An Investigation of secondary student perceptions of fairness about assessment processes implemented by their teachers

Tania Blazevic

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An Investigation of Secondary Student Perceptions of Fairness about Assessment Processes Implemented by their Teachers

Tania Blazevic

This thesis is presented in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

School of Education
Edith Cowan University

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USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.
Abstract

This research investigated the effects of secondary school teachers’ assessment practices on students’ perceptions of fairness in Croatia. It focused on the extent to which teachers implemented consistent assessment practices and made judgements of student achievements, and how this affected students’ perceptions.

The need for assessment influences its creation and implementation, which in turn influences the outcomes. Teachers’ assessment of students is an ongoing practice in schools in Croatia, both officially and unofficially, and questions about consistent application have persisted. This research was motivated by a confrontation with a disgruntled student and set in motion an examination of teachers’ application of assessment criteria to determine whether the end result was judged to be fair.

The research design was both empirical and quasi-ethnographic in interpreting teachers’ and students’ perceptions to fully understand the context. Student questionnaires, teacher interviews and teacher assessment documents were used to collect data and analyse the case studies, each represented by a teacher and two classrooms of students studying either Biology, Croatian or English. The participants comprised secondary school students from two respective high schools in Split.

Students completed a questionnaire comprised of statements with Likert-scale responses modelled on the Student Perception of Assessment Questionnaire (SPAQ), and open-ended questions based on a questionnaire developed at the Centre for Schooling and Learning Technologies (CSaLT). The SPAQ items were ranked according to five scales. At their interviews, teachers were asked to provide documents illustrating their assessment of students in their subjects. The documents were analysed to assist with interpreting the survey and interview data, and interestingly, not only revealed differences in responses between teachers and subjects, but also differences between the responses of students in two classes who were taught the same subject by the same teacher.

Despite a positive assessment rating by students, the findings showed several inconsistencies compromised the fairness of teacher assessments, particularly in oral examinations, a substantial form of assessment for all subjects in Croatia. This research is the first of its kind and suggests that oral examination should be reviewed, and additional steps taken to improve consistency in teacher application of assessment. In the meantime, for as long as it continues, consistency can and should be enhanced to ensure fairer
outcomes for students, since positive learning experiences are known to holistically inculcate enthusiastic and affirmative attitudes towards education.
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To my children and my supervisors both living and deceased. They represent sources of inspiration, tribulation and resolution.
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Definition of Terms

Educational Assessment: The process of documenting knowledge, performance, skills, attitudes and perceptions of students within an education establishment (Wright, 2008). In this research, assessment focused on implementation of the assessment process by teachers with individual learners, i.e. students.


Consistency: Refers to someone always behaving or performing in a similar way (Cole & Ziecky, 2001; Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2013),


Judgement: The ability to form value opinions and make good decisions (Cambridge Dictionary, 2015).

Student = assessee = stakeholder (Short & Greer, 2002): The student being assessed by the teacher.

Teacher = assessor = stake determiner: The teacher in charge of assessing the student (Furman, 2009).


Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study

Perception is in the eye of the beholder. I was certainly convinced of that during my teaching career both in Australia and overseas, but it was especially highlighted for me while teaching English as a second language and legal English at the University of Split in Croatia.

Formerly a part of Yugoslavia, Croatia is a European country in transition from communism to a democratic system of government. Democracy was achieved after a majority referendum vote and an ensuing four-year long Homeland War for Independence. Split is an ancient city nestled on the Mediterranean. It is a melting pot of many historical influences, including the remnants of Austro-Hungarian rule.

That same sense of acceptance people had become accustomed to in their daily lives was not reflected in the Croatian education system. Students frequently complained about the inconsistency of teachers’ assessment of their work and the unfairness of the education system. Many claimed they had been awarded poor grades as payback for behaviour their teacher disapproved of or forgetting to bring items to class, and believed they were in fact assessed on how much the teacher liked them. In their opinion, students who were “liked” by teachers and complied with their agendas received better grades than others, as did students who were able to regurgitate curriculum content without learning anything. Those who did not conform were punished, often in the form of poor grades.

Students’ bags were filled with books; the limited contents of which formed the basis of all subject assessments. Oral assessments were common. Students were observed flaunting their unpreparedness when it was their turn to present in oral examination or oral assessment. Also, I gradually became aware that students believed teachers’ attitudes towards them were negative when it came to assessment, that teachers wanted to focus on what students did not know, and of the stress students were under when they had to orally answer assessment questions in front of the class.

These circumstances led me to investigate teachers’ assessments of secondary students’ work and students’ perceptions of fairness. Assessment is a critical component of curriculum and pedagogy that influences the behaviour of both students and teachers. This is particularly crucial in secondary school where the outcomes have far-reaching
consequences and the stakes are high, since students’ results impact on their career options, educational opportunities and employment prospects, how they are perceived by others and how they perceive themselves. As a result, students have persistently raised questions about the fairness of assessment processes and practices, highlighting the need for consistency and equitable opportunities for students to be evaluated on their knowledge and skills (Cole & Ziecky, 2001). Two secondary schools were used for the purposes of this research. These schools were both grammar schools or gymnasias. Secondary schools in Croatia require students’ primary school grade average for admission. Students’ grade average is ranked. Grammar schools require the highest grade averages from students, followed by vocational schools, and then trade schools which students, statically speaking, with the lowest grade average attended.

Croatia, since entry into the European Union, is undergoing curricular reform. Its education system is under review in an effort to improve the system. Assessment is just one aspect of the education system in need of reform. Assessment is an underexplored area in Croatia. It is hope that this research will assist in identifying issues in need of reform as well as uncovering strategies to assist this process.

In Croatia, students must gain at least a grade average of 3 on a scale of passing grades from 2 to 5, in addition to successful matura completion to gain a place at university. Furthermore, they must pass all 17 secondary school subjects in the matriculation year to sit the matura, otherwise they must wait until they have passed any failed subject/s before being permitted to do so. This is not in the students’ interests because university places are mostly full after the first matura session and before the second matura session takes place. There are two matura sessions, one taking place in June and one in September for students who have failed in June. Alternatively, students can wait until the following year’s session to pass the relevant subject/s before taking the matura. This also applies to students who pass all their subjects, but only in the second matura session in any year.

There has been limited research into fairness as an ongoing interactive process between assessee and assessor; in this case, students and teachers. Delandshere (2002) noted that fairness can be viewed from a simply technical perspective, such as correctly adding up test marks. The very nature of assessment implies an imbalance of power, where students are at the behest of teachers who make decisions about their performance (Pellegrino, Chudowsky, & Glaser, 2001). Since it is the student whose performance is
being assessed and the teacher who carries out the assessment there are likely to be factors that affect the process, some related to the assessment itself and others to the student and/or teacher.

In assessing student performance, teachers make an evaluation or judgement within a particular context against some form of criteria or in comparison with the performance of others. Typically, the context includes an assessment task and evidence of performance in the form of a piece of writing, a selection of responses to questions or an audio-visual recording. Performance can be judged against implicit and/or explicit criteria and communicated in a number of ways, often presented as a numerical score or grade (Grgin, 2001). It is also possible for teachers’ personal judgements to influence student results (Strahinić, 2011) and for this reason it is vital for all forms of educational assessment to adhere to strict values, stringent assessment criteria and consistent standards of fairness (Gordon & Fay, 2010).

The ways in which decisions about assessment criteria are made and applied to student performance have been widely acknowledged to affect perceptions of fairness (Canal, Bonini, Micciolo, & Tentori, 2012). Currently, explicitly stated criteria assist teachers in making judgements by specifying what students must achieve in particular assessment tasks and usually indicate how judgements will be presented, as in a particular set of scores or grades representing achievement against prescribed criteria (Fastre, van der Klink, & van Merriënboer, 2010).

Fairness in assessment is not only affected by factors related to the context and the task, but also issues associated with judging performance, particularly assessment criteria. The nature of criteria, how they relate to the assessment task and the manner in which they are implemented are all likely to affect students’ perceptions of fairness. Brookhart (2013) recommended teachers refrain from referring to aspects of “non-achievement” and avoid negative feedback on student performance. Brookhart also advocated for criteria to relate only to performance of the task under assessment in order to mitigate against bias and be a true and accurate evaluation of student performance. These are some of the possible negative effects of poorly implemented teacher assessment.

In Croatia, students frequently question consistency in the application of assessment criteria. Grgin (2001) argued that criteria must be applied consistently for them to be considered fair and to refute perceptions of unfairness and favouritism. In their study,
Gordon and Faye (2010) found perceptions of unfairness manifested in a sense of injustice, potentially leading students to disengage more broadly from educational processes and endeavours. It is clear that a reputation for fairness and fostering education rests largely on assessments being viewed as a consistent and equitable process. This research was aimed at enhancing outcomes for secondary school students in Croatia by uncovering the reasons for inconsistencies in teachers’ assessment practices and making recommendations for improvements.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

In Croatia, judgements of performance are frequently perceived by students as inaccurate and unfair, leading to feelings of injustice (Brown 2011; Strahinić, 2011) and raising questions about consistency in assessment practices.

This research examined teacher-controlled assessment because this form of assessment is believed to impact more significantly on student perceptions of fairness than external assessments (Bandalos, 2004). It underpins a belief that education is not merely about reporting to authorities, as believed by some to be the purpose of mandated external assessment. On the other hand, teacher-controlled assessments present an opportunity for teachers to promote positive perceptions by adhering to fair and relevant assessment practices and supporting the true goals of education. While external assessments are claimed to be fair, there are likely to be discrepancies between what authorities expect and what they actually achieve (Brookhart, 2004). Teacher-controlled assessments can address that discrepancy.

Fairness and equity are fundamental in education and quality assessment practices, such as setting appropriate tasks and applying relevant criteria, are prerequisites (Canal, 2012). This research examined the reasons for perceptions of unfairness amongst secondary students in Croatia.

1.3 Significance of Study

In Australia there are processes in place for ensuring consistent assessments. Moderation is one procedure used by teachers to ensure consistency and comparability. However, in light of teachers’ varying assessment practices and attitudes, even the fairness of moderation can be challenged (Wyatt-Smith, Klenovski,& Gunn, 2010). Therefore, study undertaken in this area needed to be examined.
The objective of the current research was to investigate how Croatian teachers ascribed value to their students’ work and made judgements for assessment purposes. In doing so, it considered the nature of cognitive and social practices in the application of assessment criteria. The study was undertaken on the premise that assessments do not only have a metric or numerical value, but also psychological, pedagogical, sociological and legal effects (Grgin, 2001).

As adopted in this study, Grgin recommended a docimological approach for analysing the factors hindering achievement of a grade in school assessment. The term docimology consists of two Greek words: dokimos meaning tested or proven, and logos meaning truth or scientific (Grgin, 2001). The author proposed two docimological approaches to assessment: a) identify the negative factors that influence assessment and grading by compromising impartiality and invalidating the results; and b) remove negative factors through increased consistency in the application of assessment criteria and procedures.

It can be concluded that hindrances to consistent teacher assessment of students exist. These include teacher bias in judgement. Furthermore, analysing these hindrances can cause the emergence of processes, for example moderation and criteria application, which can be implemented to improve consistency in this teacher assessment.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of teacher assessments on students’ performance and their perceptions, with the aim of promoting fairer and more accurate outcomes. Grgin (2001) argued that pleasing the teacher exerts a negative influence on assessment processes and practices and is wholly unrelated to demonstration of knowledge. In this study there was evidence of students espousing opinions and exhibiting behaviours to please their teachers; and being awarded high marks in return. Such practices sparked anger and frustration (Canal, 2012), not to mention randomly applied and inappropriate criteria that exacerbated student dissatisfaction in not just assessments, but school education in general (Strahinić, 2011). Teachers can implement practices which jeopardise the fairness and accuracy of teacher assessment of students.

Fairness in assessments can be achieved by consistent and uniform application of criteria, appropriately aligned with what they are describing. The extent of deviation from criteria was also measured in this study, as was the extent to which not explicitly stated
criteria were applied. In addition, clarification was sought about the degree to which external factors influenced teachers’ judgements.

Finally, an understanding of students’ perceptions of assessment in terms of consistency and uniformity was gained, since perceptions can have far-reaching implications for learning and other aspects of self. As described by van de Watering, Gijbels, Dochy, and van de Rijt (2008), students are all members of society, affected by processes imposed on them.

1.5 Statement of the Problem

This research investigated the effects of teacher assessment practices on students’ perceptions of fairness in Croatian secondary schools. In secondary education students are continually assessed by teachers and consistent practices are critical for mitigating against negative perceptions, since they are likely to permeate other aspects of their learning.

There is an acknowledged obligation for teachers to assess students. In the first instance, assessments are imposed by external authorities like the Croatian Education Department, who demand regular assessment for student ranking. Whether formally or informally, teachers are constantly assessing their students and have almost become programmed to reach some form of judgement about their students’ performance. This pervasive need for assessment influences the creation and implementation of criteria and tasks, and in turn, influences assessment outcomes.

It is hoped that this research will improve the fairness and accuracy of evaluations and foster positive perceptions, not only of assessments, but learning in general for all stakeholders. Given that assessments are considered high stakes, this study has the potential to change practice in constructive and affirmative ways, and form the foundation of improved outcomes for all stakeholders.

1.6 Research Questions

The main research question of the study was:

**How do assessment practices and processes, including the consistency of teacher judgements in secondary school assessments, influence student perceptions of fairness in Croatia?**

The following subsidiary questions supported the main question:
1. What perceptions do Croatian secondary school students hold about the fairness of assessments?

2. To what extent are Croatian teachers consistent in their implementation of assessment processes and application of assessment criteria to students’ work in secondary school subjects, and how do these influence students’ perceptions of fairness?

3. What practices are used by Croatian teachers in secondary school subject/s to improve their consistency in applying assessment criteria, and how do these influence student perceptions of fairness?

The literature review in the next chapter outlines the relevant research aligned with the research questions as the basis for investigating the consistency with which teachers carried out assessments in Croatia.
Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter reviews the relevant literature related to assessments and learning, teacher assessment practices and students’ perceptions of assessment practices. The relationship between assessment and learning is discussed, in particular the need for assessments, as well as associated processes, practices and perceptions, including reliability and validity. This is followed by an overview of oral versus written assessment tasks and authentic assessment. The creation and application of assessment criteria are outlined, as is the importance of adhering to consistent and reliable judgements for equitable outcomes. Finally, the literature review formed the basis of a conceptual framework reflecting the issues underlying student perceptions of teacher assessments, consistency of teacher assessment practices and the extent to which teachers used these practices.

2.1 Assessment and Learning

Assessment is a ubiquitous concept in education and indeed in life in general. Assessment is the action of evaluating someone or something to determine amount, quality or value (Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2017). Stang and Pearson (2006) viewed assessments as a significant and valuable means of examining student teachers’ evaluations and outcomes of educational programs. Assessments are also useful for investigating beliefs and guiding actions, and have been largely responsible for steering educational reform (Masters, 2013). Masters noted that international examinations such as PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) assess students’ competence in various subjects around the world, and many countries use these results to determine further action and/or change in their educational systems.

Some researchers expressed the view that assessment is so closely related to learning that negative outcomes can be dangerous when they impact on students’ motivations to learn (Furman, 2009; King & Olleddick, 1989; Strahinić, 2011). From the perspective of teachers, an aspect of learning to be considered is increasing their own knowledge of how students learn best and identifying areas that need improvements.

Assessment in education has received much attention (Darling-Hammond, 2014) because they are subject to teachers’ and students’ judgements of what is most important
(McGaw, 2006). Assessments themselves can be good or bad depending on the factors they are based on (Norcini et al., 2011).

2.1.1 The Need for Assessment

Human beings have always made assessments; in particular, educational assessments have been concerned with making decisions, formulating information and judgements about students. Educational assessment involves collecting and interpreting evidence to make decisions about student performance. From the collected evidence, judgements are made and communicated, and result in certain outcomes (Harlen, 2007). Carmines and Zeller (1979) contended good measurement is an essential part of life on the premise that accurate measurement leads to accurate conclusions. All of the aforementioned authors focused on issues of reliability and identified three types of validity: criterion, content and construct validity. They used factor analysis for assessing reliability and determining the relationship between personality traits and political attitudes of high school students, and recommended theoretical guidance for interpreting the results.

In Croatia and Australia we are accustomed to assessment as being a requirement of the educational system. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development or OECD, of which Australia is a member (2005), reported that assessments are a quintessential part of the educational process, capable of promoting high levels of student performance, equitable outcomes and learning skills. Assessments also inform teachers about their work practices and can be used to judge the effects of local and/or national education initiatives and for comparing education outcomes between nations.

Assessment outcomes can be communicated by way of student report cards, external examinations or talking to colleagues and parents about students. Assessment is a systematic approach to gathering information in order to make further decisions (Yukon Department of Education, 2016). Processes include questioning, discussions, interviews, student reflections, teacher and education department tests and examinations, portfolios and observations. All these facilitate judging the performance of students for a range of purposes, including decisions on educational pathways and placement of students. In his interviews with Croatian teachers, Strahinić (2011) pointed out that not one teacher expressed any opposition to grading and accepted assessments as an intrinsic part of their role.
The Education Department in Croatia is responsible for overseeing education, so one would expect them to recruit relevant experts in the field. Strahinić (2011) was of the view that official bodies, like the Croatian Education Department, introduced grading in schools, and in turn, this has held the institution of schooling together. None of the Croatian teachers interviewed for this research expressed resistance to grading and viewed assessment as a disciplinary measure for both teachers and students. In contrast, Strahinić (2011) believed grading did not promote any positive benefits and advocated for its abolition if schools are to become institutions of learning. He urged that assessments not be used as a disciplinary measure, often the case in the Croatian school system, nor to punish inappropriate student behaviour or reward desired behaviour. Instead, they should respect the dignity of both students and their parents (Scott, Webber, Lupart, Aitken, & Scott, 2014).

The role of assessments has been of increasing interest to official bodies and professionals (Klenowski, 2011), particularly in view of the high stakes for students. In Australia, assessments form a critical component of education programs. For example, Program for International Student Assessment or PISA (Thomson & De Bortoli, 2008), was first conducted in 2000 and repeated every subsequent three years with a view to improving education policies and outcomes. The data have increasingly been used to assess the impact of education quality on incomes and growth, and for understanding differences in achievements across nations. Test design, implementation and data analysis were delegated to an international consortium of educational research institutions led by ACER to develop and implement sampling procedures and assist with monitoring outcomes across countries (PISA 2009 Technical Report, 2012).

Furthermore, institutions such as the Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) are very much concerned with a variety of educational issues, including assessment (Klenowski, 2011). ACARA was responsible for devising a national curriculum for all students in Australia that would introduce uniformity and consistency to student learning. This body also introduced the National Assessment Program– Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN), an annual assessment for students in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9, and an accepted part of the school calendar since 2008 (Perso, 2009). The inclusion of mandated assessments by ACARA and their nationwide application infer that they should be uniform and consistent for all students.
Further to the introduction of a national school curriculum in Australia, ACARA foreshadowed a more comprehensive national assessment program (Klenowski, 2011). The National Assessment Program (NAP) includes tests endorsed by the Ministerial Council for Education and Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs (MCEECDYA) that include three annual sample assessments in science literacy, civics and citizenship, and ICT literacy. The national results of student performance in these subjects are used for comparing schools.

In Croatia, national curriculum reforms are taking place to align education with current European Union trends. The Ministry of Education is attempting to reform several aspects of education, including assessments (Agencija za odgoj i obrazovanje, 2017). Under review are a reduction in the number of subjects, currently over 20 in certain years of secondary school, and the assignment of textbooks, in some cases burdening students unnecessarily and encouraging rote learning. There is a dire need for assessments to generate more efficient educational outcomes, and curricula reforms are still being written to bring about improvements. The results of this research provide insights that can inform educational reforms and improvements.

National education institutions are charged with monitoring student achievement and ensuring schools meet their obligations. Several researchers have investigated assessment processes, practices and their outcomes in various countries to gain a better understanding of assessment in education (Dayal & Lingham, 2015; De Luca et al., 2013; Mac Mahone & Jones, 2015). McGaw (2006) examined the relationship between the various purposes of assessments and their outcomes. These authors are among many in different parts of the world who researched assessment in education and drew comparisons between countries to deepen our understanding of the issues.

Stobart (2010) talked about assessments of the future rather than assessments of the past, believing that they went beyond the mere task at hand and prepared students for the future. The author proposed carrying out assessments in a forward direction, with a view to the future challenges students are likely to encounter. Rather than focusing on regurgitation, he claimed, teaching should promote critical thinking and develop problem-solving skills.

Barnes, Fives, and Dacey (2017; 2015) recommended an assessment structure comprised of three factors: a) assessment as valid for accountability; b) assessment for
teaching and learning; and c) assessment as irrelevant. The first two factors referred to awarding grades, placing students into specific groups and the obligation of educational institutions to demonstrate student achievement that qualified them for entry into careers and other areas of society. In their classification of assessment as irrelevant, Barnes et al. were alluding to the purpose of assessment in providing instructional improvement for teachers who lacked confidence.

Implicit in these aims is an expectation for assessment practices to be fair and equitable. Anecdotally however, this was not the case, and ultimately led to the current study that includes an inventory of what is in place and what is needed to improve practice and promote positive student perceptions.

2.1.2 Assessment Processes

Assessment involves a number of processes: determining what is going to be assessed, what form the assessment will take, creating the task, implementing the task, judging the performance of the task and reporting on the evidence. Since conclusions are drawn from the outcomes and form the basis of educational decisions with far-reaching effects, it is important for all aspects of assessment to adhere to principles of fairness and equity.

Processes are generally organised and facilitated by teachers (Brookhart, 2015; Strahinic, 2011), often to comply with the requirements of education authorities or school leaders. Both teachers and students accept this as an intrinsic part of formal education and understand the transformation of their respective roles into assessor and assessee (Domovic, 2004).

Furman (2009) talked about the negative effects of formal assessment on students, despite which teachers are obliged to comply with their teaching requirements. Even in the face of negative reaction, the entire school community accepts the role of formal assessment and it continues to take place. This is also true of Croatia, where teachers are viewed as the sole assessors of knowledge, rather than facilitators of student learning and self-assessment (Pivac, 2009).

2.1.3 Assessment Practices

Assessment practices are different from processes in that the latter encompasses sets of activities, whereas the former refers to the specific actions taken. Scott, Webber, Lupart, Aitken, and Scott (2014) believed assessment methods must be accurate and align
with purpose and context, scoring procedures must be appropriate, interpretation of the results must be accurate, and communication of the results must be clear. In a study of assessments using student questionnaires and interviews, Scott et al. identified examples of fairness and equity, and recommended improvements in teachers’ professional abilities to conduct assessments. The authors also proposed knowledge and understanding of student diversity in order to achieve optimal results, and for training to continue throughout teachers’ careers.

According to Scott et al. (2014), equitable assessment practices must be promoted at all levels. They believed assessments should be fair, non-discriminatory and reflected in education policy and practice, and called upon the entire school community to strive for fairness and equity. Klenowski (2013) defined the concept of fairness in assessment as equal opportunities for students to demonstrate their acquisition of knowledge and skills, while taking into consideration the social context. The literature claims affording all students the same chance to demonstrate their abilities under the same conditions were key factors in fairness and students’ perceptions of fairness (Alm and Colnerud, 2015; Brookhart, 2015; & Scott et al., 2014). In addition to considering the consequences of assessment, they suggested taking into account resources and access to resources leading up to assessments. In another examination of student perceptions of assessments, McMillan and Workman (1988) (cited by Alkharusi, 2015) observed a tendency for teachers to individualise assessments, leading to varied and inconsistent practices.

2.1.4 Perceptions of Assessment

For the purposes of this research, teacher assessment means assessment of students by the teacher. Assessment practices have been shown to lead to widely differing student perceptions of teacher assessment. The findings of a study by Alkharusi (2015) showed there was a commonly shared experience about assessment and common student perceptions about assessment practices within the same class. Accordingly, the author proposed not only taking into account individual student perceptions of teacher assessments, but also the average perceptions of all students in the classroom. He took the view that the classroom is an objective environment, believed to be real. In other words, as assessment environments, classrooms could be viewed at a collective level as well as an individual one. Alkharusi concluded that differences in teachers’ assessment practices based on gender weighting of the classroom needed more precise measurement.
Where an individual student’s perception of teacher assessment practices is different to that of the whole class, the individual’s perception may be diminished or considered less relevant. Also known as “majority rules”, this phenomenon may have manifested in the current study as the dominant view of teachers’ assessment practices. In such a scenario, the student experience becomes a group one and variations between classes and teacher assessment practices affect this group experience (Alkharusi, 2008). The student experience is better interpreted as a collective rather than an individual response. Alkharusi (2008) also observed a more positive perception of the classroom environment where there was better student-teacher communication about assessments. The study revealed students’ perceptions of assessment tasks resulted in a positive influence on their self-efficiency and motivation levels. Although better classroom communication between teacher and student had no real influence on student achievement, it resulted in more positive student perceptions of classroom practices.

Dayal and Lingham (2015) discussed the different conceptual understandings and perceptions of assessment held by teachers. They ranged from assessments for improving teaching, learning and accountability for both students and institutions to recommendations for dismissing assessments as irrelevant because they generate negative outcomes. There is no longer any doubt that teachers’ perceptions influence their practice. Dayal and Lingham interviewed more than 70 Fijian teachers in their investigation of assessment and found most teachers who viewed assessments as a learning tool believed formative assessment enhanced learning by allowing students to take control and make meaning of the feedback.

Perceptions of assessment are influenced by their validity and reliability. Alm and Colnerud (2015) observed disappointment on the part of both teachers and students who believed assessments were unjust. These authors examined teachers’ views about unfair grading, while students’ perceptions of assessments as a fair measure of their work was investigated via student questionnaires by Dhindsa, Omar, and Waldrip (2007); Dorman and Knightley (2006); Dorman, Waldrip, and Fisher (2008). The following sections discuss validity and reliability in relation to perceptions of assessment as an accurate measure of performance.

2.1.5 Reliability of Assessment

In assessment, reliability refers to the extent to which a particular test produces the same results (Camines & Zeller, 1979; Joughin, 2010), thereby confirming it as a consistent measure. School assessments can have far-reaching consequences in terms of
entry into university and requires students to maintain consistently high achievement during school years. Masters (2013) equated the reliability of educational assessments to precision, in other words, a high level of confidence in the conclusions. Accurate recording and reporting of students’ learning progress are fundamental for reliable assessment, together with sound justification for using a particular assessment and its appropriateness for measuring what it’s supposed to.

For assessment conclusions to be reliable, confidence in assessment outcomes must be high, in recognition of their suitability for demonstrating relevant knowledge and skills (Masters, 2013). The author also proposed that tasks not be too easy or too difficult for students to verify their knowledge and understanding.

2.1.6 Validity of Assessment

The terms reliability and validity are often used synonymously (Golfashami, 2003; Joughin, 2010; Merriam, 1998, Miller et al., 2009), especially in education, where there is an expectation for school assessments to be both valid and reliable in order to generate consistent outcomes.

Validity in assessment concerns the degree of accuracy with which a procedure or some kind of assessment measures what it is intended to measure (Carmines & Zeller, 1979), that is, the appropriateness of the measuring procedures used. It is possible for a measure to be highly reliable but inappropriate for measuring what it is intended to measure. In the case of school assessments, where the results can hinder students’ entry into university, concerns about gauging the performance of students’ mastery of skills and knowledge have been justified and highlighted a need to take into account the purpose of assessments in setting assessment tasks.

Validity can be measured in various ways. According to McGaw (2006) construct validity overrides the relationship of measures related to assessments. An example of this is where students’ academic achievements are measured by both external examination and teachers’ assessment of school tasks, and the results, usually in the form of grades, determine the student’s eligibility for entry into university. Construct validity relates to the basic theoretical construct the assessment was supposed to measure. Assessments vary for different subjects because they measure different basic constructs. For example, writing a “for or against” essay requires arguments for and against a particular issue – how convincingly these arguments are presented and expressed determines success. In a foreign
language subject, answering a question in that language measures grammatical accuracy, while accurately applying mathematical formulae determines success in solving equations. In this way, criteria are carefully chosen to produce valid information about achievement.

Consequential validity (Messick, 1996) is concerned with the consequences of assessment (Sambell, K., McDowell, L. & Brown, S., 1997), including a propensity for assessments to encourage rote learning of prescribed contents for students to achieve high grades (Sambell et al., 1997). This is where assessments and teaching become inextricably linked. In high-stakes assessments, such as compulsory matriculation exams, teaching and assessment become focused on relevant and appropriate content (Messick, 1989, cited in McGaw, 2006), and the outcomes of a singular event have significant consequences for students.

In this thesis, reliability refers to the accuracy of the conclusions about students’ progress (Masters, 2015). Masters argued the more precise the conclusions are, the more confident one can be in those conclusions and the less uncertainty in assessment measures. Confidence equates to evidence, and for assessment tasks to generate unquestionable results, they must be appropriate.

2.2 Creation of Assessment Tasks

The way in which assessment tasks are constructed and what they entail are critical factors for high levels of validity and reliability in assessment outcomes. The development of assessment tasks should include who, as in who designs the assessment task, who implements it and who is the subject of the task. The next section discusses types of assessment tasks, particularly oral assessment versus written assessment, followed by a discussion of authentic assessment.

2.2.1 Types of Assessment Tasks

Assessment tasks come in various forms; they can be verbal/written, external/internal or formal/informal. Within these broad classifications there are numerous types of tasks, such as teacher-marked essays, exercises, class tests, standardised tests, periodic school examinations, public examinations, standard assessment tasks, portfolios, group work, journals and projects (McLaughlin, 2010). Assessment tasks form the basis of reporting by way of school records, reports to parents, testimonials, references, profiles and formal evaluations by external agents such as psychologists (McLaughlin, 2010). Teachers choose tasks from the abovementioned options to assess the extent of mastery and knowledge students have attained.
The chosen task depends on what has been taught or practised. For example, an essay might be used to demonstrate whether students have mastered paraphrasing techniques, or students may be subjected to oral questions to test their pronunciation in a foreign language, or they may be asked to play a piece of music to test their mastery of playing the piano with both hands. Students also give presentations to assess whether they can present a topic logically, or take an arithmetic test to assess their ability to add and subtract correctly. In all these ways, tasks for testing achievement vary from subject to subject (Brookhart, 2015).

Assessment tasks also allow students to practice their knowledge (Trškan, 2005). Trškan claimed assessment tasks can motivate learning and self-education by helping students to formulate personal goals, not just in education, but life in general. Using history as an example, Trškan argued that assessments should include more open-ended, short-answer and essay tasks, and fewer multiple-choice tasks in order to test different thought processes.

The frequent use of different types of assessment tasks (Darling-Hammond (1994) meant that teachers individually determined which tasks took precedence over others to accurately and appropriately reflect the assessment criteria. Amongst others, a particular choice of task may reflect teachers’ educational goals or what is valued most in the education system and society, or the assessment could reflect something else (Grgin, 2001). It is the “something else” that this study attempted to identify.

Teachers’ personal beliefs about validity are not always consistent with the rules of assessment and accountabilities imposed by external authorities. Black et al. (2003) proposed teachers reconcile their beliefs about valid assessment with the summative requirements of external education authorities. These authors suggested teachers who believe certain assessment tasks are not valid should introduce other tasks, such as a portfolio, and within this, introduce practices commensurate with their beliefs on what constitutes valid assessment.

2.2.2 Authentic Assessment

Authentic assessment differentiates itself in that students are asked to demonstrate real-life meaning of tasks, including pertinent application of skills and knowledge (Muller, 2016). Asking students to demonstrate what they know reflects the real world, but it should also be noted that authentic assessment has not been unequivocally defined (Swaffeld,
2011; Thuy & Dall’Alba, 2014). Swaffeld equated authentic assessment with genuineness, claiming it follows on from formative assessment, used to evaluate student learning, understanding and identifying areas in need of progress (Harlen & James, 1997). Other researchers talked about the tendency for authentic assessments to be subjective, and stressed the importance of positive student perceptions for effectiveness (Thuy & Dall’Alba, 2011).

Authentic tasks refer to issues and situations that may be encountered by students for life after school (Muller, 2016). Authentic assessment supports the aim of education by preparing students for real life and moves away from traditional school tests, designed to grade and measure mastery of learning in the form of unit tests and multiple-choice tasks. While summative assessments provide numerical grades but little feedback (Harlen & James, 1997) to promote student learning by practical application, the aim of authentic assessment is to make an impact on learning and not merely to serve as a semblance of requirements being covered.

2.2.3 Oral versus Written Assessment Tasks

Assessments in Croatia mainly include written and oral tasks. In Croatia, oral assessment is a common form of student assessment characterised by verbs such as “ispitaj me” and “ispitat će me”, often used by Croatian students to mean “question me” and “I am going to be questioned”. This refers to someone posing oral questions to test students’ knowledge of a particular subject in the Croatian curriculum (Bjedov et al., 2010), and is used in all levels of education in Croatia - primary, secondary and tertiary.

Written examinations require students to possess appropriately developed writing skills, which naturally disadvantages weaker students. The purpose of both oral and written examinations in the first instance is to test students’ knowledge - written and verbal skills are secondary. More recently, written exams have become the predominant form of assessment, despite the fact that they may be disadvantageous to some students (Ahmed, Pollit, & Rose, 1999). The written form seems to be preferred because students are still developing oral skills at the age of 16, and written tasks exert less pressure on them than oral exams (Ahmed at al., 1999). Several drawbacks have been associated with oral examination: one factor is the lengthy periods required for oral exams with numerous students, and another is providing evidence of oral exams (Huxham, M., Campbell, F. & Westwood, J., 2012). By comparison, paper examinations are cheaper and provide a relatively permanent record.
Consensus has not been reached on the best way of testing students’ knowledge. Ahmed et al. (1999) argued that testing knowledge and oral skills only coincide in foreign language oral examinations. The argument that written examinations are cheaper to administer because less technology is required for retaining the evidence favours written examinations over oral ones (Luoma, 2004). In addition, oral exams frequently require the presence of more than one examiner, for example an interlocutor asking the questions and an assessor who reaches the final assessment. This is not the case in Croatian schools where the one teacher posed the examination questions and assessed at the same time. Luoma believes that the benefit of an oral format is that testing and assessment of students’ performance occur simultaneously saving teacher out of class time. However, for accurate assessment, this should not be left to one examiner as it cannot be performed adequately with one person. Overcoming this inadequacy of one person orally examining is to record the examination and to review the recording during the process of providing an assessment of the oral examination. Again, this is not the case in Croatian schools where the examining is not recorded and consequently not reviewed, leaving opportunities for inconsistencies. Once the oral examination is carried out in Croatian, it cannot be re-accessed.

Oral exams are used mainly in foreign language learning for direct testing of oral skills (Kellermeier, 2010). Kellermeier examined foreign language pedagogy in a random survey of foreign language teachers in Florida and found oral testing useful for students with writing difficulties and for tests that don’t require a grade. Issues identified with oral testing were lack of time, poor technology, student resistance and large classes. Sayre (2014) concluded oral examinations are a feasible alternative to written exams, but only in a small-class environment, otherwise it is too time consuming.

Huxham, Campbell, and Westwood (2012) compared the achievements of groups of students in a written and then oral (viva voce) assessment task in the subject of biology, involving an initial formative test designed to review knowledge, followed by some students taking an oral version of the test and others a written one. The resulting means varied considerably with students demonstrating better performance in oral assessment tasks. In their study, students regarded oral examinations more positively than written ones, believing that oral exams were more useful, inclusive and administered more professionally. Consequently, students prepared more for oral exams because they considered them to be a better reflection of their knowledge and assisted in creating a
professional identity. Importantly, the need for training students for oral examinations was raised.

Oral assessment entails students using the spoken word to reflect their own work (Joughin, 2010), and since fairness and reliability can impact the outcomes, it is vital to ensure validity. One example raised by Ahmed et al. (1999) related to posing questions and prompting in oral testing. These authors observed examiners prompting students in different ways and using different language, thereby causing students to be advantaged or disadvantaged.

Oral assessment tasks also pose other disadvantages (Ahmed et al., 1999). Assessors can make subconscious judgements about students in the knowledge of certain information about them, or they could be influenced by personality, race or dress. Even distractions and the physical presence of the teacher during oral interviews can create bias and influence the grade awarded (Luoma, 2004). Other disadvantages include a lack of anonymity, student anxiety, speech and hearing impairments (Joughin, 1998), all of which can jeopardise the consistency of assessments and fail to fairly reflect students’ acquisition of knowledge. Furthermore, oral examinations tend to favour confident students and disadvantage more reserved students (Huxham et al., 2012). For all these reasons it is important to strictly apply assessment criteria and set consistent questions and time allocations to avoid prejudice (Ahmed et al., 1999; Luoma, 2004).

Newhouse (2013) gave an example of the variety of assessment tasks in his report on the use of digital forms of assessment in four different senior secondary courses: Applied Information Technology, Engineering, Italian and Physical Education. Two forms of assessment included a written and oral exam as well as face-to-face interviews, the two most common forms of assessment in Croatia used in equal measure. Newhouse referred to written exams as pen and paper or ancient paper-based technology methods that were replaceable by other means (p. 431) and advocated for assessment tasks to move away from mere replication and memorisation. To combat the potential inconsistency of oral exams, Newhouse recommended recording oral interviews to produce a record of assessments that could be checked for adherence to assessment criteria.

In the IGSO (international GCSE) level exams, oral examinations are recorded for English and sent to a centralised location to check that assessment criteria have consistently been applied in interviews (About GCSE exams, 2017). Examiners are also
checked for deviating from set exam questions and prompting to ensure a fair outcome for all students (Ahmed et al., 1999).

Munoz and Alvarez (2010) prescribed nine oral assessment guidelines, including clear and understandable assessment criteria. These authors suggested grammar is only one aspect of assessment and grammatical accuracy is not necessarily the dominant indicator of language competence. They recommended tasks be varied, authentic, meaningful, cater for all learning styles, and that these objectives be reflected in teaching practices. In addition, they called for grouping techniques in oral assessment to be varied and promote student-student and teacher-student interaction, and encouraged self-assessment following extensive feedback. The authors also argued for continued assessments and providing students with ongoing opportunities to demonstrate their acquisition of knowledge and competence (Munoz & Alvarez, 2004, p. 34). This approach covers many aspects of assessment with regard to type, criteria, outcomes and perceptions, and there is evidence to show that adhering to these recommendations can contribute greatly to student learning. They also provide a framework for developing assessment criteria, discussed in further detail below.

Jorghin (2010) recommended special preparation for oral exams, believing students are not experienced in oral assessment. He proposed ascertaining their previous experience and debriefing them about oral tasks, so that they know what is expected of them. The author advised students to view examples and practice in class in front of others. He cited an example of occupational therapy students tasked with working through law cases and legal presentations to enhance their authentic real-life learning.

2.3 Creation of Assessment Criteria

In education, once assessment tasks have been created, assessment criteria are typically formulated to judge or score students’ performance. These criteria can either be conveyed to students in verbal or written form, merely exist in teachers’ minds or comprise a combination (Canal, Bonini, Micciolo & Tentori, 2012). Formulating assessment criteria is common practice. Sadler (2009) strongly encouraged implementing criteria for the benefit of students and increased objectivity, and argued for using multiple criteria, broken down into single criteria, for enhancing objectivity. The author cautioned against inadequate representation of the full complexity of criteria that can result in misunderstandings and distort grading decisions.
Trškan (2005) asserted criteria make assessing humanistic subjects like history more objective, and that subjective topics can also be assessed in an objective way with carefully formulated and applied assessment criteria. However, it is crucial to ascertain exactly what teachers are basing their judgements on when assessing student performance. Strahinić (2011) concluded the tendency for students to think of assessment criteria as determined by professionals, i.e. teachers or the Education Department, often elicited negative reactions and could influence their views on teachers’ judgements of their performance. Subjectivity in applying assessment criteria requires scrutiny, since criteria may not always align with those officially stated for a specific task. Amongst others, Strahinić defined subjective non-task related criteria as teachers like or dislike of a student, the student's social status, students’ personality traits and their physical appearance. Scott et al. (2014) opposed the use of grades to punish or reward student behaviour. Further research is needed into the extent to which such factors influence scoring and grading, particularly when assessments represent high stakes and have significant consequences for all aspects of students’ lives (Strahinić, 2011).

The literature revealed a lack of clarity around assessment criteria impeded self-assessment by secondary students (Broadfoot et al., 1998). Clarity and transparency were emphasised for their importance in establishing links between explicit criteria, learning and student self-assessment (Kirton et al., 2007). Certain cases also brought to light the barriers imposed by a language deficit in understanding assessment terminology and standards of formative assessments.

In their research with Chinese students, Sun and Chen (2013) articulated two concepts in their assessment of English as a second language class. One related to judgement of effort or fulfilment of a task, and the other to non-achievement factors, such as habit, attitude and motivation. In this case, the teacher’s judgement was a crucial and inevitable part of assigning grades.

It is widely understood that criteria must be created with equity in mind to establish a fair and level playing field (Saunders & Davis, 1998). Moreover, students should be allowed equal opportunities to perform in assessments and applying the same rules in the same way (Kane, 2010). Darling-Hammond (1994) claimed assessment reforms are unlikely to improve equity unless they specifically focus on equity and increase awareness of fair assessment amongst students, theorists and practitioners alike. This entails determining explicit assessment criteria and identifying who decides what they are.
The relationship between validity and fairness needs to be considered. Volante (2006) defined a valid assessment as an accurate measure of students’ knowledge. Kane, (2010) stated that validity and fairness are loosely connected; the overlap between them is dependent on what the assessment is defining. Therefore, how criteria and their application has an effect on fairness and follows in the next section.

2.4 Application of Assessment Criteria

An overview of the relevant literature on the application of assessment criteria follows, together with an outline of consistent and reliable judgements in assessments.

2.4.1 Consistent and Reliable Judgements

Judgements or the ability to reach conclusions (Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2017) are an intrinsic part of teacher assessments (Allal, 2013; Brookhart, 2013). Meissel et al. (2017) investigated teachers’ subjectivity in assessment judgements and found that certain students received lower grades than others for the same achievement, highlighting discrepancies and inaccuracies between teacher judgements and their measures of student performance. Sun and Cheng (2013) also questioned the types of value judgements teachers made when giving grades for a questionnaire, pointing to a misalignment of judgements, and as a result, inaccurate conclusions.

In Croatia and Australia, judgements are often made on the basis of a national exam, as in final year matriculation, a prerequisite for university entry. Some researchers proposed moving away from external examinations to internal assessment by teachers (McMahone & Jones, 2015). In Croatia, teacher assessments are particularly important, because although the final-year external matriculation or matura exam determines university entry, it is also 40% dependent on grades awarded in secondary school. Furthermore, entry into certain secondary schools depends solely on students’ grades in primary school (Nacionalni Centar za vajnsko vrednovanje (National Centre for External Assessment 2016/2017). How teachers make judgements and reach decisions about student performance is therefore of crucial importance.

For all these reasons, explicit criteria are vital for making consistent and reliable judgements (Dargusch, 2014) when measuring the extent to which students’ achievement of assessment tasks meets the stated criteria. On the other hand, consistency is vital for supporting valid and reliable assessment. Brookhart (2012) observed a lack of validity in teacher judgements and assessment practices, while Dixon and Williams (2003) concluded
teachers had difficulty justifying their assessment decisions. Little is known about the factors impacting the fairness of grading, with sometimes lasting consequences for students (Gordon & Fay, 2010). Since teachers draw on various sources of knowledge and evidence when making judgments (Connolly, Klenowski, & Wyatt-Smith, 2011), perceptions of uncertainty can prevail even when criteria are in place.

Rust, Price, and O’Donovan (2003) likened assessment criteria to having rules. However, these authors pointed out that criteria can sometimes appear to be precise and clearly defined, but turn out to be fuzzier when applied, possibly due to teachers’ interpretation of the criteria affecting their application and consistency. Woolf (2005) termed this “subsidiarity”, derived from European Union member states applying the principles of European Union policy in their own countries according to their own national needs. Woolf (2005) questioned how much subsidiarity or deviation and interpretation should be tolerated, and the same applies to teacher assessments of student performance and perceptions of fairness. While deviation may be inevitable, consistency and fairness in assessment can be maintained.

2.4.2 Applying Criteria to Assessments

Norcini et al. (2011) believed criteria provide the foundation for making decisions and reaching judgements. The authors reiterated the importance of good criteria for good assessment outcomes and recommended making known the purpose of criteria. They proposed students be included in assessment processes in order to instil confidence that quality standards are being adhered to, and that feedback be provided to students to promote ongoing learning.

Nazor (1999) also argued for consistency in the application of assessment criteria for assessments to be as fair as possible. A Western Australian project titled Making Consistent Judgements (Education Department of WA, 1995) provided teachers with additional training by the Education Department of WA in an effort to achieve fairer and more effective assessments of student performance. In this project, teacher education was ongoing and supported them in creating tasks that could be applied consistently to generate fairer outcomes.

Initiatives like consistency seminars and moderations compare the work of students across various schools. The process of moderation was historically implemented to achieve consistent assessments in Australian schools. In a study by Connolly, Klenowski, and Wyatt-Smith (2011), teachers viewed moderation as positively contributing to consistency,
however, the authors cautioned that teachers could nevertheless subvert the process. Connolly et al. described teachers turning to tacit factors or non-stated personal factors in their moderation, potentially undermining the stated or formal criteria and compromising consistency and objectivity. Internal and external factors (Bandalos, 2004) will inevitably create differences in the way teachers apply explicit assessment criteria.

Training in the application of assessment criteria is just one of many factors that can improve the rating of students’ work (Huang, 2001). Others include assessors’ backgrounds, previous experience, prior training, methods, criteria, tolerance, perceptions and expectations. Student-related factors also affect performance outcomes, such as how difficult or interesting the subject is or students’ dislike of the subject (Nazor, 1999). In these ways, assessments can be directly or indirectly influenced by numerous factors.

Despite an environment of enormous change and increasing calls for teacher accountability, Dargusch (2014) expressed the view that the Australian Curriculum does not provide teachers with guidance for assessment. Her paper investigated the formative practice of English teachers, focused in particular on teachers’ use of assessment criteria and standards. Dargusch concluded that language barriers impeded teachers’ and students’ interpretation of criteria and resulted in insufficient transparency in relation to assessment criteria and standards. She stressed the importance of language clarity for ensuring students perceive assessment processes as fair and consistent.

Darling-Hammond (1994) was in favour of assessment criteria for high-stakes assessments taking into account the degree of subjectivity in judgements. Determining the criteria and exactly what will be assessed crystallises the assessment process and contributes to understanding the outcomes. Inaccurate teacher judgements (Finkelstein, 2010) date back to the early 20th century and still persist today (Delanshere, 2002). A study by Brookhart (2012) described how varied results in teacher judgements over a period of time led to a loss of confidence in teacher judgements.

Canal, Bonini, Micciolo, and Tentori (2012) gave a concrete example of teachers’ lack of consistency in applying assessment criteria. The study took place in Italy, and for typical students, showed overall teacher evaluation was consistent with the criteria. However, results were highly inconsistent for atypical students, from which the researchers concluded teachers were allowing unrelated factors to influence their marking by inventing
their own definitions of assessment criteria depending on the student and ignoring the prescribed criteria to justify their own impressions.

Teacher judgements influence all areas of teachers' practice, including lesson preparation, lesson implementation and interaction with students (Allal, 2012). Allal found grading practices reflected personal choice and social context, including previous interactions with students and other colleagues as well as the influence of institutional factors. Allal (2012) observed teachers were subconsciously influenced by their social interactions with students that may or may not have been embedded in the criteria and concluded their professional judgement was both an individual cognitive act as well as a socially situated one. Teachers who are unsure about what grade to award will usually seek additional information to tip the outcome one way or another, especially for final end-of-year grades. In doing so, they introduce their own point of view, influenced by the educational construct they find themselves in. Although collaboration exists in terms of assessment and criteria constructs, teachers also make individual decisions, and it is therefore essential to adhere to criteria to prevent other elements from clouding their focus.

Brookhart (2013) advocated analysing teachers’ thoughts when making judgements about student performance, since there was a dearth of research in this area. She examined standard testing as opposed to teacher judgements and proposed further research to pinpoint the reasons for variations in teacher judgements, believing this would explain half the differences in student achievement.

The language used for constructing criteria has also raised concerns. For subjects like English, assessment criteria cannot always be identified in advance and are sometimes undefinable until the task is over (Grgin, 2001). The author cited essay writing as an example, where he believes assessment criteria can only be determined after the task has been completed. In other words, only once students have written about a topic can assessment criteria be determined. This supports the concept that results can identify criteria and represents a reverse process, commencing with task completion, followed by teacher application of prescribed criteria for the task.

Grgin (2001) believed criteria cannot be quantified for subjects like mathematics, where most answers are either right or wrong, as opposed to a creative literature interpretation. Teachers develop criteria through practice (Dargusch, 2014), implying that they are amended over time. There is also the risk that defined criteria are prone to a wide
spectrum of teachers’ interpretation (Wyatt-Smith & Klenovski, 2013), such as “relevant ideas” for an essay. Wyatt-Smith and Klenovski cautioned that staunchly addressing consistency can lead to superficial assessment processes.

Connolly et al. (2011) found teachers drew on sources and knowledge beyond merely the task, and in setting criteria for judging students’ work may call into question the validity of assessments. Brookhart (2015) used an argument-based approach and analytical framework to examine grades that showed significant variations in tested achievements. The study showed teachers were influenced by characteristics such as socio-economic status, personality, gender, ethnicity, effort, behaviour, classroom citizenship and context. Gordon and Fay (2010) acknowledged that little is known about teacher assessment practices, highlighting the value and relevance of the current study.

Consistent application of appropriate criteria supports grade integrity (Sadler, 2009), meaning that the grade awarded is strictly commensurate with the quality of the student’s performance of a particular task. The meaning and value of grades is of prime importance for valid conclusions based on evidence of students’ cognitive factors (Brookhart, 2015; Brookhart et al., 2016). In Croatia, grades are an important determinant for entry into high school and university for which fair and accurate grading is essential, yet successful creation and implementation of consistent criteria has remained a problem (Hopfenbeck et al., 2017).

2.4.3 Applying Criteria to Oral Assessment Tasks

All the above factors, related to the application of assessment criteria, require special consideration in oral assessments. Generally speaking, written tasks culminate in a written record of students’ performance against set criteria, while oral tasks do not, unless they are recorded (Luoma, 2004). Justifying the application of criteria is therefore easier with written tasks. Consistency is reduced in the absence of recorded oral exams, because once spoken the words disappear and teachers are left to rely on their recollections and impressions (Ahmed at al., 1999). These authors argued this resulted in a lack of objectivity, a major criticism of oral exams, especially in cases where the examiner is familiar with or known to the student under examination. The problem of making on-the-spot judgements solely on the task at hand is unique to oral exams, and coupled with a lack of consistency, represent some of the major causes of unfairness and lack of objectivity jeopardising assessment validity.
Joughin (2010) espoused the value of criteria in oral exams when used in the form of a rubric as a guide, claiming this provides examiners with a common base and reduces the possibility of non-task related factors from impinging on grades. Other issues associated with oral assessments, such as time constraints, class size and inadequate technology for recording also make consistent application of criteria more difficult than for written assessments (Kellermeier, 2010).

2.5 Outcomes of Assessment

As outlined above, the outcomes of assessments can be influenced by several factors. For example, grading can impact on the material taught (Darling-Hammond, 1994). Faull (2010) was of the view that in addition to parent and student attitudes towards the school, the policies and practices of ACARA in regard to assessment also influence student learning. ACARA documents purport parents and students gain a better idea of students’ capabilities from testing, applied across the board in all Australian schools (Klenovski, 2011). As a precursor to positive perceptions, it would not be unreasonable for students to expect consistency in assessments to include documented statements or reports of their performance.

Stobart (2010) emphasised accurate interpretation of assessment data. He talked about the “double duty” (p. 12) of assessment in not only assessing the task at hand, but also generating lifelong skills. Given current assessment practices, he warned of undesirable consequences and questioned the value of assessments in raising educational standards, improving teaching and learning, and encouraging unwanted practices.

Mitigating against the impact of teacher assessment practices on individuals and their families is an important aim of educational assessment according to Scott, Webber, Lupart, Aitken, and Scott (2013). Their study found heightened awareness amongst educators in attending to the learning needs of all parties in the education process, at the same time heeding the demands of society and institutions. Assessments have become entrenched in almost all areas of life, be it in learning or making choices about people for further education or jobs.

In the same way that teachers assign value to the assessments enforced upon students, students assign meaning and value to the assessments imposed on them. Sun and Cheng (2013) argued that being aware of these values, particularly in relation to non-task achievements, will contribute to validity of teacher assessments. In their research of
Chinese students, Sun and Cheng concluded that the meaning and value attributed to teacher assessments by students were common issues around the world and required further attention.

Students’ attitudes to testing predominantly relate to relevance. Chu, Guo, and Leighton’s 2013 research in schools investigated the relationship between students’ interpersonal trust and attitudes towards standardised testing. They found a connection between emotion and assessment, and concluded the relationship needed further consideration and analysis.

The way students perceive teacher behaviour is often a result of the process of education, including assessments, and can ultimately manifest in their attitudes, be it positive or negative. Charalampous and Kokkinos (2014) proposed the Model of Reciprocal Causation for examining the relationship between student personality factors, student-teacher interpersonal behaviour and student achievements. Using this model, they analysed teacher personality traits and their effects on students, and accordingly, students’ perceptions of their teachers. Variances in teacher behaviour were observed while teaching the same subject to different class groups despite adhering to assessment criteria. Importantly, Charalampous and Kokkinos examined the influence of students’ perceptions on their achievements, and in turn, the effect on teachers’ assessments. Personal factors, behaviour and environment were all found to be influencing factors, and together with student perceptions of their teachers, signalled areas for potential improvement and more effective outcomes (Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005).

Strahinić (2011) claimed from experience that there was a high level of student dissatisfaction with grading and allocation of grades. The author reported that students in Croatia truanted from school when they knew they would be assessed, and observed grades being scaled up when students were obedient and down when they misbehaved. Strahinić went on to say that students colluded and cheated as a sign of protest against unfair grading, and cited an instance of parental violence towards a teacher for what was perceived as an unfair assessment outcome. The author called for the abolition of grades, claiming that grading encompassed unrelated motives when teachers used assessments to outwit and punish students rather than fairly evaluating their performance. Negative consequences from school assessment processes were also evidenced by King (1989) in the form of anxiety and phobic disorders amongst students.
In their assessment framework, Barnes et al. (2017) included the item “assessment is irrelevant” (p. 14) from the teacher’s perspective. The item acknowledged assessments can be imprecise and manifest negatively in students’ perceptions. Brown (2011) claimed students develop certain beliefs as a result of assessment, stemming from their perceptions of how assessments are undertaken (van de Watering, Gijbels, Dochy, & van de Rijt, 2008). Exactly what kinds of beliefs and perceptions they adopt was the focus of this study, since very little research exists on the subject (Dorman & Knightley, 2006). Documenting and analysing students’ viewpoints shed light on how students’ beliefs impact their achievements, and the findings identify opportunities for enhancing current teaching practices to improve student outcomes.

Furman (2009) described the traumatic consequences of assessment for her students who were outwardly confident until they were asked to complete a formal assessment. The subsequent emotional upset, involving the parents and the principal, highlighted the stressful nature and undesirable consequences of formal assessment for students and teachers. Furman argued that anxiety associated with assessment is firmly embedded in children from a young age and every effort should be made to alleviate negative associations.

In a Croatian context, it is not uncommon for grades to be used as a form of punishment for students (Brkić-Devčić, 2002; Stahinic, 2011). Both these authors alluded to a repressive education system where students are expected to learn subject matter according to the wishes of teachers, and “punished” with poor grades if they failed to meet teachers’ expectations. They commented on the intrusion of teachers’ personal attitudes in their assessment of students’ performance, referring to the “mystery” of what constitutes an A, B, C, D or F (5, 4, 3, 2 or 1 in the Croatian system) and explains the variations in teachers’ grading.

Students’ conceptions of assessment have been linked to a range of outcomes (Brown & Hirschfield, 2008) and educational experiences; the more positive the former, the more positive the latter. Since factors span achievement, learning, accountability, relevance and enjoyability, it is logical to conclude that maximising these aspects will create improved social and educational environments.

Students’ beliefs and perceptions have also been shown to have far-reaching implications, affecting learning behaviours and academic achievement (Brown, 2011; van
de Watering et al., 2008). Patti (2011) concluded students’ beliefs were directly related to their attitudes, expressed in the form of positive or negative feelings about subjects, and reported more positive attitudes increased student learning. The author investigated student beliefs towards chemistry in secondary school using a Likert-response questionnaire. Responses revealed a wide range of both positive and negative student perceptions of teacher assessment, depending on the individual student.

There is also the issue of interpersonal trust. Chu et al. (2013) claimed the level of students’ interpersonal trust is likely to affect the amount of effort they put into tests. These authors examined the influence of interpersonal trust on student attitudes and the value they placed on tests and used a survey with an interpersonal trust scale to examine attitudes. Their findings showed the effort students put into tests correlated with their levels of interpersonal trust, but also depended on the value placed on tests by all participants in the assessment process.

There could be a relationship between assessment practices and other elements. For example, Alkahrusi (2015) investigated the relationship between assessment practices and students’ achievement goals and concluded that the type of testing used may influence student motivation and the goals they pursue. Alkahrusi was of the firm belief that assessments can enhance students’ learning practices. Brookharts’ model of students’ perceptions and their influence on motivation and beliefs about achievement supported this view (Brookhart, 1997). According to the model, the classroom environment is perceived as a context for students’ experiences, where the teacher determines the purpose of assessment, sets assessment tasks, assessment criteria and standards, provides feedback and monitors the outcomes.

2.6 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 represents the conceptual framework for this research, informed by key issues that emerged from the literature. The literature review indicated many and varied reasons for assessments, including the demands of educational institutions tasked with teaching students who aspire to enter tertiary education and/or the workplace. Like assessment criteria, assessment tasks are created for assessing student performance and explicitly describe the tasks and criteria and how they are included, while at the same time taking into consideration factors that may influence the application of criteria.
This research was undertaken on the premise that the consistency with which assessment criteria are applied leads to varying outcomes and impacts on students’ perceptions of fairness. The research questions were derived from the conceptual framework and were aimed at examining assessment practices in Croatian secondary schools, how consistently teachers apply assessment criteria and students’ perceptions of these practices. Investigating student perceptions of teacher assessments has never before been undertaken in Croatia; therefore, this study creates new knowledge and provides deeper understanding of the issue.

2.7 Summary

To summarise, assessment is an integral part of the education process and leads to making decisions about someone or something (Harlen, 2007). In the same way, assessment data in education is widely used to make decisions about students and formulate perceptions. The effects of student assessments can be positive (Dochy &
McDowell, 1997) or negative (Brookhart, 2012) for student learning, yet many would question whether its potential benefits are realised (Strahinić, 2011; Furman, 2009). The demand for educational assessment stems from many sources, particularly institutions and education departments, and are mainly driven by official education bodies. Examples include the Programme for International Student Assessment or PISA (Thomson & De Bortoli, 2008), the Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) and the National Assessment Programme or NAPLAN.

Assessments come in many shapes and forms (MacLaughlin, 2010) and researchers have long recognised the potential threat to consistency and fairness in both written and oral assessments (Ahmed et al., 1999; Huxham et al., 2012; Kellermeier, 2010; Munoz, 2014). Hammond (1994) was a strong supporter of appropriate criteria and applying them consistently in assessments to ensure fairness. While there is general consensus about the importance of validity and reliability in assessments (Masters 2013; McGaw, 2006), the literature highlighted a widespread lack of validity in assessments (Dixon & Williams, 2003). Little is known about how teachers’ grading decisions and motivations can endanger fairness (Gordon & Fay, 2010) and the literature indicates a lack of consistency in the application of assessment criteria (Bandalos, 2004). Brookhart (2013) recognised the absence of knowledge and understanding of teachers’ thoughts when making judgements about student performance, and Allal (2012) observed teacher judgements and biases were not confined to assessments and seemed to influence all areas of practice.

As previously mentioned, the language used to describe criteria can result in varying interpretations and diminish consistency (Dargusch, 2014). There is also the issue of teachers’ personal beliefs influencing their views on what assessments should comprise. Additionally, differences between oral and written forms of assessment (Huxham et al., 2012; Joughin, 2012) raise issues of fairness in relation to logistics, time, personality and evidence of performance (Kellermeier, 2010; Munoz & Alvarez, 2010).

Two key concepts uncovered in the literature review with particular relevance to the current study were: consequential validity that deals with the consequences ensuing from assessment, both good and bad; and authentic assessment that entails real, genuine evaluation and promotes positive student perceptions (Alkahrusi et al., 2015; Swaffeld, 2011; Thuy & Dall’Alba, 2014). Questionnaires were used to assess student perceptions of teacher assessments by Dorman and Knightley (2006) and Barnes et al. (2017) and uncovered regret on the part of many teachers for having awarded certain grades in
hindsight, despite their efforts to be as fair as possible (Alm & Colnerud, 2015). Just as teachers’ assessment practices affect students’ achievement of goals, the environment in which assessments take place also influences students’ motivational beliefs and achievement outcomes (Brookhart, 1997; Alkhararusi, 2015).

In Croatia, reforms to assessment and education are currently taking place and policies are being written (Kurikularna reforma, 2017) to improve educational outcomes. The link between student perceptions (van de Watering, et al., 2008) and assessment outcomes (Brown & Hirschfield, 2008) requires further research in order to maximise the benefits of positive attitudes and reduce negativity towards teachers and assessments (Dorman & Knightley, 2006).

The following chapter focuses on the research methodology and design of the study. The literature review informed the methods chosen to answer the research questions in the context of Croatian secondary school education from the perspectives of teachers and students in the system.
Chapter Three: Methodology

The research questions in this study, the literature and proposed conceptual framework dictated the use of methodology. In this chapter, the methodology is discussed in detail, starting with the overall design and its rationale, and is followed by descriptions of the samples, instruments, data collection and data analysis. Each research question is linked to a source of data connected to a response. Finally, an overview of data collection issues and ethical considerations are presented.

3.1 Research Design

Research design depends on the reality under examination. This study investigated teachers’ application of assessment processes and students’ reactions to the fairness of these processes. Since the phenomenon under study entailed teachers’ and students’ subjective experiences of the world, an inter-subjective or interactional epistemological approach was adopted. This required the use of interviews to glean information from the targeted sample (Blanche & Durrheim, 1999) in the form of an interpretative approach to explain the reasons and significance of teachers’ actions in assessing student performance and the resulting perceptions of students.

This study employed mixed methods in that it was empirical because it attempted to measure perceptions, but also qualitative in that it was concerned with students and teachers as people within a particular context. Hence, the research design drew on a quasi-ethnographic approach to align with an interest in what distinguishes people. The objective was to make meaning of teachers’ and students’ thoughts and opinions of secondary school assessments in Croatian secondary schools. The study attempted to understand how teachers and students interpreted specific aspects of the world they inhabited, to which they contributed and in which they functioned (Goldbart & Hustler, 2005). Questions were specifically aimed at gauging what students and teachers viewed as appropriate and inappropriate practices and behaviours; with sharpened questions concerning teacher assessments in the interviews with students and teachers (Barbour & Shostak, 2005).

3.2 Rationale for Research Design

In order to collect information about teacher assessments of student performance and student perceptions of assessments it was necessary to use empirical social science research methods (Somekeh & Lewin, 2009). However, this research entailed gathering
data about people and drawing conclusions about their behaviours and perceptions, in an attempt to give those reading it the feeling of being there (Geertz, 1973 cited in Somekeh & Lewin, 2009). Educational research frequently draws on aligned disciplines such as sociology, psychology and philosophy. In this study, the objective was to change practice, reduce bias and improve the school experience for students, and heuristically, to influence society as a whole around concepts of education.

3.3 Research Samples

This research placed a spotlight on teacher assessment practices in terms of fairness and consistency, and the resultant student perceptions of assessment practices. Data were collected in Croatia, a country in transition from communism to democracy, where problems are known to exist with regard to fairness and consistency in teachers’ assessments and students’ perceptions.

This study entailed interviewing selected teachers and their students about the fairness of assessment practices. Subject areas and schools were chosen on the basis of the researcher’s acquaintance with a former colleague and staff member who was able to allow access. The focus was on teachers and students in two secondary schools and three specific secondary school subjects.

Students in Croatia complete twelve years of school education culminating in secondary school, of which there are two types offering four-year programs. One type is a gimnazija or grammar school, primarily for students aspiring to enter university. The other is vocational schools, offering more practical subjects related to specialisations in tourism, administration, economics, surveying, architecture, building and electrical trades. Students attending either school choose level A or B in all subjects; level A being more difficult. Students enrolled in vocational schools are not excluded from university entry, but their eligibility is dependent on the level of their subjects in the final examination or matura, which is also a requirement for further education. They usually decide to sit for level A or B exams towards the end of year twelve. Students must take three compulsory subjects to pass matura or matriculate, namely Croatian, English and Mathematics. In other words, these subjects are prerequisites for continuing on to tertiary studies.

3.3.1 Demographics of Targeted Schools

This research included teachers and students in three different subject areas from two secondary schools, both gimnazija. In Croatia, students are enrolled in secondary school according to their grade point average in primary school. Gimnazija offer the most
academic teaching programs and hence attract students with the highest grade-point averages from primary schools in their district, in this case the county of Split. Gimnazija have the same three subjects timetabled in their curriculum and similar student populations characterised by high entry-grade requirements, thus allowing for comparisons to be drawn. Focusing on two secondary schools with the same curriculum of subjects also provided a larger sample of students and teachers, all of whom were involved, one way or another, with the three selected subjects in their respective teaching programs. Demographic data about the targeted schools were collected during the teacher interviews and included information about the numbers of students and teachers, academic entry requirements, fees and perceived status of the school.

### 3.3.2 Targeted Subject Areas

The subjects were selected because they were best positioned to provide information across a range of disciplines that adopted a variety of assessment tasks and criteria. Teacher and student participants were recruited from two secondary schools to increase the potential for identifying differences in assessment practices. Both schools offered similar curricula and the same three subjects of Biology, Croatian and English. Final year secondary school students aged around eighteen years were targeted, due to their maturity and extensive experience with teacher assessments after twelve years of schooling.

At least two teachers of each of the three chosen subjects in each school who were willing to participate were selected for this study. Participants included the final year classes of each respective subject taught by these teachers, comprising approximately 30 students per class for a total of around 175 students per school and 330 students across the two schools. Two classes in each subject area of Biology, Croatian and English in each school made up twelve classes altogether; and two teachers for each subject made a total of 12 teachers. Table 1 provides a summary of the samples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Summary of Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subjects</strong></td>
<td>Three subjects – a mix of humanities and science: Biology, Croatian, English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Schools</strong></td>
<td>Two high schools with the same timetabled program for the above three subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Classes</strong></td>
<td>Entire classes of final year students in three subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Students</strong></td>
<td>Approximately 30 students per class making a total of 330 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teachers</strong></td>
<td>Two teachers minimum from each subject making a total of 12 teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 Data Instruments and Data Collection

Data collection methods involved listening, exploring and analysing. They included structured interviews with each teacher and self-completion questionnaires for all students enrolled in the subjects under examination. In addition, a structured set of assessment documents was collected from each teacher to conduct a document analysis.

3.4.1 Student Questionnaire

The students in each class across the three subjects completed a questionnaire, aimed at gaining insights into their perceptions of subject teachers’ assessments. The questionnaire was designed to elicit students’ reactions to teacher assessment, so asking the right questions (Asking the right research questions, 2016) was crucial for obtaining the most comprehensive and relevant information regarding fairness and consistency.

In each case, the entire class participated by answering highly structured closed questions that were easy to answer. Questions were dichotomous or required yes/no answers, and participants’ responses, ranging from “always” to “never”, were rated on a Likert scale. As with the teacher interviews, some open-ended questions allowed students to provide as much relevant information as they were willing to provide. The questionnaire was based on two instruments: a) the Student Perceptions of Assessment Questionnaire (SPAQ) developed by Dorman, Waldrip, and Fisher (2008); and b) a student questionnaire developed by the Centre for Schooling and Learning Technologies (CSaLT) for the Digital Forms of Assessment project (Newhouse, 2012). The five scales contained in the SPAQ were incorporated into the questionnaire for the current study: a) Congruence with Planned Learning; b) Authenticity; c) Student Consultation; d) Transparency and e) Diversity. Some closed and open-ended questions related to the experience of students completing assessments were integrated from the CSaLT instrument. See Appendix A for a copy of the student questionnaire and Appendix C for the open-ended questions for teachers. Each is accompanied by translations into Croatian by certified translators.

The SPAQ questionnaire was used by Dhindsa, Omar, and Waldrip (2007) to investigate secondary school students’ perceptions of assessments in Brunei. Based on gender and grade levels the results were comparable. However, differences were observed between ethnic groups, possibly signalling a need to change teaching approaches and worthy of further research. Validity and reliability coefficients confirmed that the SPAQ instrument was appropriate for assessing Croatian students’ perceptions across the five
assessment dimensions. The questions in the student questionnaire were categorised according to the five scales as shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Scale and Question Numbers, Descriptions and Sample Question for Each Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and Question Numbers</th>
<th>Scale Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Congruence with planned learning: Questions 1-7</td>
<td>Extent to which tasks align with learning program goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Authenticity: Questions 8-14</td>
<td>Extent to which tasks reflect relevant real-life situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Student consultation: Questions 15-21</td>
<td>Extent to which students are consulted about tasks employed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Transparency: Questions 22-28</td>
<td>Extent to which tasks are clear to learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Diversity: Questions 29-35</td>
<td>Extent to which all students have equal chance to complete tasks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample Question to Describe Scale
1. Congruence: My assessment is a fair indication of my work
2. Authenticity: I have answered questions on topics that have been covered in class
3. Student Consultation: I am clear about the forms of assessment being used
4. Transparency: I know what is needed to successfully accomplish an assessment task
5. Diversity: I do work that is different from other students' work


3.4.2 Teacher Interviews

Each teacher participant was interviewed individually about his/her assessment practices. Questions were designed to uncover information about teacher assessment practices, whilst simultaneously eliciting the truth and reducing the possible effects of suspicion and lack of commitment (Barbour & Shostak, 2005). Teachers were questioned about assessment tasks, methods of scoring, communicating expectations and results to students, and the strategies they used to enhance fairness and consistency. Interviews were audio recorded as a reliable record of the conversation.

3.4.3 Review of Teacher Assessment Documents

Document analysis provided an additional source of data for this research. Teachers were asked to provide documents that showed the details of their assessment of student performance and the assessment criteria upon which they based their grading. Other documents included assessment schedules and copies of criteria scales provided to students. Teachers brought the documents with them to the interview and used them to explain their assessment practices. Copies of the documents were retained by the researcher.
3.4.4 Data Collection Considerations

Both data collection instruments, namely the student questionnaire and structured interviews, involved careful construction to ensure they were clear, unambiguous and did not lead respondents to answer in a certain way. The questions were simple, sought clear, truthful answers and considered the context of the research, in this case, Croatia. They were designed to avoid antagonising, offending or threatening respondents, particularly in view of the sensitivity around fairness and consistency of assessment practices.

Participants were assured their responses would have no negative consequences. Anonymity in the student questionnaire was particularly crucial to avoid student anxiety about future grades or assessments. The potential for hidden agendas to skew interview responses and completion of the questionnaires needed consideration, as well as ensuring truthful responses from interviewees, particularly in the knowledge that their feedback was being used for a doctorate. Heavy workloads were also a deterrent to answering questions comprehensively. Furthermore, the reliance of students on teachers’ attitudes towards them for their grades may have hindered honest responses.

The questionnaire and interview questions required translation from Croatian to English and vice versa. The interview responses also needed to be translated in such a way that the original meaning was not lost in translation (Gotti & Sarcevic, 2006), since this becomes an ethical issue when it results in distorted feedback and misrepresentation. Participants were made to clearly understand what they were being asked in order for their responses to be appropriate.

Back translation is a means of improving accuracy and effectiveness of instruments, whereby a translator interprets a document previously translated into another language back into the original language. The translation is then checked to see whether it has the same meaning as the original. In this study, the questions required re-translation to capture the original meaning and was carried out by certified translators to ensure accuracy.

3.5 Data Analysis

After collecting the data, it had to be organised and analysed so that conclusions could be drawn. Analytical methods of SPSS were used on the information gleaned. Interview data were scrutinised for themes, according to which relevant information was categorised. The results of the Likert-scale questionnaire provided scores for the SPAQ scales– they are presented in graphical form in Figure 12 and descriptive statistics are
shown later in Table 5. Responses to the open-ended questions were summarised and organised into themes. To address the hermeneutic roots of the study, also defined as interpretation of text (Connole, 1993), the documents supplied by teachers were analysed and interpreted. Teacher interviews and assessment documents were analysed in terms of assessment tasks, methods of scoring, communicating expectations and results to students, and any strategies used to enhance fairness and consistency. These were used to describe the assessment practices of each teacher to determine any differences between them. An explanation for the differences between students’ responses followed, in light of the different assessment practices they encountered.

The relationship between data sources and the subsidiary research questions is illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3
Subsidiary Research Questions and Data Sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Data Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What perceptions do Croatian secondary students hold about the fairness of</td>
<td>Student questionnaire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assessments?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent are Croatian teachers consistent in their implementation of</td>
<td>Student questionnaire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assessment processes and application of assessment criteria to students’ work in</td>
<td>Teacher interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secondary school subjects and how does this affect students’ perceptions of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fairness?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What practices are used by Croatian teachers in secondary school subject/s to</td>
<td>Teacher interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improve consistency in applying assessment criteria and how do these influence</td>
<td>Document analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student perceptions of fairness?</td>
<td>Student questionnaire.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The three sources of information, namely interviews, questionnaires and assessment documents, represent a form of triangulation (Bullock & Stallybrass, 2000), whereby the information derived from the three sources was cross-validated and compared to generate conclusions about the phenomena under investigation. This included corroborating assessment practices described by teacher participants in the assessment documents.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

Australian universities abide by regulations regarding the use of human subjects in research for their protection. In this study, student participants were over the age of eighteen and in their final year of secondary school in Croatia. Since they are considered adults, parental consent was not required. Consent letters were distributed to student participants after their participation in the research was fully explained and before
completing the questionnaire. Teachers also signed a consent form indicating their willingness to participate in the research before being interviewed.

3.7 Summary

This chapter dealt with the methodology and research design and described how data were collection. The subjects of Biology, Croatian and English in two secondary schools in Croatia formed the context of the study. Two teachers of each of the three subjects in two secondary schools were interviewed, comprising a total of twelve teachers. The semi-structured teacher interview consisted of seven open-ended questions.

A total of 330 students, drawn from the two classes taught by the above teachers, each completed thirty-five open-ended questions using a four-point Likert response scale. In addition, assessment documents that described the assessment criteria for each subject are aware collected from teachers, as determined by subject teachers at a national level and by decree of the Croatian Ministry of Education. The collected data were analysed in order to provide answers to the three subsidiary research questions. The results of this analysis follow in the next chapter.
Chapter Four: Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings from all the quantitative and qualitative data collected for the study. First, the quantitative data from the student questionnaire is presented, provided by 330 students in 12 classes taught by 6 teachers. This is followed by an analysis of the qualitative data, i.e. students’ comments and responses to the open-ended questions. Each teacher and their two classes are then presented as individual case studies, covering teachers’ responses to the interview questions as well as an analysis and discussion of the qualitative data. Finally, comparisons are drawn between teachers and their respective classes.

4.2 Sample Characteristics

Some characteristics of the samples are summarised in Table 4. All the teachers involved were female and each was a specialist teacher of Biology, Croatian or English as a Foreign Language. The first secondary school, school 1, specialised in foreign languages and was named “Language”, while the second, school 2, specialised in mathematics and was named “Mathematics”.

Table 4
Overview of Teachers and Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Females present</th>
<th>Males present</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Language</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Language</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Language</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Language</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mathematics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mathematics</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mathematics</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mathematics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>233</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 shows the six different teachers numbered from one to six in the three subject areas of Biology, Croatian, and English. Two classes taught by the same teacher were sampled in each school, resulting in a total sample of three subjects, six teachers and twelve classes. Table 4 shows the number of students in each class as well as the number of male and female students present on the day the questionnaire was administered.

The two schools were homogenous in that they were grammar schools or gimnazija; the only criterion for entry being students’ grade averages in primary school. In Croatia, grade averages in schools are expressed numerically for all subjects. The grading system ranges from 1 to 5 where 5 is equivalent to an A and signifies “excellent”; 4 is equivalent to a B and signifies “very good”; 3 is equivalent to a C and signifies “good”, 2 is equivalent to a D and signifies “poor” (a passing grade in Croatia); and 1 is equivalent to a F or “fail”. Students were enrolled according to a ranked list based on their grade averages in primary school. Those who participated in this research were all enrolled in gimnazija, the most sought after secondary schools and most difficult for gaining entry, so all students had achieved an A-grade average in primary school.

Places in Croatian secondary schools are limited. This means that students with lower grade averages in primary school attend less popular, vocational and trade secondary schools. The system does not preclude students’ with a higher grade average from attending one of the latter schools, but this is the exception rather than the rule.

All six teachers interviewed were female. The students were predominantly female, particularly in the Language school. Most students were present when the questionnaire was administered; only six students were absent from two classes 1 and 5. School 1 had a higher ratio of girls to boys – this prevalence of females to males may have contributed to significant differences, but was not specifically investigated due to the scope of the study.

4.3 Results of Scale Analysis of Student Questionnaire Responses

In this section, an analysis of the scale results are presented, constructed from students’ responses to the questionnaire. Students’ responses to each of the 35 closed questions were measured on a four-point Likert-response scale offering a choice of 4 = Often; 3 = Sometimes; 2 = Rarely; and 1 = Never. Questions and responses were aligned with the same five scales used by Dorman, Waldrip, and Fisher (2008), namely: Congruence, Authenticity, Consultation, Transparency and Diversity (see Table 2 for a description), each containing seven statements. Two of these: 1 – “My assessment in
Biology/Croatian/English is a fair indicator of my work” and 4 – “My assessment is a fair indication of what I am learning in Biology/Croatian/English” were analysed separately, since these specifically reflected students’ opinions and perceptions of fairness in teacher assessments.

Before further data analysis took place, Cronbach’s Alpha reliability coefficients were calculated for each of the five scales and are shown in Table 5. The Alpha coefficient for Congruence was 0.693, for Authenticity 0.605, for Consultation 0.182, for Transparency 0.540 and for Diversity 0.398. Based on an acceptable reliability coefficient for results greater than 0.500, these numbers indicate acceptable reliability for Authenticity, Congruence and Transparency, but not for Diversity and Consultation. Therefore, analyses of the Diversity and Consultation scales have been included for completeness, but the discussion of results moderated by their lack of reliability.

Analysis of the quantitative data from the student questionnaire commenced by generating descriptive statistics for students’ perceptions of teachers according to the five scales of Congruence, Authenticity, Consultation, Transparency and Diversity. Descriptive statistics focus on the mean, standard deviation and range. First, the whole student sample was analysed (see Table 5), followed by separate analyses of the respective teachers and their classes. The mean for all scales was above 3.0, except for the unreliable scales of Consultation and Diversity. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk normality tests were then applied to the distribution of scores for each scale, and skewness and kurtosis measured.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics of Student Questionnaire for the Whole Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skew¹</th>
<th>Kurt²</th>
<th>Alpha³</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>0.540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>-0.75</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
<td>0.398</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Skewness, ² Kurtosis, ³ Cronbach’s Alpha

Some of the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests for normality are shown in Table 5. They indicate significant statistics \( (p<0.0001) \) for all five scales, hence, not strictly normal distribution. However, the absolute value of skewness for
all scales was less than 1; which according to Morgan et al. (2013) and Lumley et al.
(2002) could be considered approximately normal distribution. Due to the large sample
size it was determined that the t tests and ANOVAs were adequately robust to compensate
for any lack of normality in distribution. An analysis of the data from the combined student
survey sample is reported separately below for each of the five scales.

4.4 Results of the Whole Student Sample for the Congruence Scale

The Congruence scale measured the extent to which assessment tasks aligned with
the goals of learning programs. Figure 2 shows the distribution of scores for the whole
sample of students. The mean was 3.45 and the standard deviation 0.43, with scores
ranging from .86 and a maximum score of 4.0 (see Table 5). The mean was well above the
mid-point of 2.5, situated between the response items “sometimes” and “often”. Distribution
was skewed towards high scores with kurtosis of 0.58 and skewness at -0.90.

![Histogram of the Whole Sample for the Congruence Scale](image)

*Figure 2. Histogram of the Whole Sample for the Congruence Scale*

Scores showed a heavy emphasis on response items 3 and 4 (“sometimes” and
“often”) as reflected in Figure 2, which shows a left skew trajectory in alignment with the
frequency of “sometimes” (3) responses on a maximum scale of 4 (“often”). Overall, most
students perceived assessment tasks were “sometimes” or “often” relevant to what they
were taught in class, in other words, the majority of students perceived assessment tasks as
commensurate with learning goals and a fair indication of their work in class.
Figure 3 presents a plot of the mean score for the Congruence scale based on students’ responses for each of the six teachers and shows considerable disparity between individual teachers. Teacher 1 had the highest mean of 3.63 and Teacher 5 the lowest at 3.37 compared with the overall mean of 3.45. For Teacher 1, the mean was well above the sample mean of 3.45, while the mean for the other five teachers was relatively close to the sample mean. The mean for Teacher 1 was 0.17 above the sample mean, that is, about 0.4 standard deviations above the mean.

![Figure 3. Mean Score for Each Teacher on the Congruence Scale](image)

Table 6 presents the results of a post-hoc analysis, comparing the mean scores of teachers on the Congruence scale. The most significant difference in mean can be seen for Teacher 1, considerably ahead of the others with the exception of Teacher 2, where significance was more than 0.05. This indicates that on average, students in Teacher 1’s classes perceived assessment tasks as a better reflection of the work they were doing than the others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher 1</th>
<th>Teacher 2</th>
<th>Teacher 3</th>
<th>Teacher 4</th>
<th>Teacher 5</th>
<th>Teacher 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.17*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001
Students’ mean scores for Congruence were then ranked according to the teacher with the highest mean score to the teacher with the lowest. The results are shown in Table 7. Teacher 1, the English teacher in school 1, had the highest mean score, while Teacher 5, the Biology teacher in school 2, had the lowest. Teacher 1 also had the lowest standard deviation and a significant difference in mean of 3.62 compared to the other teachers. The nearest mean was 3.48, the 0.14 difference representing approximately 0.38 standard deviations. On the scale of Congruence, measuring how faithfully assessment tasks reflected student performance, Teacher 1 was perceived most favourably.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Students’ Mean Score</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>0.386</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement 1: “My assessment in Biology/Croatian/English is a fair indicator of my work” and statement 4: “My assessment is a fair indication of what I am learning in Biology/Croatian/English” were salient to teacher fairness and warranted particular attention. Descriptive statistics for responses to these questions are provided in Tables 8 and 9, indicating approximately 50% of students responded “often”; approximately 40% responded “sometimes” and only around 2% responded “never”. It can therefore be concluded that these students perceived assessments as congruent with what they learnt in all three subjects of Croatian, Biology and English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (never)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (rarely)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (sometimes)</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (often)</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9

Response Frequencies for Statement 4 in Student Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (never)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (rarely)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (sometimes)</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (often)</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 Results of the Whole Student Sample for the Authenticity Scale

The Authenticity scale measured the extent to which assessment tasks were relevant to students’ real-life learning. Figure 4 shows the distribution of scores for the whole student sample: the mean was 3.06 and the standard deviation 0.45 with scores ranging from 1.86 to the maximum of 4 (see Table 5). The mean was above the mid-point of 2.5. Scores were mostly in the high range, with an emphasis on 3 and slight tendency towards 4, reflecting an almost symmetrical distribution of frequencies, a slightly left skewness of -0.30 and kurtosis of 2.70. Since the results lean towards the higher grades of 3 (sometimes) and 4 (often) respectively, it can be concluded that in the main, students perceived assessment tasks as relevant to real-life situations.

![Figure 4. Histogram of the Whole Sample for the Authenticity Scale](image-url)
Figure 5 shows the mean scores for the six teachers on the Authenticity scale, representing the relevance of assessment tasks to real-life situations. Considerable disparity is evident between teachers’ mean scores. As for the Congruence scale, Teacher 1 had the highest mean of 3.42, well above the sample mean of 3.07. Teachers 2 and 3 were relatively close with 3.09 and 3.08 respectively. The others, Teachers 4 and 5, scored means below 3 but above the 2.5 mid-point. Teacher 6 from school 2 scored the lowest mean of 2.93, and interestingly, the lowest standard deviation for student responses. The differences aligned with the results of the student questionnaire, where responses relating to Teacher 6 leaned more heavily towards “rarely”, while responses relating to Teacher 1 leaned more heavily towards “often”. This is a clear indication that students’ perceived assessment tasks administered by Teacher 1 as more relevant and aligned to what they were learning than students of Teacher 6.

A $t$ test analysis shows the differences between teachers’ mean scores for Authenticity in Table 10. There were significant differences between Teacher 1 and the others, as well as between Teacher 6 and Teachers 2 and 3. Teacher 1 was perceived by students to assign the most authentic assessment tasks. Teachers 2 and 3 scored significantly higher for students’ perceptions of authenticity in assessment tasks than Teacher 6. There were no significant differences between Teachers 4, 5 and 6.
Table 10

Mean Differences between Teachers for the Authenticity Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Teacher 2</th>
<th>Teacher 3</th>
<th>Teacher 4</th>
<th>Teacher 5</th>
<th>Teacher 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>.33***</td>
<td>.34***</td>
<td>.43***</td>
<td>.46***</td>
<td>.53***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.19*</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Teachers’ mean scores for Authenticity were ranked from highest to lowest (see Table 11) and show a difference of 0.33 between Teacher 1 and the teacher with the next closest score. The mean score for Teacher 1 is about 1 SD above the next highest teacher, and the mean for Teacher 6 is about 0.5 SD below Teachers 2 and 3. This indicates that Teacher 1 was perceived by students to assign assessment tasks that most closely represented relevant real-life situations, including preparing for matriculation.

Table 11

Rank Order of Mean Scores for Teachers on the Authenticity Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>No. students</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>.385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>.543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6 Results of the Whole Student Sample for the Consultation Scale

The Consultation scale measured the extent to which students were consulted by teachers about their assessment tasks. It should be noted that reliability testing yielded a low Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient for this scale and the findings should therefore be interpreted with caution. Figure 6 depicts an almost normal distribution with a relatively low mean of 2.35, close to the mid-point of 2.5, and standard deviation of 0.33. The graph of the Consultation scale scores shows a symmetrical curve, with kurtosis at 2.35 and skewness at 3.2 (see Table 5). Students’ responses to teacher consultation reflected a high frequency of “sometimes” and “often”, indicating that the teachers made most of the decisions about assessment tasks and infrequently consulted with students. Figure 6
presents the mean scores for each teacher on the Consultationscale, with the highest mean at 2.45 for Teacher 6. There is clearly disparity between teachers. Teacher 3 scored the lowest mean at 2.17, while four other teachers had similar means, all below the mid-point.

Figure 6. Histogram of the Whole Sample for the Consultation Scale

Figure 7. Mean Score for Each Teacher on the Consultation Scale

Mean differences between teachers for the Consultation scale can be seen in Table 12. Teacher 3 had the most significantly different mean compared with Teachers 1, 2, 4
and 6. Teacher 6 had the highest mean for this scale, higher than all other teachers by at least 0.04, and the lowest standard deviation. Overall however, Cronbach’s Alpha analysis of this scale indicated it was not reliable.

Table 12
Mean Differences between the Six Teachers for the Consultation Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher 1</th>
<th>Teacher 2</th>
<th>Teacher 3</th>
<th>Teacher 4</th>
<th>Teacher 5</th>
<th>Teacher 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td>0.19**</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.25***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.14*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

The mean for each teacher on the Consultation scale was ranked from highest to lowest (see Table 13), and shows Teacher 6 had the highest mean at 2.44 and Teacher 3 had the lowest at 2.18. The standard deviation, presented in Table 13, was highest for Teacher 4 at 0.41 and lowest for Teacher 6 at 0.25. Overall, the mean scores were within 0.26 of each other.

Table 13
Rank Order of Mean Scores for Teachers on the Consultation Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>No. Students</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7 Results of the Whole Student Sample for the Transparency Scale

Transparency referred to the extent of students’ knowledge regarding the requirements for successful accomplishment of a given assessment task. The results from an analysis of the data are represented in the histogram in Figure 8 and the line graph in Figure 9. In Figure 8, the distribution of Transparency scores is skewed to the left with a skewness of 3.3 and kurtosis of 3.30 towards the higher end of responses to statements on the scale. The mean was 3.26 and the standard deviation 0.453, which indicates a tendency
towards 3 “sometimes” and 4 “often” responses and shows students were relatively satisfied with transparency in assessment tasks.

Figure 8. Histogram of the Whole Sample for the Transparency Scale

Figure 9 illustrates the mean scores for each teacher on the Transparency scale. The lowest result was for Teacher 3 at 3.10.

Figure 9. Mean Score for Each Teacher on the Transparency Scale

Again, there is disparity amongst teachers on the Transparency scale, as indicated in Figure 9. This disparity can be seen more clearly in Table 14, which shows the most significant differences between teachers and indicates that Teacher 1 was perceived by
students to have a much more transparent approach to assessment compared to the others. Teacher 2 was significantly different on the Transparency scale compared to Teachers 4, 5 and 6, as was Teacher 3 in comparison with teachers 4, 5 and 6. Teachers 4 and 5 were statistically different from Teachers 1, 2 and 3, and Teacher 6 was statistically different from Teachers 2 and 3. It is clear from this analysis that teachers were not considered equally transparent by the student sample in their approach to assessment.

Table 14
Mean Differences between Teachers for the Transparency Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher 1</th>
<th>Teacher 2</th>
<th>Teacher 3</th>
<th>Teacher 4</th>
<th>Teacher 5</th>
<th>Teacher 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>0.33***</td>
<td>0.34***</td>
<td>0.17*</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.19*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.18*</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Teachers were ranked from highest to lowest mean score on the Transparency scale, which showed the standard deviation following the mean score. The results are shown in Table 15. As for Congruence and Authenticity, Teacher 1 had the highest mean score for Transparency and was rated most highly by students for fairness in assessment. Teacher 3, a Biology teacher from School 2, had the lowest mean at 3.11 and standard deviation of .34, perceived by students as the least transparent in approach to assessment.

Table 15
Rank Order of Mean Scores for Teachers on the Transparency Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>No. Students</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>.395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.359</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.8 Results of the Whole Student Sample for the Diversity Scale

The Diversity scale represented the extent to which students had equal opportunities to achieve success in assessment tasks. The higher the score, the more
students perceived having equal opportunities to achieve success. The frequency histogram in Figure 10 indicates an almost normal distribution, with the mean and median close to 2, a kurtosis of 1.9 and skewness of 0.20 (see Table 5).

![Histogram of the Whole Sample for the Diversity Scale](image)

**Figure 10.** Histogram of the Whole Sample for the Diversity Scale

The distribution curve is almost symmetrical in Figure 10, indicating a prevalence of “sometimes” responses. The mean is lower than the other scales due to the nature of these questions for which, unlike the others, lower level 1 or 2 responses indicated a positive perception of teacher subjectivity. It should be noted that this scale did not prove to be adequately reliable in the Cronbach’s Alpha test (α=0.40) and the results should therefore be considered with caution.

The graph in Figure 11 depicts the mean for each teacher on the Diversity scale. Teacher 5 (Biology) achieved the lowest score at 1.60, and Teacher 2 (Croatian) the highest at 2.25.
Considerable differences are evident in students’ responses for the Diversity scale. Table 16 shows the mean differences and $t$ test significance for teachers, with Teacher 5 having the biggest difference in mean score for the Diversity scale.

Table 16: Mean Differences between Teachers for the Diversity Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Teacher 1</th>
<th>Teacher 2</th>
<th>Teacher 3</th>
<th>Teacher 4</th>
<th>Teacher 5</th>
<th>Teacher 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.31***</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.19*</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.42***</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.32***</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.24**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Teachers’ results on the Diversity scale were placed in mean rank order (see Table 17) and showed Teacher 2 with the highest mean and Teacher 5 with the lowest standard deviation.

Table 17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank Order of Mean Scores for Teachers on the Diversity Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Diversity scale encompassed the two most crucial questions related to students’ perceptions of fairness, namely Question 32: “I am set assessment tasks that are different from other students’ work” and question 35: “I do work that is different from other students’ work”. In both cases, students indicated positive perceptions with a lower-level response. The frequency statistics for questions 32 and 35 are shown in Tables 18 and 19. It is evident that students’ responses to these two statements were overwhelmingly negative (i.e. “never”) at 74.5% and 69.9% respectively. However, in relation to teachers’ fairness, negative responses showed a positive result, that is, negative responses indicated a perception that teachers did not have a tendency to assign different assessment tasks to students and all students were treated in the same way. There were no significant differences between teachers’ mean scores in relation to students’ responses to these questions.

Table 18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (never)</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>74.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (rarely)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (sometimes)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>98.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (often)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (never)</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (rarely)</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (sometimes)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>97.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (often)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.9 Conclusions about Teachers' Scale Scores

An analysis of students’ responses to the questionnaire statements revealed positive responses overall to assessment tasks and perceptions of fairness in teachers’ assessment practices. However, there was considerable difference between students’ perceptions of individual teachers, indicated by the line graphs in Figures 6 to 11. None of the teachers scored consistently highest or consistently lowest across all five scales.

Teacher 1 scored the highest mean for the reliable scales of Congruence, Authenticity and Transparency, while Teacher 4 scored the lowest mean for the reliable scales of Congruence and Authenticity. Teacher 3 scored the lowest for Consultation and Transparency, while Teacher 6 scored highest for Consultation and lowest for Authenticity. Students’ responses attested to differences between individual teachers and warranted consideration, as did further analysis of individual teachers’ results and their two respective classes in order to provide further insights and understanding.

4.10 Variances between Scale Scores by Subject

Obvious differences between teachers in terms of students’ responses to the questionnaire were further analysed. The results of an ANOVA test are presented in Table 20, showing a statistically significant difference between subjects for Authenticity (p < 0.001), Consultation (p < 0.001), Transparency (p < 0.05) and Diversity (p < 0.001), but not for Congruence. English scored the highest mean for the reliable scales of Congruence, Authenticity and Transparency. Biology and Croatian scored the lowest means on the five scales; Croatian scored the lowest for Authenticity and Biology scored the lowest for Congruence – both reliable scales. These differences can best be seen in Figure 12 where the scales are shown in different colours, indicating students’ responses to English attaining the highest mean score. The mean scores are listed in Table 21.

Table 20

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>0.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The mean was highest for all three subjects on the Congruence scale (see Figure 12) and highest for English (see Table 21), indicating that students in all subjects perceived assessment tasks as commensurate with what was being taught in class, particularly in English. Biology scored the lowest, with a mean of 3.39. On the Authenticity scale, English was again perceived by students to most closely reflect real life with a score above 3.20, compared to 3.02 for Biology and an even lower 2.98 for Croatian.

![Figure 12. Mean of Students’ Responses by Subject and Scale in Graphical Form](image)

Table 21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Biology</th>
<th>Croatian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For the Consultation scale, the mean scores were the same for English and Croatian, indicating that on average, students’ perceived a similar level of teacher consultation in assessment tasks and slightly less consultation in Biology with a mean of 2.24.

English scored the highest mean for Transparency, indicating that assessment tasks for English were clearer than for the other subjects, assessed at well over 3.35 compared to Biology and Croatian which scored below 3.25. Croatian scored highest for Diversity with a mean of 2.15, although this scale was unreliable according to Cronbach’s Alpha.

Overall, English scored the highest on all scales, with the exception of the unreliable scales of Diversity, where Croatian scored the highest, and Consultation where English and Croatian scored the same. Both Consultation and Diversity were deemed not to be reliable or statistically significant. In summary, English scored highest on the three reliable scales, indicating that the student sample was most satisfied with English in terms of assessment. Teacher 1, the English teacher, scored highest on the reliable scales, supported by student perceptions of highest satisfaction in English.

There were significant differences in the means on some scales between the two classes taught by the same subject teacher. An analysis of these differences is shown in Table 22. The biggest difference can be seen for Biology Teacher 3 (0.73) on the Congruence scale, indicating that students of similar ability in the same subject had significantly different perceptions of their teacher, and may be reflective of different teacher behaviour, treatment or somewhat different dynamics between the students and teacher in the two classes.

![Table 22](image)

*Table 22: Mean Differences between Teachers’ Two Classes for Each Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Classes</th>
<th>Congruence</th>
<th>Authenticity</th>
<th>Consultation</th>
<th>Transparency</th>
<th>Diversity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1&amp;6</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.47*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2&amp;3</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.63*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4&amp;5</td>
<td>0.73*</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7&amp;12</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>8&amp;10</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>9&amp;11</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05
Not only were differences in means observable between teachers across the scales (see Table 20), there were also significant differences in the mean of student responses between classes of the same subject taught by the same teacher. This was most obvious in the case of Teacher 3, whose scores reflected a substantial difference in mean between Classes 4 and 5 to questions related to Congruence. The 0.73 difference in mean indicates that the students in the two classes taught by Teacher 3 had different perceptions of fairness with regard to assessment of their work. This triggered the need for individual teacher analysis, conducted in the form of six case studies – one for each teacher. Other significant differences appeared on the Diversity scale between classes 1 and 6 for Teacher 1, between classes 2 and 3 for Teacher 2 and between classes 7 and 12 for Teacher 4, however, this scale was proven to be unreliable.

4.1.1 Analysis of Open-Ended Responses for Whole Sample

In the questionnaire, students were asked to list what they did and did not like about assessments, and provision was made for any additional comments. At first, students’ comments to the open-ended questions were categorised as either positive or negative. Frequencies by class and gender are shown in Table 23 and graphically presented in Figures 13 and 14.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number of positive comments</th>
<th>Number of negative comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10*</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Three comments from students in classes 6, 10 and 12, indicated by an asterisk in Table 23, could not be categorised as either positive or negative. The comments were: “I
prefer oral examination” expressed by a female student; “This questionnaire is illogical” stated by a male student; and “If you fail a test, you can do it again” also by a male student. Examples of categorised comments from class 12 include: “assessment on compositions is unfair”, categorised as negative, and from class 6: “oral examinations are interesting”, categorised as positive.

Figures 13 and 14 depict bar graphs of the same data; one for female and one for male comments related to students’ perceptions of fairness and consistency. The higher number of comments by females than males could be attributable to the greater number of female participants than males (see Table 4). The number of positive comments almost always equals the number of negative comments across genders and classes, that is, irrespective of class or gender, students made about the same number of positive and negative comments. Therefore, in this sample of comments it cannot be said that students were more positive than negative about teacher assessment of students’ work.

![FEMALE STUDENT COMMENTS](image)

*Figure 13. Female Students’ Comments on Fairness and Consistency*
4. 12 Comments on Fairness and Consistency of Assessments

Table 24 shows students’ comments grouped as positive or negative. Six classes had a higher proportion of positive comments from females and two classes had a higher proportion of negative comments. For males, four classes had more positive than negative comments. The results indicate an absence of negative teacher perceptions, perhaps as a result of consistent application of assessment criteria.

Table 24

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Number of</th>
<th>Positive/negative</th>
<th>Student Gender</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Croatian</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A similar analysis was done of students’ comments related to Consistency. The number of comments relating to consistency and use of words like “subjective/objective” and “fair/unfair” as well as any forms of bias in all three subject areas were examined. The subject of Croatian attracted the most negative comments (9) and no positive comments from class 3, however, the teacher’s other class (class 9), made no comments whatsoever on Consistency. Such differences between two classes taught by the same teacher possibly suggest that homogeneously grouped student perceptions of teacher assessments are influenced by other factors, including human interaction and teacher personality, despite adherence to the same assessment tasks and criteria. To accurately capture students’ perceptions of consistency in assessments all their comments were classified on the basis of subjective/objective and fair/unfair wording and evident bias. Comments by female and male students are presented in Table 25 and shows a total of 19 negative comments were made about fairness by males.

Table 25

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Teacher 1</th>
<th>Teacher 2</th>
<th>Teacher 3</th>
<th>Teacher 4</th>
<th>Teacher 5</th>
<th>Teacher 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>2.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 15. Mean Score for Each Teacher for the Student Questionnaire Scales
In addition, two positive male comments, six positive female comments and four negative female comments were recorded. Given that significantly fewer males were involved in the research, there was a significantly higher number of negative comments from males regarding fairness in assessment.

### 4.13 Case Studies

An analysis of all the data (student questionnaire and teacher interviews) is presented next in the form of case studies. Each teacher taught two classes the same subject – Biology, Croatian or English. Both of these classes were homogenous in that they were grouped in alphabetical order by surname, not ability. Students who entered the school had to achieve a minimum entry requirement set at an A-grade average for Years 7 and 8 in primary school. Therefore, the two classes followed the same syllabus and curriculum as stipulated by the Croatian Education Department.

To assist with comparing teachers in the case studies, the means for the scales from the student questionnaire are presented in Table 26 for all teachers. Figure 13 displays the data in graphical form.

**Table 26**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Significance Between Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.27</td>
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<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>0.37</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
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<td>Transparency1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.39</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the reliable scales of Congruence and Authenticity, Teacher 1 scored the highest mean of 3.62 and 3.45 respectively, the highest mean by at least 0.20. For the third reliable scale of Transparency, Teacher 1 scored 2.40, exceeded only by Teacher 6 who scored 2.44.
For the unreliable scale of Consultation Teachers 1, 2 and 3 scored a mean response above 3 ("often") with Teacher 1 the highest at 3.42. In the other unreliable scale of Diversity, Teacher 1 scored third highest at 2.13, Teacher 4 scored second highest at 2.14 and Teacher 2 scored the highest at 2.23.

The next sections present an analysis of each teacher. The results of the quantitative survey data are provided for each teacher, followed by an analysis of the qualitative data from the interviews and open-ended survey questions.

4.13.1 Case Study 1

Teacher 1 from School 1 taught English as a second language to classes 1 and 6, comprised of 19 and 28 students respectively. The former was made up of 14 females and 5 males, and the latter, 22 females and 6 males for a total of 47 students in the two classes combined (see Table 4).

4.13.1.1 Quantitative Data Results

As discussed earlier, the mean scores of the student questionnaire responses were highest for Teacher 1 (see Table 23) and significantly higher than the other teachers for the reliable scales of Congruence, Authenticity and Transparency. On average, this indicates that students perceived Teacher 1s assessments to be a more commensurate measure of their abilities than the others. The only reliable scale for which Teacher 1 did not achieve the highest mean score was Transparency, suggesting this teacher's assessments were not viewed by students as the most coherent of all. Scores for all scales were then analysed by means of an ANOVA test to detect differences and similarities between classes 1 and 6 taught by Teacher 1. The results are shown in Table 26.

A significant difference (p<0001) in mean scores can be seen for the unreliable Diversity scale. For the three reliable scales, Congruence, Authenticity and Transparency, no significant differences emerged between the teacher's two classes. It can therefore be reasonably concluded that students’ perceptions of assessments were similar for these measures in both of Teacher 1’s classes.

4.13.1.2 Qualitative Data Results

Teacher 1 was asked the standard interview questions. A summary follows, together with explanations about each question in turn. Student responses from both classes to the open-ended questions supplemented the discussion. This procedure was repeated for each teacher and her two classes. Since they taught the same subject to both
classes, teachers were interviewed once – their responses are paraphrased and discussed in further detail below.

**Question 1: What assessment tools do you use?**

Teacher 1 used both oral and written tasks for tests and assessments. The specific ratio of oral to written tasks was not stated, but it is common practice in Croatia to use both in equal measure. She also used essay and grammar tasks, and endeavoured to assess all four foreign-language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. Assessment tasks included learning texts off by heart from textbooks and reproducing them orally, as well as grammar tests requiring rewriting of sentences, filling in gaps with correct verbs or prepositions. Other tasks could be found in matriculation examination papers, such as cloze (gapped text for students to provide missing words), word formation, multiple-choice, reading, comprehension and composition.

**Question 2: How often do you use these assessment tools?**

This teacher orally assessed each student three times a year and conducted written tests (English writing tasks given to the whole class under test conditions) four to five times a year, representing the obligatory number of assessments as stipulated by the state education department. Between two and four assessments took place per semester. Students were required to write an essay twice a year, in addition to two grammar and two vocabulary tests. Oral examinations were undertaken twice a year.

While written assessments were carried out with the whole class under test conditions, oral assessments did not involve all the students at the same time. This form of assessment is prevalent in Croatia, but unlike written tests, students are not all examined at the same time, nor asked the same questions under the same conditions. In oral assessments, teachers typically ask questions of students one at a time while the others listen, so the process is lengthy, drawn out and lacking in rigour and consistency.

**Question 3: Do you give the students assessment criteria?**

Teacher 1 clearly explained what she expected from her students without providing specific information on how assessments would be scored. She firmly believed that students were clear about assessment requirements.

**Question 4: If so, in what form?**

Teacher 1 stated her students had to write down the assessment criteria after she clearly explained them and copied the county grids provided by the Croatian Education
Department. She believed it was important for students to be aware of the assessment criteria because they explained the marks, how they were allocated and their meanings. Teacher 1 informed the researcher that it was the responsibility of the subject teachers in each county to decide the criteria for assessments, write them up and make them available in the school. It should be noted that all schools, by decree of the Croatian Education Department, were required to draw up assessment criteria for all their subjects at a county level. This was usually done by the subject teachers who got together and formulated the assessment criteria.

**Question 5: How consistently do you apply them?**

This teacher claimed emphatically that she applied the criteria consistently, but later admitted that she did not always do so fully. To some extent her consistency depended on the task, and she did not always apply all criteria to the same task, possibly deeming some criteria not as important as others. She explained that students’ grades for written tasks were sometimes erratic, and claimed not to place students into categories after just one test, a frequent practice in Croatia whereby teachers continue to award some students the same mark awarded for their first assessment task.

**Question 6: What do you base your assessment most on?**

In Teacher 1’s opinion, thoroughness, hard work, diligence, and depth were the most important features of students’ work. She also considered grammatical accuracy, vocabulary, word choice, and sentence construction important aspects for assessing a foreign language.

**Question 7: What do you think students think about how fair your assessment is?**

Teacher 1 thought many students’ first impression of her was that she was too strict, but as they got used to her and the way she assessed them, their perceptions changed and they became more positive. She believed students were satisfied with her assessments because they knew what she expected.

**4.13.1.3 Commentary on Student and Teacher Responses**

In her interview, Teacher 1 said she applied the assessment criteria very consistently, but acknowledged there were sometimes inconsistencies, because in her view, not all assessment criteria applied to every task in the same way. Her seemingly conflicting statements could be construed as evidence of inconsistency, yet the students’ comments appear to indicate high levels of satisfaction with this teacher’s assessment practices and
procedures. Students in both classes 1 and 6 indicated in their open-ended comments section of the questionnaire that assessments were fair. One student in class 6 corroborated Teacher 1’s remark about some students who undeservedly continued to receive consistently high grades for assessment tasks. The most frequently mentioned negative issues associated with assessments were concerned with stress, and in some cases, inappropriate assessment tasks for evaluating students’ capability. For example, some students perceived literature as unimportant for learning a language. Nevertheless, students in this particular English class were evidently satisfied overall, especially in comparison with the others.

Amongst the very few negative responses were claims from three students in one class that the topics/textbooks were boring, one student even questioned the relevance of the contents. The remainder of the student responses (15) were overwhelmingly positive regarding assessments and content. Responses about teacher involvement and notifications of upcoming assessments were positive, and students spoke affirmatively about their participation with the teacher. This was consistent with the results of the survey scales, showing high positivity for Teacher 1 compared to other teachers, and the highest mean score of all teacher participants in this research (see Table 23). It is possible there was a particular connection between this group of students and the teacher that may have influenced their generally positive perception of the subject. A typical comment from students in classes 1 and 6 was “the teacher is understanding and involved”. The majority of students (7) found that assessments reflected real life and were useful.

The only significant difference between Teacher 1’s two classes was noted in the unreliable scale of Diversity. In all other respects, the students in her two classes had similar views in relation to the other four scales, so it can reasonably be concluded that the students’ perceptions of this teacher’s assessments were similar for classes 1 and 6 in the subject of English.

Teacher 1 scored the highest for the Transparency, Authenticity and Consultation scales, consistent with students’ mostly positive comments. Other comments on what students liked and disliked about assessments in this subject were all positive and dispute any belief that assessment was a negative experience for students. Some comments about lack of objectivity were clarified by students to mean the task’s lack of objectivity (e.g. literature not relevant to foreign language learning), not the teacher’s.
4.13.2 Case Study 2

Teacher 2 taught Croatian (subject 2) to classes 2 and 3 in school 1. There were 25 and 32 students in these classes respectively; 20 females and 5 males in the former, and 27 females and 5 males in the latter. All students were present at the time of data collection and completed the questionnaire.

4.13.2.1 Quantitative Data Results

The quantitative data showed Teacher 2 scored second highest on the Congruence scale at 3.48, second lowest for Authenticity at 3.12 and third highest for Transparency at 2.37 (see Table 12). For the unreliable scales of Consultation and Diversity, she scored second highest at 3.09 and 2.23 respectively. An ANOVA was conducted to test for differences in means between Teacher 2’s two classes. A summary of the results is provided in Table 27.

The biggest difference in means between the two classes was evident in the unreliable Diversity scale, indicating equal opportunities for students in assessment tasks. However, there were also significant differences in mean (p<0.05) between this teacher’s two classes on all three reliable scales, particularly Congruence, with a mean difference of 0.22. Teacher 2’s classes also reflected mean differences in students’ perceptions of consistent assessment and the extent to which they were consulted.

Table 27

| Results of ANOVA Test on Student Questionnaire Scales for Teacher 2’s Two Classes |
|------------------|-----|-----|-----|------------------|
| Class            | N   | Mean | Std. Deviation | Significance Between Groups |
| Congruence1      | 2   | 3.36 | .52            | .043                         |
|                  | 3   | 3.59 | .27            |                              |
| Authenticity1    | 2   | 2.92 | .35            | .008                         |
|                  | 3   | 3.23 | .46            |                              |
| Consultation1    | 2   | 2.53 | .26            | .000                         |
|                  | 3   | 2.24 | .25            |                              |
| Transparency1    | 2   | 3.18 | .41            | .346                         |
|                  | 3   | 3.07 | .45            |                              |
| Diversity1       | 2   | 2.58 | .29            | .000                         |
|                  | 3   | 1.95 | .34            |                              |

Again, it should be noted that the two classes were grouped alphabetically and all students had achieved the minimum grade average for admission to the school. As with
Teacher 1, there was a significant difference between classes for the unreliable Diversity scale.

4.13.2.2 Qualitative Data Results

Teacher 2 was from school 1 and taught two classes of Croatian (subject 2). Class 2 comprised 25 students: 20 female and 5 male, and class 3 was made up of 32 students; 27 female and 5 male. The teacher was interviewed once for both classes. Her responses are paraphrased and discussed in detail below, supplemented by her students’ responses to the open-ended questions.

Q1: What assessment tools do you use?

Teacher 2 claimed to use descriptive and numerical feedback for both oral and written assessment tasks, including essays, reading the prescribed literature, written and oral book reports. This means grades were awarded both numerically and by way of comments. While feedback in oral examinations was provided orally, teachers also recorded the marks in a marks book, together with any additional comments she wished to record about students.

Q2: How often do you use these assessment tools?

This teacher’s annual assessment tasks for her students included four grammar tasks, two composition tasks and three oral tasks. This equated to roughly two written assessment tasks each semester and the three oral examinations spread out over the year, with at least one in the first semester. Over and above book reports, students were required to know the prescribed literature texts in detail for the state matriculation examination, so literature assessments comprised four tasks a year. Teacher 2 examined her students orally on a daily basis, and advised that her students were assigned 10 assessment items annually, spread out as equally as possible throughout the year. She undertook oral examinations with students individually, and all students had to complete the same exam before the next examination was set. It should be mentioned that the maximum number of oral exams were at the teacher’s discretion, provided they accounted for the required number of grades for each student.

Q3: Do you give the students assessment criteria?

Teacher 2 provided her students with the assessment criteria determined at school level both orally and in tabular form on paper. Each criterion was accompanied by a descriptor explaining in detail how marks were allocated.
Q4: If so, in what form?

    Students received the assessment criteria orally and in written form from Teacher 2, who also explained them to her students. She claimed to apply the criteria that were jointly determined by all Croatian subject teachers in the school, in accordance with a recent move to introduce unified criteria at a school level.

Q5: How consistently do you apply them?

    According to Teacher 2, every effort was made to apply the criteria as closely and consistently as possible. However, there was some disparity in her initial claims of consistency and subsequent admission that this wasn’t always the case, since she was inclined to apply them more strictly to written than oral tasks. Teacher 2 was of the view that strict application of criteria was easiest in grammar because the answers were either right or wrong. She also implemented peer assessments in her classes, whereby students assessed each other, but the results were not recorded in the teacher’s marks book.

    Teachers evidently enjoyed a great deal of freedom in their timing of examinations. They were restricted to a certain number of examinations allowed by law at any one time, and had to notify students in advance of written examinations. More than the legally specified number of examinations could only be held if the teacher had time available.

Q6: What do you base your assessment most on?

    This teacher believed assessments should evaluate how well the student was able to apply and compare the subject matter without repetition. She regarded the ability of students to analyse, synthesise, draw conclusions and reproduce knowledge as key indicators of performance. Despite the legal specifications, Teacher 2 was inclined to emphasise some criteria over others depending on the circumstances. This was confirmed when she explained that oral exams took place at different times for students, and while the topic was the same the questions were different, alluding to a lack of consistency.

    Students in this teacher’s two classes referred to subject content as a major hurdle in assessments, claiming there was too much. They also mentioned a disregard for creativity in the subject of Croatian and teachers’ subjectivity in assessments.

Q7: What do you think students think about how fair your assessment is?

    The initial response to this question was: “Don’t know. You will have to ask them that”. Teacher 2 then went on to say she believed that students were very clear about what was expected of them and understood what was needed to achieve each and every grade
for essay writing. While variations were possible in her application of specified criteria, it appears that Teacher 2’s instructions to her students were consistent, at least for written assessments.

4.13.2.3 Commentary on Student and Teacher Responses

Teacher 2 appeared to have all the “right” answers to the questions, and according to her, there was no justification for perceptions of unfairness and inconsistency. However, equal numbers of negative and positive comments were forthcoming about her assessments from the students in her two classes. For example, some students viewed grammar positively and relevant to real life, while others did not. Teacher 2’s responses indicated consistency and adherence to uniform criteria, but a considerable number of student comments (13) alluded to assessments being subjective. Therefore, despite the teacher’s claims that she adhered to criteria, the students in her classes perceived an element of subjectivity. Students’ comments were varied and difficult to group, perhaps reflective of the interpretative nature of Croatian as a subject and its associated language and literature. Students articulated a disregard for creativity and a concentrated focus on content in assessments.

A student in each of classes 2 and 3 made the comment: “I know I can’t cheat so I have to study”. The majority of students’ comments implied they had learned new, interesting and useful content with real-life application (15 students), and indicated that oral examination was subjective, biased and unfair (13 students).

Quantitatively, there was a significant difference between students’ perceptions in this teacher’s two classes in relation to Congruence, Authenticity and Transparency, as well as the unreliable scales of Consultation and Diversity, with Likert-scale responses indicating that students felt they were treated differently in assessments. The number of negative comments was more or less evenly spread across the two classes and there were no apparent differences between them, which explains why the differences between the two classes were not reflected qualitatively.

4.13.3 Case Study 3

Teacher 3 from school 1 taught two classes of Biology (subject 1). Class 4 comprised 32 students; 5 males and 27 females; and class 5 comprised 19 students; 13 females and 6 males, making up a combined total of 51 students in classes 4 and 5 who completed the questionnaire.
4.13.3.1 Quantitative Data Results

Table 28 presents the results from the ANOVA test of the student questionnaire scales for Teacher 3’s two classes, including the means and standard deviation.

Table 28
Results of ANOVA Test on Student Questionnaire Scales for Teacher 3’s Two Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
<th>Significance Between Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.32</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.35</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>.00</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teacher 3 scored the lowest mean for the reliable scales of Authenticity and Transparency, and third lowest for Congruence. For the unreliable scales, Teacher 3 scored the third highest mean for Consultation and second lowest mean for Diversity. Student responses for the reliable scales of Congruence, Authenticity and Transparency indicated a higher frequency of “rarely” (2) responses in class 5 compared to a higher number of “sometimes” (3) responses in class 4. There was a significant difference between this teacher’s two classes for the reliable scale of Congruence, (p<0.001), indicating a difference in students’ perceptions between the two classes regarding the extent to which assessments were indicative of their ability. This was despite the fact that the classes were grouped alphabetically and all students had met the minimum grade average required for entry.

4.13.3.2 Qualitative Data Results

Q1: What assessment tools do you use?

In addition to reports, talks and presentations, Teacher 3 used written and oral tests and notified her students in advance of forthcoming tests. She used the blackboard and classroom discussions in combination and asked students to come up to the board and write down the answers to her questions.

Q2: How often do you use these assessment tools?
Teacher 3 reported that classes were large, students had to acquire two grades per semester and there wasn’t time to do much more. She administered written tests twice a semester, i.e. four times a year, and students undertook at least one oral exam where they were required to answer questions on a particular topic. While the number of assessments was specified, the timing was different for each student due to the nature of oral examinations.

**Q3: Do you give the students assessment criteria?**

Teacher 3 explained to her students what each task would be assessed on and the depth and breadth of knowledge required to achieve each grade. According to her, the criteria had already been determined, so students knew what each grade and/or percentage signified.

**Q4: If so, in what form?**

Teacher 3 verbally related information about the criteria to her students at the beginning of the year. The criteria were available in written form, and both oral and written assessments followed the same standards and measures.

**Q5: How consistently do you apply them?**

This teacher claimed to always apply assessment criteria in the same way, emphasising the words “very consistent”. Written tasks were always awarded a percentage mark. On the other hand, oral criteria were applied more flexibly, especially in cases where students wavered. Teacher 3 acknowledged this could be interpreted as subjective when she was kinder than she ought to be.

**Q6. What do you base your assessment most on?**

Teacher 3 believed students’ attitudes towards the subject was most important. Their abilities with regard to cognitive thinking, critical thinking, drawing comparisons, identifying differences and making conclusions were also deemed important. She attributed her viewpoint to a recent seminar she had attended on critical thinking. Teacher 3 emphasised the importance of students’ attitudes to their work, their work history, past behaviour and diligence when it came to awarding grades.

**Q7. What do you think students think about how fair your assessment is?**

In response to this question, Teacher 3 stated she did not know and “you have to ask them”, believing that she might be looked upon as too strict to her students. She tried to always be consistent, but tended to round up grades where this could be justified as a
reward for students’ general knowledge. She claimed students had a tendency to view
teachers according to the grades they were awarded and was not concerned about this,
because in her opinion, students were only motivated to attain good grades for entry into
university. According to Teacher 3, only a handful of students had a genuine desire to
acquire knowledge and be committed to learning the subject, but this was not the norm.

4.13.3.3 Commentary on Student and Teacher Responses

Teacher 3 placed a heavy emphasis on oral questioning and tended to be flexible in
her application of criteria. Despite what appears to be subjective, inconsistent application
of criteria the students had an overwhelmingly positive view of this teacher’s fairness in
assessments. According to their comments, the teacher always included content that had
been taught in class, and while some viewed this as repetitive, the majority of students
considered this to be good preparation for matriculation.

This teacher admitted non-task related elements may unwittingly enter into her
decisions about grades. However, the students made no comment about this and there was
no evidence to suggest they perceived it as a hindrance. It is possible that students’
perceptions of fairness were influenced by the perceptions of other students and general
acceptance of their levels of performance. Nevertheless, no issues were raised about this
teacher’s fairness.

To a large extent, positive comments in relation to subject relevance, teacher
fairness and objectivity, practicality, and usefulness of subject matter outweighed
comments to the contrary. However, there was a clear emphasis on oral questioning and
flexible application of criteria, which seemed to indicate that unless students received the
grade they felt they deserved, strict and consistent application of criteria was not
significant. It may also be that adherence to set criteria was not important to students
because the teacher clearly informed them of her expectations.

Validity of examinations was of great importance to these students, so it is
reasonable to conclude that their perceptions will be positive if they perceived external
high-stakes examinations covered the work they did in the classroom. Only one student in
each of classes 4 and 5 commented: “Not all students get the same tasks”, in contrast with
the most frequent response confirming that assessments aligned with students’ knowledge
and previous learning.
The quantitative results from the Likert-scale questionnaire showed a significant difference between this teacher’s two Biology classes (4 and 5) for the reliable scales of Congruence and Transparency and the unreliable Diversity scale, and supports the high number of conflicting student comments.

4.1.3.4 Case Study 4

Teacher 4 taught two classes of English in school 2, classes 7 and 12, with 30 and 27 students respectively. All students were present and completed the questionnaire – in class 7 they included 19 females and 11 males, and in class 12 there were 15 females and 12 males.

4.1.3.4.1 Quantitative Data Results

Teacher 4 scored the second lowest mean for Congruence, third lowest for Authenticity and lowest for Transparency. For the unreliable scales, Teacher 4 scored third lowest for Consultation and second highest for Diversity (see Table 29.)

As previously mentioned, the quantitative data analysis revealed a significant difference between Teacher 4’s two classes for the Consultation and Diversity scales, indicated by a result of less than 0.05. This means that the students in these two classes had significantly different views of the teacher’s level of consultation and the opportunities afforded them to complete assessment tasks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Significance Between Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that the same teacher of two separate but homogenous (all met the A-grade entry requirement and were unstreamed) groups of students in the same subject at the same
school drew such diverse responses raises questions about what other factors might have been at play. Diversity is particularly salient, because this research focused on fairness in teachers’ assessment practices and was concerned with the extent to which students had fair and equal prospects for successfully completing assessment tasks. The results may have been influenced by different approaches and applications of assessment in the two classes. Interestingly, there was no statistically significant difference for Congruence between the two classes, i.e. the extent to which assessment tasks aligned with what had been taught in class. These students therefore concurred insofar as clarity and relevance are concerned, however, there was some evidence of unfairness in equal opportunities to achieve task successfully.

4.13.4.2 Qualitative Data Results

Teacher 4’s responses to the interview questions are summarised below. They include students’ open-ended responses to questions about various aspects of assessments.

Q1. What assessment tools do you use?

Teacher 4 believed there were too many assessments too often, comprised of eight tests per student per year in addition to oral assessments.

Q2. How often do you use these assessment tools?

This teacher assigned two grades: one for spoken language (speaking skills) and one for vocabulary, reading and listening (understanding). Written tasks took the form of essays, compositions and grammar tests. Students were tested on what they had learnt at the conclusion of a particular grammar unit or activity. Teacher 4 placed special emphasis on tenses and found it more difficult to grade oral tests because they occurred on the spot. Oral tests could also include projects, persuasive speech and research.

Q3. Do you give the students assessment criteria?

Teacher 4 claimed she explained to students what they were going to be assessed on in advance and clearly outlined her expectations. She also discussed students’ grades with them after they had been marked to clarify and explain. Teacher 4 claimed she did not have a set of assessment criteria written down.

Q4. If so, in what form?

This teacher said she provided students with the criteria in both oral and written form prior to assessments. However, she’d previously stated that she did not have the
criteria written down, which was in breach of the Croatian Ministry of Education stipulations. Teacher 4 claimed she instructed her students to write down the assessment criteria and requirements for each grade, but they were in all likelihood applied randomly. Subsequently, this teacher admitted that she only instructed her students verbally because she knew the assessment criteria off by heart and how to assess students according to their performance of tasks.

It should be noted that this teacher denied any knowledge of official criteria, yet they were provided to the researcher by the school. One lead teacher explained that teachers were responsible for reaching consensus on assessment criteria, they had to be applied to their respective subjects and the school was required to provide them to parents and students on request.

Q5. How consistently do you apply them?

Teacher 4 believed strict was fair. She stated she adhered to assessment criteria as consistently as possible, also providing students with written comments on their work. For her, the most difficult aspect was assessing creativity. Although not stated in the criteria, she took into consideration the age of the student, the topic and what she believed creativity encompassed. All students were assigned the same tasks and were assessed by this teacher depending on the nature of the task or topic at hand.

Q6. What do you base your assessment most on?

Teacher 4 assessed her students depending on the skill or task they were being assessed on. She made mention of students who made a special effort and asked how one should evaluate effort since it wasn’t a stipulated criterion. According to this teacher, students were rarely awarded a 1 (Fail) in her subject.

Q7. What do you think students think about how fair your assessment is?

Teacher 4 believed there were too many grades and too much testing throughout the year. In general, she felt students didn’t mind assessments; it depended on the student. Some found it stressful, while others learnt in rote fashion. In her opinion, some students liked assessments and others just liked getting good grades.

4.13.4.3 Commentary on Student and Teacher Responses

Teacher and student comments indicate that assessment criteria were not characterised by consultation or known in advance by either the teacher or the students. As reflected by Teacher 4’s statements, it appears that oral assessments were undertaken
randomly, depending on what was important to her at the time and based on her judgement of appropriate tasks.

Students’ comments intimate they were assessed on relevant content in English and suggest the teacher’s objective was to promote and encourage improvement. One student said: “Strange grading system, if you fail a test, you can do it again”. In contrast to the aim of consistent teacher assessment, fairness towards other students was not mentioned, nor the fact that it was entirely the teacher’s prerogative to decide who could retake the test. Student responses to the Likert-scale questions relating to Consultation and Diversity revealed significant differences, but a number of students in her two classes (7 and 12) reported being consulted by this teacher in relation to assessments.

4.13.5 Case Study 5

Teacher 5 taught two Biology classes in school 2, namely classes 8 and 10 with 30 and 27 students respectively. All students completed the questionnaire. Class 8 included 19 females and 11 males, and class 10 comprised 14 females and 13 males.

4.13.5.1 Quantitative Data Results

Compared with the others, Teacher 5 scored lowest for Congruence, third highest for Authenticity and second lowest for Transparency. For the unreliable scales, Teacher 5 scored second lowest for Consultation and the lowest mean for Diversity.

There was a significant difference between the two classes for the reliable scale of Authenticity at 0.23 and the unreliable scale of Transparency, indicating a significant difference in student perceptions of transparency between the two classes and varied perceptions of Teacher 5’s approach to assessments (see Table 30).

Table 30
Results of ANOVA Test on Student Questionnaire Scales for Teacher 5’s Two Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Difference Between Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence 1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.13.5.2 Qualitative Data Results

Teacher 5’s responses are provided below, supplemented with students’ comments to the open-ended questions.

Q1. What assessment tools do you use?

Teacher 5 used both oral and written assessment tasks. In addition, a project assessment task was assigned to some students to improve their grade average in the subject.

Q2. How often do you use these assessment tools?

Teacher 5 conducted oral and written assessment tasks four times annually with each student.

Q3. Do you give the students assessment criteria?

Teacher 5 claimed to have access to the written assessment criteria set at school level. However, for oral assessments, she believed the criteria could be applied more flexibly. Assessments were carried out at the conclusion of each unit.

Q4. If so, in what form?

This teacher stated she applied the assessment criteria 100% of the time since the students had open access to them, and believed this enforced a certain measure of transparency and protection for teachers. She made every effort to be as consistent as possible to motivate her students and never used grades to discipline or punish them. She again referred to the project assessment task she assigned to students who wanted to improve their grades.

Q5. How consistently do you apply them?

Unlike other teachers who used marks books, Teacher 5 maintained a comprehensive record of student assessments on computer. She believed her assessment system was transparent and accessible to all relevant parties, namely the student, his or her parents and the principal.

Q6. What do you base your assessment most on?

Teacher 5 mainly based her assessments on critical thinking, comparing and contrasting texts and drawing conclusions.
Q7. What do you think students think about how fair your assessment is?

This teacher believed her students considered her grading to be strict at first because they simply wanted to achieve good grades. She claimed students would do anything to outwit teachers to achieve their goal.

4.13.5.3 Commentary on Student and Teacher Responses

It was apparent from her comments that this teacher believed she was consistent. However, she admitted being flexible with certain types of assessments, even giving some students bonus tasks to improve or maintain good grades. Students’ comments in relation to bonus tasks were positive in all cases and indicated they accepted the additional opportunity given to some and not others to improve their grades. Whilst appearing resigned to this practice, the absence of negative comments may also reflect a lack of competitiveness among students.

Students’ comments reflected a mix of perceptions, ranging from assessment tasks being useful to irrelevant. Positive and negative views were expressed in relation to students knowing or not knowing what they would be assessed on. One student placed this in the negative section and one in the positive section. The majority of students’ comments related to oral testing, which was mainly viewed in a negative light.

Significant differences between classes 8 and 10 were observable for the reliable scale of Authenticity and the unreliable Transparency and Diversity scales. Student comments reflected a lack of relevance of assessment tasks in the subject of Biology.

4.13.6 Case Study 6

Teacher 6 from school 2 taught two classes of Croatian (subject 2). Class 9 numbered 30 students comprised of 14 females and 16 males; and class 11 numbered 30 students comprised of 20 females and 10 males. All were present at the time of data collection and completed the questionnaire.

4.13.6.1 Quantitative Data Results

Teacher 6 scored the third highest mean for Congruence, the second highest for Authenticity and the highest for Transparency at 2.44 (see Table 31). For the unreliable scales she scored the lowest mean for Consultation and the third lowest for Diversity.
Table 31
Results of ANOVA Test on Student Questionnaire Scales for Teacher 6’s Two Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Difference Between Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The biggest difference between the perceptions of the two classes was noted in the unreliable scale of Diversity, representing equal opportunities in assessment tasks. Other differences were not significant, indicating both classes had similar perceptions of this teacher in relation to the five scales.

4.13.6.2 Qualitative Data Results

The responses of Teacher 6 to the interview questions are provided below.

Q1. What assessment tools do you use?

Teacher 6 used both oral and written exams to assess her students, including various tasks such as multiple choice questions, essays, short answers and grammar exercises. Compositions, oral questioning and book reports were also mentioned.

Q2. How often do you use these assessment tools?

This teacher conducted written and oral assessments six times a year respectively. Assessments in the form of essay writing were undertaken twice a year, there was one written grammar task every month and a book report on a set novel every fortnight.

Q3. Do you give the students assessment criteria?

Teacher 6 stated the criteria were written down by her students, and although explicit, she nevertheless applied them at her own discretion. She was of the view that grading was essentially up to the teacher and the criteria were open to interpretation and teacher weighting.
Q4. If so, in what form?

This was answered above.

Q5. How consistently do you apply them?

Teacher 6 stated she consistently applied assessment criteria 100% of the time, but was more flexible in oral examinations and used her own interpretation and judgement to decide on grades, particularly when students didn’t follow all the requirements or fulfil all the criteria. Oral exams were a frequent occurrence, yet strict criteria were evidently not applied consistently and the grade was awarded at the teacher’s discretion.

Q6. What do you base your assessment most on?

For this teacher, critical thinking was most important and involved comparing, contrasting, applying and interpreting texts. Teacher 6 assessed students on the breadth of their interpretation and reiterated the importance of this aspect. She articulated a tendency to weight the criteria, thereby influencing the grade awarded.

As far as oral examinations were concerned, this teacher rated factual knowledge most highly, especially when it came to literature, and students were required to know the content in detail. This contradicts her previous response indicating that critical thinking was most important, so one could conclude that an ability to regurgitate details was also somewhat important.

Q7. What do you think students think about how fair your assessment is?

Teacher 6 believed her students’ perceived her assessments as tough and the subject difficult. All they wanted, in her opinion, was good grades. She claimed they viewed grammar as objective, i.e. right or wrong, and literature as subjective, some students finding the latter criteria difficult to define because they all had their own interpretation. This teacher was of the view that students would do anything to outwit teachers in order to attain better grades or maintain high grades.

Teacher 6 reported that students frequently questioned the relevance of certain tasks: “Why did they have these tasks”. They frequently asked why she assessed in a particular way, seeking justification and explanation. Students wanted to know what she based her assessment criteria on, so she continually found herself in the difficult situation of having to explain. This teacher had previously administered a questionnaire with her students that included a question about assessments; however, many were unwilling to express negative views for fear of reprisals and punishment in the form of poor grades.
4.13.6.3 Commentary on Student and Teacher Responses

The students’ comments collected from the open-ended questions in the student questionnaire showed similar numbers of positive and negative responses. No one single comment stood out as extraordinary and the responses appeared logical. For example, comments like “if you don’t know the answers you fail” indicated a positive view of subjectivity and “assessment tasks make students revise completed units for tests” indicated a negative view. One student commented negatively that he didn’t like assessments and they weren’t useful, while another student commented positively, saying he liked assessments and it helped him learn. The teacher’s emphatic claims that criteria were always provided and adhered to seemed somewhat rehearsed to convey a positive impression.

The qualitative data concurred with the quantitative data in that students in the two classes were united in their responses to assessment, confirmed by the fact that there were no significant differences between this teacher’s two classes for any of the scales. Students’ perceptions of Teacher 6’s assessments tended towards the mid to high range, i.e. mostly position 3, compared to the other teachers. She scored the lowest only for Authenticity. Students’ comments on the importance of getting good grades to get into university were mentioned in both negative and positive contexts. Eight students from class 9 and six students from class 11 stated that paying attention in class and writing things down helped to know what they would be assessed on. One student commented: “we are not assessed on applying, but on reproducing information”.

Quantitatively, there were no significant differences between classes 9 and 11 for all the scales, reflecting a similar distribution of positive and negative comments from these two classes, although the comment made by Teacher 6 regarding the reluctance of some students to express an honest opinion for fear of repercussions should be borne in mind.

4.14 Cross-Case Analysis of Teacher and Student Responses

In this section the results of the cross-case analysis of teacher and student responses to the open-ended questions are presented, together with the similarities and differences that emerged between teachers’ responses to the interview questions and students’ responses to the open-ended questions in the survey.
4.14.1 Consistent Application of Assessment Tasks

Most teachers claimed to set prescribed assessment tasks to all students equally. Only Teacher 5 used an additional assessment task for certain students to improve their grade average in her subject. It can therefore be concluded that, in general, the teachers were consistent in their application of assessment tasks. However, when it came to oral examinations, used in all subjects, assessment criteria appeared to be applied more loosely, thereby lacking consistency in practice.

The Diversity scale reflected the extent to which students perceived they were fairly and equally treated in assessment tasks. Teacher 5’s selective assignment of additional project tasks was not reflected in students’ responses for the Diversity scale. However, it should be noted that unlike the other scales, a lower level response for this scale indicated a positive reply, as a response of never or rarely to questions about whether students did different assessment tasks from others supported the principle of consistent assessment. Teacher 5 was not viewed negatively by students. She scored second lowest for the unreliable scale of Diversity, where a lower mean reflected a more positive view by students (see Tables 18 and 19). Furthermore, student dissatisfaction in this area was not supported by their comments. In fact, Table 25 shows there were no negative comments from students with regard to Teacher 5’s fairness and consistency.

4.14.2 Consistent Application of Assessment Criteria

Criteria were determined collectively by subject teachers at a county level and used in all schools. Only one teacher (Teacher 4) claimed not to have any criteria, even though they existed for her subject (English) as they did for all others. The existence and availability of criteria were aimed at improving consistency in teacher assessments, yet the prescribed criteria themselves, written up and approved by all subject teachers in the county, permit a degree of divergence in practice. This was evident in county criteria statements, such as this one below for English in secondary schools:

2. The assessment for grammar tests, dictations and essays is accepted in full by the county group of English teachers, while for oral questioning/examination the teachers reserve the right to their own application of their own criteria, but always in keeping with the specific contents. Students will be informed about this at the first class.

And from the criteria for Croatian:
In determining final grades, given the division of content (70% literature, grammar 30%) the rubric for literature represents the most important part (oral and written) are the first component in the marks book (literature, language, oral and written expression, literature and school tasks).

The guidelines accompanying the criteria for the subject of Croatian state:

Students will at the beginning be made aware the final grade does not consist only of an arithmetic mean, but also takes into account student class participation, behaviour, attendance and regular completion of tasks and duties.

It is highly likely that these statements from official documents, allowing teachers a measure of freedom to implement their own assessment criteria, had an influence on them using their personal impressions in making judgements and decisions. Nor do they uphold the principle of consistent application as teachers claimed to be doing. The statement: “the final grade does not consist only of an arithmetic mean” but also other factors that are not regulated in any way and left to teachers’ discretion, attests to the likelihood of inconsistencies. Furthermore, Teachers 5 and 6 acknowledged including subjective factors like students’ conscientiousness.

Oral questioning was used by all teachers as an assessment tool. Some teachers’ responses overtly indicated the inclusion of non-task related or subjective criteria in their judgements of student performance, such as students’ diligence, conscientiousness and past performance. All six teachers administered the required number of assessment tasks stipulated by law to yield a grade average for each student in their particular subject. All but one teacher reported the existence and availability of criteria within the school, and all claimed to apply them consistently. Even Teacher 4, who stated she didn’t have the criteria written down, said she had them “in her head” and applied them consistently, signalling an awareness amongst teachers of the importance of setting and applying assessment criteria consistently. The students in Teacher 4’s class made several comments about the lack of consistency in assessments; one student in class 12 expressed the view that the teacher’s grading system was not good enough. Another student in the same class said if you failed a test you could take it again, while yet another described the grading system as “strange”. These comments seem to indicate a certain amount of student dissatisfaction with consistency, perhaps as a result of the teacher not having the criteria written down.
4.14.3 Oral Testing

Oral testing was a constant issue for these teachers because the mandated requirements did not support consistency and fairness, as evidenced by some of their responses. Allowing for broad interpretation and teachers’ own judgements do not constitute the basis of fair and consistent assessment. Documents outlining subject assessment requirements, as created by teachers at county level and demanded by the Croatian Ministry of Education, confirmed the inclusion of oral questioning assessment tasks for all subjects. The guidelines for Biology state:

Answers in oral form are the major form of testing student achievement. During the year, student achievement can be checked in this way in every class without prior announcement and at a minimum of three times: once in the first and twice in the second semester (due to the difference in semester durations).

The likelihood of inconsistencies was also increased by oral testing not being applied under the same conditions for all students and the absence of records in oral testing. Students were questioned orally numerous times a year for each subject, based on textbooks chosen by subject teachers from a list authorised by the Croatian Education Department. In all subjects, teachers selected a chapter for examination and formulated the questions, but despite covering the same units of learning, the questions themselves varied in number and complexity, since they weren’t ordered in any way and were administered randomly without any semblance of uniformity. They were not stratified to ensure the same level of difficulty of question for each student. This indicates that oral examinations in Croatian schools, although an accepted form of assessment and supported by the Education Department, were open to a high degree of inconsistency in practice.

4.15 Summary

The data provided by 330 students who completed a 35-item questionnaire and six teachers who participated in a seven-question interview were analysed in this chapter. An analysis was also undertaken of the documents provided by the schools, stipulating the required assessment criteria for each of the three subjects of Biology, Croatian and English.

The questionnaire included 35 closed-response items with seven possible responses for each of five scales, viz., Congruence, Authenticity, Consultation, Transparency and
Diversity. Analysis of each scale included Cronbach’s Alpha for reliability. Acceptable results emerged for the scales of Authenticity and Congruence, and to a lesser extent for Transparency, indicating that in general, students perceived teacher assessments positively. This concurred with teachers’ responses; only one teacher disclosed assigning an additional project task to certain students to boost their grade average. The Likert scale responses implied that, in general, students viewed their teachers and assessment procedures positively.

Analysis of student comments about assessments showed an almost equal distribution of positive and negative responses, irrespective of class or gender. Questions about fairness and consistency appeared to attract more male comments and a higher number of negative comments from males, despite a predominance of females in the sample groups.

All but one teacher (Teacher 4) reported possessing assessment criteria and applying them consistently. Assessment tasks prescribed by the Croatian Ministry of Education were assigned to all students, with the exception of Teacher 5, who also assigned an additional task to certain students. Oral testing, approved by the Ministry of Education, were most vulnerable to inconsistent application of assessment criteria, as confirmed by the assessment documents, and students’ and teachers’ comments. The documents contained the assessment criteria determined by teachers at a county level and prescribed by the Ministry of Education; however, some teachers acknowledged they included other criteria unrelated to students’ task achievement.

In comparing teachers, English teacher (Teacher 1) scored most favourably despite some discrepancies in the perceptions of students in her two classes. Students in this teacher’s two classes perceived her differently in relation to assessments being a fair indication of their work. Teacher 3, who taught Biology, showed the biggest discrepancy between student responses in her two classes. As a subject, English was viewed most favourably by the students.

The next chapter includes an interpretation of the results from these analyses with reference to the conceptual framework and the research questions. Possible meanings and reasons are provided, informed by the data and correlations with the literature.
Chapter Five: Discussion

In this chapter, the findings have been organised in accordance with the Conceptual Framework (Figure 1) that guided the research questions for the study. It begins with the perceptions of participants regarding the need and purpose of assessments and who is responsible, followed by a discussion of how assessment tasks and criteria were created, how consistently they were applied and the resulting outcomes for students.

5.1 The Need for Assessment and who is Responsible

Teacher assessments have received much attention in recent years because they play such an integral part in education (Darling-Hammond, 2014; Perso, 2009). In general, the students and teachers involved in this research agreed that assessments were necessary. In their opinion, the main purpose of assessments was to attain eligible grades for university entrance and fulfil teachers’ legal requirements towards their students. All the teachers interviewed stated they mainly implemented assessments because it was a requirement of their job (Harlem, 2005; Strahinić, 2011). In response to questions about what assessment tasks they used and how often, all teachers confirmed using oral and written assessment tasks a set number of times during the year as stipulated by the Croatian Ministry of Education. The literature review uncovered several research studies on culturally influenced and country-specific assessment practices (Dayal & Lingham, 2015; DeLuca et al., 2013 McMahon & Jones, 2015) in an attempt to improve overall assessment practices in education, and it was clear that the high usage of oral examination is characteristic of the Croatian education system.

In this study, comments from both students and teachers indicated a perception of assessments as being mainly the business of the teacher (Barnes et al., 2017), despite the fact that the Croatian Ministry of Education set the final matriculation examination which is marked by external examiners. The matriculation exam is classified as a high-stakes exam, instigated by an official body (Klenovski, 2011). Examiners comprise subject teachers from different schools throughout the country, organised by the Croatian Ministry of Education. The perception of assessments as mainly the teachers’ business could be attributed to the significant impact of subject teachers’ grades throughout students’ schooling on their successful entry into university. The perception of assessments as mainly teachers’ business was described by Rust et al. (2003) as teacher controlled or teacher dominated assessment, meaning that teachers are responsible for activating and
implementing them. This perhaps explains why the comments of 14 students on assessments included the word “teacher” and only two included the word “matriculation”.

All the teachers interviewed stated that they alone were responsible for assessing students and awarding grades. Other than the Ministry of Education’s requirements for a certain number of assessments, no-one else was mentioned as a participant in the assessment process. The numerical grades awarded to students formed a significant part of their reports, accounting for up to 30% or more towards university entry. In this way, every numerical grade had consequences for university entry, with almost the same high stakes as the matura or matriculation itself (McMahon & Jones, 2015). Students did not view the purpose of assessment as a vehicle for learning or developing skills for life (McGaw, 2006; Stobart, 2010), but rather as a means to an end, that is, to achieve the highest possible grades. Students who fail three subjects in one year have to repeat the year, so to a large extent teachers are the creators of students’ destinies and the only provider of what needs to be learned (Domovic, 2004; Pivac, 2009; Strahinić, 2011).

The open-ended questions in the student questionnaire made no mention of students’ self-assessment or peer assessment of one another. This is not unusual in the Croatian education system, where teachers are considered the sole providers and assessors of knowledge, rather than as facilitators for students to create and assess knowledge (Pivac, 2009). In the case of assessments, teachers appear to be the foremost designers and implementers, that is, they create and assign assessments from the top down and students accept what teachers decide.

All teachers claimed to only use assessment tasks set by the teachers themselves. Furman (2009) reinforced the notion that assessment processes are generally carried out by teachers and accepted by students who carry out the assessment tasks. This study confirms that subjecting Croatian students to teacher-driven assessments is in accordance with the expectations of both students and teachers. No student or teacher made any comments to refute the teachers’ unilateral role in assigning assessment tasks to students, who carried them out accordingly.

5.2 Creation of Assessment Tasks

Most teachers regarded assessment tasks as summative, required to award students a numerical grade (Canal et al., 2012; Dargusch, 2014; Sadler, 2009). All teachers responded to questions about the assessment tasks they used in reference to the
expectations of the Croatian Education Department. In particular, they mentioned the mandated number of oral and written assessment tasks for each course per semester. Even though teachers were responsible for imposing tasks on students and grading them, assessments were fundamentally determined by the national curriculum and the Croatian Education Department through allocating textbooks and specifying the topics to be covered.

5.2.1 Types of Assessment Tasks

Assessment tasks can be various (Darling-Hammond, 1994; McLaughlin, 2010). In this research, teachers mainly used summative assessment tasks, both written and oral in equal measure, as required by the Croatian Ministry of Education, in order to award students with a numerical grade average for a subject.

Only Teacher 5, who taught Biology in school 2, assigned additional projects to certain students that were not prescribed by the Education Department, giving these students an unfair advantage to boost their grade averages. According to this teacher, grades awarded for these projects were used solely to improve students’ overall grades and facilitate positive outcomes. No negative consequences were reported. However, she did not explain how consistency was achieved in light of the above situation, that is, she didn’t address the inequality of this practice, which calls into question consistency in the assignment of assessment tasks.

The inclusion of Biology as a type of formative assessment assisted Teacher 5 in making judgements, which in turn, built up a cumulative record of student achievement. Apart from the additional project task assigned by Teacher 5, summative assessment tasks predominated for the other teachers (Black et al., 2010). Contrary to summative tasks designed to make judgements about student achievements at certain points in the unit of study, this additional project task is an example of a formative assessment task created by the teacher. Assessment tasks provided numerical grades that ultimately contributed to the student’s final grade average, and was used for reporting and determining entry into university. The selective nature of offering certain students an opportunity to complete or improve their grades in a particular subject contradicts fair and equal assessment practices (Alm & Colnerud, 2015; Brookhart, 2015, Scott et al., 2013).

Students’ comments about assessments referred to oral examinations as well as written tasks. For example, this comment from a Biology student in class 8: “most of the
time we are examined on things we have learnt in class” does not specify the type of assessment task or whether it was oral or written. However, comments such as this one from a Biology student in class 10: “stress caused by oral examination every lesson” clearly refers to oral examination. Specific comments about written assessments included only two negative responses: a) “essays are assessed too strictly” and b) “too many written and oral exams” (class 4, male Biology student). The word “unfair” was specifically used in relation to oral examinations by a male student of Croatian in class 3 (“unfair oral exams”), but not specifically to written tasks. Other negative comments made reference to assessments in general, but it was unclear whether they pertained to oral or written tasks.

5.2.2 Oral Assessment Tasks

In contrast to Australia, where oral assessments are typically used in the study of foreign languages, they are a common form of assessment in all subjects in Croatia. In Australia, an oral interview usually assesses students’ speaking skills, in addition to pen-and-paper testing of reading, writing and listening, so the unique nature of oral questioning/examination in Croatia as an assessment task required special attention in this thesis. The documents provided by the teachers were created collectively by groups of teachers at county level, as demanded by the Croatian Ministry of Education, and included oral assessment tasks for all subjects.

Croatian secondary students are questioned orally a number of times per semester/year for each subject. The textbooks used by the school are chosen by the teachers at that school from a list of possible options authorised by the Croatian Education Department. Typically, teachers chose a chapter of the book for examination and formulated questions for a particular class or classes. Although the questioning focused on the same units of learning for all students, the questions themselves varied and meant that some students were asked more numerous and more complex questions than others. The questions weren’t categorised, even though they were based on and used to test the same content covered in class. The extent to which oral questioning aligned with instructions remains vague since there is no record of oral testing (Kellermeier, 2010), and once completed, there is no record of the examination.

Questions for oral exams were not provided to students in advance; only the subject matter, e.g., the particular chapter/s in a prescribed textbook. Neither did they know exactly when they would be called upon to be examined. Since there were approximately 30 students in each class, oral assessments were held at different times over several weeks.
in front of the class, so it was unlikely that the teacher asked all students the same
questions. Students were only excused from examinations a limited number of times, so it
could be speculated that teacher practices may have encouraged some students to truant if
they were not adequately prepared or feared failing the examination (Strahinić, 2011).
Teacher prejudice may also have manifested in the formulation of questions, over which
teachers had complete freedom.

Moreover, oral examinations raised issues with regard to productive use of class
time because they were time consuming and held several times a year (Sayre, 2014). Sayre
argued that oral examining is only suitable for small groups because they are time
consuming. However, this is not the case in Croatia, where large classes with up to 32
students per class (see Table 4) are the order of the day. None of the student participants
mentioned receiving any training from teachers in oral questioning.

All these practices in oral testing call into question the fairness and consistency of
teacher assessments on the part of students (Luoma, 2004; Munoz & Alvarez, 2010;
Newhouse, 2013). For example, a female student, taught Croatian by Teacher 2 in class 3,
said: “the teacher is subjective in oral examination”. Another female student in the same
class replied: “unfair oral examinations”. These comments indicate students’ perceptions
of oral examinations, a common form of assessment in Croatian secondary schools, as a
less fair form of assessment.

This study highlighted the disadvantages of oral examinations for students due to
teacher subjectivity and not knowing when they will take place, therefore catching them
unprepared, not to mention the ineffective use of class time, particularly in view of the fact
that they comprise around half of all assessments. The average class size in this research
was 28 students, and 3 hours of class time a week was allocated to each subject. Despite
their advantages for large classes, project tasks that promote interdisciplinary engagement
were rarely employed, conflicting with curriculum policies on compartmentalisation and a
decree against teaching subjects in isolation (Koludrović, 2013).

5.2.3 Written Assessment Tasks

Some students commented on the difficulty of written assessment tasks, while
others stated it helped them to revise, learn and prepare for the national matriculation
exam. For certain students assessments were interesting; for others they were boring and
irrelevant to real life. While it was not always determinable from students’ general
comments whether they were referring to oral or written tasks, it was abundantly clear from their specific comments on oral examinations (Munoz & Alvarez, 2004; Trskan, 2005).

5.2.4 Summary of Assessment Tasks

Teachers created and used both oral and written assessment tasks as stipulated by the Croatian Education Department. They confirmed in the interviews that two or three of each type of assessments took place each semester. It was clear that oral examination exposed students to teacher bias, and led to a lack of consistency and negative perceptions among students. They perceived the purpose of oral assessments as contributing to a total score and final grade for semester, the results from both semesters giving the final grade for the year.

5.3 Creation of Assessment Criteria

Carefully conceived assessment criteria are critical to the value and outcomes of assessments for a number of reasons. Norcini et al. (2011) was a strong supporter of good assessment criteria and identified seven essential factors: validity or coherence, consistency, equivalence, feasibility, educational effect and acceptability. These factors were formulated from a consensus statement and recommendations by the Ottawa 2010 Conference, founded on the perspectives of stakeholders comprised of teachers and educational institutions.

The assessment criteria provided by teachers involved in this research included information about what constituted each grade and the various types of teacher assessments depending on the subject. Students were advised what each grade meant and the percentages required for grades 5, 4, 3, 2 (all passing grades in Croatia) and 1 (fail), equivalent to an A, B, C, D (unsatisfactory) which also constitutes a pass in Croatia and F (fail) respectively. Students were awarded a numerical grade depending on how well they met the criteria.

The subject assessment criteria were formulated at a county level by decree of the Croatian Education Department and brought together subject teachers from 21 counties. This method raises questions about the conflict of individual teachers, with differing personal beliefs, in applying group-defined criteria enforced by an external agency, and their commitment to complying (Allal, 2012; Hughes & Cappa, 2010; Sun & Chen, 2013).
The next section discusses the degree to which these factors interfere with one another and impede consistent application of criteria.

5.3.1 Criteria for Oral Assessment

Several issues arise from oral examination practices in Croatia; amongst them the option for teachers’ to deviate from evaluating actual performance of assessment tasks and the lack of documentation (Newhouse, 2013), since they allow for teacher bias. Oral assessments have practical advantages for teachers: they take place during class time and are less onerous than grading written papers which means less “take-home” work. Subject criteria for oral examinations, as mandated by the Croatian Education Department, were included in the written documents provided by the teachers.

Oral examinations took place during class time, where assessing performance in a short space of time and without criteria make a consistent approach difficult. It is therefore reasonable to conclude that teachers were prone to subjectivity, and despite their unanimous claims of objectivity in the application of criteria, this was unlikely to be the case when they were free to make their own choices and decisions (Kellermeier, 2010). This was evident from the teachers of Croatian in schools 1 and 2, who both stated they applied the criteria strictly for written tasks but less so for oral tasks. Similarly, the Biology teacher in school 1 applied the set criteria strictly to written tasks, but was more flexible with oral tasks.

5.3.2 Selection of Criteria

The school assessment documents provided to the researcher included statements about making students aware that their grades were not merely mathematical, but also included attendance, work ethic and attitude. There can be little doubt that these variables made it acceptable for non-task related bias to creep into teachers’ assessments of student performance.

Students were given to understand that factors such as behaviour and classroom participation were taken into consideration and could affect their grades. These criteria were not specifically defined; neither their application, nor how they would be reflected in the final grade. Grades could therefore be inflated or deflated at will, for reasons unrelated to students’ demonstration of ability. By way of example, students with a reserved personality may be hampered to participate in classroom discussions, and despite being more capable than other students, their lack of participation could lower their overall
grades (Charampoulos & Kokkinos, 2014). In contrast, a less capable student who frequently contributes to classroom discussions may receive an inflated grade for ability. Questions that arise are how are these factors quantified, to what extent do they contribute and how is this reflected in the grade? One female student of Croatian in class 3 (school 1) stated: “the teacher is biased most of the time”. Six other female students in the same class commented on the teacher being “subjective” in assessments. “Subjective” was also used by a Biology student in class 5 and by students of Croatian in classes 9 and 11, indicating a tendency for teachers to take into account unrelated factors to task achievement.

5.3.3 Student Access to Criteria

Most subject teachers in the schools involved in this research claimed they provided students with assessment criteria both verbally and in written form. They included the mandated requirements of the Croatian Education Department and those created by groups of subject teachers at county level for each subject. The criteria were officially lodged with the school and available to students and parents. They were provided to the researcher by the teachers interviewed and obtained from the school office, where they were kept in a filing cabinet of the subject teacher in charge. The criteria were available to all teachers involved in this research. Only Teacher 4 stated she didn’t have the written assessment criteria but they were “in her head”. Nevertheless, students’ perceptions of Teacher 4’s fairness in assessments were no less positive than those for the other teachers. The vast majority of teachers were aware that criteria existed and communicated them to their students, yet the students seemed unconcerned about whether assessment criteria were formalised or not. Teachers implemented the criteria at their own discretion, formally or informally. Teacher 4 openly stated she did not apply any formal criteria and claimed to explain their grades to her students. For the reliable scales, Teacher 4 scored second lowest for Congruence, third lowest for Authenticity and lowest for Transparency (see Table 12), and for the unreliable scales she scored third lowest for Consultation and second highest for Diversity. Having acknowledged that she didn’t use assessment criteria consistently, this teacher only scored lowest for students’ clarity about assessment tasks, perhaps indicating acceptance of unfair grading and resignation on the part of her students.

5.3.4 Students’ Acceptance of Assessment Tasks and Criteria

The findings of this research suggest the existence of assessment criteria did not necessarily guarantee students’ acceptance of them, nor did the implementation of criteria necessarily eliminate teacher bias. Interestingly however, there didn’t appear to be a
connection between the lack of assessment criteria and student dissatisfaction; or between ad- hoc teacher-generated criteria and student perceptions of unfairness. However, this could be a result of students’ resignation to the status quo, where despite perceptions of unfairness, criteria gradually become accepted as the norm.

Carmines and Zeller (1979) purported accurate measurements lead to accurate conclusions. Very few statements from the six teachers inferred they made judgements about students based on personality. Even though unrelated to specific assessment tasks, two teachers mentioned diligence and conscientiousness as factors that could influence their grading of students, posing a danger to accurate reflection of student ability (Allal, 2012). Furthermore, the flexibility of teachers to use their own judgement and include elements not directly related to students’ achievements in oral examinations, means that final grades were unaccountably open to interpretation and adjustment.

5.4 Application of Assessment Tasks and Criteria

An article titled Teachers as Mediators (Dargusch, 2014) focused on concerns related to teachers’ application of assessment criteria. The research was conducted in two Queensland, Australian high schools and contained a discussion about teachers’ reluctance to use assessment criteria, their divergence from and use of additional criteria, and the role of teachers’ personal judgement in student learning. All but one teacher in the study claimed assessment criteria existed and they were applied consistently in order to evaluate students’ work as uniformly as possibly.

In the current study, Teacher 4 stated she had no written criteria but they were in her head, so it is unclear what exactly her criteria consisted of. All the other teachers had written criteria, and claimed they provided them to their students and applied them rigorously. Five teachers confirmed using assessment criteria created at county level. Since the criteria mandated by the Croatian Ministry of Education allowed for the inclusion of factors like student diligence and attitude, it is probable that they were taken into consideration in awarding a final grade. It is therefore highly likely that factors unrelated to task achievement impact on students’ grades in Croatia, as they do in other countries around the world (Brookhart, 2015). Brookhart’s analysis of grades in America over the centuries support this contention. The author examined students’ standards-based grades and created an appraisal scale for measuring how closely teachers followed recommended grading practices. The findings proved that composite report cards, focused on classroom achievements and encompassing student learning goals, yielded more valid grades.
Teacher 4’s claim that she didn’t possess any criteria posed a number of questions about discrepancies between theory and practice. Firstly, was this really what she believed or what she thought she should say? And was this true in practice? Since oral examinations make up a significant proportion of assessments in Croatia and school-based criteria allow teachers to use their own judgement, the reality of assessment criteria being applied consistently is questionable. It is highly likely that these teachers were aware of subjective practices in oral questioning as permitted by school-based criteria. Furthermore, the research has shown that teachers face dilemmas when conflicts arise between assessment criteria and their own personal beliefs (Brookhart, 2012; Sui & Chan, 2013). Despite this, teachers generally accept the need for assessment criteria to be applied equally to all students.

Teacher 5 assigned project tasks to students to improve their grades but did not indicate whether she applied any particular set of assessment criteria to this task. Since the student’s grade average represents his or her final grade for a subject, such projects could be considered a positive assessment in that they helped students improve. However, they were not offered to all students, implying a subjective approach by the teacher and contradicting her claim that she strictly adhered to set criteria. She did not clarify how she modified students’ grades, but did so after taking into account their performance in these specially assigned projects. This teacher obviously deviated from strict adherence to assessment criteria for all students, but insufficient information about implementation of these additional student projects did not provide further detail.

5.4.1 Validity, Fairness and Reliability

Teacher assessments involve making judgements from the information gained (Harlen, 2007; Joughin, 2010; Merriam, 1998; Golfashami, 2003; Miller et al., 2009; Volante, 2010). Understandably, teachers who have difficulty justifying their assessment decisions will be pursued with questions about the validity, fairness and/or reliability of their assessment practices (Kane, 2010; Masters, 2013; McGaw, 2010). Some students indicated a lack of validity in teachers’ judgements of their performance (Brookhart, 2015; Gordon & Fay, 2010). For example, one student stated “the teacher is subjective”, despite most teachers’ confirmation that they were in possession of assessment criteria, gave them to students and applied them rigorously. Seven students in Teacher 2’s Croatian class 3 made comments about subjectivity. Teacher 3’s subjectivity was called into question by two students and a third in Biology classes 4 and 5 respectively, as well as four students in
Biology class 10, taught by Teacher 5. The words “objective assessment” were used in comments by students in Teacher 1’s English classes 1 and 6, indicating that they viewed the teacher as impartial in her assessment. This aligns with the highest mean for the subject of English and English Teacher 1 on the reliable scales of Congruency (see Table 6), Authenticity (see Table 10) and Transparency (see Table 14). Students’ perceptions of fairness were more positive for the subject of English as a foreign language than for Biology or Croatian (see Figure 6), and appear to contradict the notion of subjective practices. It could be that in English, the grammar, aural and oral tasks required grammatical accuracy and knowledge of lexis, and therefore seemed more objective to students than a creative composition assessment in the subject of Croatian (Hannafi & Alisa, 2014).

Teachers believed the numerical grades awarded for written and oral test were reliable scores of students’ performance (Brookhart, 2015). These grades contributed to an overall numerical grade average for students in the subject, which together with their performance in the state external matriculation examination, determined their entry into university. Apart from the additional project task set by Teacher 5, there was no evidence from any of the other teachers’ responses to indicate that their grades served as a form of feedback to help students improve their learning and progress. Nor did they declare that assessments were intended for any other purpose than providing numerical grades (Scott et al., 2014). Comments from students suggested that teacher assessments served to check their knowledge, prepare them for the final state matura or matriculation examination and forced them to study. Again, there was no evidence of perceptions amongst students that teacher assessments served as a learning tool or one that could help them improve and advance. This sends a clear message that the only purpose of teacher assessments was understood and accepted as a labelling system for grading students from 5 to 1.

In their study, Charampoulus and Kokkinos (2014) found that personality factors entered into students’ perceptions of teachers, deeming one teacher more positive than another. They named this phenomenon “Teacher Interpersonal Behaviour” (p. 236). The authors identified better academic performance in classes where students perceived positive teacher interpersonal behaviours, more evident in secondary schools than primary schools. Teachers who were perceived by students to display more positive behaviours facilitated higher student achievement and greater satisfaction with assessment processes,
as could be seen in the example of English Teacher 1 who was rated most highly by students.

The quantitative data also revealed a high average score for students to Question 4, indicating a perception that the scores or grades allocated to their performance were a fair reflection of the quality of their work (see Figure 6.) In terms of mean scores, student satisfaction was the highest for all scales in English, apart from the unreliable scale of Diversity (see Table 10), particularly in the case of Teacher 1 (see Table 11) who scored the highest means in Congruence, Authenticity and Consultation, the third highest for Transparency and second highest for Diversity (see Table 11).

5.4.2 Differences between Subjects

Although the subject of English received the highest mean scores in the five scales of Congruency, Transparency, Authenticity, Consultation, and Transparency, this was not the case with Diversity. The Diversity scale included questions where a lower numerical response correlated with greater consistency in teacher assessments. For example, question 35: “I do work that is different from other students” (see Table 19) supported a favourable trend in students’ perceptions of English assessments – this also applied to students’ comments about fairness and consistency. Despite the many negative comments from students to the open-ended questions on fairness and consistency, the subject of Croatian scored higher than Biology for all scales except Authenticity. Perceptions about the application of assessment criteria to tasks therefore also appeared to be influenced by the subject, not only by the teacher and teacher personality (Nazor, 1999). This may explain the apparent difference between more favourable student perceptions of some aspects of English assessments and the teacher’s subjectivity in oral assessment tasks.

5.4.3 Student Acceptance of Assessment

In this study, most students reacted positively to teacher assessments. Over 50% of students scored teachers’ application of assessment criteria at the highest response level “often” (see Tables 4 and 5). Fewer than 7% gave this the lower responses of “rarely” or “never”, contradicting anecdotal evidence that students despised teacher assessments and considered them unfair. This could be due to the fact that the study was undertaken in two grammar schools requiring high grade averages for entry into university, a higher rate of entry into university than certain other schools. The two schools were chosen on the basis of the researcher’s access to teachers who were acquaintances and known to the researcher. Given the entry requirements for secondary schools in Croatia are predicated on students’
grade averages in primary school as opposed to place of residence like Australian schools, extending this research to vocational secondary schools, comprised of teachers and students with lower grade averages could provide additional insights. The results could allow for comparisons between schools and potentially bring enhanced understanding.

Students’ gender could also account for differences in perceptions of assessment practices (Alkaharusi, 2015). An analysis of students’ comments related to fairness and consistency indicated that most negative comments came from males. Most of these (see Figures 13 and 14) were related to the subject of Croatian, while the most positive comments were associated with the subject of English. This was also reflected in the rank order of mean scores for Congruence, Authenticity and Transparency (see Tables 7, 11 and 15 respectively) where Teacher 1 scored the highest. However, Teacher 2, who received the most negative student comments regarding fairness and consistency, did not fare the worst in these scales. In view of higher numbers of female students in this research, the disproportionately high number of negative comments by males is noteworthy.

Subjects themselves were identified by Alkaharusi (2014) as contributing to differences between students’ perception of teacher assessments. In this study, the subject of Croatian received the highest number of negative comments from students to the open-ended questions regarding fairness and consistency. In fact, 100% of comments on fairness and consistency in Croatian assessments were negative – there were no positive comments. For English, 80% of all comments were positive and 20% negative. Out of all comments however, Biology attracted 53% positive and 46% negative comments for fairness and consistency. It could therefore be said that the subject itself was a determining factor in student perceptions of teacher assessments, with English viewed most positively by students compared with Biology and Croatian. Of the three subjects, Croatian received the most negative comments in regard to teacher assessments.

5.5 Outcomes Based on Assessment

Used effectively, teacher assessment of students can have several valuable outcomes (Stang & Pearson, 2015). Indeed, changes and reforms to educational systems have been influenced by the results of teacher assessments of students (Masters 2013, McGaw, 2006). Previous research highlighted a range of consequences, such as student behaviour in and beyond the classroom, and making decisions about improved educational programs, as well as effects on teacher training and teachers’ views of student outcomes.
In every case-study class at least one student commented on the usefulness of assessments for checking knowledge, forcing them to learn and providing good opportunities to practice for matriculation examinations. For example, one student in English class 1 described a positive feature of assessment as “checking the knowledge”. Another, in class 2 Croatian, reported that assessment “forced me to study”, and a student in class 4 Biology stated: “I have to study everything, better preparation for matriculation”. In general, students and teachers tended to perceive assessments as a requirement, but also as valuable for their learning, whether they liked it or not. This perhaps stems from the requirement to pass all subjects in the state matriculation (matura) examination to gain entry into university, not to mention the fact that when primary and secondary school students fail a subject, even after supplementary examinations, they fail the year and have to repeat it. In cases where the same year is failed twice, students are discontinued and not permitted to continue, since unlike primary school, secondary schooling is not compulsory in Croatia.

Poor assessment practices have been shown to have a negative effect on students in terms of motivation and effort (Furman, 2009; King & Olleddich, 1989). Strahinić (2011) discussed negative student outcomes resulting from teacher assessment practices in Croatia, including truanting, cheating, anti-social behaviour, self-fulfilling prophecies and the halo effect, where students’ fates depend on teacher assessments regardless of whether they are carried out fairly. A detrimental view of assessments by Barnes et al. (2017) highlighted teachers’ perspectives of assessments as irrelevant because they lead to negative outcomes.

In the current study, there was no evidence of the negative outcomes described above, possibly because the research was carried out in gimnazija or grammar schools, where students require a high grade average to gain entry. In other words, because more successful and ambitious students were enrolled in these schools, they were unlikely to exhibit the negative outcomes raised by Strahinić. Conducting this research in vocational and trade schools with academically weaker students may reveal new evidence.

One consequence of teachers implementing assessments is that students accept the assessment tasks as a measure of their performance, given that both teachers and students are engaged in formal education. Furman talked about teachers who continuously set assessment tasks for students, regardless of the negative effects on them. Some of these
were evident from students’ comments like: “we are not assessed on applying but reproducing information” and “not useful in real life, stressful and unnecessary” and “I feel pressure”, suggesting a certain level of anxiety on the part of students.

Students acknowledged that assessments were an expectation but had deeply embedded concerns about them. Comments such as “too demanding, too difficult” by female students in Croatian class 2 and “sometimes our mark is not equal to what we actually know, it’s too difficult” by a female student in English class 12 attest to this. Their concerns revolved around what teacher assessments represented and the inherent difficulties of assessing the content. A female student in English class 1, school 1, reported sometimes being asked unsuitable questions for their age that they were unable to answer objectively. Another comment included the word “unrealistic”, suggesting flaws in the quality of teacher assessment as perceived by students.

5.6 Impact on Student Perceptions of Assessment

The outcomes of assessment have implications for student perceptions of the assessment itself, for assessment practices in general and for the teacher (Alkaharusi, 2015; Charalampous & Kokkinos, 2014; Furman, 2009; Strahinić, 2011). In this study, differences emerged in student perceptions of assessment between two classes taught the same subject by the same teacher in the same year level at the same school. The most considerable differences were evident between Teacher 3’s two classes (classes 4 and 5) in the subject of Biology for the Congruence mean. There was only one comment about fairness and consistency from class 5, but an equal number of positive and negative comments from class 4 (see Table 24), with students in the latter class perceiving the teacher’s approach to assessments more accurately reflected their abilities than those in class 5. This could be explained by personality factors, and teachers and students developing a liking for one another, therefore perceiving them in a positive light when others do not (Charalampous et al., 2014).

A study by Alm and Colnerud (2015) found students felt disadvantaged by their teacher or felt subjected to unfair assessment practices. These authors believed that certain actions and practices by teachers, such as using criteria unrelated to tasks and rounding grades up or down resulted in unfair perceptions. They argued that such practices had short and long-term consequences. Alm and Colnerud reported that the majority of teachers were trying to be as objective as possible in their grading practices, but often fell short. The tendency for students in this research to select “often” more frequently than “rarely” or
“never” for statements related to Congruency and Authenticity (see Tables 6 and 10) supports a positive rating for teacher assessment as a fair indication of student performance.

5.7 Summary

The need for assessment was reinforced by teachers who unanimously stated they conducted assessment tasks with students as part of their job and as required by the Croatian Ministry of Education. Students’ comments regarding the usefulness of assessments and their perceptions of the application supported this. Assessments were shown to be hierarchical and administered from the top down (teacher to student), with evaluation determined by the teacher (Harlem, 2005; Strahinić, 2011). Both teachers and students appeared resigned to the fact that teachers were responsible for student assessments and the grades awarded.

Written and oral assessment tasks were created by teachers based on the prescribed textbook for each subject. Oral tasks were equally as common as written ones. Most teachers regarded assessment tasks as summative, and necessary for awarding students a numerical grade (Canal et al., 2012; Dargusch, 2014; Sadler, 2009). Written assessment tasks were carried out by all students in class at the same time, while oral examination tasks were usually undertaken without any warning and could take up several periods of class time. Despite the questions being based on the contents of the textbook, a lack of consistency in administering oral assessments was highly likely, since although criteria were set for both written and oral tasks, the freedom and flexibility in oral assessments allowed for the inclusion of non-task-related factors such as attendance and attitude (Dargusch, 2014).

Students’ perceptions of teacher assessments indicated they complied for the most part and accepted the status quo. Some students commented on teacher subjectivity and raised concerns about grades not accurately reflecting their knowledge (Alm & Colnerud, 2015), but there were also comments to the contrary. Students’ perceptions of subject classes taught by the same teacher exposed differences, suggesting that personality factors may have played a role (Charalampous et al., 2014). Teacher 1 was viewed most positively, as was the subject of English which she taught. The overall positive responses from students could perhaps be explained by the fact that both schools in the study required a 5 or A-grade average for entry, so the students surveyed were high achievers in
the educational system, possibly contributing to positive perceptions of the institution and its practices.

The next chapter revisits the research questions and examines the extent to which they have been answered. The key findings of the research are elaborated and final conclusions and recommendations provided.
Chapter Six: Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings of the study are discussed in this chapter in relation to the main research question and subsidiary questions.

6.1 Response to Research Questions

The main research question was: “How do assessment practices and processes, including the consistency of teacher judgements in secondary school assessments influence student perceptions of fairness in Croatia?” The findings of this research showed that most students involved in the study viewed teacher assessments positively. While a difference emerged between the same-subject classes taught by Teacher 5, the students’ views were generally positive and contradicted my impressions from conversations with secondary school students in Croatia prior to embarking on this research.

The first subsidiary question was: “What perceptions do Croatian secondary school students hold about the fairness of assessment?” In the context of this research, fairness was related to consistency in teachers’ application of assessment procedures. Overall, students indicated they had received the grades they deserved. The student questionnaire was completed by 12 classes of Year 12 students in two secondary schools across three subjects of Croatian, English and Biology, and elicited students’ comments on teachers’ assessment practices to provide insights into their perceptions.

From the questionnaire and comments provided by the students, this study revealed that students predominantly viewed teacher assessments positively. There were differences in student perceptions between subjects, with English as a foreign language rated more positively than Croatian and Biology. Differences were also apparent in students’ perceptions of one particular teacher, Teacher 1, who was viewed more positively than the other five teachers. There was also a discrepancy between the perceptions of two classes of the same subject taught by Teacher 5.

The second subsidiary question was: “To what extent are teachers in Croatia consistent in their implementation of assessment processes and application of assessment criteria to students’ work in secondary school subjects, and how do these influence student perceptions of fairness?” Consistency and uniform assessment criteria were investigated in teacher interviews in three subject areas. All teachers claimed they implemented assessment tasks as stipulated by the Education Department and dictated by curriculum subject matter. None of the teachers talked about assessing students according to non-task-
related criteria, such as student behaviour or personality; neither did any student mention that assessments were based on personal factors.

The third subsidiary question was: “What practices are used by Croatian teachers in secondary school subject/s to improve consistency in applying assessment criteria and how do these influence student perceptions of fairness?” Teacher interviews were designed to address the consistency with which assessment criteria were applied in Croatia in three targeted subject areas. With only one exception, all teachers said they had the county assessment criteria, made them available to students and applied them rigorously. However, an analysis of the criteria and how they were implemented revealed there was room for teacher subjectivity, particularly in oral examinations. Additional project tasks assigned by Teacher 5 for certain students raised concerns. On the one hand, successful completion of these tasks led to improvements in grades and provided opportunities for positive reinforcement and motivation, but on the other, they jeopardised consistency.

There was no evidence of teachers using assessments to punish or discipline their students, but this raises questions about whether teachers were responding with socially acceptable answers rather than the truth. At the very least, the tendency of teachers to reiterate their strict adherence to assessment criteria shows they were aware of the importance of fair and consistent practices in this regard.

6.2 Recommendations for Policy and Practice

This research indicates that a comprehensive review of oral examinations, that contribute to final assessment grades in Croatian secondary schools, is needed for all subjects other than language-specific subjects, such as modern foreign and native languages where speaking is an integral skill that requires mastery. As secondary school assessment criteria showed, oral examinations not only allowed for teacher bias but also encouraged it, and for this reason oral examinations should be reviewed or at least improved in terms of consistency. This can be done through assessment checklists and student training for oral examinations.

Ongoing teacher education in Croatia is recommended to reinforce the importance of consistent treatment of all students. Teachers are compelled by Croatian Education Department decree at a county level to agree on assessment criteria for their particular subjects, and there was as obvious awareness amongst teachers, as evidenced from their responses. However, constant reminders, teacher development and ongoing enhancement
of assessment criteria are necessary to maintain relevance and validity in practice. Professional education will assist in reinforcing fair and accurate representation of results, and create a level playing field for all students with regard to university entry and future employment. County meetings requiring teachers’ attendance are already in place, so such an initiative can be incorporated with little additional cost and effort.

It is recommended that a consistency checklist be created and used for all assessments. This will focus teachers on consistency, especially with regard to maintaining the same level of difficulty for all students.

The inclusion of non-task-related criteria and teachers’ personal judgements is widespread in Croatia and sanctioned by educational authorities. The criteria openly declare that the final grade is not just arithmetic, but includes student participation and attitudes. These factors should be separated from assessment of student performance so that school grades accurately reflect the levels of knowledge and skill attained, since they play such a significant role in students’ eligibility for university.

The amount of content students are expected to learn in each subject also requires review. So too does the practice of examining students on the contents of one assigned textbook per subject, which should be expanded to increase students’ sources of learning.

Secondary schools in Croatia enrol students on a ranking basis according to their grade averages in primary school. Further research, using a wider sample of heterogeneous groups from different school populations could provide deeper insights into the influences and effects on student perceptions of assessments. A detailed analysis of final grades, students’ attitudes and participation as perceived by teachers will also further our understanding.

6.3 Limitations of the Research

Both schools involved in this research catered for students with high grade averages in primary school as a prerequisite for enrolment. These were ranked from highest to lowest and only students with the highest grade averages gained entry into gimnazija, the type of school targeted in this study. The closest comparison is the English grammar school that sets its sights on students with high grade averages and ambitions for tertiary level studies.

Gimnazija are the most sought after schools by students and parents because they are traditionally more academically oriented and place a heavier emphasis on theory in
preparation for the final matriculation examination, the results of which determine entry into most universities in Croatia. These schools take a limited number of students. Those who don’t gain entry attend vocational secondary schools for four years that also cater for limited numbers of students, are more practically oriented for jobs that only require secondary school completion and allow for university entry. If students are unsuccessful in gaining a place in these schools, their only option is to attend secondary trade school for three years, which does not allow entry into university.

6.4 Directions for Further Research

The students involved in this research were academically competitive and represented some of the more successful in the education system, meaning that the research sample was streamed. Using the same research questionnaire and interviewing a broader sample of students from varying academic backgrounds will further our understanding of the issues under investigation.

Hence, it is recommended that this research be also carried out in vocational schools in Croatia. These schools in Croatia also have a four-year programme, but the entry grade average of students is lower. Therefore, the results from students in these schools could vary from those results gained here in two grammar schools or so called gimnazija secondary schools. The student sample should be increased. That it, this research should be carried out in more secondary schools and in a wider variety of secondary schools in Croatia to gain a more accurate picture of student perceptions of teacher assessment. Furthermore, more research into oral examination perhaps needs to be carried out.

6.5 Concluding Comments

This research, in its investigation of teacher assessments, attempted to uncover student perceptions of fairness with the objective of minimising negative perceptions. Numerous student comments related to unfairness in teacher assessments were the initial motivation for this investigation, yet this study showed the majority of students rated consistency positively. However, the findings showed that oral assessments, on which student assessments rely heavily, need reduction and review.

This is the first research of its kind undertaken in Croatia and the findings shed light on new knowledge regarding assessments. With Croatia’s entry into the European Union and its adherence to European Union Directives, the Ministry of Education has
made a long-term commitment to school reform or “školska reforma”. This study has the potential to inform amendments and improvements, particularly for oral examinations which form a core part of the education system.

The findings are not limited to Croatia since the issues identified are relevant to a core activity in all school systems. Current methods of creating and applying oral assessment criteria in Croatia are in dire need of a more critical focus on fairer outcomes for students. At the same time, increasing teachers’ awareness will improve student outcomes with far-reaching consequences in terms of their eligibility for university, entry into the workforce and their perceptions in general. It is hoped that this examination of students’ perceptions will raise awareness in order to avoid or at least minimise the negative perceptions of students with potential to deter their attitudes and aspirations for learning and education more broadly.


Asking the right research questions (2016). Retrieved from https://www.usability247.com/blog/asking-the-right-research-questions/


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*Australian Primary Mathematics Classroom*, 14(3), 14-18.


I. STUDENT SURVEY – TEACHER STUDENT ASSESSMENT

Biology, Croatian, English

This survey is part of research being conducted by Tania Blazevic (student at ECU).

You have been invited to participate in the study because you study either biology, Croatian or English in the final year of secondary schooling in Croatia. Your teacher will invite you to complete an anonymous voluntary 20 minute questionnaire. However, you do not have to complete the questionnaire if you do not want to.

This is an anonymous questionnaire. By completing the questionnaire you are consenting to take part in this research. So you should first read the following Disclosure Statement carefully as it explains what this research is about. You may withdraw from completing any part or the whole of the questionnaire and there are no penalties or consequences from doing so.

Disclosure Statement
This questionnaire forms part of the evaluation of teacher assessment of students at school to help the understanding of teacher assessment of students and the effect this assessment has on students. The evaluation is being conducted by Tania Blazevic, a student from ECU as part of my doctoral thesis. What you as a student think is very important to this evaluation and therefore I am surveying students from your class to collect this information.

Your responses will be strictly confidential, only I will see your particular responses. The information will be collated with no reference to individuals and no identifying information for reports to the school and teachers at the school. Such reports will only include general and summary information and will in no manner identify individual or groups of students or teachers.

Instructions to Students
Please do not write your name on the survey sheet.

To ensure maximum confidentiality no one at your school will see your questionnaire.

Take as long as you need to complete the survey.
Example

(a) I like going to school.

1. My assessment in biology is a fair indicator of my work.
   never rarely sometimes often

2. My biology tests are a fair indicator of what my class is trying to learn.
   never rarely sometimes often

3. My assignments are related to what I am learning in biology.
   never rarely sometimes often

   never rarely sometimes often

5. I am assessed in similar ways to the tasks I do in class.
   never rarely sometimes often

6. I am assessed on what the teacher has taught me.
   never rarely sometimes often

7. I have answered biology questions on topics that have been covered in class.
   never rarely sometimes often

8. I am asked to apply my learning to real-life situations.
   never rarely sometimes often

9. My biology assessment tasks are meaningful.
   never rarely sometimes often

10. My biology assessment tasks are useful.
   never rarely sometimes often

11. I find biology assessment tasks relevant to the real world.
    never rarely sometimes often

12. Biology assessment tasks check my understanding of topics.
    never rarely sometimes often

13. Assessment in biology tests my ability to apply learning.
    never rarely sometimes often

14. Assessment in biology examines my ability to answer important questions.
    never rarely sometimes often
15. I am aware of the types of assessment in biology.
never rarely sometimes often

16. I am clear about the forms of assessment being used.
ever rarely sometimes often

17. I am asked about the types of assessment I would like to have in biology.
ever rarely sometimes often

18. I select how I will be assessed in biology.
ever rarely sometimes often

19. I have helped the class develop rules for assessment in biology.
ever rarely sometimes often

20. My teacher has explained to me how each form of assessment is used.
ever rarely sometimes often

ever rarely sometimes often

22. I understand what is needed in all biology assessment tasks.
ever rarely sometimes often

23. I know what is needed to successfully accomplish a biology assessment task.
ever rarely sometimes often

24. I know in advance how I will be assessed.
ever rarely sometimes often

25. I am told in advance why I am being assessed.
ever rarely sometimes often

26. I am told in advance when I am being assessed.
ever rarely sometimes often

27. I am told in advance on what I am being assessed.
ever rarely sometimes often

28. I understand the purpose of biology assessment.
ever rarely sometimes often

29. I complete assessment tasks at my own speed.
ever rarely sometimes often

30. When I am faster than others, I move on to new assessment tasks.
ever rarely sometimes often

31. I am given a choice of assessment tasks.
ever rarely sometimes often

32. I am set assessment tasks that are different from other students’ tasks.
never rarely sometimes often

33. I am given assessment tasks that suit my ability.
never rarely sometimes often

34. I use different assessment methods from other students.
never rarely sometimes often

35. I do work that is different from other students’ work.
never rarely sometimes often

C. The two best things about doing assessment tasks or tests in this subject:
1. 

2. The two worst things about doing assessment tasks or tests in this subject:

Any other comments about assessment you would like to make

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

Adapted from Student Perceptions of assessment tasks inventory (final form) by Dorman et al (2008) and Questionnaire of Digital Forms of Assessment by Newhouse (2012)
Hrvatski jezik, Biologija, Engleski jezik

Ova anketa je dio istraživanja koju provodi Tania Blažević (student na EdithCowanUniversity).

Ovo je anonimna anketa. Ispunjavanjem anketa pristajete sudjelovati u ovom istraživanju. Dakle, morate prvo pažljivo pročitati priopćenje koje objašnjava o čemu se istraživanje radi.

Priopćenje
Ova anketa je satavni dio procijenivanja sa svrhom boljeg razumijevanja kako profesori ocjenjuju studente u školi te kakav učinak ovo ocijenivanje ima na učenike. Ovu procijenu izvršavam ja, Tania Blažević, student na ECU kao dio moje doktorske disertacije. Ono što vi, kao učenici, mislite je jako važno za ovu anketu te stoga anketiram učenike iz vašeg razreda kako bih prikupila ove podatke.

Vaši odgovori su strogo povjerljivi, samo ja imam uvid u vaše odgovore. Podaci će se uspoređivati bez osvrtaanja na pojedince i bez davanja informacija školi i profesorima škole. Izvješća će uključiti samo opće i sažete podatke i nikako neće identificirati pojedince ili skupine učenika i profesora.

Upute za učenike
Nemojte pisati ime na anketni list.
Kako bi osigurali maksimalno povjerljivost nitko u vašoj školi neće vidjeti anketu.
Nemate ograničeno vrijeme u kojem morate završiti anketu.
Koristite olovku pri pisanu kako biste mogli promijeniti svoje odgovore ako to bude potrebno.
Neka pitanja traže od vas da zaokružujete ponuđene odgovore dok druga vam omogućuju da odgovarate na pitanja kratkim odgovorima (natuknice su dopuštene).

Primjer
(a) Volim ići u školu. Često/Ponekad/Rijetko/Nikada

ANKETA ZA UČENIKE – Profesorsko ocjenivanje učenika
Molim Vas zaokružite JEDAN odgovor za svaku rečenicu.

Spol (zaokružite): Muško / Žensko
A. 1. Koliko puta ste rješili pismeni ili usmeni test ili neku vrstu ocjenivanja nikada rijetko ponekad često u ovom predmetu?

B. Izvršavanje zadataka, pisanje testova i usmeno ispitivanje za ocjenu.

1. Moj rad za ocjenu iz bilogije je dosljedan pokazatelj moga rada.
   nikada rijetko ponekad često

2. Moji pismeni i usmeni ispitni zadaci iz bilogije su dosljedni pokazatelji onoga što razred pokušava naučiti.
   nikada rijetko ponekad često

3. Moji zadaci za ocjenu su povezani s onime što učim iz biologije.
   nikada rijetko ponekad često

   nikada rijetko ponekad često

5. Mene se ocjenjuje na način sličan zadacima koje radim na satu.
   nikada rijetko ponekad često

6. Ocjenjuje me se na temelju onoga što me profesor/ca naučio/la.
   nikada rijetko ponekad često

7. Odgovara/o la sam na pitanja iz građiva kojega smo obradili na satu.
   nikada rijetko ponekad često

8. Od mene se očekuje da primijenim što sam naučila u stvarnim životnim situacijama.
   nikada rijetko ponekad često

   nikada rijetko ponekad često

10. Moji zadaci za ocjenu iz bilogije su korisni.
    Nikada rijetko ponekad često

11. Meni su zadaci za ocjenu iz bilogije bitni u stvarnom životu.
    nikada rijetko ponekad često

12. Zadaci za ocjenu iz biologije provjeravaju moje razumijevanju tema.
    nikada rijetko ponekad često
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

14. Ocjenjivanje iz bilogije provjerava moju sposobnost odgovaranja na važna pitanja.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

15. Svjestan/na sam načina ocjenjivanja iz bilogije.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

17. Pita me se kojim načinima bih htio/la biti ocjenjivan/na iz bilogije.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

18. Ja biram kako će me se ocjenjivati iz biologije.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

19. Pomogao/la sam razredu uspostaviti pravila za ocjenjivanje.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

20. Moj profesor mi je objasnio/la kako se upotrebljava svaki način ocjenjivanja.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

22. Jasno mi je što je potrebno u svim zadacima za ocjenu iz biologije.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

23. Znam što je potrebno za uspješno rješavanje zadatka za ocjenu iz biologije.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

24. Znam unaprijed kako će me se ocjenjivati.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

25. Redeno mi je unaprijed zašto me se ocjenjuje.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

26. Redeno mi je unaprijed kad će me se ocjenjivati.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*

27. Redeno mi je unaprijed iz čega ću dobiti ocjenu.
*nikada rijetko ponekad često*
28. Razumijem svrhu ocjenjivanja iz bilogije.  
nikada rijetko ponekad često

29. Riješavam zadatke za ocjenjivanje sojim tempom.  
nikada rijetko ponekad često

30. Kad sam brži/a od drugih, krećem na nove zadatke za ocjenu.  
nikada rijetko ponekad često

31. Mogu birati način ocjenjivanja.  
nikada rijetko ponekad često

32. Meni se daju drugačiji zadaci za ocjenu od drugih učeniaka u razrdu.  
nikada rijetko ponekad često

33. Meni se daju zadaci za ocjenu koji odgovaraju mojim sposobnostima.  
nikada rijetko ponekad često

34. Upotrebljavam drugačije metode ocjenivanja od ostalih učenika.  
nikada rijetko ponekad često

35. Radim drugačije zadatke od ostalih učenika.  
nikada rijetko ponekad često
Appendix C
Teacher Interview Questions

1. What assessment tools do you use?
2. How often do you use these assessment tools?
3. Do you give the students assessment criteria?
4. If so, in what form?
5. How consistently do you apply them?
6. What do you base your assessment most on?
7. What do you think students think about how fair your assessment is?
Appendix D
Translation of Teacher Interview Questions into Croatian

1. Koje oblike ocjenjivanja koristite?
2. Koliko često koristite ove oblike ocjenjivanja?
3. Dajete li učenicima kriterije ocjenjivanja?
4. Ako da, u kojem obliku?
5. Koliko dosljedno ih primjenjujete?
6. Na čemu se temelji vaše ocjenjivanje?
7. Što mislite da učenici misle o tome koliko je pravdeno vaše ocjenjivanje?
Appendix E
Letter of Informed Consent

Information Letter and letter of informed consent to be given to teachers taking part in the research
You will be asked to take part in an interview with me Tania Blažević, Ph.D. student at Edith Cowan University. You will be asked questions about assessment of students in your subject area. The information will only be seen by me for the purposes of my research into teacher assessment of students.
By signing this letter, you are agreeing to give your consent to take part in this research.

I _____________________ (name) give my consent to take part in an interview regarding teacher assessment of students. The results will only be used for the purposes of this research done by Tania Blažević.

__________________________________________________________
Signature

Pismo namjere i pristanka.
Sudjelovat ćete u istraživanju u obliku intervjua sa mnom, Tania Blažević upisana na doktorskom studiju na Edith Cowan University (Sveučilište Edith Cowan) u Zapadnoj Australiji. Postaviti ću Vam pitanja vezana za ocjenivanje studenata. Podatci će isključivo biti korišteni u svrhu ovoga doktorata i neće nikom drugom biti dostupni. Kad ovo potpišete dajete vaš pristanak.

Ja ________________ (ime) sam suglasn/a za sudjelujanje u intervju za istraživanje dotorskoga studija Tanie Blažević.

_________________________ (potpis)
Appendix F
Information Sheets for Teachers and Students

INFORMATION SHEET - STUDENT

Research for PhD thesis by Ms Tania Blažević

Title: An investigation of secondary student perceptions of fairness about assessment processes implemented by their teachers.

Dear Student

I am conducting research as part of the requirements of a PhD at Edith Cowan University. This research aims to investigate the effect of teacher assessment practices in secondary schooling in Croatia on student perceptions of fairness. In particular, it aims to focus on the extent to which teachers consistently implement assessment practices and make judgements of student achievement and how this is likely to affect these student perceptions. Consequently, studying the application of teacher assessment will lead to an evaluation of the effects of teacher assessment practices on student perceptions of fairness.

Your teacher has been invited to be interviewed as part of the study and has agreed to participate. You are also invited to participate in the study because you study either biology, Croatian or English in the final year of secondary schooling in Croatia. You will be asked to complete an anonymous voluntary 20-minute questionnaire, which will be provided to you by your teacher. However, you do not have to complete the questionnaire if you do not want to. This will not require you to do anything that is unusual in a school environment, or have the potential for discomfort or inconvenience. You may withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty or adverse consequences. Your teacher will be provided with a confidential anonymous report on the data collected from your class that will not identify any individual student.

The information you and your teacher provide will only be seen by myself and my supervisors, for the purposes of my research into teacher assessment of students. This information will be secured to ensure the confidentiality and privacy with pseudonyms and codes in place of names and the destruction of the data after five years. However, there are legal limits to confidentiality. The data will be stored in a cabinet at the University and on a University server with password protection and on my computer that is password protected. The results of the study will be published in my thesis and a number of journal and/or conference papers but none of these will include any information that may identify individual participants.

If you would like to discuss any aspect of this project please contact me via email (tblazevi@our.ecu.edu.au) or my supervisor Associate Professor Paul Newhouse, on 9370 6469 or via email (p.newhouse@ecu.edu.au). If you wish to speak with an independent person about the conduct of the project, please contact Ms Kim Gifkins the Research Ethics Officer on 6304 2170. If you consent to participation in this project please complete the questionnaire and return it to your teacher.
INFORMATION SHEET - TEACHER

Research for PhD thesis by Ms Tania Blažević

Title: An investigation of secondary student perceptions of fairness about assessment processes implemented by their teachers.

Dear Teacher

I am conducting research as part of the requirements of a PhD at Edith Cowan University. This research aims to investigate the effect of teacher assessment practices in secondary schooling in Croatia on student perceptions of fairness. In particular, it aims to focus on the extent to which teachers consistently implement assessment practices and make judgements of student achievement and how this is likely to affect these student perceptions. Consequently, studying the application of teacher assessment will lead to an evaluation of the effects of teacher assessment practices on student perceptions of fairness.

You are invited to participate in the study because you teach either biology, Croatian or English to final year secondary students in Croatia. Teachers from two schools will be involved in an audio-recorded one-hour interview and will be asked to provide planning documents used for assessment, and to conduct an anonymous voluntary 20-minute survey with their students. None of these processes will require participants to do anything that is unusual in a school environment or have the potential for discomfort or inconvenience. You or any of your students may withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty or adverse consequences. If you complete the study you will be provided with a confidential anonymous report on the data collected from yourself and your class.

The information you and your students provide will only be seen by myself and my supervisors, for the purposes of my research into teacher assessment of students. This information will be secured to ensure the confidentiality and privacy with pseudonyms and codes in place of names and the destruction of the data after five years. However, there are legal limits to confidentiality. The data will be stored in a cabinet at the University and on a University server with password protection and on my computer that is password protected. The results of the study will be published in my thesis and a number of journal and/or conference papers but none of these will include any information that may identify individual participants.

If you would like to discuss any aspect of this project please contact me via email (tblazevi@our.ecu.edu.au) or my supervisor Associate Professor Paul Newhouse, on 9370 6469 or via email (p.newhouse@ecu.edu.au). If you wish to speak with an independent person about the conduct of the project, please contact Ms Kim Gifkins the Research Ethics Officer on 6304 2170. If you consent to participation in this project please sign the consent form and return it to me.