Assessment of Academic Literacy
La evaluación de la alfabetización académica

Guzmán-Simón, Fernando; García-Jiménez, Eduardo
Universidad de Sevilla

Resumen

La alfabetización académica se ha convertido en uno de los objetivos de la Educación Superior, donde la escritura se transforma en una herramienta de aprendizaje. El Marco Español de Cualificaciones para la Educación Superior (MECES) gradúa los resultados de aprendizaje esperados en los estudiantes universitarios en relación a la alfabetización académica en los títulos oficiales de Grado, Máster y Doctorado. La evaluación de la alfabetización académica se plantea como una comunidad de discurso donde el objeto y objetivo, las tareas, las modalidades, los criterios y los estándares de evaluación se centran en el proceso de la escritura epistémica en un contexto académico. Una evaluación para el aprendizaje y la implicación de los estudiantes en los procesos de retroalimentación y proalimentación facilitarían su inclusión en una comunidad de discurso académico. En este trabajo se revisa el concepto de alfabetización académica y las perspectivas de investigación que lo sustentan, se analiza la naturaleza de la escritura académica y se despliegan los elementos que conforman un proceso de evaluación para el aprendizaje de la alfabetización académica desde la perspectiva de las comunidades de discurso académico. Finalmente, se ofrecen algunas orientaciones para afrontar la formación de la alfabetización académica de los estudiantes en la Universidad actual.

Palabras clave:

Evaluación para el aprendizaje, comunidad de discurso, alfabetización académica, educación superior

Abstract

Academic literacy has become one of the aims in Higher Education, where writing has turned into a learning tool. The Spanish Qualifications Framework for Higher Education (MECES) grades the expected learning outcomes in university students regarding academic literacy of official Bachelor, Masters and Doctorate degrees. The assessment of academic literacy is considered as a discourse community where the object and objective, the tasks, the practices, the criteria and assessment standards all center on the process of epistemic writing in an academic context. An assessment for learning and the involvement of students in the processes of feedback and feedforward enable their inclusion into an academic discourse community. In this paper, the concept of academic literacy is reexamined as well as the research perspectives that support it. In addition, the nature of academic writing is analyzed and the elements which form the assessment process, from the perspective of the academic discourse communities, are shown. Lastly, guidelines are offered for training students in academic literacy in today's university.

Keywords:

Assessment of learning, discourse community, academic literacy, Higher Education

In recent years a concern has spread among university professors regarding the limited training that students have upon entering the university. This concern has centered around the ways of writing and reading that the new students have acquired during their high

_____
Corresponding author / Autor de contacto

Fernando Guzmán-Simón. Universidad de Sevilla. Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación. Departamento de Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura y Filología integradas. Calle Pirotécnica, s/n. 41013. Sevilla (España). *Correo electrónico:* fernandoguzman@us.es

school studies (Granado, 2014). Added to this new situation is the inherent difficulty in acquiring the academic literacy to which they must adapt in order to achieve success in their university studies (Lea and Stierer, 2000).

Academic literacy therefore becomes one of the fundamental objectives of Higher Education, where writing becomes a learning tool (Björk et al., 2003; Carlino, 2005; Mateos et al., 2007). With this purpose in mind, academic writing needs to be acquired in a specific knowledge domain and in a particular discursive community (Ivanič, 1998), where the production codes and conventions of different written discourses have to be learned (Olson, 1994). At the same time, academic literacy assumes a relevant role in higher learning in critical or epistemic writing, thus becoming a tool of knowledge transformation (Bazerman, 1988; Boscolo & Mason, 2001). In this way, critical or epistemic writing in the university has both an element of linguistic product or cognitive process as well as a sense of practice, situated in a community (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Canagarajah, 2002; Zavala, 2011).

The students' academic literacy is one of the distinguishing features with regard to the quality of teaching and learning in Higher Education (Lillis, 2003). Consequently, when the subjects of a given curriculum promote the development of this type of literacy, they are contributing to the creation of a climate of knowledge generation, which is characteristic of university studies (*High Level Group of the Modernisation of Higher Education*, 2013). In this sense, the university needs to address this new social context, both by broadening and diversifying access to Higher Education as well as by providing on-going training in the different professional sectors.

The *Dublin descriptors* (*Joint Quality Initiative Meeting*, 2004) laid the foundation for much of the national frameworks for professional qualifications. In particular, those students who finish a Bachelor degree should be able to "communicate their conclusions, and the knowledge and rationale underpinning these, to specialist and non-specialist audiences clearly and unambiguously" (*Dublin Descriptors*, 2004). At those levels identified by the descriptors as Master and Doctorate levels, students should be able to "communicate with their peers, the larger scholarly community and with society in general about their areas of expertise" (*Dublin Descriptors*, 2004). The competency of students to communicate with different audiences, more or less specialized according to the level of qualification, integrates other skills that are represented in the aforementioned descriptors, such as the ability to understand ideas and arguments, problem solving, etc. Thus, the competency to communicate at the level established by these descriptors for each qualification can only be achieved by students to the degree that they possess other abilities or capabilities of understanding, analysis, problem solving, decision making, etc.

The translation of these descriptors to the *Marco Español de Cualificaciones para la Educación Superior* (MECES) states that a student with the qualifications inherent to the Bachelor's level, in terms of learning outcomes, should: "e) know how to communicate with all types of audiences (specialized or not) in a clear and precise way about knowledge, methodologies, ideas, problems and solutions in his or her area of study" (Boletín Oficial del Estado, August 3th 2011: 87915). The qualifications at the Master level, expressed in expected learning outcomes, would assume that the student should "e) know how to transmit in a clear and unambiguous way, to specialized or non-specialized audience, outcomes obtained from scientific and technological research of the most advanced innovation, as well as the most relevant fundamentals on which they are based" (Boletín Oficial del Estado, 3 August, 2011: 87916). The last level in the Spanish Framework, or MECES, corresponds to the Doctorate. Here, those who have reached the corresponding level of professional qualification are considered to be people who should: "f) have proven that they are capable of participating in scientific discussions that

take place in their field of knowledge on an international scale and of disseminating the findings of their research activity to all types of audiences" (Boletín Oficial del Estado, August 3th, 2011: 87916). As in the case of the *Dublin descriptors*, those skills associated with the capacity to communicate, which are included in the MECES, integrate other prior skills of the students, without which this communication would not reach the expected level in each qualification.

The creation of academic work such as critical reviews, academic essays, reports, projects, porfolios, and, specially, end-of-degree papers are all examples of academic tasks required of students with the dual goal of encouraging and assessing the achievement of learning outcomes in line with their academic literacy (Camps & Castelló, 2013). In fact, some of the tasks, such as the final project of the Bachelor and Master degrees, respectively, have become subjects with their own relevance within the curricula of Bachelor and Masters degrees taught in Spanish universities.

The quality of the output generated by students in response to such demands are, as well, fundamental proof of the process of re-accreditation of the official university degrees implemented in Spanish universities. Thus, in the document *Criterios y directrices de evaluación para la acreditación de títulos oficiales de Grado, Máster y Doctorado*, approved by the Spanish Network of Agencies of Quality of Higher Education (Red Española de Agencias de Calidad de la Educación Superior), REACU, it is explicitly stated that degree accreditation cannot be obtained if a score of "not reached" is received in criterion *6, Learning Outcomes.* This criterion materializes into a standard which establishes that "the learning outcomes achieved by the graduates (...) correspond with the graduation level of the MECES" (REACU, 2014:10). In the assessment protocols elaborated by the assessment agencies to establish such standards, the end-of-degree project together with the dossier of the academic subjects comprise fundamental proof that allows external assessment panels to evaluate the degree to which the learning outcomes reached by students meet the degree level as set out in the MECES.

The assessment of an end-of-degree paper requires the clear establishment of what the standard of academic literacy is inherent to a Bachelor or Masters degree. Without knowing this standard all would be left up to the discretion of the assessment boards or the expert panels that issue reports on the quality of the implementation of a curriculum. But, what is most important, is that without such a standard the student lacks reference points regarding the level of demand asked for and all involved – learners, teachers and outside reviewers – suffer for a lack of clear guidelines for feedback and for improvement. As Nicol and MacFarlane-Dick point out, an effective feedback is one which "helps clarify what good performance is" (2006:206), which implies that both students and professors should share "goals, criteria and expected standards" (2006:206).

The definition of the assessment criteria and standards, either through descriptions in teaching guides or through samples of end-of-degree papers that attained different levels of academic literacy, comes up against the preliminary problem of defining what is understood as academic literacy. For this reason, we have adopted the definition of *academic literacy* which Paula Carlino has recently revised:

(…) process of teaching which can (or not) be put into use in order to favor student access to different writing cultures found among the disciplines (…). This entails two objectives (…): teaching how to participate in the genres inherent to a field of study and teaching the adequate study practices in order to learn from within it. In the first case, it is about training to write and read the way the specialists do; in the second, it is about teaching how to read and write in order to take ownership of the knowledge produced through these two skills. According to the previous theory, teaching academic literacy is equivalent to helping

someone to participate in contextualized discursive practices (2013:370).

This process of literacy acquisition is an indispensable requirement for the student who needs to join a community of academic practice (Wenger, 1998; Lea, 2005) and to construct a new identity through written discourse (Ivanič, 1998). This challenge implies for students changes related to the comprehension and production of academic texts with those features characteristic of a community of practice.

In this article, we have adopted an approach in which assessment of academic literacy performs a formative function. This formative function is close to the concept of assessment for learning. With this concept we are referring to a practice of assessment "that by its design and its practice aims to serve the purpose of promoting students' learning" (Black et al., 2004:10). In accordance with this definition, the assessment function goes beyond determining the level of academic literacy of students; it tries to provide the feedback and aid they need to self-regulate the level of literacy they have, in keeping with the expected learning outcomes of the curriculum they are following. In Wiliam's terms, "information which provides assessment [in an assessment for learning] should be made use of instructionally (…) it should indicate something more than the difference between current progress and desired progress (…)" and it should point also point out "what type of teaching activities are the most recommendable for improving the capabilities of students" (2011:11-12).

Academic literacy

The construction of identity in academic discourse

The process of incorporating a student into an academic community implies developing new writing and reading competencies which, in general, cannot be transferred from previous learning at the university (Castelló et al., 2012). The capacity of mastering reading and writing forms in a specific discipline will allow a university student to enter into a discursive community which will enable him or her to write a text that adapts to the characteristics essential to Higher Education (Alexander & Jetton, 2000; Hyland, 2005). In this sense, the individual takes on his or her own identity in relation to a community through relationships and intertextual identifications, adhesion to given discourses by authorities or the representation of the writer's identity through an epistemic discourse (Ivanič, 1998). In order to successfully complete this process, it has to be assumed that academic writing must be present in the university as part of Bachelor and Post-graduate studies.

Two research perspectives on academic literacy

Numerous authors have taken up matters related to the origin of the term *academic literacy* and its meaning in the context of today's university (Jones et al., 1999; Lea & Stierer, 2000; Wingate & Tribble, 2012; Carlino, 2013). Broadly speaking, academic literacy is approached from two distinct perspectives. The first makes reference to the model based on the social and gender constructivist theory known as "Language for Academic Purposes". Put into practice in numerous educational institutions in the United Kingdom, the United States (Bazerman et al., 2005; Russell, 2002) and Australia (Chalmers & Fuller, 1996; Radloff, 1998; Skillen et al., 1998), it has as a reference the work of John Swales (1990) and Freedman and Medway (1994), and the journals *English of Specific Purposes Journal* and *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*. Swales' research approaches the study of the different types of academic discourse in relation to its genre or textual typology, the discursive community to which it belongs and the communicative context in which it is produced (Wingate & Tribble, 2012). In this sense, the author drinks from the sources of discourse analysis and corpus linguistics (Sinclair, 1991), genre analysis (Halliday & Hasan, 1985) and Applied Linguistics (Stubbs, 1996).

The second one makes reference to the "Academic Literacy" model developed by several authors in the U.K., whose methodological framework is to be found in the New Studies of Literacy (Barton, 1998; Street, 1984). The teaching-learning processes in Higher Education pose an educational challenge that should address the needs of the newly-arrived students, in a context where diverse semiotic systems coexist, which, in turn, requires an academic, media, digital and information literacy (Lea & Stierer, 2000). Addressing this last one means making a distinction among three distinct concepts, described in several studies done by Lea and Street (1998; 2006): a study skills model, an academic socialization model and lastly, an academic literacies model.

The first of these refers to the students' ability to transfer their knowledge of reading and writing from one context to another. In other words, this perspective analyzes if the student is able to adapt to new models and writing genres or types and to transfer his or her knowledge to these models and genres. It is, then, an individual and cognitive capacity of the student's literacy.

In addition, the concept, "academic socialization", addresses the process of learning genres and prototypical discourses of a given discipline or field of study. In this sense, students must learn new forms of listening, speaking, reading, writing and thinking within a given discipline. Presumably, this learning of the academic discourse rules is indispensable in order for students to be able to be successful in their university studies.

Lastly, the concept "academic literacy" incorporates into "academic socialization" elements related to the acquisition of this competency as well as a model of curricular development and the educational practices carried out at an educational institution, with the aim of addressing the specific needs of its students in a context. It is, thus, a process of situated literacy which requires particular learning strategies which are not normally acquired in a natural way simply because one belongs to a concrete university context.

This position approaches writing as a social phenomenon which depends upon a context (Lea & Stierer, 2000; Lillis, 2001) which possesses a plurality of academic literacy forms and incorporates elements from outside of the linguistic level. In this manner, studies on academic literacy assume new study perspectives such as critical discourse (Fairclough, 1992; Canagarajah, 2002) and the awareness of critical language (Ivanič, 1998).

In this research, we have opted for the model proposed by Wingate and Tribble (2012), who carry out a synthesis of the elements which make up both writing models. Our perspective of academic literacy combines the "Language for Specific Purposes" model and the "Academic Literacy"" model. In this way, such a process is open to university students whose learning centers on a discipline or specific context. At the same time, an awareness of discursive community is developed in the students, an awareness which is understood as a social practice (Lillis & Scott, 2007). The basis of instruction begins with the construction of a situated discourse, and it integrates into these writing skills the individual's learning as an authentic cognitive development, done through the curriculum of Higher Education.
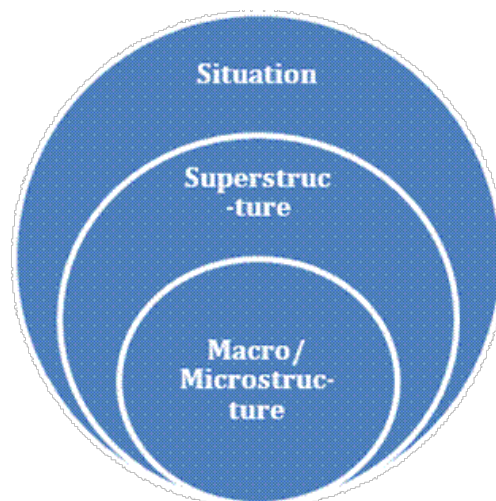
Academic writing

The definition of discursive genre has been described by Swales (1990) as a type of communicative event, whose characteristics share the same communicative purpose and present a prototypical discursive sequence with high variability. Nonetheless, a discursive genre establishes set characteristics which must be adhered to, both in its content as well as in its position, form and its use of a certain nomenclature. These characteristics are the features which enable an expert member who belongs to a same discursive community to recognize a text as one belonging to his or her same community. Therefore, we must highlight how academic discourse is defined, both by its

communicative purpose or goal within a context (discourse task), and by its rhetorical features, which characterize a text (structure, content, style and audience). In order to have the configuration of a discursive genre, a series of features which will allow the text to be recognized by a community of practice must be present.

Figure 1. Analysis diagram of the situated academic discourse

With the purpose of systematizing the proposal of academic writing (Swales, 1990) and integrating the concept of literacy (Lea & Street, 1998), we have proposed an assessment of written university texts based on the elements which make up the following table, where the three levels of situated discourse analysis are divided (Van Dijk, 1978; Van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983):

a) Context
- Relative to the task.
- Relative to the audience.

b) Superstructure (Formal text aspects)
- Relative to the writing structure.
- ·Relative to the text content.

c) Macrostructure and microstructure (Writing style)
- Relative to coherence
- Relative to cohesion
- Syntactic structure
- Choice of sentence components.

Academic discursive genres are described and contextualized in the different sections, since these characteristics are recurrent in diverse learning situations in Higher Education. This allows verbal elements which make up a discourse to become a reference model in written academic production. Based on this model, the horizon of expectations made by a reader of a same practice community are then shaped (Camp & Castelló, 2013), which will facilitate academic reading and rewriting.

The process of academic discourse writing (preparation, planning, textualization and revision) arises from the cognitive models of Flower and Hayes (1980) and Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987). These are completed by the model of Grabe and Kaplan (1996), which incorporates the communicative situation of production. Together with the cited stages of discourse creation and the levels of assessment (situation, superstructure and macro/microstructure), we have added in Chart 1 another column where we incorporate different elements which are developed in the academic literacy process (Baynham, 2000). These elements (practice, text and abilities) are related to the development of an assessment level and a stage of discourse writing. The construction of an academic discourse can only be done when writing abilities and discursive genre are subordinated to the specific situation of the task or practice. Development of student literacy would be incomplete without this writing practice.

Chart 1. Assessment levels, writing stages and literacy elements

ASSESSMENT LEVELS	STAGES OF DISCOURSE CREATION BY THE STUDENT		ELEMENTS OF ACADEMIC LITERACY (Baynham, 2000)
Situation	Preparation		Practice
Superstructure	Planning	Revision	Text
Macrostructure Microstructure	Textualization		Abilities

From a pragmatic perspective, the composition of an academic discursive genre involves linguistic and non-linguistic processes, adapting the written discourse to the medium of dissemination, potential recipients and functionality (Bazerman, 1994; Bazerman & Prior, 2004). Likewise, the development of these discursive genres will have as its fundamental axis the tasks proposed to students by teachers (Horowitz, 1986; Gillet and Hammond, 2009) and which, in this particular case, should incorporate the written production of academic discourses. According to Lillis (2003), the categories of the *study abilities model* and *academic socialization* involve the writing of an academic discourse of the "say the knowledge" type (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). On the other hand, the written discourse which incorporates elements of *academic literacy* critical in nature, where knowledge is transformed and, at the same time, the student's personal and social identity is transformed (Curry & Lillis, 2003).

Assessment of academic literacy

Academic discourse communities

The assessment of academic literacy that we propose here requires questioning the traditional roles attributed to students and teachers in this activity and evaluating the student-professor team role in the assessment process. Thus, for example, a teacher's formulating the assessment standards in an end-of-degree project (which is considered to be a literacy in accordance with the expected outcomes at that level of qualification) does not guarantee that these will be the only standards used in the assessment, nor that they will be understood by other teachers or students nor that they will serve as a guideline. From the standpoint of assessment for learning, it is necessary that teachers and students share fundamental aspects of the assessment process –such as the defining of criteria and standards or feedback- and that students assume higher degrees of responsibility through assessment among equals or self-assessment.

A model such as the "cultivated community of practice" one adequately represents the type of relationship that best favors the development of an assessment for learning academic literacy. The idea of the existence of practice communities in the university environment finds an initial reference in the work of Wenger, who considers practice communities as informal relationship networks that "help students to develop those specific competencies of a set professional activity and to have a satisfactory work experience" (1998:47): teaching a child to read, performing an accounting audit, drafting the specifications of a project, carrying out product control in an industrial plant, etc. These practice communities in the university realm are made up of educators and learners who maintain a certain relationship, do things together and share a certain perspective of how things should be done (*mutual engagement*); equally, they have a similar initiative, for instance, sharing information and feedback on a given subject matter (*joint enterprise*); and, a repertoire of shared resources which shape one or several discursive genres in an area of specific knowledge (*shared repertoire*).

The external practices done by students would be an attempt to bring the university closer to the practice communities and vice

versa (see Figure 2). To one degree or another, students form part of practice communities. In them, a student gives up part of his or her individuality but, in exchange, acquires identification with a community which provides the student with resources to face his or her learning process in and out of the university environment (*identity process*).

Figure 2. Communities of practice
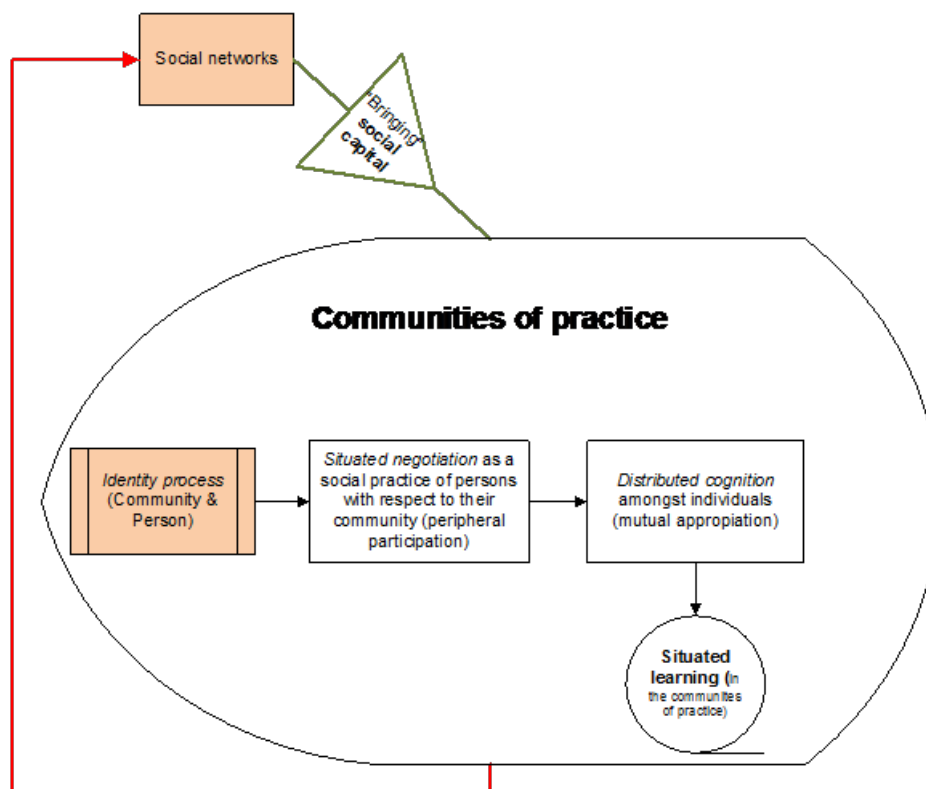
The "academic discourse community" is a type of cultivated community of practices which aims to develop a social perspective of writing. In this discourse community a true process of academic literacy takes place in which its members share a series of conventions relative to the goals of communication (e.g. communicating the results of a study to a specialized audience), the writing style or the discourse structure (Brodkey, 1987; Bizzell, 1989; Harris, 1989; Nystrand, 1990). In particular, Swales defines the concept of "discourse community" as that community which has a high degree of consensus of its goals, possesses means for communication amongst its members for the purpose of participating and providing information and feedback. It practices one or more discursive genres to reach its communicative objectives, develops a uniform discursive rhetoric (vocabulary, syntax, etc.) and is made up of a number of members who possess sufficient knowledge, both in contents as well as in discursive competency (1990:24-27). Consequently, the concept "academic discourse community" makes reference to a concrete cultural context, where numerous norms and conventions are developed from diverse social and historic practices of a particular group in Higher Education (Ivanic, 1998).

The development of an academic discourse community requires that two prerequisites be met:

a) The teaching guidebook or document that gathers together the academic tasks which students have to carry out and which are going to be assessed (practice reports, critical reviews, lab notebooks, end-of-studies works, etc.) in a subject should be

aligned in a constructive form. This means that all aspects of the program (learning results, teaching and learning methods, assessment procedures) must be clearly interrelated and logically consistent) (Price et al., 2012).

b) The assessment criteria which refers to learning results in a given subject should be made public (Price et al., 2012). This grid of aligned learning outcomes with assessment criteria does not guarantee, as Price et al. (2012) pointed out, its being understood by students. Those learning outcomes do not assure a group of common assessment standards for teachers, unless all the parts involved actively share these standards. This last point would require starting from a working model even with assessment standards that are not explicit, like the one belonging to the academic discourse communities.

The creation of academic discourse communities is an important question to the degree that such communities are fundamentally involved in the decisions that need to be adopted in the development of a process of assessment for learning. These decisions involve defining the object of assessment, the type or types with which the assessment will be carried out, the assessment criteria standards, the assessment procedures, the practices of feedback and feedforward and, if it were the case, the score of the learning outcomes attained.

A process of a truly participative literacy assessment would involve the development of a group of actions: firstly, those tied in with the team of teachers who share the training at a given educational level (Bachelors, Masters, Doctorate); and, secondly, those tied in with the students at this same level. In a framework of academic literacy, the cycles which make up the work of professors and students and the relationships they have amongst one another form what we know as a community of academic discourse.

The first of these cycles, which refers to teachers, begins with an explicit definition of the criteria. For this, it is necessary to align the expected learning outcomes, the assessment design and the identification of the assessment criteria. It is the moment when teachers should debate amongst themselves with regard to assessment criteria with the purpose of being able to clearly communicate to students what the expected academic literacy level is in a given subject or educational level. The benefits that come out of this debate and consensus would be certain guidelines which permit professors to assess students' work, give grades and offer feedback or feedforward to students.

The second cycle, referring to the students, involves the prior existence of explicit assessment criteria. These criteria are a consquence of previous work done by teachers. From such criteria, students begin a process of analysis and debate with their professors and with their fellow students. Through these workshops or similar activities students are led to actively involve themselves in the understanding of the meaning of the criteria and the level of demand which these entail. Once students have completed the proposed tasks and submitted them, their active involvement continues during feedback or forwardfeed. Thus, depending on the type of assessment used (teacher assessment, self-assessment or peer assessment), students receive information from the teacher or they provide it to their peers and try to use it to improve their academic literacy.

Figure 3. The social-constructivist process of assessment: A dynamic system
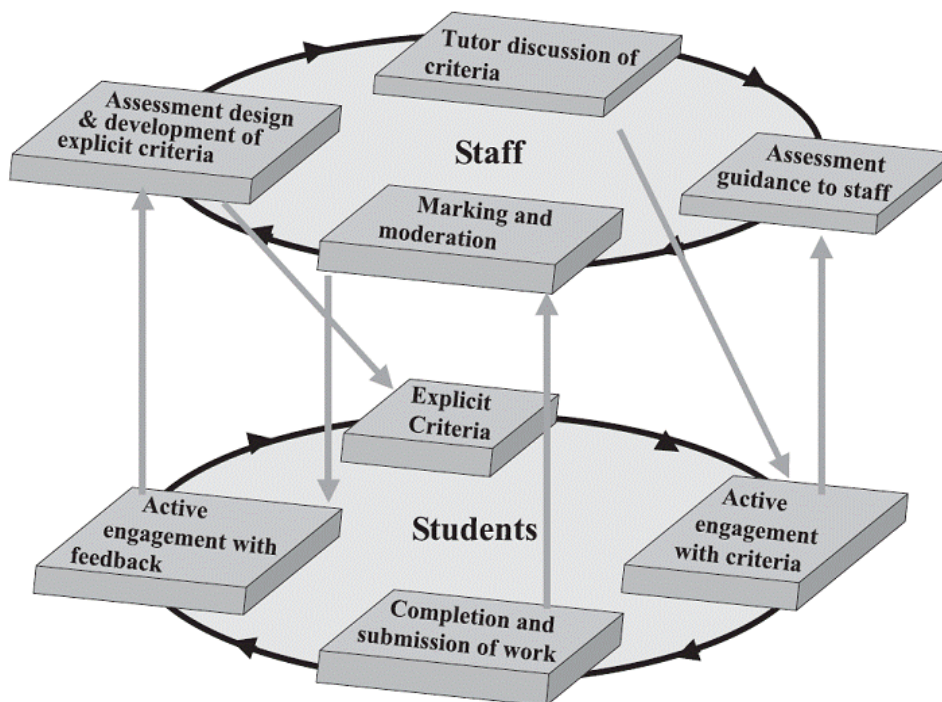
Rust, 'Donovan and Price (2005:237)

As can be seen in figure 3, "each cycle contributes to the next, in such a way that a common understanding of the assessment amongst students and professors continuously emerges within a dynamic community of practices" (Price et al., 2012: 602). In this sense it can be said that literacy assessment, done following a model of academic discourse, applies to all the stages of the assessment process and involves both teachers and students.

The object of assessment

The assessment of academic literacy takes as its object the process by which students develop epistemic writing at their professors' request or to complete an academic need. In this process, the stages of preparation, planning, text construction and review of the writing product are looked at. These stages are analyzed according to the levels of context, superstructure, macrostructure and micro-structure (see Chart 1).

Written productions derived from the writing process are also objects of assessment. Depending on the means of assessment

chosen, written productions usually take the form of reports, practice notebooks, projects, essays, critical reviews, journals, final dissertations and doctoral theses.

Assessment objectives

From the viewpoint of assessment for learning, the objectives are the following:

a. Determining the degree of academic literacy reached by students.

b. Promoting the improvement of academic literacy in order for students to develop epistemic or critical literacy, in the way indicated by Carlino (2013): training students to write and read as specialists do and teaching them to read and write in order that they may take ownership of the knowledge produced by those specialists.

c. Encouraging self-regulation in the academic literacy process, pondering its progression at the different levels of university training.

Assessment tasks

The expected outcomes of learning in relation to academic literacy can only be

assessed when the assessment tasks the students must perform are set in the form of tasks which the student must complete through a given medium (a portfolio, an essay, an exam with essay-style questions, a dissertation, etc.). Therefore, the students must carry out tasks such as: writing a report that includes the experiences of students during the period of practices in an institution that collaborates with the university; producing a lab notebook that includes notes in the form of descriptions; measuring results; hypothesis testing and the interpretation of the outcomes in light of these measurements; designing an industrial project for a recycling plant; writing a dissertation for the Bachelor or Masters level; writing a magazine article from an empirical study in the framework of thesis of compendium. In the previous examples, the means that allow the assessment of the tasks that were performed would be a report of practices, a project, a lab notebook, a final dissertation or an article.

In the framework of a learning assessment, it is necessary for students and teachers to maintain a dialogue within the framework of the academic discourse community. This dialogue allows for clarification regarding what types of learning the assessment tasks are aiming to promote and what the levels of demand are. The aim is to avoid student failure in the development of a task simply because the student has not understood what type of demand was being asked for. This dialogue, where students analyze the information that professors provide them with about the purpose and the level of demand of a task, is what Orsmond et al. (2011) call "anticipatory feedback".

Students' learning can begin with analyzing the structure and purpose of assessment tasks. In this sense, the students could be initiated into identifying what learning is embedded in the assessment tasks that are proposed to them (García-Jiménez et al., 2015:122).

In this dialogue about assessment tasks one must take into account the possible discrepancy that may exist between the task demands and the students' goals relative to a specific subject or to the set of teachings that lead to a degree. For this reason, it is important that students be aware of what type of focus –towards academic achievement or towards learning- is behind behind their goals (Shute, 2008). In the former case, with a focus on academic achievement, the students will be more interested in identifying which aspects of the task will help them obtain better grades; in the latter, with a focus on learning, it is possible that the student will request more information about how to improve their abilities and acquire the knowledge associated with the task (García-Jiménez et al., 2015).

In the assessment of academic literacy, the tasks of assessment and the learning outcomes should be aligned. Thus, it is necessary for there to be a correspondence between the complexity of the learning outcomes that are trying to be assessed and the difficulty itself of the assessment tasks. Even when the tasks are apparently complex (such as those associated to writing a doctoral thesis), they do not always lead to learning which is in keeping with a given level of professional qualification. In this sense, the assessment tasks demanded of students should be consistent with the expected learning outcomes of a subject, in the overall context of a training program and in learning activities that these students have done during their training.

From all this, we can infer that tasks that make academic literacy assessment possible need be ordered by their complexity according to the results of the expected learnings, defined by a set level of professional qualification as set out by the MECES. In a study carried out by Guzmán-Simón and García-Jiménez (2014) with a sampling of students from the degree programs of Preschool Education and Primary Education who filled out self-reports on their academic literacy, it was determined that in spite of their deficiencies in reading and writing and a basically instrumental assimilation of digital literacy, they were able to overcome, without difficulty, what was academically asked of them. For those authors, a possible explanation was that the

academic demands were not intellectually rigorous, significant or supported by the students, and they were limited to requesting an information search and accessing other people's knowledge. The proposal of Gore et al. (2012) constitutes a good benchmark regarding the way in which assessment task sequencing can be approached taking into consideration the expected learning outcomes.

Currently, at a time when university training is more and more geared towards a profession, the demands made of students for them to demonstrate their level of academic literacy would have to be carried out in the form of authentic tasks and/or sofisticated tasks. In the sense defined by Guikers (2006), tasks are authentic when they are based on criteria used in professional practice, generate realistic results (products or processes) and are evaluated using transparent and explicit criteria. This type of tasks brings students closer to the professional world and those competencies which are put into use in it. This generates an impact in the student's learning ("consequencial validity"). In this manner, the more authentic a task is and the more authentic the context that it refers to, the more probable it is that students will focus on what is meaningful, relating new knowledge with previous knowledge, mixing learning from different courses and inferring theoretical ideas from daily life experiences, among others; in short, they will adopt a "deep focus" on learning (Guilkers et al., 2006:383, 393). The sophisticated[i] complex tasks themselves allow assessment of higher-order abilities and competencies (analysis, decision making, judgement expression, etc.) in a more effective way than conventional exams do and facilitate the development of a formative assessment (Boyle, 2009).

Practices of assessment

The assessment of academic literacy, from the viewpoint of assessment for learning, is best matched to practices such as self-assessment and peer assessment. Self-assessment can be defined as "a process by which students perform an analysis and appraisal of their own actions and/or

productions" (Rodríguez Gómez et al., 2013:202), while peer assessment is "a process by which students perform an analysis and appraisal of the actions and/or productions done by a student or group of students of their same status or level" (Rodríguez Gómez et al., 2013:202).

The process of academic literacy assessment can take on the form of a revision where appraisals are done and feedback is provided, but the writing process or product is not scored or graded. But, the possibility exists for this revision to be accompanied by a score or a grade. In the latter case, the student himself or his peers can provide the grade or share it with the professor as a co-assessment; that is, by means of a process "where teachers and students carry out an analysis and appraisal in a collaborative, joint and agreed-upon fashion of student actions and/or productions" (Rodríguez Gómez et al., 2013:202).

The possibility of grading is limited to some types of assessment by the very academic requirements of the task. Thus, certain types of written productions can be reviewed under any of the other previously mentioned practices, – as, for example, an academic dissertation or a doctoral thesis– however, they cannot be graded by the student himself or by his peers, but rather only by the teaching staff. The assessment type done by the teaching staff is a "process by which teachers or other members of the academic process either individually or collectively assess student actions and/or productions" (Rodríguez Gómez et al., 2013:202). Panels that judge end-of-study projects, made up of several teachers associated with the subject matter or the curriculum, are one of the best known versions. In some educational systems, such as that of the United Kingdom, the panels are formed by professors who are external to the university whose students are being subjected to assessment.

Assessment criteria and standards

The model of a community of academic discourses encourages that fundamental elementals of an assessment process, such as

criteria and standards, be shared by students and professors, even when those elements are not formulated in an explicit manner. What this model does assemble is the existence of a community formed by professors and students who, by means of set activities, participate in an informal network of knowledge exchange.

Figure 4 shows a matrix made up by four models of relationships amongst students and professors in such a way that each represents a strategy to establish, communicate and, when called for, share decisions related to elements of the assessment process, such as the defining of standards.

Figure 4. Matrix of models for sharing knowledge about assessment standards
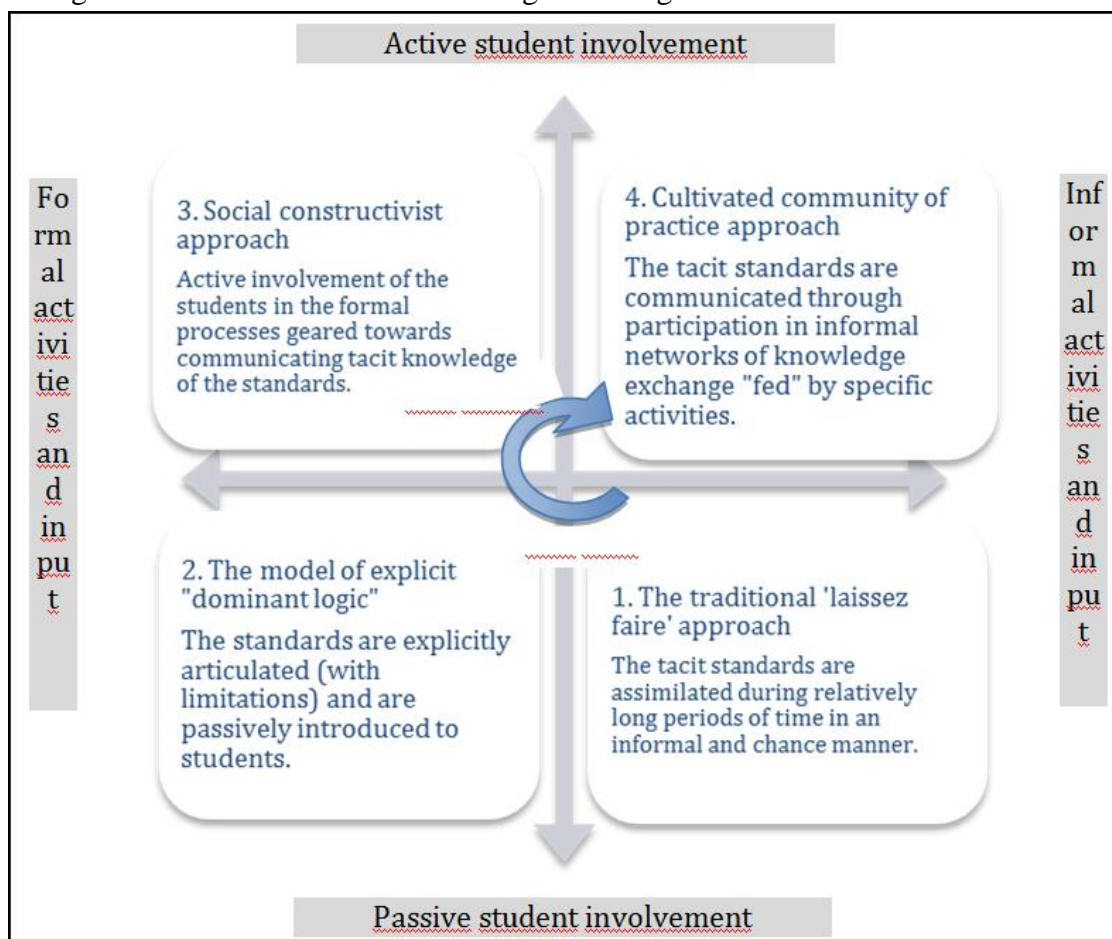
Price et al. (2012)

As can be seen in Figure 4, quadrant 1 displays a traditional model in which the standards used in the assessment of academic literacy are not explicit, thus, students end up indentifying them in an accidental and informal way. In quadrant 2, the assessment standards are established by the professor or the institution in an explicit manner (though with limitations) in the teaching guide or *ad hoc* document; the students' role is passive and is limited to trying to understand and adopt those criteria. Quadrant 3 shows a constructivist approach where students

actively participate in the communication of the tacit knowledge that exists on assessment standards through formal processes. Lastly, the model displayed in quadrant 4 shows a cultivated practice community.

The arrow which turns round, located in the center of the matrix, reflects the historic progress through four models, going from the traditional model to the model of a community of shared practice.

The community of academic discourse would have as one of its fundamental tasks, the defining of the criteria and standards of

assessment. A criterion is an objective of quality and indicates to us what characteristics students' academic literacy should include at a given educational level (Bachelor, Masters or Doctorate). A standard is a formulation which, for an assessment criterion, specifies or exemplifies the basic achievement level or threshold students must reach with regard to an assessment task.

In the creation of academic literacy assessment criteria which result from work at the core of the academic discourse community, three components would have to be taken into consideration for each one of the university educational levels (Bachelor, Masters or Doctorate). These components would define academic writing: the context of discourse, the formal aspects of the text and the writing style. The criteria relative to the discourse context could be the following:

1. Relative to the discursive subgenre

   1.1. The text written by the student is consistent with the attributes which define the academic subgenre required by the task, or

   1.2. The reader identifies the text written by the student with the particular academic subgenre which coincides with the discursive model proposed in the set academic task.2.

2. Relative to the audiences

   2.1. The written text is accessible for a non-specialized audience in the scientific area to which it belongs.

   2.2. The written text creates interest in a specialized audience in the scientific area to which it belongs.

3. Formal aspects of the text

   3.1. The written text corresponds to the writing style required in a task of a specific academic discursive subgenre. This criterion would correspond in an empirical study to a text that would include an introduction (which includes the development of the problem, defines the object of research, includes the antecedents and the state of the art, presents the motives and purpose of the research or, when needed, the working hypothesis), the method (participants, the information gathering and analysis procedures), the outcomes obtained, the interpretation and implications of the outcomes or the discussion.

   3.2. The structure and content of the text are consistent with the academic discursive subgenre and to the demands of the task. For example, the written text includes a title, the name or the author or authors, a summary, an introduction, the method used, the outcomes, the commentaries (in the form of conclusions, discussions, etc.), the bibliographic references, the annexes and appendices.

4. Writing style

   4.1. Text organization appropriately responds to a writing style. For example, the written text conforms to a fixed length, is organized with headings that correspond to the required writing style (an empirical work, a theoretical review, an educational experience, etc.). This organization also includes the necessary levels of order, the structure of the headings, which guides the reader with respect to the ideas included in the text, and numbered lists to indicate an order or a time sequence, etc.

   4.2. The written text conveys in an efficient manner ideas which the author aims to present, arguments which explain a proposition and the interpretations of given outcomes, etc. In the same way, ideas and arguments are presented through a thematic progression and appropriate text connectors, which help to maintain the direction of an argument. The writing allows for a fluid and effective reading, it shows adequate text cohesion in accord with the composition style and uses appropriate vocabulary.

As an example, the corresponding standards for the criteria relative to the discursive genre, as they relate to the different educational

levels that lead to a university degree, can be seen in the following chart:

Chart 2. Standards corresponding to criteria relative to the discursive genre

BACHELOR	MASTERS	DOCTORATE
1. The written text shows that the student has a good command of the skills required by a specific subgenre (e.g. a practice report, a lab notebook, a critical review). The task elements are well defined and the results are foreseeable. DISCOURSE REPLY	2. The written text shows that the student has made a correct choice of the discursive subgenre (theoretical or empirical article, project, report) in order to address an objective (write a dissertation) and a specific audience. The task elements are only partially defined. These elements correspond to those required at a professional level. AUTONOMY AND ORIGINALITY IN DISCOURSE	3. The written text belongs to a specialized field and takes on the discursive characteristics of this field in order to respond to the demands of a classic doctoral thesis or a compendium work. The task requires the construction of a discourse which incorporates new perspectives, ideas or techniques. DISCURSIVE SPECIALIZATION AND COMPLEXITY

Another example regarding the criteria relative to writing styles, is displayed in the following chart:

Chart 3. Standards corresponding to the criteria relative to writing styles

BACHELOR	MASTERS	DOCTORATE
1. The written text is consistent, adhering to the task guidelines. In accordance with the writing genre required in the task, these guidelines refer to text length, the manner of idea organization, precision and discourse clarity. REPLY OF THE ORGANIZATION AND THE QUALITIES OF THE COMPOSITION	2. The written text addresses the task, integrating elements from different areas (conceptual, methodology, empirical) in a critical academic discourse which incorporates a conceptual framework, an analysis and conclusions in response to current problems in the professional field or area of study. AUTONOMY AND ORIGINALITY IN DISCOURSE	3. The written text expresses a discourse where new items of knowledge are created or interpreted, in response to conceptual or methodological demands which are done from the vanguard of a discipline or professional practice. The discourse is constructed from grounded judgements on complex matters in specialized fields where prior information is lacking. SPECIALIZATION AND COMPLEXITY IN THE DISCOURSE ORGANIZATION

Assessment procedures

The procedures most commonly used in the assessment of academic literacy are evaluative arguments, rubrics and estimate scales. From these procedures, according to the type or types of assessment used, it is possible to assess written productions done by students and presented in a medium of determined assessment (e.g. a project or end-of-studies work).

An example of rubric assessment of academic literacy can be found in Chart 4. This rubric was created by O'Donovan et al. (2001: 76-77) which, once used, was appraised by a sampling of students. In research done it became apparent that its use facilitated understanding of the assessment criteria and standards, student feedback (in terms of improvement in their written production) and consistency in grading. Nonetheless, some of the common deficiencies of this type of procedures were detected.

Chart 4. Assessment rubric for assessment of academic literacy

	Thinking/analysis/conclusions				
		A	**B+**	**B**	**C**	**Refer/Fail**
15	Conclusions	Analytical and clear conclusions well grounded in theory and literature showing development of new concepts	Good development shown in summary of arguments based in theory/literature	Evidence of findings and conclusions grounded in theory/literature	Limited evidence of findings and conclusions supported by theory/literature	Unsubstantiated/invalid conclusions based on anecdote and generalisation only, or no conclusions at all
16	Analysis	Can analyse new and/or abstract data and situations without guidance using a wide range of techniques appropriate to the topic	Can analyse a range of information with minimum guidance, can apply major theories and compare alternative methods/techniques for obtaining data	Can analyse with guidance using given classification/ principles	Can analyse a limited range of information with guidance using classification/principles	Fails to analyse information
17	Conceptualisation	Able to recognise consistency and reconcile inconsistency between information using cognitive and hypothesising skills	Consistent understanding demonstrated in a logical, coherent and lucid manner	Demonstrated understanding in a style which is mostly logical, coherent and flowing	Attempts to demonstrate a logical and coherent understanding of the subject area but aspects become confused or undeveloped	Understanding of the assignment not apparent, or lacks a logical and coherent framework, or the subject is confused or undeveloped
18	Critical reasoning	Consistently demonstrates application of critical analysis well integrated in the text	Clear application of theory through critical analysis/critical thought of the topic area	Demonstrates application of theory through critical analysis of the topic area	Some evidence of critical thought/critical analysis and rationale for work	Lacks critical thought /analysis/reference to theory
19	Reflection/evaluation	Can critically review evidence supporting conclusions/ recommendations including its reliability, validity and significance and can investigate contradictory information/ identify reasons for contradictions	Can select appropriate techniques of evaluation and can evaluate the relevance and significance of data collected	Can evaluate the reliability of data using defined techniques and/or tutor guidance	Limited and only partially accurate evaluation of data using defined techniques and/or tutor guidance	Fails to evaluate or use techniques of evaluation, or evaluations are totally invalid
20	Synthesis	With minimum guidance can transform abstract data and concepts towards a given purpose and can design novel solutions	Can reformat a range of ideas/information towards a given purpose	Can collect/collate and categorise ideas and information in a predictable and standard format	Partially collects/collates and categorises information in a structured way	No organisation of ideas and information

Figure 1 *Sample page from grid*

7029 Placement Search and Preparation – Feedback Sheet

ASSIGNMENT 1

Student Name: ....   Student Number: ....

	CRITERION	**A**	**B+**	**B**	**C**	**Refer/Fail**
1	Presentation of assignment	Shows a polished and imaginative approach to the topic	Carefully and logically organised	Shows organisation and coherence	Shows some attempt to organise in a logical manner	Disorganised/ incoherent
7	Attention to purpose	Has addressed the purpose of the assignment comprehensively and imaginatively	Has addressed the purpose of the assignment coherently and with some attempt to demonstate imagination	Has addressed the main purpose of the assignment	Some of the work is focused on the aims and themes of the assignment	Fails to address the task set
27	Self-criticism (include reflection on practice)	Is confident in application of own criteria of judgement and in challenge of received opinion in action and can reflect on action	Is able to evaluate own strengths and weaknesses; can challenge received opinion and begins to develop own criteria and judgement	Is largely dependent on criteria set by others but begins to recognise own strengths and weaknesses	Dependent on criteria set by others. Begins to recognise own strengths and weakness	Fails to meaningfully undertake the process of self criticism
28	Independence/Autonomy (including planning and managing learning)	With minimum guidance can manage own learning using full range of resources for discipline; can seek and make use of feedback	Identifies strengths of learning needs and follows activities to improve performance; is autonomous in straight forward study tasks	Can work independently within a relevant ethos and can access and use a range of learning resources	Can undertake clearly directed work independently within a relevant ethos and, with some guidance, use the standard learning resources	Unable to work independently, needing significant guidance on methods and resources

(Please tick boxes)

Comment:...
....

Marker: ....   Mark: ....

Figure 2 *Sample marksheet*

O'Donovan et al. (2001: 76-77)

Among elements susceptible to improvement, students point out that their teachers as well as they themselves need to receive training on the use of the rubric that could provide clear guidance for using it in a consistent manner. It could be said that a good assessment procedure, but without consensus on its appropriate interpretation and training, is not sufficient guarantee of a good assessment. In this sense, the creation of a community of academic discourse can facilitate just such training through the dialogue between professors and students in seminars or more informal activities centered on the interpretation of the different criteria or the degrees of the rubric. Likewise, the presentation of various examples of written productions, each one of them tailored to a different degree of the rubric, could provide better understanding of the meaning of the different degrees.

Inventories and appraisal scales try to determine to what degree university students achieve given standards of academic literacy, expressed as statements which are assessed by professors or by peers using acheivement gradients. An example of inventory is the 'Inventory of Processes in College Composition' deveoped by Lavelle (1993). The instrument, in its latest version, validated by Lavelle and Guarino (2003:305), consists of 72 items which assess attitudes towards writing as well as strategies and approaches present in written productions of university students. This instrument is organized into five dimensions which translate a similar number of writing approaches and whose characterization is presented in Chart 5:

Chart 5. Writing-based approaches in the *Inventory of Processes in College Composition* by Lavelle and Guarino (2003:305)

Approach	Motive	Strategy
Elaborative	Express oneself	Visualization, audience, echo something
Low self-efficacy	Acquire skills/avoid pain	Study grammar, collaborate, find comfort or stimulus
Relexive review	Construct meaning	Revision, reorganization, composition
Impulsive-reflexive	Simply write	Last-minute writing, without planning or revision, similar to speaking
Procedural	Please the professor	Observe the rules, organize and manage writing

Among the appraisal scales, it is worth pointing out as an example, for its potential to encourage academic writing self-regulation, the *Writing Self-Regulatory Efficacy Scale* (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). This scale attempts to measure the self-efficacy perceived by students to regulate writing activities. Its 25 items appraise the ability as perceived by students to: "a) develop strategic aspects of the writing process such as composition planning, organization and revision; b) become aware of the creative aspects of writing, such as generating topics of interest, writing motivating introductions and good theoretical frameworks; c) develop behaviors that involve self-management of time, motivation and task distractions" (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994:849). The student should evaluate his or her efficacy for each task through a scale which has a 7-point calibration. These oscillate between the student's belief that he or she will not be able to carry out the activities associated with writing (score of 1) to the belief that he or she will be able to carry it out easily (score of 7).

Upon considering the procedures of assessment, it is worth pointing out that the choice of one or another procedure is not as important as is its use. With the choice of any of the assessment types and for the sake of traceability and transparency of an assessment process, the important thing is that those who carry out the assessment (be they professors, peers or the student himself) be able to systematically perform their appraisal using an

assessment procedure. The employment of an assessment procedure provides, at least, two fundamental advantages: a) it allows professors and students to clearly state and share the set criteria and standards in an assessment, in a operative manner; and, b) it encourages a more-detailed feedback, facilitating specific information to the student about what should be changed in his or her production in order to improve it.

Feedback and feedforward

Consubstantial elements to an assessment process for learning, such as feedback and feedforward, also require the effective involvement of students. Feedback refers to, in its most conventional form, comments or guidelines made by a professor to a student or the class as a whole to indicate how they should reduce the distance that separates their work from what the professor deems to be academic discourse. Feedforward supposes the self-regulation of academic writing. Here, the student now uses the information that he has about his work, generated through dialogue with his professor or his peers, in order to decide how to regulate his learning so as to reach the established reference level.

Student involvement in feedback and feedforward is necessary in order for them to understand the information that they receive from their professors and peers and so that they can make improvements in their academic literacy process. In this sense, feedback and feedforward prove to be effective in the degree

that they are the result of interaction between the individual student and a practice community (Orsmond et al., 2011), as is, for instance, the community of academic discourse.

Both worlds –the academic and the extra-academic ones- provide the student with opportunities to learn and to improve her academic tasks; in the former, her classmates, family members, friends and students from other fields of study integrate the student into a practice community which shares learning strategies, recommendations to pass her exams, ways to approach a work project in a "tough" subject, etc. From this perspective, feedback and feedforward are not only matters "of teachers" that offer information to help students to improve their work, but also, or more clearly, "of students and among students".

In order for us to be able to provide feedback and feedforward to students, the following would be necessary: a) the existence of an established reference level for each one of the assessment criteria for academic writing; b) the current competency level of the student; and, c) a procedure which allows comparison of both levels and the generation of information regarding the difference. In this sense, there cannot be feedback without one of these elements: the reference level, the current level and the comparison procedure (Guzmán-Simón et al., 2015).

Chart 6. Levels of assessment, stages of writing and information to the student

LEVELS OF ASSESSMENT	STAGES OF DISCOURSE CREATION BY THE STUDENT		INFORMATION TO THE STUDENT ABOUT HER WRITTEN PRODUCTION	
Context	Preparation		Prior feedback	Feedforward
Superstructure	Planning	Review		
Macrostructure Microstructure	Textualization		Feedback	Feedforward

Feedback and feedforward are an integral part of the assessment in such a way that the form that will finally be adopted, once

information is offered to the student after appraising her written production, will be influenced by the criteria and standards, the

tasks, the means, the techniques or instruments employed in the assessment. Besides the elements already mentioned, the characteristics of the student herself who receives the feedback also affects the improvement of her academic literacy. In this sense, when proposing feedback or feedforward, the choice of the elements of the assessment process needs to be weighed, as well as the very aims the student has with regard to her academic literacy, her motivation and her track record or prior abilities in this area.

The most important decisions that the teacher should adopt when planning the feedback and feedforward that he plans on offering students are those related to purpose and function, type, moment, resources, etc. (Guzmán-Simón et al., 2015; García-Jiménez et al., 2015). With regard to the *purpose* of the information which is offered to students after the assessment, though it must be noted that it responds to more than one aim, it would be recommendable to determine if the aim is the mere correction of the student's written production or the orientation of his learning.

The *function* which feedback plays can be motivational for improving the student's disposition to take on tasks related to written production that have already been done or are planned to be done. It can also be cognitive, that is, for improving the abilities which encourage academic literacy. As far as feedforward is concerned, the information the student receives after assessment looks towards filling a metacognitive function directed at improving self-regulation of academic literacy.

The *type* of information offered to students after assessing their written production reflects the different ways in which information is presented to students. The two main types are non-elaborated and elaborated. The first one, non-elaborated information, is that which is provided to students in terms of «correct/incorrect», generally immediately and unidirectionally, or also the information students need in order to correct their task so that it adheres to the established standard. The

information elaborated is differed and interactive and it offers explanations, hints and suggestions, but in no way the correct answer or all the information that a student needs to satisfactorily complete the task.

The *resources* represent the means employed to offer information to students. These resources can be written notes, verbal face-to-face comments or audio or video recordings sent via internet, in the form of comments and observations, questions, hints or bits of advice (García-Jiménez et al., 2015).

The involvement of students in the assessment of academic literacy: An example of a community of academic discourse

Academic literacy is a fundamental cognitive and epistemic process for the elaboration of knowledge and the reworking of thought (Olson, 1994; Spivey, 1996; Carlino, 2005; Serrano de Moreno, 2001). Nonetheless, the discursive competency resulting from such a process is not acquired except by practice done by university students in a specific academic setting (Carlino, 2003). With the aim of developing this competency, it is necessary to perform pedagogic-didactic actions in the classroom and accompany students during class tutorials, trying to take full advantage of the "epistemic potential" of writing in the setting of a given discipline (Fabio, 2012).

In the approach of assessment for learning adopted in this article, the interventions that are proposed to improve academic literacy in students are oriented to foster self-regulation of students' writing competency. The basic idea is that students learn to prepare, plan, compose and revise, in an academic context and in a systematic and progressive way and with a variable degree of participation from their peers and professors.

An intervention of those characteristics would have to be situated in the framework of the communities of discursive practice and in the process of social constructivism (Rust et al., 2005). Such a process should try to involve

students in each stage of the assessment, especially in the analysis and discussion of assessment criteria and standards. A proposal that exemplifies a process of these characteristics is the one presented by Price et al. (2007). There, activities such as research paper writing, an educational experience, a practice report or similar documents are examined, which should be turned into an assessment task in a given subject. Out of this idea, the following activities are proposed and would form part of the programs of the subjects of a curriculum. These activities would be recurrent and would follow a cycle of continuous improvement which affects both the process as well as the writing product.

1. Elaboration of a grid or a rubric which defines, for each assessment criteria of the academic discourse, different degrees of achievement. Such a rubric would be the result of analysis and discussion, at the core of the academic community discourse, of assessment criteria and standards.

2. Performance of critical readings of texts related to the matter taken up in the subject, followed by a discussion which makes knowledge transformation possible in this matter.

3. Writing of reports, projects, articles, etc., centered on criteria of presentation.

4. Revision done in pairs of the writing process and its product.

5. Students send a revision done in pairs, which was carried out with the employment of a previously-elaborated rubric, completed with information which provides feedback or feedforward.

References

Alexander, P.A. & Jetton, T.L. (2000). Learning from Text: A Multidimensional and Developmental Perspective. En M.L. Kamil, P.B., Mosenthal, P.D., Pearson & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research*, Vol. II (pp. 285-310). Nueva York: Longman.

Barton, D. (1998). *Literacy: An introduction to the ecology of written language.* Oxford/Cambridge: Blackwell.

Baynham, M. (2000). Academic writing in new and emergent discipline areas. In M. R. Lea & B. Stierer, *Student Writing in Higher Education. New Contexts* (pp. 17-31). Buckingham: Open University Press.

Bazerman, C. (1988). *Shaping Written Knowledge: The genre and activity of the experimental article in science*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press.

Bazerman, C. (1994). Systems of genres and the enactment of social intentions. *Genre and the new rhetoric*, 79-101.

Bazerman, C. & Prior, P.A. (2004). *What writing does and how it does it: An introduction to analyzing texts and textual practices*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bazerman, C., Little, J., Bethel, L., Chavkin, T., Fouquette, D. & Garufis, J. (2005). *Reference guide to writing across the curriculum*. West Lafayette: Parlos Press.

Bereiter, C. & Scardamalia, M. (1987). *The psychology of written composition*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bizzell, P. (1989). Cultural Criticism: A social approach to studying writing. *Rhetoric Review*, 7, 224-230.

Björk, L., Bräuer, G., Rienecker, L. & Jörgensen, P.S., (Eds.) (2003). *Teaching academic writing in European Higher Education*. New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Real Decreto 1027/2011, de 15 de julio, por el que se establece el Marco Español de Cualificaciones para la Educación Superior. Boletín Oficial del Estado de 3 de agosto de 2011.

Boscolo, P. & Mason, L. (2001). Writing to learn, writing to transfer. In Björk, L., Bräuer, G., Rienecker, L. & Jörgensen, P.S., (Eds.) (2003). *Teaching academic writing in European Higher Education* (pp. 83-104). New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Black, P.; Harrison, C; Lee, C; Marshall, B & Wiliam, D. (2004). Working inside the black box: Assessment for learning in the classroom. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 86(1), 4-17. DOI: 10.1177/003172170408600105

Boyle, A. & Hutchinson, D. (2009). Sophisticated task in e-assessment: what are they and what are their benefits? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 34 (3), 305-319.

Brodkey, L. (1987). *Academic Writing as a Social Practice*. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

Camps Mundó, A. & Castelló Badía, M. (2013). La escritura académica en la universidad. *Revista de Docencia Universitaria*, 11(1), 17-36.

Canagarajah, A.S. (2002). *Critical Academic Writing and Multilingual Students*. Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.

Carlino, P. (2003). ¿Quién enseña a leer y a escribir en la universidad? La perspectiva australiana. *Textos. Didáctica de la lengua y la literatura*, Barcelona, *32*, 88-98.

Carlino, P. (2005). *Escribir, leer, y aprender en la universidad. Una introducción a la alfabetización académica*. Buenos Aires: Fondo de Cultura Económica.

Carlino, P. (2013). Alfabetización académica diez años después. *Revista Mexicana de Investigación Educativa*, 18(57), 355-381.

Castelló, M., Mateos, M., Castells, N. Iñesta, A., Cuevas, I. & Solé, I. (2012). Academic Writing Practices in Spanish Universities. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 10(2), 569-590.

Chalmers, D. & Fuller, R. (1996). *Teaching for learning at university*. London: Kogan Page.

Curry, M. & Lillis, T. (2003). Issues in academic writing in higher education. In C. Coffin, M.J. Curry, S. Goodman, A. Hewings, T. Lillis & J. Swann, *Teaching academic writing*. London: Routledge.

Dublin descriptors *(*Joint Quality Initiative Meeting) (2004). http://www.tcd.ie/teaching-learning/academic-development/assets/pdf/dublin_descriptors.pdf

Fairclough, N. (Ed.) (1992). *Critical language awareness*. New York: Longman.

Fabio, H. di (2012). Hacia un inventario de escritura académica en el posgrado. *Revista de Orientación vocacional*, 26(49), 37-53.

Flower, L. & Hayes, J.R. (1980). The dynamics of composing: Making plans and juggling constraints. In: L.W. Gregg & E.R. Steinberg (Eds.), *Cognitive processes in writing* (pp. 31-50). Hillsdale, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Freedman, A. & Medway, P. (Eds.) (1994). *Genre and the new rhetoric*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Gillett, A. & Hammond, A. (2009). Mapping the maze of assessment: an investigation into Practice. *Active Learning in higher Education*, 10, 120-137.

Gore, J., Ladwing, J., Elsworth, W. y Ellis, H. (2012). *Quality assessment framework: A guide for assessment practice in higher education*. The Australian Learning and Teaching Council. Available from: http://www.altc.edu.au, accessed 09 February 2014.

Grabe, W. & Kaplan, R.B. (1996) *Theory & Practice of Writing*. London: Longman.

Granado, C. (2014). Teachers as readers: a study of the reading habits of future teachers. *Cultura y Educación*, 26(1), 44-70.

Guilkers, J.T.M., Bastiaens, T.J., Kirschner, P.A. and Kester, L. (2006). Relations between student perceptions of assessment, authenticity, study approaches and learning outcome, *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 32, 381-400.

Guzmán-Simón, F. & García-Jiménez, E. (2014). Los hábitos lectoescritores en los alumnos universitarios. *Revista Electrónica Interuniversitaria de Formación del Profesorado*, 17 (3), 79-92.

Guzmán-Simón, F., Navarro-Pablo, M. & García-Jiménez, E. (2015). *Escritura y lectura en Educación Infantil. Conceptos, secuencias didácticas y evaluación*. Madrid: Pirámide.

Halliday, M.A.K. & Hasan, R. (1985). *Language, Context and Text: Aspect of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Victoria: Deakin University Press.

Harris, J. (1989). The idea of Community in the Study of Writing. *College Composition and Communication*, 40, 11-22.

Horowitz, D. (1986). What professors actually require of students: academic talks for the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(3), 445-462.

Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, 7(2), 173-192.

Ivanič, R. (1998). *Writing and identity: The discoursal construction of identity in academic writing*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Jones, C., Turner, J. & Street, B. (Ed.) (1999). *Students writing in the university. Cultural and epistemological issues*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Lave, J. & Wenger, E. (1995). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lavelle, E. & Guarino, A. (2003). A Multidimensional Approach to Understanding College Writing Processes. *Educational Psychology*, *23(3)*, 295-305.

Lea, M.R. (2005). "Communities of Practice" in Higher Education. Useful Heuristic or Educational Model? En Barton, D. & Tusting, K. (Eds.), *Beyond communities of practice. Language, power and social context* (pp. 180-197). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lea, M.R. & Stierer, B., Eds. (2000). *Student Writing in Higher Education: New contexts.* Buckingham: SRHE/Open University Press.

Lea, M.R. & Street, V. (1998). Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach. *Studies in Higher Education*, 23(2), 157-172.

Lea, M. & Street, B. (2006). The "Academic literacies" Model: Theory and Applications. *Theory into Practice,* 45(4), 368-377.

Lillis, T.M. (2001). *Students writing: Access, regulation, desire*. London: Routledge

Lillis, T. (2003). Student writing as "Academic literacies": Drawing on Bakhtin to move from critique to design. *Language and Education*, 17(3), 192-207.

Lillis, T.M. & Scott, M. (2007). Defining academic literacies research: Issues of epistemology, ideology and strategy. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 5-32.

Mateos, M., Martín, E., Villalón, R. & Luna, M. (2007). Reading and writing to learn in Secondary Education: On-line processing activity and written products in summarizing and synthesizing tasks.*Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*. Retrieved from: http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007%2Fs11145-007-9086-6

Nicol, D., McFarlane-Dick, D. (2006). Formative assessment and self-regulated learning: a model and seven principles of good feedback practice. *Studies in Higher Education*. 31(2), 199-218.

Nystrand, M. (1990). Sharing Words: The effects of readers on developing writers. *Written Communication*, 7(1), 3-24.

O'Donovan, B. Price, M. & Rust, Ch. (2001). The Student Experience of Criterion-Referenced Assessment (Through the Introduction of a Common Criteria Assessment Grid). *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 38, 1, 74-85.

Olson, D.R. (1994). *The world on paper. The conceptual and cognitive implications of writing and reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Orsmond, P. Merry, S. Callaghan, A. (2011). Communities of practice and ways to learning: charting the progress of biology undergraduates, *Studies in Higher Education*. 1-17. First Article.

Price, M., O'Donovan, B. and Rust, Ch., (2007). Putting a social-constructivist assessment process model into practice: building the feedback loop into the assessment process through peer review, *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 44, 2, 143-152.

Price, M., Rust, Ch., O'Donovan, B. Handley, K. and Bryant, R. (2012). *Assessment Literacy: The Foundation for Improving Student Learning*. Oxford: Oxford Centre for Staff and Learning Development. Kindle version.

Radloff, A. (Ed.) (1998). *Communication-in-context. A Commonwealth Staff Development Funded Project*. Perth: Curtin University of Technology.

REACU (2014). *Criterios y directrices de evaluación para la acreditación de títulos oficiales de Grado, Máster y Doctorado*.

Rodríguez Gómez, G., Ibarra Sáiz, M. S. & García-Jiménez, E. (2013). Autoevaluación, evaluación entre iguales y coevaluación: conceptualización y práctica en las universidades españolas. *Revista de Investigación en Educación*, 11(2), 198 – 210.

Russell, D. (2002). *Writing in the academic disciplines. A curricular history*. Carbondale & Edwardville: Southern Illinois University Press.

Rust, Ch, O'Donovan, B, & Price, M. (2005). A social constructivist assessment process model: how the research literature shows us this could be best practice. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 30 (3), 231-240.

Serrano de Moreno, S. (2001). La argumentación como problema en la composición escrita de estudiantes de formación docente. *Lectura y Vida, 22(4)*, 26-37.

Shute, V.J. (2008). Focus on formative feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 78(1), 153-189.

Sinclair, J.M. (1991). *Corpus, concordance and collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Skillen, J., Merten, M., Trivett, N. & Percy, A. (1998). The IDEALL approach to learning development: a model for fostering improved literacy and learning outcomes for students. Conferencia de la Asociación Australiana para la Investigación Educativa. Retrieved from: http://ro.uow.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1149&context=asdpapers

Spivey, N.N. (1996). *The constructivist metaphor: Reading, writing and the making of meaning*. San Diego/London: Academic Press.

Stubbs, M. (1996). *Text and corpus analysis*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Street, B. (1984). *Literacy in theory and practice.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J.M. (1990). *Genre Analysis. English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tynjälä, P., Mason, L. & Lonka, K. (2001). Writing as a learning tool: An introduction. En: P. Tynjälä, L. Mason & K. Lonka (Eds.), *Writing as a learning tool. Integrating theory and practice*(pp. 7-22). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Press.

Van Dijk, T.A. (1978). *La ciencia del texto. Un enfoque interdisciplinario*. Barcelona: Paidós.

Van Dijk, T.A. & Kintsch, W. (1983). *Strategies of discourse comprehension*. Orlando: Academic Press.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice. Learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Wiliam, D. (2011). What is assessment for learning? *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 37, 3-14.

Wingate, U. & Tribble, C. (2012). The best of both worlds? Towards an English for Academic Purposes/ Academic Literacies writing pedagogy. *Studies in Higher Education*, 37(4), 481-495.

Zavala, V. (2011). La escritura académica y la agencia de los sujetos. *Cuadernos de Comillas*, 1, 52-66. Retrieved from http://www.fundacioncomillas.es/cuadernos-comillas/cuadernos/.

Notes

[1] Tasks that propose using stimulus material, rich in media (graphics, sound, video and animation) and which requires the student to interact in a variety of ways with the given material. Furthermore, each task should make reference to several themes or central topics in a student's learning

Authors	To know more / Saber más
Guzmán-Simón, Fernando (fernandoguzman@us.es). Profesor de Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura en la Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación de la Universidad de Sevilla. Su investigación se centra en la evaluación de las habilidades lingüísticas en Educación Infantil y de los procesos de alfabetización académica, tanto en el desarrollo de instrumentos de evaluación como en su validación. Es miembro del grupo de investigación EVALfor: Evaluación en contextos formativos (SEJ-509). Su dirección postal es: Universidad de Sevilla. Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación. Departamento de Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura y Filología integradas. Calle Pirotecnia, s/n. 41013 Sevilla (España)	ORCID 0000-0001-7189-1849 Google académico
García-Jiménez, Eduardo (egarji@us.es). Catedrático de Métodos de Investigación y Diagnóstico en Educación en la Universidad de Sevilla y miembro del grupo de investigación EVALfor: Evaluación en contextos formativos (SEJ-509). En los últimos años sus trabajos se han centrado en el desarrollo de procedimientos e instrumentos de evaluación en educación, a través de aplicaciones informáticas, para uso del profesorado que trabaja en diferentes etapas educativas tales como EVALCOMIX, DIPEVAL y HEVAFOR. Su dirección postal es: Universidad de Sevilla. Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación. Departamento de Métodos de Investigación y Diagnóstico en Educación. Calle Pirotecnia, s/n. 41013 Sevilla (España)	ORCID 0000-0002-5885-8267 Google académico ResearchGate