Assessment for/as Learning in Hong Kong English Language Classrooms: A Review

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Abstract
Multiple conceptualizations of the interrelation between assessment and learning yield three notions of assessment: assessment of learning, assessment for learning, and assessment as learning. This paper aims at uncovering roles and obstacles of assessment for learning and assessment as learning in English language classrooms in Hong Kong. Grounded upon the theory of constructivism and the notion of learner autonomy, assessment for learning and assessment as learning play vital roles in supporting students’ learning and nurturing autonomous learners in English language classrooms in Hong Kong, respectively. In particular, assessment for learning provides students with achievement targets prior to assessments, communicates assessment results with students by means of descriptive feedback, and guides teachers’ future lesson planning whilst assessment as learning equips students with abilities to set personal learning goals, monitor their own learning process, and conduct self-assessment in the course of learning. For all their desirability and perceived pedagogical efficacy, seldom are these two assessment practices operationalized in the implemented curriculum in English language classrooms, where assessment of learning prevails; such actualities can largely be attributable to local teachers’ lack of motivation to modify their existing assessment practices out of their conservative conceptualization of assessments, low metacognitive awareness as well as level of English proficiency of local students, and large class sizes in local classrooms, which are construed as local contextual factors hindering implementation of the two assessment practices. The aforementioned obstacles ought to be overcome so that the two assessment practices can be promoted and implemented in local English classrooms in distinct year levels for the sake of students’ language learning.

Keywords: language assessment, assessment for learning, assessment as learning
1. Introduction

Being conscious and systematic activities assembling information on and drawing inferences about students’ performance with a purpose of making wise decisions in the future, assessments are indispensable segments of education and so ubiquitous in education systems all around the globe (Berry, 2008). Not only can assessments be administered in a formal fashion by education authorities through centralized tests or examinations, they can also be conducted informally by teachers in their everyday classroom practice. For all an inextricable connection between assessment and learning, the interrelation between them is conceptualized by multiple means out of disparate learning theories, yielding three notions of assessment: assessment of learning (AoL), assessment for learning (AfL), and assessment as learning (AaL), the first of which has been predominating assessment practices in classrooms for long whilst the latter two have been promoted by educational researchers and gaining prominence as well as popularity recently (Berry, 2008). As a matter of fact, AfL and AaL play vital roles in supporting students’ learning and nurturing autonomous learners in English language classrooms in Hong Kong respectively albeit multifarious obstacles confronted when putting these theoretical notions into practice; such obstacles unequivocally ought to be overcome so that assessment practices in local English classrooms can be more profitable to students’ learning and development.

1.1 Significance of the Study

Even though AfL and AaL have been corroborated to be profitable for second or foreign language learning and promoted by researchers in the field of education, in particular second language instruction, language assessment practices in Hong Kong English language classrooms still appear to be predominated by AoL; it is thereby vital that roles of AfL and AaL be promulgated to English language educators. Meanwhile, having recognized roles of AfL and AaL, some teachers may still be reserved about implementation of such practices into their own classrooms; such obstacles thereby ought to be addressed so that they can become more prominent and popular in the classroom for students’ sake.

In the present paper, following a review of the literature of AoL, AfL, and AaL is a discussion on roles of AfL and AaL in Hong Kong English language classrooms as well as obstacles of implementation of such assessment practices, which illuminates practices in distinct ESL and EFL contexts. Pedagogical implications will eventually be put forward to provide suggestions for English language educators to overcome those mentioned obstacles and incorporate desirable language assessment practices into their own pedagogical practices.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Assessment of Learning

Grounded upon the tenet of behaviourism, AoL, which is largely construed as a traditional perception of assessment, zeros in on the product of learning. Contending that learning is an outcome of imitation, positive reinforcement, and habit formation, behaviourism makes direct comparisons between predetermined learning targets and students’ ultimate performance (Berry, 2008; Lightbown & Spada, 2013). AoL is thereby summative in nature and aims at summarizing students’ learning outcomes, vident that their habits formulated in the course of learning, without taking their learning process into consideration or serving any purposes other than measurement (Brown, 2004). Attributed to the predominant function of social selection performed by the education system, standardized examinations prevail in Hong Kong and serve the purpose of allocation of students to appropriate positions in accordance with their abilities (Haralambos & Holborn, 2000).

Such a culture exerts counterproductive washback on teaching and learning in that not only do teachers devote a considerable proportion of their lesson time to teaching to the test by tailoring their instructional content for standardized examinations and depriving students of opportunities to learn other valuable knowledge and skills, they also possess a tendency to capitalize upon AoL as the overriding classroom assessment practice by moulding their daily assessments on the basis of formats of standardized examinations and administering them in examination settings in a bid to enhance students’ test-wiseness without genuinely assisting students in learning via assessments (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). This product-oriented assessment practice certainly succeeds in measuring yet fails to boost students’ learning efficaciously.

2.2 Assessment for Learning

In contrast with AoL, founded upon constructivism, AfL lays emphasis on the process in lieu of product of learning. Being a process of knowledge construction, learning is deemed by constructivists, in particular social constructivists,
Concrete practices of AfL in local English classrooms embody provision of achievement targets for students prior to assessments, communication of assessment results through descriptive feedback, and alignment of instruction with information yielded from assessments, all of which undoubtedly concur with constructivism as well as goals of AfL (Stiggins, 2008; Stiggins, Arter, Chappius, & Chappius, 2006). On the whole, AfL as a classroom assessment practice exerts positive washback on teaching and learning in that it enables teachers and students to become better teachers and better students respectively by learning from assessments (Tuzi, 2013); this is a probable reason why AfL is highly advocated by the intended English Language curriculum in Hong Kong and suggested to “take place on a daily basis [with] close attention to small ‘chunks’ of learning” (CDC & HKEAA, 2007, pp. 110). Such an assessment practice substantially supports students’ English language learning.

2.3 Assessment as Learning

The aforementioned practices substantiate that AfL plays a crucial role in supporting students’ learning in local English classrooms. Being homonymous to AfL, AaL possesses all attributes of AfL; all the same, built on theories of second language acquisition and educational psychology, AaL places particular stress on learner autonomy. Viewing students as critical connectors between assessment and learning, AaL requires students to be autonomous learners actively engaging in and developing ownership of their own learning by means like setting personal learning goals, monitoring learning progress, and conducting self-assessment (Berry, 2008; Earl, 2013; Lee, 2016).

Successful implementation of AaL is largely contingent upon students’ metacognition and motivation. Metacognition, which denotes knowledge and beliefs about one’s own cognitive processes, comprises an array of respects, the one of highest relevance to AaL of which is self-regulation (Ormrod, 2014). Self-regulation entailing self-management of one’s own learning, self-regulated learners are capable of adopting AaL to monitor and make necessary adjustments as well as adaptations to their own learning (Earl, 2013; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Moreover, motivation, which arises from one’s interests in the subject matter or his/her percept that the learning content will be necessary for the future, has been discovered to be proportional to one’s self-efficacy, so motivated learners probably take charge of their own learning more persistently and benefit more from AaL (Crain, 2000; Schunk, 1981).

Nurturing lifelong learners who are self-regulated and motivated, AaL is unquestionably consistent with the mission in lifelong learning of the educational reform in 2000 and conducive to Hong Kong’s development into Asia’s World City (Education Commission, 2000; Lee & Ng, 2007). For this reason, in spite of its absence in the Hong Kong English Language curriculum, the concept of learner autonomy has indeed been introduced in terms of self-access language learning, which is intended to enable learners to “take charge of their own learning both inside and outside the classroom” (CDC & HKEAA, 2007, pp. 93). Such an assessment practice plays a profound role in nurturing autonomous learners in English language classrooms.

3. Discussion

3.1 Roles of Assessment for Learning

Roles of AfL in supporting students’ learning in local English classrooms can be elucidated with respect to assessments of productive language skills.

First and foremost, provision of achievement targets for students prior to assessments definitely supports students’ learning through the offer of a clear vision of learning targets. Myriads of learning targets associated with writing and speaking skills can be identified and set. For instance, structural and stylistic attributes of disparate genres as well as linguistic variations across distinct fields, tenors, and modes are reasonable learning targets of writing skills (Nunan, 2008). Being meaningful interactions amongst interlocutors with a goal of getting ideas across, speaking can be analyzed in terms of communicative competence, which encompasses grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence (Evans & Green, 2006; Lumoma, 2004; Yule, 2014). Not only are competent interlocutors expected to master segmental features of speech such as strong and weak syllables as well as social dialects such as argots and
euphemisms, they are also presumed to be familiar with communication strategies such as tact for the sake of politeness and initiation of conversations via grooming talks (Cruse, 2011; Fox, 2004; Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2013; Roach, 2009); all these may constitute learning targets of speaking skills. Attributed to a sheer amount of plausible learning targets, the selection of specific learning targets for assessments is necessary by virtue of implausibility of requiring students to take heed of every respect of their language production at one go (Poincare, 2001). Communication of achievement targets with students along with an illustration of those targets by means of strong and weak models, be they sample texts or speeches, in advance provides students with a clear idea of what they are expected to do and learn in a particular assessment lest they lose focus or turn out learning nothing eventually (Stiggins et al., 2006). Possession of a clear vision of learning targets on the onset is thereby considered a premise for effectual learning in AfL.

Besides informing students of achievement targets of assessments, teachers in local English classrooms can undeniably exploit AfL to facilitate students’ learning by communicating assessment results with students through descriptive feedback, which enables students to decipher their strengths and weaknesses. The crux of learning of AfL occurs in analysis and evaluation subsequent to assessments, for only through discovery and exploration of strengths and weaknesses of their own performance can students construct new knowledge, advance their understanding of learning targets, and make improvement progressively; descriptive feedback provided by teachers and even their peers serves as guidance assisting them in identifying strengths, diagnosing weaknesses, and making focused revision accordingly (Stiggins et al., 2006). For instance, taking an inquiring in lieu of a directive stance, prioritizing content over language forms, and being highly personalized, formative feedback on writing ideistically encourages students to revisit and be critical of their language production, taking extra heed of identified learning targets as well as meaning conveyed through language (McGarrel & Verbeem, 2007). Being highly focused, such formative feedback hooks students’ attention to limited aspects of quality at a time; this effectuates ameliorated dexterity and quality learning in those specific areas (Smith, 1904; Stiggins et al., 2006). Despite AfL’s de-emphasis on scores, scoring appears inevitable to many an English teacher in Hong Kong on account of school policies or panels’ requirements; in practice, by no means is AfL necessarily dissociated from scoring in that analytic scoring can indeed provide rich descriptive and diagnostic information on students’ performance given that scales are meticulously compiled, and scores are accompanied by qualitative feedback (Weigie, 2002). After all, the essence of descriptive feedback emphasized by AfL is its function of facilitating students’ learning through identification of strengths and weaknesses in lieu of the exact form in which feedback is delivered.

Having provided students with descriptive feedback that aids further improvement in students’ performance, English teachers can also employ results yielded from assessments to guide their future lesson planning with the hope of further achieving AfL’s goal of promoting students’ learning in local classrooms. Assessment regarded as a process of learning, barely does learning culminate in assessment, but completion of one assessment marks commencement of the next stage of learning in that students’ performance in an assessment is highly influential in teachers’ subsequent instruction. More specifically, students’ failure to achieve a specific achievement target implies their inability to master instructional materials of antecedent instruction, so teachers may have to devote supplementary lesson time or offer individual support to reinforce students’ learning (Ke, 2006). In contrast, having discovered that students are capable of achieving targets of an assessment, teachers may plan their subsequent instruction in accordance with other weaknesses identified in students’ performance (Ke, 2006). For instance, should students be found to manage to accomplish the goal of composing a story with its plot complying with the Freytag’s Pyramid but depict characters dully, teachers may decide to target on distinct avenues of characterization in latter lessons (Mays, 2013). Illuminating teachers’ future instructional practice, AfL in local English classrooms surely promotes students’ learning.

### 3.2 Roles of Assessment as Learning

Roles of AaL in nurturing autonomous learners in local English classrooms can be explicated with respect to assessments of language forms as well as receptive language skills.

To begin with, setting personal learning goals is the initial step of AaL, enabling students to develop ownership of their own learning at the very beginning of the learning process. In accordance with the actualizing process of empowerment, only through the development of self-awareness, which is consciousness about oneself and one’s own goals, will a person eventually make deliberate endeavours to actualize those goals (Liu, Holosko, & Lo, 2009); it is thereby of vital importance for students to set personalized learning goals, which are yardsticks against which their learning is assessed, on the onset so that they will be more eager to own their learning and progress towards their
learning goals (Lee, 2016). For instance, grammar is perceived by many to be a set of prescriptive regulations, which is a plausible reason for students’ pejorative sentiments about grammar learning, albeit it is indeed a liberating force enabling language users to transcend limitations of lexical items and communicate meanings (Cullen, 2008; Greenbaum & Quirk, 1990). Having informed students of the liberating force of grammar, teachers may encourage them to set their personal grammar learning goals in a coming term or year on the basis of their own learning needs and interests (see Appendix 1 for an example). The instance in Appendix 1 exhibits that particular grammatical structures are explicitly mentioned in some goals whereas only do other goals delineate functions of grammatical structures hoped to be learnt. Setting of personal learning goals assuredly provides students with motivation to develop ownership of their own learning, which is a necessity for the development of learner autonomy.

Having set personal learning goals, students carrying out AaL ought to monitor their own learning progress, which demands a high degree of learner autonomy and active engagement. Autonomous learners monitor their learning progress regularly by keeping a record of their learning, reviewing previous learning with respect to learning goals set, and making sound decisions about subsequent learning (Lee, 2016). For instance, vocabulary notebooks (see Appendix 2 for a sample entry), which involve a substantial amount of lexical information organized systematically by diverse means, can be utilized as tools for students to record lexical items learnt through daily encounters and monitor breadth as well as depth of their vocabulary learning (Nation, 2013). Another instance of self-monitoring in AaL is the usage of listening logs as records of extensive listening. Attributed to compression of time and space along with globalization, a multiplicity of online resources such as ELT podcasts, which are online audio or video programs updated at regular intervals and tailor-made for ESL and EFL learners, have become easily accessible to students and are desirable extensive listening materials (Bauman, 1998; Sze, 2006). Enabling students to make a record of personal responses to each listening material and ask metacognitive questions regarding their listening experience such as selection of listening materials, listening strategies, and difficulties encountered, listening logs monitor students’ development of listening skills, assisting them in evaluating each listening experience and planning their future learning (Lee, 2016). The aforementioned self-monitoring activities doubtlessly occur after class, yet English teachers also ought to take on an active role in monitoring students’ self-monitoring by checking their learning records on a regular basis in a bid to ensure that students, particularly less motivated ones, are working towards their learning goals. That said, students’ autonomy and active engagement are most heavily stressed by self-monitoring in AaL.

Not only self-monitoring but self-assessment is also integral to the development of learner autonomy in AaL. Providing opportunities for students to recollect their learning experience, reflect upon what they have done so far, identify their own strengths and weaknesses, assess their own and their peers’ performance against learning goals set, and make use of feedback to construct new learning, self-assessment enhances students’ metacognition and develop their autonomy of learning (Stiggins et al., 2006). Self-assessment questionnaires (see Appendix 3 for an example) manage to assist students in identifying their strengths and weaknesses in listening skills and setting their personal learning goals at the beginning of an academic year. Having been monitoring their learning progress throughout the year, students can self-assess their listening skills via the same questionnaire at the end of the year for the sake of identifying any improvement made and setting future learning goals. Not only development of listening skills via extensive listening but that via classroom assessments such as listening tests can also be self-assessed. Scarcely are tests necessarily summative, but tests constructed in accordance with appropriately compiled test specifications, which clearly delineate what those tests are about and their formative functions, can indeed be formative in nature and applied for AaL (Alderson, nd; Hughes, 2003). For instance, accompanied by a self-reflection sheet (see Appendix 4 for an example), a communicative listening test can be designed to support students’ development of skills in listening to authentic weather forecasts by enabling students to reflect upon their strategy use while listening (Buck, 2001); students can also provide one another with suggestions on further development of listening skills on the basis of their written reflections. Being highly reflective and introspective, self-assessment absolutely encourages students to take ownership of their own learning.

3.3 Obstacles of Assessment for/as Learning

From the above, it is evidently observed that AfL and AaL play essential roles in supporting students’ learning and nurturing autonomous learners in local English classrooms respectively. Notwithstanding their solid theoretical underpinnings, conclusive arguments in support of them put forward by scholars, and the government’s promotion of them in the intended curriculum, seldom are these two assessment practices operationalized in the implemented curriculum in local English classrooms, where AoL still prevails; such actualities can largely be attributable to local teachers’ conceptualization of assessments, local students’ attributes, and local contextual factors.
First of all, local English teachers lack motivation to modify their existing assessment practices thanks to their satisfaction with current practices. The overarching momentum for pedagogical innovations is reckoned to be teachers’ dissatisfaction with the existing situation in that teachers in Hong Kong, irrespective of their position or instructional subject, have been confronting additional burden exerted by the Reform Syndrome, so rarely are they eager to initiate pedagogical innovations or bear extra workload unless they realize a desperate need to do so (Cheng, 2009; Marsh, 2009). Centering their instruction on priming students for standardized examinations in lieu of genuinely enhancing students’ language proficiency, and holding a belief that AoL is sufficient for heightening students’ test-wiseness, the overwhelming majority of English teachers in Hong Kong observe no pressing need to revolutionize their classroom assessment practice and so count heavily on AoL, such as one-shot language tests, timed compositions, and decontextualized speaking tasks, to assess students’ learning products (Brown, 2004). Even though some teachers have made attempts to incorporate innovative practices, most probably peer and self-assessments, into their classrooms, barely do their practices reflect intentions and principles of AfL or AaL, but only do they do so to satisfy requirements of the school (Earl, 2013). Such situations are obviously undesirable for students’ language learning.

Apart from teachers’ conceptual beliefs, students’ low metacognitive awareness and language proficiency apparently detract from practicality of implementation of AfL and AaL in local English classrooms. Practicality of an assessment practice, which entails its doability, is highly concerned about a relationship between resources required for the operationalization of the practice and those available (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Tuzi, 2013). Implementation of AfL and AaL is dependent upon students’ metacognitive awareness and language proficiency inasmuch as only are students possessing an ability to think about their own cognitive process capable of planning, monitoring, and evaluating their learning, and only can inner thoughts be externalized via language (Hurford, Heasley, & Smith, 2007). All the same, having been accustomed to receiving direct instruction and playing a passive role in the classroom, students in Hong Kong may possess low metacognitive awareness; in addition, being foreign language learners of English, hardly can some students, especially younger ones, express themselves in English (Lee, 2016). Detracting from “resources” required for the implementation of AfL and AaL, all these factors make the two desirable assessment practices less practical in local English classrooms.

Last but surely not the least large class sizes in local classroom are argued to be obstacles hindering implementation of AfL and AaL; such an assertion is manifestly untenable. Comprising more than 20 students, classes in Hong Kong are rather large, so provision of quality descriptive feedback on every students’ work may be time-consuming and exert additional burden on teachers (Lee, 2016); this probably discourages teachers from carrying out such a desirable practice.

4. Suggestions for Teachers

The aforementioned obstacles of assessment for/as learning irrefutably ought to be resolved for the sake of students’ language learning.

In light of teachers’ conventional conceptualization of assessment, it is opined that only through teachers’ conceptual changes can AfL and AaL be successfully implemented in local English classrooms. With the advent of task-based language teaching and the mission in lifelong learning of the education reform in 2000, roles of English teachers in Hong Kong have indisputably been revolutionized from controllers to facilitators of students’ learning, who ought to aim at empowering students to construct knowledge and carry out autonomous learning in lieu of imparting subject knowledge upon students or merely assisting them in excelling in public examinations (Choudhury, 2011). It is thereby recommended that more professional development workshops with a conceptual in lieu of pedagogical focus be organized by the government or tertiary institutions for English teachers with the hope of facilitating their conceptual change, informing them of the paramount importance to shun dated beliefs and hold an open attitude towards innovative practices in contemporary classrooms. In particular, those workshops ought to accentuate the concept of assessment literacy, which denotes understanding of the relationship between assessment and learning as well as knowledge on quality assessments, by heightening teachers’ assessment literacy and equipping them with strategies to train their students to become assessment-literate (Lee, 2016; Stiggins, 1991). In this vein, both teachers and students in local English classrooms can be well prepared for AfL and AaL.

Concerning students’ low metacognitive awareness and language proficiency, teachers’ scaffolding in the implementation of AfL and AaL is incontestably warranted. For all their emphasis on students’ active role in the learning process, AfL and AaL possess no intention of suggesting that students learn completely on their own with neither support nor assistance of anyone else; instead, teachers are proposed to take on an active role as facilitators,
empowering students to carry out activities pertinent to AfL and AaL, videlicet goal setting, self-regulation, and self-assessment, via provision of scaffolding. Exemplar feedback sheets (see Figure 1 for an example) incorporated into the intended curriculum are instances of scaffolding that can be provided for students to promote AfL and AaL; teachers may adapt those materials in accordance with profile of their students for daily usage. For instance, should students possess low metacognitive awareness, teachers intending to adapt the feedback sheet in Figure 1 may add some guiding questions such as “What do you like about this writing most?” and “In which aspect do you think the writer can improve?” in the section entitled “Additional comments” to guide students’ thoughts. Should students be frightfully weak in English, the “Additional comments” section may even be deleted to ease the task. In this vein, even students with low metacognitive awareness and low English proficiency can still be provided with opportunities to learn through AfL and AaL.

![Feedback Sheet](image_url)

Figure 1. Sample Feedback Sheet from Hong Kong Senior Secondary English Language Curriculum

Source: Curriculum Development Council & Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority (2007). English Language Curriculum and Assessment Guide (Secondary 4-6).

Regarding large class sizes, such a pitfall can be resolved at ease through a shift of focus from AfL to AaL and the development of learner autonomy. Students bearing their own learning responsibility, English teachers are advised not to do all the work for them; instead, students ought to be provided with opportunities for autonomous learning by taking charge of their own learning and being learning resources of one another through provision of peer feedback and peer evaluation. Students learning autonomously and providing one another with peer scaffolding, AfL and AaL can proceed smoothly without exerting heavy burden or workload on English teachers even if the class size remains to be large; large class sizes thereby ought not to an intractable concern impeding the implementation of AfL and AaL in local English classrooms.

5. Pedagogical Implications to Teachers

By and large, playing significant roles in supporting students’ learning and nurturing autonomous learners respectively, AfL and AaL incontrovertibly ought to be promoted and implemented in local English classrooms in distinct year levels for students’ sake. There appear to be misconceptions that the implementation of AfL and AaL involves a turnaround in current classroom assessment practices and complete abandonment of AoL. In point of fact, scarcely are AfL and AaL incommensurate with AoL; on the contrary, it is plausible for teachers to steer a course amongst the three and implement a blend in their own classrooms to serve various purposes. Whilst summative language tests can be administered at the end of a module or a term to gauge students’ product of learning in terms of the four language skills, such AoL practices can be complemented by AfL and AaL practices implemented at other times of the academic year, such as formative writing assessments involving multiple drafts and self-assessment of language development, to incorporate assessment into the learning process and enable students to learn in the course of assessment.
6. Conclusion

All said and done, from the entirety of the paper, it is observed that AfL and AaL play significant roles in supporting students’ learning and nurturing autonomous learners in English language classrooms in Hong Kong respectively; in reality, not only do these two assessment practices be beneficial to English language teachers and learners in Hong Kong, but they are also applicable to classrooms in other second or foreign language contexts for the sake of language assessment. Obstacles confronted in the course of operationalization of these theoretical notions ought to be overcome so that AfL and AaL can coexist with AoL on a complementary fashion to benefit teachers’ teaching and students’ learning in general. Above all, language learning is a lifelong process not confined to schooling, so is assessment; for this reason, whenever a person continues learning, never should AoL, AfL, or AaL cease to exist. It is thereby imperative that assessment literate learners be nurtured in the schooling process so that they will manage to back their language learning by assessment in the future.

References


Appendix 1

Example of Grammar Learning Goals

In this term / academic year, I hope I will be able to do the following about grammar:

- Do not overuse the article ‘the’
- Use correct tenses in story writing
- Use the modal verb ‘can’ correctly
- Use correct grammatical structures to talk about something that is impossible
- Distinguish between the prepositions ‘in’ and ‘on’
- Use correct grammatical structures to report something said by someone else

Adapted from Lee (2016) and Yule (1998)

Appendix 2

Sample Entry of a Dictionary Notebook

Entry: Food

Organization of Words by Meaning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food groups</th>
<th>Food substances</th>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Related words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fat, oil, salt</td>
<td>carbohydrates</td>
<td>eat</td>
<td>healthy (adj.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dairy products</td>
<td>lipids</td>
<td>drink</td>
<td>fresh (adj.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meat</td>
<td>proteins</td>
<td>buy</td>
<td>raw (adj.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eggs and beans</td>
<td>water</td>
<td>serve</td>
<td>junk (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vegetables</td>
<td>vitamins</td>
<td>cook</td>
<td>labelling (v.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fruits</td>
<td>minerals</td>
<td>prepare</td>
<td>poisoning (v.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cereals and grains</td>
<td>dietary fibre</td>
<td></td>
<td>industry (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>production (n.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Construction of Networks of Meaning

Examples: food and drink, food and wine, supply of food, food safety, food shortage

Synonyms and antonyms

Synonyms: cooking, cuisine, meal, fare, feed, foodstuff, meat, snack
Antonyms: deprivation, starvation

Appended from McCarthy and O’Dell (2012)

Appendix 3

Self-Assessment Questionnaire for Listening Skills

Please indicate how true the following statements are about you. Please tick (✓) the correct boxes that can best represent your feeling.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Never true</th>
<th>Sometimes true</th>
<th>Frequently true</th>
<th>Always true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am able to understand and interpret spoken texts in a range of situations and for different purposes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I am able to identify details that support a main idea while listening.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am able to predict likely development of ideas while listening.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I am able to understand usage of discourse markers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am able to establish and infer meanings from clues while listening.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 4

**Self-Reflection Sheet for Listening Tests**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Listening text: Weather Forecast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Date:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Before Listening**

Things I did not do well in my last listening test:

My goals for this listening test:

**After receiving teacher’s feedback**

The extent to which my goals were achieved:

What I did well:

What I did less well:

What I can do to improve my listening:

My goals for the next listening test:

Adapted from Lee (2016)