

Received: 29 January 2024

Accepted: 15 September 2024

Assessment Literacy in Practice: A Study of Formative Writing Assessment Methods Among English Teachers in Wattala International Schools.

Suhaib Fathima Hafsa & Upeksha Rathnasena

fhsuhaib@gmail.com, upeksha.r@slit.lk

*Faculty of Humanities and Sciences, Sri Lanka Institute of Information Technology, Malabe,
Sri Lanka.*

Abstract

Research into the technicalities of Writing Assessment Literacy (WAL) is an expanding domain with many scholars stressing that its complex practical elements have not been fully developed in both pre- and in-service teachers due to oversights in teacher education and professional development. This study used survey data (n=20) and interviews (n=5) to investigate the practices of English language teachers related to the selection of formative writing assessments and the use of such assessment data from international schools in the Wattala Divisional Secretariat. The results complement existing findings that a majority of teachers mirror summative assessments in the practice of formative writing assessment, encounter challenges in the use and understanding of rubrics and feedback, and face limitations in the effective use of assessment results. The study concludes that specialized training in theory and practice related to WAL is needed to broaden the scope of classroom assessment methods used by international school teachers with focus on alternative assessment, transparent feedback practices, and purposeful collaboration between educators.

Keywords: Assessment for learning, Assessment practices, Classroom assessment, Formative assessment, Teacher practices, Writing assessment literacy.

Introduction

Studies in the field of educational assessment assert that “sound assessment” remains detached from “the day-to-day practice of instruction”, suggesting that the neglect of such an essential correlation has led to “unacceptably low levels of assessment literacy among practicing teachers” and “inaccurate” student assessment leading to “ineffective feedback” (Stiggins, 2001, p. 5). Foundational literature on classroom assessment uncovered that teachers resorted to assessing student abilities that were “easy to measure” and demonstrated an emphasis on “task completion” over “quality of

the work completed” (Weiner & Kukla, 1974; Whitmer, 1983, as cited in Stiggins, 2001, p. 8). Additional research contends that “assessment... should integrate with teaching”, highlighting the notion that they “inform and improve” one another over time, which consequently raises the debate of adequate training for teachers (Malone, 2011).

Moreover, pre- and in-service teacher education programs experience shortcomings in the level of integration of assessment training caused by limitations of time, resources and distance (Malone, 2011; Fulcher, 2012; Crusan et al., 2016, as cited in Berry et al., 2019). Scholars have consistently advocated for more effective development of teachers’ knowledge and skills to plan, design, score and interpret language assessments to facilitate the development of logical judgements about their students (Popham, 2004; Taylor, 2010; White, 2009, as cited in Crusan et al., 2016). The disregard for writing skills in the classroom has been a direct result of “inadequate training in the teaching and assessment of writing” since “the field of second language writing” has neglected the preparation of English language writing teachers in favor of the students’ learning of writing (Dempsey et al., 2009; Hirvela & Belcher, 2007, as cited in Crusan et al., 2016, p. 44).

In the context of the Sri Lankan education system, a review of evaluation reports published for the English Language examinations of 2018 reveals a severely low facility of just 6% in writing with 60% to 90% of students scoring only 50% or less for an individual writing question in both Paper I and Paper II (Department of Examination,

2018). The marked gap between teaching and assessment was evident in the Sri Lankan context through a study of English language assessment in Sri Lanka, which focused on the curriculum, textbooks, and perceptions of what Language Assessment Literacy (LAL) entailed (Brunfaut & Green, 2019a). The findings of the study illustrated significant attention placed exclusively on the teaching practices of teachers, while the testing practices of stakeholders at the level of summative standardized examinations were considered discreet. There is an apparent oversight in focusing on preparing teachers to function as assessors within the classroom, rather than only as disseminators of knowledge.

Furthermore, the traditional roots of the local curriculum - which connote foundational deficits and raise the question of enhancing teacher education programs - have been observed in the “academic, content-heavy, and lecture-based approach” established in Sri Lankan National Colleges of Education (NCoEs) which provide professional development for teachers (Indrarathne & McCulloch, 2022). The findings of these studies, and the results of the local standardized tests reveal the systemic shortcomings in pre- and in-service teacher development, as well as the approaches employed for teaching and assessing writing skills among students.

Across various studies of assessment literacy (AL) in general, and Language Assessment Literacy (LAL) specifically, there is compelling evidence that teachers are substantially underprepared for undertaking the processes for classroom assessment effectively. While LAL has received significant attention in international research in recent

years, the exploration of formative assessment practices including those undertaken in the English writing classroom within Sri Lankan international schools has received limited attention.

The objective of this study was to investigate the writing assessment literacy among English language teachers in terms of formative, classroom-based assessment practices, in international schools in the Wattala Divisional Secretariat with a focus on teacher-driven choices on formative assessment design, implementation and the application of gathered data in informing future practice. Therefore, this study intended to answer the following research questions:

- a) What choices do English teachers in Sri Lankan international schools make when designing tasks for formative writing assessments?
- b) How do Sri Lankan international school English teachers use the data from formative assessments to inform feedback and make changes to continued practice?

Background to research

The Sri Lankan school system consists of subcategories of government (state) schools, government-approved private schools (government assisted schools), and international schools, the latter of which are the subject of this study (National Education Commission, 2024). “International schools” in Sri Lanka has been defined as “co-educational, fee-levying private schools”

teaching foreign and local curricula using English as the medium of instruction with great diversity in academic and administrative operations (Wettewa, 2016, p. 70).

Against this backdrop and a dearth of research that concentrates on international schools, attention must turn to the assessment literacy of educators within these institutions, which is the cornerstone of a teachers’ ability to design and conduct assessments. However, research suggests that educators view assessment as “a necessary evil” as opposed to a “central aspect of teaching”, while actively delaying considerations about “how they will assess their students until forced to do so” or overlooking knowledge of assessment altogether (Weigle, 2007, p. 194). This observation is consistent with the findings of one investigation of summative assessment literacy conducted among English teachers from all school types where respondents admitted to limiting writing tasks or avoiding them where possible when setting assessments (De Silva, 2021). Furthermore, an individual international school teacher within the same study confessed to inflating grades by subjective marking since student performance is a criterion for promotions (De Silva, 2021). This indicates that even the marking of standardized assessments does not consistently align with established rubrics or marking scheme benchmarks and validates the concerns about limited assessment literacy.

The introduction of School Based Assessments (SBA) as part of the standardized assessment framework of the Sri Lankan National Curriculum intended to support teachers in implementing curriculum-directed formative assessments across all subject classrooms.

Despite the fact that SBAs encourage performance-based tasks such as assignments, projects, exhibitions/ presentations, and tasks which could lead to ipsative-referenced evaluations including double-entry journals and portfolios, a survey study by the National Institute of Education (NIE) concluded that teachers more frequently employed SBAs in summative contexts with 77% of teacher respondents conducting the assessments monthly, and 60% doing so at the end of a unit (NIE, 2015). The survey in question also uncovered that writing-inclined and traditional-adjacent assessments such as short written tests, assignments, open-book examinations and quizzes were the most popular strategies implemented, whereas discussion panels, projects, exhibitions, debates, and double-entry journals were the least used strategies (NIE, 2015). This exposes a disinclination among teachers to implement and evaluate a range of formative assessments and their associated marking and feedback routines.

Similar findings emerged in another survey-based investigation of the SBA literacy of English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers in Sri Lanka. A sample of ESL teachers registered as GCE (O/L) marking examiners with the Department of Examinations self-reported on “teacher-perceived assessment skill” and “teacher assessment practices” (Wijeratne, 2021, p. 115). Overall, the conclusions indicate shortcomings in assessment literacy including teachers’ inclination to use traditional assessment methods over the “more than 30 prescribed LTA (Learning, Teaching & Assessment) Modalities”; although teachers acknowledging the value of “communicating assessment

results to students” represents a prominent observation within the study (Wijeratne, 2021, p. 131). Listening and speaking assessment literacy was also explored in another study which suggested a lack of pre- and in-service teacher development of these competency-specific assessment skills, largely due to these skills being overlooked in summative evaluations, potentially culminating in static classroom practices for assessing these macro-skills (Munasinghe, 2020).

Given this background, the fundamental aim of this study was to utilize the methods of investigation and analysis of research related to various aspects of WAL to investigate the practices in classroom writing assessment of international school teachers. The insights gained in this study have the potential to provide a foundational basis for future research on teacher attitudes towards assessment literacy and assessment practices, and to inform mechanisms for professional development decisions in Sri Lankan international schools as educational reforms move to shape government oversight and policy implementation for these institutions.

Literature Review

The attempts to define Language Assessment Literacy (LAL) have undergone significant evolution, and recent literature proposes that it encompasses a need for different levels of knowledge, namely: (1) knowledge of theory, (2) technical skills, (3) principles and concepts, (4) language pedagogy, (5) sociocultural values, (6) local practices, (7) personal beliefs/attitudes, and (8) scores and decision making (Taylor, 2013, p. 410).

Popham (2011) additionally provides a “working definition” of assessment literacy can

be considered “an individual’s *understandings* of the *fundamental assessment concepts and procedures* deemed likely to influence educational decisions” (p. 267). Finally, Crusan (2021) outlines writing assessment literacy (WAL) as:

The ability of teachers to create effective assignments and their accompanying scoring tools, to understand the reason for assessing their students’ writing, to recognize the value of student self-assessment, to identify why, how, and when to use data gathered from assessments, and to carry out their assessment duties ethically and conscientiously (Crusan et al., as cited in Crusan, 2021, p. 431).

As a specialized domain within LAL and more specifically within second language assessment, guiding texts on developing the WAL of the practicing English language teacher include an awareness of facets such as the various elements of writing – orthography, grammar, content, writing mechanics and register – and the “construct or ability” selected for assessment (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018, p. 228).

Formative assessment as a subcategory of assessment was initially interpreted as “encompassing all those activities undertaken by teachers [and] students, which provide information to use as feedback” to the teaching-learning process (Black & Wiliam, 1998, pp. 7-8). Clapham (2000) further proposes the

existence of “a distinction between ‘testers’ who design and deliver... tests and ‘assessors’ who prepare real-life communication tasks for their students”, with teachers clearly belonging to the class of ‘assessors’ involved in formative assessment (as cited in Berry et al., 2019).

Currently, Assessment for Learning (AFL), a branch of formative assessment comprises informal practice confined to the classroom which requires less structure and does not entail a need for technical levels of data literacy to analyze data collected from standardized testing (Schildkamp et al. 2020). The effectiveness of AFL is, however, dependent on teacher abilities with knowledge and skill development needs in both the most basic domains which include cognitive-domain understanding, question formulation, and pedagogy; as well as the more complex domains which involve understanding assessment bias, design and implementation of assessments, and inferencing data gathered from assessments (Bennet, 2011).

AFL’s effectiveness in supporting essential adjustments and adaptations to the teaching-learning process involves the implementation of a range of strategies such as “questioning techniques, feedback without grades, peer-assessment, self-assessment, and formative use of summative assessment (Wiliam 2007, as cited in De Luca & Volante, 2016, p. 19). Historical research into the implications of implementing robust formative practices for student performance in standardized tests revealed “an empirical connection between the quality of a teacher’s classroom assessment and student’s achievement... [in] standardized tests” (Stiggins, 1999, as cited in Mertler & Campbell, 2005, p. 4).

Studies of teacher writing assessment literacy have both confirmed and rejected assertions about the shortcomings of pre- and in-service teacher education programs. Investigations of teacher practices at both secondary and tertiary levels uncovered challenges related to teachers bearing internalized judgements of assessment as summative in nature, and reflecting on the purpose of assessment as informing practice, along with an absence of professional dialogue and teacher collaboration to “disseminate good assessment practices to colleagues”, the use of rubrics, and institutional barriers to using alternative writing assessments (Tayyebi et al., 2022; Lam, 2019; Crusan et al., 2016). It has also been established that assessment illiterate teachers displayed an inability to produce effective classroom assessments, or to interpret them accurately, which in conjunction with a lack of theoretical and practical knowledge, and inadequate training, contributed to poor practices and low learner outcomes (Mellati & Khademi, 2018).

Methodology

This study employed mixed method research with the quantitative element being cross-sectional survey research through a self-administered online survey involving twenty teachers, and the qualitative aspect emerging through semi-structured interviews with five of the teachers selected from the survey respondents. The choice of mixed method research took into consideration the use of interview data to supplement the cursory survey data, and to improve the validity of the study by accommodating the need for an interview to compensate for the “caution... warranted” in a self-administered questionnaire where results can be distorted

due to participants having “a more positive view about their assessment knowledge” (Crusan et al., 2016, p. 53).

The participants were volunteers from a set of eight international schools in the Wattala Divisional Secretariat. The teachers were chosen using purposive expert sampling to isolate English language teachers within the selected schools, while homogeneous sampling was utilized to interview a subset (25%) of the total surveyed. While the respondents reported a range of experience levels, the majority were aged between 21 and 34 years and had fewer than three years of experience in teaching. In terms of the highest level of education, the greatest numbers of respondents fell into two categories: the secondary school level (35%) and Bachelor’s degree level (40%), with many being teachers of cohorts that range from grades six to nine. On the basis of gender, the respondents exhibited a 3:1 female to male ratio which aligns with the 2021 Ministry of Education census of government school teacher populations (Ministry of Education, 2021).

The survey contained 12 multiple-select choice items related to classroom formative practice while the interviews, which were conducted in both face-to-face and video-call formats, contained 10 items which elicited practice-related information. The survey was analyzed using descriptive statistics to identify general trends in the sample, while the interview data was analyzed using thematic analysis from deductive in vivo coding to categorize stated practices.

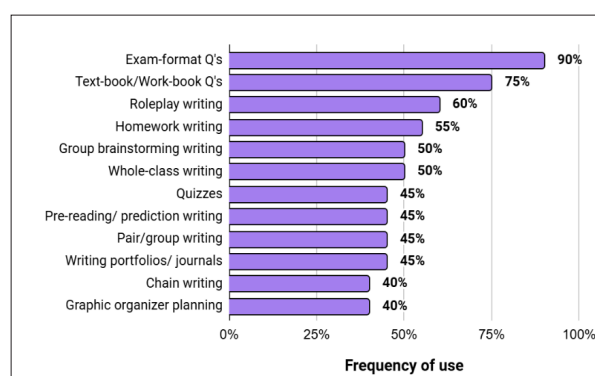
The dataset is secondary data from a larger study investigating attitudes, knowledge and practices of the sample of teachers.

Results and Discussion

The practices of teachers in formative assessment were elicited through both the questionnaire which uncovered information related to the types and purpose of assessment, elements of writing assessed, adequate preparation, feedback delivery, and use of rubrics; and the interviews where supplemental information to the responses of the questionnaire were obtained, including the teachers' application of rubrics in assessing writing, how results of assessment were used, and whether assessment data influenced future teaching and assessment. The results demonstrate that formal testing focus as a limiting factor in AFL is evident in the teachers' preferred choice of formative assessments (Fig. 1).

Figure 1.

Types of writing assessment used.



The overarching power of assessment as a gateway to testing is evident in the predominance of exam-format questions, textbook or work-book questions, as well as roleplay writing tasks which are characteristic of writing items in locally based standardized testing. Similar practices have been observed in a study of formative assessment practices among government school teachers in Sri Lanka, where teachers spend “more than 90% of their instructional time testing students

through questioning... based on lower-order thinking” while higher-order thinking necessary for “creativity and metacognition” is overlooked (Sedere et al., 2014). Additionally, the choices in formative assessment types also mirror the results from the aforementioned studies of SBA implementation and literacy in the average Sri Lankan classroom (Wijeratne, 2021; NIE, 2015).

Teachers also appear to focus on writing genres and writing knowledge that are directly related to “high stakes” standardized tests where “test results have a significant impact” on students, schools and their personnel (Sikka et al., 2007, p. 240). This is supported by the highest priority being given to essays, letter writing, short answers, picture descriptions and articles, as well as knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and writing mechanics (Figs. 2 and 3).

Figure 2.

Type of writing knowledge assessed.

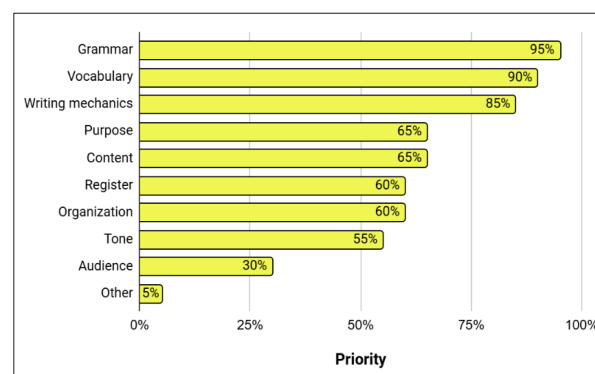
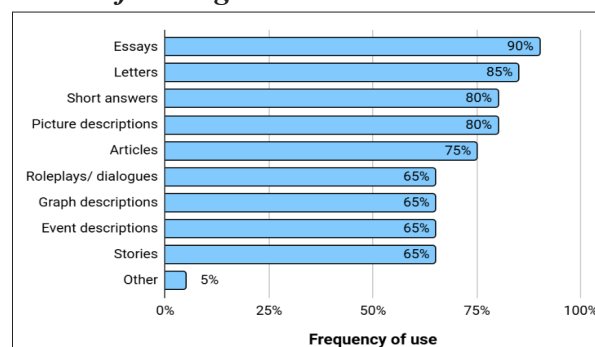


Figure 3.

Genre of writing assessed.



“implementing strategies and practices that go against their beliefs” and decreases morale while allowing the “deprofessionalization of teachers” (Abrams et al., 2003, as cited in Sikka et al., 2007, p.240). In terms of language aspect or skill, all the teachers interviewed also agreed that one or more elements were connected, although it leaned heavily towards grammar, punctuation, structures or vocabulary, with only one subject noting the use of listening as a lead-in to writing. The reported types of support provided to students using the results of formative assessment (Table 1) also reinforce these findings. In conjunction with the responses presented in Figure 1, the teachers interviewed highlighted issues in the use of alternative assessments in the classroom.

Table 1.
Support from formative assessment.

Standardized test preparation	18 (90%)
Objective achievement remediation	9 (45%)
Strength/ weakness exploration	15 (75%)

* Parentheses represent the percentages with respect to 20.

While two out of the five teachers fully practiced peer-assessment and feedback in the classroom by having students present written work to classmates for suggestions (“*if you give it to a peer... they also learn*”), there was a low prevalence in the use of writing portfolios and journals in continuous, ipsative referenced assessment. The existing literature for alternative assessments recommends developing learners’ self-assessment strategies to foster accountability and “higher-order thinking skills”, which are facilitated through success criteria present in grading scales (Singh et al., 2022).

Table 2.
Feedback practices of teachers.

Time frame for feedback	Class time	19 (95%)
	Interval/ Free period	6 (30%)
	New period	9 (45%)
Method of giving feedback	Rubric scores	5 (25%)
	Written notes (task margin)	14 (70%)
	Verbal comment	15 (75%)
Form of engage- ment for feedback	Whole class	14 (70%)
	Individual (one-on-one)	12 (60%)
	Small groups (similar issues)	6 (30%)

* Parentheses represent the percentages with respect to 20.

As illustrated in Table 2., respondents further reported a greater focus on feedback during class time as verbal or written comments to the whole class which refute the recommendations for feedback practices in informal assessment such as “teacher questioning and probing, small group... [and] individual interaction [with the teacher]” and learner collaboration, but are consistent with formal feedback practices like “comments on learners’... written work” (Rea-Dickins, 2001, p.434). While only 25% of survey respondents reported the use of rubric scores as feedback, 55% maintained that students were included in the planning of rubrics for writing assessments (Table 3). Such contrasting responses also emerged during interviews with all the participants facing issues in responding to rubric-related questions which were remedied by presenting them with sample rubrics, leading to responses like “*I don’t use this*”, and “*I read it from outside and make my own*”.

Table 3.
Areas for learner inclusion.

Solving assessment related problems	17 (85%)
Resolving lesson delivery issues	16 (80%)
Assessment rubric planning	11 (55%)

* Parentheses represent the percentages with respect to 20.

To intensify the general misunderstandings of the purpose of grading scales, of the three teachers who acknowledge an awareness of rubric use in standardized tests, two stated that they modify existing rubrics for personal, classroom use, rather than create assessment-informed, success criteria to allow for student peer- and self-assessments. This approach substantiates documented findings where contradictions in knowledge and applications of rubrics were observed (Kvasova et al., 2019).

Despite the reservations from respondents regarding separate time slots for personal feedback or the use of small groups with similar issues, interviewees offered contradictory ideas about the desire to give immediate feedback by “*correct[ing] them on the spot*”, but also considering one-to-one support as important by having “*the child sit with*” them or having weaker students “*come early in the morning... [to] start from the beginning*”.

A major lapse in the feedback mechanism was the teachers’ view of high proficiency learners as not requiring guidance or suggestion for further improvement, but as a resource for supporting low proficiency learners. One teacher stated that he “*give[s]... more attention to the weak students*” and wishes to “*train someone else to go and teach*”, while another disclosed that he lets student groups work together so “*the weak ones will copy the best ones*”. With regards to poor learner

performance, the interview participants did not offer considerations for assessment validity, reliability and fairness, though this element of self-reflection is considered essential within AFL practice (Lopez & Bernal, 2009). The interviews also uncovered an absence of integration of writing assessment into all stages of the lesson with “teaching about writing” and “practicing writing” taking up approximately equal, but separate halves of a lesson. This corroborates findings of active beliefs that “teaching is the overall reason for teachers to be in the classroom” over the fact that “assessment... is part of that teaching” (Berry et al., 2019, p. 120).

A final important detail the researcher hoped to elicit in questioning was the socio-emotional dimension of WAL (Schildkamp et al., 2020). None of the interviewees considered collaboration with colleagues as a viable option for overcoming challenges in designing assessments but provided options for pre-planning (“*if we plan stuff and come, it might work out*”) to overcome time constraints and stated that students can improve “*with extra practice*”. This exposes the fact that formative assessments, and consequent requirements for additional support are not actively integrated into lesson planning stages.

Overall, the teachers in the sample demonstrated moderate levels of knowledge in conducting writing assessments, at least in the use of summative assessments in formative conditions while issues in practice, which have been substantiated by previous research and was evident in the current study, may have been precipitated by the “guidance available to teachers” being “limited to generic principles” (Ven der Kleij et al., 2018;

Elwood, 2006, as cited in Schildkamp et al., 2020, p. 3). Additionally, a teacher who regularly cited school policies which expect practice to occur “*within the framework*” based on predetermined levels of achievement demonstrated a greater breadth of WAL but inadvertently divulged an absence of standardized practices in international schools. This indicates that institutional guidelines may contribute, albeit to a limited degree, to deficits in WAL development.

Conclusions

The results of this research reveal gaps in knowledge and skills, as well as a need to develop AFL practices among English language teachers in international schools, so that writing assessments are exploited for their dynamic potential to inform teaching in a way that enhances the on-going learning process. The conclusions drawn here are consistent with other research advocating more training for pre- and in-service teachers to carry out AFL effectively, even when possessing ample linguistic and pedagogical knowledge since teachers “lack the competence” to do it well despite its accounting for a large segment of their professional praxis (Valizadeh, 2019). As recommended by researchers, teacher education programs must enhance the capacity of pre- and in-service teachers to be assessment literate to ensure knowledge and skills in planning, designing, scoring and interpreting language assessments, as well as give them the confidence to apply their knowledge effectively in the classroom.

Moreover, the competency to employ more transparent forms of evaluation (rubrics) and carry out alternative assessments such as School-Based Assessments (SBAs), peer-

assessment and feedback, and portfolio assessments should also be given attention to improve student understanding of success criteria and task expectations and develop autonomy through self-assessment strategies. The prioritization of formative assessment has been recognized and undertaken in Sri Lanka by the new National Educational Reforms (Presidential Task Force on Sri Lanka’s Educational Affairs, 2020, as cited in Indrarathne & McCulloch, 2022). It is the ideal moment to support educational stakeholders by supporting teachers to evolve through professional development that fosters assessment literacy and cultivates collaboration among teachers by helping them recognize the professional community as a resource, while ensuring that the international schools also benefit from inclusive policy changes that standardize WAL development and practice in the public school system.

By highlighting gaps and strengths in the abilities of teachers to select, design, score, evaluate, and interpret the results of formative writing assessments, this study provides complementary evidence that suggests the need for a structured and rigorous approach to preparing pre- and in-service teachers to be assessment literate within classroom settings.

References

- Bennett, R. E. (2011). Formative assessment: A critical review. *Assessment in Education: Principles, policy and practice* 18(1), 5-25. DOI: 10.1080/0969594X.2010.513678.
- Berry, V., Sheehan, S., & Munro, S. (2019). What does language assessment literacy mean to teachers?. *ELT Jour-*

- nal, 73(2), 113-123. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccy055>.
- Black, P. & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and Classroom Learning. *Assessment in Education*, 5(1), 7-74, DOI: [10.1080/0969595980050102](https://doi.org/10.1080/0969595980050102).
- Brown, H. D. & Abeywickrama, P. (2018). Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices (3rd Edition). Pearson Education ESL.
- Brunfaut, T. & Green, R. (2019a). Research paper on current English language assessment in Sri Lanka and comparison with the larger region. British Council TRANSFORM programme: English language assessment in Sri Lanka. Sri Lanka: British Council. Retrieved January 20, 2025. https://www.britishcouncil.lk/sites/default/files/elassess_output_2-report_on_current_national_english_language_assessment_in_sri_lanka_the_region_brunfautgreen_003.pdf
- Crusan, D. (2021). Writing Assessment Literacy. In: Mohebbi, H., Coombe, C. (eds) Research Questions in Language Education and Applied Linguistics. Springer Texts in Education. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-79143-8_77.
- Crusan, D., Plakans, L., Gebril, A. (2016). Writing Assessment Literacy: Surveying second language teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and practices. *Assessing Writing*, 28(), 43-56. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2016.03.001>.
- Department of Examinations. (2018). *G.C.E. O/L Examination – 2018 Evaluation Report (31-English)*. Colombo, Sri Lanka. Department of Examinations. Retrieved January 20, 2025 from [https://doenets.lk/images/resources/EVRE/G.C.E.%20\(O-L\)%20Evaluation%20Report-English_1600346465725.pdf](https://doenets.lk/images/resources/EVRE/G.C.E.%20(O-L)%20Evaluation%20Report-English_1600346465725.pdf).
- DeLuca, C. & Volante, L. (2016). Assessment for Learning in Teacher Education Programs: Navigating the Juxtaposition of Theory and Praxis. *Journal of the International Society for Teacher Education*, 20(1), 19-31. <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:158329155>.
- De Silva, R. (2021). Assessment Literacy and Assessment Practices of Teachers of English in a South-Asian Context: Issues and Possible Washback. In B. Lantaigne et al. (eds.), *Challenges in language testing around the world*. 433-446. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-33-4232-3_31.
- Indrarathne, B. & McCulloch, S. (2022). *English language teaching and learning in Sri Lanka: Policies and practices in the school education system*. British Council.
- Kvasova, O. G., Kavytska, T., & Osidak, V. (2019). Investigation of Writing Assessment Literacy of Ukrainian University Teachers. *Ars Linguodidacticae*, 1(4), 10-17. <https://doi.org/10.17721/2663-0303.2019.4.02>.

- Lam, R. (2019). Teacher assessment literacy: Surveying knowledge, conceptions and practices of classroom-based writing assessment in Hong Kong. *Systems* 81, 78-89. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.01.006>.
- López, A., & Bernal, R. (2009). Language testing in Colombia: A call for more teacher education and teacher training in language assessment. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 11(2), 55-70. Retrieved January 23, 2025, from <https://www.redalyc.org/pdf/1692/169216301005.pdf>.
- Malone, M. E. (2011). Assessment literacy for language educators. *CAL Digest*. Retrieved August 4, 2023. <https://www.cal.org/wpcontent/uploads/2022/05/AssessmentLiteracyforLanguageEducators.pdf>.
- Mellati, M., & Khademi, M. (2018). Exploring Teachers' Assessment Literacy: Impact on Learners' Writing Achievements and Implications for Teacher Development. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(6). <https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2018v43n6.1>.
- Munasinghe, H. K. (2020). Language Assessment Literacy of Teachers of English: Implications in assessing Listening and Speaking skills of students in the classroom. *Proceedings of the Sri Lankan English Language Teacher Educator Conference, Sri Lanka*. The British Council and Ministry of Education of Sri Lanka. Retrieved August 27, 2025, from https://www.british-council.lk/sites/default/files/4_has-antha_kuruppu.pdf.
- National Education Commission. (2024). *Manual of quality assurance framework and mechanism for international schools and other private schools registered under the Companies Act or Business Names Ordinance* (ISBN: 978-955-9448-22-8). Retrieved August 26, 2025. [RP_2024_Quality-Assurance-FW-and-Mechanism-for-International-Other-Private-Schools-Registered-1.pdf](https://www.nec.gov.lk/Portals/0/Quality-Assurance-FW-and-Mechanism-for-International-Other-Private-Schools-Registered-1.pdf).
- National Institute of Education. (2015). *An Investigation into the Nature of the School Based Assessment Programme Implemented in GCE (O/L) Classes: Interim Report*. Retrieved August 25, 2025. https://nie.lk/pdf/files/other/SBA_GCEOL.pdf.
- Popham, W. J. (2011). Assessment Literacy Overlooked: A Teacher Educator's Confession. *The Teacher Educator*, 46(4), 265-273. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08878730.2011.605048>.
- Rea-Dickins, P. (2001). Mirror, mirror on the wall: identifying processes of classroom assessment. *Language Testing*, 18(4), 429-462. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532201018004>.
- Schildkamp, K., van der Kleij, F.M., Heitink, M.C., Kippers, W.B., & Veldkamp, B.P. (2020). Formative Assessment: A systematic review of critical teacher prerequisites for classroom practice. *International Journal of Educational Research*, (103). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2020.101602>.

- 27