University of Pardubice
Faculty of Arts and Philosophy

AIMS IN TEACHING AND TESTING WRITING IN ELT

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Z á s a d y   p r o   v y p r a c o v á n í :

Diplomandka se bude ve své práci zabývat problematikou cílů výuky a testování řečové dovednosti psaní v anglickém jazyce na základní škole. V teoretické části práce nejprve pojedná kategorii cíle na obecné úrovni, zaměří se na hierarchii, domény a taxonomie cílů. Jako konceptuální rámec bude využita revidovaná Bloomova klasifikaci cílů v kognitivní doméně a v souvislosti s ní formulovaný požadavek souladu mezi cíli, učebními aktivitami a testovými úlohami. Dále diplomandka definuje cíle výuky anglického jazyka a jejich realizaci v RVP ZV s odkazem na další relevantní dokumenty. Tyto cíle dále specifikuje pro řečovou dovednost psaní. V další části bude diskutovat hlavní principy testování psaní v anglickém jazyce (požadavek validity a reliability testu, problematika hodnocení). V praktické části práce realizuje diplomandka případovou studii s cílem zjistit, zda cíle deklarované v kurikulárních dokumentech, školním vzdělávacím programu konkrétní školy, jsou v souladu s učebními aktivitami rozvíjejícími písemný projev v angličtině a testováním této řečové dovednosti ve vybrané třídě. Diplomandka bude analyzovat příslušný segment školního vzdělávacího programu a další pedagogickou dokumentaci, dále využije dotazovací techniky.

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Seznam odborné literatury:

ANDERSON, Lorin W., KRATHWOHL, David R. (et al.) A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching and Assessing: A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. New York: Longman, 2011. 302 p. ISBN 0-8013-1903-X. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. 4th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003. ISBN 0-521-00531-0. BACHMAN, Lyle F. Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing. 1st ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1990. 408 p. ISBN 0-19-437003-8. PRŮCHA, Jan. Moderní pedagogika. 2nd ed. Praha: Portál, 2002. 488 p. ISBN 80-7178-631-4. SKALKOVÁ, Jarmila. Obecná didaktika. 2. ed. Praha: Grada, 2007. 320 p. ISBN 978-80-247-1821-7. ŠIMONÍK, Oldřich. Úvod do didaktiky základní školy. Brno: MSD, 2005. 140 p. ISBN 80-86633-33-0. PASCH, Marvin a kol. Od vzdělávacího programu k vyučovací hodině. 1. ed. Praha: Portál, 1988. 424 p. ISBN 80-7178-127-4. KOLÁŘ, Zdeněk, ŠIKULOVÁ, Renata. Hodnocení žáků. 1st ed. Praha: Grada Publishing, 2005. 160 p. ISBN 80-247-0885-X. HUGHES, Arthur. Testing for Language Teachers. 2nd ed. Cambridge: CUP, 2003. 251 p. ISBN 0-521-27260-2. HARMER, Jeremy. The Practice on English Language Teaching. 4th ed. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited, 2007. 448 p. ISBN 978-1-4058-5311-8. HARMER, Jeremy. How to Teach Writing. 2nd ed. Harlow: Pearson Education, 2004. 154 p. ISBN 0-582-77998-7. HEDGE, Tricia. Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom. 1st ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000. 447 p. ISBN 0-19-442172-4. SCRIVENER, Jim. Learning Teaching: A Guidebook for English Language Teachers. Oxford: Heinemann, 1994. 218 p. ISBN 0-435-24089-7. Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání [online]. Praha: Výzkumný ústav pedagogický v Praze, 2007. 126 p. [quoted 2012-01-21]. Available at WWW: http://www.vuppraha.cz/wp-content/uploads/2009/12/RVPZV_2007-07.pdf

Prohlašuji:

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Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní knihovně.

V Pardubicích dne 28. 3. 2013

Bc. Pavla Jahodová

Abstract:

This master thesis deals with aims in teaching and testing writing in ELT. It primarily examines the current shape of treating writing as a language skill at elementary schools in the Czech Republic where there has been recently implemented a new curricular policy. The thesis turns attention to the requirement of aligning aims of teaching and testing writing with one another as well as with those formulated in curricular documents, which encourages beneficial backwash and achieving aims stated by the sector. For this purpose, Blooms' revised taxonomy for learning, teaching and assessing is introduced and consequently used in the practical part of the thesis which investigates the level of correspondence among aims stated in the projected curriculum and those of teaching-learning and testing tasks in the seventh grade of elementary school.

Key words:

aims; Bloom's revised taxonomy; writing; teaching; testing

Souhrn:

Diplomová práce se zabývá problematikou cílů ve výuce a testování psaní v anglickém jazyce. Primárně rozebírá současnou podobu přístupu ke psaní jako řečové dovednosti na základních školách v České republice, kde byla v nedávné době zavedena nová kurikulární politika. Práce poukazuje na potřebu stanovovat cíle výuky a testování psaní ve vzájemném souladu, jakož i v souladu s cíli formulovanými v kurikulárních dokumentech, čímž je podporován kladný dopad testování na učení (se) a dosahování cílů stanovených sektorem. K tomuto účelu je představena revidovaná verze Bloomovy taxonomie cílů učení se, vyučování a hodnocení, jež je následně využita v praktické části práce mapující míru souladu mezi cíli stanovenými v projektovaném kurikulu, učebními a testovými úlohami v sedmém ročníku základní školy.

Klíčová slova:

cíle; Bloomova revidovaná taxonomie; psaní; výuka; testování

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1. INTRODUCTION

"However long ago writing really started, it has remained for most of its history a minority occupation". (Harmer, 2007a, p. 3) Whether writing has been already properly recognised as a language skill to be developed in the foreign language teaching-learning process at elementary schools or history is followed in its footsteps in this case too is a question worth contemplating and researching. This master thesis is therefore intended to examine aims in teaching and testing writing in English language teaching (ELT) in order to identify and clarify intentions with which the skill of writing is treated in class.

In the theoretical part of the thesis, aims are introduced as an essential factor encompassed in the teaching-learning process. Since the thesis deals with the situation of elementary education in the Czech Republic, the way in which educational aims are treated is related to the recent reform of the Czech curricular policy. Reflecting curricular and strategic documents, general priorities of contemporary foreign language education are introduced and the role of developing the skill of writing is in this respect discussed as well as aims to be achieved in teaching and learning/acquiring writing in ELT. Teaching writing is consequently related to testing writing while the requirement for aligning aims stated in curricular documents with those of teaching-learning and testing tasks is emphasised, reflecting the vision of encouraging beneficial backwash and achieving pre-stated aims.

Research conducted in the practical part of the thesis examines the way in which aims in teaching and testing writing in ELT are treated in the seventh grade of basic school. The investigation is predominantly concentrated on analysing aims of the projected curriculum and those of teaching-learning and testing tasks, and examining the degree of their alignment.

It is suggested that human beings are attracted by carrying out activities while they tend to achieve aims, no matter if for their own sake or for somebody else's one. (Kolář and Šikulová, 2005, p. 9) The master thesis in this sense brings the role of aims in teaching and testing writing to light in order to encourage teachers to treat the aims with concern as their achieving affects as learning of their learners, as their own teaching.

2. AIMS WITHIN THE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS

Acknowledging the role of 'aims' within the teaching-learning process is dependent on a philosophy of education relevant to a given epoch and society. As the needs and intentions develop, there arise different preferences of the educational system, which are reflected in the way in which stating aims is approached. The diachronic viewpoint of aims within the teaching-learning process thus contrasts those that are centrally determined and binding regardless a specific context with pedocentric refusals of any aims pre-stated by authorities. (Kolář and Vališová, 2009, p. 18, 20) Nowadays, it is believed that "the teaching-learning process, as every meaningful human activity, is always directed towards an aim." (Skalková, 2007, p. 119) Aims are therefore regarded as essential features of the contemporary educational process. In general, they represent the final destination of one's effort being expressed in terms of changes of one's knowledge, skills, personal characteristics and values (ibid.) which are supposed to be achieved within particular time while they may be qualitative and/or quantitative. (Kalhous, Obst et al. 2002, p. 274) Such changes are related to the development of one's personality. (Skalková, 2007, p. 119)

2.1. Aims as a didactic category

The category of aims, apart from moderating the teaching-learning process and making it dynamic, integrates a variety of features encompassed in the process. Once the aim is modified, inner relationships within the system are affected since the system is holistic. As an evidence of such a mutual interconnection Skalková, with reference to Blížkovský (1997, p. 71), examines the teaching-learning process as a system in which the categories of aims, content and methods (included organisational forms) affect one another while their mutual relationships are mediated by the relation between the

teacher and learner(s). (Skalková, 2007, p. 124) Similarly, Šimoník (2005, p. 49) concludes that the category of aims represents a point of departure shaping other didactic categories (content, methods, organisational forms and didactic aids) but at the same time, it is determined by all the other mentioned categories, so the system functions as integrated unity. Recognising the importance of the category of aims thus leads to the consensus that "aims, as one of the governing features, enter the complicated system of relationships determining the nature of the teaching-learning process" (Skalková, 2007, p. 119) in which they manifest visions of the society of what the educated man's characteristics should be like. (ibid.)

Aims as a didactic category are nowadays investigated in terms of human's behaviour and learning. (Miller, Galanter and Pribram; Anochin; Leonťjev in Skalková, 2007, p. 119) The investigation is conducted with reference to the impact of pre-stated aims on the way in which learners approach the aims and identify themselves with them. (Kolář and Vališová, 2009, p. 39) However, where there is aim achieving (understood as somebody being educated), there is obviously aim stating (somebody who educates – determines patterns, aims to be followed). It is, all things considered, demonstrated by the paradigm of the 'teaching-learning process'. In this sense, the teacher and learners interact with each other when dealing with aims. (Skalková, 2007, p. 125) Aims, hence on one hand manifest the teacher's perspective in teaching, and on the other one, they determine learners' motivation towards learning. Ideally, learners should collaborate with their teachers when stating individual aims since learners are not considered to be passive objects of the teaching-learning process anymore. (Kalhous, Obst et al., 2002, p. 274) With respect to such intentions of contemporary education, Skalková defines an 'aim' of the teaching-learning process as "a planned and expected result which the teacher in collaboration with pupils attempts to achieve." (Skalková, 2007, p. 119)

However, since teachers and learners play different parts in the educational process, it is apparent that the formulation of aims differs if being regarded from teacher's or learner's perspective. With respect to the progressive educational trends, there is a tendency to characterize aims in terms of qualitative presuppositions of the results which learners are supposed to attain. (Šimoník, 2005, p. 50) Thus, in order to enable

learners to identify themselves with the aims to be achieved, aims tend to be formulated from learner's perspective in the form of so-called 'operationalisation of aims', i.e. aims are defined as particular operations that are easy to be determined and checked. (Choděra, 2006, p. 72 – 73) Operationalised aims thus precisely determine expected and demanded learners' behaviour (Kalhous, Obst et al., 2002, p. 280) while it should be taken into consideration that all the learners should be enabled to achieve the particular aim. (Červenka in Kolář and Vališová, 2009, p. 21) To be formulated as clearly as possible, 'aims' are suggested to be expressed via the perfective aspect of verbs determining them (Choděra, 2006, p. 73), in terms of what should be achieved and in which way. (Skalková, 2007, p. 125)

2.2. Classifying Aims

Classifying aims is suggested to be only an instrument enabling one to understand the phenomenon of aims as a didactic category from the theoretical point of view. That is why there are various standpoints and criteria[1] suggested, motivated mainly by different purposes of particular classifications, while no basic unified criteria have been approved by experts of the field yet. (Blížkovský, 1997, p. 122 – 123) In simple terms, while each particular situation requires choosing particular classifying criteria, one particular aim may be considered from a variety of viewpoints depending on a particular context. (Kolář and Vališová, 2009, p. 23) It is therefore supposed that aims, regardless any classification, are mutually interconnected and, constituting one system, they "must be approached in dialectical unity." (Blížkovský, 1997, p. 122)

2.2.1. Hierarchy

Classifying aims as for their complexity is one of the possible ways how to distinguish them from each other. To order them from the hierarchical point of view, they may be classified as (a) general aims; (b) partial aims; and (c) specific objectives (Blížkovský, 1997, p. 123), while it is not possible to treat individual categories in isolation without respect to the whole system. (Skalková, 2007, p. 120) In such a case classifying would be pointless.

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[1] a list of various criteria that may be used when classifying aims is available e.g. in Blížkovský (1997, p. 122 – 123)

2.2.1.1. General aims

General aims express complex intentions of the educational system to be followed when planning the process of educating. As such, they cover a greater amount of what should be taught and learned/acquired (Pasch et al., 1998, p. 44), and accent the development of learners' personalities. (Skalková, 2007, p. 119) Being stated as visions of a given educational system, such aims are culturally-bound. They are stated to reflect presupposed individual learner needs as well as sociological requirements of a given epoch. (ibid.) According to a particular situation, the following educational philosophies may be projected into the general aims:

1) Progressivism – education should develop one's thinking rather than push learners to drilling the content of particular subject matters

   a) Social Progressivism – education should prepare learners for living in a democratic society

   b) Individual Progressivism – education should be adjusted to individual learner needs

2) Essentialism – education should transmit knowledge, skills and attitudes to a learner who is considered to be a fully developed human being

3) Reconstructivism – education should prepare the educated generations to initiate and implement reforms within a given society. (Pasch et al., 1998, p. 34 – 38)

General educational aims summarising demands of a given society are usually stated in curricular documents. (Skalková, 2007. p. 119) In terms of the Czech curricular policy, they are listed in (a) a strategic document called *the White Paper*; and (b) a curricular document, the *Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education* (FEP EE).

The National Programme for Development of Education in the Czech Republic, the White Paper was admitted by the Government in 2001. It is conceived as "a systemic project formulating intellectual basis, general goals and development programmes of the education system in the medium term." (White Paper, 2001, p. 7) Although being in a way superior to other Czech curricular documents, *the White Paper* represents rather a guidebook how to run the sector of education and as such refers to the ideational curriculum formulating national priorities. (Průcha, 2002, p. 246) It is supposed to be a

foundation for the following steps of the Ministry of Education sector, being open to further discussion and updating. (White Paper, 2001, p. 7) The document defines general educational aims and key competencies while focusing on the personality development, citizen education and preparation for further education or occupation. (ibid., p. 40) The above-mentioned areas should be specified in FEPs and consequently in School Education Programmes (SEPs) to reflect a new era of curriculum constructing. It is intended to create a new, non-essentialistic curriculum. Schools are, instead of transmitting enormous knowledge, supposed to provide

> "a systematic and balanced structure of basic concepts and relations that makes it possible to put information into a meaningful context of knowledge and life experience". (ibid.)

The White Paper thus calls for a proper balance among the knowledge basis, development of skills and acquisition of attitudes and values. In addition, it emphasizes acquiring key competences and interconnecting competences with aims and education content. The educational system in general thus should be oriented towards four areas:

- to learn how to know – e.g. managing methods of learning, using information and communication technologies, learning how to process information, turn it into knowledge and apply it, etc.
- to learn how to act and live together – e.g. being able to work both independently and in teams, communicate openly, manage conflicts, respect different views, etc.
- to learn to be – e.g. being able to orientate oneself in various situations and to know how to respond, solve problems, act more independently, etc.
- to construct a system of values – e.g. the development of sociopersonal characteristics, understanding of one's own personality, respecting others, etc. (ibid.)

These four areas manifest pillars of contemporary education (learning to know, learning to do, learning to live with others and learning to be) suggested by the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-fist Century to UNESCO in the report *Learning: The Treasure Within* (Šimoník, 2005, p. 8) and are understood as a basis of competences to be developed in learners. General aims of this kind suggested in *the*

White Paper can be therefore related to the particular philosophy behind the Czech educational policy in the following way:

- ▪ the system calls primarily for Progressivistic education (learning how to know, be, act and live together),
- ▪ secondarily considers Essencialistic education as a part that should be judiciously integrated
- ▪ and finally, implicitly encourages education in Reconstructivistic terms mediated via Progressivistic and Essencialistic education.

The dynamic phenomenon of a change, discussed in the beginning of the chapter, determines not only the need of pre-stated aims to be achieved within the process of learning/acquiring and teaching, if any, but also the way in which the category of aims is perceived. It was mentioned above that *the White Paper* calls for enabling learners to acquire key competences which, in fact, characterise contemporary understanding of broader aims to be achieved over a period of time at various phases of the educational process when complexity of learners' personalities is targeted. (Kolář and Vališová, 2009, p. 20) In other words,

> the purpose and aim of education are to equip all pupils with a set of key competencies on the level which is attainable for them and thus to prepare them for their further education and their participation in society. (FEP EE, 2007, p. 11)

Aims as key competencies are introduced in detail in the FEP EE, a framework being available as a set of patterns to be followed when constructing individual SEPs which are consequently obligatory for schools. These documents refer to the projected curriculum summarizing plans (Průcha, 2002, p. 246) of a given phase of the educational process, being open to further discussion and innovations at certain intervals as reflecting the changing needs. (FEP EE, 2007, p. 6) As such, these curricular documents materialise the recommendation published in *the White Paper* that there should be constructed a topical framework education programme for elementary education stipulating specific goals, contents, output key competences and conditions for education at the first and second stage of elementary education, being a foundation for the development of individual school educational programmes specifying particular features for each of the first and second stage. (White Paper, 2001, p. 53)

Key competencies to be developed within elementary education in the Czech Republic are consequently characterized as

> a set of knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and values which are important for the personal development of an individual and for the individual's participation in society. Their selection and conception are based on values generally accepted in society as well as commonly held ideas on which competencies of the individual contribute to his/her education, contented and successful life and to strengthening the functions of civil society. (FEP EE, 2007, p. 11)

The aim of elementary-school learners is in this sense developing the following key competencies: (a) learning competency; (b) problem-solving competency; (c) communication competency; (d) social and personal competency; (e) civic competency; and (f) professional competency. (ibid.)

Yet, since the development of key competencies is a long-term and complex process (FEP EE, 2007, p. 11), it is apparent that such a development is executed via achieving other specifically determined, not so broad aims.

2.2.1.2. Partial Aims

Partial educational aims are stated on the basis of general aims. They represent aims of particular topics, grades (specified in terms of conditions of a given school or class) and/or particular subjects as they are formulated in education programmes. (Skalková, 2007, p. 119) Also in this case, relevant aims may be identified in the FEP EE and consequently in individual SEPs. Partial aims are depicted there in the form of so-called expected outcomes which are determined for the educational content within nine education areas (language and language communication, mathematics and its application, man and his world, man and society, man and nature, arts and culture, man and health, man and the world of work, complementary educational fields). (FEP EE, 2007, p. 15) Expected outcomes are characterised as

> activity-based, practically focused, applicable in everyday life and verifiable. They specify the expected capability of utilising the acquired subject matter in practical situations and everyday life. The FEP EE sets the expected outcomes at the end of the 3rd form (Cycle 1) as orientational (tentative) and at the end of the 5th form 5 (Cycle 2) and of the 9th form as binding. (ibid.)

Since the main concern of the FEP EE and thus SEPs is to develop learners' key competencies to a certain level, attaining the expected outcomes is supposed to lead to such a development as it is visualised in the Diagram 2 published in the FEP EE (2007, p. 16)

2.2.1.3. Specific objectives

Specific objectives express exactly determined expected behaviour that learners should be able to manifest or manage by the end of a course or lesson. (Pasch et al., 1998, p. 93) The basic presumption when stating specific objectives is that they should represent criteria summarized by the acronym SMART. It means that the way in which they are formulated should enable learners to perceive them as being specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and timed (Harmer, 2007b, p. 371), if the objectives are to be achieved. This, of course, applies for general and partial aims as well. Yet, since they refer to broader aims, the level of their operationalisation may be much more abstract. On the contrary, operationalising specific objectives is fundamental because it may facilitate preparation of teaching-learning tasks but also assessing the level of one's achievement. (Pasch et al., 1998, p. 93)

Except for SMART, there is another tool, so called 'behavioural test', that may be used to check whether objectives are (not) formulated as specifically as possible. The test focuses one's attention on

> A standing for the particular audience which is supposed to achieve the aim
>
> B standing for expected behaviour
>
> C standing for conditions such as aids being available, time restrictions, manner (in a written form/orally), etc. which have to be respected if an outcome is to be accepted as accomplished
>
> D standing for a degree statement determining assessment criteria in the process of deciding if an objective was (not) achieved. (Pasch et al., 1998, p. 96 – 97)

Objectives that are accurately specified, with respect to the acronym SMART or the behavioural test, are believed to prevent the situation characterized as the following: "if you are not precisely aware of where you are headed, you will probably end up totally elsewhere." (Mager in Pasch et al., 1998, p. 87)

2.2.2. Domains

Contemporary education, being aware of existence of different aspects of a human personality, tends to treat a person as being consisted of various aspects. (Kalhous, Obst et al., 2002, p. 276) i.e. there is a call for systematisation of aims in terms of various aspects of a learner's personality. (Blížkovský, 1997, p. 124) In this respect Skalková (2007, p. 120) asserts that the process of aim specification is associated with cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of one's personality. This viewpoint is supported by Kolář and Vališová's opinion according to which it is precisely this classification of aims, if any, that is taken into consideration in the process of specifying aims. (Kolář and Vališová, 2009, p. 23) Complex developing of learner's whole personality is hence affected by a particular fusion of aims targeting the abovementioned domains. Regardless the illusion that cognitive aims play the leading part in the teaching-learning process, "it is a duty of the teacher to systematically treat all three dimensions of educational aims and accept their mutual nexus." (Kalhous, Obst et al., 2002, p. 276) It should be regarded e.g. when constructing up-to-date SEPs with reference to the FEP. (Kolář and Vališová, 2009, p. 29 – 30) The importance of this is in a way suggested in the assertion that the first step to modern education is recognising a learner as a whole within the teaching-learning process. (Skalková in Kolář and Vališová, 2009, p. 29)

2.2.2.1. Cognitive domain

Aims targeted at the cognitive domain are traditionally associated with one's intellect. Rather than increasing the capacity of one's brain as for its ability to store thousands of facts, they should affect (and develop) various aspects of one's thinking in order to enhance one's mental capacity as for managing knowledge and procedures. (Pasch, 1998, p. 51) They are therefore formulated in a sense that learners should be able

> to remember and manage to recall particular information or to find out, determine or infer meaning of a fact or information via their intellective skills and associate this new piece of information with previous knowledge. (ibid.)

When achieving cognitive aims, learners should be hence aware of whether reproducing facts is satisfactory or explaining relationships and application of certain principles is demanded. (Kalhous, Obst et al., 2002, p. 276)

Simultaneously, as it is suggested by Pash, there is a tendency to define such cognitive aims in class that are not demanding in terms of complex thinking. It may thus imply that remembering definitions is sufficient for learning/acquiring and teaching. However, aims targeted at recalling what has been acquired/learnt so far do not develop learners' abilities to solve complex problems. On the contrary, complex mental tasks are accomplished while using 'the higher level of thinking' which is characterized as segmenting information into pieces that are consequently used as building blocks when constructing new, own concepts. (Pash et al., 1998, p. 51) Disproportion of higher-order and lower-order aims and preferring lower-order ones is often criticized in terms of contemporary teaching (Kalhous, Obst et al., 2002, p. 279) as well as privileging aims targeting the cognitive domain as it is discussed in chapter 2.2.2.

2.2.2.2. Affective aims

Stating and achieving aims targeted at the affective domain become more and more topical with reference to the on-going process of globalisation and associated highlighting of the role of interculturality[2]. The affective domain concerns learners' emotional behaviour – i.e. feelings, attitudes, preferences and values. (Pash et al., 1998, p. 51) Aims targeted at this domain are hence stated with the intention to provide learners with opportunities to express their experiences, thoughts, to discuss their standpoints, etc. (Kalhous, Obst et al., 2002, p. 276) Recognising the affective dimension of one's learning/acquiring (and thus teaching) therefore significantly affects learners' personalities.

2.2.2.3. Psychomotor aims

Aims targeting the psychomotor domain concern sensual learning/acquiring (and thus teaching) including a reflexive movement as well as purposeful manipulation. Achieving aims within the psychomotor domain requires on-going practising and training of given skills. It applies among others to pronunciation as a foreign language subskill. (Pasch et al., 1998, p. 51; Kalhous, Obst et al., 2002, p. 276)

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[2] e.g. the question of intercultural communicative competence

2.3. Taxonomy tables

Taxonomy tables are tools designed to reflect stating and achieving aims within the ongoing teaching-learning process. The main intention here is to provide learners and teachers with feedback necessary for further decision-making. Taxonomies are considered to be the most common instruments used when ordering teaching-learning tasks. (Pasch et al., p. 72) As the term 'taxonomy' suggests, there is a vision of existence of a kind of system beyond taxonomy tables reflecting the phase of the teaching-learning process. In the case of very first taxonomy tables, the system was regarded in terms of a structurally organised human personality and a process of an intentionally organised development of such a personality. This conception gradually became a basis for distinguishing particular domains which are examined above. (Kalhous, Obst et al., 2002, p. 279)

2.3.1. Bloom's revised taxonomy table for learning, teaching and assessing

The taxonomy of educational objectives that is discussed in the following paragraph represents an up-to-date version of the original Bloom's[3] framework for categorizing educational objectives[4] that is considered to represent a crucial basis for test designing and curriculum development of the twentieth century (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001, p. xxi) aimed especially at assessment and needs of higher education. (ibid., p. 263 − 264) Though the publication, as it was proved by a survey, refers to the most influential writings of this kind (Shane; Kridel in Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001, p. xxi), as the time proceeded, the need for framework revision arose with reference to the diachronic point of view and the development of psychological and educational thinking. (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001, p. xxi − xxii) The revised version of Bloom's taxonomy table reflects viewpoints of cognitive psychologists, curriculum theorists and instructional researchers and testing and assessment specialists. (ibid., p. xxviii) Discussions on the idea of taxonomy revision motivated changes in terms of

- ▪ re-shifting the original focus on assessment also to curriculum planning and instructions, which would enable aligning these three

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[3] the original framework was published in 1956 as *The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain* by B.S. Bloom (ed.), M.D. Engelhart, E.J. Furst, W.H. Hill, and D.R. Krathwohl

[4] the term 'objective' is in the publication used synonymously for general aims and for specific objectives

- adjusting the taxonomy to teachers at all grade levels (elementary and secondary teachers taken into consideration)
- emphasizing subcategories of major categories so that characteristics of the major categories would emerge from extensively described subcategories
- re-structuring the framework. (ibid., p. 263 – 264)

As for the latter point, the main concern resulted in structural re-shaping of the original framework consisting of six categories (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation) and their subcategories (for detail see Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., p. 271 – 277) to a double-dimensional taxonomy distinguishing two separate dimensions. Aims to be reflected in Bloom's revised taxonomy are thus defined as a verb and a noun, while the verb "describes the intended cognitive process" (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001, p. 4) and the noun describes "the knowledge students are expected to acquire or construct." (ibid., p. 5) The Knowledge Dimension is reflected vertically, the Cognitive Process Dimension horizontally. The former one is divided into four parts standing for four types of knowledge: (1) factual; (4) conceptual; (3) procedural and (4) meta-cognitive. The latter mentioned dimension encompasses six categories: (1) to remember; (2) to understand; (3) to apply; (4) to analyse; (5) to evaluate and (6) to create. Particular dimensions are consequently divided into individual subcategories. A complete description of the categories is depicted in APPENDIX 1. The taxonomy table is of a chart shape, so "the cells of the table are where the knowledge and cognitive process dimensions intersect." (ibid., p. 27)

Unlike the original framework which represented a cumulative hierarchy in which "mastery of a more complex category required prior mastery of all the less complex categories" while the individual categories were presumed not to overlap (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001, p. 267), the revised taxonomy table is understood as a hierarchy in the sense that categories of the Cognitive Process Dimension are ordered in terms of increasing complexity. The particular categories may overlap which is believed to conform to the language that teachers usually use. (ibid., p. 267)

3. AIMS IN ELT

ELT, being expected to co-govern educational processes, be developed throughout changes within the world and society, be taught and studied, refers to an intentional, goal-oriented human activity having a certain purpose beyond its implementation. As such, the nature of ELT and its priorities are determined by aims to be achieved within the field. Elementary school ELT requires teachers to enable learners to achieve aims that are stated in SEPs being based on suggestions of the FEP EE, the curricular document reflecting strategies in foreign language education covered in the CEFR[5].

3.1. CEFR

The CEFR is a document of educational policy providing a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations and textbooks across Europe. While taking the cultural context in which language is set into account, the document tends to suggest what language learners should learn to do to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they should develop to be able to act effectively. Finally, common reference levels of proficiency in foreign language using are determined to transcendent different educational systems and encourage European mobility. (CEFR, 2002, p. 1) However the CEFR is considered to be a fundamental document of foreign language teaching and learning/acquiring (Hanušová and Vojtková, 2011, p. 99), as being designed for an undetermined variety of purposes and languages, some suggested implications may seem to be rather vague if they are directly related to such a specific field as ELT is.

The CEFR calls for developing a range of competences. An action-oriented approach adopted in the publication considers language learners to be social agents (possessing cognitive, emotional and volitional resources as well as a range of subjectively-specific abilities) strategically using competences at their disposal in order to accomplish not exclusively language-related tasks within a particular field of action in a specific environment and circumstances. (CEFR, 2002, p. 9) Thus

> to carry out the tasks and activities required to deal with the communicative situations in which they are involved, users and learners draw upon a number of competences developed in the course of their previous experience. (ibid., p. 101)

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[5] *Common European Framework of Reference for Foreign Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*

It may be hence concluded that, according to the CEFR, generally all human competences contribute to language learners' ability to communicate. In this respect, distinguishing narrowly defined linguistic competences from those less closely language-related is encouraged. (ibid.) Such a distinction presupposes stating aims of ELT in terms of developing two dimensions:

    a) communicative language competences

    b) general competences. (ibid., p. 9)

3.1.1. Communicative language competences

Communicative language competences, empowering one to act using specifically linguistic devices (CEFR, 2002, p. 9), represent an up-to-date interpretation of the concept of communicative competence (CC) that has been in various forms developed since the beginning of the 20th century. (Píšová, 2011, p. 149) Although there is no operationalised model provided in the CEFR, the description of particular components of CC correlates with distinctive features forming other influential models of CC – e.g. the one of Bachman's described in detail in Bachman (2001, p. 84 – 107)[6] As "a de facto linguistic construct" (Píšová, 2011, p. 149), the concept of CC examined in the CEFR consists of three components containing associated subcomponents

- linguistic competences – lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competence
- sociolinguistic competences – linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions expressions of folk wisdom, register differences and dialect and accent
- pragmatic competences – discourse and functional competence. (CEFR, 2002, p. 108 – 125)

What may seem to be a discrepancy within the system is the fact that the abovementioned components of CC are not directly reflected in descriptors of reference

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[6] Bachman's framework of CC is mentioned because it (as for the included components) represents a successor of previously influential models of CC, e.g. the one of Canale and Swain's (1980), Hymes' (1972), etc. (Píšová, 2011, p. 149)

levels of proficiency[7] which are, on the contrary, defined in terms of language skills (listening, reading, spoken production and interaction, writing) (CEFR, 2002, p. 26) in a form of what language learners should be able to do (this correlates with the abovementioned requirement for formulating operationalised aims). Such a formulation represents, according to the opinion of Hanušová and Vojtková's (2011, p. 100), to an up-to-date approach to evaluating one's CC.

3.1.2. General competences

General competences refer to "those not specific to language, but which are called upon for actions of all kinds, including language activities." (CEFR, 2002, p. 9) Similarly to communicative language competences, no operationalised model is provided neither in this case. Yet, general competences are depicted as following

- declarative knowledge (savoir) − knowledge of the world, sociocultural knowledge, intercultural awareness
- skills and know-how (savoir-faire) – practical skills and know how, intercultural skills and know-how
- existential competence (savoir-être) − attitudes, motivations, values, beliefs, cognitive styles, personality factors
- ability to learn (savoir-apprendre) − language and communication awareness, general phonetic awareness and skills, study skills, heuristic skills. (ibid., p. 101 − 108)

General competences are together with communicative language competences brought to bear on the realisation of one's communicative intentions. (CEFR, 2002, p. 91) Since communication requires the whole human being, the CEFR in such a respect encourages an intercultural approach to language education, in which promoting the favourable development of the learners' whole personality and sense of identity in response to the enriching experience of otherness in language and culture stand for a fundamental objective. (ibid., p. 1) Apart from CC, the CEFR thus calls for developing one's IC too.

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[7] A (Basic User): A1 (Breaktrough), A2 (Waystage); B (Independent User): B1 (Treshold), B2 (Vantage); C (Proficient User): C1 (Effective Operational Mastery), C2 (Mastery) (CEFR, 2002, p. 23)

Tending to develop learners' CC and IC, the document may be perceived as formulating aims in foreign language learning/acquiring and thus teaching in terms of developing learners' intercultural communicative competence (ICC). However, as it was mentioned in the previous subchapter, suggested reference levels of proficiency are described predominantly in favour of CC and the development of learners' IC is in the descriptors rather implied than explicitly encouraged. Hence, attention of teachers is concentrated on stating aims with the vision of developing learners' CC.

3.2. FEP EE

Aims of foreign language education are in the FEP EE suggested in a form of expected outcomes of the educational area *Language and Language Communication*, particularly of the subchapter *Foreign Language*. The expected outcomes are defined for two stages (1st – 5th grade and 6th – 9th grade) out of which the first one is divided into two cycles (1st – 3rd grade and 4th – 5th grade). Being practically focused, activity-based, applicable in everyday life and verifiable, the outcomes are orientational for the end of the 3rd grade and binding for the end of the 5th and 9th grade. "They specify the level which is to be attained by all the pupils" (FEP EE, 2007, p. 127), thus, the requirement for formulating operationalised aims is met in this case too. As for aims of ELT, teachers are supposed to enable learners to attain the A2 level of proficiency[8] (FEP EE, 2007, p. 18) by the end of the 9th grade. The CEFR and the FEP EE are in accordance in the sense that the intended reference level is determined in terms of language skills (in the FEP EE receptive, productive and interactive skills are distinguished from one another). (Kostková, 2012, p. 52) On the contrary, descriptors listed in the FEP EE does not provide as much detail as descriptors of the A2 level examined in the CEFR, which could be e.g. given by the fact that the classification of language skills slightly differs.

Though reflecting suggestions of the CEFR, as it is mentioned (FEP EE, 2007, p. 18), the FEP EE may seem not to be one hundred per cent consistent with intentions of the CEFR. Whereas the latter one defines aims of language education in terms of developing one's ICC (although features of IC are not consequently explicitly reflected in reference levels), i.e. emphasises a broader perspective of foreign language

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[8] according to the CEFR

learning/acquiring and thus teaching, in the case of the FEP EE the expected outcomes are stated primarily with reference to the concept of CC examined in the CEFR. (FEP EE, 2007, p. 18; Píšová, 2011, p. 150) It is apparent e.g. from the way in which individual descriptors are formulated and the idea is also supported by explicit assertion of Czech authors − e.g. Janíková and Michels-McGovern (in Janíková et al., 2011, p. 88) claim that developing the level of one's CC is an aim of foreign language teaching.

On the other hand, developing IC is not treated as an aim of foreign language education in the passage of the FEP EE discussing the expected outcomes of the educational area *Language and Language Communication*, subchapter *Foreign Language* in no way. The only hint suggesting that learners' IC should be developed is covered in the passage *Objectives of the Educational Area* (*Language and Language Communication*). It is suggested that education within the particular area tends to form and develop key competencies by guiding learners towards "mastering the basic rules of interpersonal communication in a given cultural environment and developing a positive attitude towards language within intercultural communication". (FEP EE, 2007, p. 18) The complete inventory of the objectives of the relevant educational area is depicted in APPENDIX 2. The relationship between developing learners' IC while attaining the A2 level of proficiency is nevertheless not further examined, neither directly interrelated.

Another encouragement of the development of IC by ELT might be identified within cross-curricular subjects, which represent thematic areas of current problems of the contemporary world. (FEP EE, 2007, p. 91)

> They [cross-curricular subjects] represent an important formative element of elementary education, create the opportunities for individual engagement of the pupil as well as mutual cooperation and contribute to the development of the pupil's character, primarily in the area of attitudes and values. (ibid.)

The educational area *Language and Language Communication* is explicitly related to *Moral, Character and Social Education*, *Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts*, *Media Education* as they are depicted in the FEP EE and especially to

Multicultural Education[9] (FEP EE, 2007, p. 98) which is supposed to allow elementary school learners to

> become acquainted with the diversity of various cultures, their traditions and values, on the basis of which he/she can become more aware of his/her own cultural identity, traditions and values. (ibid.)

Yet, intentions to develop learners' IC are not directly interrelated with developing learners' proficiency in foreign language using neither in this case.

The inclination to prioritise developing CC (manifested by language skills) over IC could in a way represent a reminder of traditional approaching foreign language teaching from the perspective of enabling learners to achieve a communicative aim which is implemented once language skills are acquired. (Hendrich et al., 1988, p. 89) However, already Hendrich et al. (1988, p. 91) pointed out that the 'communicative aim' is differentiated with respect to purposes and functional styles contrasting various spheres of social communication. It could be thus understood in the sense that it is not possible to separate the development of one's CC from the development of one's IC.

3.3. Aims in ELT in an operationalised model

Approaching a complex phenomenon of treating IC interrelated with CC manifested by language skills in dialectical unity in foreign language teaching makes operationalisation of the system complicated, yet not impossible. The possible way how to treat all the mentioned aspects within an operationalised model is their reflection in a *Schematic representation of the proposed framework of communicative competence integrating the four skills* (APPENDIX 3) designed by Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor.

The framework of CC is designed with reference to other influential models of CC, particularly to incorporated components, their relationship, the role of strategic competence, language skills and IC (Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 15). According to this framework, CC is suggested to consists of five components:

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[9] other cross-curricular subjects are not explicitly related to the educational area *Language and Language Education* in the FEP EE

- discourse competence (believed to be manifested by four language skills – speaking, writing, listening, reading) – the selection and sequencing of utterances targeted at achieving a cohesive and coherent text (spoken or written) given a particular purpose and situational context

- linguistic competence – all the elements covered in the linguistic system – i.e. phonology, grammar, vocabulary

- pragmatic competence – illocutionary (knowledge necessary to perform language functions and speech act sets) and sociolinguistic (participant and situational variables, politeness) types of knowledge

- intercultural competence – cultural (knowledge of target language community, dialects, cross-cultural awareness) and non-verbal (body language, proximity, touching, silence) communicative factors (ibid., p. 17)

- strategic competence – a way of overcoming limitations in language competence (Scarcella, Oxford in Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 18), learning strategies (Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 18)

With respect to the viewpoint that "it is in discourse and through discourse that all of the other competencies are realized" (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain in Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 16), the four latter competencies are believed to build discourse competence which, at the same time, shapes each of the other competencies.[10] (Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 15) Therefore, it is possible to assert that according to the introduced framework, CC is developed by developing IC which is apparent from the level of one's CC manifested by language skills. Because of the co-occurrence of interrelated components and their roles, mutual relationships between descriptors of CC formulated in a form of language skills (as they are determined in the CEFR and the FEP EE) and, as opposed to CC, the implicitly treated development of IC might be interpreted when being reflected in the introduced model.

4. WRITING AS A LANGUAGE SKILL

There are various reasons why writing is incorporated in foreign language syllabi:

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[10] That is why all the framework components are depicted within a unitary system representing CC (Kostková, 2012, p. 53)

a) there is often a need to communicate with other people via writing

b) writing helps learners learn. (Raimes, 1983, p. 3)

Reflecting such purposes, 'writing' may be understood in two different ways:

a) writing as a skill where the ability to write (communicate) effectively represents a key objective

b) writing as a means of learning/acquiring a foreign language where writing represents a backup for grammar (Harmer, 2007a, p. 31) and/or vocabulary reinforcing. (Raimes, 1983, p. 3)

In the case of this thesis, 'writing' refers to a productive skill demanding learners to produce language on their own (Harmer, 2007b, p. 265) while simultaneously dealing with syntax, content, writing process, audience, purpose, word choice, organisation, mechanics and grammar. (Raimes, 1983, p. 6) Writing in this sense stands for communicating with a reader, expressing ideas without the pressure of face-to-face communication, exploring a subject, recording experience and becoming familiar with the conventions of written discourse. (ibid., p. 4) Writing as such, as one of the four language skills, has always been a part of the syllabus in ELT. On the other hand, it is usual that writing is thanks to its versatility treated rather in terms of writing-for-learning than developed as a language skill. (Harmer, 2007a, p. 31) Marginal attention paid to the skill of writing in foreign language teaching is implied e.g. by listing writing predominantly at the end of the list of language skills (Choděra, 2006, p. 79), which could be caused by perceiving writing (if treating it as a skill) as "setting a writing task, leaving the students to do it (perhaps as homework) then collecting it in and marking it." (Scrivener, 2005, p. 193) Approached from this perspective, teaching writing may seem not to demand any teacher's care once a task is set and an assessment program developed because learners accomplish writing tasks individually. (ibid., p. 194) However, as writing outcomes (manifesting learners' writing skills) stay permanent, they make the level of one's (at least) CC apparent and easily detectable when being interpreted e.g. via the framework of Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor's. At least that is why writing should be recognised as an essential skill to be developed by ELT if there is a level of proficiency stated on which learners should be able to use language skills.

4.1. Aims in teaching writing in ELT

It was mentioned that the FEP EE and the CEFR, on which the former one is based, describe the A2 level to be attained by elementary school learners in terms of language skills. Yet, descriptors indicating the aimed proficiency in writing slightly differ in formulation as well as attention paid to attributing individual descriptors to writing. While the CEFR determines descriptors relevant to the skill of writing, the FEP EE does not clearly distinguish descriptors for writing from those relevant to speaking. Whether the role of the skill of writing is not in a way inappropriately generalised, misinterpreted or neglected in the FEP EE is thus a question open to discussion.

4.1.1. CEFR

Descriptors of the A2 reference level indicates that language learners manifesting that particular level of proficiency "can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate need" as well as a "very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something." (CEFR, 2002, p. 84) Aims in learning/acquiring and thus teaching writing are consequently elaborated for areas of written production and interaction, while each of them is provided with a number of illustrative scales indicating what learners should be able to do.

Aims in learning/acquiring and thus teaching written production are determined in detail via illustrative scales provided for overall written production, creative writing and reports and essays. Descriptors of each scale then suggest aims that the teacher of English should enable his or her learners to achieve.

Aims suggested within the illustrative scale 'overall written production' are formulated in the way that a learner

- can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'. (CEFR, 2002, p. 61)

Aims suggested within the illustrative scale 'creative writing' are, on the other hand, formulated in the way that a learner

- can write about everyday aspects of his/her environment, e.g. people, places, a job or study experience in linked sentences

- can write very short, basic description of events, past activities and personal experiences
- can write a series of simple phrases and sentences about their family, living conditions, education, background, present or most recent job
- can write short, simple imaginary biographies and simple poems about people. (ibid., p. 62)

Finally, for the illustrative scale 'reports and essays' there are no descriptors available for the A2 level. That is why aims within this area could be hardly formulated. (ibid.)

Concerning learning/acquiring and thus teaching written interaction, the aims are determined in illustrative scales provided for overall written interaction, correspondence and notes, messages & forms. Similarly to the case of written production, descriptors of the mentioned illustrative scales imply aims that learners should be enabled to achieve, which is teacher's turn.

Aims suggested within the illustrative scale 'overall written interaction' are formulated in the way that a learner

- can write short, simple formulaic notes relating to matters in areas of immediate need. (CEFR, 2002, p. 82)

On the contrary, aims suggested within the illustrative scale 'correspondence' are formulated in the way that a learner

- can write very simple personal letters expressing thanks and apology. (ibid.)

Those suggested within the last scale 'notes, messages & forms' are formulated in the way that a learner

- can take a short, simple message provided he/she can ask for repetition and reformulation
- can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate need. (ibid.)

4.1.2. FEP EE

Aims in learning/acquiring and thus teaching writing are in the FEP EE suggested by descriptors of the A2 reference level specified for productive and interactive language skills. However, while some descriptors are explicitly stated for the skill of writing, in other cases it may be difficult to decide if descriptors are related to writing or speaking.

Descriptors of productive language skills suggest that a language learner shall be able to

- create a simple (both oral and written) expression concerned with a situation related to family and school life and other thematic areas being studied
- create simple sentences and short texts and modify them in writing using correct grammar
- retell briefly the content of a text, utterance as well as conversation of suitable difficulty
- request simple information. (FEP EE, 2007, p. 24 – 25)

Descriptors of interactive language skills suggest that a language learner shall be able to

- make himself/herself understood in a simple manner in common everyday situations. (ibid., p. 25)

As descriptors of the skill of writing are in both documents treated in terms of production and interaction, it may be concluded that the approaches of the FEP EE do correlate with those of the CEFR.

4.2. Teaching writing as a language skill in ELT

The skill of writing is to be taught (Harmer, 2007a, p. 3) and training learners to write effectively hence demands the care and attention of language teachers. (ibid., p. 4) Teachers are supposed to (a) enable their learners to become better writers while encouraging and helping them follow through a set of preparatory steps before the final written text is ready to be produced; and (b) make the learners aware of ways how to approach the process of writing, so that it can be done independently in future. (Scrivener, 2005, p. 194) Hendrich et al. (1988, p. 241) in this respect assert that successful developing learners' writing skills is conditioned by organizing and implementing appropriate teacher-guided practical training in which learners could participate. In such a program a basic methodological model designed for teaching productive skills might be followed while supposing a teacher to lead-in (engage learners with the topic), set the task (explaining what learners are supposed to do), monitor accomplishing the task, give feedback to learners and set task-related follow up. (Harmer, 2007b, p. 275)

Byrne (1991, p. 27 – 29) goes even further and suggests general principles for teaching writing to be followed, correlating with the abovementioned model. The list of teachers' tasks is available in APPENDIX 4.

As it is suggested in point h) in APPENDIX 4, i.e. that different techniques and formats of writing suit different learners in different situations, it is not possible to describe every single technique of teaching writing since each is appropriate to a specific goal and needs. (Byrne, 1991, p. 26) Taking this into consideration together with the concern of this thesis, an exhausted inventory of techniques how to teach writing is not to be listed in the paper. Rather, crucial aspects of developing writing as a language skill covered in the Byrne's outline are highlighted.

4.2.1. Teacher's focus in teaching writing

Suitably to particular teacher's tasks listed above, a teacher performs the role of a motivator provoking learners' creativity, resource being available when needed, feedback provider, audience, editor and/or examiner (Harmer, 2007a, p. 109; Harmer, 2007b, p. 330 – 331) when developing learners' writing skills.

The degree of teacher's intervention or guidance is dependent on characteristics of a written task – whether its accomplishing is controlled, guided or free[11]. The following continuum contrasts five different kinds of writing tasks sequenced downwards according to the level of how much restriction, help and control is offered by the teacher when learners accomplish them

- copying – letter shape forming, copying examples from a textbook, etc.
- doing exercises – writing single words, phrases and sentences within exclusively focused tasks with limited opportunities for creativity or getting things wrong
- guided writing – writing longer texts in restricted/controlled tasks; samples, possibly useful langue items and advice offered
- process writing – writing on learners' own; constant help, encouragement and feedback provided by the teacher and peers
- unguided writing – free writing without over guidance, assistance or feedback, a topic may be set and final outcome marked later. (Scrivener, 2005, p. 193)

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[11] terminology adapted from Cunningsworth (1995, p. 80 81)

However copying and doing exercises refer to using writing as a medium of grammar and lexis reinforcing (ibid.), even such kinds of activities may contribute to the development of writing skills, yet not significantly (ibid.) or directly. (Hendrich et al., 1988, p. 241) Since writing concerns as fluency, as accuracy (Harmer, 2007a, p. 31), it could be concluded that basically every writing task may contribute to the development of writing skills. (Hendrich et al., 1988, p. 241) Hence, whereas in guided, process and unguided writing the main concern is to compose longer fluent texts expressing ideas without worrying about mistakes (Byrne, 1991, p. 22), copying spelling patters or sentences including punctuation supports learners' ability to write accurately (Scrivener, 2005, p. 193) which is not on its own enough to effective expressing ideas via writing (Hendrich et. al. 1988, p. 241) but may fundamentally influence the way in which the intended message is conveyed and interpreted by the reader. As Byrne (1991, p. 15) points out, graphological resources[12] are of relative importance in teaching and learning/acquiring writing but still convey patterns of meaning. The matter of orthography, punctuation and handwriting[13] should not be therefore completely excluded from teaching writing (Harmer, 2007a, p. 34), yet it should be as much contextualised as possible not to ignore the communicative and situational nature of writing (Hendrich et al., 1988, p. 241) because communicative skills, including writing, are to be developed if there is a communicative value of what is uttered and a social situation reflected. (Kostomarov and Mitrofan in Hendrich et al., 1988, p. 92)

4.2.2. Text-based development of writing skills

In accordance with such a standpoint, it is believed that text-based writing assignments benefit the development of learners' writing skills (Ferris, 2012, p. 229) because

> the text provides a setting within which they [learners] can practise, for example, sentence completion, sentence combination, paragraph construction, etc. in relation to longer stretches of discourse. In this way they can see not only why they are writing but also write in a manner appropriate to the communicative goal of the text. (Byrne, 1991, p. 25)

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[12] spelling, punctuation, other graphological devices (headings, footnotes, tables of contents, indexes) (Byrne, 1991, p. 15 – 16)

[13] handwriting is not discussed here because the thesis deals with learners who have already mastered handwriting and the script used in their mother tongue equals the one used in English speaking countries

A text thus represents a linguistic as well as contextual framework of one's writing. (ibid., p. 26) Before proceeding to producing own texts, analysing ready-made texts of a particular kind is encouraged, as it is illustrated e.g. on the example of teaching how to use rhetorical resources to create a coherent text. (discussed in detail in Byrne, 1991, p. 17 – 19) Such cases make learners familiar with functions and conventions of given devices or text formats. This in a way integrates development of one's writing skills with reading. What is to be considered when integrating writing with reading is, in addition to the linguistic one, the cultural information embedded in a text. If learners are provided with adequate background knowledge and/or language proficiency to cope with a text to be studied, their own writing may be benefited from such treating. (Ferris; Hedgcock and Ferris; Seymour and Walsh in Ferris, 2012, p. 229)

4.2.3. Communicative writing

Once the teacher is sure that his or her learners are ready to practise their own writing,

> there is no better way for students to grasp the essential value of writing as a form of communication that for them to produce the kind of practical writing that many people do in their everyday life. (Raimes, 1983, p. 83)

'Practical writing', as it is called by Raimes (ibid.), aimed at getting thinks done (Britton et al. in Raimes, 1983, p. 83), is hence characterised, similarly to real-life writing, as having a specific purpose and audience. (Raimes, 1983, p. 83) Keeping this in mind, the implication for teaching writing calls for setting such tasks that are either authentic (real purpose tasks believed to be accomplished by learners at some stage) or at least likely to be performed in out-off-class life. (Harmer, 2007a, p. 39 – 40) Though simple in form and limited in scope[14], such tasks make writing meaningful (demonstrate that it may be used for the purpose of communication) and thus motivating towards learning how to express oneself via this medium. (Byrne, 1991, p. 40) On the contrary, motivation is improbable to be provoked by invented purpose tasks being unlikely relevant to learners' possible needs. (Harmer, 2007a, p. 40)

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[14] it is necessary to adjust writing assignments to learners' level of proficiency and needs since they control syntax and lexicon to a certain limited extent and these factors may become major inhibitors in the writing development (Ferris, 2012, p. 230)

4.2.4. Approaches to teaching writing

Developing learners' writing skills in terms of producing own texts may concentrate on different aspects. "For many years the teaching of writing focuses on the written product rather than on the writing process." (Harmer, 2007a, p. 11) Though teaching writing concentrating on the intended product may benefit developing one's writing skills in certain circumstances (ibid.), e.g. in postcard writing being predictable as for its form (ibid., p. 8), it is nowadays encouraged to focus on the process of how a text is written too. (ibid., p. 11) As Hedge concludes, "it seems to be the sensible way forward for the teacher to use the best of both approaches in order to develop those aspects of writing most needed by students." (Hedge, 2000, p. 329)

When concentrating on the product, the exclusive concern is about what is written (Harmer, 2007a, p. 11), i.e. if the aim of a writing task is successfully achieved or not. (Harmer, 2007b, p. 325) As it was mentioned, writing outcomes stay apparent and therefore a great amount of readers' attention is turned to features of accuracy – that is why product-oriented teaching writing tends to eliminate mistakes in grammar, spelling, punctuation and layout conventions. (Harmer, 2007a, p. 11) Apart from that, product-oriented teaching writing in a way correlates with teaching writing concentrated on genre reproduction (Harmer, 2007b, p. 325) where 'genre' indicates norms of individual kinds of writing. The aim of this approach is enabling learners to imitate different kinds of writing which is preceded by exposing them to typical examples of texts enabling them to recognise topics, conventions and styles of the genre, the context in which it is to be produced and a presupposed audience of a text to be (re)produced. (ibid., p. 327)

Process-oriented approach to teaching writing, on the contrary, focuses attention on a range of stages that a piece of writing goes through. (Harmer, 2007b, p. 326) It is based on the fact that producing writing outcomes is not as instant as speaking and writers have "a chance to plan and modify what will finally appear as the finished product." (Harmer, 2007a, p. 8) Writing (creating a text) in this sense refers to re-writing, re-vision and seeing with new eyes. (White, Arndt in Harmer, 2007b, p. 326) Complexity of the process may be thus visualised via a vicious circle of 'a process wheel' depicted in APPENXDIX 5. The process wheel comprises stages of planning, drafting, editing

and final version producing among which learners recursively move backwards and forwards (Tribble in Harmer, 2007b, p. 326) in order to put together "a good piece of work." (Harmer, 2007b, p. 326) When planning, it is suggested to consider a purpose of writing, its audience and content structure. Once the first version (a draft) is produced (Harmer, 2007a, p. 4 – 5), it is opened to editing based on reflection or revision (writer's own/another readers' one) (ibid., p. 5) checking grammar, vocabulary, linkers, punctuation and layout, spelling, repetition of words/information and relating ideas to paragraphs, followed by noting down and evaluating new ideas and writing out another version of the original text. (Harmer, 2007b, p. 326) If this one does not represent a final version, it is to be re-planned, re-drafted and/or re-edited, etc. (Harmer, 2007a, p. 5 – 6)

4.2.5. Responding[15] to learners' writing and correcting it

Similarly to the approaches to teaching writing, commenting on learners' writing may either judge and evaluate the produced piece of writing or influence it. (Raimes, 1983, p. 139) Commenting on the product naturally tends to labelling a piece of writing as either right or wrong (ibid., p. 142) which, according to Harmer (2007a, p. 108 – 109), is associated with correcting. On the other hand, when commenting on a process of writing and providing learners with feedback, responding to their writing seems to be more beneficial since it does not concerns exclusively accuracy and attention is hence paid to writing-for-writing.

There are various ways how to respond to/correct learners writing exemplified in detail e.g. in Harmer (2007a, p. 110 – 122), Raimes (1983, 143 – 149), Scrivener (2005, p. 200 – 205), Byrne (1991, p. 124 – 127). Since this thesis is not aimed at analysing each individual strategy, instead of a detailed inventory, there are two exemplary streams of approaching to responding/correcting depicted to demonstrate their correlation with process and product oriented approaches to teaching writing discussed above.

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[15] since Harmer (2007a) unlike other authors distinguishes responding from correcting in relation to product versus process approaches to teaching writing, terminology used by him is adopted here to make the topic transparent

According to Raimes' point of view, it is common that the teacher comments on learners' writing at the end of the following sequence: selecting the topic, preparation for writing and pre-writing activities, writing, re-writing, editing, proofreading and teacher's marking of the paper (it corresponds to Scrivener's opinion quoted in chapter 4). In this case, the teacher comments on the final product only.[16] (Raimes, 1983, p. 139) Opposite to it, in process-oriented writing the teacher often intervenes (raises questions, makes suggestions and/or indicates where improvements might be made) to help learners edit and proceed to a new, better draft. (Harmer, 2007a, p. 109) Raimes' sequence reflected from such a point of view may be thus transformed into the one depicted in APPENDIX 6. However it might seem implied which way of providing learners with feedback on their writing is more beneficial, neither of them can be condemn to doom. What is important is to comment on learners' writing in a way appropriate to the intention beyond commenting itself.

4.3. Testing writing as a language skill

'Testing' in general represents formal assessment (Hughes, 2005, p. 5) consistently providing accurate measures of precisely the abilities[17] of one's interest (ibid., p. 8), in this case writing. As such, it provides a means for careful focusing on those particular abilities. (Bachman, 2001, p. 21) If a test is intended to be an effective measurement tool, the requirement for validity and reliability, covered in Hughes' words above, is to be met. (Hughes, 2005, p. 9) Validity and reliability thus stand for crucial qualities of test scores and interpretations and/or uses made of test scores. (Bachman, 2001, p. 26)

4.3.1. Validity

Hughes states that "a test is said to be valid if it measures accurately what it is intended to measure." (Hughes, 2005, p. 26) In terms of writing, it means that what is measured is exclusively the skill of writing. Considered from the other side of a coin, the uses and/or interpretations planned to be made of the test results (e.g. inferring learners' proficiency in formal letter writing) determine the type of performance to be elicited by testing (writing a formal letter) and its context. (Bachman, 2001, p. 236) Inasmuch as

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[16] possible threads of this way of teaching writing are mentioned in chapter 4.2.4.
[17] an 'ability' refers here to "what people can do in , or with, a language" (Hughes, 2005, p. 10)

'writing' may be interpreted in many different ways, further empirical evidence is demanded to ensure overall validity which is often labelled 'construct validity'. (Hughes, 2005, p. 26) 'Construct' refers to an underlying ability/trait hypothesised in a theory of language ability. (ibid., p. 31) Classifying evidence according to various types (Hughes, for instance, distinguishes face[18] validity from content[19] and criterion-related[20] validity which may be of two kinds – concurrent[21] and predictive[22]) represents a traditional phenomenon (Bachman, 2001, p. 237), yet,

> validity ... is a unitary concept. Although evidence may be accumulated in many ways, validity always refers to the degree to which that evidence supports the inferences that are made from the scores. (American Psychological Association in Bachman, 2001, p. 236 – 237)

In other words, what is validated is not the test itself, its content or obtained results, but the way in which data gathered via testing are interpreted and/or used. (Bachman, 2001, p. 238) Since testing is set in a specific educational and social context, it is implied that considering educational and social consequences of uses of tests is inevitable. Therefore, investigating validity of a given use of test scores requires examining (a) evidence supporting particular interpretation or use of test scores; and (b) ethical values providing "the basis or justification for that interpretation or use." (Messick in Bachman, 2001, p. 237) As such, validity refers to "the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of the specific inferences made from test scores." (American Psychological Association in Bachman, 2001, p. 243)

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[18] does not provide evidence for construct validity since it does not represent a scientific notion; yet, it is manifested if a test "looks as if it measures what it is supposed to measure" (Hughes, 2005, p. 33) – e.g. when testing postcard writing, an authentic format of a postcard is worth using

[19] manifested if content of the test constitutes a representative sample of language traits intended to be measured (Hughes, 2005, p. 26), i.e. "the greater test's content validity, the more likely it is to be an accurate measure of what it is supposed to measure" (ibid., p. 27)

[20] represents a degree to which results of the test correspond to results of another independent, highly dependable assessment of relevant skills, where the parallel assessment represents a criterion measure against which the investigated test is validated (Hughes, 2005, p. 27)

[21] manifested if scores of both tests reveal agreement (Hughes, 2005, p. 28)

[22] presupposes a degree to which the test predicts test taker's future performance (Hughes, 2005, p. 29)

4.3.2. Reliability

A test is considered to provide reliable scores if the scores obtained on a particular occasion are likely to be similar to scores which would have been obtained if the same test had been carried out by the same learners of the same ability at a different time. (Hughes, 2005, p. 36) In other words, measuring is reliable if it is consistent across different times, test forms and raters. (Bachman, 2001, p. 24) Reliability is in this sense associated with answering the question "How much of an individual's test performance is due to measurement error, or to factors other than the language ability we [teachers] want to measure?" (ibid., p. 160 – 161) All possible errors in measurement[23] and factors other than the abilities intended to be measured[24] affecting one's performance in a test and the final score are hence to be excluded from measuring to minimize the impact of these out-of-scope factors (ibid., p. 160) since "the less these factors affect test scores, the greater the relative effect of the language abilities we [teachers] want to measure, and hence, the reliability of language test scores." (ibid.)

4.3.3. Test formats

While valid tests are supposed to be reliable as they intend to provide consistent and accurate measurement of particular abilities (Hughes, 2005, p. 50), reliable tests, on the contrary, may not be perfectly valid (ibid.) since they may measure something else than what is intended. (Chráska, 1999, p. 18) It is generally suggested that discrete-item test formats[25] (depicted together with integrative test formats in APPENDIX 7) manifest at the same time high reliability but low validity, as opposed to integrative test formats[26] that are characterised by high validity and low reliability. For testing productive skills, as writing is, it is recommended to choose the latter type, i.e. validity of a test may be prioritised over its reliability. (Harris and McCann, 1994, p. 35) However, as it is pointed out in chapter 4.2.1., teaching writing sometimes deals with less productive

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[23] choice of test method facets, random (unpredictable, temporary) factors (mental alertness, emotional state, idiosyncratic differences of instructors) (Bachman, 2001, p. 164, 166)

[24] personal attributes of test takers (cognitive style, knowledge of particular content areas, sex, race, ethnic background) – traditionally discussed as a source of test invalidity (Bachman, 2001, p. 164, 166)

[25] test exclusively one language aspect (Hughes, 2005, p. 19) and thus do not demand learners to produce complex language on their own (Chráska, 1999, p. 25)

[26] demand combining various aspects of language if testing tasks are to be accomplished (Hughes, 2005, p. 19)

procedures, e.g. when making learners familiar with conventions of text types, and thus discrete-item format is not to be totally excluded. The choice of a suitable test format is a matter of a purpose of testing. As Hughes (2005, p. 50) points out, it is still about balancing gains in validity against loosing in reliability or vice versa.

4.3.4. Eliciting samples

The question whether to test writing as a language skill or not struggles with the similar background as the question if writing should be overtly taught in foreign language classes. Writing, referring to an extremely complex mental process, takes a great deal of time when being tested in class. Apart from that, it is usually not time-restricted (as testing tasks are) in real life. That is why teachers commonly prefer assessing writing tasks accomplished outside of class to allocating limited class time to testing writing. Yet, there are reasons why writing should be tested in a classroom because it enables to:

1) find out learners' abilities to express themselves via writing without help (Cushing Weigle, 2012, p. 219), i.e. the level of aim achieving, strengths and weaknesses may be inferred (Hughes, 2005, p. 8) in a case of each individual learner (Harris and McCann, 1994, p. 26) on the basis of which further teaching may be adjusted to learners' needs (Hughes, 2005, p. 8)

2) train learners in timed writing which they may face when taking high-stakes examinations

3) measure automatised language knowledge (perspective of second language acquisition) providing a true picture of learners' proficiency. (Cushing Weigle, 2012, p. 219)

To advocate the latter point, tests are constructed to elicit certain behaviour (writing) and thus certain characteristics of an individual (proficiency in using writing skills) may be inferred from the results (a piece of own writing). (Carrol in Bachman, 2001, p. 20) It means, when testing learners' writing skills, there is no better way but to get learners to write. It relates writing to direct testing (Hughes, 2005, p. 83) requiring test takers to perform precisely the skill that is to be measured. (ibid., p. 17) The particular test should manifest the following characteristics

  ▪ writing tasks within the test are properly representative of the range of tasks that learners are able to perform

- writing tasks within the test elicit valid samples of writing
- writing samples are scored validly and reliably[27]. (Hughes, 2005, p. 83)

To ensure that testing tasks are representative of all those that learners are able to perform, it is suggested to confront specifications of testing tasks with those of tasks that learners manage to accomplish. What is to be examined are (a) operations – whether expressing, directing, describing, eliciting, narrating, reporting, etc. is to be executed; (b) text types – whether a notice, recipe, formal letter, etc. is to be written; (c) addressees of the text; (d) topics to be discussed; (e) dialect; (f) length of the text, etc. If specifications of both inventories overlap, testing tasks can be considered to be representative. Nevertheless, the chosen testing task, though might be representative, may or may not suit learners' preferences. That is why, ideally, a test should require performing all the variants of writing that learners are able to carry out. Since it is probably not feasible, it is recommended to select a representative set of tasks while the more tasks is set, the more representative of test takers' abilities the set would be. (Hughes, 2005, p. 83 – 86)

To elicit valid samples of writing, individual testing tasks are required to test exclusively one's writing ability (not creativity, imagination, intelligence(s), general knowledge) and be independent on one another since "people's performance even on the same task is unlikely to be perfectly consistent." (Hughes, 2005, p. 89 – 90) Each testing task of the set should thus represent a 'fresh start' which by its effect enhances as validity, as reliability. In this respect, interfering aspects entering the testing procedure that may affect final written outcomes are to be eliminated. This is the case of e.g. cumulating tasks one after another so that accomplishing the latter one depends on the way in which the previous one is performed, or giving vague and ambiguous instructions to be read and followed. Such conditions may lead in obtaining various samples of writing. It is therefore recommended to restrict test takers in what they are expected to do – e.g. visualisations or brief points may replace longer instructional passages as they are clear and make thus test takers precisely aware of what is required of them. Simultaneously, they minimize the possibility that test takers would go far

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[27] will be discussed in the subchapter Scoring

astray. Another suggested recommendation is to define the scope of the expected performance by setting authentic tasks. They are unlikely to lead in producing significantly variable outputs. (ibid., p. 90 – 93)

All the above-mentioned procedures are supposed to contribute to ensuring valid and reliable scoring. To make the list complete, it is in addition encouraged to elicit long enough samples since only such samples enable to pass reliable judgements (e.g. testing an organisational ability calls for writing longer coherent and cohesive texts) and to choose suitable scoring scales. (Hughes, 2005, p. 94)

4.3.5. Scoring

When deciding about scales that would enable one to score validly and reliably, it is worth considering if holistic (impressionistic) or analytic one is to be used. The choice depends on purposes of testing, time allocated to scoring and scorers involved. (Hughes, 2005, p. 105) While holistic scoring is preferred when assessing a large number of tests in a short time, while analytic scoring is worth using when assessing is required to be highly informative. (Cushing Weigle, 2012, p. 221)

Holistic scoring is based on assigning a single score to a completed testing task while the score reflects the overall scorer's impression of the piece of writing. Being based on scorer's impression, it is said to be rapid and depended on testing purposes and test takers' abilities. A typical holistic scoring scale thus differentiates various qualitative levels of a possible sample to be scored, out of which ideally one, often more than one, characterise(s) qualities of the scored writing. Supposing test takers' reflected abilities fitting into more than one assessment category, it is suggested to incline towards the assessment that comprises characteristics more closely related to the purpose behind a scored task. (Hughes, 2005, p. 100)

As opposed to holistic, in analytic scoring a number of separate scores commenting on each individual aspect of the performance is assigned. Thought time-taking, this type of scoring tends to be more reliable, overcomes the uneven development of test takers' subskills and takes easily ignorable aspects of one's writing into consideration. On the

contrary, it is disputable whether it is possible to judge each assessed aspect independently of the others and whether the judged aspects are of the same weight. What could be also disputable is concentrating on individual aspects of writing rather than on the overall effect of the writing outcome. As a consequence, analytical scoring may be perfectly reliable, however not valid as the whole in similar cases usually means more than the sum of its parts. (Hughes, 2005, p. 100 – 103)

Whichever scoring is to be used, calibrating scales to particular kinds of writing tasks is encouraged as well as selecting responsible scorers and their training. If feasible, multiple scoring, i.e. engaging more scorers, is appreciated and tends to higher reliability. (Hughes, 2005, p. 105 – 107) However, it is probably hardly to be feasible at elementary schools. Thus at least intra-rater reliability, applying "the scales in the same way on different days or at different times of the day" (Harris and McCann, 1994, p. 55 – 56) is necessary in measuring.

4.4. Backwash

It is suggested that testing affects teaching and learning as well as the whole educational system and society. (Hughes, 2005, p. 53) This impact, known as 'the backwash effect', influences test takers' learning as well as chosen teaching methods. (Harris and McCann, 1994, p. 27) Depending on given circumstances, backwash may be either beneficial or harmful. (Hughes, 2005, p. 53)

In this sense, it is summarized by Harris and McCann that 'good' tests affect teaching and learning in a positive manner, whereas 'bad' ones provide negative backwash. 'Good' testing tasks are consequently related to those that are authentic (Harris and McCann, 1994, p. 27), i.e. refer to direct testing. Therefore, if learners are to learn to write compositions, it is as well to test them in writing compositions. Testing outcomes of such measurements may provide learners as well as teachers with feedback on how well the learners have managed writing compositions, hint towards what attention should be turned further on, etc. In other words, what should be tested is the ability that is to be encouraged while appropriate weight should be given to it in relation to other abilities. To receive backwash that would concern the full scope of a measured ability,

wide and unpredictable sampling across what is to be measured is encouraged if predictability of the test content and concentrating on practising a restricted range of tasks when teaching and learning is to be eliminated. In this respect, setting an elaborated set of objectives is advocated. (Hughes, 2005, p. 53 – 54)

> If test specifications make clear just what candidates have to be able to do, and with what degree of success, then students will have a clear picture of what they have to achieve. (ibid., p. 55)

Thus, beneficial backwash is provided if learners and teachers are aware of what exactly each individual test demands of them. In this sense, teacher's (scorer's) familiarty with tests to be administered and their intentions as well as clear instructing and criterion-referenced[28] measuring seem to be fundamental as enabling test takers and scorers to fully realise what is to be achieved if a candidate attempts to pass. Furthermore, it is said that criterion-referenced testing provides beneficial backwash because it comments on each individual test taker's performance and does not relate individual performances to one another, so that the requirements are same for all the test takers. (ibid., p. 55 – 56)

To sum up, beneficial backwash is manifested if testing provides a true picture of what has been actually achieved, i.e. if learning/acquiring and teaching is evaluated against pre-stated objectives. (Hughes, 2005, p. 55) It is similarly confirmed by Anderson, Krathwohl et al. who assert that "assessment should be aligned with objectives, not vice versa." (Anderson, Krathwohl et al., 2001, p. 252) The vision therefore presupposes that intentions (aims) precede evidence provided by assessments commenting on how well learners learned/acquired what they were intended to do. (ibid.) This again refers to direct testing what turns the idea of backwash into a cyclic model.

5. THE ALIGNMENT PRINCIPLE

Referring back to the previous paragraph, if pre-stated aims of foreign language teaching and learning/acquiring correspond to those of testing, they reveal alignment. Yet, they are not the only features that may and should be aligned when teaching. Alignment refers to "the degree of correspondence among the objectives, instruction,

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[28] measuring test takers' abilities in relation to criteria – if met, the test taker passes, if not, fails (Hughes, 2005, p. 21)

and assessment" (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001, p. 10) while the high level of alignment in a way guarantees coherence within the teaching-learning process. Supposing the focus of objectives, teaching-learning tasks and tests being fragmented, (a) test results would not prove if objectives were achieved, (b) even high-quality instruction would not affect learners' performance in a test (ibid.) and (c) objectives would not be reflected in instructions, so that teaching and learning/acquiring would thus follow different priorities. In such cases, there would be no point in discussing the importance of 'aims' in teaching and learning/acquiring.

Concerning aligning assessments with objectives, there are three benefits of the mutual correspondence. The first one, positive backwash, is discussed in detail above in the part dealing with backwash. The second one is that alignment enables learners to learn/acquire knowledge and cognitive processes they may encounter in various assessments. Finally, the third one, if learners consider objectives to be defined by an assessment and grades they receive on it, an assessment aligned with objectives provides grades commenting on to which level a relevant aim was achieved. 'Good' grades thus correlates with 'good' learning. (Anderson, Krathwohl et al., 2001, p. 252)

The importance of aligning instructional activities with assessments arose at the beginning of 1970s when the original assumption of content validity (manifested if an assessment is aligned with course objectives) became questioned. Some opinions of that time pointed out that validity of measuring depends on what is actually taught and learned/acquired, not on what is supposed to be taught and learned/acquired (aims). The emphasis was in that respect shifted from content validity to 'instructional validity' (Thorndike, Cunningham, Thorndike, Hagen in Anderson, Krathwohl et al., 2001, p. 253) which is enhanced if instructional tasks (intended to help learners learn/acquire) align with assessment ones (intended to determine whether and/or how learners have managed learning/acquiring) in terms substance (knowledge, cognitive process). On the other hand, aligning in terms of form (multiple-choice, performance assessment) increases the likelihood that learners, getting used to various task formats and testing conditions (timed tests), may use their familiarity with this range when taking external examinations. Thus, in general, aligning testing tasks with instructional activities

enhances estimating the effectiveness of the instructional activities. (Anderson, Krathwohl et al., 2001, p. 254)

It seems logical that "if the assessments are aligned with the objectives and the instructional activities are aligned with assessments, then the instructional activities will automatically be aligned with objectives." (Anderson, Krathwohl et al., 2001, p. 255) Yet, it may not always be the case. Sometimes, instructional activities may not be directly related to either objectives or assessments. That is why it is suggested to check aligning particular phenomena to be confronted one more time to identify tangentially related activities. It is not said that such activities should be omitted, it is rather suggested to realise their function in the particular context. (ibid.) Only with respect to this, tasks defying intentions should be contemplated as for their further existence.

Comparing (a) objectives with assessments, (b) objectives with instructions and (c) instructions with assessments, though depicting a degree of alignment, however represents only a surface-level analysis. (Anderson, Krathwohl et al., 2001, p. 10) As exemplified in the previous paragraph, some elements to be confronted may from time to time step aside and a deeper examination of their alignment is thus desirable not to overlook them. As an instrument enabling such a detailed analysis that "goes beyond the surface features of activities and objectives to their common underlying meaning in terms of student learning" (ibid., p. 256), Bloom's revised taxonomy for learning, teaching and assessing can be used to facilitate comparisons across all three types of alignment. The construction of cells within the taxonomy enables precise classifying tasks and objectives and makes the level of alignment immediately apparent. If objectives, instructional activities and assessments appear together in one cell, strong alignment among them is manifested. The more spread individual notations are, the weaker alignment is. (ibid., p. 10) In this respect, Bloom's revised taxonomy table may function not only as a tool of reflection but also as a framework that enables aligning aims of the projected, those of teaching and learning/acquiring and testing already in the phase of lesson/unit/course planning.

6. RESEARCH

Reflecting abovementioned theoretical clash points from the perspective of practice, researching reported in the following part of the thesis is shaped by the idea of aligning objectives determined by the projected curriculum, instructional activities and testing tasks, guaranteeing coherence within the teaching-learning process. What is in this sense fundamental for carrying out research is a presumption that aims in teaching writing stated in recently implemented curricular policy are reflected in teaching-learning tasks and tests being accomplished in class. The way in which Czech educational system follows this vision is therefore the main concern of the investigation.

6.1. Aim of research

Research conducted while completing the thesis is supposed to examine aims targeting the cognitive domain in teaching and testing writing as a language skill at elementary school as they are stated in curricular documents, actually implemented via teaching-learning tasks and tested. Particularly, it is intended to

- identify cells of Bloom's revised taxonomy that are targeted when projecting teaching and thus learning/acquiring writing, when teaching and testing writing
- examine alignment among the relevant aims of the projected curriculum and those of teaching-learning and testing tasks
- clarify causes why particular aims are stated that particular way.

Before research itself was carried out, a hypothesis standing behind it had been stated as follows – there is a tendency to state aims of testing writing corresponding to aims of what is taught in terms of writing, while these aims are in accordance with those formulated in the SEP being designed as reflecting aims in teaching (and thus learning/acquiring) writing suggested in the CEFR. Since it is recommended to divide complex hypotheses into a set of mutually coherent, less complex hypotheses (Gavora, 2000, p. 55) to enable their consequent testing (ibid., p. 54), the introduced hypothesis may be disassembled into the following sub-hypotheses formulated in the sense that there is a tendency to

- state aims of testing writing corresponding to those of teaching writing

- ▪ state aims of teaching writing corresponding to those of teaching writing formulated in the SEP

- ▪ state aims of teaching writing formulated in the SEP corresponding to those suggested in the CEFR.

6.2. Research design

Having the aim of research specified as well as the hypothesis to be tested, a plan of research itself was projected as for methodology to be used, as for steps to be followed. With reference to the character and complexity of the hypothesis to be tested, a case study was chosen as a research method since it represents

> an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (Yin in Nuan, 1992, p. 76)

which enables one to "investigate an issue in depth and provide an explanation that can cope with the complexity and subtlety of real life situations." (Denscombe, 2007, p. 38)

While relevant research was to be carried out in a social setting, which presumed that relationships within the system would require mutual interrelating when being examined, a case study appeared to suit the investigation because it can deal with a case in its entirety and as such tends to be holistic rather than dealing with isolated phenomena. (Denscombe, 2007, p. 36) This is fundamental for this research. As it is suggested, "the value of a case study is that it offers the opportunity to explain why certain outcomes might happen – more than just find out what those outcomes are." (ibid.) A case study was here believed to facilitate (a) more precise understanding and insight into the topic; and (b) triangulation of data because it, being a methodological "hybrid" (Nuan, 1992, p. 74), "allows the researcher to use a variety of sources, a variety of types of data and a variety of research methods as part of the investigation." (Denscombe, 2007, p. 37)

With respect to what is encouraged in Denscombe (2007, p. 3), there were specified attributes of a case to be selected to represent a naturally occurring phenomenon (Yin in Denscombe, 2007, p. 37) to be investigated. The attributes were specified as follows

- an elementary school not especially focused on foreign language education
- a class of a grade in which the level of proficiency to be attained is A1[29]
- a teacher of the class who was involved in the process of designing the SEP.

The case was supposed to be examined as for aims in teaching and testing writing in ELT via

1) a content analysis of the SEP and the CEFR
2) analysing teaching-learning and testing tasks and their aims
3) aligning aims of the projected curriculum with those of teaching-learning and testing tasks in Bloom's revised taxonomy
4) a content analysis of an interview with the teacher.

Following the listed phases, the procedure of research conducting could be visualised as depicted in Diagram 1.

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continuous data collection

content analysis of curricular documents
data collection → data analysis → data interpretation
↓
analysing teaching-learning and testing tasks and their aims
data collection → data analysis → data interpretation
↓
aligning aims of the projected curriculum with those of teaching-learning and testing tasks
data collection → data analysis → data interpretation
↓
content analysis of an interview with the teacher
data collection → data analysis → data interpretation

↓

final data analysis and interpretation

Diagram 1. *Phases of research conducting*

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[29] descriptors of the A2 reference level are in the FEP EE elaborated with reference to the CEFR (as examined in the theoretical part), that is why aims formulated in SEPs would probably correspond to those suggested in the CEFR; on the other hand, the FEP EE does not, unlike the CEFR, specifies descriptors of the A1 level and it is thus worth examining if their interpretation in SEPs correlates with descriptors of the CEFR

6.3. The case

On the basis specifying attributes listed in chapter 6.2., a class of seventh graders of elementary school situated in a town of a medium size was chosen as a case to be investigated. The teacher of the class was directly engaged in designing the SEP so the case manifested all the attributes of the choice. The investigation started in October 2012 and was finished in the middle of February 2013.

6.4. Research conducting

As it was mentioned, the procedure of data collection was divided into four phases within which relevant data were analysed and interpreted. Once all necessary data were collected, analysed and interpreted, they were mutually related, analysed and interpreted in the context of the entire case.

6.4.1. Phase 1 – content analysis of curricular documents

The initial phase of research itself referred to a content analysis of the SEP and the CEFR examining aims of learning/acquiring and thus teaching writing as a language skill in the seventh grade. While the SEP was to be examined as representing a binding curriculum, the CEFR was chosen to be confronted with the former mentioned document since there are determined descriptors of the A1 reference level in the CEFR, which are reflected in the expected outcomes stated for the seventh grade in the SEP, as it is pointed out there. As a content analysis enables disclosing hidden aspects of what is actually communicated via particular texts (Gerbner et al.; Krippendorf in Denscombe, 2007, p. 237), the analysis was aimed at clarifying relationships between aims in teaching writing as they are stated in the binding curriculum and characterised in the CEFR which depicts individual reference levels in detail. To introduce the analysis, it was intended to

- identify expected outcomes relevant to the skill of writing of the A1 reference level, specified in the SEP for the seventh grade
- compare the level of agreement between particular expected outcomes and descriptors of the A1 reference level depicted in the CEFR.

6.4.1.1. Data collection

Data collecting within the first research phase lasted two weeks and was aimed at extracting (a) those expected outcomes determined in the SEP for the seventh grade which were relevant to the skill of writing and (b) descriptors of the A1 reference level depicted in the CEFR. The data within both categories were intended to be compared with each other in order to prove whether the expected outcomes genuinely reflect the A1 level.

It was found out that the examined SEP did not differentiate expected outcomes as for individual language skills. The classification used in the FEP EE was there neither adopted. The expected outcomes were classified in terms of those of grammar and those related to thematic areas and realia, which related the expected outcomes rather to grammar and lexis than to language skills. Yet there were several expected outcomes that might be associated with the skill of writing ('formulates an offer – invitation, responds to it, writes – creates a simple invitation letter'; 'writes a simple formal letter'). It was therefore inevitable to consult the inventory with the teacher who, as a designer of the investigated part of the SEP, indicated which expected outcomes are relevant to the skill of writing (complete teacher's comments are recorded in APPENDIX 8). The teacher commented even on the expected outcomes that might tend to be related to grammar or vocabulary in terms of writing skills to be developed. Nevertheless, it was also admitted that different evaluators could perceive the relevant expected outcomes in a different way since they are constructed as a framework. As a result, there were identified twelve expected outcomes concerning writing. They determined that a learner by the end of the seventh grade

1) describes a past event, formulates questions and answers
2) communicates what s/he must/does not need, suggests a collective activity
3) asks how to get from X to Y and answers
4) gives and elicits information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?)
5) formulates an offer – invitation, responds to it, writes – creates a simple invitation letter

6) manages very short social exchanges, formulates simple polite phrases and responds to them, writes a simple formal letter, expresses what s/he likes/does not like

7) communicates a short message about what s/he does in her/his free time, formulates questions and answers

8) gives information about travelling and means of transport

9) asks about various matters, manages simple operations in the shop, in the post office, asks about quantity, price and amount

10) orders a meal, asks about price, expresses dis/satisfaction

11) simply characterises current and past weather, conveys a forecast

12) shortly speaks about her/his favourite sport, formulates questions and answers.

Descriptors of the A1 reference level were extracted from the part of the CEFR distinguishing an area of (a) written production from the one of (b) written interaction and their associated illustrative scales similar to those introduced in the theoretical part in terms of A2. The area of written production provides descriptors according to which a learner

- can write simple isolated phrases and sentences ('overall written production' scale)

- can write simple phrases and sentences about themselves and imaginary people, where they live and what they do ('creative writing' scale). (CEFR, 2002, p. 61 – 62)

According to descriptors of the second area, written interaction, a learner

- can ask for or pass on personal details in written form ('overall written interaction' scale)

- can write a short simple postcard ('correspondence' scale')

- can write numbers and dates, own name, nationality, address, age, date of birth or arrival in the country, etc. such as on a hotel registration form ('notes, messages & forms' scale). (ibid., p. 83 – 84)

6.4.1.2. Data analysis and interpretation

Since the two groups of gathered data were intended to be related to one another in order to prove if the expected outcomes determined in terms of the A1 level reflect descriptors of the particular reference level as they are depicted in the CEFR, they were recorded into a category framework (Table 1.) in which the CEFR descriptors represented a fabric to which individual expected outcomes were related according to the relevant correspondence. To make more complex expected outcomes easily approachable, they were in several cases divided into smaller pieces.

The process of disassembling (executed on the basis of the fabric) concerned seven expected outcomes listed in the inventory in chapter 6.4.1.1., particularly, items labelled as 1), 2), 4), 6), 7), 11) and 12) Within the expected outcome 2) 'communicates what s/he must/does not need, suggests a collective activity', two sub-outcomes were recognised – (a) 'communicates what s/he must/does not need'; and (b) 'suggests a collective activity'. Separating the former part from the latter one was based on the fact that the (a) part refers to a one-way descriptive utterance, while the (b) part implies interacting with other people. As for the expected outcome 6) 'manages very short social exchanges, formulates simple polite phrases and responds to them, writes a simple formal letter, expresses what s/he likes/does not like', it was divided into three sub-outcomes – (a) 'manages very short social exchanges, formulates simple polite phrases and responds to them'; (b) 'writes a simple formal letter'; and (c) 'expresses what s/he likes/does not like'. It was so because the (a) part suggests interacting with other people, while the (b) part refers to corresponding with them and, finally, the (c) part regards one-way uttering. The expected outcome 11) 'simply characterises current and past weather, conveys a forecast' was divided in the (a) part 'simply characterises current and past weather' which correlates with simple language production, and the (b) part 'conveys a forecast' correlating rather with creative producing. Without analysing the expected outcomes 2), 6) and 11) in such a way, it would not be possible to associate them with particular CEFR descriptors.

The expected outcome 4) 'gives and elicits information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?)' was segmented into two parts since eliciting information

seems to be in a way more related to the context of interaction, whereas giving information refers simply to indicating demanded information. As a result, there were two sub-outcomes identified within the outcome – (a) 'gives information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?)'; and (b) 'elicits information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?)'.

The expected outcomes 1), 7), and 12) are in a way of a similar kind as they all state that a learner is able to formulate questions and answer them, i.e. that he or she is able to interact. Since the other part of each mentioned expected outcome does not refer to interacting, two separate sub-outcomes were identified within each of them. The expected outcome 1) 'describes a past event, formulates questions and answers' was formulated in the sense that a learner (a) 'describes a past event'; and (b) 'formulates questions and answers concerning a description of a past event'. Similarly, the outcome 7) 'communicates a short message about what s/he does in her/his free time, formulates questions and answers' was analysed into (a) 'communicates a short message about what s/he does in her/his free time'; and (b) 'formulates questions and answers regarding what s/he/one does in her/his free time'. Finally, the expected outcome 12) 'shortly speaks about her/his favourite sport, formulates questions and answers' was transformed into (a) 'shortly speaks about her/his favourite sport'; and (b) 'formulates questions and answers regarding her/his/ones favourite sport'. As a result of disassembling, there were 20 expected outcomes associated to the CEFR descriptors of A1 as it is visualised in the category framework depicted bellow.

CEFR	SEP
WRITTEN PRODUCTION (WRITING)	
Overall written production	
Can write simple isolated phrases and sentences	Describes a past event
	Simply characterises current and past weather
	Gives information about travelling and means of transport

Creative writing	
Can write simple phrases and sentences about themselves and imaginary people, where they live and what they do	Communicates what s/he must/does not need
	Communicates a short message about what s/he does in her/his free time
	Expresses what s/he likes/does not like
	Conveys a forecast
	Shortly speaks about her/his favourite sport
WRITTEN INTERACTION	
Overall written interaction	
Can ask for or pass on personal details in written form	Manages very short social exchanges, formulates simple polite phrases and responds to them
	Asks about various matters, manages simple operations in a shop, at the post office, asks about quantity, price and amount
	Asks how to get from X to Y and answers
	Orders a meal, asks about price, expresses dis/satisfaction
	Suggests a collective activity
	Elicits information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?)
	Formulates questions and answers concerning a description of a past event
	Formulates questions and answers regarding what s/he/one does in her/his free time
	Formulates questions and answers regarding her/his/ones favourite sport
Correspondence	
Can write a short simple postcard	Formulates an offer – invitation, responds to it, writes – creates a simple invitation letter
	Writes a simple formal letter
Notes, messages & forms	
Can write numbers and dates, own name, nationality, address, age, date of birth or arrival in the country, etc. such as on a hotel registration form	Gives information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?)

Table 1. *A category framework for relating expected outcomes to the A1 reference level*

As it is apparent from Table 1., all the examined expected outcomes may be associated with the descriptors of the A1 reference level depicted in the CEFR while each descriptor is reflected in the range of expected outcomes. Hence, it can be concluded that the expected outcomes genuinely reflect the A1 reference level as it is depicted in the CEFR. Out of 20

- 8 expected outcomes refer to the descriptors of the area of written production while 3 of them refer to the illustrative scale 'overall written production' and 5 to the scale 'creative writing'

- 12 expected outcomes refer to the descriptors of the area of written interaction while 9 of them refer to the illustrative scale 'overall written interaction', 2 to the scale 'correspondence' and 1 to the one of 'notes, messages & forms'.

It is thus evident that the SEP tends to determine expected outcomes in both areas almost equally, while the area of written interaction is slightly emphasised, especially in terms of overall written interaction. Yet, it seems important to point out that mentioned numbers are not absolute since the expected outcomes might be hardly associated with exclusively one descriptor. Although this struggling was partly prevented by disassembling complex expected outcomes formulated in the SEP into more specific pieces, the final decision to which descriptor a particular expected outcome should be related is still dependent on one's viewpoint.

6.4.2. Phase 2 – analysing teaching-learning and testing tasks and their aims

The second phase of research concentrated on analysing authentic instructional activities and testing tasks aimed at developing the skill of writing in the seventh grade and their aims. To let the investigated case manifest itself, apart from the task format and actual aims of the tasks, also teacher's perceptions of relevant aims and roles of the tasks in the teaching-learning process were of interest. The main concern of this phase was therefore to find out

- what aims were stated in teaching and testing writing

- whether the teacher recognised aims of the tasks as they really were.

6.4.2.1. Data collection

Data (aims of teaching-learning and testing tasks) collected within this research phase were gathered during a period lasted from the end of October till the middle of February, i.e. the period comprised circa 42 lessons. The data were covered in authentic instructional activities and tests that the teacher entitled to concern the skill of writing. Simultaneously, the teacher was asked to comment on aims of individual tasks and the importance of the tasks (whether they were pre-tasks, main tasks, etc.) to manifest intentions standing behind setting the tasks. By the end of the period, 18 authentic tasks were collected, out of which 11 represented instructional activities and the rest of them, i.e. 7, were tests. The authentic materials are available in APPENDIXes 9 – 26.

6.4.2.2. Data analysis and interpretation

Data gathered within this phase were analysed in sequence to reflect the chronology of collecting and thus the context in which the tasks were set. It was thus possible to find out if the testing tasks measured what had been actually taught and learned/acquired in class. To identify actual aims of the examined tasks, each task was analysed in terms of its format and operations to be carried out. At the same time, the tasks were investigated as for their roles in the teaching-learning process (pre-task, main task, etc.) and aims as perceived by the teacher. Such a two-trait investigation finally provided two sets of data (actual aims and aims as perceived by the teacher) to be compared with each other in order to prove whether the teacher set particular tasks to enable learners to achieve their actual aims or whether the tasks were set with different intentions. The analysis itself is here divided into two parts – the first one introduces examined tasks, their format and role in teaching and learning/acquiring or testing writing (which facilitated identifying actual aims of the tasks) and the second one in which the actual aims are confronted with those formulated by the teacher (Table 2.).

The first analysed task (APPENDIX 9), an instructional activity, demanded learners to compose accurate sentences out of given words while using appropriate quantifiers (much, many). Since the words to be included in sentences were given and the choice of quantifiers was determined by a grammatical rule, the activity focused primarily on accuracy in grammar, which was confirmed by the teacher. Thus the task referred to a

controlled one. Concerning Chráska's typology of tasks (APPENDIX 7), it could be classified as an open-ended task eliciting short productive answer.

The second task (APPENDIX 10), a testing one, was a matching activity of a closed-item format, i.e. the task was controlled. The task was aimed at associating phrases to be used when ordering/offering something to drink/eat with each other, which the teacher confirmed. To advocate the role of writing in this task, it should be pointed out that matching was not to be executed e.g. by drawing lines, as it is usual. On the contrary, learners were supposed to rewrite the phrases to be associated with the other ones to particular locations within a conversation. In terms of writing, the task thus dealt with text structuring and copying which proved that it was controlled.

In the third task (APPENDIX 11), an instructional activity, learners were supposed to express their viewpoints concerning eating in the Czech Republic. The teacher especially highlighted the importance of 'expressing one's own opinion' of the topic that was previously discussed in class. Though the topic was given, the task might be related to a free writing activity of an open-ended format demanding a non-structured extensive answer.

Similarly, the fourth task (APPENDIX 12), a testing one, referred to free writing of an open-ended format eliciting a non-structured extensive answer too. Learners were in that case required to contrast eating in ordinary restaurants with eating in fast foods. The teacher emphasised the importance of learners' ability to discuss the topic in a coherent and cohesive text.

Within the fifth activity (APPENDIX 13), a teaching/learning one, it was demanded to write a story copying a set of pictures visualising what happened. As visual support was available, the task was easily controlled. Concerning the format, it might be viewed as an open-ended task eliciting a brief productive writing. The teacher pointed out that the writing tasks concluded previous dealing with the topic treated via listening, reading and speaking.

The sixth task (APPENDIX 14), an instructional activity, referred to a pre-task, as the teacher stated. Learners were supposed to recall vocabulary (clothes, weather, typical features, etc.) regarding their favourite season of the year, which would be used further on. As such, the task was relatively controlled inasmuch the lexical fields (sources of vocabulary) were given. Concerning Chráska's classification of tasks, it could be related to an open-ended format demanding a brief productive answer.

In the seventh task (APPENDIX 15), another instructional activity, still referring to a pre-task (teacher's viewpoint), learners were supposed to classify previously recalled vocabulary into categories of weather, activities, nature and clothes. To advocate the role of writing in this case, it should be pointed out that it was demanded to rewrite vocabulary into particular sections of the mind map, so the task was in a way open-ended, eliciting a short language production. Yet, as writing represented in that case only copying what had been previously written down, the task might be rather associated with a closed-item format. As the teacher reported, learners at first classified vocabulary in their exercise books and consequently a mind map visualising all the seasons was depicted on the blackboard, while no more than three learners were allowed to write on the blackboard at the same time. Hence, vocabulary was cumulated and mistakes in spelling could be corrected. In that respect, as the teacher confirmed, the task was accuracy-based and represented a preparation for the main writing task.

The eight task, (APPENDIX 16), a teaching-learning one, referred to guided writing as the learners were required to describe their favourite season while following a set of patterns (write 10 sentences about (a) what e.g. a typical summer is like, (b) what people typically wear and do in summer, (c) reasons why you like the season). As such, the task was of an open-ended format and demanded extensive writing determined by a set of patterns to be discussed. According to teacher's comments, the task (main task) was intended to elicit a coherent and cohesive text on the topic.

The ninth task, (APPENDIX 17), again an instructional one, still dealt with the thematic area of weather and clothes and, as the teacher pointed out, concluded dealing with the topic. The task was aimed at giving advice what to put on when reflecting on the current

weather. Thus, it represented a post-task of a realistic nature. Since needed lexical fields were suggested as well as observable weather conditions, the task might be categorised as controlled. However, learners were supposed to create a forecast and give advice on their own, therefore the task could be rather viewed as free writing. The teacher inclined to the latter mentioned type. As for the kind of format, it could be definitely related to an open-ended one with an extensive non-structured answer.

In the tenth task, (APPENDIX 18), a test, learners were demanded to label described (pictures and context, definitions) pieces of clothes. The task was strictly controlled by (a) the description and (b) number of letters to be used. The task format was hence open-ended, eliciting a short productive answer. As the teacher stated, the task was supposed to check accurate spelling of previously practised vocabulary and its range.

The eleventh activity, (APPENDIX 19), a teaching-learning one, concentrated on vocabulary practising, particularly on labelling visualised weather conditions. In addition, the teacher pointed out that learners were intended to guess or elicit particular expressions, i.e. they were allowed to cooperate with each other, consult dictionaries or textbooks, etc. The task was divided into two parts – the first of them required labelling visualisations in sentences, whereas in the second one, pictures were to be labelled out of the context of a sentence. Nevertheless, both the parts referred to controlled writing of an open-ended format eliciting a brief productive answer.

The twelfth task, (APPENDIX 20), another teaching-learning one, represented, according to teacher's viewpoint, an introduction into practising Present Continuous. Sentences to be created were supposed to be composed out of given words while the main concern was to use an appropriate tense (Present Simple or Continuous). Being grammar-based, writing was controlled and might be related to an open-ended format in which a short productive answer is demanded.

The thirteenth task, (APPENDIX 21), a teaching-learning one, was very similar to the twelfth one. They differed only in the respect that the thirteenth one was focused on accurate using of exclusively one tense, Present Continuous, as the teacher reported. It

was therefore in a way less demanding than the previous one because learners were not required to decide which tense and thus sentence structure would be used. On the other hand, the task was extremely demanding in terms of accuracy of a sentence structure of affirmatives and interrogatives in Present Continuous. To sum up, the task could be strictly controlled and represented open-ended format eliciting short answers to be produced.

The fourteenth task, (APPENDIX 22), a test, demanded learners to choose one of three suggested expressions related to Present Simple and Continuous used in sentences that would suit the context of the given sentences. It represented a multiple-choice activity of a closed-item format, which apparently referred to a controlled task. Teacher's comments on the task related it to a contextualised summary of tenses used in sentences.

Within the fifteenth task, (APPENDIX 23), a testing one, visualised expressions were to be appropriately labelled to fit into two given text. In that case the teacher highlighted the importance of eliciting such expressions that would be, as for their form, suitable for the context. In terms of grammar, attention was turned to accurate using of verb forms. As such, the task was easily controlled and its open-ended format elicited brief language production.

In the sixteenth task, (APPENDIX 24), again a testing one, learners were supposed to decide which of two given verb forms (Present Simple and Continuous) would make sense in a given text. Since the possibilities of one's choice were given as well as the text itself, the task referred to a controlled, dichotomic closed-item format. It was confirmed also by the teacher who asserted that the task demanded learners to recognise a tense to be suitably used in a given context of writing.

The seventeenth activity, (APPENDIX 25), an instructional one, demanded learners to briefly introduce themselves in a written form in three or four sentences. The teacher pointed out that the task was accomplished as homework. Since it was not specified what exactly to write about, the task could be classified as free writing. As for typology, it referred to an open-ended format eliciting an extensive non-structured answer.

Finally, in the eighteenth tasks, (APPENDIX 26), a testing one, learners were supposed to fill in phrases that would elicit given answers, i.e. the task could be classified as controlled writing of an open-ended format demanding a brief productive answer. According to teacher's viewpoint, the test checked learner's ability to use phrases relevant to the previously practised thematic field.

To sum up, there were identified four tasks of a controlled closed-item format (the 2nd, 7th, 14th and 16th one). Except for the 7th one, they were all testing tasks. The other tasks were characterised by an open-ended format. Five of them demanded extensive writing to be accomplished (the 3rd, 4th, 8th, 9th and 17th one). The 4th one was a test, the others referred to instructional activities. Apart from the 8th one, which represented a guided task, they all might be classified as free writing. The rest of the tasks (the 1st, 5th, 6th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 15th and 18th one), being also open-ended, might be related to writing demanding brief and controlled production. Out of these nine tasks, six (the 1st, 5th, 6th, 11th, 12th and 13th one) represented instructional activities and three (the 10th, 15th and 18th one) manifested tests.

It is apparent that writing within the investigated period was closely related to (1) practising Present Simple and Continuous and (2) thematic fields of (a) eating and (b) weather and clothes, although there seemed to appear other topics from time to time (e.g. Robin Hood). By the end of the investigated period, it might seem that a topic demanding writing about oneself was encountered, yet, as data collecting have not continued, this stays unconfirmed. What learners were supposed to express in elaborated productive tasks were their opinions and priorities. Additional teacher's comments on particular tasks consequently facilitated recognising in which tasks writing was used as a vehicle of practising mentioned vocabulary and grammar and those in which writing was of the prime concern as a language skill. The teacher labelled five tasks as primarily concentrating on teaching and learning/acquiring and testing writing as a language skills – they were the 3rd, 4th, 8th, 9th, 17th one. The 4th represented a testing task, the rest of them were instructional activities. The other tasks were, according to teacher's viewpoint, intended to practise accuracy in writing.

The tasks analysis in terms of a task format and operations to be carried out as well as teacher's comments on the tasks finally (a) facilitated identifying actual aims of tasks and (b) made the case approachable for the final analysis reported in chapter 6.5. The following table represents an inventory of aims of the analysed tasks. The ordinal numbers in the first column stand for the particular tasks as they were chronologically gathered and analysed, the second column quotes the way in which the teacher interpreted the aims and the last one formulates the aims as they really were.

No.	Language of practice	Actual aims
1st	They use much/many correctly with un/countable nouns in sentences that learners should write	To create accurate sentences using quantifiers when talking/asking about real objects
2nd	They match phrases to suit given answers	To associate appropriate social phrases with responses to them in context
3rd	They express an opinion of eating in the Czech Republic	To express one's own opinion concerning eating in the Czech Republic and own preferences
4th	They contrast a restaurant and fast food	To contrast eating in a restaurant and fast food
5th	They describe what is in pictures	To tell a story according to its visualised plot
6th	They recall vocabulary regarding seasons of the year	To brainstorm vocabulary concerning seasons
7th	They classify vocabulary into categories of seasons, weather, typical activities, nature and clothes	To categorise vocabulary concerning (a) seasons, (b) weather, (c) clothes and (d) activities into lexical fields
8th	They describe a favourite season of the year	To describe one's favourite season and justify the choice
9th	They create a daily forecast and instruct a friend what to put on	On the basis of an advisor's weather forecast, to advice somebody what to put on
10th	They recall vocabulary according to definitions and spell it correctly	To label described pieces of clothes
11th	They label what is visualised	To label visualised weather conditions
12th	They create sentences in Present Simple and Continuous correctly	To create accurate sentences in Present Simple and Continuous of given pieces
13th	They create sentences in Present Continuous correctly	To use Present Continuous accurately in sentences
14th	They choose suitable expressions fitting into the sentences according to the meaning	To use Present Simple and Continuous accurately in given sentences
15th	They use vocabulary, infinitives and	To label visualised actions and objects

	ing-forms in a given text	appropriately to the context to make a text intelligible
16th	They recognise a tense suitable for the given text	To recognise if Present Simple or Continuous is to be used in a text
17th	They write 3 – 4 sentences about oneself	To briefly introduce oneself
18th	They create phrases that match given answers	To ask appropriate phrases to elicit given answers

Table 2. *Aims formulated by the teacher and actual aims*

As it is apparent from Table 2., teacher's perception of aims of the investigated tasks corresponds to their actual aims. The categories in fact differ only in wording (actual aims are richer in wording) but the content and essence are basically the same. Verbs used by the teacher when formulating particular aims may be easily divided into two groups – those eliciting complex writing (e.g. to express, to write, to describe) and those eliciting brief production (e.g. to use, to recall) or even a non-productive response (e.g. to match, to classify). Verbs contained in actual formulations of the aims (being formulated on the basis of the task format analysis and operations to be carried out) might then represent a checklist for monitoring whether the teacher inferred appropriate verbs when formulating the aims with reference to characteristics of the investigated tasks. What should be emphasised here is the need to take individual verbs into consideration within the context of the whole utterance. Being isolated, they could be misled. Relating notions to be examined to one another, Table 2. clearly demonstrates that there was a high level of agreement among verbs determining the aims as perceived by the teacher and as they really are. There may be identified literal agreement in the case of the 3rd, 4th, 8th, 11th, 12th and 16th formulation, synonymous agreement in the case of the 2nd, 6th and 7th formulation and apparent agreement at least in terms of the meaning within the utterance in other cases. Mutual confronting of particular verbs hence does not reveal any cardinal discrepancies and as such, it could be concluded that the teacher perceived the aims that were set as they really were.

Concerning the language in which the teacher formulated the aims, it is possible to conclude that the aims were less operationalised than it would have been needed. Although there appeared perfectly operationalised aims, such as 'they write 3 – 4

sentences about oneself', 'they describe a season of the year' or 'they describe what is in pictures', others are in this respect disputable – e.g. the 1st aim mentions 'un/countable nouns', a linguistic term which is unlikely to be understood by seventh graders. A similar situation occurs in the 15th aim where 'infinitives and ing-forms' may not be grasped by learners. However, formulating the mentioned aims in a less operationalised way might be justified by the fact that the aims were labelled like that for the needs of research, not for the needs of learners. Whether this presumption may be confirmed or the teacher ordinarily tends to such formulations will be investigated in the research phase reporting interviewing the teacher.

6.2.3. Phase 3 – aligning aims of the projected curriculum with those of teaching-learning and testing tasks

The phase of aligning aims within the projected curriculum and aims of instructional activities and testing tasks in a way concluded the two previous phases of research conducting. It was primarily focused on interpreting previously investigated phenomena in their mutual relationship. Aims of the projected curriculum were in this analysis represented by the expected outcomes determined for writing in the seventh grade and descriptors of the A1 reference level. Bloom's revised taxonomy was used here as an instrument for aligning aims within particular curricula since it enables relating aims across various categories with each other and thus may prove a level of alignment. The phase was in this sense intended to

- interpret aims in terms of terminology of Bloom's revised taxonomy
- target cells of Bloom's revised taxonomy.

6.3.2.1. Data collection

Data needed for the following analysis were in fact collected during the two previous phases – they were the (a) expected outcomes, (b) descriptors of the A1 reference level depicted in the CEFR, (c) actual aims of teaching-learning and testing tasks and (d) aims of the tasks as they were perceived by the teacher. Since the actual aims in fact corresponded to those formulated by the teacher, the two categories of data are in this phase of research treated as one while the terminology of actual aims is used since its provide more illustrative details characterising the aims.

6.3.2.2. Data analysis and interpretation

The main concern of the data analysis was targeting cells of Bloom's revised taxonomy table. However, to make it manageable, it was necessary to (a) associate particular aims with cells to be targeted (this was done with reference to verbs formulating in the aims and discussed operations); and (b) encode individual aims before placing them into the taxonomy and their consequent aligning. For encoding the aims, the following symbols were used – C (aims suggested by the CEFR, i.e. descriptors of the A1 level), S (aims stated in the SEP, i.e. the expected outcomes), I (aims of instructional activities), T (aims of testing tasks). Numbers associated to each symbol stand for the order in which they were listed in the documents or set (in the case of instructional activities and testing tasks). Teaching-learning and testing tasks are in this analysis treated as two separate categories in order to distinguish the implemented curriculum from the attained one.

The list of aims, their codes and determinations in terms of the terminology of Bloom's revised taxonomy (i.e. cognitive process and knowledge[30] dimension) are available in Table 3. Since the way of formulating aims within particular categories slightly differ (the CEFR descriptors e.g state that one 'can' do something, teaching-learning and testing tasks are, on the contrary, formulated by infinitive structures), all redundant auxiliary words were omitted and aims of all categories are formulated in the same way implying that a learner is able to do something. 'The something' is listed in Table 3.

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[30] categories of the knowledge dimension are noted down in a shortened way (e.g. a procedure instead of procedural knowledge) to make the notations easily approachable

AIM	TAXONOMY TERMINOLOGY	CODE
CEFR		
Writes simple isolated phrases and sentences	create a procedure	**C1**
Writes simple phrases and sentences about themselves and imaginary people, where they live and what they do	create a procedure	**C2**
Asks for or pass on personal details in written form	create a procedure	**C3**
Writes a short simple postcard	create a procedure	**C4**
Writes numbers and dates, own name, nationality, address, age, date of birth or arrival in the country, etc. such as on a hotel registration form	understand a concept	**C5**
EXPECTED OUTCOMES		
Describes a past event	create a procedure	**S1**
Formulates questions and answers concerning a description of a past event	create a procedure	**S2**
Communicates what s/he must/does not need	create a procedure	**S3**
Suggests a collective activity	create a procedure	**S4**
Asks how to get from X to Y and answers	create a procedure	**S5**
Gives information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?)	understand a concept	**S6**
Elicits information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?)	create a procedure	**S7**
Formulates an offer – invitation, responds to it, writes – creates a simple invitation letter	create a procedure	**S8**
Manages very short social exchanges, formulates simple polite phrases and responds to them	create a procedure	**S9**
Writes a simple formal letter	create a procedure	**S10**
Expresses what s/he likes/does not like	create a procedure	**S11**
Communicates a short message about what s/he does in her/his free time	create a procedure	**S12**
Formulates questions and answers regarding what s/he/one does in her/his free time	create a procedure	**S13**
Gives information about travelling and means of transport	create a procedure	**S14**
Asks about various matters, manages simple operations in the shop, in the post office, asks about quality, price and amount	create a procedure	**S15**
Orders a meal, asks about price, express dis/satisfaction	create a procedure	**S16**
Simply characterises current and past weather	create a procedure	**S17**
Conveys a forecast	create a procedure	**S18**
Shortly speaks about her/his favourite sport	create a procedure	**S19**
Formulates questions and answers regarding Her/his/ones favourite sport	create a procedure	**S20**

ACTUAL INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES		
Creates accurate sentences using quantifiers when talking/asking about real objects	apply a concept	**I1**
Expresses his/her own opinion concerning eating in the Czech Republic and own preferences	create a procedure	**I2**
Tells a story according to its visualised plot	apply a concept	**I3**
Brainstorms vocabulary concerning seasons	remember a fact	**I4**
Categorises vocabulary concerning (a) seasons, (b) weather, (c) clothes and (d) activities into lexical fields	understand a concept	**I5**
Describes his/her favourite season and justifies the choice	create a procedure	**I6**
On the basis of an advisor's weather forecast, advices somebody what to put on	create a procedure	**I7**
Labels visualised weather conditions	understand a concept	**I8**
Creates accurate sentences in Present Simple and Continuous of given pieces	apply a concept	**I9**
Uses Present Continuous accurately in sentences	apply a concept	**I10**
Briefly introduces himself/herself	create procedure	**I11**
TESTING TASKS		
Associates appropriate social phrases with reactions to them in a context	understand a concept	**T1**
Contrasts eating in a restaurant and fast food	create a procedure	**T2**
Labels described pieces of clothes	remember a fact	**T3**
Labels visualised actions and objects appropriately to the context to make a text intelligible	understand a concept	**T4**
Uses Present Simple and Continuous accurately in given sentences	understand a concept	**T5**
Recognises if Present Simple or Continuous is to be used in a text	understand a concept	**T6**
Asks appropriate phrases to elicit given answers	apply a concept	**T7**

Table 3. *Encoded aims and their determination in terms of terminology of Bloom's revised taxonomy*

Once the aims were examined in Table 3., they were ready to be placed into Bloom's revised taxonomy table as depicted in Table 4. The taxonomy framework is adapted from Anderson, Krathwohl et al. (2001, p. 28).

Knowledge Dimension	Cognitive Process Dimension					
	remember	understand	apply	analyse	evaluate	create
factual kn.	I4, T3					
conceptual kn.		C5, S6, I5, I8, T1, T4, T5, T6	I1, I3, I9, I10, T7			
procedural kn.						C1, C2, C3, C4, S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S7, S8, S9, S10, S11, S12, S13, S14, S15, S16, S17, S18, S19, S20, I2, I6, I7, I11, T2
meta-cognitive kn.						

Table 4. *Aims within Bloom's revised taxonomy table*

It is apparent from Table 4. that the examined aims were cumulated in four cells – 'to remember factual knowledge', 'to understand conceptual knowledge', to 'apply conceptual knowledge' and 'to create procedural knowledge'. While aims of teaching and testing could be identified in each of the four cells, those determined in the projected curriculum appeared only in 'to understand conceptual knowledge' and 'to create procedural knowledge'. The next logical step of the analysis was thus to investigate the way in which aims within each cell align with each other, if ever. It seemed especially challenging to find out to which aims of the projected curriculum are aims of the instructional activities and tests related and if the testing tasks really measured what had been taught, i.e. if they measured the attained curriculum.

The highest number of aims is gathered in the cell 'to create a procedural knowledge' which is targeted by aims of all the investigated areas. There is cumulated the majority of aims suggested in the CEFR and determined in the SEP, four instructional activities and one testing task. Taking the chronology in which the teaching-learning and testing tasks were set into consideration, the testing task T2 followed the instructional activity I2, which was consequently followed by the other teaching-learning tasks. That is why it should be pointed out that the other teaching-learning tasks (I6, I7 and I11) were not measured by a test that would target the same cell, i.e. the attained curriculum learned/acquired via I6, I7 and I11 was not checked by an appropriately demanding measurement. On the other hand, it could be concluded that the test T2 measured what had been taught and learned/acquired in I2 because their aims were very similar. Whether this presumption is valid or not may clarify the following analysis of alignment. I2 demanded learners to discuss eating in the Czech Republic and express their own preferences. In T2, learners were supposed to discuss differences between eating in a restaurants and fast foods. It might be therefore concluded that the testing task was representative enough of what had been taught and learned/acquired. Both the task thus may be perceived to correlate with one another. I2 and T2 may be viewed as referring especially to S11 and C2 of the projected curriculum since the testing task as well as the instructional activity required learners to express their own preferences through a longer text and comment on the preferences. This concerns also I6. As for I7

and I11, they might be related to tasks demanding more elaborated writing as well, however, I7 could be rather associated with C2 and S18 as it was predominantly aimed at creating a forecast. I11, on the contrary, tended to C3 and S12 as it demanded learners to introduce themselves in a written form. To sum up, it is possible to state that there is an extremely high degree of agreement among

- T2, I2, S11, C2
- I6, S11, C2
- I7, S18, C2
- I11, S12, C3.

Another cell revealing alignment among aims of the projected curriculum, teaching-learning and testing tasks is 'to understand a conceptual knowledge'. Approached from the chronological point of view, the test T1 was not related to any instructional activity targeting the same cell since it had been set before the teaching-learning tasks were implemented. T1 was followed by I5 which could be hardly related to any aim suggested either in the CEFR or determined in the SEP as it required learners to classify vocabulary into various groups (yet, vocabulary was to be copied into appropriate places of a mind map). The situation of I8 is very similar. It seems unlikely to associate it with C5 or S6 because accomplishing the task did not deal with filling in forms or giving information about quantity. This was not demanded neither in T4, T5 and T6, three individual testing tasks which were in fact interested in the same aspect (accurate using of Present Simple and Continuous), yet slightly differed as for the type. While T4 was a typical multiple-choice task, T5 required learners to label visualised pictures (actions, weather, clothes) suitably to the given context and T6 represented a dichotomy demanding one to decide which of the given expression is to be used. To conclude, although the aims defined in the projected curriculum for the skill of writing (C5, S6) are placed in the cell together with aims of one teaching-learning and four testing tasks, there do not seem to be manifested any mutual relation among them, apart from the fact that there are three chronologically set testing tasks measuring generally the same ability located in the cell. In addition to that, T5 may be in a way perceived as measuring what was taught and learned/acquired via I5 and I8, i.e. (a) spelling of vocabulary regarding weather and clothes; and (b) associating mentioned vocabulary to

its visualisations. In this sense T5 may be perceived to be representative of learners' attained curriculum. There is thus a relatively strong alignment among

- T5, I5, I8.

Since the neighbouring cell 'to apply conceptual knowledge' was targeted by aims of four instructional activities and one testing task and aims within both the cells revealed, thanks to its close relation, a relatively high degree of alignment, it seemed worth examining if T1, T4, T5 and T6 measured what had been taught also in I1, I3, I9 and I10 and if T7 measured what had been taught in I5 and I8. Nevertheless, the cell 'to apply conceptual knowledge' was at first analysed in sequence of the set tasks. The reflected order was the following – I1, I3, I9, I10 and T7. Since there was no significant relationship between aims of the testing task and those teaching-learning ones, it could be concluded that, though they appeared within one cell, there was no direct relationship between representatives of the two categories within the cell. The instructional activities seemed to manifest the whole investigated spectrum of tasks gathered from the very first one to those collected by the end of the relevant period. I9 and I10 in that sense could be considered to deal with the same language aspect (accurate using of tenses).

To examine the abovementioned vision of alignment among aims targeting the cell 'to understand conceptual knowledge' and those of 'to apply conceptual knowledge', it was necessary to realise the chronology of setting the tasks. It was the following – I1, T1, I3, I5, I8, I9, I10, T4, T5, T6 and T7. Examined in detail, T1 could be believed to measure what was taught and learned/acquired in I1 only marginally, in terms of the thematic field. As for the operations, they slightly differed – I1 demanded learners to create sentences out of given pieces while using appropriate quantifiers, whereas T1 was aimed at matching sentences dealing with offering/ordering food. The instructional task I3, as it was mentioned in chapter 6.4.2.2. was in a way excluded from the sequence since it dealt with another topic (Robin Hood), yet it required learners to tell a story reflecting given pictures. I5 and I8 deal with the topic of weather and clothes (classifying and labelling vocabulary) which in a way related them to T5. As it was already mentioned, I9 and I10 were focused on accurate using of tenses in sentences as well as T4, T5 and T6 which measured this particular ability. In this respect, it could be

concluded that T4, T5 and T6 were aligned with I9 and I10. Finally, T7 did not measure anything that was taught and learned/acquired via instructional activities targeting discussed cells since it was aimed at eliciting phrases concerning shopping. Thus, when commenting on a degree of alignment within the cells 'to understand conceptual knowledge' and 'to apply conceptual knowledge', it could be concluded that there might be identified strong alignment among

- I9, I10 and T4, T5, T6
- I5, I8 and T5

and marginal alignment between

- I1 and T1.

The instructional activity I4 and the testing task T3 targeted the cell 'to remember factual knowledge'. As T3, chronologically following I4, measured accurate spelling of described pieces of clothes, it might be strongly aligned with I4 which demanded learners to brainstorm pieces of clothes relevant to seasons of the year. As such, it could be summarised that T3 was representative of what the attained curriculum, a result of I4 instructing. There was thus strong alignment between

- I1 and T3.

As the analysis of alignment of aims of testing and teaching-learning tasks cumulated in the same cells proved, what was measured was previously taught and learned/acquired in majority of cases, so it may be concluded that what was measured was really the attained curriculum.

One of the most crucial outcomes of this research phase is the fact that the investigated aims are not spread across the whole framework (4 out of 24 cells are targeted). On the basis of this, it may be stated that alignment is strong especially in the case of aims targeting neighbouring cells 'to understand conceptual knowledge' and 'to apply conceptual knowledge'. A certain degree of alignment can be identified also among the two mentioned cells and the cell 'to remember factual knowledge' since they are all located in the part of the taxonomy engaging one's lower-order thinking. On the other

hand, aims within the cell 'to create procedural knowledge' seems to be more remote and thus less aligned with the so far discussed cells as it tends to engage one's higher-order thinking. To sum up, there is revealed

- a high degree of alignment among aims targeting cells 'to understand conceptual knowledge' and 'to apply conceptual knowledge'
- a relatively high degree of alignment among aims targeting cells of 'to understand conceptual knowledge', 'to apply conceptual knowledge' and 'to remember factual knowledge'
- a relatively low level of alignment among aims targeting cells of 'to understand conceptual knowledge', 'to apply conceptual knowledge', 'to remember factual knowledge' and 'to create procedural knowledge', while the weakest alignment is apparent in the case of 'to create procedural knowledge' and 'to remember factual knowledge'.

Confronting this research outcome with characteristics of gathered authentic tasks, it seems to be proved that there were tasks targeting both lower-order and higher-order thinking set in class during the investigated period. The mutual comparison reveals that aims targeting the cell 'to create procedural knowledge' refer to free or guided writing tasks demanding extensive language production, whereas aims targeting the other cells refer to controlled tasks supposing learners to produce either brief answer or even response without uttering words. Thus, as the tasks differ in their format, it may seem logical that they differ also in characteristics of their aims.

6.4.4. Phase 4 – content analysis of an interview with the teacher

The final phase of research conducting, a content analysis of an interview with the teacher, was aimed at clarifying already gained data and deeper analysis of the investigated case. It was intended to bring to light teacher's visions and tendencies standing behind the teaching-learning process. The scope of the interview concerned the way in which the teacher treats writing in class, aims in teaching writing and aims in testing it. "To let the interviewee develop ideas and speak more widely on the issues raised by the researcher" (Denscombe, 2007, p. 176), a semi-structured interview was

designed as an instrument of data collecting. There were pre-determined three major concerns to be investigated

- the way in which the teacher teaches writing
- the way in which the teacher deals with the SEP when teaching writing
- the way in which the teacher tests writing.

The format of semi-structured interviewing seemed to be ideal for eliciting demanded information since it could enable the interviewer to flexibly control the flow of incoming information and at the same time "gives one privileged access to other people's lives." (Nuan, 1992, p. 150)

6.4.4.1. Data collection

Data collected via interviewing the teacher were, as already mentioned, elicited by three pre-determined questions

1) Do you teach writing? – How?
2) Do you take the SEP into account when (planning) teaching writing? – How?
3) Do you test writing? – How?

The first part of each 'main' question was a yes/no question raised in the particular way not to lead the teacher towards a biased answer. The 'how' part, was supposed to elicit demanded information. If needed, additional sub-questions were raised to get access to specific details, context of decisions, viewpoints, etc. Interviewing lasted circa 30 minutes and the topic was discussed in Czech in order not to restrict teacher's answers as for terminology and to enable the teacher to genuinely express own standpoints, approaches, etc. Data provided by the teacher were during interviewing noted down while omitting out-of-scope data as it is suggested in Nuan (1992, p. 153). Complete data, including direct quotations of the teacher, are available in Table 5. bellow.

6.2.4.2. Data analysis and interpretation

Before the collected data, i.e. answers of the interviewed teacher, were analysed and interpreted, they had been encoded (Table 5.) to facilitate relating analysed data to

particular questions. Symbols RX where X stands for numbers from 1 to 21 in this case represent only a code without any additional meaning.

INTERVIEW	CODE
R: Do you teach writing in classes of the seventh grade?	
T: *"Of course, yes."*	**R1**
R: How?	
T: *short writing performances – checking Ls' preparation for a lesson – mainly vocabulary, grammar, orthography; taking notes when listening; filling in gaps – missing words into sentences, finishing unfinished sentences*	**R2**
- longer writing performances – letters – formal, informal – to friends, official letters, e-mails, narratives about what Ls did or would like to do, holiday experiences, own creative pieces of writing (at home) – looking new vocabulary up, describing a prepared picture	**R3**
- "and of course, they write texts" – if they are to write a request, you must go through it with them, tell them what to include – arranging mixed parts of a text to prove the familiarity with the structure, responding to questions about the text to prove that they understand it ("Of course in a written form.") – on the basis on this, a sample is written – practising – once managed, Ls may write it at home or they may be tested – "I prepare them for that"	**R4**
R: Do you teach writing in this way intentionally?	
T: *more or less – necessary to plan it*	**R5**
- "However, it is always about finding ways that suit you, as well as them" – if one is not effective, another one tried – various thematic fields, topics, vocabulary available – developed, checked, tested in various ways	**R6**
R: So do you state aims in teaching writing?	
T: *The main aim: "to teach them to write at least a bit" – more writing needed (time allocation)*	**R7**
- Ls need to express their opinions, elicit information in a simple and primarily correct way	**R8**
R: Do you formulate aims of writing in class?	
T: *"I say: Imagine that… Write to you friend… Ask for… You want to convey that…"*	*R9*
R: Do you ask learners for example to 'write a formal letter'?	
T: *"They do not know what 'formal' means, so no."*	**R10**
R: Do you take the SEP into consideration when (planning) teaching writing?	
T: *"Absolutely. I know what to teach in particular grades."*	**R11**
- a thematic plan for every moth – the SEP = a framework	**R12**
- binding – reporting on following the SEP at the end of the year => to keep an eye on it	**R13**
- what is included in the SEP is not every time covered and not all the learners manage it every time – limited by time for re-practising	**R14**
R: You previously stated that you prepare learners for writing under test conditions. Do you test writing then?	
T: *"Of course, yes."*	**R15**

R: How?	
T: *checking something – at least vocabulary, grammar – "It [testing writing] must be tied to something."*	**R16**
- if already managed or not yet	**R17**
- longer texts – layout, comprehensibility	**R18**
R: Why do you test writing?	
"To let them learn to write in practice" – correctly	**R19**
- what they want to express, a simple letter, request, e-mail, SMS – feedback	**R20**
R: When do you test it?	
T: *once the matter is grasped, practised, sometimes re-practised – if troubles identified => re-testing*	**R21**

Table 5. *Encoded interview with the teacher*

When analysing the interview as for its content, there were two areas of interest: (a) points depicted in chapter 6.4.4.; and (b) features that had been so far identified as significant for the case – writing concentrated on accurate grammar and vocabulary using.

The interview brought to light that the teacher teaches writing in the seventh grade (R1) – teacher's opinion, while treating it in terms of (a) writing for learning (R2) – writing represents a vehicle for reinforcing vocabulary, grammar and orthography, and an activity facilitating carrying out other activities (e.g. listening); and (b) writing for writing (R3, R4). Concerning the latter one, a procedure of teaching writing elaborated texts was described as comprising two phases in which an initial introduction of structures of a particular text type precedes producing own texts of a particular kind, which may be consequently accomplished as homework or tested (R4). This procedure refers to typical genre writing discussed in the theoretical part of the thesis. There were, furthermore, identified several text types which seventh graders are encouraged to manage to produce – i.e. in/formal letters, e-mails, narratives, own creative writing (R3). While mentioning 'own creative writing', the teacher pointed out that it is connected with learning/acquiring new vocabulary (R3). It, in fact, associated creative writing with a kind of additional value expressed again in terms of writing for learning/acquiring a foreign language. Treating writing as a language skill and as a means for language practising is hence perceived by the teacher as mingling.

The teacher stated that the described way of teaching writing in the seventh grade is in a way intentional because teaching writing is necessarily pre-planned (R5). Yet, there remains a space for discussing the degree of rigid following the projected patterns since the teacher pointed out that learners might not identify themselves with pre-planned ways of teaching and several ways of teaching might not suit even the teacher (R6). The original idea of planning the process of teaching writing was in that respect identified with finding effective ways (themes to be discussed) how to develop, check and test learners' writing (R6). The topic of projecting teaching writing was summarised by stating that there is in fact one fundamental aim in current time-restricted ELT related to writing – to teach learners to write at least a bit (R7), so that they would be able to express their opinions and elicit demanded information in a simple and primarily correct way (R8). The phrase 'in a primarily correct way' again relates writing to accurate (at least) grammar using. No specific objectives behind teaching and thus learning/acquiring writing are explicitly stated in class. These aims are conveyed rather via introducing a situational context of achieving them (R9), i.e. no elaborated language or sentence structures are used when determining aims in class (R10).

Until this point, the teacher commented on planning teaching writing and its aims with exclusive reference to learners' needs and language aspects being involved. The role of the SEP in (planning) teaching writing had not been spontaneously discussed by the teacher before a relevant direct question was raised. Within teacher's comments on the way of using the SEP in (planning) teaching writing, there may be identified two reasons why the teacher inclines to follow the expected outcomes – teacher's standpoint: (a) it provides the teacher with a list of patterns of what to teach in a particular grade (R11), which are consequently treated in a thematic plan designed for every month since the SEP stands for a framework of what to do (R12) – teacher's viewpoint; and (b) the SEP represents a binding curriculum and the teacher is responsible for annual reporting on the process of following it, which turns teacher's attention to teaching in a way that would enable learners to achieve the pre-stated aims (R13). It was thus implied that aims determined in the SEP, the expected outcomes, are implicitly (R9) stated in class (R11, R12, R13), however not always attained by all the learners. It is, according to teacher's opinion, caused by limited time allocated to

teaching writing (R14). To sum up, it was stated by the teacher that there is less time allocated to teaching writing than it would be needed and thus, a range of aims to be stated is narrower (R7, R14). With reference to limited time being available, it was also admitted that not all the learners manage to attain the pre-stated aims within a given period (R14).

The teacher pointed out that learners are trained to be tested on producing own pieces of writing (R4). There was therefore a presumption that writing is tested by the teacher, which was consequently confirmed by R15 – teacher's viewpoint. As it is apparent, testing writing is understood by the teacher as checking if certain language aspects, at least vocabulary and grammar (R16), have been already managed (R17). In the case of more complex writing performances, examining the layout and text comprehensibility is of interest (R18). According to teacher's opinion, testing writing, as well as teaching it (R2, R3, R4), concerns (a) grammar and vocabulary using (R16); and (b) composing elaborated pieces of writing (R18). Reasons behind (such) testing the teacher stated as follows – testing writing enables learners to (a) write in practice and provides them with feedback on accuracy of their writing (R19); and (b) provides them with feedback on how effectively they are able to express what they want to or compose a demanded text type (R20). In other words, testing writing represents another opportunity for learners to write in class and in addition, it informs them on how they have succeed in writing either in terms of accuracy or a communicative value. It was mentioned that poor outcomes of the testing procedure sometimes shift the teaching-learning process not to concluding the particular topic, but to re-teaching and consequent re-testing (R21). The teacher thus described a vicious circle of re-practising and re-testing enabling learners who have not succeed in writing to succeed another time.

6.5. Final data analysis and interpretation

It was mentioned in chapter 6.2. that case studies tend to be holistic. In this respect, data gathered, processed and analysed throughout individual research phases represent those that were collected within the case study. As such, they are finally interpreted in terms of their mutual relationships in order to depict the investigated case as a whole.

6.5.1. Aims in teaching writing

It was found out that 'writing' was within the investigated period treated in two ways: (a) as a medium through which vocabulary and grammar were practised; and (b) as a language skill being developed. Such a tendency was at first encountered when examining the expected outcomes listed in the SEP. The fact that they are classified not in terms of language skills, but as either grammar-related or theme-related, shifts the way in which they are formulated rather to understanding writing as a means for language learning (e.g. the expected outcomes 'gives information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?)'; 'communicates what s/he must/does not need'; 'gives information about travelling and means of transport'). However, there are several exceptions referring to purely authentic writing tasks (e.g. 'formulates an offer – invitation, responds to it, writes – creates a simple invitation letter'; 'writes a simple formal letter'; 'orders a meal, asks about price, expresses dis/satisfaction'). When determining expected outcomes related to the skill of writing, the teacher selected those treating writing as a means, as well as those treating it as a language skill. The teacher commented on both the groups in terms of genuine writing, which proved that relevant expected outcomes are understood by the teacher in terms of developing writing as a skill. Yet, it was admitted that the discussed expected outcomes might be perceived in a different way by a different evaluator since the SEP was designed as a 'framework' suggesting what to taught and attain (in the case of learners). In that respect, the teacher pointed out that a thematic plan (specifying the expected outcomes) is followed rather than the SEP itself when planning teaching writing. By implying that the expected outcomes are ambiguous, the teacher in a way confirmed that they might concern developing writing skills as well as practising accuracy in grammar and vocabulary using.

That writing was taught in both mentioned ways was consequently proved by the analysis of investigated tasks and their aims. During the investigated period, there were 11 instructional activities identified by the teacher as referring to writing as a language skill. The analysis of individual task formats, facilitating determining aims of particular tasks, brought to light that there were 4 out of these 11 tasks of an open-ended format eliciting extensive writing. Those tasks represented genuine writing tasks. The rest of

them referred to controlled practising tenses, quantifiers and vocabulary. Characteristics of aims in teaching writing thus correlated with teacher's reported approach to teaching writing – it was pointed out that writing is taught in terms of (a) short written performances checking learners' mastering of the language in terms of vocabulary, grammar and orthography e.g. by completing unfinished sentences or gaps (such activities were identified within the investigated set); and in terms of (b) extensive writing of a particular text format (there were identified tasks demanding learners to express their opinions or introduce themselves). The teacher stated that writing elaborated texts is preceded by studying structures of a particular text type (which relates teaching writing to text-based writing). The need to make learners familiar with conventions and forms of texts could justify the reason why accuracy in grammar and vocabulary using was highlighted in writing tasks investigated during the given period (when formulating aims of the eleven examined instructional activities, the teacher three times emphasised 'correctness' of writing). That accurate writing was taught in order to prepare learners for more extensive writing could be approved by the instance which the teacher labelled as a sequence of interrelated tasks (two pre-tasks, a main guided tasks and post-task), each having an own aim. In the sequence, vocabulary was at first elicited, accurately spelt, classified into different lexical fields, used when writing about one's preferences and used in an authentic communicative situation. It is mentioned in the theoretical part of the thesis that accuracy-based writing may facilitate certain aspects of one's writing when being incorporated in teaching writing as a skill. In this case, accuracy in spelling and classifying vocabulary enhanced text structuring and expressing one's thoughts. During interviewing, the teacher asserted that learners need to express their opinions and elicit information accurately. The analysis of teaching-learning tasks and their aims proved that this way of teaching was actually followed by the teacher.

By stating that teaching writing is necessary pre-planned, the teacher confirmed that teaching in the abovementioned way was executed intentionally. 'Planning' was at the same time identified with finding ways of teaching writing (thematic fields of one's interest) that would be appropriate to a particular context. Secondarily, it was admitted by the teacher that planning teaching writing is apart form a particular group of learners

determined also by aims stated in the SEP. Aligning aims of the projected curriculum and those of teaching-learning and testing tasks proved that the teacher factually tended to follow certain expected outcomes and to enable learners to achieve them as aims, i.e. that particular determined expected outcomes shaped the way of teaching writing within the examined period.

Aims of the analysed tasks formulated by the teacher in a way corresponded to actual aims of the tasks. They were stated by the teacher in a form of a description of what learners were supposed to do ('They + verb in an active voice, etc.'). It, in a way, correlates with teacher's reported strategy of introducing aims of writing in class – introducing the situational context of particular activities instead of explicitly uttered aims. It was hence proved that the teacher conveys aims implicitly in a simple language which learners are familiar with. Secondarily, it became apparent that the aims of the examined tasks formulated in Phase 2 were formulated in given words for the needs of research, not in the way in which they are transmitted to learners.

6.5.2. Aims in testing writing

Out of 18 analysed tasks that the teacher related to writing, there were 7 testing tasks to be examined as for their aims. The way in which the aims were formulated by the teacher again correlated with the actual aims which were identified on the basis of their task format and other relevant characteristics. Also in the case of testing, writing was treated as (a) a language skill; and as (b) a means for grammar and lexis reinforcing. There was one test measuring learners' ability to express themselves, the others focused primarily on checking spelling or using tenses and theme-bound phrases in context of sentences or a text. Tasks that measured accurate vocabulary and grammar using could be easily controlled and thus revealed a high degree of reliability. In the case of the task demanding extensive writing on a given topic, reliable scoring was enhanced by the fact that there was not much space for getting out of the scope as the topic restricted test takers in what to write about. Associating testing tasks with particular instructional activities proved that what was taught and learned/acquired was in majority of cases measured by tests, i.e. the attained curriculum was measured. This could be in a way interpreted as valid testing. However, the tasks (teaching-learning as well as testing

ones) often concentrated on measuring learners' abilities to use vocabulary and grammar in writing, not writing as such. The question of validity thus stays open to discussion. Testing the attained curriculum in that particular way might be perceived to be intentional as the teacher reported that testing is always related to some aspect, at least to grammar and/or vocabulary checking. In addition it was pointed out that learners are prepared for being tested already when they are taught. That might be another reason why testing tasks correlated with teaching-learning ones.

Three tests set in sequence measured learners' abilities to use Present Simple and Continuous accurately in context of sentences or a text. The reasons why one language aspect was checked three times could be the one that the teacher, as reported, tends to re-test rather than test. The procedure of re-testing is, according to teacher's own words, necessary when one testing outcome proves that a particular language aspect have not been managed yet. It is again in accordance with teacher's reported tendencies to plan teaching writing with respect to learners' needs, while using various techniques to enable all the learners to succeed. Also the analysis of the investigated tasks and their aims proved that their setting was not random. Finally, the teacher claimed that testing writing is intended to provide learners with feedback on (a) how effectively they express their thoughts; and (b) how accurately they write. That is why it could be concluded that what was tested was really intended to be tested.

6.5.3. Alignment

The fundamental part of the case study proved that aims stated for learning/acquiring and thus teaching writing in the projected curriculum (the SEP, the CEFR) were aligned with aims of teaching and testing writing during the investigated period. Particularly, aims of the projected curriculum and those of the teaching-learning and testing tasks targeted cells 'to understand conceptual knowledge' and 'to create procedural knowledge'. As Phase 3 proved, alignment of particular aims within the mentioned cells was quite strong. There were two more cells, 'to remember factual knowledge' and 'to apply conceptual knowledge' in which aims of the instructional activities and testing tasks were cumulated. Yet, neither examined expected outcomes, nor CEFR descriptors could be placed into those cells. It was proved that aims within the mentioned cells were

related to one another at least in terms of what was taught and measured. In the case of 'to create procedural knowledge', what was tested was related to what was taught and projected.

As for alignment of aims targeting the taxonomy table as a whole, it is possible to state that it was relatively strong. The highest degree of alignment was revealed in the case of 'to understand conceptual knowledge' and 'to apply conceptual knowledge'. These two cells were relatively aligned with 'to remember factual knowledge' and 'to create procedural knowledge'. The weakest alignment may be identified between 'to remember factual knowledge' and 'to create procedural knowledge'. The fact that there were targeted cells engaging learners' lower-order thinking as well as those demanding higher-order thinking might correlate with teacher's reported approaching teaching and testing writing in terms of (a) accuracy in writing (i.e. cells 'to remember factual knowledge'; 'to understand conceptual knowledge' and 'to apply conceptual knowledge'); and (b) expressing own thoughts (i.e. 'to create procedural knowledge').

6.6. Summarised research outcomes

When relating research outcomes reported above to the tested hypothesis that had been stated before the investigation started, the hypothesis might be declared to be generally verified since in the investigated case, there were identified tendencies to

- state aims of testing tasks that are in accordance with those of instructional activities
- state aims of instructional activities that are in accordance with expected outcomes stated in the SEP for the skill of writing
- state aims of instructional activities that are in accordance with descriptors of the A1 reference level determined in the CEFR.

To examine individual parts of the hypothesis in detail, the first part could be verified with a clear conscience because what was predominantly tested was the attained curriculum. Concerning the other parts, there were several expected outcomes and aims depicted in the CEFR that were reflected when teaching writing, however, as outcomes

of Phase 3 shows, the number of aligned aims determined in the projected curriculum was not enormous.

In this respect, it should be highlighted that the expected outcomes formulated in terms of the A1 reference level suggested in the CEFR are supposed to be attained by the end of June and it was hence not possible to base teaching writing on all of them. It, at the same time, proves that what was examined was an authentic situation that was relatively time-restricted and attaining a full range of projected aims was not even presupposed to be provided to learners in such a case. Furthermore, grammar and vocabulary was from time to time practised via writing rather that producing texts itself. Since aims in teaching writing were to be related to descriptors of writing of the A1 level depicted in the CEFR and to the expected outcomes of the same skill, it might seem sometimes difficult to associate aims of teaching writing for language learning to any of them.

To conclude outcomes of the case study, the investigation brought to light several transparent characteristics of the analysed case. It was proved that

- writing was treated in teaching and testing as a means of reinforcing grammar and lexis and as a language skill to be developed especially in terms of enabling learners to express their thoughts intelligibly
- expected outcomes determined in the SEP are considered by the teacher, who was involved in designing the relevant part of the SEP, as a framework to be specified in thematic plans for every month which the teacher follows
- expected outcomes related to writing are determined in the SEP predominantly in terms of writing for language learning, yet there may be identified also those relating to writing as a skill
- the expected outcomes genuinely reflect relevant descriptors of the A1 reference level as it is depicted in the CEFR
- the teacher perceived aims of the investigated teaching-learning and testing tasks as they really were so the task were set with those particular aims
- there was revealed strong alignment among aims of the projected curriculum and those of teaching-learning and testing tasks especially within the cell 'to create procedural knowledge' of Bloom's revised taxonomy, but also

mutually among four targeted cells ('to remember factual knowledge'; 'to understand conceptual knowledge'; 'to apply conceptual knowledge'; 'to create procedural knowledge')

- testing tasks in majority of cases measured what had been taught and thus learned/acquired, i.e. the attained curriculum
- the teacher perceived testing writing to be re-testing of re-taught language aspects.

These are the most fundamental research outcomes commenting on the characteristics of the investigated case. There arise a number of questions worth contemplating, yet the context of the investigation does not allow one to infer further conclusions. What is crucial here is the fact that there became apparent aspects of aim treating in teaching and testing writing that may be taken into consideration a source of knowledge when conducting similar, large-scale research into this topic.

7. CONCLUSION

It is said that "visions are developed and reinforced from action, although they may have a seed that is based simply on hope." (Louis and Miles in Day, 2004, p. 15) This master thesis introduces the importance of deliberate treating aims in teaching and testing writing in ELT in contemporary classes. It tends to attract public attention by confronting visions of the sector of education with an authentic situation. This is intended to illustrate possible clash points that would make the visions more specific, clear-cut and supported by evidence. In addition, the thesis tends to highlight positive shifts towards modern European trends in foreign language education, as well as possible threats that may cause discrepancies within the system.

The theoretical part of the thesis examines the role of aims in teaching and testing writing in ELT at elementary schools in the Czech Republic. Rather than depicting ideal ways in which aims should be treated in writing, it makes readers familiar with priorities of the sector and discusses controversial aspects of the topic. New influential trends entering foreign language education are contrasted with prominent tendencies and traditional approaches and standpoints in order to provide exhaustive background

information for contemplating the topic. Bloom's revised taxonomy table for learning, teaching and assessing is introduced as a tool allowing teachers to monitor and facilitate their work and as a crucial instrument integrating visions with actions.

The practical part investigates one particular case as for what is discussed in the theoretical part of the thesis. Conducted research is aimed at identifying factual approaches to treating aims in teaching and testing writing in the seventh grade of basic school. Primarily, it examines alignment of aims stated in the projected curriculum with those of teaching-learning and testing tasks. Final interviewing the teacher is then supposed to clarify teacher's intentions beyond teaching and testing writing and relates the case to a particular context.

Research outcomes presented in the thesis prove that writing was in that particular case often treated as a means for reinforcing grammar and lexis rather than a language skill to be developed. There are hinted possible reasons why it was so – e.g. limited time allocation, different priorities of a given group of language learners – beginners, the role of accuracy in effective communicating, etc. What may be considered to represent a positive step towards treating aims in teaching and testing writing in an appropriate way is a fact that aims of the investigated projected curriculum aligned with those of teaching-learning and testing tasks, while the degree of revealed alignment was quite high. Yet, these are outcomes of just one case study. However deeply the examined case was analysed, it is still related to the particular instance. The procedure of investigating concerned a limited number of classes and that is why there arise many points to consider when concluding outcomes of researching. Since the case study does not have enough data at its disposal to clarify each individual question that comes to one's mind, the presented outcomes are not be generalised. In this respect, there is a call to carry out another research into the topic to relate outcomes of this case study to a broader context.

8. RESUMÉ

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá otázkou cílů ve výuce a testování psaní jako řečové dovednosti v hodinách anglického jazyka vyučovaného na základních školách. Svou profilací se vymezuje pro oblast cílů výuky cizího jazyka, konkrétně těch spadajících do domény kognitivních cílů, která je pro povahu daného předmětu klíčová. Centrum zájmu práce je směřováno k rozvoji řečové dovednosti psaní. Této řečové dovednosti bývá ve výuce cizích jazyků tradičně připisována role neodpovídající skutečnému záběru jejího potenciálu. Psaní tak bývá často využíváno spíše jako prostředku k procvičování slovní zásoby a gramatiky, nežli jako samostatné řečové dovednosti hodné cíleného rozvoje. Toto opakovaně vyplouvá na povrch jak v teorii vyučování, tak i v samotné praxi. Jelikož se jedná o fenomén prolínající se etapami historie i současnosti, považuje práce za nutné zohlednit poznatky dob minulých v diskusi soudobého stavu teorie i výzkumu, aby tak razantně apelovala na uvědomění si potřeby změny.

Práce v tomto duchu představuje jednak po léta diskutovanou problematiku stanovování a dosahování cílů ve výuce a testování psaní v anglickém jazyce. Toto téma vztahuje k novým směrům cizojazyčného vzdělávání akcentovaným vzdělávacím sektorem České republiky i Evropy, tj. odvolává se na strategické a kurikulární dokumenty, jež byly relativně nedávno uvedeny v praxi kurikulární reformou. Pozornost je zde směřována k *Národnímu programu vzdělávání v České republice, Bílé knize* zastupující strategické dokumenty, *Společnému referenčnímu rámci pro jazyky* (SERRJ) jako představiteli evropské vize vzdělávání v oblasti cizích jazyků a k *Rámcovému vzdělávacímu programu pro základní vzdělávání* (RVP ZV) reprezentujícímu jádro českého vzdělávacího systému. V souvislosti s posledním jmenovaným dokumentem práce zmiňuje také roli školních vzdělávacích programů, závazných pro každou jednotlivou základní školu. Se zvláštním zřetelem pak práce přistupuje k úloze komunikační kompetence ve výuce a testování psaní v anglickém jazyce jakožto aspektu, který prošel dlouhým vývojem a do jisté míry i dnes určuje směr výuky a testování cizího jazyka.

Teoretická část práce osvětluje otázky cílů ve výuce a testování psaní v anglickém jazyce, jakož i samotné pojetí výuky psaní a jeho testování. Je tak rozdělena do pěti hlavních kapitol.

Úvodní kapitola nastiňuje důvody, proč se práce obrací právě k danému tématu. Představuje záměry teoretické i praktické části, cíl práce (pojednat cíle výuky a testování psaní v anglickém jazyce za účelem odhalení a osvětlení záměrů, s nimiž se ke psaní ve školní třídě přistupuje) a poukazuje na případný přínos práce v diskutované oblasti.

Druhá kapitola se snaží postihnout cíl jako významnou kategorii vyučovacího procesu. Uvádí cíle do kontextu onoho procesu dnešní doby a klasifikuje ji pro další potřeby práce. Zvolená klasifikace umožňuje uchopení cíle, jak je pojednáván ve výše zmiňovaných kurikulárních a strategických dokumentech, a uvědomění si úlohy cíle ve výuce cizího jazyka. Dále je zde představena revidovaná verze Bloomovy taxonomie vzdělávacích cílů, jež bude následně využita v praktické části práce.

Ve třetí kapitole je pozornost směřována k cílům výuky anglického jazyka jako cizího jazyka na základní škole. Detailněji je zde prezentována vize cizojazyčného vzdělávání nastíněná v SERRJ ve smyslu komunikační a interkulturní kompetence. Stejně tak je diskutováno i pojetí těchto kompetencí v RVP ZV. Jako možné východisko integrace komunikační (a v ní obsažené interkulturní) kompetence s řečovými dovednostmi je představen model komunikační kompetence Usó-Juanové a Martínez-Florové, který by, třebaže za tímto účelem nebyl zkonstruován, mohl určitým způsobem ospravedlnit pojetí cílů cizojazyčného vzdělávání v RVP ZV.

Záměrem čtvrté kapitoly je vymezit psaní jako řečovou dovednost. V podkapitole věnované cílům výuky psaní jsou představeny deskriptory referenční úrovně A2 týkající se řečové dovednosti psaní uvedené v SERRJ, na základě níž jsou, dle RVP ZV, definovány očekávané výstupy základního vzdělávání v cizím jazyce, které jsou rovněž popsány. Podkapitola týkající se výuky psaní předkládá styčné body dané oblasti a přibližuje aktuální směry, jimiž se problematika v současné době ubírá. V podkapitole

věnované testování psaní je základní terminologie, tj. validita, reliabilita a hodnotící škály, vztažena výlučně k řečové dovednosti psaní. Na samém konci podkapitola implikuje možné dopady testování psaní na jeho učení (se).

Závěrečná kapitola teoretické části se opět vrací ke konceptu Bloomovy revidované taxonomie ve smyslu stanovování cílů tak, aby cíle výuky byly ve vzájemném souladu s cíli deklarovanými v kurikulárních dokumentech, aby testové úlohy ověřovaly míru zvládnutí toho, co bylo fakticky oddučeno/naučeno/osvojeno/procvičováno, tedy aby testování sledovalo skutečně ty aspekty, které jsou stanoveny v projektovaném kurikulu.

Praktická část práce představuje myšlenku, proces a výstupy výzkumu, jenž byl v průběhu zhruba čtyř měsíců prováděn na základní škole ve středně velkém městě, nacházejícím se na území České republiky. Jednalo se o případovou studii zkoumající jeden konkrétní případ běžné třídy sedmého ročníku. Vyučující dané třídy byl zapojen v procesu tvorby ŠVP.

Šestá kapitola práce tematizuje cíl výzkumu – (a) identifikování cílů, které jsou pro výuku psaní v sedmém ročníku základní školy stanovovány v projektovaném kurikulu, učebních aktivitách a testových úlohách a míry jejich vzájemné korespondence promítnuté do revidované verze Bloomovy taxonomie a (b) přiblížení pozadí stanovování daných cílů; představuje základní hypotézy, výzkumný design a metodologii. Stručně je nastíněn zkoumaný případ a jeho základní charakteristiky.

Průběh procesu výzkumu je rozdělen do čtyř fází (obsahová analýza kurikulárních dokumentů, analýza učebních a testovacích úloh a jejich cílů, promítnutí cílů projektovaného kurikula, učebních aktivit a testových úloh v Bloomově revidované taxonomii, obsahová analýza rozhovoru s učitelem) pojednaných v sekvenci odpovídající chronologii jednotlivých krokům šetření. Každá fáze je popsána zvlášť v podkapitolách přibližujících sběr dat, jejich analýzu a interpretace. Následně je celý případ interpretován ve smyslu vzájemného vztahu výstupů jednotlivých fází výzkumu, kdy jsou shrnuta zásadní zjištění celé případové studie představující nástin aspektů,

které je v dané oblasti záhodno dále mapovat. Zmíněny jsou také možné limitace daného výzkumu.

Tato diplomová práce se jako celek zaobírá tématem, které je po všech stránkách více než aktuální. Formuluje priority dané oblasti jednak v teorii kurikula, jednak v praxi a integruje i konfrontuje vize vzdělávací politiky se skutečným stavem současné školy. Uvádí v uvážení klíčové aspekty soudobého cizojazyčného vzdělávání jako jsou školní vzdělávací programy, koncept (interkulturní) komunikační kompetence, dopadu testování nejen na učení se, ale i na učení, požadavek stanovovat cíle projektovaného, realizovaného a osvojovaného kurikula v dialektické jednotě, atd.; a otevírá možné diskutabilní otázky vyvstávající z kontextu už tak dosti diskutabilního tématu cílů ve výuce a testování psaní jako řečové dovednosti v anglickém jazyce. Práce se především svým výzkumem snaží upoutat pozornost široké pedagogické veřejnosti odpovědné za učení a testování psaní ve výuce anglického jazyka a za tvorbu školních vzdělávacích programů a jejich následné uvádění do praxe. V neposlední řadě se též snaží položit základ pro další rozsáhlejší výzkum dané problematiky.

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APPENDIX 1 (Categories of Bloom's revised taxonomy table)

Categories of the Knowledge Dimension:

- Factual knowledge – knowledge of discrete, isolated pieces of information such as terminology;

- Conceptual knowledge – knowledge of more complex, organized knowledge forms, such as classifications, categories, principles, generalizations, theories, models and structures;

- Procedural knowledge – knowledge of how to do something including algorithms, techniques and methods, knowledge of the criteria used to determine and/or justify when to do what;

- Metacognitive knowledge – knowledge about cognition in general as well as awareness of and knowledge about one's own cognition encompassing strategic knowledge, knowledge about cognitive tasks, contextual and conditional knowledge and finally self-knowledge. (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001, p. 27)

Categories of the Cognitive Process Dimension:

- Remembering – retrieving relevant information from long-term memory;

- Understanding – constructing meaning from instructional messages, including oral, written, and graphic communication;

- Applying – carrying out or use a procedure in a given situation;

- Analysing – breaking material into constituent parts and determine how parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose;

- Evaluating – making judgments based on criteria and standards;

- Creating – putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole or reorganizing elements into a new pattern or structure. (Anderson, Krathwohl, et al., 2001, p. 31)

APPENDIX 2 (Objectives of the educational area)

The instruction in this educational area [*Language and Language Communication*] is aimed at forming and developing key competencies by guiding the pupil towards:

- understanding language as an original historical phenomenon reflecting the historical and cultural development of a nation and thus as an important unifying agent of the national community and as a vital and indispensable instrument for lifelong learning;
- developing a positive attitude towards his/her mother tongue and understanding it as a potential resource for the development of personal as well as cultural wealth;
- perceiving and gradually mastering language as a rich and multiform means of obtaining and conveying information, of expressing his/her needs, experiences and presenting his/her opinions;
- mastering the basic rules of interpersonal communication in a given cultural environment and developing a positive attitude towards language within intercultural communication;
- obtaining information independently from various sources and mastering work with language and literary sources and with the texts of various specialisations;
- gaining the self-confidence for public performance and for cultivated expression as a means of self-assertion;
- experiencing literary works of art on his/her own, sharing reading experiences, developing a positive attitude towards literature and other text-based artistic disciplines, and developing emotional and aesthetic perception. (FEP EE, 2007, p. 18)

APPENDIX 3 (Proposed framework of CC integrating the four skills)
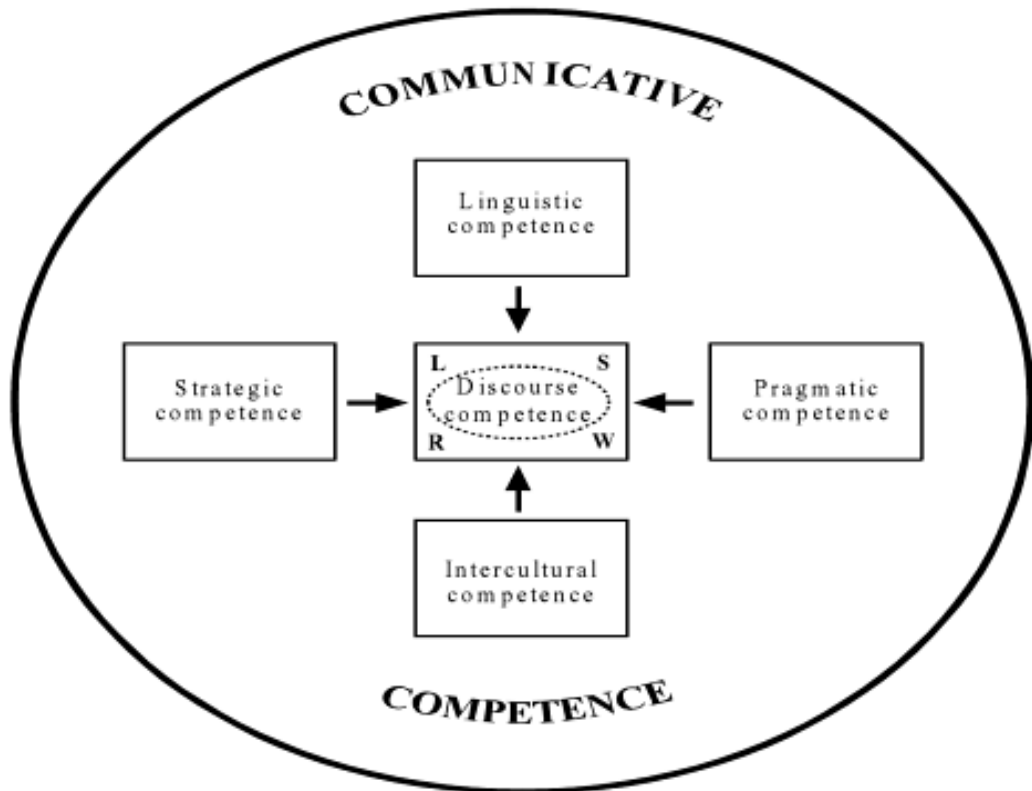
"Schematic representation of the proposed framework of communicative competence integrating the four skills (the capital letters stand for the skills: L= Listening; S = Speaking; R = Reading; W = Writing)" (Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 16)

APPENDIX 4 (Principles in teaching writing)

a) teach how to write – writing does not equal speaking[31] as for its communicative value and thus requires special attention

b) provide adequate and relevant experience of the written language – exposing learners to appropriate models of written languages encouraged

c) show how the written language functions as a system of communication – introducing how a piece of writing fulfil its communicative purpose

d) teach how to write texts – introducing devices needed to compose a particular type of a text which has a specific communicative goal

e) teach how to write different kinds of texts – teaching styles of writing appropriately to particular forms and communicative purposes

f) make tasks realistic and relevant – setting tasks relevant to learners' needs targeted at some audience

g) integrate writing with other skills – treating the skill of writing in a natural way

h) use a variety of techniques and practice formats – bearing in mind that different techniques and formats of writing suit different learners in different situations

i) provide appropriate support – providing learners with guidance, stimulating their ideas as work

j) be sympathetic – preferring being a reader concentrating on what has been successfully conveyed via writing to a judge (relevant only when testing/examining) concentrating on what is wrong. (Byrne, 1991, p. 27 – 29)

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[31] nor transcribed speaking (Raimes, 1983, p. 4)

APPENDIX 5 (Process wheel)

PLANNING   DRAFTING

FINAL VERSION?   EDITING

FINAL VERSION

The process wheel

(Harmer 2007a, p. 6)

APPENDIX 6 (Sequence of responding to writing)

1) selection of topic by teacher and/or students
2) preparation for writing/prewriting activities
3) teacher reads notes, lists, outlines, etc. and makes suggestions
4) student writes draft 1
5) student makes outline of draft 1
6) teacher and students read draft: add comments and suggestions about content
7) student writes draft 2
8) student reads draft 2 with guidelines or checklist: makes changes
9) teacher reads draft 2: indicates good points and areas for improvement
10) student writes draft 3
11) student edits and proofreads
12) teacher evaluates progress from draft 1 to draft 3
13) teacher assigns follow-up tasks to help in weak areas

(Raimes, 1983, p. 140 – 141)

APPENDIX 7 (Types of task format)

1. OPEN-ENDED FORMAT

1.1. with an extensive answer

1.1.1. non-structured

1.1.2. structured

1.1.2.1. with a given structure

1.1.2.2. with a convention-based structure

1.2. with a brief answer

1.2.1. productive

1.2.2. gap-filling

2. CLOSED-ITEM FORMAT

2.1. dichotomic

2.2. multiple-choice

2.3. matching

2.4. sequencing

(Chráska, 1999, p. 26)

APPENDIX 8 (Teacher's comments on the expected outcomes)

1) describes a past event, formulates questions and answers – *these are narrations, descriptions of what s/he did in the past – for example writing a letter to a friend*

2) communicates what s/he must/does not need, suggests a collective activity – *it concerns, for example, describing what s/he is responsible for at home – writing about oneself*

3) asks how to get from X to Y and answers – *asking Can you help me? in a letter form, SMS, e-mail*

4) gives and elicits information about quantity (many, much, little, few, how much/many?) – *s/he can write an e-mail, asks about a number, price of books s/he wants to order*

5) formulates an offer – invitation, responds to it, writes – creates a simple invitation letter – *there is 'writes' mentioned explicitly, it can be an e-mail, SMS, letter, an invitation card for a birthday party, anniversary*

6) manages very short social exchanges, formulates simple polite phrases and responds to them, writes a simple formal letter, expresses what s/he likes/does not like – *it's the same, 'writes a simple formal letter', emails*

7) communicates a short message about what s/he does in her/his free time, formulates questions and answers – *it concerns describing, suggesting what to do*

8) gives information about travelling and means of transport – *s/he can note down information from a railway timetable*

9) asks about various matters, manages simple operations in the shop, in the post office, asks about quantity, price and amount – *it can be again an e-mail – asking about price, ordering things*

10) orders a meal, asks about price, expresses dis/satisfaction – *it's the same*

11) simply characterises current and past weather, conveys a forecast – *to describe it*

12) shortly speaks about her/his favourite sport, formulates questions and answers – *if understood in terms of writing an article for a school magazine, why not*

APPENDIX 9 (Authentic material 1)

Are there <u>many</u> people at the cinema?

There isn't <u>much</u> sugar in this coffe.

Is there ~~much~~ <u>much</u> orange juice in the jug?

Have you got <u>many</u> friend?

There aren't <u>much</u> biscuits in the packet.

We haven't got <u>many</u> bread.

Are there <u>many</u> shops in the street?

There (isn't) ~~much many~~ pepeers in the soap.

Communication

3 Fill in the phrases in the list.

- How much is it
- That would be great
- Would you like some tea
- Would you like something to drink
- Can I have an ice cream

1) Can I have an ice cream please?

Thank you.

2) How much is it... ?

Yes, of course.

It's £ 1.20.

3) Would you like something to drink Steve?

4) Would you like some tea ?

How about a coffee?

Yes, please.

Not really.

5) That would be great.

121
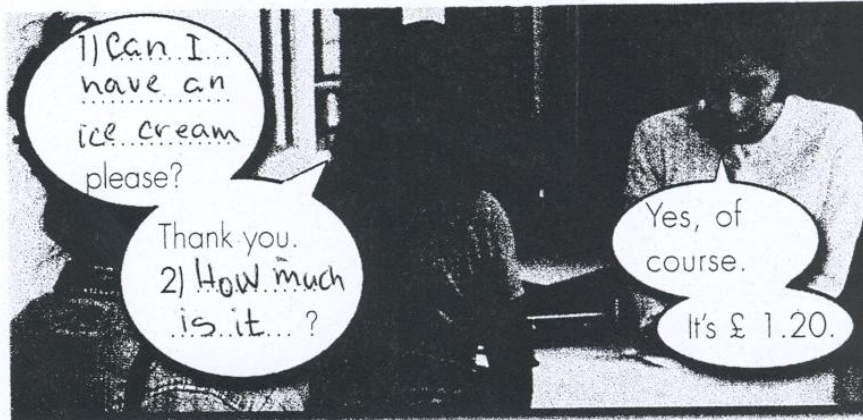
APPENDIX 11 (Authentic material 3)

The traditional dishes in the Czech Republic are sirloin and dumplings, pork and cabbel.
I think people prefer eating out, beacuse ~~some~~ some people have alot of work, hence some people eat in restaurant, fastfood or canteen. ~~But~~ I prefer eat in home beacuse I like food made by my mum.
My favourite food is chips, fried cheese and ketchup.
I think fastfood is popular in our country, beacuse it's fast and tasty. I like it, too.

APPENDIX 12 (Authentic material 4)

Fast food / Restaurant

The ordinary restaurant is for me better than
fast food because it's more comfortable
You can sit there behind the big tables with
your friends. But it's more expensive.
And when you hurry, than is for you
better fast food. Food in restaurant is
the healthly. Some people eats in fast food
because its tasty. But its not good
for thyr health. In food from fast-food
is much salt an oil. In restaurant is
pretty atmosphere because its spacious.
There are many restaurants in
and some fast foods too.

A town mentioned in the last sentence was deleted in order to respect learner's privacy
since research was carried out in the mentioned town.

APPENDIX 13 (Authentic material 5)

Robin is the best acher in the forest.
Robin get out water.
Robin ask carry across river Faire Fuck.
Fair Fuck throw Robin across the river.
Fair Fuck join men of Sheywood.
Robin ask fary Fuck join him his men.

APPENDIX 14 (Authentic material 6)

Summer - shorts, T-shirt, cap, dress, shirt, hot, Ice cream

APPENDIX 15 (Authentic material 7)

sunshine	swimming	sea	sports
hot	camping	beach	T-shirts
storm	traveling	pyjamas	dress
	child camps	flowers	shirt
	sports	graw	cap
	relaxing		sandals

Summer

10 sentences

My favourite season is summer.
In summer ~~a~~ is usually go to the beach ~~and~~.
In summer it is hot and ~~sun sunny~~.
sometimes there are storms.
In summer it is sunny.
Traditional clothes are dress, short, sandals and
a T-shirt
People likes ice-cream, because it is hot.
I swimming in the sea and relax.
Traditihional activities in summer are
volleibal, swimming, ~~and~~ camping and travelling
to the sea.
I like summer because it is sunny and hot
and there are holidays.

APPENDIX 17 (Authentic material 9)

It is sunny weather today, small misty and windy, 17 degree Celsius, Best weather is not. Put on jacket, T-shirt, trousers, shoes and cap.

A **Complete the words.**
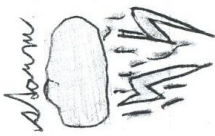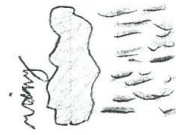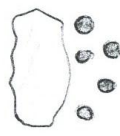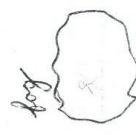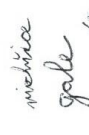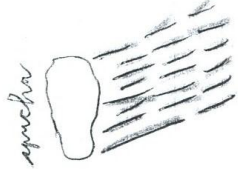
1 Mike's at work. He's wearing t*rouser*s, a s▓▓▓t, a ja*cke*t and sh▓

2 Judith isn't at work today. She's wearing j*ea*ns and a T-sh*i*rt.

3 Elena's in the office. She's wearing a s▓▓▓t and a j*ump*er.

4 It's a very cold day. Eric's wearing a s*car*f, a h*a*t, g*love*s and a c▓▓

5 Julia's at a party. She's wearing a d*res*s.

B **Complete the crossword.**

1 something you wear on your legs that are usually blue
2 something you wear on your feet
3 something you wear on top of your other clothes when you go out
4 something you wear on your hands when it's cold
5 something you wear round your neck when it's cold
6 something you wear on your legs
7 something you wear on your head when it's cold

lightning

thunder

rainbow

hot ice

mirage frost

open mist

storm

hail

fog

machine gale

block snowflake

It's wind. It's windy day.

rainy It's ~~rainy~~ It's a rainy day.

There are In the sky

It's a cloudy day.

It's drizzle

It's shower.

drizzle sudden

showers sudden

heavy rain It's heavy raining.

now
Are you Listening you radio?.

He's dont reding six lenguajis.

~~In now moment~~

I wotching tv in this moment.

We don's going on holliday every summer.

Do you diding kitchen every day?

Raining?!? We drive autobus.

Do you making bad every day

26/ Practice

Tom is reading a comic.
I having a shower.
Jane is doing her homework.
Mrs Hill is ironing et the clothes.
Ben is cleaning his teeth.
My brother is watching TV.
We are going to school.
Mrs Brown is washing up.
They are seting the table.
You are wearing a footbal shirt
Rebecca is runing
Mandy is writing a latter.

27/ Practice

1 Jane is playing tennis.
1 Is she playing tennis?
2 We're going to the cinema.
2 Are we going to the cinema.
3 Mrs Brown is making the beds.
3 Is an Mrs Brown making the beds?
4 Ben is washing up.
4 Is Ben washing up?
5) Jon are doing your homework.

17 Choose the correct item. 4

1 They .... playing basketball right now.
   A isn't   (B) aren't   C don't

2 Sally usually .... to work.
   A walks   B walk   (C) is walking

3 The children always .... to bed at 8:00 in the evening.
   A goes   B go   (C) are going

4 Are you .... your homework at the moment?
   A do   (B) doing   C does

5 Can I have .... tea, please?
   (A) any   B some   C an

6 Bill .... from 10 to 6 every day.
   A work   (B) works   C is working

7 How .... do you go to the cinema?
   (A) often   B usually   C much

8 Tom .... like watching TV.
   A isn't   (B) doesn't   C don't

9 Helen .... her new coat today.
   (A) is wearing   B wears   (C) don't wear

10 The sun shines .... the summer.
   (A) on   B in   C at

11 Jim is cooking dinner ....
   A every evening   (B) now   C sometimes

12 "........... 's your best friend?" "Mike."
   A What   (B) Who   C Whose

Summer is my Favourite Season
by Paul Greene

Summer is great. It's my favourite season because it's hot and 1) .....sunny....... .

My friends and I like going to the 2) ...beach....... . All summer, we

3) ...swimming... in the sparkling blue water, go 4) ...sailing......... or play

volleyball. At noon, we put on our 5) ...shorts......... , T-shirts and 6) ...caps...... ,

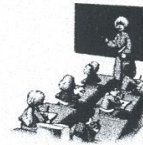and go to a café for something to eat. We eat lots of fresh 7) ...fruit............ and ice

cream and 8) ...drinking...... lots of orange juice!

I feel so happy in the summer, especially because there's no 9) ...school.......... !

I Love Winter
by Lucy Warren

Every year, I can't wait for winter to come to the French Alps. I think it's the best season!

With high mountains all around, I go 1) ...skiing.... almost every day. Every year, I

take skiing lessons, and this year I'm learning to snowboard as well! The weather is sometimes

2) ...cloudy... , but it is usually bright and sunny. Even when the sun is out, it is very

3) ...cold...... ! I wear ski pants and a 4) ...jacket... , gloves, a hat and

two pairs of woollen 5) ...socks....... !

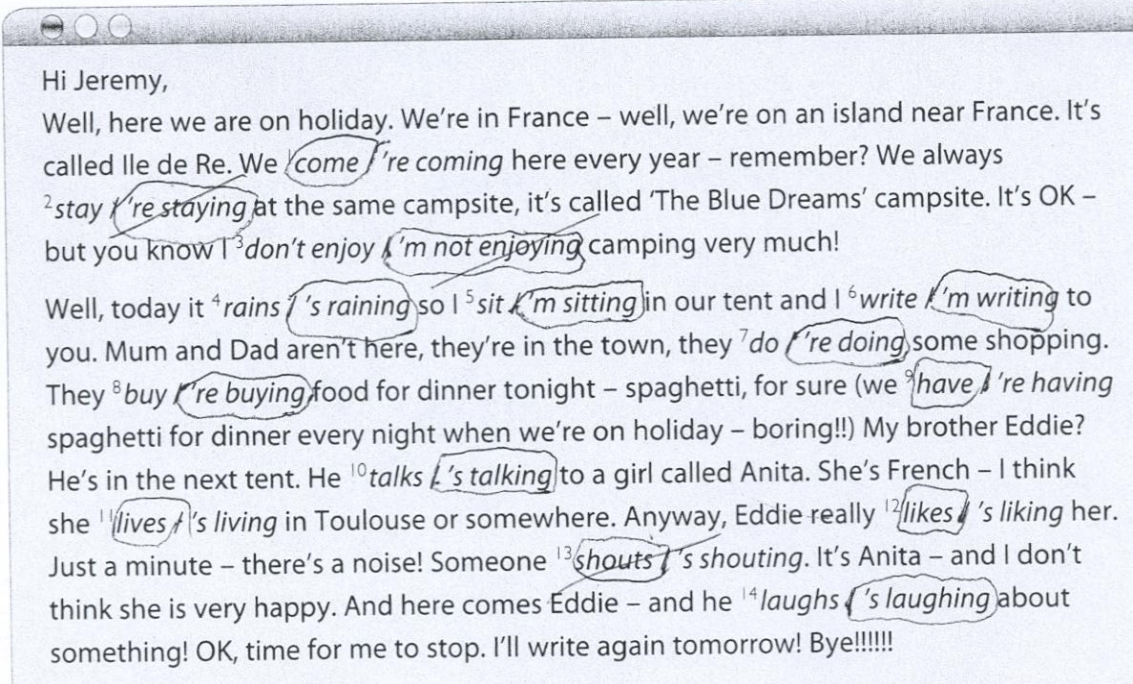After a long day of skiing, I can't wait to ski back home, sit by the 6) ...fireplace,

have a cup of hot chocolate and get warm. It's a great feeling!

Circle the correct answer.

Hi Jeremy,

Well, here we are on holiday. We're in France – well, we're on an island near France. It's called Ile de Re. We ¹*come* / *'re coming* here every year – remember? We always ²*stay* / *'re staying* at the same campsite, it's called 'The Blue Dreams' campsite. It's OK – but you know I ³*don't enjoy* / *'m not enjoying* camping very much!

Well, today it ⁴*rains* / *'s raining* so I ⁵*sit* / *'m sitting* in our tent and I ⁶*write* / *'m writing* to you. Mum and Dad aren't here, they're in the town, they ⁷*do* / *'re doing* some shopping. They ⁸*buy* / *'re buying* food for dinner tonight – spaghetti, for sure (we ⁹*have* / *'re having* spaghetti for dinner every night when we're on holiday – boring!!) My brother Eddie? He's in the next tent. He ¹⁰*talks* / *'s talking* to a girl called Anita. She's French – I think she ¹¹*lives* / *'s living* in Toulouse or somewhere. Anyway, Eddie really ¹²*likes* / *'s liking* her. Just a minute – there's a noise! Someone ¹³*shouts* / *'s shouting*. It's Anita – and I don't think she is very happy. And here comes Eddie – and he ¹⁴*laughs* / *'s laughing* about something! OK, time for me to stop. I'll write again tomorrow! Bye!!!!!!

APPENDIX 25 (Authentic material 17)

I am   , I am 12 years
old. May, I live in the Czech Republich
in   I like sports and computer. /
I don't like school,

Learner's name and hometown were deleted from the text to protect learner's privacy since research was carried out in the mentioned town.

Communication

3 Fill in the missing questions.

Good morning, madam. Can 1) *I help you* .... ?

Yes please. I'd like a dress, please.

2) *What size are you* .... ?

I'm size 12.

How 3) *about this one* .... ?

No thanks. I don't like brown. Can I have this one, please?

4) *Which one* .... ?

The light blue one.

Here you are.

£25.

That's very nice. 5) *How much is this dress* .... ?