, there has been a difference in their classroom observation practice and in their attempt to manage their students' behavior. Tilahun, unlike Daniel, was very vigilant and was observed repeatedly warning his students for their misbehavior. On the other hand, though the classroom atmosphere was nearly the same, Daniel has been observing his students negligently and has been ignoring

many of student misbehaviors and was concentrated more on what he was speaking and writing on the board rather than on managing students' behavior. Therefore, although observation and oral questioning were there in his classroom instruction, it was only sometimes that he tried to use the assessment results in managing student behaviors.

The other significant evidence that has been witnessed during the classroom observation was teachers' effort in trying to motivate students. Through oral questioning and oral feedback, both Daniel and Tilahun were frequently observed trying to motivate their students.

Therefore, both the classroom observation and the interview data showed that sample teachers use informal classroom assessments mainly for monitoring students' progress in learning, motivating students to learn and managing student behavior.

In addition to the classroom observation and interview results, the questionnaire data has also revealed that teachers assess their students for various reasons. Table 4.7 shows the details of the questionnaire data.

Table 4.7: Bole Community School EFL Teachers' Reasons for Assessing Students Informally

No.	Reasons for informal assessments:	Number of respondents			
		Not at all	Small extent	Some extent	Great extent
A.	To monitor students' progress in learning	0	0	0	5
B.	To manage student behavior	0	0	1	4
C.	To provide feedback to students	0	1	1	3
D.	To motivate students to learn	0	0	0	5
E.	To diagnose student difficulties and take appropriate majors	0	1	1	3
F.	To stress the main concepts of the lesson	0	1	3	1
G.	To plan instruction/ what to do next	1	0	1	3
H.	To determine the amount of time spend on a lesson	0	0	4	1
I.	To evaluate the effectiveness of instructional activities	0	1	4	0
J.	To evaluate the effectiveness of the teaching methodology	0	3	2	0
K.	To set targets or achievement goals	0	3	1	1
L.	To determine the final grades for students	1	3	1	0

Note: N = 5 Respondents

As the data in Table 4.7 shows, more than half of the respondents identified six major reasons as to why they mainly assess their students informally. Their main reasons were for monitoring students' progress in learning; motivating students to learn; managing student behavior; providing feedback to students; diagnosing student difficulties and taking appropriate majors; and planning instruction/ what to do next. Moreover, more than half of the respondents have also indicated that to some extent they practice informal assessments so as to: stress the main concepts of the lesson; determine the amount of time spend on a lesson; and evaluate the effectiveness of instructional activities. However, they replied that they rarely practice informal assessments for the sake of evaluating their own teaching methodology; determining the final grades for students and setting targets or achievement goals.

In general, the observation, interview and questionnaire data indicated that the main reasons for teachers in practicing informal classroom assessments were to: (i) monitor students' progress in learning; (ii) motivate students to learn; (iii) manage student behavior; (iv) provide feedback to students; (v) diagnose student difficulties and take appropriate majors; and (vi) plan instruction/ what to do next.

4.4.2. Purposes of Formal Assessments

Formal assessments do not serve as diverse purposes as informal assessments. However, it does not mean that their purpose is only to summarize students' achievement. The results from this study also show this same fact that teachers assess their students formally for various purposes. In the interview sessions, the two focal participating teachers answered the interview question as follows:

Q: What are your primary reasons in practicing formal assessments/tests?

Daniel: *Well, within a semester, I give my students different quizzes and exams mainly to evaluate their ability. I mark the tests and return it to the students. Sometimes, I record the marks and sometimes I don't. You know, if they fail in the exam, I will retest them another test. In this way, they study harder to pass the tests.*

Tilahun: *I administer tests usually to formally document their achievement. How much they get in each test will be recorded and at the end of the semester they receive their total score*

out of hundred. Moreover, I also give them tests in order to push them work hard. When there is a test, they study hard. This also helps them to perform well in the national exam.

Hence, both teachers mentioned that they practice formal assessments mainly for the purpose of recording their students' achievement and encouraging them to work harder.

In addition, the questionnaire data also shows similar results about the purposes of formal assessments employed by the sample teachers. The data is presented in Table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8: Bole Community School EFL Teachers' Reasons for Assessing Students Formally

No.	Reasons for formal assessments:	Number of respondents			
		Not at all	Small extent	Some extent	Great extent
A.	To diagnose student difficulties	0	0	5	0
B.	To stress the main concepts of the lesson	3	1	1	0
C.	To encourage students to work harder	0	0	1	4
D.	To set targets or achievement goals	1	3	1	0
E.	To provide feedback to students	1	1	3	0
F.	To determine the final grades for students	0	0	0	5
G.	To evaluate whether teaching activities achieve their objectives	0	4	1	0
H.	To prepare students for high stakes tests they will need to take in the future	0	1	1	3

Note: N = 5 Respondents

As illustrated in the above table, more than half of the sample teachers practice formal assessments **to a greater extent** for three main reasons: to determine the final grades for their students, to encourage students to work harder and to prepare their students for high stakes tests they will need to take in the future. **To some extent**, they also assess their students formally in order to diagnose student difficulties and to provide feedback to students. However, they **rarely** use formal assessments to evaluate whether teaching activities achieve their objectives, to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to set targets or achievement goals

Therefore, based on all the data discussed above, it can be stated that sample teachers mainly use formal assessments so as to: (i) determine the final grades for their students; (ii) encourage students to work harder; and (iii) prepare their students for high stakes tests.

4.5. Overview

The findings of this case study are presented in response to the research questions mentioned in the first chapter. The first section of the overview answers the question “How do secondary school EFL teachers assess their students?” In this section, three themes are discussed: teachers’ informal assessment practices; their formal assessment practices and the kind of feedback they provide in both assessment procedures.

The second section of the overview answers the question “What aspects of learning do secondary school EFL teachers assess?” Here, the overview outlines both the cognitive and non-cognitive qualities that sample teachers assess in their classroom.

The last section of the overview deals with the question “For what specific purposes do secondary school EFL teachers use multiple classroom assessments?” In this regard, the findings are summarized as: ‘purposes of informal assessments’ and ‘purposes of formal assessments’.

4.5.1. Methods and Procedures of EFL Assessment

(A) Informal Assessments

Regarding teachers’ informal assessment procedures, this case study come up with six main assessment actions that sample teachers frequently practice in their classrooms. These are: oral questioning (eliciting), correcting, judging, rewarding, examining product and observing process.

All sample teachers have used oral questioning (usually display ones) as their most frequent informal assessment action. However, the prevalence of other informal assessment actions has varied among teachers. Even, within the same teacher, the practice of informal assessment actions has varied from lesson to lesson. For instance, Daniel was observed using ‘judging’ and ‘examining product’ more dominantly in his reading lesson than in his grammar instruction.

However, in all observed classroom instructions, teachers rarely practice such informal assessment actions as: asking students referential oral questions to get unknown information (such as, their prior experiences and prior knowledge, their interests, etc.); asking students metacongnitive questions; critiquing; setting quality criteria; setting task criteria; influencing attribute; planning next time lesson; peer assessments and self assessments. These informal assessment events were rarely evident in the sample classroom instructions.

(B) Formal Assessments

The result of the study also shows that EFL teachers employ two types of formal assessments: mid-semester and semester final examinations. The exams contain mainly close-ended items (multiple choice, fill-ins and short answer types). Moreover, among the four major and two minor language skills, teachers prioritize in testing grammar, reading and vocabulary skills. However, they rarely employ writing, speaking, and listening skills tests to assess their students.

(C) EFL Teachers' Assessment Feedback

After conducting formal and informal assessments, teachers usually provide feedbacks to their students. These assessment feedbacks could be verbal, non-verbal or written feedbacks.

The verbal feedbacks which are identified in this case study include: explicit oral feedback, elicitation of completion, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error. Among these, explicit oral feedback and elicitation of completion were the most frequently observed feedback strategies during the sample teachers' instructions. However, sample teachers have rarely used recast (reformulation of a student's utterance minus the error) and clarification request as their verbal feedback strategy.

Regarding written feedback, the collected data from students' exercise books and from the interviews indicated that both focal participating teachers provide their students similar type of feedbacks. In the students' exercise books, they have mainly provided three kinds of teacher's written feedbacks: (i) big '√' and 'X' marks indicating students' works as right or wrong respectively; (ii) compliments like 'good', 'very good' and 'excellent'; and (iii) teacher's signatures to show that their homework or class work is checked. Moreover, sample teachers also described during the interview that on students' exam papers, they write such evaluative feedbacks as 'Very good!', 'Keep it up!' and 'Excellent!' to encourage those high achievers.

The two sample teachers were also observed responding to students' replies in the form of non-verbal languages particularly using head-shaking or nodding as a sign of agreement to students' responses. Moreover, Tilahun has frequently used a special kind of non-verbal feedback. He was leaning forward to a student who was responding. This clearly shows that the student has got the full attention of the teacher which, in turn, could be taken as non-verbal feedback. On the other hand, Daniel was frequently observed staring at students who seemed non-attentive.

4.5.2. Contents of EFL Assessment

(A) Assessment of Learning in the Non-cognitive Domain

The non-cognitive factors that the sample EFL teachers mainly assess are students' motivation for learning, for instance, their participation in classroom instructions. Moreover, they also assess their students' personal details. Although initially they said that they did not assess any of their students' personal details, using crosschecking interview questions the researcher has confirmed that they actually assess such student details including their out-of-school activities. However, as the interview data indicated, teachers are not always aware of what student behaviors they are assessing and how they are assessing it.

To some extent, sample teachers also assess such non-cognitive factors as: students' learning problems, self esteem, learning needs and interests and social behaviors during task-related interactions.

Regarding the other non-cognitive behaviors, the study revealed that sample EFL teachers rarely assess students' personal beliefs, their emotional and psychological characteristics, their learning style preferences, their learning strategies and their social behaviors during non-task-related interactions.

(B) Assessment of Learning in the Cognitive Domain

To identify what cognitive aspects of learning sample teachers assess, the observation data, the documents (tests) and the questionnaire data were analyzed. Hence, the classroom observation data indicated that teachers' assessment practices focus more on 'remembering' and 'understanding' where both of these abilities are categorized under lower level cognitive processes. Similarly, both the document analysis and the questionnaire data analysis show that the two lower order cognitive processes were teachers' primary focus of assessment.

To some extent, sample teachers were observed in assessing students' applying abilities. However, they have rarely assessed higher level of thinking, particularly analyzing, evaluating and creating. In their reading lessons, for instance, learners were not asked to search meaning beyond the content they are reading through predicting, concluding or inferring.

4.5.3. Purposes of Assessment

(A) Purposes of Informal Assessments

Regarding the purposes of informal assessments, the observation, interview and questionnaire data indicated that the main reasons for teachers in practicing informal classroom assessments were to: monitor students' progress in learning; motivate students to learn; manage student behavior; provide feedback to students; diagnose student difficulties; and plan instruction/ what to do next.

Moreover, to some extent, they also assess their students so as to stress the main concepts of the lesson; to determine the amount of time spend on a lesson; and to evaluate the effectiveness of instructional activities. However, teachers rarely practice informal assessments for the sake of evaluating their own teaching methodology; determining the final grades for students and setting targets or achievement goals.

(B) Purposes of Formal Assessments

The purpose of formal assessments is not limited only to summarizing students' achievement. The results from this study indicated that teachers assess their students formally for various purposes. Based on all the data discussed in this chapter, the sample teachers practice formal assessments for three main reasons: to determine the final grades for their students; to encourage students to work harder; and to prepare their students for high stakes tests that they will need to take in the future.

To some extent, they also formally assess their students in order to diagnose student difficulties and to provide feedback to students. However, they rarely use formal assessments to evaluate whether teaching activities achieve their objectives; to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to set targets or achievement goals.

CHAPTER FIVE

Case Study Two: The Case of Dil Ber Secondary School

5.1. Case Description

Dil Ber Secondary School is located in the northern part of Addis Ababa, Gullele Sub-city. It is relatively a new school which was founded in 2001. It is a government secondary school run by Gullele Sub-city Education Bureau officials.

It is a medium school of 1400-1500 enrolment capacity, with an average of 50 students per class. The school provides service for Grade 9 and Grade 10 students. In the 2013/14 school year, a total of 1456 students have been enrolled. Among these, 49.5 percent of the students are male and 50.5 percent are female.

The total academic staff members of the school numbered 80 teachers: 62 male and 18 female. All teachers are assigned to teach at both grades (at Grades 9 and 10). The department of English comprises 9 teachers; all of them are male. The average workload of the English teachers is fifteen credit hours per week. Apart from the teachers, there are also 32 non-teaching staff members who support the teaching-learning process in the school.

Similar to the other government secondary schools, the academic subjects taught in this school include: Amharic, English, History, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Geography, ICT, Civics and Ethical Education, and HPE. In this school, much attention has also been given to English. It is taught six periods per week while the rest subjects are taught less than six periods per week. Each period has 45 minutes duration. The learning schedule in this school is similar to the other government secondary schools in the city. In the morning session, there are five periods and in the afternoon session there are two periods. The morning session starts at 8:45 AM in the morning and stays until 12:45 AM at noon. In between, there is a 15 minutes break. The afternoon session starts at 2:00 PM after a lunch break and ends at 3:30 PM.

Regarding school facilities, although there are some problems regarding quality and quantity, it is possible to say that the school has basic facilities which are necessary for the teaching-learning process. These include library, school laboratory, computer room, playing ground and café. The school library reading room can hold about 150 students at a time. However, the number of

books on the shelves is very few. Hence, it is clear that the school library has shortage of books. As a result, students are not allowed to borrow books from the library. The school has one poorly equipped science laboratory. There is no language laboratory or any audio-visual center in the school. The computer room contains 30 desktop computers. Apart from these facilities, there is also a playground for students to take part in various sports activities like volley ball and basket ball. The playground is also students' canteen from where they eat their lunch scattered on it. The flag ceremony, physical education and assemblies are also held in the playground. The school has a small cafeteria delivering service only for both teachers and non-teaching staff members of the school. However, it does not provide service to students and to people outside the school community.

The classroom equipments in this school are almost similar to Bole Community School. The student seats are similar in both schools and arranged in the same way. There is also a Plasma TV in each classroom. However, in Dil Ber Secondary School, the classrooms are not as crowded as those in Bole Community School. There are averagely five rows of seats by four columns. Moreover, since Dil Ber is a newly constructed school, the classrooms are relatively clean and the blackboards are better in quality.

Other than all the facilities and services mentioned above, the other most important thing which should be described in this section of the thesis is about the focal participating teachers. One way or another, all the nine English teachers who are teaching in this school have participated in the study. However, as described earlier in the methodology section, only two focal participating teachers were selected for the study. Thus, they are referred in this thesis as Solomon and Tewodros (pseudo names).

Solomon is in his late twenties and he is a BEd graduate in English language. He has been teaching English for about four years. As a fresh graduate, he first started teaching at this secondary school four years ago. Currently, he teaches two classes of Grade 9 students and a class of Grade 10 students. His Grade 9 students are averagely fourteen years old and his Grade 10 students are averagely fifteen. The average class size of both grades is 50.

The other focal participating teacher was Tewodros. Tewodros, who is in his late thirties, is a BA graduate in English Language and Literature. He is a senior English teacher in the school. He has thirteen years of teaching experience and all his teaching experiences are from this school. He first started teaching English as a fresh graduate thirteen years ago when this school was established in 2001. Presently, Tewodros teaches two classes of Grade 10 students and a class of Grade 9 students. The age of his students and the number of students in a class at both grade levels is similar to that of Solomon's students.

In general, both English teachers are male. They have had a university degree in teaching English. However, none of them have taken any EFL testing/assessment courses or any related in-service training before.

5.2. Methods and Procedures of Assessment

As previously stated in the introduction part of this thesis, EFL teachers need to practice multiple assessment methods and procedures in their classrooms so as to help their students learn effectively. Therefore, in order to ensure the effectiveness of EFL teaching, teachers' classroom assessment practices should be checked.

In this sample school, observational data were collected to identify multiple assessment methods and procedures practiced by sample EFL teachers. The collected data have been discussed and presented in two categories: informal and formal assessments.

5.2.1. Informal Assessments

Informal assessment events occur as part of classroom instructions. Thus, the best way to identify such assessment practices is to record or observe teachers' classroom instructions and analyze the instructions. In this case study, two focal participating teachers' (Solomon's and Tewodros') classroom instructions were observed. Both Solomon's and Tewodros' classrooms were observed five times and the assessment events are identified and described as follows.

Solomon's classroom

From Solomon's classroom instruction, a grammar lesson, two reading lessons, a speaking lesson and a vocabulary lesson were observed. During the observed grammar instruction, Solomon has used oral questioning as his main informal assessment procedure. All his oral questions were display types. He has frequently asked open-ended questions which elicit the main concept of the lesson (see excerpt 7 below).

Excerpt 7: Solomon's Sample Grammar Instruction Extract

No	Turns	Lesson Extract
1	Solomon:	... Look at the example on page 77, it says 'If you eat too many cakes, you will get fat'. What kind of sentence is it?
2	SS	(In chorus), If sentence.
3	Solomon:	Very nice! If sentence or Conditional sentence!
4	Solomon:	Now, when we say conditional sentence, what does it include?
5	Ss:	(In chorus), If-clause
6	Solomon:	Yea! Conditional sentences contain an if-clause or a conditional clause that expresses a condition and a main clause.
7	Solomon:	Therefore, most of the time the conditional clause should be introduced by...? What kind of subordinate conjunction?
8	Ss:	(In chorus), If!
9	Solomon:	'If' or...? Ahha ...? Biniam?
10	Biniam:	Will
11	Solomon:	Umm, no. 'Will' is not a subordinate conjunction. It is an auxiliary verb. Any other answer? Ok, Genet?
12	Genet:	If or unless
13	Solomon:	Excellent! 'If' or 'unless'.... Please write this! (Observing that they are not taking notes)
14	Solomon:	...So, these conditional sentences start with the if-clause or the main-clause. Henok! Out of my class! (Observing him misbehaving).
15	Solomon:	Now, what are the types of conditional sentences? Who can tell me the types of conditional sentences? 'አሺ' [ok], Saba? ...

The classroom instruction in the above excerpt illustrates that Solomon's main informal assessment action is oral questioning (Turns 1, 4, 7, 11, and 15). He asks display oral questions that focus on eliciting evidence of what students know regarding the form of conditional

sentences. Next to oral questioning, the other informal assessment action that Solomon has used in this grammar instruction was rewarding (Turns 3, 6 and 13). Moreover, as indicated in Appendix 9, in his grammar lesson, Solomon has mainly used such informal assessment actions as correcting, judging, examining product and observing process.

In the other observed classroom instructions (i.e. reading, vocabulary and speaking instructions), Solomon has also used oral questioning, rewarding, correcting, examining product, judging and observing process as his main informal assessment actions. During reading and vocabulary lessons, for instance, he was frequently moving round the class and checking students' written works by marking and signing on their exercise books. Here, the informal assessment actions he has used can be referred as observing process, judging and examining product. After checking their written works, he discussed comprehension questions with students. During the discussion, he has used a lot of display oral questions which are already stated in the textbook. In responding to these questions, students received rewards. Such rewards included phrases like 'very good', 'very nice' and 'excellent'.

Therefore, it can be stated that in his classroom instruction, Solomon mainly uses such informal assessment actions as: oral questioning, rewarding, correcting, judging, observing product and observing process.

Although Solomon has mainly used these informal assessment actions in his class, he did not use them uniformly during all his instructions. For instance, he has used correcting and judging more frequently in his vocabulary lesson than in any of his observed instructions. In his grammar and speaking lessons, he was also observed using 'rewarding' more frequently than in his reading and vocabulary instructions. Therefore, there is a variation in the prevalence of these informal assessment actions among his instructions.

Tewodros' classroom

From Tewodros' classroom instruction, the researcher managed to observe two grammar instructions, two reading instructions and a writing instruction.

Like Solomon's classroom, the informal assessment actions in Tewodros' grammar and reading instructions were dominated by oral questioning. In his reading lesson, he first ordered his

students to open their textbook, read the passage and do comprehension questions in the textbook. At this time, Tewodros moved round the class and checked that every student was doing the reading task. It was only when students finished answering reading comprehension questions that he started discussing about the questions with them. Excerpt 8 below shows such discussions in one of his observed reading instruction.

Excerpt 8: Tewodros’ Sample Reading Instruction Extract

No	Turns	Lesson Extract
1	Tewodros:	...Who can answer question number 1? “Why did Weizro Hinia collect many different materials?”
2	S1	she is the head of, umm, the Arts and Crafts Department of Asosa Secondary School
3	Tewodros:	Very good! Because she is the head of the Arts and Crafts Department of Asosa Secondary School and she decided to organize an Arts and Crafts Club at the school
4	Tewodros:	Ok, question Number 2 “What did the school do on Parents’ Day?” Yes, Selam.
5	Selam:	Lots of students joined the club
6	Tewodros:	Lots of students joined the club. Umm, no. It’s not that. ‘እሺ’ [Ok] Ermias.
7	Ermias:	The school held a craft fair
8	Tewodros:	Excellent! The school held a craft fair
9	Tewodros:	Question Number 3, “How did Halima make colored ripples and patterns in the cloth?”... (He continued discussing about the comprehension questions in the same pattern)

As the above excerpt illustrates, in this reading lesson, Tewodros has used oral questioning (Turns 1, 4 and 9), rewarding (Turn 3 and 8) and correcting (Turn 6) as his main informal assessment procedures. His questioning and rewarding patterns are also repeated throughout the classroom instruction. Moreover, as indicated in Appendix 9, Tewodros checks students while they are at work which can be categorized under ‘observing process’. However, his observation was more on monitoring student behavior and checking their engagement on the task rather than focusing on what they are really doing. He has also used judging, examining product, and moving forward in his instruction (see Appendix 9).

Apart from the reading lesson, in his observed writing lesson, Tewodros has also used such informal assessment procedures as: observing process, correcting, judging, rewarding and examining product. He first instructed them to copy fifteen items from the black board. Each of

the items included disorganized words which could make up a meaningful sentence. Then, he asked them to re-arrange these words and construct meaningful sentences. Through this process, he has observed them for about fifteen minutes and then he started correcting and marking students' works and went on until the end of the class time. Thus, in this writing lesson, his main informal assessment actions were observing process, correcting, judging and examining product.

Therefore, based on the classroom observation data, both Solomon's and Tewodros' main informal assessment procedures were oral questioning, rewarding, correcting, judging, observing process and examining product. In addition, Tewodros has also used moving forward (i.e. negotiating with his students what to do next) as his assessment procedure.

Similarly, the interviews held with Solomon and Tewodros clearly show that oral questioning, correcting, observing process, judging and examining product were their main informal assessment actions. They described it as follows.

Solomon: *I usually check their class works and home works. ... I also mark their works and give them corrections.*

Tewodros: *when they are doing their class work, I move round the class and observe them. After I have done this, I discuss the class work with students by asking oral questions.*

The questionnaire data also proves that sample teachers in the school employ oral questioning, correcting, observing process, judging and examining product to a greater extent. All of the nine sample teachers who filled the questionnaire indicated that they ask their students display oral questions to a greater extent so as to elicit evidence of what their students know, understand or can do in the lesson. Similarly, more than six of them also indicated that they greatly practice examining product of work; asking for clarification; assigning mark, grade or summary judgment on the quality of students' work; and providing corrections.

However, more than half of the respondents indicated that they rarely practice such informal assessment actions as: peer assessments, self assessments, asking students referential oral questions to get unknown information and asking students metacognitive questioning (about how and why specific actions have been taken).

In general, regarding teachers' informal assessment practices, the collected data from this case study showed that EFL teachers mainly use oral questioning, rewarding, correcting, observing process, examining product and judging. However, they rarely ask their students referential questions, metacognitive questions clarifications, peer and self assessments.

5.2.2. Formal Assessments

The assessment methods that are normally recognized as formal classroom assessments include quizzes, tests and examinations. In identifying test formats and the skills tested in various formal assessments in the sample school, interviews, questionnaires and documents (test papers) were used as sources of data.

According to the interviews held with Solomon and Tewodros, both teachers mainly use mid-semester and semester final exams so as to evaluate their students. They also said that the language skills which are assessed in these tests include reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar. Solomon states this as:

...well, it's actually scheduled by the school. But I prepare mid-exam and final exam. Mid-exam is out of 30% and the final exam counts 50%. The rest 20% is their class participation...

Here, Solomon states that his formal assessments are only the mid semester and semester final exams. This idea is shared by Tewodros too. Similarly, during the focus group discussion, students also mentioned that they only took two types of formal assessment methods: mid-semester and semester final examinations.

Regarding the format of these tests and the language skills assessed in them, both teachers described that the tests include mainly multiple choice and matching items. To some extent, they said, these tests include fill-in the blanks. Moreover, the collected mid-semester and semester final exam papers show that the language skills assessed in these tests were mainly vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension. For instance, among the twenty items in the mid-semester exam paper, there were five items focusing on vocabulary and the rest fifteen items were concerned with grammar. Similarly, the final exam paper was also dominated by grammar and reading comprehension items. Out of the forty items, ten were reading comprehension questions, twenty-five were grammar questions and the rest five were writing skills items. Thus, the test

papers indicated that teachers' formal assessments focus more on grammar, reading comprehension and vocabulary skills. Writing skill was assessed formally to some extent. However, the other language sub-skills (i.e. speaking and listening) were not included in their formal assessment.

This was also indicated in the questionnaire data. Among the four major and two minor language skills, teachers prioritized in testing grammar, reading and vocabulary. Table 5.1 shows the data collected from nine sample English teachers.

Table 5.1: Language Skills Formally Assessed by Dil Ber School EFL Teachers

Skills Assessed	not at all	small extent	some extent	great extent	very great extent
a. Speaking Tests	1	5	3	-	-
b. Listening Tests	2	4	2	1	-
c. Reading Tests	-	-	1	4	4
d. Writing Tests	1	2	5	1	-
e. Vocabulary Tests	-	-	2	4	3
f. Grammar Tests	-	-	1	3	5

Note: N= 9 teacher

Table 5.1 illustrates that majority of the respondents (more than seven out of nine) have replied that they greatly use reading, vocabulary and grammar tests. Moreover, more than half of them also indicated that to some extent they use writing tests. However, according to the above data the skills less assessed formally are listening and speaking.

Therefore, the data collected from this case study confirmed that EFL teachers employ only two types of formal assessments: mid-semester and semester final examinations. The formats of these exams are mainly multiple-choice. To some extent, they also include fill-ins the blanks and short answer types. Moreover, teachers mainly focus on assessing three language skills in their formal assessments: grammar, reading and vocabulary. Writing skills is assessed only to some extent through controlled items. However, teachers rarely practice speaking and listening tests in their classrooms.

5.2.3. EFL Teachers' assessment feedback

During informal classroom assessments, teachers provide their students various kinds of feedbacks which facilitate the teaching-learning process. The feedback they provide to their student could be verbal, written or non-verbal.

In order to identify specific oral feedback strategies used by the two sample teachers in this school, classroom instructional events were observed and recorded. During the observations, Solomon was frequently observed strategically pausing to allow students to complete the utterances and to elicit the correct form from them. The following lesson extract, which was also presented previously in Section 5.2.1 of this thesis, shows Solomon's typical feedback strategies.

- e.g. Solomon:** ... What kind of sentence is it?
Ss: (In chorus), If sentence.
Solomon: Very nice! If sentence or Conditional sentence!
Solomon: ... conditional clause should be introduced by...?
Ss: (In chorus), If!
Solomon: 'If' or...? Ahha ...? Biniam?
Biniam: Will
Solomon: Emm, no. 'Will' is not a subordinate conjunction. It is an auxiliary verb. Any other answer? Ok, Genet?

Here in this extract, apart from elicitation feedback, Solomon has also used phrases like "very nice!" together with elaborations and explicit answers. This type of feedback can be referred as explicit oral feedback. In the last turn of the above extract, Solomon has clearly provided comments or information about why Biniam's answer was incorrect (which is metalinguistic feedback) but he did not provide him the correct answer explicitly. Instead, he asked for another correct replay from other students. Hence, he has frequently used explicit oral feedback, elicitation of completion and metalinguistic feedback.

Moreover, Table 5.2 below shows the field note data collected from Solomon's classroom during the five classroom observation sessions.

Table 5.2: Oral Feedback Strategies Observed in Dil Ber School EFL Classrooms

Feedback Strategies	Not evident	Somewhat evident	clearly evident
a. Recast	3	1	1
b. Clarification request	3	1	1
c. Metalinguistic feedback	-	2	3
d. Elicitation	-	1	4
e. Repetition of error	1	3	1
f. Explicit oral feedback	-	2	3

N = 5 observation sessions

As Table 5.2 illustrates, during the five classroom observation sessions, elicitation feedback strategy was clearly evident in four of Solomon’s classroom instruction sessions. Moreover, metalinguistic feedback and explicit oral feedback strategies were clearly evident in three of the observation sessions. Repetition of errors was also somewhat evident in three of his observed classroom instructions sessions. However, he was rarely observed (only in one observation sessions) using recasts and clarification requests in his classroom instruction.

Likewise, Tewodros has also employed four oral feedback strategies during his observed instructions. He has used explicit oral feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error. For instance, the lesson excerpt which was presented previously in Section 5.2.1 of this thesis shows how Tewodros has used repetition of error and elicitation feedback strategies in his instruction.

- e.g. Tewodros:** Ok, question Number 2 “What did the school do on Parents’ Day?” Yes, Selam.
Selam: Lots of students joined the club
Tewodros: Lots of students joined the club. Umm, no. It’s not that. ‘አሺ’ [Ok] Ermias.
Ermias: The school held a craft fair
Tewodros: Excellent! The school held a craft fair

In this excerpt, Tewodros repeats Selam’s error and tries to elicit the correct answer. He does not specifically tell them why Selam’s answer is incorrect neither he tell them the correct answer explicitly. Instead, he asked for another correct replay from students. Thus, what is clearly evident in this excerpt is, Tewodros was using repetition of error as his feedback strategy.

Therefore, four oral feedback strategies (explicit oral feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error) were clearly evident in both Solomon's and Tewodros' classroom instructions. However, in both teachers' classroom instruction 'recast' and clarification request were not evident.

Regarding written feedback, the collected data from students' exercise books and interviews indicated that both Solomon and Tewodros put their compliments (like 'good', 'very good' and 'excellent') and their signatures on students' written works. The most repeatedly indicated written feedback provided by both teachers is the big '√' and 'x' marks indicating students' works as right or wrong respectively. Apart from this, in two of the six sampled exercise books in Solomon's classroom, it was found that he has also provided some kind of written corrective feedbacks with regard to spelling, vocabulary, grammar and punctuation. However, these written feedbacks had the nature of editing or proofreading. He has written correct utterances on top of problematic words or phrases and added punctuation marks in sentences.

In the interview session, Tewodros has also mentioned that he use both written and verbal feedbacks special in exam papers. He stated this as:

I just write their marks on the test papers. However, while I return the papers in class, I screen out those high achievers and appreciate them by saying 'keep it up!', 'very good!' and so on.

Moreover, both sample teachers were observed providing non-verbal feedbacks to their students. As repeatedly indicated in the field note, both Solomon and Tewodros were mainly using head-shaking (nodding) as a sign of agreement to students' responses. Moreover, Solomon was frequently observed staring at students who seemed clever and attentive in his lesson. Tewodros was also repeatedly observed staring at and moving towards students who were whispering and doing non-academic matters.

5.3. Contents of Assessment

5.3.1. Assessment of Learning in the Non-cognitive Domain

As discussed in the literature part of this thesis, both cognitive and non-cognitive factors play important roles in students' learning. Hence, teachers need to assess these factors so as to facilitate learning. The non-cognitive factors that teachers need to assess include students' learning styles, their motivation, their personal traits and their on-going social behaviors.

Hence, in order to find out what is actually assessed regarding these non-cognitive factors in the sample school classrooms, data were collected mainly through in-depth interview and teachers' questionnaire. Table 5.3 below presents the questionnaire data.

Table 5.3: Dil Ber Secondary School EFL Teachers' Assessment Practices of the Non-cognitive Factors

Items	A	B	C	D	E
I look for students' personal details (e.g. their names, schools last attended, and their family background)	-	1	1	4	3
I assess their personal beliefs (e.g. their beliefs about learning English)	3	3	1	1	1
I check their emotional and psychological characteristics	2	3	2	1	1
I check their self esteem	3	3	2	-	1
I evaluate their motivation for learning (e.g. their participation in class)	1	1	1	3	3
I check their learning needs and interests	1	2	5	1	-
I assess their learning style preferences	1	5	2	1	-
I assess their learning strategies (e.g. whether they take risks, focus on meaning/form, or self-correct)	1	4	2	1	1
I assess their learning problems	1	1	5	1	1
I look for their out-of-school activities	2	4	2	1	-
I evaluate their social behaviors during <i>task-related interactions</i> (e.g. their dominance, reticence, cooperativeness, disruptiveness and friendliness)	1	3	5	-	-
I check their social behaviors during <i>non-task-related interactions</i> (e.g. their dominance, reticence, cooperativeness, disruptiveness and friendliness)	2	6	-	1	-

Note: N = 9; A = not at all; B = small extent; C = some extent; D = great extent E = very great extent

Based on the data indicated in the above table, more than half of the respondents replied that they assessed two main non-cognitive factors to a greater extent. These are: students' personal details and their motivation for learning. Hence, sample teachers would like to know more, for instance, about their students' names, the schools they last attended, their family background and their willingness in volunteering during class activities. The data also show that, to some extent,

sample teachers assess their students' learning needs and interests; their learning problems and their social behaviors during task-related interactions.

On the contrary, majority of the respondents (more than six out of nine) indicated that they rarely assess their students' emotional and psychological characteristics, personal beliefs; self esteem; out-of-school activities; learning style preferences, learning strategies and social behaviors during non-task-related interactions.

Again, the interview data also confirmed that sample teachers mainly assess their students' personal details and their motivation for learning or participation in class. Solomon, for instance, stated this as:

... In my class, first I would like to know who is who. At the beginning of the school year, I ask their names; since then, I follow up everything they do in class. I check who is attending the lesson attentively and who is not; who does class works and home works regularly and who does not; and who is eager to learn and who is not...

In this interview data, Solomon explains that his assessment focuses on non-cognitive factors which can be categorized under academic behaviors which are commonly associated with being a "good" student or a "bad" student. Tewodros has also mentioned the same thing about assessing his students' learning in the non-cognitive domain. Apart from these aspects of learning, both of the focal participating teachers did not mention about assessing their students' learning styles and their learning strategies nor did they mention about assessing students' beliefs in learning English.

Therefore, it can be stated that, in the non-cognitive domain of learning, the sample EFL teachers mainly assess their students' motivation for learning and their personal details. To some extent, they also assess students' learning interests, their learning problems and social behaviors during task-related interactions. However, they rarely assess their self esteem, learning styles, learning strategies, personal beliefs, emotional and psychological characteristics and social behaviors during non-task-related interactions.

5.3.2. Assessment of Learning in the Cognitive Domain

EFL teachers assess their students' cognitive abilities through formal and informal assessments. In order to find out what cognitive abilities teachers assess informally, each of the two focal participating teachers' classrooms were observed five times. Moreover, tests are used as sources to see what cognitive skills they assess in formal assessments. Hence, using Bloom's revised taxonomy of cognitive knowledge, first, the observation data obtained from Solomon's and Tewodros' classrooms are discussed; and then, documents (tests) are analyzed in the same way.

Solomon's classroom

Solomon's observed grammar instructions (one of which is presented in Excerpt 7 of Section 5.2.1) are dominated by oral questions which focus on assessing students' remembering and understanding abilities.

E.g. Turn	Lesson Extract
1	... 'If you eat too many cakes, you will get fat'. What kind of sentence is it?
4	Now, when we say conditional sentence, what does it include?
7	...the conditional clause should be introduced by...? What kind of subordinate conjunction?
15	Now, what are the types of conditional sentences? Who can tell me the types of conditional sentences? 'እሺ' [ok], Saba? ...

(For more of this, look at Excerpt 7 in Section 5.2.1 or Appendix 9)

In this grammar lesson extract, Solomon has used four main questions which target in assessing students' recalling ability (Turn 1), exemplifying ability (Turns 4 & 7), and classifying ability (Turn 15). In Turn 1, he has asked students about the type of the sentence. Hence, students are expected to recall the structure of the sentence by looking at it. In Turns 4 and 7, he has used two questions which demand students to memorize the grammar rule of conditional sentences and to give examples or parts of such a sentence as well. In Turn 15, the questions he asked requires students to list the kind of conditional sentences. Thus, Turn 1 aims at students' remembering ability and Turns 4, 7 and 15 aim at students' understanding ability.

Similarly, in his reading lesson, Solomon has used questions which focus on assessing students' understanding abilities. He has given his students a reading class work on a topic "The media in

Ethiopia” (Page 102 of students’ textbook). He instructed them to read silently and to complete the reading task that follows the passage. The reading task has included eight reading comprehension questions. After the students had completed their class work, he discussed all the eight questions with his students. In the discussion, he has used questions which demand students to infer, list, interpret and explain. All of these aspects are referred as ‘understanding’. The following example shows how he has conducted the reading lesson.

E.g. Turn	Lesson Extract
1	...Question number 1, What are the different kinds of media mentioned in the passage? Yes, Abel?
3	Yes, Television, ahha, any other?
5	Radio, Very good. Newspapers and magazines are also media.
6	Number 2: Who controls radio and television in Ethiopia? Yes?
8	The government. Ok, the next question: How many broadcast stations are licensed to operate in Ethiopia?

As it is illustrated in the above excerpt, all the questions (Turns 1, 3, 6 and 8) demand students only to understand what has been stated in the reading passage. Thus, they are codified as ‘Un’ (understanding). However, the rest cognitive processes stated in the Bloom’s Revised Taxonomy (remembering, applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating) were not observed in this particular reading lesson. Thus, learners were not required to search meanings beyond the content they were reading.

Moreover, during the other three observed lessons in Solomon’s classroom, ‘remembering’ and ‘understanding’ were the primary student cognitive processes that are assessed. Therefore, the classroom observation data in Solomon’s classroom indicated that his assessment practice focuses on these two lower level cognitive processes.

Tewodros' Classroom

In Tewodros' grammar instruction, he was observed assessing mainly students' remembering and understanding abilities through oral questioning. Some of his questions are indicated below.

Excerpt 9: Tewodros' Grammar Instruction

No	Turn	Lesson Extract
1	Tewodros:	...present perfect tense is formed by using has or have plus, ahha ...? Who can tell me?
2	S1:	V3
3	Tewodros:	Good! V3 or past participle form of the verb.
4	Tewodros:	Now, do exercise 1 in your exercise book. It says: Choose whether has been or has gone is correct.
5	Ss:	ሁሉንም ጥያቄዎች ነው ምንሰራው? [Are we going to do all of the questions?]
6	Tewodros:	Yea! All of it. (after waiting for students while they are working, he marked their work and started discussing)
7	Tewodros:	Ok, enough. Now, let's do it together. What is the answer for question number one? It says: Where is Kekebo? Has he to the bank? Ok. Who can answer this? Is it gone or been?
8	Ss:	(In chorus), gone.
9	Tewodros:	Very good! It should be: Has he gone to the bank? Ok, why is 'gone' the answer? Why not 'been'?
10	S2:

In the above excerpt (Turn 1), Tewodros has asked his students so as to assess their ability in memorizing the grammar rule for present perfect tense. Similarly, in Turns 4 and 7 he has asked them to choose the correct verb form from two alternatives: 'has/have gone' and 'has/have been'. In doing so, he has been assessing their recognizing ability which is also under the remembering part of Bloom's Taxonomy. However, in Turn 9, his question was about why they chose the verb 'gone'. Hence, it asks students to provide details to justify their reasons. This kind of questioning demands students' understanding.

Tewodros' reading lesson also includes questions which require students' understanding. Since his questions are reading comprehension questions which are taken directly from the textbook, they all demand students' understanding of the reading material. Thus, they are categorized under 'understanding'.

The other instruction observed from Tewodros' classroom is writing. In the writing class, he has employed a controlled writing task which asks students to re-arrange words and phrases in order to make a meaningful sentence. In this writing task, he has assessed his students' organizing ability (See Appendix 9). Hence, his assessment was mainly on students' analyzing ability.

Therefore, in four of the five observed classrooms, Tewodros has mainly assessed students' remembering and understanding abilities. In one task (i.e. writing), he has also assessed students' higher order think – analyzing ability.

In general, during informal classroom assessments, sample teachers in this school mainly assess two lower order thinking abilities (i.e. remembering and understanding). To some extent, they also assess their students analyzing ability. However, this was observed only during a writing instruction. Hence, it is possible to say that the contents assessed (whether lower or high order thinking cognitive ability) vary based on the skills taught in the classroom.

During formal classroom assessments, teachers also assess their students' cognitive abilities. In order to see what they specifically assess in these formal assessments, the mid-semester and semester final examination items are analyzed as follows.

The mid-semester English Examination

The mid-semester exam has twenty multiple-choice items. All the items are analyzed and codified using Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. In order to show how the items were codified and analyzed, some items of the exam are presented below as an example.

3. *My brother needs some money, so I may him some.*

A. send B. sent C. sending D. sends

The correct choice is Choice A. In this item, students are required to choose the correct verb form from the four alternatives. This demands their recognizing ability. Thus, the item is codified as 'remembering'.

18. I (A) spend (B) much of my time (C) with my parents. (usually)

Where is the correct position of the adverb 'usually' in the sentence?

- A. A B. B C. C D. D

The correct choice is Choice A. Since this item demands students' ability in grammar rules and word meanings, it is also codified as 'remembering'.

Thus, all the twenty items in the mid-semester exam are codified and summarized in the table below.

Table 5.4: The Cognitive Abilities assessed in Dil Ber Secondary School Mid-semester English Examination

No.	Cognitive abilities	Number of items (N)	Percentage
1	Remembering Ability	15	75%
2	Understanding Ability	3	15%
3	Applying Ability	2	10%
4	Analyzing Ability	-	0%
5	Evaluating Ability	-	0%
6	Creating Ability	-	0%

Note: N = 20 items

Table 5.4 illustrates that majority of the items in the mid-semester exam (75% of the items) are designed to evaluate students' remembering ability. It is only 25% of the items that demand students' understanding and applying abilities. The rest cognitive abilities (i.e. analyzing, evaluating and creating) were not assessed in the exam. Thus, students' cognitive processes which are in the lower order level of thinking were the focus of assessment.

The semester final exam also shows the same result. As compared with the mid-semester exam, the number of items in the final exam has doubled (forty multiple choice items). However, the contents assessed in those items were all in the lower order level of thinking. Table 5.5 illustrates the summary of the exam items and students' cognitive abilities assessed in these items.

Table 5.5: The Cognitive Abilities assessed in Dil Ber Secondary School Semester Final English Examination

No.	Cognitive abilities	Number of items (N)	Percentage
1	Remembering Ability	19	47.5%
2	Understanding Ability	18	45%
3	Applying Ability	3	7.5%
4	Analyzing Ability	-	0%
5	Evaluating Ability	-	0%
6	Creating Ability	-	0%

Note: N = 40 items

As the above table clearly shows, nearly half of the items in the final exam (47.5%) deal with assessing students' remembering ability and the other half of the items (45%) are designed to assess students' understanding ability. It is only 7.5% of the items that demand students' applying ability.

Regarding the contents of assessment, the questionnaire data collected from the nine sample EFL teachers also strengthened the above evidence that is gained in the classroom observation and the two exam papers. The data is presented in Table 5.6 below.

Table 5.6: Dil Ber Secondary School EFL Teachers' Assessment Practices of the Cognitive Factors

No.	Cognitive abilities	not at all	small extent	some extent	great extent	very great extent
1	Remembering Ability	-	1	1	2	5
2	Understanding Ability	-	-	1	5	3
3	Applying Ability	1	2	5	1	-
4	Analyzing Ability	1	6	1	-	1
5	Evaluating Ability	1	5	2	1	-
6	Creating Ability	1	7	1	-	-

Note: N = 9 respondents

The data in the above table show that more than half of the respondents greatly assess their students' remembering and understanding ability. The same number of respondents also replied that they assess their students' applying ability to some extent. However, majority of the

respondents (more than five of them) indicated that they rarely assess higher order levels of thinking such as analysis, evaluation and creation.

From all what has been discussed above, it can be stated that in the sample school EFL teachers mainly assess their students' remembering and understanding abilities. To some extent, they also assessed their students applying and analyzing abilities. However, both formal and informal assessments in the sample classrooms did not demand students to use their higher order levels of thinking such as evaluation and creation.

5.4. Purposes of Assessment

Sample EFL Teachers' reasons for practicing classroom assessments are discussed in two parts. The first section is about purposes of informal assessments and the second part deals with purposes of formal assessments practiced in the sample school.

5.4.1. Purposes of Informal Assessments

During interviews, both Solomon and Tewodros stated that they mainly assess their students informally so as to monitor their progress in learning; to motivate them to learn; to provide feedback to them and to manage their behavior. In relation to this, they replied to the interview question as follows:

Q: What are your primary reasons in applying informal assessments?

Solomon: *informal assessment is very important. I know many things about my students simply by observing them or by asking them questions. Umm, you know, I check who is listening, who is disturbing and who is writing. This helps me to manage the class very well and provide effective classroom instruction. ...*

Tewodros: *... to identify who understood the lesson and who didn't and to provide them additional instruction. Sometimes, you know, when students over listen my instruction, I ask them questions to wake them up. This also helps me to hold their attention and to motivate them to listen. ... After asking them, I also provide comments on their answers.*

Moreover, the classroom observation data collected from both Solomon's and Tewodros' classrooms show that both teachers have used informal observations so as to manage their students' classroom behaviors, to motivate them to learn and to stress the main concepts of the

lesson. Solomon's grammar lesson excerpt, which was presented previously in Section 5.2.1, could be taken here as an example.

E.g. Turn	Lesson extract
13	Excellent! 'If' or 'unless'.... Please write this! (Observing that they are not taking notes)
14	...So, these conditional sentences start with the if-clause or the main-clause. Henok! Out of my class! (Observing him misbehaving).
15	Now, what are the types of conditional sentences? Who can tell me the types of conditional sentences? 'እሺ' [ok], Saba? ...

In Turn 13 of the above lesson extract, after observing that students are not writing the main concept of the lesson, Solomon instructed them to write the notes. He would have carried on the lecture without ordering his students to take notes if he had not used observation as his informal assessment. Thus, his informal observation helped him to guide his students where to focus on during the lecture. In Turn 14 of the extract, he has also used his informal observation to control student misbehavior. Moreover, Solomon has used oral questioning to motivate individual students and to engage them in the lesson (Turn 15).

Similarly, Tewodros has used observation and oral questioning for the same purposes (i.e. to motivate them learn, to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to manage student misbehavior) (See Appendix 9).

Therefore, both the interview and the classroom observation data revealed that sample teachers use informal classroom assessments mainly for stressing the main concepts of the lesson, motivating students to learn and managing student behavior.

In addition to the classroom observation and interview results, the questionnaire data has also confirmed that teachers assess their students for various similar reasons. Table 5.7 shows the details of the questionnaire data.

Table 5.7: Dil Ber Secondary School EFL Teachers' Reasons for Assessing Students Informally

No.	Reasons for informal assessments:	Number of respondents			
		Not at all	Small extent	Some extent	Great extent
A.	To monitor students' progress in learning	0	1	3	5
B.	To manage student behavior	0	1	1	7
C.	To provide feedback to students	0	1	2	6
D.	To motivate students to learn	0	0	2	7
E.	To diagnose student difficulties and take appropriate majors	1	1	5	2
F.	To stress the main concepts of the lesson	0	1	3	5
G.	To plan instruction/ what to do next	1	0	5	2
H.	To determine the amount of time spend on a lesson	0	2	6	1
I.	To evaluate the effectiveness of instructional activities	1	7	1	0
J.	To evaluate the effectiveness of the teaching methodology	1	5	2	1
K.	To set targets or achievement goals	0	5	3	1
L.	To determine the final grades for students	1	2	5	1

Note: N = 9 Respondents

Based on the above data, more than half of the respondents identified five major reasons as to why they mainly assess their students informally. Their main reasons were to motivate students to learn; manage student behavior; stress the main concepts of the lesson; provide feedback to students; and monitor students' progress in learning. Moreover, more than half of the respondents have also indicated that to some extent they practice informal classroom assessments in order to: diagnose student difficulties and take appropriate majors; plan instruction (what to do next); determine the amount of time spend on a lesson; and determine the final grades for students. However, they replied that they rarely practice informal assessments for the sake of evaluating their own teaching methodology; evaluating the effectiveness of instructional activities and setting targets or achievement goals.

In general, the observation, interview and questionnaire data indicated that sample teachers use informal classroom assessments for five main reasons: (i) to motivate their students to learn; (ii) to manage student behavior; (iii) to monitor students' progress in learning; (iv) to provide feedback to students; and (v) to plan instruction (what to do next).

5.4.2. Purposes of Formal Assessments

Formal assessments serve various purposes. The most recognized purpose of such assessments is to summarize students' achievement at the end of a certain period of instruction. However, this is not the only purpose that these assessments serve for. The data collected from the two interviewed focal participating teachers indicated that they use formal assessments for three main reasons. Both Solomon and Tewodros stated this as follows:

Q: What are your primary reasons in practicing formal assessments/tests?

Solomon: *umm, I administer mid-semester and final exams in order to evaluate how much they have learned within a semester ... and to decide their scores. Moreover, such tests encourage them to study hard. This also makes them ready for the Grade 10 national exam.*

Tewodros: *I evaluate my students formally by using mid-exams and final exams. When I do this, my main reasons are: first, in order to identify who is who. You know, I have to give marks which describe their ability. These marks are very important for the school to promote students to the next grade level. Second, these exams prepare my students for the national exam that they are going to take it next year.*

As both Solomon and Tewodros explained, they practice formal assessments mainly for the purpose of determining the final grades of their students, encouraging students to work harder and preparing their students for the national exam that they will need to take it in the future.

Moreover, in the questionnaire, sample teachers in the school also showed similar results about the purposes of their formal assessments. The data is presented in Table 5.8 below.

Table 5.8: Dil Ber Secondary School EFL Teachers' Reasons for Assessing Students Formally

No.	Reasons for formal assessments:	Number of respondents			
		Not at all	Small extent	Some extent	Great extent
A.	To diagnose student difficulties	2	5	1	1
B.	To stress the main concepts of the lesson	2	6	1	0
C.	To encourage students to work harder	0	0	3	6
D.	To set targets or achievement goals	3	5	1	0
E.	To provide feedback to students	1	5	2	1
F.	To determine the final grades for students	0	0	1	8
G.	To evaluate whether teaching activities achieve their objectives	2	6	1	0
H.	To prepare students for high stakes tests they will need to take in the future	1	0	1	7

Note: N = 9 Respondents

As the data in Table 5.8 shows, majority of the respondents (more than five out of nine) replied that they mainly practice formal assessments for three main reasons: to determine the final grades for their students, to encourage students to work harder and to prepare their students for high stakes tests they will need to take in the future. To some extent, they also use formal assessments for the sake of diagnosing student difficulties and providing feedback to their students. However, they indicated that they rarely use formal assessments to evaluate whether teaching activities achieve their objectives, to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to set targets or achievement goals.

In general, based on the interview and questionnaire data discussed above, it can be stated that sample teachers in the school mainly use formal assessments so as to: (i) determine the final grades for their students; (ii) encourage students to work harder; and (iii) prepare their students for national exams.

5.5. Overview

The overview of this analysis is presented in line with the objectives of the study. It attempts to answer the basic research questions mentioned in the first chapter. The first section is about the methods of classroom assessment practiced in the sample school. The second section of the overview deals about the contents of assessment; and, the last section of the overview describes the purposes of EFL classroom assessment.

5.5.1. Methods and Procedures of EFL Assessment

(A) Informal Assessments

Regarding teachers' informal assessment practices, the collected data from this case study showed that EFL teachers mainly use oral questioning, rewarding, correcting, observing process, observing product and judging. Although they use these six main informal assessment actions, oral questioning (usually display ones) is their most dominant practice. The degree of practice among the other assessment actions has also varied depending on the type of skills taught. For instance, Solomon has used correcting and judging more frequently in his vocabulary lesson than in any of his observed instructions. In his grammar and speaking lessons, he was also observed using 'rewarding' more frequently than in his reading and vocabulary instructions. Therefore, there is a variation in the prevalence of these main informal assessment actions among various skills lessons.

Moreover, the data collected from this school indicated that to some extent EFL teachers use peer assessments and self assessments. However, they rarely ask their students referential questions, metacognitive questions and clarifications.

(B) Formal Assessments

The data collected from this case study confirmed that EFL teachers employ only two types of formal assessments: mid-semester and semester final examinations. The formats of these exams are mainly multiple-choice. To some extent, they also include fill-ins the blanks and short answer types. Moreover, teachers mainly focus on assessing three language skills in their formal assessments: grammar, reading and vocabulary. Writing skills is assessed only to some extent

through controlled items. However, teachers rarely practice speaking and listening tests in their classrooms.

(C) EFL Teachers' Assessment Feedback

The assessment feedbacks employed by the sample teachers are leveled into three categories: verbal, non-verbal and written feedbacks. The oral feedback strategies practiced by the two focal participating teachers include explicit oral feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error. These four verbal feedback strategies were clearly evident in both focal participating teachers' classroom instructions. However, 'recast' and clarification request were not evident in both teachers' instruction. Regarding written feedback, the collected data from students' exercise books and interviews indicated that both focal participating teachers put their compliments (like 'good', 'very good' and 'excellent') and their signatures on students' written works. The most repeatedly indicated written feedback provided by both teachers is the big '√' and 'x' marks indicating students' works as right or wrong respectively. On the other hand, both Solomon and Tewodros were mainly using head-shaking (nodding) as a sign of agreement to students' responses. Moreover, Solomon was frequently observed staring at students who seemed clever and attentive in his lesson. Tewodros was also repeatedly observed staring at and moving towards students who were whispering and doing non-academic matters.

5.5.2. Contents of EFL Assessment

(A) Assessment of Learning in the Non-cognitive Domain

Based on the findings of this case study, it can be stated that in the non-cognitive domain of learning, the sample EFL teachers mainly assess their students' motivation for learning (for instance, their participation in class) and their personal details. To some extent, they also assess students' learning interests, learning problems and social behaviors during task-related interactions. However, they rarely assess their students' self esteem, learning styles, learning strategies, personal beliefs, emotional and psychological characteristics and social behaviors during non-task-related interactions.

(B) Assessment of Learning in the Cognitive Domain

During both informal and formal classroom assessments, sample teachers mainly assess their students' remembering and understanding abilities. To some extent, they also assess their students' applying and analyzing abilities. Such abilities are assessed only during writing skills assessments. Hence, the kind of language skills assessed could have an effect on the type of thinking abilities teachers demand from their students (either higher or lower levels of thinking).

However, both formal and informal assessments in the sample classrooms do not demand students to use their higher order levels of thinking such as evaluation and creation.

5.5.3. Purposes of Assessment

(A) Purposes of Informal Assessments

The data collected from this sample school indicated that EFL teachers use informal classroom assessments for five main reasons: (i) to motivate their students to learn; (ii) to manage student behavior; (iii) to monitor students' progress in learning; (iv) to provide feedback to students; and (v) to plan instruction (what to do next).

To some extent they also practice informal classroom assessments in order to: diagnose student difficulties and take appropriate majors; plan instruction (what to do next); determine the amount of time spend on a lesson; and determine the final grades for students.

On the other hand, sample teachers rarely practice informal assessments for the sake of evaluating their own teaching methodology; evaluating the effectiveness of instructional activities and setting targets or achievement goals.

(B) Purposes of Formal Assessments

Sample teachers in the school mainly use formal assessments so as to: (i) determine the final grades for their students; (ii) encourage students to work harder; and (iii) prepare their students for national exams.

To some extent, they also use formal assessments for the sake of diagnosing student difficulties and providing feedback to their students. However, they indicated that they rarely use formal assessments to evaluate whether teaching activities achieve their objectives, to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to set targets or achievement goals.

CHAPTER SIX

Case Study Three: The Case of Yekatit 23 Secondary School

6.1. Case Description

Yekatit 23 Secondary School is located in the central part of Addis Ababa, Addis Ketema Sub-city. It was founded in 1954 by the then city administration. It is a government secondary school which is administered by Addis Ketema Sub-city Education Bureau officials.

It is a relatively large school of 2100-2300 enrolment capacity, with an average of 45 students per class. It provides service only to Grades 9 and 10 students. In the 2013/2014 school year, a total of 2136 students have been enrolled. Among these, 47.8% of the students are boys and 52.2% are girls.

The total number of teachers in the school has been 121 (93 males and 28 females). The English language department consists of fifteen teachers (9 males and 6 females). All of them teach at both grade levels. There are 31 personnel who are administrative staff members.

Similar academic subjects which are given in the rest of the government secondary schools are also taught in this school. These are Amharic, English, History, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Geography, ICT, Civics and Ethical Education, and HPE. Moreover, like other schools, there is an emphasis in the teaching of English in the school; it is taught six periods per week. The duration of each period is 45 minutes. The school follows a similar schedule as the other government secondary schools in the city.

The school has basic facilities though they are in short supplies and poor qualities. Particularly the school library, laboratory and computer rooms are not comparable with the number of students in the school. The library reading room can only hold about one hundred and fifty students at a time. Moreover, both sample students and teachers in the school have described that the library has shortage of relevant books which are necessary for secondary schools. Though there is one science laboratory in the school, it has shortage of equipment. The computer room contains only 39 desktop computers. Apart from these facilities, there is also a playground for students to take part in various sport activities. However, there is no language laboratory or audio-visual center or assembly hall in the school. The flag ceremony, physical education and

assemblies are held in the playground. The school has a small cafeteria which gives service only to teachers and other employees of the school.

The classrooms in Yekatit 23 Secondary School are relatively clean and less crowded. Averagely, there are five rows of seats by four columns in a classroom. However, like most other government schools, the seats are benches which are attached to desks where it is difficult to move them during group formation and various class activities. At the front wall of each classroom, there is a fixed blackboard and at the corner of the classrooms, there is also a Plasma TV where lessons are transmitted from the central broadcasting station. These are all the teaching and learning facilities visible in the classrooms. Regarding the English textbook, sample students and teachers stated that every student has got the books on time.

In Yekatit 23 Secondary School, the two focal participating teachers are Mesfin and Yohannes (pseudo names). Both of them have more than ten years of teaching experiences. Mesfin, who is in his mid forties, has a BA degree in English language. He has taught English both at primary and secondary schools for about eighteen years. The first seven years of his teaching experience was at primary schools. Later, he has taught English at secondary schools for the last eleven years.

Similarly, Yohannes, who is in his early fifties, is a BA graduate in English Language and Literature. He is a senior English teacher in the school. He has twenty-four years of teaching experiences. However, all of his teaching experiences are not in teaching English. At the beginning of his teaching profession, he has taught Amharic and other social sciences at primary schools. At secondary schools, he has been teaching English for the last fifteen years.

Generally, both of the focal participating English teachers in this school are well experienced and have had a university degree in teaching English. However, none of them have taken any EFL testing/assessment courses or any related in-service training before.

6.2. Methods and procedures of Assessment

This section presents findings gained mainly from the researcher's observations during the two focal participating EFL teachers' classroom instructions (Mesfin's and Yohannes') and the interviews held with them. To some extent, the data collected through questionnaire and from documents are also used in the analysis process. The collected data is presented and discussed in two categories: informal and formal assessments.

6.2.1. Informal Assessments

Informal assessment is a way of collecting information about students' performance in normal classroom conditions. In doing so, teachers use various methods and procedures of assessment during their instruction. To identify such informal assessment practices that are employed in this sample school, the researcher has collected observational data from two focal participating EFL teachers namely Mesfin and Yohannes. The classroom instructions of each of these teachers were observed five times and the assessment events are identified and described as follows.

Mesfin's classroom

Within the five day observation in Mesfin's classroom, the researcher has managed to observe two grammar lessons, two reading lessons and a vocabulary lesson. The two grammar lessons were mainly lecture based and teacher dominated. During these lessons, Mesfin has frequently used display oral questions so as to assess his students informally. One of the observed grammar instructions is transcribed and presented below as an example.

Excerpt 10: Mesfin's Grammar Instruction Extract

No.	Turns	Lesson Extract
1	Mesfin:	...reported speech is reporting what someone has said. ... What is direct speech? And what is indirect speech?
2	S1:	Direct speech is single, umm, one person, indirect speech is many persons.
3	Mesfin:	No! It is not related with number. Any other? Ok, Abel.
7	Mesfin:	... Ok, look at the example from the textbook on page 110. Read the first and second sentence. I don't know. I said I don't know. Which sentence is indirect speech?
8	Ss:	(In chorus), Sentence 2
9	Mesfin:	Very good! Sentence 2 is indirect speech. E.g. He said "I am going to Gondar." Now, tell me the indirect speech of this sentence.
10	S3:	He said he, umm, is going to Gondar.

-
- 11 **Mesfin:** Umm, ok. But there is still something wrong with your sentence. Who can correct it?
- 12 **S4:** He said I am going to Gondar.
- 13 **Mesfin:** No! The first answer was correct but you are asked to correct the tense. Ok, Abel.
- 14 **Abel:** He said he was going to Gondar.
- 15 **Mesfin:** Excellent! ...
-

The above classroom instruction excerpt illustrates that Mesfin has mainly employed oral questioning (Turns 1, 7 and 9) as part of his informal assessment procedure. He has used display oral questions that focus on eliciting evidence of what students know about reported speech. In addition, Mesfin has used rewarding (Turns 9 and 15) and correcting (Turns 3, 11 and 13). As indicated in Appendix 10, in this grammar lesson, Mesfin has also employed such informal assessment actions as examining product, observing process and judging.

During the other observed classroom instructions (i.e. reading and vocabulary instructions), Mesfin has also used oral questioning, rewarding, correcting, observing process, examining product, and judging as his main informal assessment actions. Therefore, it can be stated that in his classroom instruction, Mesfin mainly uses these informal assessment actions.

Yohannes' classroom

In Yohannes' classroom, the researcher managed to observe five lessons: two grammar instructions, a reading instruction, a speaking instruction and a writing instruction. In all these classroom observations, Yohannes has used a lot of display oral questions. Particularly, during the grammar and reading instructions, his lessons were dominated by oral questioning. In his reading instruction, for instance, he first ordered his students to open their textbook. Then after introducing the reading topic, he asked them a lot of oral questions which are related to the reading passage but not directly focused on it. This could help him to activate his students' prior knowledge but it seems that he devoted too much of his class time on it rather than on the main reading topic. After spending about fifteen minutes on such questions, he ordered his students to read the passage and do comprehension questions from the textbook. The following lesson extract shows his observed reading instruction.

Excerpt 11: Yohannes' Reading Instruction Extract

No.	Turns	Lesson Extract
1	Yohannes:	... Ok, the reading passage on page 32. Take out your book on page 32. It says "The Simien Mountains". Now, Who can tell me the names of national parks in Ethiopia?
2	S1:	Bale Mountain
3	Yoahannes:	Very good! Bale Mountain National Park, ok, ahha,
4	S2:	Fasiledes Gondar
5	Yohannes:	Umm, Fasiledes is not a national park. It is a castle. What is a castle?
6	S3:	ቤተ መንግሥት [a king's house]
7	Yohannes:	Yes. It is a king's house. So it is not a park. Can you tell me another national park? Ok, Hana
15	Youhannes:	Yes, it is found in Axum Town in Tigray region.... Ok, do you know any other places for visit?
16	S1:	Harar
17	Yohannes:	Good, the Wall of Harar.... Now, where is Simien Mountains found?
18	S5:	Gondar
19	Yohannes:	Yes, it is found in North Gondar. Ok, read the passage on page 32 and do exercise 4 numbers 1-6.

As the above reading lesson excerpt illustrates, Yohannes has used oral questioning (Turns 1, 5, 7, 15, and 17), rewarding (Turn 3, 7, 15, 17 and 19) and correcting (Turn 5) as his main informal assessment procedures. His questioning and rewarding patterns are also repeated throughout the classroom instruction. Moreover, as indicated in Appendix 10, Yohannes has employed observing process, examining product and judging as his assessment procedure.

During the writing lesson, Yohannes has also used such informal assessment procedures as: rewarding, correcting, observing process, judging and examining product. He first lectured about punctuation marks; and then, he ordered his students to use the correct punctuation marks in the writing task provided in the textbook. While they were doing the writing class work, he was moving round the class and observing the process of their work, marking their work and rewarding them. Yohannes has practiced observing process more in his writing and reading instructions than in his other skills lesson.

Therefore, based on the classroom observation data, Mesfin and Yohannes have mainly used oral questioning, rewarding, correcting, judging, observing process and examining product as their informal assessment methods.

The interview data gathered from Mesfin and Yohannes confirmed that oral questioning, observing process, correcting, judging and examining product are their main informal assessment actions. They described this as follows:

Q: What informal assessment methods do you frequently use in your teaching?

Mesfin: *I frequently use observations; for example, when they are doing their class work, I move round the class and check their work and sign on it. During discussion, I also ask them oral questions and give them corrections.*

Yohannes: *... by asking them questions. I know who is who; who did the homework and who didn't. I also check their work and give marks. In this way, I push them to work harder.*

Similarly, the questionnaire data have also proved that the above informal assessment methods (i.e. oral questioning, correcting, observing process, judging and examining product) were practiced to a greater extent by the sample teachers. All of the fifteen sample teachers who filled the questionnaire indicated that they ask their students display oral questions to a greater extent so as to elicit evidence of what their students know, understand or can do in the lesson. Moreover, more than half of them indicated that they greatly practice examining product of work; asking for clarification; assigning mark, grade or summary judgment on the quality of students' work; and providing corrections. To some extent, majority of the respondents (nine out of fifteen) also replied that they use peer assessments and self assessments. However, metacognitive questioning and asking students referential oral questions were practiced rarely by the sample teachers.

In general, the collected data from this sample school showed that EFL teachers mainly use oral questioning, rewarding, correcting, judging, observing product and observing process in order to assess their students informally. However, they rarely ask their students metacognitive and referential questions.

6.2.2. Formal Assessments

Quizzes, tests and examinations are considered as formal classroom assessments because they usually demand a preplanned testing situation. In the sample school, these assessments are

identified and studied with regard to their formats and the language skills tested in them. Hence, interviews, questionnaires and sample test papers are used so as to find out what language skills are frequently tested and what formats are mainly used to assess such skills.

According to the interview data, Mesfin has used only mid-semester and semester final exams throughout the semester. In these two formal assessments, he mainly tested his students' reading comprehension, vocabulary and grammar skills. Mesfin stated that:

...I administer two kinds of tests with in a semester. After teaching them [students] for about two months, I give them mid-semester exam and at the end of the semester I provide them final exam. All skills are included in the tests except listening and speaking. You know these skills are difficult to be tested in such exams.

As Mesfin's response, the language skills tested in the two exams are reading, vocabulary, grammar and writing. Likewise, Yohannes has also replied that he has assessed his students' reading, vocabulary, grammar and writing skills through mid-semester and semester final examinations. In addition, he stated that he has employed four additional quizzes within a semester.

However, it was confirmed in the sample test papers that writing was tested only to some extent. The students' focus group discussion has also proved that teachers employed only two examinations (i.e. mid-semester and semester final exams) which focus on assessing mainly three language skills: reading, vocabulary and grammar.

The formats of the two formal testes (i.e. mid-semester and semester final exams) are mainly multiple questions. To some extent, there are also matching items. Among the thirty items in the mid-semester exam paper, only four were matching and the rest twenty-six were multiple choice items. Correspondingly, the final exam paper included forty items, of which, six were matching and thirty-four were multiple choice. None of the items were designed to assess students' productive skills (writing or speaking).

6.2.3. EFL Teachers' assessment feedback

During the teaching-learning process, teachers provide three kinds of feedbacks: verbal, non-verbal and written feedbacks. Knowingly or unknowingly, they do this after gathering information about their students' activities.

In the sample school, various verbal feedback strategies were identified from the classroom observation data. For instance, Mesfin was frequently observed using explicit oral feedback strategy. The following lesson extract, which was also presented previously in Section 6.2.1 of this thesis, shows some of the feedback strategies that he used during his instruction.

- e.g. Mesfin:** ... Which sentence is indirect speech?
Ss: (In chorus), sentence 2.
Mesfin: Very nice! Sentence 2 is indirect speech. E.g. He said "I am going to Gondar." Now, tell me the indirect speech of this sentence.
S3: He said he, umm, is going to Gondar.
Mesfin: Umm, ok. But there is still something wrong with your sentence. Who can correct it?
S4: He said I am going to Gondar.
Mesfin: No! The first answer was correct but you are asked to correct the tense. Ok, Abel.
Abel: He said he was going to Gondar.
Mesfin: Excellent! ...

In this extract, Mesfin has used rewards like "very nice!" together with elaborations and explicit answers. This type of feedback can be referred as explicit oral feedback. Around the last three turns of the above extract, Mesfin has clearly provided comments or information about why S4's answer was incorrect but he did not provide him the correct answer explicitly. This kind of feedback is identified as metalinguistic feedback. He has also used elicitation and repetition of error during his other observed classroom instructions. Hence, his feedback strategies included explicit oral feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error (see appendix 10).

Likewise, Yohannes has mainly employed explicit oral feedback and metalinguistic feedback during his classroom instructions. To some extent, he has also used elicitation and repetition of

error feedback strategies. The lesson excerpts presented in Appendix 10 indicate how Yohannes has used such feedback strategies in his reading and writing instructions.

Therefore, four oral feedback strategies (explicit oral feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic and repetition of error) were identified from the observations made in Mesfin's and Yohannes' classrooms. However, in both teachers' classroom instructions, recasts and clarification requests were not evident.

On the other hand, both Mesfin and Yohannes provide their students written feedbacks. The collected data from students' exercise books and interviews indicated that both teachers put their compliments (like 'good', 'very good' and 'excellent') and their signatures on students' written works. The most repeatedly indicated written feedbacks on students' exercise books are big '√' and 'x' marks (indicating students' works as right or wrong respectively) and teachers' signatures.

Both teachers also proved this during the interviews. Mesfin has stated this as:

When a student scores high, I write excellent on the paper and I also appreciate him verbally by saying 'keep it up', 'well do' and the like. I also put my signature on their home works and class works so as to keep them working.

In this regard, students also described the same thing during the focus group discussion. However, what Yohannes' students described seems a little different. They stated that apart from the above feedback strategies, their teacher also provided them some kind of written feedback with symbols. They said he writes one star, two stars and three stars on exam papers. Yet, when the researcher asked them the meaning of such stars, they were unable to describe it.

The non-verbal feedbacks that both teachers have provided during the classroom instructions were very limited. As repeatedly indicated in the field note, both Mesfin and Yohannes were mainly using head-shaking (nodding) as a sign of agreement to students' responses. In addition, Yohannes was observed using special hand movements to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to warn students who have attempted to disturb the class.

6.3. Contents of Assessment

6.3.1. Assessment of Learning in the Non-cognitive Domain

Teachers assess various non-cognitive student behaviors during their classroom instruction. This kind of assessment in turn contributes to the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process. In order to identify what the sample EFL teachers actually assess about their students, data were collected through interview and teachers' questionnaire.

The interview data showed that sample teachers mainly assessed their students' motivation for learning and their behavior problems. Mesfin, for instance, stated that:

... I assess many things. For example, who is active participant in the class, who do class works and home works regularly, who is disciplined and who is naughty, and the like.

Yohannes has also mentioned the same thing about his assessment of learning in the non-cognitive domain. Both teachers also mentioned that they tried to know some personal details about their students (such as students' names and family backgrounds). However, they did not mention about assessing students' learning styles, learning strategies, learning needs and their beliefs in learning English.

Similarly, the data collected through questionnaire shows that sample teachers mainly assess three non-cognitive student behaviors. The data is presented in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1: Yekatit 23 Secondary School EFL Teachers' Assessment Practices of the Non-cognitive Factors

Items	A	B	C	D	E
I look for students' personal details (e.g. their names, schools last attended, and their family background)	-	2	3	6	4
I assess their personal beliefs (e.g. their beliefs about learning English)	3	8	2	1	1
I check their emotional and psychological characteristics	2	3	7	2	1
I check their self esteem	7	2	4	1	1
I evaluate their motivation for learning (e.g. their participation in class)	-	1	4	3	7
I check their learning needs and interests	1	3	8	2	1
I assess their learning style preferences	2	9	2	1	1
I assess their learning strategies (e.g. whether they take risks, focus on meaning/form, or self-correct)	1	8	3	2	1
I assess their learning problems	1	1	1	7	5

I look for their out-of-school activities	1	9	3	1	1
I evaluate their social behaviors during <i>task-related interactions</i> (e.g. their dominance, reticence, cooperativeness, disruptiveness and friendliness)	1	3	8	1	2
I check their social behaviors during <i>non-task-related interactions</i> (e.g. their dominance, reticence, cooperativeness, disruptiveness and friendliness)	2	8	2	3	-

Note: N = 15; A = not at all; B = small extent; C = some extent; D = great extent E = very great extent

The data in the above table indicate that majority of the sample teachers (more than half of them) greatly assess their students' personal details, motivation for learning and learning problems. They inquire about their students' names, the schools they last attended, their family backgrounds and their participation during class activities. To some extent, they also assess their students' learning needs and interests; their psychological and emotional characteristics and their social behaviors during task-related interactions.

However, majority of the respondents (more than six out of nine) indicated that they rarely assess their students' personal beliefs; their self esteem; their out-of-school activities; their learning style preferences, their learning strategies and their social behaviors during non-task-related interactions.

Therefore, the above three non-cognitive domain of learning (i.e. motivation for learning, personal details and learning problems) were the contents that the sample EFL teachers mainly assess during their informal assessments. On the other hand, students' self esteem, learning styles, learning strategies, personal beliefs and social behaviors during non-task-related interactions were the contents that they rarely assess.

6.3.2. Assessment of Learning in the Cognitive Domain

Through formal and informal classroom assessments, EFL teachers assess various student cognitive abilities. To identify the cognitive abilities that they mainly assess during classroom instructions, both Mesfin's and Yohannes' classrooms were observed. In addition, to find out the cognitive processes that the sample teachers assess through formal assessments, the mid-semester and semester final examinations have been used as sources of data. Hence, using Bloom's Revised Taxonomy of cognitive knowledge, first, the observation data obtained from the two teachers' classrooms are discussed; then, exams are analyzed in the same way.

Mesfin's classroom

As previously described in Section 6.2.1 of this thesis, Mesfin has frequently used oral questioning during each of his observed classroom instructions. His oral questions focus on assessing students' remembering, understanding and applying abilities (See Appendix 10).

E.g. Turn

Lesson Extract

- 1 ...reported speech is reporting what someone has said. ... What is direct speech? And what is indirect speech?
- 7 ... Ok, look at the example from the textbook on page 110. Read the first and second sentence. I don't know. I said I don't know. Which sentence is indirect speech?
- 9 Very good! Sentence 2 is indirect speech. E.g. He said "I am going to Gondar." Now, tell me the indirect speech of this sentence.

(For more of this, look at Excerpt 10 in Section 6.2.1 or Appendix 10)

In this grammar lesson extract, first, Mesfin asked his students to define the term 'direct speech'. When he was doing this, he was assessing his students' recalling (remembering) ability. In Turn 7, he asked his students to choose the indirect speech from two alternative sentences. Hence, he was also assessing their recognizing (remembering) ability. In Turn 9, Mesfin's question demand students to apply the grammar rules which are necessary in changing direct speech into indirect speech. Therefore, remembering and applying were the two main cognitive abilities assessed here.

In his reading instruction, Mesfin employed various oral questions which mainly focus on assessing students' understanding ability. The following reading lesson extract illustrates this.

E.g. Turn

Lesson Extract

- 1 ... Which three places does Liben describe?
- 5 ... How does he know about these places?
- 7 ... Ok, what is the answer for question number 3? What is Aret's friend's main interest?
- 11 ...What is Gondar noted for? ...
- 13 ...What do travel writers describe as "the eighth wonder of the world"?
- 15 ... Why can Aret not visit the Debre Damo monastery?

In Turn 1 of the above reading lesson extract, Mesfin's question targets in assessing students' recognizing ability where students just remember what they have read and list the places. On the other hand, the rest of his questions (in Turns 5, 7, 11, 13, and 15) demand students to interpret, infer and explain based on the reading passage. However, learners were not required to search meanings beyond the content they were reading. Thus, all of these questions assess students' understanding ability.

In addition, during the other three observed lessons, the target of Mesfin's informal assessment was mainly on students' remembering and understanding abilities. To some extent, he has also employed questions which demand students' applying ability. Therefore, the observation data in Mesfin's classroom indicated that his assessment practice focuses on these three lower level cognitive processes.

Yohannes' Classroom

All of the five observed lessons in Yohannes' classroom include informal assessments which focus on assessing students' remembering and understanding abilities. The reading lesson described earlier in Section 6.2.1 was one of the five observed instructions that Yohannes has employed to assess his students' remembering and understanding abilities. He employed a lot of oral questions as a pre-reading task. Some of these questions are presented in the following extract.

E.g. Turns

Lesson Extract

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| 1 | ... Now, Who can tell me the names of national parks in Ethiopia? |
| 5 | Umm, Fasiledes is not a national park. It is a castle. What is a castle? |
| 7 | Yes. It is a king's house. So it is not a park. Can you tell me another national park? Ok, Hana |
| 15 | Yes, it is found in Axum Town in Tigray region.... Ok, do you know any other places for visit? |
| 17 | Good, the Wall of Harar.... Now, where is Simien Mountains found? |
| 19 | Yes, it is found in North Gondar. Ok, read the passage on page 32 and do exercise 4 numbers 1-6. |

Yohannes has used the above oral questions as a pre-reading activity. Although the topic of the reading passage was "The Simien Mountains", his questions were not directly linked to the passage. All of them aim at assessing students' prior knowledge or their remembering ability

about some related facts. Moreover, the questions discussed after Turn 19 were six comprehension questions which are found in the textbook. All these questions demand students' understanding ability of the reading passage. Thus, in this reading lesson, Yohannes' informal assessment has aimed at assessing his students' remembering and understanding ability.

In his writing lesson, Yohannes has also assessed his students' ability in implementing appropriate punctuation marks in a piece of writing. Hence, his assessments targeted mainly on assessing students' applying ability (See Appendix 10). In the other observed lessons (in speaking and grammar lessons), Yohannes has also employed informal assessments to evaluate three student cognitive processes (i.e. remembering, understanding and applying). However, he was not observed assessing his students' higher order cognitive skills such as analyzing, evaluating and creating in any of the five observed lessons.

Therefore, using informal classroom assessments, both Mesfin and Yohannes have mainly assessed the above three lower order cognitive abilities.

During formal classroom assessments, teachers also intend to measure their students' cognitive abilities. In this sample school, only two types of formal assessments were provided to students within a semester. Hence, in order to identify the cognitive abilities which were assessed in these formal assessments, the mid-semester and the semester final examination items are analyzed as follows.

The mid-semester English Examination

The mid-semester exam includes twenty-six multiple-choice and four matching items. All the items are codified and analyzed using Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. In order to show how the items were codified and analyzed, some items of the exam are presented below as an example.

2. ***Affected*** (para.2).

A. negative influenced B. defect C. defiled D. effect

The correct choice is Choice A. In this item, students are required to choose the appropriate meaning of the word 'affected' from the four alternatives. This also requires students to figure out the meaning of the term from the context. Thus, the item is codified as 'Understanding'.

17. *She phoned me while I _____ a book*

A. was reading B. am reading C. were reading D. read

The correct choice is Choice A. Since this item demands students' ability in recognizing the correct verb form from a multiple choice question, it is codified as 'remembering'.

Using this coding strategy, all the thirty items in the mid-semester exam are codified, summarized and presented in the following table.

Table 6.2: The Cognitive Abilities Assessed in Yekatit 23 Secondary School Mid-semester English Examination

No.	Cognitive abilities	Number of items (N)	Percentage
1	Remembering Ability	21	70%
2	Understanding Ability	9	30%
3	Applying Ability	-	0%
4	Analyzing Ability	-	0%
5	Evaluating Ability	-	0%
6	Creating Ability	-	0%

Note: N = 30 items

As it is illustrated in Table 6.2, majority of the items in the mid-semester exam (70% of them) are intended to measure students' remembering ability. On the other hand, 30% of the items require students' understanding ability. However, the rest of the cognitive abilities (i.e. applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating) were not the focus of the exam.

Similarly, the semester final exam also indicates the same result. The exam includes thirty-four multiple choice and six matching items (with a total of forty close-ended items). The cognitive processes assessed in these items were all in the lower order of the cognitive taxonomy. The following table presents these cognitive abilities that are assessed in the examination.

Table 6.3: The Cognitive Abilities Assessed in Yekatit 23 Secondary School Semester Final English Examination

No.	Cognitive abilities	Number of items (N)	Percentage
1	Remembering Ability	26	65%
2	Understanding Ability	14	35%
3	Applying Ability	-	0%
4	Analyzing Ability	-	0%
5	Evaluating Ability	-	0%
6	Creating Ability	-	0%

Note: N = 40 items

As Table 6.3 illustrates, the first semester final exam was designed only to assess students' remembering and understanding abilities. More than half the items (65 % of them) demand students' remembering ability and 35% of the items are designed to assess students' understanding ability. However, the exam does not require students to think critically.

In addition to the above results obtained from classroom observations and tests, the questionnaire data collected from fifteen sample EFL teachers also shows that two lower cognitive processes are the main focus of teachers' classroom assessments. Table 6.4 below presents this data.

Table 6.4: Yekatit 23 Secondary School EFL Teachers' Assessment Practices of the Cognitive Factors

No.	Cognitive abilities	not at all	small extent	some extent	great extent	very great extent
1	Remembering Ability	-	1	1	3	10
2	Understanding Ability	-	1	1	5	8
3	Applying Ability	2	3	7	2	1
4	Analyzing Ability	2	4	7	1	1
5	Evaluating Ability	3	8	2	2	-
6	Creating Ability	3	7	1	2	1

Note: N = 15 respondents

The data in the above table illustrates that more than half of the respondents greatly assess their students' remembering and understanding ability. The same number of respondents also replied that, to some extent, they assess their students' applying and analyzing abilities. However, the data collected from classroom observations and tests indicated that sample teachers rarely intend

to assess their students' applying and analyzing abilities. Moreover, majority of the respondents (more than seven of them) in the table also confirmed that sample teachers rarely assess their students' evaluating and creating abilities.

Thus, during informal assessments, sample teachers assess three student cognitive skills (i.e. remembering, understanding and applying) and during formal assessments they only assess their students' remembering and understanding abilities. However, both formal and informal assessments in the sample classrooms do not demand students to use their higher order levels of thinking including analyzing, evaluating and creating.

6.4. Purposes of Assessment

Teachers employ classroom assessments for various purposes. In this study, these purposes are identified and discussed in two sections. The first section discusses the purposes of informal assessments and the second part deals with purposes of formal assessments practiced in the sample school.

6.4.1. Purposes of Informal Assessments

Sample teachers in the school indicated that they use informal assessments for four main purposes. Both Mesfin and Yohannes stated that they mainly practice informal assessments so as to monitor their students' progress in learning; to motivate them to learn; to manage their behavior and to provide feedback to them. Their response to the interview question was:

Q: What are your primary reasons in applying informal assessments?

Mesfin: *...to know my students. As you know, informal assessment is one of the methods that we use to assess our students' ability. Therefore, through observation or asking questions I check many things; their ability, their interest or motivation, and the like....*

Yohannes: *... when I give them class work, I move round the class to check who is working or who is not; who is disturbing the class; who is chatting in Amharic and many things. Unless I do this, they will go crazy and disturb the class. You know, they need follow up and support; they need comments and encouragement.... In doing all of this, I need to observe them carefully.*

In addition to the interview data, the observation data collected from Mesfin's and Yohannes' classrooms show that both teachers used informal observations and oral questioning to stress the

main concepts of the lesson, to motivate their students to learn, to provide feedback and to manage their students' classroom behaviors. Mesfin's grammar lesson excerpt, which was presented previously in Section 6.2.1, could be taken here as an example.

E.g. Turns

Lesson Extract

- 1** ...reported speech is reporting what someone has said. ... What is direct speech? And what is indirect speech?
- 7** ... Ok, look at the example from the textbook on page 110. Read the first and second sentence. I don't know. I said I don't know. Which sentence is indirect speech?
- 9** Very good! Sentence 2 is indirect speech. E.g. He said "I am going to Gondar." Now, tell me the indirect speech of this sentence.
- 11** Umm, ok. But there is still something wrong with your sentence. Who can correct it?
- 13** No! The first answer was correct but you are asked to correct the tense. Ok, Abel.
- 15** Excellent! ...

In this lesson extract, Mesfin has employed oral questioning so as to stress the main concepts of the lesson (Turn 1). At first, he defined what a reported speech is; then, he asked his students to define direct and indirect speeches. In doing so, students relate the teachers' definition about reported speech with what they were asked to define. Thus, it can be stated that he was trying to stress the concept 'indirect speech' or 'reported speech' by asking them to rehearse the definition. Moreover, his other questions focus on assessing his students' progress (Turn, 9) and providing feedback to them (Turns 11 and 13). In Turn 9, he gave them a sentence in the direct speech form and asked them to change it into reported speech. This could help him to check his students' level of understanding about the lesson and to manage the lesson based on their progress. Therefore, according to this lesson extract, he was using oral questioning mainly to emphasize the central point of the lesson through questioning and feedback and to monitor his students' progress in learning.

Moreover, the data collected through the observation schedule also shows that, during his lecture about reported speech, Mesfin has moved towards students who were whispering and warned them to keep quiet. He was also steering at reticent students while he was asking whole class questions. Such informal observations could help him to manage his students' classroom

behaviors and could motivate students to participate in the discussion. Likewise, Yohannes' classroom instruction also reflects this same result (See Appendix 10).

Therefore, both the interview and the classroom observation data indicated that sample teachers use informal classroom assessments mainly for five reasons (i.e. to stress the main concepts of the lesson, monitor their students' progress in learning, motivate students to learn, provide feedback and manage student behavior).

In addition to this result, the questionnaire data has also showed that teachers mainly assess their students for the above similar reasons. The data is presented in the following table.

Table 6.5: Yekatit 23 Secondary School EFL Teachers' Reasons for Assessing Students Informally

No.	Reasons for informal assessments:	Number of respondents			
		Not at all	Small extent	Some extent	Great extent
A.	To monitor students' progress in learning	-	2	4	9
B.	To manage student behavior	-	2	3	10
C.	To provide feedback to students	1	1	5	8
D.	To motivate students to learn	-	1	4	11
E.	To diagnose student difficulties and take appropriate majors	1	2	9	3
F.	To stress the main concepts of the lesson	1	1	5	8
G.	To plan instruction/ what to do next	2	-	10	3
H.	To determine the amount of time spend on a lesson	2	3	8	3
I.	To evaluate the effectiveness of instructional activities	3	9	2	1
J.	To evaluate the effectiveness of the teaching methodology	2	8	3	2
K.	To set targets or achievement goals	3	9	2	1
L.	To determine the final grades for students	1	2	2	10

Note: N = 15 Respondents

As it is illustrated in Table 6.5, more than half of the respondents identified six major reasons as to why they mainly assess their students informally. Their main reasons were to motivate students to learn; manage student behavior; stress the main concepts of the lesson; provide feedback to students; monitor students' progress in learning and determine the final grades for students. Moreover, more than half of the respondents have also indicated that, to some extent,

they also practice informal classroom assessments in order to: diagnose student difficulties and take appropriate majors; plan instruction (what to do next); and determine the amount of time spend on a lesson. However, they replied that they rarely practice informal assessments for the sake of evaluating their own teaching methodology; evaluating the effectiveness of instructional activities and setting targets or achievement goals.

In the focus group discussion held with students, it is also mentioned that teachers take account of what they have assessed during classroom instructions (particularly individual class works). Hence, it is possible to say that teachers use informal assessments so as to determine students' final grades.

In general, all the data described above indicated that sample teachers use informal classroom assessments for six main reasons: (i) to motivate their students to learn; (ii) to manage student behavior; (iii) to monitor students' progress in learning; (iv) to provide feedback to students; (v) stress the main concepts of the lesson; and (vi) to determine the final grades for students.

6.4.2. Purposes of Formal Assessments

As it is described in various literatures (See Section 2.3.2 of this thesis), the purpose of formal classroom assessments is mostly summative. Teachers employ such assessments in order to get summary information about their students' achievement. However, this is not the only purpose that these assessments serve for. The data collected from this sample school proves this fact.

During interviews, both Mesfin and Yohannes confirmed that they use formal assessments for three main reasons. They replied to the interview questions as follows:

Q: What are your primary reasons in practicing formal assessments/tests?

Mesfine: *My reasons are, first, to know about their success and to give scores for them and to decide who is going to be promoted to Grade 10.... Second, I use these tests and exams to motivate my students to study harder.... This also helps them to pass the national exam.*

Yohannes: *.... The examinations that are given to students have various purposes. As I told you, the school prepares exam programs and we test our students. Therefore, the school also*

needs students' scores to promote them to the next grade level. The other is, umm, when we test them, students study hard. This is also another advantage. Moreover, through such exams, students prepare themselves for the national exam....

In the above interview, both Mesfin and Yohannes explained that they employ formal assessments in order to know their students' achievement and determine their final grades, encourage them to study harder and prepare them for the national exam.

Similarly, the questionnaire data has also indicated the same result about the purposes of formal assessments in the sample school. The data is presented in the following table.

Table 6.6: Yekatit 23 Secondary School EFL Teachers' Reasons for Assessing Students Formally

No.	Reasons for formal assessments:	Number of respondents			
		Not at all	Small extent	Some extent	Great extent
A.	To diagnose student difficulties	2	11	1	1
B.	To stress the main concepts of the lesson	3	9	1	2
C.	To encourage students to work harder	1	1	4	9
D.	To set targets or achievement goals	3	8	3	1
E.	To provide feedback to students	1	4	7	3
F.	To determine the final grades for students	-	-	3	12
G.	To evaluate whether teaching activities achieve their objectives	2	8	4	1
H.	To prepare students for high stakes tests they will need to take in the future	1	1	4	9

Note: N = 15 Respondents

As the data in Table 6.6 illustrates, more than half of the respondents replied that they mainly practice formal assessments to attain three main purposes. These are: to determine the final grades for their students; to encourage students to work harder; and to prepare their students for high stakes tests they will need to take in the future. Moreover, high number of respondents (seven out of fifteen) replied that, to some extent, they also use formal assessments in order to provide feedbacks to their students. However, more than half of the respondents agreed that they rarely use formal assessments to diagnose student difficulties, to evaluate whether teaching activities achieve their objectives, to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to set targets or achievement goals.

To sum up, all the data discussed above indicate that sample teachers mainly use formal assessments to determine students' final grades, encourage students to work harder and prepare their students for national exams.

6.5. Overview

This overview is presented in three sections. In the first section of the overview, an outline of the findings in this case study is given in response to the research questions on methods of classroom assessment. In the second section, a summary of the findings which are related to the contents of assessment is described. The last section of the overview deals with the findings related to the purposes of EFL classroom assessment in the sample school.

6.5.1. Methods and Procedures of EFL Assessment

(A) Informal Assessments

The collected data from this sample school indicated that EFL teachers mainly use oral questioning, observing process, rewarding, correcting, observing product and judging while they are assessing their students informally. The questions they raised during classroom instructions were usually display oral questions. However, they rarely ask their students metacognitive and referential questions.

(B) Formal Assessments

In this sample school, EFL teachers employ only mid-semester and semester final examinations to assess their students formally. The formats of these exams are mainly multiple-choice. To some extent, there are also matching items. Among the thirty items in the mid-semester exam paper, only four were matching items and the rest twenty-six were multiple choice. Similarly, the final exam paper included forty items, of which, six were matching and thirty-four were multiple choice. Moreover, these exams focus mainly on assessing three language skills: reading, vocabulary and grammar. Only three items in the exams were designed to assess students' writing skills and they were all controlled writing tasks. No item was designed to assess students' speaking and listening skills.

(C) EFL Teachers' Assessment Feedback

The finding of this case study indicated that EFL teachers mainly employed four oral feedback strategies (i.e. explicit oral feedback, elicitation, repetition of error and metalinguistic feedback). However, recasts and clarification requests were not evident in the sample teachers' classroom instructions.

Regarding written feedback, the collected data from students' exercise books and interviews show that both focal participating teachers put big '√' and 'x' marks on students' works as a right or wrong sign respectively. This is followed by compliments (like 'good', 'very good' and 'excellent') and teachers' signatures. Apart from this, in Yohannes' classroom, students mentioned that their teacher writes symbols like one star, two stars and three stars on exam papers. But when the researcher asked them the meaning of such stars, they were unable to describe it.

Lastly, the non-verbal feedbacks that both teachers have provided during the classroom instructions were very limited. As repeatedly indicated in the field notes, both focal participating teachers were mainly using head-shaking (nodding) as a sign of agreement to students' responses. In addition, Yohannes was observed using special hand movements to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to warn students who have attempted to disturb the class.

6.5.2. Contents of EFL Assessment

(A) Assessment of Learning in the Non-cognitive Domain

The findings of this case study demonstrated that, during informal assessments, EFL teachers mainly assess three learning factors which are in the non-cognitive domain. They assess their students' motivation for learning, their personal details and their learning problems.

On the other hand, students' self esteem, learning styles, learning strategies, personal beliefs and social behaviors during non-task-related interactions were the contents that they rarely assess.

(B) Assessment of Learning in the Cognitive Domain

According to the findings of this case study, during informal assessments, sample teachers mainly assess three student cognitive skills (i.e. remembering, understanding and applying) and

during formal assessments they only assess their students' remembering and understanding abilities. However, both their formal and informal assessments do not require students to use their higher order levels of thinking including analyzing, evaluating and creating.

6.5.3. Purposes of Assessment

(A) Purposes of Informal Assessments

The data collected from this sample school indicated that EFL teachers use informal classroom assessments for six main reasons: (i) to motivate their students to learn; (ii) to manage student behavior; (iii) to monitor students' progress in learning; (iv) to provide feedback to students; (v) stress the main concepts of the lesson; and (vi) to determine the final grades for students.

To some extent, they also practice informal classroom assessments in order to: diagnose student difficulties and take appropriate majors; plan instruction (what to do next); and determine the amount of time spend on a lesson.

However, they rarely practice informal assessments for the sake of evaluating their own teaching methodology; evaluating the effectiveness of instructional activities and setting targets or achievement goals.

(B) Purposes of Formal Assessments

In this case study, it is found that sample teachers mainly use formal assessments to determine students' final grades, encourage students to work harder and prepare their students for national exams.

Moreover, to some extent, they also use formal assessments in order to provide feedbacks to their students. However, they rarely use formal assessments for such purposes as: diagnosing student difficulties, evaluating whether teaching activities achieve their objectives, stressing the main concepts of the lesson and setting targets or achievement goals.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Cross-Case Analysis

7.1. Introduction

As described earlier, the three schools selected as cases for this study were Bole Community School, Dil Ber Secondary School and Yekatit 23 Secondary School. Among these three schools, Yekatit 23 Secondary School is relatively the oldest school with the largest enrolment capacity and Dil Ber Secondary School is the youngest school with medium enrolment capacity. Regarding focal participating teachers, Yekatit 23 Secondary School has more experienced teachers than the other two schools. However, in all the three schools, sample EFL teachers have never taken any EFL testing or assessment courses or in-service trainings before. The class size in all the three schools could be described as large class size. But if we compare the three schools alone, Bole Community School has the largest class size with 70 students per class and Yekatit 23 Secondary School has the smallest class size with 45 students per class. Moreover, Dil Ber Secondary School has medium class size with 50 students per class.

On the basis of the above school profile, this chapter gives an overall picture of the findings of this study by bringing together the major findings from each individual school. It provides a cross-case analysis of the three individual cases of Bole Community School, Dil Ber Secondary School and Yekatit 23 Secondary School. The key themes that emerge from the analyses of the three cases are compared, synthesized and discussed. This comparative analysis focuses on identifying the methods and procedures of classroom assessments (Section 7.2), the contents of classroom assessments (Section 7.3) and the purposes of classroom assessments (Section 7.4) that exist within each particular case and across the three cases.

7.2. Methods and Procedures of Assessment

7.2.1. Informal Assessments

Similar informal assessment methods were practiced in the three sample schools. Comparison of EFL teachers' practices across the three cases revealed that the three teacher groups shared six main informal assessment methods. These were: oral questioning (eliciting), rewarding, correcting, judging, examining product and observing process. These assessments are arranged from high frequent to low frequent actions. The first three assessment actions (questioning, rewarding and correcting) were consistently and dominantly used in every classroom instruction by all sample EFL teachers and the other three actions (judging, examining product and observing process) were less frequent. The extent to which teachers use judging, examining product and observing process vary based on the skills they teach. For instance, Solomon has used judging and observing process more frequently in his vocabulary and reading lessons than in any of his observed instructions. Likewise, in his writing lesson, Tewodros has used observing process more frequently than in any of his observed lessons. Yohannes has also used observing process and examining product more frequently in his writing class. However, during observing process, sample teachers have focused more on monitoring student behavior and checking their students' engagement on the task rather than focusing on what they are really doing.

Regarding oral questioning, which is identified in this study as the most dominant informal assessment action, sample EFL teachers in all the three schools were similar in that they frequently used display oral questions rather than thoughtful, open-ended referential questions. They did not ask more open questions of their pupils, genuinely seeking to elicit new information. They rather ask for 'right answers'. Moreover, they rarely ask for clarifications about what an individual student has said nor did they encourage students to ask questions of each other. Thus, the questions did not facilitate extended conversations or discussion between the teachers and their students' and among students' themselves.

The display oral questions were not employed similarly by the three teacher groups. There were some questioning strategy variations among them. Teachers at Bole Community School (particularly Daniel) were observed using comprehension checks where they interrupt their explanation by leaving their sentences incomplete and eliciting evidence of what their students

know. Similarly, in Dil Ber Secondary school, Solomon has used this strategy. On the other hand, in Yekatit 23 Secondary School, Yohannes has frequently used complete display oral questions as a strategy to elicit evidence from his students. Yet, there was no evidence to attribute this difference to the difference in the school contexts. Instead, it could be related to the difference in the teachers' own experiences and personal behaviors.

On the other hand, the collected data from all the three schools indicated that sample EFL teachers rarely employed metacognitive questioning; critiquing; setting quality criteria; setting task criteria; influencing attribute and planning next time lesson.

Moreover, the collected data indicated that EFL teachers at Bole Community School and Dil Ber Secondary School rarely employed peer-assessments and self-assessments in their classrooms. However, sample teachers at Yekatit 23 Secondary School described that they employed peer-assessments and self-assessments to some extent. Even though they stated this, their students explained otherwise. Therefore, it can be stated that such assessments were absent in all the sample school classrooms.

The other similarity in all the three teacher groups is that their informal assessment actions were not systematic and planned. Students were assessed based on rough impressions. Teachers did not precisely define the abilities to be assessed. Yet, Harris and McCann (1994) suggest that unplanned and unsystematic informal assessment cannot be effective. Hence, according to them, daily observation which is not systematic will result in a pile of useless information.

7.2.2. Formal Assessments

Similar findings were revealed in the three cases regarding EFL teachers' formal assessment practices. EFL teachers in the three sample schools have commonly employed only two types of formal assessments: mid-semester and semester final examinations. The exams in all the schools have contained mainly close-ended items.

In Bole Community School, the exams were dominated by multiple-choice items. All of the twenty items of the mid-semester exam and most of the items in the semester final exam (thirty out of forty items) were multiple choice items. The remaining ten items of the semester final exam include fill-in and short answer types. Similarly, the formats of the two tests administered in Dil Ber Secondary School were mainly multiple choice and matching items. To some extent,

the tests included fill-in the blanks. The same is true for Yekatit 23 Secondary School. The mid-semester and semester final English exams in this school were dominated by multiple-choice items. To some extent, there were matching items. Among the thirty items in the mid-semester exam paper, only four were matching items and the rest twenty-six were multiple choice. Similarly, the final exam paper included forty items, of which, six were matching and thirty-four were multiple choice. Therefore, in the three cases, the tests included only close-ended items which were dominated by multiple-choice format.

The other similarity among the three school formal assessments was the skills assessed in their tests. EFL teachers in all the sample schools have mainly focused on assessing three language skills in their formal assessments (i.e. grammar, reading and vocabulary). In two of the schools (Dil Ber and Yekatit 23 secondary schools), students' writing skills were tested to some extent through controlled writing tasks which were part of the final exams. However, in Bole Community School, students' writing skills were not tested at all. This could be due to the relatively large class size in the school. As stated previously in the case description sections of chapters four, five and six, Bole Community School had the largest class size of all the three schools. This could have impacted the teachers to remove writing skills test items from their mid-semester and semester final examinations since such items demand more time in marking than close-ended items. On the other hand, sample EFL teachers in all the three school were similar in that they never formally assessed their students' speaking and listening skills. Thus, although they are supposed to teach all language skills in the classrooms, they prioritize only three language skills in their formal assessments.

7.2.3. EFL Teachers' Assessment Feedback

The comparative analysis of the three teacher groups' assessment practices did not show significant differences in terms of assessment feedback. Sample EFL teachers in all the three schools were observed using four main oral feedback strategies. These were: explicit oral feedback, elicitation of completion, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error. Among these, explicit oral feedback and elicitation of completion were the most frequent feedback strategies observed in all sample teachers' classrooms. These two commonly used feedback strategies are types of direct and indirect feedbacks. Explicit oral feedback is a type of direct feedback where teachers provide feedbacks to students to help them correct their errors by

providing the correct linguistic form (Ferris, 2006); whereas, elicitation of completion is an indirect feedback strategy where teachers provide only indications which in some way make students aware that an error exists but they do not provide the students with the correction (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

The EFL teachers in the three sample schools were also similar in that they rarely employed two oral feedback strategies: recast (reformulation of a student's utterance minus the error) and clarification request.

In addition, the three teacher groups have used nearly the same written feedback strategies. The sample teachers in the three schools commonly provide their students three kinds of written feedbacks. These were: (i) big '√' and 'X' marks indicating students' works as right or wrong respectively; (ii) compliments like 'good', 'very good' and 'excellent'; and (iii) teacher's signatures to show that their homework or class work is checked.

Moreover, in Dil Ber and Yekatit 23 secondary schools, additional written feedback strategies were observed in students' exercise books. Sample EFL teachers in these two schools have somewhat used written corrective feedbacks and symbols. There was some evidence that EFL teachers in Dil Ber Secondary School (particularly Solomon) have used written corrective feedbacks on students' written works. For instance, Solomon has written correct utterances on top of problematic words or phrases and added punctuation marks in sentences. Hence, his written feedbacks had the nature of editing or proofreading. On the other hand, during focus group discussions, Yohannes' students described that their teacher sometimes put symbols (like one star, two stars and three stars) on their exercise books and test papers. However, discussants were unaware of what exactly those symbols stand for.

Regarding non-verbal feedbacks, mixed findings were revealed in the three cases. The only visible non-verbal feedback which was commonly employed by all sample EFL teachers was head-shaking (nodding). Other than this feedback, the other non-verbal feedbacks identified in this study were teacher specific. For instance, in Bole Community School, Daniel was frequently observed staring at students who seemed non-attentive to his lessons. On the other hand, Solomon (from Dil Ber Secondary School) was frequently observed staring at students who seemed clever and attentive. Tilahun was also often leaning forward to students when they

respond to his questions. Moreover, Tewodros was repeatedly observed staring at and moving towards students who were whispering and doing non-academic matters. In Yekatit 23 Secondary School, Yohannes was observed using special hand movements to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to warn students who have attempted to disturb the class. Therefore, the comparative analysis of these findings could not yield any specific and commonly used non-verbal feedback strategy.

7.3. Contents of Assessment

7.3.1. Assessment of Learning in the Non-cognitive Domain

The comparative analysis of the data obtained from the three schools revealed that sample EFL teachers have employed informal assessments to assess two main non-cognitive factors. They commonly assess students' motivation for learning and their personal details. However, the data also indicated that teachers were not always aware of what student personal characteristics they were assessing and how they were assessing it. In addition to these two non-cognitive contents, in Yekatit 23 Secondary School, sample teachers mentioned that they mainly assess their students' learning problems. Yet, in the other two schools, sample teachers described that they assess their students' learning problems only to some extent. This difference could be attributed to the relatively high experience of teachers and small class size in Yekatit 23 Secondary School.

In addition, sample EFL teachers in all the three schools assessed two non-cognitive factors to some extent. These were students' learning needs and interests and their social behaviors during task-related interactions. However, they rarely assess many of the non-cognitive factors including: students' personal beliefs, their emotional and psychological characteristics, their learning style preferences, their learning strategies, their self esteem and their social behaviors during non-task-related interactions.

7.3.2. Assessment of Learning in the Cognitive Domain

Regarding the cognitive aspects of learning that sample EFL teachers assess, similar findings were revealed in all the three schools. Both in their formal and informal assessments, all sample teachers prioritized assessing students' remembering and understanding abilities. Moreover,

according to the findings gained from Yekatit 23 Secondary School, during informal assessments, sample teachers also assessed their students' applying ability.

There was also similarity among the practices of EFL teachers in the three schools in that they rarely assess their students' higher order thinking skills. In all the three cases, teachers rarely assessed students' evaluating and creating abilities. However, sample teachers at Dil Ber Secondary School were observed assessing their students' applying and analyzing abilities to some extent. Such abilities were assessed only during writing skills assessments.

7.4. Purposes of Assessment

7.4.1. Purposes of Informal Assessments

In the three schools, sample EFL teachers have used informal assessments for various purposes. The collected data from all the schools showed that teachers mainly employed informal assessments for the purpose of monitoring, motivating, managing behavior and providing feedback. They were similar in that they employed informal assessments to monitor students' progress in learning, to motivate students to learn; to manage student behavior and to provide feedback to students. These purposes can be categorized under the formative purposes of informal assessments. Moreover, in Bole Community School, sample teachers indicated that they mainly assess their students in order to diagnose their students' difficulties and to plan instruction or what to do next. However, diagnosing and planning instruction were reported as 'to some extent' in the other two schools.

The other difference noted among the three schools regarding the purpose of assessment was the use of informal assessments for summative purposes. The data obtained from Bole Community School and Dil Ber Secondary School indicated that sample teachers rarely use informal assessments for summative purposes. However, in Yekatit 23 Secondary School, sample EFL teachers replied that they use informal assessments to determine the final grades of their students. This difference could be related to teachers' experience, class size or any school policy. It is previously stated that the class size in Yekatit 23 Secondary School is relatively small and the teachers are more experienced than the teachers in the other two schools. Thus, this could have impacted teachers' practices in keeping records of informal assessments and using it for summative purposes.

On the other hand, all sample teachers were similar in that they rarely used informal assessments for the purpose of evaluating their own teaching methodology, checking the effectiveness of instructional activities and setting targets or achievement goals.

7.4.2. Purposes of Formal Assessments

There was no difference among the sample EFL teachers in the three schools in the way they use formal assessments. They mainly use formal assessments for determining students' final grades, encouraging students to work harder and preparing students for the national exam.

There was also evidence that sample teachers, to some extent, assessed their students in order to diagnose their difficulties. However, this data was reported only from two schools (Bole Community School and Dil Ber Secondary School). Apart from this, sample teacher in all the three schools rarely used formal assessments in evaluating teaching activities, stressing the main concepts of the lesson and setting targets or achievement goals.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

8.1. Summary

The purpose of this study was to describe and portray the overall classroom assessment practices of general secondary school EFL teachers by deeply looking into the cases of three government secondary schools in Addis Ababa. Thus, it was intended to better understand their actual assessment practices since this is an area where teachers need to implement properly to ensure effective EFL teaching (Rea-Dickins and Gardner, 2000).

The present study employed a case study design which constituted both qualitative and quantitative methods. However, the study relied heavily on the qualitative data. The tools used to collect data were classroom observation (using observation check list and audio recording), teacher interview, teachers' questionnaire, document analyses, and student focus group discussion. Before using these tools to collect data for the main study, the validity of the tools was checked through reviewers (two PhD candidates) and through pilot study. The pilot study was conducted in one government secondary school which is similar in many respects with the schools where the main study was conducted. Thus, based on the lessons gained from the pilot study, some amendments were made to the tools before using them for the main study (See Section 3.5 of Chapter Three).

In the main study, data were collected from three sample schools (i.e. Bole Community School, Dil Ber Secondary School and Yekatit 23 Secondary School). In each sample school, two focal participating teachers were involved in the classroom observations and interviews. From each teacher's classroom, a group of six students were also selected randomly as focal participants of the focus group discussions. In general, the main study has encompassed 29 sample teachers (among these, 6 were focal participating teachers) and 330 sample students (among these, 36 were focal participating students).

In analyzing the data, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were made. The data obtained from classroom observations (audio records), interviews, open-ended items of the questionnaire and documents were analyzed qualitatively and the data obtained from closed-ended items of the

questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively. Therefore, although this study was dominated by qualitative data and qualitative analysis, quantitative analysis was also employed to some extent.

By integrating the findings gained from both the qualitative and quantitative data, the study attempted to answer the research questions posed earlier in the first chapter (See Section 1.2). Thus, the findings of the analyses were discussed in line with these research questions. The major findings which portray the practices of EFL teachers' multiple classroom assessments at government secondary schools in Addis Ababa are summarized as follows:

- ❖ It was found that sample EFL teachers practiced such informal assessment actions as questioning, correcting and judging more frequently than others like observing process, examining product, metacognitive questioning which could be considered more beneficial for learning. The degree of practice among these informal assessment actions has also varied depending on the type of skills taught. Within the same EFL teacher, the practice of observing process, rewarding, correcting, observing product and judging has greatly varied from lesson to lesson.
During oral questioning, sample EFL teachers frequently used display oral questions rather than thoughtful, open-ended referential questions. They rarely ask more open questions genuinely seeking to elicit new information.
- ❖ During classroom observations, sample EFL teachers have focused more on monitoring student behavior and checking their engagement on the task rather than focusing on what they were really doing. They did not precisely define the abilities to be observed. Their oral questioning did not also engage all students. They ask questions only volunteer students. They rarely used any questioning strategy which involves reticent students.
- ❖ It was also found that sample EFL teachers rarely used peer-assessments and self-assessments.
- ❖ Only two types of formal assessments (i.e. mid-semester and semester final examinations) were used in the sample schools. In addition, among the four major and two minor language skills, teachers prioritize in testing grammar, reading and vocabulary skills. The other language skills were rarely assessed in their examinations.
- ❖ Sample EFL teachers used four oral feedback strategies. These were: explicit oral feedback, elicitation of completion, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error.

Among these, explicit oral feedback (direct) and elicitation of completion (indirect feedback) were the most frequent feedback strategies observed in all sample teachers' classrooms. The other feedback strategies were used only to some extent. They also employed written feedbacks which were only approval and disapproval of students' works. Furthermore, various non-verbal feedback strategies were identified in this study and these strategies were mostly teacher specific.

- ❖ EFL teachers mainly assess only few non-cognitive factors. They commonly assess students' motivation for learning and their personal details. However, the data indicated that teachers were not always aware of what student personal characteristics they were assessing and how they were doing it. On the other hand, they rarely assess many of the non-cognitive factors including students' personal beliefs, their emotional and psychological characteristics, their learning style preferences, their learning strategies, their self esteem and their classroom social behaviors.
- ❖ During classroom instructions, sample EFL teachers were also less concerned in assessing their students' prior knowledge. Many of them start their instruction without such assessments. Only one sample teacher was observed assessing his students' prior knowledge during his reading class. However, his assessment was very extended which took almost half of his instructional time.
- ❖ The study has found that, during informal assessments, sample teachers mainly assessed three student cognitive skills (i.e. remembering, understanding and applying) and during formal assessments they only assessed their students' remembering and understanding abilities. However, both their formal and informal assessments did not require students to use their higher order levels of thinking including analyzing, evaluating and creating.
- ❖ Sample EFL teachers practiced informal assessments for various purposes. They employed informal assessments to monitor students' progress in learning, to motivate them to learn; to manage their behavior and to provide feedback to them. These purposes can be categorized under the formative purposes of informal assessments. However, they rarely practiced informal assessments in order to evaluate their own teaching methodology; determine the final grades for students and set targets or achievement goals.

- ❖ It was also found that sample teachers practiced formal assessments for three main reasons: to determine the final grades for their students; to encourage students to work harder; and to prepare them for the national exam.

8.2. Conclusions

Classroom teaching is a dynamic and complex social process (Clark & Peterson, 1986) where teachers have to continuously assess the process and make appropriate decisions and change their teaching accordingly (Parker, 1984). Likewise, classroom assessment is more complicated than is often assumed. This is the case that the researcher observed in this study.

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions are made:

- ❖ EFL teachers mainly used informal assessments which rarely facilitate interactive classroom context.

As described in the previous section, some informal assessment actions (such as display oral questions) were more commonly practiced than others (like referential and metacognitive questions). Sample EFL teachers rarely asked their students more open-ended questions, genuinely seeking to elicit new information. Instead, they focused more on comprehension and confirmation checks. They mainly employed questions which demand a single or short response of low-level thinking. In their other major informal assessment action, correction, there was also less negotiation. Although correction includes providing information to students or making counter suggestions in order to correct what a student has said or done, sample teachers were frequently observed reacting to students' responses by saying only 'Yes', 'No', 'Good', 'Very good' and so on. Hence, there was lack of extended elaborations to students' responses during corrections and this result clearly points to a conclusion that EFL teachers' informal assessments did not provide sufficient interaction in the classroom.

- ❖ EFL teachers' informal assessments were unsystematic and unplanned.

Sample EFL teachers were not systematic in noting individual students while moving or looking around the classroom. They focused more on monitoring student behaviors and checking their engagement on the task rather than focusing on what they were really doing. They did not precisely define the abilities to be observed. Hence, their classroom observations were

impressionistic and unplanned. Moreover, during oral questioning, they addressed only volunteer students frequently, leaving the reticent ones out of the classroom scene and making them unaccountable for their own learning. They rarely used any questioning strategy which involves reticent students. Thus, it is fair to conclude that EFL teachers did not employ systematic and carefully planned informal assessments.

- ❖ EFL teachers' informal assessments lacked student engagement.

Sample EFL teachers rarely employed self-assessments and peer-assessments. They rarely involved their students to evaluate their own performance or accomplishments. Neither did they involve their students to identify their learning needs, their strengths and weakness and set their learning goals. This makes both the teacher and the students to become less effective users of assessment information.

- ❖ EFL teachers did not administer formal assessments or tests regularly and frequently.

Within a semester, they only used two types of formal assessments: mid-semester and semester final examinations. Quizzes, Unit-end tests or monthly tests were absent in the sample teachers' classrooms. Thus, it is possible to conclude that sample teachers administer tests occasionally.

- ❖ EFL teachers' formal assessments were not well-aligned with the material being taught.

As described earlier in the summary section, among the four major and two minor language skills, teachers prioritize in testing grammar, reading and vocabulary skills. The other language skills (i.e. writing, speaking and listening) were rarely assessed formally though these skills are there in the text book and teachers are supposed to teach these skills in the classroom. Therefore, their formal assessments did not reflect an integral part of the instructional approach or the contents in the teaching material.

- ❖ EFL teachers have used only a small portion of the feedback possibilities that classroom assessment has to offer.

Sample EFL teachers mainly used explicit oral feedbacks and elicitation of completion. The other feedback strategies (e.g. metalinguistic feedback, repetition of error, recast and clarification request) were employed only to a little extent. Their written feedback strategies were also limited

only to approval and disapproval of students' works. Therefore, though sample teachers tried to use both direct and indirect feedback strategies in their classrooms, their feedbacks were not diverse and frequently occurred in the classroom.

- ❖ EFL teachers were not fully informed about their students' non-cognitive behaviors.

It was found that sample EFL teachers assessed only few non-cognitive factors. They commonly assessed students' motivation for learning and their personal details. Yet, they rarely assessed many of the non-cognitive factors including students' personal beliefs, their emotional and psychological characteristics, their learning style preferences, their learning strategies, their self esteem and their classroom social behaviors. Without getting information about such student characteristics, the teacher cannot understand individual student behaviors. Thus, it is possible to conclude that sample EFL teachers were not fully informed about their students' individual behaviors, including their academic, personal and social behaviors.

- ❖ Assessment of prior knowledge was a neglected practice during EFL teachers' classroom instructions.

Sample EFL teachers rarely inquire about students' understandings of concepts before sharing their own understandings of those concepts. They were less concerned in identifying their students' prior knowledge. Many of them start their instruction without such assessments. Therefore, it can be stated that EFL teachers' instructions (including their examples, elaborations, suggestions and explanations) did not center round students' experiences and prior knowledge.

- ❖ EFL teachers assessed only students' lower order cognitive skills.

As described previously, during informal assessments, sample teachers mainly assessed students' remembering, understanding and applying abilities and during formal assessments they only assessed remembering and understanding abilities. Yet, the other higher order thinking skills (including analyzing, evaluating and creating) were not assessed at all. Therefore, it was only the lower order cognitive skills that they were concerned about.

- ❖ In their informal assessments, EFL teachers emphasized some formative purposes more than others.

The findings of this study indicated that sample EFL teachers mainly employed informal assessments for monitoring, motivating, managing behavior and providing feedback. They were observed in trying to monitor students' progress in learning; to motivate students to learn; to manage student behavior and to provide feedback to students. On the other hand, sample teachers rarely practiced informal assessments for the sake of diagnosing student difficulties, evaluating their own teaching methodology, determining the final grades for students, setting targets or achievement goals, and planning instruction or what to do next. Hence, it was only four formative purposes that teachers mainly tried to accomplish within their informal assessments.

- ❖ In their formal assessments, EFL teachers tried to achieve both summative and formative purposes.

As it is indicated in the summary section, sample teachers practiced formal assessments for three main purposes: to determine the final grades for their students; to encourage students to work harder; and to prepare students for the national exam. Although the first purpose was purely summative, encouraging students to work harder is a formative purpose that teachers tried to attain in their formal assessments.

8.3. Implications of the Main Findings for EFL Teaching and Learning

The findings of this study have established the main characteristics of EFL teachers' multiple classroom assessment practices in the three sample schools. After establishing these features, the study now moves on to describing the implications of these practices for EFL learning and teaching. Thus, it aims to examine teachers' practices in relation to the constructivists' theory of learning and the implications formulated here subsequently serve to shed light on the quality of EFL teaching in the general secondary schools context.

- ❖ *When informal assessment lacks to provide a key interactive classroom context*

According to social constructivism, the source of knowledge is the social interaction of people, interactions that involve sharing, comparing and debating among learners and teachers (Rogoff, 1990). As teachers initiate interaction through questioning, correcting, counter suggesting or

debating, learners develop successively more complex skill, understanding and ultimately independent competence (Vygotsky's, 1978).

Yet, the reality in the sample EFL classrooms in the three schools was different. Sample teachers were mainly using display oral questions which do not invite students for extended dialogue, discussion or interaction. Their classroom observations were also more on managing student behavior rather than process of work. This contributes little information for the discussion that follows the observation. Thus, it implies that due to the absence of interactive informal assessments, EFL teachers are in a difficulty of creating classroom situations which facilitate effective EFL learning.

❖ *When informal assessment lacks careful planning*

As Harris and McCann (1994) suggest, unplanned and unsystematic informal assessment cannot be effective. According to them, daily observation which is not systematic will result in a pile of useless information. The same is true for unsystematic questioning.

In the sample classrooms, EFL teachers were observed employing informal assessments which were impressionistic and unplanned. They were not using any criteria for observing their students; and while they were asking oral questions, they were not using any strategy which involves all kinds of students. This could prohibit teachers from making effective and trustworthy instructional decisions. Therefore, due to lack of careful planning, their informal assessments were not supporting EFL learning and this implies that there is a need in improving this particular teacher activity.

❖ *When informal assessment lacks student engagement*

Engaging students' in the assessment process (through self- and peer- assessments) is advisable due to many reasons. When students reflect on their accomplishments, they gain a sense of control and self-motivation (Blanche &Merino, 1989). Self-assessment helps them feel more responsible. The information can also help teachers plan additional instruction or assistance that is tailor-made for each student.

However, both self-assessment and peer assessment were not evident in the sample EFL classrooms. This implies that sample EFL teachers' informal assessments lacked to make students responsible for their own learning.

❖ *When formal assessment is not administered regularly and frequently*

Formal assessment is not just a matter of constructing and administering written tests containing several discrete items at the end of the semester or at the end of the year. Progress tests, short quizzes, essays, performances, practical skills and many other types of human proficiency could be part of a formal assessment. These many kinds of formal assessments can all be considered and it is important that they are employed fairly and regularly, especially if they are to have some influence on what and how students learn in the classroom.

However, in the sample schools, it is found that EFL teachers were using only two types of formal assessments (mid-semester and semester final examinations). These types of examinations are less helpful for learning (Harris & McCann, 1994). They provide only a limited amount of feedback to the students. Therefore, the implication is that in order to foster students' progress in learning, teachers need to employ short quizzes and progress tests frequently rather than year-end or semester-end examinations.

❖ *When formal assessment lacks to reflect an integral part of the material being taught*

Formal assessments or tests have an effect on students' learning. Harris and McCann (1994:27) state this as "If you test mainly grammar, your students will assume that this is the most important thing to learn and may make less effort during other more communicative activities". An end-of-year test which concentrates on grammar and vocabulary, even though the teacher has done lots of speaking and listening in the classroom has bad washback and students may feel that class work on these communicative skills has been a waste of time.

In this regard, it is found that even though all the language skills were there in the textbook and teachers teach those skills in the classrooms, all these skills were not reflected in the formal assessments. This means, formal assessments employed in the sample schools were not motivating for students to learn all language skills.

❖ *When classroom assessment lacks to provide a number of feedback possibilities to students*

If classroom assessment is to be linked to learning, then assessment feedback is an important part of this connection (Wragg, 2001). Yet, all forms of feedback are not equally important for learning. Research on second language acquisition shows that indirect feedback is more preferable to direct feedback (Chandler, 2003; Sheen et al., 2009) because it engages students in the correction activity and helps them foster their long-term acquisition of the target language (O'Sullivan & Chambers, 2006). Many experts agree that indirect feedback has more benefits than direct feedback in developing students' second language proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005).

However, sample teachers' classroom instructions were dominated by explicit oral feedback and elicitation of completion. A lot of other indirect feedback strategies (including recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error) were rarely employed. This implies that their feedback strategies were less helpful for students' learning and needs improvement.

❖ *When EFL teachers are not fully informed about their students' non-cognitive behaviors*

Classes consist of students with different needs, backgrounds, and skills. Each student's learning style, learning strategy, work habits and social behavior is unique. Thus, teachers should try to find ways to create a wide range of learning options and paths, so that all students can have the opportunity to learn as efficiently as they can (Gregory & Chapman, 2002). According to Tsagari (2004), assessing such non-cognitive factors should be seen as an integral part of students' assessment. When classroom assessment lacks to identify such non-cognitive student behaviors, teachers will be in a difficulty to meet the demands of their students, and then, learning will be inhibited.

In this study, sample EFL teachers mainly assessed only two kinds of students' non-cognitive behaviors (i.e. their motivation for learning and their personal details). They rarely assessed many of the non-cognitive factors including students' personal beliefs, their emotional and

psychological characteristics, their learning style preferences, their learning strategies, their self esteem and their social behaviors. This means, they were less informed about such non-cognitive behaviors. Hence, they were teaching without the full knowledge of their students' behaviors. This also implies that EFL teachers would have provided more effective instructions if they had assessed their students' non-cognitive behaviors.

❖ *When EFL teachers fail to assess students' prior experiences and knowledge during instruction*

A typical feature of constructivism is that before coming to class students have a multiple of unique experiences and knowledge about how the world works. Therefore, activating their prior experience or prior knowledge is very important since what is learned is learned in relation to what one already knows. When teachers are familiar with students' prior knowledge, they can provide learning experiences to build on these existing understandings (Steffe & D'Ambrosio, 1995). Teachers who try to use students' prior knowledge as part of the teaching process enable them to understand students' thinking and provide insights from which they can plan instruction (Gurney, 1995).

However, in this study, sample EFL teachers were less concerned in assessing their students' prior knowledge. Many of them start their instruction without such assessments. This means their instructions were not well delivered due to such limitation and learning was hindered.

8.4. Recommendations

The findings of this study have highlighted several suggestions for practicing EFL teachers, school administrators and curriculum developers or policy makers.

First, EFL teachers should revisit their practices based on the following specific recommendations:

- Due to the absence of interactive informal assessments, EFL teachers are in a difficulty of creating classroom situations which facilitate effective EFL learning. In order to be more effective in their teaching and benefit their students more, during instruction, EFL teachers need to employ interactive informal assessments, including referential and metacognitive questions.

- EFL teachers need to carefully plan what to assess, when to assess and who to assess. Without such planning, their informal assessments could not effectively support EFL learning.
- They should engage students in the assessment process (through self-assessments and peer-assessments) and make them responsible for their own learning.
- They should frequently employ short quizzes and progress tests rather than year-end or semester-end examinations. In addition, the quizzes and tests should fully reflect the contents in the text book.
- They should practice a lot of descriptive, indirect feedback strategies (including recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback and repetition of error) rather than direct and explicit feedbacks.
- Many of the sample EFL teachers have started their instruction without assessing their students' prior knowledge. This makes them less aware of their students' experiences and prior knowledge and inhibits instruction. Thus, they should try to assess their students' knowledge and experiences before any new lesson starts.
- They should also assess their students' non-cognitive behaviors including their learning styles, learning needs and learning strategies.

Second, school administrators should implement quality supervision and provide support and basic resources for teachers. The English language syllabus for general secondary schools clearly requires teachers to implement multiple assessments. Despite this requirement, traditional assessment remains the main assessment practices in the sample schools and it seems that there was no pressure from any one to push teachers to implement multiple assessments. As a result, they continue to rely on traditional assessments in their classes. Therefore, teachers need quality supervision, monitoring and support from school administrators.

Moreover, teachers discuss a lot of things and share ideas about their students' behaviors in teachers' rooms. However, based on the researchers' observation, teachers' rooms in the three schools have not given due attention and furnished in such a way. Therefore, school administrators or managing bodies should be aware of this and furnish and arrange teachers' rooms in such a way to facilitate discussion among teachers since this is the best place where teachers make informal panel discussions about a lot of academic issues every day.

Third, EFL teachers in a training program should be provided with courses which focus on multiple classroom assessments. Before becoming teachers (i.e. at universities), EFL teachers should gain a better understanding of the benefits of employing multiple assessments for teaching and learning. University courses which aim at enabling EFL teacher trainees to effectively use both formal and informal classroom assessments should be designed and provided. It is important, therefore, that assessment of students be covered in detail when teachers are in training and should not be confused with testing, which is only one component of assessment.

Finally, building capacity of in-service EFL teachers to improve their assessment skills should be a priority if learning English has to be meaningful and effective.

8.5. Suggestions for Further Study

This study was concerned only with describing what EFL teachers actually do with regard to multiple classroom assessments. However, EFL teachers' multiple assessment practices are influenced by many factors which the researcher believes should be studied and identified. Some of these factors could be the teaching material or textbook, teachers' trainings, their teaching experiences and their beliefs regarding assessment. Thus, in order to get a complete picture of teachers' classroom assessment practices, similar studies should specifically be conducted on each of these factors.

Moreover, the present study was conducted only in three government secondary schools. Therefore, the study might not show the full picture of all secondary schools. In addition, the study did not represent primary and tertiary levels at all. Hence, similar studies should be conducted particularly at primary and tertiary levels of education.

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Appendix 1

The Pilot Study

(i) Research Setting

The pilot study was conducted in Bethelhem Secondary School which is located in Addis Ababa, Arada Subcity. The school had been owned by the community (public) until it was transferred to government ownership in 2011. It is a medium school of 1300-1600 enrollment capacity, with an average of 50 students per class. The school admits Grades 9 and 10 students. The total number of teachers at the school in the 2012 academic year was 56 (49 male and 7 female teachers). Apart from these teachers, there were also other non-teaching staff members in the school whose responsibilities were administration, finance, maintenance and upkeep of the premises and grounds of the school.

The English language department consists of eight teachers: four of them teach at Grade 9, the other four teach at Grade 10. Two of the Grade 9 English teachers were focal participants in the pilot study. For the sake of anonymity, they are referred in this study as Bet-T1 and Bet-T2.

Bet-T1 had 8 years of teaching experience and Bet-T2 had 10 years. According to the researcher's classroom observations, the teachers' level of English was professionally adequate. Bet-T1 is a female English teacher who had a university degree in teaching English and Bet-T2 is a male English teacher who had the same qualification. However, both of them never took any EFL classroom assessment course or any related in-service training before.

In the classrooms, students' desks were in rows facing the teacher's desk and the blackboard. All of the classes in the school were poorly furnished. At the front of each class, there was a fixed blackboard which is the basic teaching tool in most Ethiopian primary and secondary classrooms. Apart from the blackboard and the desks, there was no notice board or any teaching aid displayed in the classroom.

(ii) Objectives of the Pilot Study

The purpose of the pilot study was twofold. The first objective was to validate the data collecting instruments and to practice the data collecting procedures including observational note-taking, audio-taping the classroom instructions, and interviewing the sample teachers. This was done to improve the quality of the data which were collected during the main study. The second objective was to check the effectiveness of the whole research framework in meeting the intended research aims.

Therefore, in order to validate the instruments, the pilot study tried to answer the following basic questions.

- Are the interview questions clear and working as intended? How long does the interview take?
- How appropriately are the observation schedule and audio- recorder functioning?
- Are the questionnaire items clear and working as intended?
- Are the focus group discussion questions clear to students and yield maximum responses?

The study was conducted during the first semester of 2012/13 academic year (September - December).

(iii) Selection of Participants

First of all, Bethelhem Secondary School was selected for the pilot study due to its convince for the researcher. Its proximity to the researcher was the main reason. This, in turn, helped the researcher to save time for the main study.

As stated previously, in the school, there were four Grade 9 English teachers. All of them were selected to participate in the study only in filling the questionnaire. However, among these four teachers, only two voluntary English teachers were selected as focal participants of the study. The two focal participants were selected mainly for classroom observations and interviewing purposes. Moreover, a group of Grade 9 students (with six members) were selected randomly from Section A and took part in the focus group discussion of the pilot study.

(iv) Validation of Instruments

As described above, the first purpose of the pilot study was to trial the data collecting instruments and refine them according to the feedbacks and responses gained. Four data collection tools were piloted. These include: the teacher interview schedule, the observation schedule, the teachers' questionnaire and the student focus group interview schedule.

a. Piloting the Teacher Interview Schedule

The semi-structured teacher interview schedule was piloted on Bet-T1 and Bet-T2. The piloting interviews were conducted in English and each interview took an average of 28 minutes which was as nearly equal as expected.

The pilot interview proved to be fruitful in three aspects. First, it ensured the researcher that the interview questions were clear and working as intended. Second, it gave the researcher a new insight regarding how to use prompts during interviewing. The researcher tried to use prompts in the first couple of questions of the interview schedule without waiting for students' responses. However, he observed that the prompts were limiting teachers' responses; and then, in the latter questions, he immediately avoided using prompts while asking. Instead, he waited for students' responses and he added prompts whenever they were unfocused and telling the researcher unrelated things to the question raised. Thus, in the main study, the researcher had decided not to use prompts unless the interviewees were in shortage of ideas. Third, the piloting gave the researcher an opportunity to practice his interviewing skills and to familiarize himself with the interview schedule, which enabled him to do the main study interviews more effectively.

b. Piloting the Observation Schedule and Audio-recorder

During the pilot observation, two materials were tested: the observation schedule and the audio-recording material. The observation schedule was designed in a way it could enable the researcher to quickly put important information in a checklist and then take notes or descriptions about it later on when he was not busy. This type of design was hoped to facilitate effective time utilization and essential data collection during observation. Hence, in the pilot study, it was intended to check these two qualities of the observation schedule.

Therefore, in order to pilot the observation schedule, the researcher approached the two teachers participated in the interview (Bet-T1 and Bet-T2). He observed Bet-T1's class A and Bet-T2's class D. He observed each class three times. In general, he conducted six observations. Four of the observations were in the morning session (from 8:30 AM – 12:30 AM) and the other two were in the afternoon session (from 2:00 PM – 3:30 PM). The researcher took the role of a non-participant observer.

Accordingly, the researcher has found the lesson observation schedule effective in terms of saving time to write the observation data and it was working as planned. He managed to write all essential data within the pace of the classroom instructions and it was easy for him to put the important information already listed in the checklist. Therefore, he used the observation schedule in the main study as it is.

Moreover, during observation, audio-recording was employed by using a mobile recorder put in to the teacher's pocket. It was intended that the audio-recording would be helpful to record the details of classroom assessment that are practiced during instruction and to cross-check the data collected through the observation schedule. However, the researcher was concerned about the quality of the records and practicality of the recording process. Fortunately, it was working very well and he used the same recording material and recording strategy for the main study.

c. Piloting the Questionnaire

A 9-item draft version of the Teachers' Questionnaire was piloted. Most of the items, except the first two items and the last one, were prepared in the form of a Likert Rating Scale. Based on the literature, the researcher prepared most of these items by himself (except items 5 and 8).

The questionnaire was filled by four Grade 9 English teachers in the sample school. In addition, eight copies of the questionnaire were distributed to Grade 9 English teachers outside of the sample school (four teachers each from Africa Andinet and New Era government secondary schools). This was done to maximize the evaluation process of the questionnaire. Thus, the involvement of these teachers in this pilot study was only to evaluate and comment on the questionnaire. Moreover, three fellow PhD candidates also evaluated the questionnaire and commented on it.

Teachers were instructed to write their comments in case the phrasing of some items were unclear. As a result, minor adjustments were made to the level of language used in one item (Item 6). In this item, teachers commented that they were unclear with the phrase ‘to socialize with the classroom culture’. Therefore, the researcher rephrased it as ‘to create a friendly atmosphere in the classroom’. Other than this minor change, all the 9 items from the pilot phase were retained for the main study.

d. Piloting the Students’ Focus Group Discussion Schedule

The focus group interview schedule was piloted with six students from Class A (Bet-T1’s class). The students were selected randomly from the students’ list. Six of the students were informed to meet the researcher during their break time around the teachers’ room. Accordingly, during their break time, the discussion was conducted. The researcher asked seven open-ended questions in the focus group discussion by inviting each participant to respond to each question. The discussion was conducted in Amharic and later translated into English during the data analysis process. During the focus group discussion, notes were taken by the researcher. The interview took 13 Minutes.

As described before, the main purpose of piloting the focus group discussion schedule was to check whether the interview questions were clear for students and yield maximum responses. Thus, students clearly understood all the seven questions. Moreover, the piloted questions provided a wealth of information that demonstrates how the English teachers practice assessment in the classroom. Thus, in the main study, the students’ focus group discussion schedule was used as it is.

(v) Results

In order to investigate EFL teachers’ multiple assessment practices, three basic research questions were raised in the pilot study. These were:

1. How do secondary school EFL teachers assess their students before, during and after instruction?
2. What aspects of learning do secondary school EFL teachers assess before, during and after instruction?

3. For what specific purposes do secondary school EFL teachers use multiple classroom assessments at various instructional times?

Based on these basic research questions, data were collected from both sample teachers and students. Hence, the results of the study are presented as follows.

1. Contents of Assessment

According to the pilot study data, at the beginning of instruction or at the start of the school year, sample EFL teachers focus on assessing both their students' non-cognitive and cognitive learning process. In the non-cognitive domain, they assess learning aspects such as: students' personal details, their learning needs and interests, behaviors, affiliations and learning problems. From the cognitive behaviors, they focus on assessing students' remembering ability (such as: memorizing grammar rules) and understanding ability (such as: understanding the teacher's speech and explaining things in their own words). However, students' abilities in the other cognitive domains of Bloom's taxonomy (e.g. applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating) are not assessed. Thus, at the beginning of instruction, teachers emphasize more in assessing both the non-cognitive skills and lower order cognitive skills.

During their regular classroom instruction, sample EFL teachers mainly assess their students' memorizing ability, comprehending ability and applying ability. Moreover, in the non-cognitive domain, although they emphasize in assessing potential behavior problems, they also assess their students' participation, interest in the lesson, and their needs. However, students' abilities in the other cognitive domains of Bloom's revised taxonomy (e.g. analyzing, evaluating and creating) were not assessed. Therefore, it is possible to say that during instruction, teachers assess students' abilities which are both in the cognitive and non-cognitive domains.

At the end of an instructional activity or during the exam weeks, sample EFL teachers focus more on assessing their students' behaviors only in the cognitive domain, particularly: (i) Remembering – e.g. their ability in memorizing a grammar rule, (ii) Understanding – e.g. their ability in comprehending a reading passage, explaining the meaning of a sentence, and (iii) Applying – e.g. their ability in changing an active voice into passive voice sentence.

2. Methods of Assessment

The pilot study data also confirmed that, at the first week or so of the school year, sample EFL teachers mainly employ three assessment practices: observing students informally, asking both referential and displaying oral questions, and informally listening to students' discussions. However, searching for available school records and formally testing students were unemployed assessment practices at the first week.

During their regular classroom instruction, sample EFL teachers also assess their students mainly through oral questioning (particularly asking them principle questions to elicit what they know and understand), observation (both observing the process of learning and examining work done) and sometimes using quizzes.

After a certain period of classroom instruction, EFL teachers mostly employ paper and pencil tests containing close-ended items to assess their students. To some extent, they also employ such assessment techniques as checking students' exercise books, oral presentations and writing skills tests containing sentence completion and short answer items. However, they employ other speaking and listening tests and alternative assessment methods only to a small extent.

3. Purposes of Assessment

The collected data in the pilot study showed that the main reasons for the teachers to assess their students at the beginning of instruction were: (i) to manage student behavior, (ii) to motivate students (iii) to plan instruction, (iv) to modify lesson, (v) to manage lesson, (vi) to gain in understanding of learning, (vii) to create a friendly classroom atmosphere, and (viii) to diagnose pupils' difficulties.

Similar, during their regular instruction, sample EFL teachers use classroom assessments for the same main reasons mentioned above. Both at the beginning of the school year and during their regular classroom instruction, teachers assess their students mainly to: (i) motivate students, (ii) manage student behavior, (iii) plan instruction, (iv) modify lesson, (v) manage lesson, (vi) gain in understanding of learning, and (vii) diagnose pupils' difficulties. In addition to the above common reasons for assessment, during their regular classroom instruction, teachers assess their students in order to stress the main concepts of the lesson and to provide feedback to students;

whereas, at the beginning of instruction they practice assessment to create a friendly classroom atmosphere.

On the other hand, after a certain period of classroom instruction, EFL teachers assess their students for six main reasons. These were: (i) to determine the final grades for their students and report their achievement to the school administration, (ii) to motivate the students to learn and work harder, (iii) to prepare their students for high stakes exams they will need to take in the future, (iv) to obtain information on their students' progress and monitor it, (v) to diagnose their strengths and weaknesses, and (vi) to set targets or achievement goals.

(vi) Conclusions

The results of the pilot study indicated that EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices are nearly similar at the beginning of instruction and during instruction. At the beginning of instruction and during instruction, EFL teachers usually use similar assessment methods which are predominantly informal assessment methods. During these instructional times, they also use classroom assessments for the same formative purposes. However, at the end of instruction, the content, method and purpose of assessment are different.

Although it is important to know about what teachers assess, how they assess and for what purposes they assess their students, the pilot result shows that sorting out these multiple assessment practices into various instructional time zones is neither easy to study nor significant to understand EFL classroom assessment. This is because, first, there is no clear cut division among instructional time zones (prior to, during and after instruction). These instructional times, particularly before and during instructions, vary greatly from teacher to teacher. Some teachers may size-up their new students within two days; others may do it within a week or two or more. Thus, it is a bit difficult to picture out what exactly happened before and during instruction. This was confusing for the researcher to say a certain assessment event has happened before instruction or during instruction.

Second, trying to analyze EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices within these three instructional time zones (particularly within before and during instructional times) did not yield any significance difference regarding contents of assessment, methods of assessment and

purposes of assessment. Hence, the time division was not necessary to depict teachers' assessment practices.

As a result, the terms 'Before instruction', 'During instruction' and 'After instruction' which were used in almost all parts of the pilot study are omitted in the main study. Hence, the main study has focused on the general picture of classroom assessment practices without further dividing them into such instructional times.

Appendix 2

Teacher Interview Guide

School name..... Date of interview

Code name of the person interviewed Gender.....

Part One – Background Information

1. Would you please tell me your academic qualification and field of specialization?
.....
2. How many years have you been teaching English at secondary schools?
.....
3. Have you received any EFL classroom assessment training before?
 - a. **(If yes)** please describe the focus of the training?
.....
 - b. **(If no)** where do you think the knowledge and skills that you currently use to assess your students come from?
.....

Part Two – EFL Teachers’ Classroom Assessment Practice

I. Methods and Procedures of Classroom Assessment

4. What types of formal assessments or tests do you usually use in your teaching?
(Prompts: reading tests, oral tests; tests including objective items or subjective items)
.....
.....
5. What informal assessment methods do you frequently use in your teaching? **(Prompts:** observation, oral questioning, self-assessments, peer-assessments, presentations, games, portfolios, projects, etc.)
.....
.....

6. Think about your observation and oral questioning practices in your classroom and answer the following questions.

6.1. When you are observing your students:

a. Who do you frequently observe (high-achievers, low-achievers or average achievers)?
And why?

.....
.....

b. What do you frequently observe? (**Prompts:** students' classroom behaviors, process of work or product of work)

.....
.....

c. What kind of feedback do you usually give to your students during such observations?

.....
.....

d. What decisions do you usually make as a result of your observation? (**Prompts:** individual student or the whole class decisions; instructional or managerial decisions)

.....
.....

6.2. When you are asking your students oral questions:

a. Who do you frequently ask? And why? (**Prompts:** (high-achievers, low-achievers average achievers, volunteers, non-volunteers)

.....
.....

b. What kind of feedback do you usually provide to your students while they respond to these questions? Could you give me some examples of such feedback?

.....
.....

c. What kind of decisions do you make as a result of your oral questioning?

.....
.....

7. Think about each of the formal assessments or classroom tests that you employ in your teaching and answer the following questions.

a. How do you develop each test? (**Prompts:** the source of the test tasks or items, the format of the tests)

.....
.....

b. How often do you administer the tests? (**Prompts:** weekly, monthly, at the end of a term; arranged by the school or by yourself)

.....
.....

c. What kind of feedback do you usually give to your students in these tests? (**Prompts:** marks only, marks and oral comments, marks and written comments)

.....
.....

d. What kind of decisions do you make as a result of these tests?

.....
.....

II. Contents of assessment

8. When you are assessing your students informally (such as: through observation or oral questioning), what is it that you frequently want to know?

.....
.....

9. When you are assessing your students formally or through tests, what is it that you frequently want to know?

.....
.....

10. Are there any specific student cognitive processes that you frequently look for in your assessments? (**Prompts:** memorizing grammar rules, comprehending a reading passage, etc.)

.....
.....

11. What are the non-cognitive aspects of learning that you frequently assess? (**Prompts:** Students' motivation, their interest, their out-of-school activities, etc.)

.....
.....

III. Purpose of assessment

12. Think about your primary reasons in applying informal assessments and respond to the following questions.

a. Why do you observe your students?

(**Prompts:** To manage student behavior, to provide feedback to students, to stress the main concepts of the lesson, to motivate students to learn and work harder, etc)

.....
.....

b. Why do you ask your students oral questions?

.....
.....

13. What are your primary reasons in practicing formal assessments/tests?

.....
.....
.....

IV. EFL Teachers' Overall Classroom Assessment Practices

(Lastly, I am going to ask you about your overall assessment practice that you apply in your classroom)

14. What counts towards students' final grades? Do home works, participations, behaviors etc. count? (If yes, how do you measure or rate participation, behavior, etc?)

.....
.....
.....

15. Do you have any grade book or students' progress file other than the mark list? (If yes, what kind? And what is recorded in it?)

.....

16. Do students get a chance for self-assessment or peer assessment? (If yes, how often? Could you give me some example?)

.....

17. Any final comments, questions, or concerns about classroom assessment that you think the school or the government needs to address?

.....
.....
.....

Thank you for your time.

Appendix 3

Lesson Observation Schedule

Name of the school Date Visit number.....

Grade level..... Section

Number of students present Teachers' gender.....

Time of observation: Start End

Part One – Background Information

I. Classroom Context

1. Classroom **resources** (e.g. sparsely equipped, well quipped or rich in resources)

Comments

.....
.....
.....

2. Classroom **space** (e.g. crowded or adequate space)

Comments.....

.....
.....

3. Room **arrangement** (e.g. inhibits interaction among students, allows facilitated interaction)

Comments.....

.....
.....

II. Description of the Lesson Observed (e.g. skills being taught, lesson objectives)

4. The lesson observed:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Part Two – EFL Teacher’s Classroom Assessment Practice

5. To what extent were the following specific assessment actions evident in the lesson? Circle a number that best describes the teacher’s practice.

Scale: 1- Not at all 2- A small extent 3- Some extent 4- A great extent 5- A very great extent

No	In this lesson, there was:	1	2	3	4	5
A	Questioning (asking students principled questions to elicit evidence of what they know, understand or can do)	1	2	3	4	5
B	Clarifying (asking for clarifications about what has been done, is being done or will be done)	1	2	3	4	5
C	Metacognitive questioning (questioning students about how and why specific action has been taken)	1	2	3	4	5
D	Observing students at work (formal or/and informal)	1	2	3	4	5
E	Checking students’ works (examining work done, e.g. their class works and home works)	1	2	3	4	5
F	Judging (assigning mark, grade or summary judgment on the quality of this piece of work)	1	2	3	4	5
G	Rewarding (rewarding or punishing the pupil or demonstrating approval or disapproval)	1	2	3	4	5
H	Setting Task criteria (communicating what has to be done in order to complete the task)	1	2	3	4	5
I	Setting Quality criteria (communicating about the quality of the work)	1	2	3	4	5
J	Correcting (Supplying information, correcting and making counter suggestions)	1	2	3	4	5
K	Criticizing work (criticizing a particular aspect of the work or inviting students to do so)	1	2	3	4	5
L	Planning next teaching (moving forward in a lesson by suggesting or negotiating with students what to do next)	1	2	3	4	5
M	Planning next time lesson (suggesting or negotiating with students what to do in the next lesson)	1	2	3	4	5

(Adapted from Torrance and Pryor, 1998)

Additional comments:

.....

.....

.....

6. Do students have a chance for **self-assessment or peer assessment**?

A. Yes

B. No

Comments.....

7. What kind of **feedback** does the teacher provide to his/her students? Put a tick mark (√) in the table that best describes the teacher's practice.

No.	Feedback Strategies	Not evident	Somewhat evident	clearly evident	
1.	Implicit Oral Feedback (Indirect Feedback)	a. Recast The teacher reformulates all of or part of a student's utterance minus the error.			
		b. Clarification request The teacher asks a student for a repetition or reformulation of his/her ill-formed utterance.			
		c. Metalinguistic feedback The teacher provides general comments or information to the student's utterance			
		d. Elicitation The teacher elicits completion of his/her own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to 'fill in the blank'			
		e. Repetition of error The teacher repeats, in isolation, the student's erroneous utterance			
2.	Explicit Oral Feedback (Direct Feedback)	The teacher provides the correct answers in response to student errors			
3.	Non-verbal Feedbacks	The teacher responds to students' replies in the form of actions and body languages			

Comments on Non-verbal feedbacks

.....

Appendix 4

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear Teacher

Currently, I am conducting a study for my PhD dissertation on the topic “*EFL Teachers' Multiple Assessment Practices: The Case of three Government Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa.*” This questionnaire is, therefore, prepared to collect relevant information for the Study. Your responses contribute a lot to the success of my study. Thus, I kindly request you to give your genuine responses.

I would like to assure you that the information you provided in this questionnaire will not be used for any other purpose and will not be transferred to third parties.

Thank You.

Badima Belay

Part One - Background Information

Name of your school.....

Your academic qualification

Field of specialization: Major..... Minor.....

Average number of students in each class that you are teaching

1. How long have you been teaching English at secondary schools?

2. Have you received any EFL classroom assessment training before?

Yes

No

c. If yes, please describe the focus of the training?

.....

d. If no, where do you think your current knowledge and skills that you use to assess your students come from?

.....

Part Two – Multiple Classroom Assessments

I. Methods and procedures of Assessment

3. To what extent do you use the following formal and informal assessment methods or procedures? Please respond to each item in the table below by circling a number that best describes your assessment practice.

Scale: 1- Not at all 2- A small extent 3- Some extent 4- A great extent 5- A very great extent

		Items					
Informal Assessments	-	I observe process of work (while students are engaged in a task)	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I examine product of work (after students completed a task, as in class work or homework)	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I ask students display oral questions to elicit evidence of what they know, understand or can do in the lesson (though I know the answers to my questions)	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I ask students referential oral questions to get unknown information such as, their prior experiences and prior knowledge, their interests, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I ask students metacognitive questions (about how and why specific actions have been taken)	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I ask for clarification about what has been done, is being done or will be done	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I assign mark, grade or summary judgment on the quality of students' work	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I provide corrections and make counter suggestions	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I ask other teachers and staff members to tell me what they know about my students	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I use peer assessments	1	2	3	4	5
-	I use self assessments	1	2	3	4	5	
Formal Assessments	a. I use speaking tests like:						
	-	Word, phrase or sentence repetition tests	1	2	3	4	5
	-	Tests asking students to read a text aloud	1	2	3	4	5
	-	Oral interview or question-and-answer tests	1	2	3	4	5
	-	Tests asking students to <i>give and follow oral directions</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	-	Tests asking students to <i>provide oral description of an event, object or picture</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	-	Tests asking students to <i>respond to questions using information provided</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	-	Tests asking students to express an opinion	1	2	3	4	5

- Tests asking students to propose a solution	1	2	3	4	5
- Role play tests	1	2	3	4	5
b. I use listening tests like:					
- Tests asking students to <i>prepare summaries of what is heard</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Tests asking students to <i>answer multiple-choice test items following a listening passage or conversation</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Tests asking students to <i>take notes</i> from a listening text	1	2	3	4	5
- Tests asking students to <i>retell a story after listening to a passage or conversation</i>	1	2	3	4	5
c. I use reading tests like:					
- Reading aloud tests	1	2	3	4	5
- Reading tests containing <i>close-ended items (e.g. true-false, matching, and multiple-choice)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Reading tests containing <i>short answer items</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Reading tests containing <i>sentence completion items</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Reading tests containing <i>summary of what is read</i>	1	2	3	4	5
d. I use writing tests like:					
- Tests containing <i>sentence completion items</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Tests containing <i>short answer items</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Tests containing <i>form filling (such as, an application form or an order form of some kind)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Guided writing tests (e.g. Using pictures, notes, diagrams)	1	2	3	4	5
- Note taking tests	1	2	3	4	5
- Punctuation tests	1	2	3	4	5
- Tests containing <i>editing a piece of writing</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Writing <i>an essay</i>	1	2	3	4	5
e. I use other skills tests like:					
- Vocabulary tests containing <i>select type items (e.g. true-false, matching, and multiple-choice)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Vocabulary tests containing <i>supply type items (e.g. supply spellings, words or phrases)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Grammar tests containing <i>select type items (e.g. true-false, matching, and multiple-choice)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
- Grammar tests containing <i>supply type items (e.g. supply verb forms)</i>	1	2	3	4	5

If you use other formal or informal assessment methods other than the above ones, please specify.....
.....

II. Contents of Assessment

4. In the following table, aspects of learning in the Non-cognitive Domain are listed. Which of these aspects do you look for while you are assessing your students? Please respond to each item by circling a number that best describes your assessment practice.

Scale: 1- Not at all 2- A small extent 3- Some extent 4- A great extent 5- A very great extent

		Items					
Non-cognitive Domain	-	I look for students' <i>personal details</i> (e.g. their names, schools last attended, and their family background)	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I assess their <i>personal beliefs</i> (e.g. their beliefs about learning English)	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I check their <i>emotional and psychological characteristics</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I evaluate their <i>self esteem</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I evaluate their <i>motivation</i> for learning	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I check their <i>learning needs and interests</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I assess their <i>learning style preferences</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I assess their <i>learning strategies</i> (e.g. whether they take risks, focus on meaning/form, or self-correct)	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I assess their <i>learning problems</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I look for their <i>out-of-school activities</i>	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I evaluate their social behaviors during <i>task-related interactions</i> (e.g. their dominance, reticence, cooperativeness, disruptiveness and friendliness)	1	2	3	4	5
	-	I evaluate their social behaviors during <i>non-task-related interactions</i> (e.g. their dominance, reticence, cooperativeness, disruptiveness and friendliness)	1	2	3	4	5
	-	<i>Other</i>	1	2	3	4	5

If you look for **other** student behaviors, please specify its kind.

.....

.....

5. In the following table, aspects of learning in the Cognitive Domain are listed. Which of these aspects do you look for while you are assessing your students? Please respond to each item by circling a number that best describes your assessment practice.

Scale: 1- Not at all 2- A small extent 3- Some extent 4- A great extent 5- A very great extent

Cognitive Domain	Items					
	a. Remembering Ability (Producing the right information from memory):					
	- I assess their <i>recognizing</i> ability (e.g. choosing the correct verb form in a multiple choice question)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I check their <i>recalling</i> ability (e.g. memorizing grammar rules, word meanings and spellings)	1	2	3	4	5
	b. Understanding Ability (Making meaning from learning materials):					
	- I assess their <i>interpreting</i> ability (e.g. paraphrasing or interpreting a story in a reading or listening text)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I assess their <i>exemplifying</i> ability (e.g. giving example during a discussion)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I check their <i>classifying</i> ability (e.g. listing the kinds of verbs after reading a grammar book or attending a lesson)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I assess their <i>summarizing</i> ability (e.g. making up a title for a short passage)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I evaluate their <i>inferring</i> ability (e.g. figuring out the meaning of an unfamiliar term from the context)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I assess their <i>comparing</i> ability (e.g. telling a similar experience or story to the story mentioned in the textbook)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I check their <i>explaining</i> ability (e.g. providing details to justify their reasons in a debate)	1	2	3	4	5
	c. Applying Ability (Using a procedure):					
	- I assess their <i>executing</i> ability (e.g. Orally reading a passage)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I check their <i>implementing or solving</i> ability (e.g. proofreading a piece of writing)	1	2	3	4	5
	d. Analyzing Ability (Breaking a concept down into its parts and describing how the parts relate to the whole):					
	- I check their <i>differentiating</i> ability (e.g. identifying topic and supporting sentences in a paragraph)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I check their <i>organizing</i> ability (e.g. placing jumbled sentences in order to make an effective paragraph)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I assess their <i>attributing</i> ability (e.g. determining a character's motivation in a novel or short story.)	1	2	3	4	5
	e. Evaluating Ability (Making judgments based on criteria):					
	- I assess their <i>checking</i> ability (e.g. listening to a speech and make a list of any contradictions within the speech.)	1	2	3	4	5
	- I assess their <i>critiquing</i> ability (e.g. evaluating the quality of a text or speech based on a given criteria)	1	2	3	4	5
	f. Creating Ability (Putting pieces together to form something new or recognizing components of a new structure):					
- I assess their idea <i>generating</i> ability (e.g. making a set of advices to improve EFL learning)	1	2	3	4	5	
- I check their <i>planning</i> ability (e.g. making an outline to write a formal letter)	1	2	3	4	5	
- I evaluate their <i>producing</i> ability (e.g. writing an essay on a topic)	1	2	3	4	5	

(Bloom's Revised Taxonomy; Adapted from Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001)

III. Purposes of Assessment

6. For what specific purposes do you use **informal assessments**? Please respond to each item by circling a number that best describes your practice.

Scale: 1- Not at all 2- A small extent 3- Some extent 4- A great extent 5- A very great extent

I use informal assessments (such as: observation and oral questioning) in order to:					
A.	monitor students' progress in learning	1	2	3	4 5
B.	manage student behavior	1	2	3	4 5
C.	provide feedback to students	1	2	3	4 5
D.	motivate students to learn	1	2	3	4 5
E.	diagnose student difficulties and take appropriate majors	1	2	3	4 5
F.	stress the main concepts of the lesson	1	2	3	4 5
G.	plan instruction/ what to do next	1	2	3	4 5
H.	determine the amount of time spend on a lesson	1	2	3	4 5
I.	evaluate the effectiveness of instructional activities	1	2	3	4 5
J.	evaluate the effectiveness of my own teaching methodology	1	2	3	4 5
K.	set targets or achievement goals	1	2	3	4 5
L.	determine the final grades for students	1	2	3	4 5
M.	For <i>other</i> purposes	1	2	3	4 5

If any other reason, please specify

.....

7. For what specific purposes do you use **formal assessments/tests**? Please respond to each item by circling a number that best describes your practice.

Scale: 1- Not at all 2- A small extent 3- Some extent 4- A great extent 5- A very great extent

I use formal assessments/ tests in order to:					
A.	To diagnose student difficulties	1	2	3	4 5
B.	To stress the main concepts of the lesson	1	2	3	4 5
C.	To encourage students to work harder	1	2	3	4 5
D.	To set targets or achievement goals	1	2	3	4 5
E.	To provide feedback to students	1	2	3	4 5
F.	To determine the final grades for my students	1	2	3	4 5
G.	To evaluate whether teaching activities achieve their objectives	1	2	3	4 5
H.	To prepare my students for high stakes tests they will need to take in the future	1	2	3	4 5
I.	prepare my students for high stakes tests they will need to take in the future	1	2	3	4 5
J.	For <i>other</i> purposes	1	2	3	4 5

If any other reason, please specify

.....

IV. EFL Teachers' Overall Classroom Assessment Practices

8. To what extent do the following statements describe your overall classroom assessment practice? Please respond to each item by circling a number that best describes your practice.

Scale: 1- Not at all 2- A small extent 3- Some extent 4- A great extent 5- A very great extent

The following statements describe my assessment practice:					
A.	Home works and class works count towards students' final scores	1	2	3	4 5
B.	Class participation counts towards students' final scores	1	2	3	4 5
C.	Observation results (e.g. collected during process of work in a task) count towards students' final scores	1	2	3	4 5
D.	Students' classroom behavior (e.g. being good classroom citizen) counts towards students' final scores	1	2	3	4 5
E.	I mainly use paper-and-pencil test results to determine students' final scores	1	2	3	4 5
F.	I mainly use informal assessment results to determine students' final scores	1	2	3	4 5

(Adapted from Chan, 2003)

9. What kind of written feedback do you provide to your students? (Please give examples.)

a. During class works and home works?

.....

b. On tests and examination papers?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE.

Appendix 5

Questions for Students' Focus Group Discussion

I. Background Information

Date of Discussion

Name of the School Section.....

Name of Students' English Teacher

II. Methods and Procedures of EFL Assessment

(Now I am going to ask you some questions about your English language teacher's classroom assessment practice)

1. What types of formal assessments or tests does your English teacher use to assess your learning? And how often does he/she use such assessment methods? (**Prompts:** reading tests, speaking tests etc; tests including matching, multiple choice, write short answer, etc)

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2. What informal assessment methods does your English teacher use to assess your learning? And how often does he/she use such assessment methods? (**Prompts:** observation, oral questioning, self-assessments, peer-assessments, presentations, portfolios, etc.)

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3. Regarding your English language classroom, what counts towards your final scores?

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.....

4. How many tests/exams does your teacher give you with in a semester?

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.....

5. Does your teacher give you feedback about the work you do in class? (If yes,) What kind? Can you give me examples?

.....
.....

6. Do you get a chance for self-assessment or peer assessment in your English classroom? If yes, how often?

.....
.....

7. Any final comments, questions, or concerns about your English language classroom assessment that you think the teacher or the school needs to address?

.....
.....

Thank you for your time.

Appendix 6

Questions for Students' Focus Group Discussion (Amharic Version)

የቡድን የመወያየ ጥያቄዎች

I. ቅድመ መረጃ

ውይይቱ የተካሄደበት ቀን ሰዓት.....

የትምህርት ቤቱ ስም ክፍል.....

የእንግሊዝኛ መምህሩ ስም.....

II. የእንግሊዝኛ ትምህርት የክፍል ውስጥ ምዘናን በተመለከተ

(አሁን የምጠይቃችሁ የእንግሊዝኛ መምህራችሁ ስለሚያከናውነው የክፍል ውስጥ ምዘና 'Classroom assessment' ይሆናል::)

1. የእንግሊዝኛ መምህራችሁ ምን ዓይነት መደበኛ የምዘና ዘዴዎችን ወይም ፈተናዎችን ይሰጣችኋል? እነዚህን የምዘና ዘዴዎችን ስም ያህል አዘውትሮ ይጠቀማል? (የመነሻ ሀሳብ:- የተለያዩ የቋንቋ ክህሎት ፈተናዎችን፣ ለምሳሌ:-የንባብ ፈተና 'reading tests' ፣ የንግግር ፈተና 'Speaking tests' ወዘተ፤ የተለያዩ ቅርፅ ያላቸው ፈተናዎችን፣ ለምሳሌ:- ምርጫ፣ አዘምድ፣ ጻፍ፣ ወዘተ)

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2. የእንግሊዝኛ መምህራችሁ ስለትምህርት ሂደቱ ኢመደበኛው ምዘና የሚያደርገው እንዴት ነው? እነዚህን የምዘና ዘዴዎችን ስም ያህል አዘውትሮ ይጠቀማል? (የመነሻ ሀሳብ:- የቃል ጥያቄዎችን በመጠየቅ፣ በክፍል ውስጥ የምትሰሩትን በመመልከት፣ ውይይታችሁን በማዳመጥ፣ የራሳችሁን ስራ እንድትገመግሙ በማድረግ፣ የጓደኛችሁን ስራ እንድትገመግሙ በማድረግ፣ የሰራችሁትን እንድታቀርቡ በማድረግ፣ ፖርትፎሊዮ እንድታዘጋጁ በማድረግ፣ ወዘተ)

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3. የእንግሊዝኛ ትምህርትን በተመለከተ አጠቃላይ ውጤታችሁ የሚታሰበው እንዴት ነው?

.....
.....

4. የእንግሊዝኛ መምህራችሁ በሴሚስተር ውስጥ ምን ያህል የፅሁፍ ፈተናዎችን ይፈትናችኋል?

.....
.....

5. የእንግሊዝኛ መምህራችሁ በክፍል ውስጥ ስለምትሰሩት ስራ የማጎልበቻ ሀሳብ ወይም አስተያየት ይሰጣችኋል? (መልሳችሁ <አዎ> ከሆነ) አስተያየቶቹ ምን ይመስላሉ? ምሳሌ ልትሰጡኝ ትችላላችሁ?

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6. በእንግሊዝኛ ትምህርት ክፍል ጊዜ የራሳችሁን ወይም የጓደኛችሁን ስራ የመገምገም ወይም የመመዘን እድል ታገኛላችሁ? (መልሳችሁ «አዎ» ከሆነ) እነዚህን የምዘና ዘዴዎች ምን ያህል አዘውትራችሁ ትጠቀማላችሁ?

.....
.....

7. በመጨረሻ፣ የእንግሊዝኛ ትምህርት የክፍል ውስጥ ምዘናን (classroom assessment) በተመለከተ፣ መምህሩ ወይም ትምህርት ቤቱ ማወቅ አለበት የምትሉት አስተያየት ወይም ጥያቄ ካላችሁ ግለፁ።

.....
.....

ስለሰጣችሁኝ ጊዜ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ።

Appendix 7

A Schedule for Analyzing Assessment Documents

Teacher's code name.....

I. Formal assessment documents

1. Type of the formal assessment:

- Quiz
- Monthly/unit test
- Mid-semester exam
- Semester final exam
- Other

2. What are the language skills that are assessed in this quiz/test/exam?

- Reading skills
- Listening skills
- Writing skills
- Speaking skills
- Grammar
- Vocabulary

3. If **READING** is assessed in this quiz/test/exam, what specific methods are used to assess it?

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.....

.....

4. If **Writing** is assessed in this quiz/test/exam, what specific methods are used to assess it?

.....

.....

.....

5. If **LISTENING** is assessed in this quiz/test/exam, what specific methods are used in it?

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.....

6. If **GRAMMAR** is assessed in this quiz/test/exam, what specific methods are used to assess it?

.....

.....

.....

7. If **speaking** is assessed in this quiz/test/exam, what specific methods are used to assess it?

.....
.....
.....

8. If **vocabulary** is assessed in this quiz/test/exam, what specific methods are used to assess it?

.....
.....
.....

9. What assessment feedbacks were provided to students' after taking this quiz/test/exam?

- a. Only marks
- b. Marks with written comments

(If written comments are provided, describe the nature of the comments.)

.....
.....

II. Informal assessment documents

1. What are the language skills that are frequently assessed in students' exercise books?

- Reading skills
- Listening skills
- Writing skills
- Speaking skills
- Grammar
- Vocabulary

2. What written assessment feedbacks are provided in students' exercise books?

- a. Only marks
- b. Marks with written comments

(If written comments are provided, describe the nature of the comments.) Does he/she provide frequent and descriptive specific feedback to students?

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Appendix 8

Sample Classroom Lesson Extracts from Bole Community School

1. Excerpt from Daniel's Grammar Instruction

Turns	Lesson extracts	Teacher actions	Code
Daniel	The form of the passive... The passive is formed by different forms of the verb 'to be' plus, Ahha?	Leaving the sentence incomplete for students so as to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
SS	V3 (in chorus)		
Daniel	...V3 or past participle form of the verb.	Repeating student's words as an approval of their answer	R
Daniel	Ok. Verb 'to be' in different forms include: am, Ahha?	Leaving the sentence incomplete for students so as to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
SS	Is/Are (in chorus)		
Daniel	Yes. Is, are, was, were.... So, these different forms of verb 'to be' are used to show the time of action or to show the tense.	Repeating student's words as an approval of their answer and providing information	R & Co
Daniel	Now, let's look at different examples of changing active voice into passive voice. e.g. 'The gazelle was killed by the lion'. Now, what is the form of this tense?	Eliciting evidence of what they have understood.	Q
SS	(No response)		
Daniel	Look at the verb form, the verb is, Ahha?.....,	Leaving the sentence incomplete for students so as to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
SS	(Murmuring)		
Daniel	... 'was killed'. From this verb phrase, we can understand that the sentence is in the passive form. So, this is not active. Can you give me now its equivalent active form? Yah, you. I give you the chance to answer it.	Eliciting evidence of what they know.	Q
S1	Umm, the lion, umm, the gazelle kill		
Daniel	The gazelle, what? Ahha? It is not clear. Can you say it again?	Asking for clarification	Cl
S1	Murmur		
Daniel	Another one. Who can give me the equivalent	Eliciting evidence of what	Q

	active form of the sentence?	they know.	
S2	The lion kill the gazelle.		
Daniel	The lion kill the gazelle. No! It should be in the simple past form. Who can correct it?	Providing correction	Co
S3	The lion killed the gazelle		
Daniel	Very good! The lion killed the gazelle.	Demonstrating approval of students' answers	R
Daniel	So, in the simple past, the passive is, Ahha?...., was or were plus, Ahha?...., past participle form of the verb. Ok, Blen. Do you have a question? (Looking at her raising her hand)	Providing information and leaving the sentence incomplete for students so as to elicit evidence of what they know	Co & Q
Blen	Can't we use 'has' or 'have' in the passive?		
Daniel	Ok, to answer Blen's question, 'has' is used in the present perfect tense. Do you remember the present perfect tense? What is the form?	Asking questions to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
SS	Has or have plus V3		
Daniel	Right. Has or have plus past participle form of the main verb.	Demonstrating approval of students' answers	R
Daniel	So, to change such sentences into passive, we use, Ahha?....	Leaving the sentence incomplete for students so as to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
SS	(Inaudible response)		
Daniel	Has or have plus been, plus, ahha?...., past participle form of the verb . Let's see one example on this....	Providing information and leaving the sentence incomplete for students to fill it so as to elicit evidence of what they know	Co & Q
Daniel	Do you have any questions?So, Shall we look at other tenses?	Suggesting what to do next	MF
Daniel	Ok. Now, do exercise 2, numbers 1-5, in your exercise books.	Providing them directions for doing a task	I
S4	Now?		
Daniel	Yes, now! (Later, Daniel moved round the class for few minutes and started marking students exercise books)	Assigns marks for their class work	OP, EP & J

Note: Q = questioning, Cl = clarifying, Co = correction, R = Rewarding or demonstrating approval or disapproval, OP = observing process, J = judging EP = examining product MF = moving forward I = input

2. Excerpt from Daniel's Oral Presentation Classroom

Turns	Lesson extracts	Teacher actions	Code
Daniel	Last time, I gave you an assignment, oral presentation assignment. Have you done it?	Asking confirmation about what has been done	Q
SS	yes (in chorus)		
Daniel	We have eight groups. Who are the group leaders? Group leaders? (after identifying them) Ok, we start our presentation, from Group 1. Group 1 will present about, umm, 'The importance of hygiene'. Ok you can start.	Providing instruction about the task	I
S1	Ok. Hygiene is important for our health... (S1 goes on presenting while the teacher and the students are watching him silently).		
Daniel	(When S1 is done), Very good! Clap your hands for him!	Approving student the student's presentation	R
SS	(Students clapped cheerfully)		
Daniel	Ok. The next group, Group 2. (without commenting or suggesting on the first presentation)	Ordering students to present the oral presentation task	I
S2	(presented his group's speech)		
Daniel	(moved on to the next group with the same pattern)	Ordering students to present the oral presentation task	I
Daniel	(While the last group is presenting, the bell rang), Ok, thank you. Enough. Sit down. There is home work, listen! Your home work is page 58, language use, Exercise 1, numbers 1-10. ...	Providing instruction for next task.	I

Note: Q = questioning R = rewarding I = input

3. Excerpt from Tilahun's Reading Instruction

Turns	Lesson extracts	Teacher actions	Code
Tilahun	Take out your textbook on page 27. There is a reading passage about planning a tour. Page 27. Read the passage carefully and there is a class work. You are going to do exercise 2 from 1-5 in your exercise book.	Providing instruction	I
SS	Shall we do it in our exercise book?		
Tilahun	Yes, but first read the passage on page 28 silently. (without providing any pre-reading task)	Providing additional instruction	I

SS	(only few students immediately engaged in the reading task)		
Tilahun	(moves round the class and orders students in Amharic to take out their textbook and do the reading task), እናንተ ሶስታችሁ! ብዙ ጊዜ ነው ያየኋችሁ! ከክፍል አስወጣችኋለሁ! [You three! I have been watching you disturbing so many times. I will expel you from my class!]	Monitoring seat work	OP
S1	(After some minutes of teacher's repeated observation and monitoring), ጨረስሁ:: ይታረግል? [I have finished. Will you mark it?]		
Tilahun	Ok, I will mark it. (teacher goes on marking as many as 10 students' exercise books and stopped marking to discuss the reading task)	Marking students work	J & EP
Tilahun	Ok that is enough! Let's see it together.	Negotiating with students what to do next	MF
SS	(some students beg Tilahun to check their exercise books too)		
Tilahun	Enough! Enough! Let's do number one.	Negotiating with students what to do next	MF
Tilahun	Who can answer number one based on the passage?	Asking students to elicit what they understand	Q
Tilahun	Tell me the names of places on the first day of the tour? Ok, at the back, Beza? (Looking at her raising her hand)	Asking students to elicit what they understand	Q
Beza	Bishoftu, Adama, Dodola, Dinsho, Goba		
Tilahun	Very Good.	Approving student answer	R
Tilahun	What about on the second day of the tour?	Asking students to elicit what they understand	Q
SS	(More hands raised at this time)		
Tilahun	(He goes on the same pattern in doing the reading task by giving chance only to those who raised their hands)	Asking students to elicit what they understand and approving student answers	Q & R

Note: Q = questioning, R = Rewarding or demonstrating approval or disapproval, OP = observing process, J = judging EP = examining product MF = moving forward I = input

Appendix 9

Sample Classroom Lesson Extracts from Dil Ber Secondary School

1. Excerpt from Solomon's Grammar Instruction

Turns	Lesson Extract	Teacher actions	Code
Solomon:	...alright. Look at the example on page 77, it says 'If you eat too many cakes, you will get fat'. What kind of sentence is it?	Questioning to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
Ss:	(In chorus), If sentence.		
Solomon:	Very nice! If sentence or Conditional sentence!	Demonstrating approval of students' answer	R
Solomon:	Now, when we say conditional sentence, what does it include?	Questioning to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
S1:	(In chorus), If-clause		
Solomon:	Yea! Conditional sentences contain an if-clause or a conditional clause that expresses a condition and a main clause.	Demonstrating approval of students' answer	R
Solomon:	Therefore, most of the time the conditional clause should be introduced by...? What kind of subordinate conjunction?	Leaving the sentence incomplete for students so as to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
Ss:	(In chorus), If!		
Solomon:	'If' or...? Ahha ...? Biniam?	Leaving the sentence incomplete for students so as to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
Biniam:	Will		
Solomon:	Umm, no. will is not a subordinate conjunction. It is an auxiliary verb. Any other answer? Ok, Genet?	Providing correction	Co
Genet	If or unless		
Solomon:	Excellent! 'If' or 'unless'. So, when we use a conditional sentence, there should be the conjunction 'if' or 'unless'. Please write this! (observing that they are not taking notes)	Demonstrating approval of student's answers and observing their physical activity	R & OP
Solomon:	So, these conditional sentences start with the if-clause or the main-clause. Henok! Out of my class! (Observing him misbehaving).	Observing what students are doing	OP

Solomon:	Now, what are the types of conditional sentences? Who can tell me the types of conditional sentences? ‘እሺ’ [ok], Saba?	Questioning them to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
Saba:	Imaginary		
Solomon:	Imaginary condition! Imaginary condition is one, yes. Another? Aha?	Demonstrating approval of students’ answer	R & Q
S2:	General truth		
Solomon:	General truth, aha... ‘እሺ’[ok]?	Demonstrating approval of students’ answer	R & Q
S3:	possible condition		
Solomon:	Yea! Possible or probable condition, number two, Good! The other is...?	Demonstrating approval of students’ answer	R & Q
S4:	Improbable condition		
Solomon:	Yea, Improbable or unlikely condition. So, the three types of conditional sentences are probable, improbable and impossible or imaginary conditions. ...	Demonstrating approval of students’ answer and	R
Solomon:	There is also a name called ‘Zero condition’. What does it mean? ‘Zero condition’, ‘እሺ’ [ok] Eyoel?	eliciting evidence of what they know	Q
Eyoel:	... Which express general truth		
Solomon:	Very nice! A conditional sentence which expresses general truth. Can you tell me an example of a zero conditional sentence? Yes, Ermias?	Demonstrating approval of students’ answer and eliciting evidence of what they know	R & Q
Ermias:	Water boils at 100 degree centigrade.		
Solomon:	No! It must have an if-clause and a main-clause. ‘እሺ’ [ok] Yonatan?	Providing correction	Co
Yonatan:	If you boil water, it evaporates.		
Solomon:	Very nice! If you boil water, it evaporates. We can’t say ‘it will evaporates’. You know the reason why? Who can tell me? Yes, Saba?	Demonstrating approval of students’ answer and eliciting evidence of what they know	R & Q
Saba:	Because it is generally true.		
Solomon:	Very nice! Very nice! When we say this... look... it is always true that when you boil it, it evaporates, in the past, now and in the future. So, both the if-clause and the main-clause in the zero conditional sentences should be simple present tense.	Demonstrating approval of students’ answer	R
Solomon:	‘እሺ’ [ok]. Today we are going to study about	Asking them to elicit	

	conditional Type I. ... Now, who can tell me the tense of the if-clause in conditional Type I sentences? Yes?	evidence of what they know.	Q
S7:	Simple present tense		
Solomon:	It should be simple present tense! Very nice! And the tense of main-clause?	Demonstrating approval of their answer and eliciting evidence of what they know	R & Q
Ss:	(In chorus) simple future		
Solomon:	Yes, simple future. Good! Ok, this future tense is expressed by using words like will, shall, may, etc. Now, who can give me an example sentence? Adisalem?	Demonstrating approval of their answer and eliciting evidence of what they know	R & Q
Adisalem:	If I know the answer, I will tell you.		
Solomon:	Yes! If I know the answer, I will tell you.	Demonstrating approval of their answer	R
Solomon:	‘እሺ፣ ኤክሰርሳይስ ቱን በደብተራችሁ ስሩት’ [Ok. Do exercise two in your exercise book]	Ordering them to do a task	I
Solomon:	(T spends the rest of the class time by rounding and marking students’ class works)	Checking students’ work and giving marks	EP & J

Note: Q = questioning, Co = correction, R = Rewarding or demonstrating approval or disapproval, OP = observing process, J = judging EP = examining product I = input

2. Excerpt from Tewodros' Reading Instruction

Turns	Lesson Extract	Teacher actions	Code
Tewodros:	...Take out your text book on page 41. ... Last time, we have discussed about various kinds of crafts. Now, on page 41 there is a passage. Read the passage and do exercise on in your exercise book.	Ordering them what to do	I
SS	(chatter)		
Tewodros:	Keep quit and do the class work! (observing them not engaged in the task) (He also moved round the class for few minutes while they are doing the reading comprehension task)	Checking their engagement in the task	OP
Tewodros:	(After waiting for about ten minutes, Tewodros started checking their exercise book)	Checking the work and giving marks	EP & J
Tewodros:	Ok enough. I think it is easy. Let's do it together (After checking 6-8 students' exercise books)	Negotiating with students what to do next	MF
Ss	'አረ ቲቸር! የኛን አረምህም!' [Please teacher! You didn't mark our exercise book]		
Tewodros:	Enough! Enough! 'ሌላ ጊዜ!' [Another time].	Negotiating with students what to do next	MF
Tewodros:	Who can answer question number 1? "Why did Weizro Hinia collect many different materials?"	Asking student to check what they understand from the reading passage	Q
S1	she is the head of, umm, the Arts and Crafts Department of Asosa Secondary School		
Tewodros:	Very good! Because she is the head of the Arts and Crafts Department of Asosa Secondary School and she decided to organize an Arts and Crafts Club at the school	Demonstrating approval of students' answer	R
Tewodros:	Ok, question Number 2 "What did the school do on Parents' Day?" Yes, Selam.	Asking student to check what they understand from the reading passage	Q
Selam:	Lots of students joined the club		
Tewodros:	Lots of students joined the club. Umm, no. It's not that. 'አሺ' [Ok] Ermias.	Providing correction	Co
Ermias:	The school held a craft fair		
Tewodros:	Excellent! The school held a craft fair	Demonstrating approval of students' answer	

Tewodros: Question Number 3, ... (He continued discussing about the comprehension questions in the same pattern)	Asking student to check what they understand from the reading passage	Q
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Note: Q = questioning, Co = correcting, R = Rewarding or demonstrating approval or disapproval, OP = observing process, J = judging EP = examining product, MF = moving forward, I = input

3. Excerpt from Tewodros' Writing Lesson

(Tewodros instructed students to copy the writing task from the board. He wrote fifteen questions on the blackboard. The questions are indicated as follows)

Writing Task

Re-arrange the following words and phrases in order to make a meaningful sentence.

1. The field/ the/ playing/ are/ boys/ on
2. Ethiopian/ known/ a well / Haile/ athlete/ is
3. Eyeglasses/ his/ he/ looking/ is/ for
4. Have/ I/ taken/ six/ the/ tests/ all
5. Humans/ computers/ better/ can think/ than/ in/ some/ ways
6. To/ necessary/ habits/ sometimes/ it/ change/ our/ is
7. She/ was/ of/ her/ youth/ at/ that/ time/ in/ the/ prime
8. Are/ cannot/ people/ happy/ who/ be/ quarreling
9. That/ lived/ in/ halls/ I/ dreamt/ I/ marble
10. Ago/ is/ years/ lovely/ we/ two/ stayed/ hotel/ the/ in
11. Boring/ it/ thing/ do/ everyday/ same/ to/ is/ the
12. Sister/ in/ make/ would/ my/ that/ rice/ not/ sauce pan
13. Prisoner/ the/ found/ jury/ the/ guilty
14. Leaf/ the/ yellow/ changed
15. Teachers/ of/ the/ elected/ unit/ a/ most/ leader/ as/ Getachew

(Then, after moving round the class and observing them for about fifteen minutes, he started correcting and marking students' works and went on until the end of the class time.)

Appendix 10

Sample Classroom Lesson Extracts from Yekatit 23 Secondary School

1. Excerpt from Mesfin's Grammar Instruction

Turns	Lesson Extract	Teacher actions	Code
Mesfin:	...reported speech is reporting what someone has said. ...We can have two kinds of speeches: direct speech and indirect speech. ... What is direct speech? And what is indirect speech?	Questioning to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
S1:	Direct speech is single, umm, one person, indirect speech is many persons.		
Mesfin:	No! It is not related with number. Any other? Ok, Abel.	Providing correction	Co
Abel:	Direct speech is the direct talk by a person but indirect is reported speech.		
Mesfin:	Very good. Direct speech is a speech with the exact words of the speaker but indirect speech is reporting without using the exact words of the speaker. Now who can give me an example sentence for each of these speech types? Yes?	Demonstrating approval of student's answers and questioning them to elicit more evidence of what they know	R & Q
S2:		
Mesfin:	Ok, but there are some grammar problems with the sentences. Ok, look at the example from the textbook on page 110. Read the first and second sentence. I don't know. I said I don't know. Which sentence is indirect speech?	Questioning to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
Ss:	(In chorus), Sentence 2		
Mesfin:	Very good! Sentence 2 is indirect speech. Now, when we report what someone said, we change the pronouns in a sentence.... E.g. He said "I am going to Gondar." Now, tell me the indirect speech of this sentence.	Demonstrating approval of student's answers and questioning them to elicit more evidence of what they know	R & Q
S3:	He said he, umm, is going to Gondar.		
Mesfin:	Umm, ok. But there is still something wrong with your sentence. Who can correct it?	Indicating error and asking for correction	Co
S4:	He said I am going to Gondar.		
Mesfin:	No! The first answer was correct but you are asked to correct the tense. Ok, Abel.	Indicating error for correction	Co
Abel:	He said he was going to Gondar.		
Mesfin:	Excellent! The tense should also go one step back in time; i.e. If it is simple present, the	Demonstrating approval of student's answers	R

	indirect speech should be in simple past...		
Mesfin:	(After lecturing for about 5 minutes), now do exercise 4, number 1-8 on page 111.	Ordering them to do a task	I
Ss:	(students engaged in doing the class work)		
Mesfin:	(moved round the class for about 5 minutes and started marking their work)	Checking students' work and giving marks	OP, EP & J

Note: Q = questioning, Co = correction, R = Rewarding or demonstrating approval or disapproval, OP = observing process, J = judging EP = examining product I = input

2. Excerpt from Yohannes' Reading Instruction

Turns	Lesson Extract	Teacher actions	Code
Yohannes:	... Ok, the reading passage on page 32. Take out your book on page 32. It says "The Simien Mountains". Now, Who can tell me the names of national parks in Ethiopia?	Questioning to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
S1	Bale Mountain		
Yoahannes:	Very good! Bale Mountain National Park, ok, ahha,	Approval of students' responses	R
S2:	Fasiledes Gondar		
Yohannes:	Umm, Fasiledes is not a national park. It is a castle. What is a castle?	Correcting and questioning to elicit evidence of they know	Co & Q
S3:	ቤተ መንግሥት [a king's house]		
Yohannes:	Yes. It is a king's house. So it is not a park. Can you tell me another national park? Ok, Hana	Approval of students' responses and questioning to elicit evidence of they know	R & Q
Hana:	Nechi Sar national park		
Yohannes:	Excellent! Nechi Sar National Park.... What about other tourist sites in Ethiopia?	Approval of students' responses and questioning to elicit evidence of they know	R & Q
S2 :	Lalibela		
Yohannes:	Very good, Lalibela. Ok, another?	Approval of students' responses and questioning	R & Q
S4:	Axum		
Yohannes:	Yes, Axum. Do you know where it is found?	Approval of students' responses and questioning	R & Q
Ss:	Axum/ Tigray		
Youhannes:	Yes, it is found in Axum Town in Tigray region.... Ok, do you know any other places for	Approval of students' responses and	R & Q

	visit?	questioning	
S1:	Harar		
Yohannes:	Good, the Wall of Hahar.... Now, where is Simien Mountains found?	Approval of students' responses and questioning	R & Q
S5:	Gondar		
Yohannes:	Yes, it is found in North Gondar. Ok, read the passage on page 32 and do exercise 4 numbers 1-6.	Approval of students' responses and questioning	R & Q
Ss:	(students engaged in doing the class work)		
Yohannes:	(moved round the class for about 5 minutes and started marking their work)	Checking students' work and giving marks	OP, EP & J

Note: Q = questioning, Co = correction, R = Rewarding or demonstrating approval or disapproval, OP = observing process, J = judging EP = examining product

3. Excerpt from Yohannes' Writing Lesson

Turns	Lesson Extract	Teacher actions	Code
Yohannes:	... Punctuation marks include: question mark, full stop, comma ... When do we use full stop?	Questioning to elicit evidence of what they know	Q
S1	At the end of a sentence		
Yohannes:	Well, a sentence is broad but.... when do we use full stop?	Correcting	Co
S2:	At the end of a statement		
Yohannes:	Very good. At the end of a statement and an imperative sentence. We also use it...	Approving student's answer	R
Yohannes:	(After lecturing the same way about other punctuation marks) Now, do the writing task on page 79 in your exercise book.		I

The Writing Task (p.79)

Rewrite this Passage with the Correct Punctuation:

where are you going asked fanose

i am going to the market to buy lots of food and drink my cousin aret is coming to visit me from addis ababa and she enjoys eating lots of healthy foods she leads a very healthy lifestyle replied almaz

what are you going to buy asked fanose

i am going to buy lots of fresh fruit and vegetables and rice she also likes fish so i will buy some tuna and salmon for dessert i will buy a cake as treat for her as she doesn't eat sweet foods very often said almaz

how long is your cousin staying asked fanose

she will be staying for two nights i am looking forward to seeing her why doesn't you join us for dinner tonight said almaz

i would love to replied fanose what time shall i come

eight o'clock, see you latter

see you latter i will bring some fresh fruit juice for us to enjoy said fanose