

Educational Assessment in an Information Age

Esther Care
Patrick Griffin
Mark Wilson *Editors*

Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills

Research and Applications

 Springer

Educational Assessment in an Information Age

Series Editors

Patrick Griffin

Esther Care

This series introduces, defines, describes and explores methods of developing new assessment tools in educational and work environments which are increasingly characterised by use of digital technologies. Digital technologies simultaneously demand, reflect, and build student skills in many areas of learning, old and new. They can and will continue to adapt and facilitate the assessment of both traditional academic disciplines as well as those known as 21st century skills. These skills include creativity, critical thinking and problem solving, collaborative skills, information technology skills, and new forms of literacy, and social, cultural, and metacognitive awareness. The capacity of digital technologies to capture student learning as a process as well as student achievement is vast. New methods need to be developed to harness this capacity in a manner that can produce useful and accurate information to teachers for classroom interventions, and to education systems for policy development. The series includes innovative approaches to assessment in terms of their psychometrics and technology platforms; outcomes of implementation of assessments of generic skills at large scale in the classroom; and use of large scale assessment data to inform policy in education. The series explores the assessment of new and emerging skills required of graduates and how new forms of assessment inform teaching; it projects into the future the kinds of assessment possibility associated with technology and explores the assessment links between education and the workplace.

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Esther Care • Patrick Griffin • Mark Wilson
Editors

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Editors

Esther Care
Brookings Institution
Washington DC, Washington, USA

University of Melbourne
Parkville, VIC, Australia

Patrick Griffin
Melbourne Graduate School of Education
University of Melbourne
Parkville, VIC, Australia

Mark Wilson
University of California
Berkeley, CA, USA

University of Melbourne
Parkville, VIC, Australia

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Preface

Over the past 8 years, I have had the privilege of leading a truly innovative project. Two previous volumes have reported on the conceptual framework and the research methodology used in this project to develop and calibrate collaborative problem solving and digital literacy tasks engaged in by human beings interacting on the Internet. The international research programme was led by Professor Esther Care, while I had the privilege of leading and directing the project overall. In this volume Professor Care has gathered together a group of researchers who have been exploring areas related to our first two volumes, bringing some closure to the ATC21S research. However, the work in this volume also opens the door to a large group of researchers to make contributions as we achieve a better understanding of the future of education and work within a digital environment.

This volume explores the impact of the global shift towards information- and technology-driven economies and the digital revolution demanding unprecedented shifts in education and learning systems. These shifts impact on curriculum for early childhood, school and further and higher education. Education and learning systems are under pressure to change and to emphasise lifelong learning approaches to education. This change expands upon education provision that occurs within the boundaries of formal age- and profession-related educational institutions that have historically been responsible for the transmission of bodies of knowledge.

The Internet has become a major source of knowledge and is rapidly becoming accessible to all. Information is now available faster than a teacher can tell, more broadly than an encyclopaedia can present and more comprehensively than a community library can provide. Educators want to respond to this change, but their training and employment are based on how much they know and can impart to students; governments want to respond too, but the pace of government policy change is at times debilitating; teacher education will need to review its role, but the loss of esteem and celebrated expertise associated with changing direction is difficult to overcome; parents are bewildered by the changes in schools and cannot recognise their own style of education in their children's classrooms; employers are reorganising their workplaces to alter manufacturing from products to information, but the new positions created by these changes are not being filled with first-job work-ready

employees. Relentless waves of change are producing the equivalent of an assault on learning, living and work that is transforming workplaces as we know them. We are moving into an era with new forms of work and new kinds of workplaces that require new training to induct people into them. Yet vocational education is, in many countries, locked into a model that treats workplace competence as a comprehensive set of discrete skills that are rehearsed in training but that struggle to remain relevant in the changing workplace.

In this rapidly changing world, education is, on the one hand, a cause of widespread consternation because of its apparent inertia; on the other hand, it offers salvation through its potential to prepare societies for economic changes in work, life and learning. But can education deliver through a different approach?

Modern education, both formal and informal, needs to prepare citizens for jobs that have not yet been created and for the fact that many jobs will disappear under the wave of technology-based change brought about by robotics and digitisation of the workplace. In the future, there will be technologies that have not yet been invented, and there will be ways of living, thinking and learning that have not yet emerged. Because of the digital revolution, people will leave school and universities with competencies, attitudes and values commensurate with a digital information age. Education must now focus on the preparation of a workforce demanding new ways of thinking and working that involve creativity, critical analysis, problem solving and decision making. Citizens need to be prepared for new ways of working that will call upon their communication and collaboration skills. They will need to be familiar with new tools that include the capacity to recognise and exploit the potential of new technologies. In addition, they will need to learn to live in this multifaceted new world as active and responsible global citizens.

For many countries, it is a formidable economic problem to prepare graduates for the new kind of workforce. Those wishing to be highly rewarded in the workforce of the future will need to be expert at interacting with people to acquire information and to understand what that information means and how to critically evaluate both the sources and the information. They will need to be able to persuade others of implications of information for action. As the world becomes more complex and integrated across national boundaries, individuals will need to be able to cross workplace and national boundaries to collaborate on shared information and emerging knowledge. The more complex the world becomes, the more individuals will need these competencies. The more content knowledge that can be accessed and researched, the more important filters and explainers will become: individuals need to be able to build problem solutions by identifying components and linking these together in ways that make sense to themselves and others.

In this volume, Professor Care and colleagues explore the implications of this digital world and today's dynamic environment for the education issues surrounding assessment and teaching of twenty-first-century skills: a timely and necessary undertaking as the world begins to face the implications of the fourth Industrial Revolution.

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Editors

Esther Care is a Professor at the University of Melbourne and directs the Assessment, Curriculum and Technology Research Centre, funded by the Australian Government to undertake research in the Philippines to inform that country's major K-12 education reform. Esther is also Senior Fellow with the Brookings Institution, Washington, DC, and there leads the Skills for a Changing World project which draws on countries' experiences as they integrate twenty-first-century skills into their education policy and practice and which works with countries to support teaching and assessment of skills in the classroom. From 2017, Esther is leading an initiative with regional centres in Africa and Asia to build assessment capacity in the context of countries monitoring their education progress against the Sustainable Development Goals.

Patrick Griffin held the Chair of education (assessment) at the University of Melbourne for more than 20 years. He was Associate Dean of the Graduate School of Education and the Foundation Director of the Assessment Research Centre as well as the Executive Director of the Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills (ATC21S) project. As Lead Consultant for the UNESCO Future Competencies project, he led the development of competency curriculum and assessment.

Mark Wilson is Professor of education and Director of the Berkeley Evaluation and Assessment Research Center at the University of California and Professor of assessment at the University of Melbourne. He teaches courses on measurement in the social sciences, especially as applied to assessment in education. In 2016, he was elected President of the National Council on Measurement in Education, and in 2012 president of the Psychometric Society. His research interests focus on the development and application of approaches for measurement in education and the social sciences, the development of statistical models suitable for measurement contexts, the creation of instruments to measure new constructs and scholarship on the philosophy of measurement.

Contributors

Raymond J. Adams specialises in psychometrics, educational statistics, large-scale testing and international comparative studies, is an Honorary Senior Fellow at the Assessment Research Centre of the University of Melbourne, and leads the Centre for Global Education Monitoring at the Australian Council for Educational Research. He was the International Project Director for the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) – perhaps the world’s largest and most significant educational research project – from its inception until 2014 and led its design. His personal research programme is on the extension of fundamental measurement models (Rasch item response models) to deal with performance assessments and on the application of item response methods to international surveys of educational outcomes.

Arto K. Ahonen is a Senior Researcher in the Finnish Institute for Educational Research at the University of Jyväskylä. His current work is related to the PISA 2018 study, in which he holds a position as a National Project Manager. He is also involved in the PREP21 study (Preparing Teacher Students for 21st Century Learning Practices), where his research is related to the assessment of preservice teachers’ collaborative problem-solving skills.

María Eugenia Bujanda is an Associate Researcher in the Omar Dengo Foundation, Costa Rica, where for more than 10 years she has held research and management responsibilities, first in the Research Department and then in the National Program of Educational Informatics. Her research is related to the use of digital technologies to promote personal, educational and social development. She has taught in the Universidad Pontificia Comillas of Madrid and the Universidad Estatal a Distancia of Costa Rica. She holds a bachelor’s degree in pedagogy (Universidad de Deusto) and a Ph.D. in social education (Universidad Complutense de Madrid).

Imelda Caleon is a Research Scientist at the Centre for Research in Pedagogy and Practice and the Learning Sciences Lab at the National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University. Her main research interests are in the areas of positive education and science education. She is currently engaged in several studies focusing on cultivating learners’ well-being and resilience. She received her Ph.D. from the Nanyang Technological University.

Kathleen B. Comfort works in the STEM programme at WestEd and is the Director of the Partnership for the Assessment of Standards-Based Science. Previously, she directed science assessment for the California Department of Education, served as Senior Research Associate for Project 2061 of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, was Coordinator of the Shasta County Assessment System and was a Teacher. She has served on National Research

Council committees including the Life Science Design team for the Framework for K-12 Science Education, the Board on Science Education, the Science Education K-12 Committee, the National Science Education Standards Assessment Group and the Addendum on Classroom Assessment.

Andreas Fischer is a Research Associate at the Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training (f-bb) in Nuremberg, Germany. Since 2014, he has been Editor-in-Chief of the *Journal of Dynamic Decision Making*. His research interests include wisdom, vocational competencies and complex problem solving.

Peter W. Foltz is Vice President in Pearson's Advanced Computing and Data Science Laboratory and Professor Adjoint at the University of Colorado's Institute of Cognitive Science. His work covers twenty-first-century skills learning, large-scale data analytics, artificial intelligence and uses of machine learning and natural language processing for educational and clinical assessments. The methods he has pioneered are used by millions of students annually to improve student achievement, expand student access and make learning materials more affordable. Dr. Foltz has served as content lead for framework development for OECD PISA assessments for reading literacy and collaborative problem solving.

Carol Forsyth is an Associate Research Scientist in the Cognitive, Accessibility, and Technology Sciences group at Educational Testing Service. She earned her Ph.D. in cognitive psychology with cognitive science graduate certification at the University of Memphis. Her research interests include discourse processes, theoretically grounded educational data mining, collaboration and serious games. She applies her knowledge of these topics to both learning and assessment. She has published over 30 peer-reviewed publications on these topics.

Joachim Funke is Full Professor of theoretical and cognitive psychology at the Department of Psychology, Heidelberg University, Germany. His primary interests are issues within problem solving and thinking research. He is one of the promoters of the European approach to complex problem solving using computer-simulated microworlds.

Mae-Lynn Germany is a Doctoral Candidate in counselling psychology and the Institute for Intelligent Systems at the University of Memphis. She has worked as a Research Assistant in cognitive science with the Institute for Intelligent Systems for the past 9 years, studying intelligent tutoring systems, question-asking and computational linguistics.

Perman Gochyyev is a Research Psychometrician at the University of California, Berkeley (UC Berkeley), at the Berkeley Evaluation and Assessment Research Center. Perman received his Ph.D. in quantitative methods and evaluation from UC Berkeley in 2015. His research focuses on latent variable and multilevel modelling, multidimensional and ordinal IRT models, latent class models and issues related to causal inference in behavioural statistics.

Arthur C. Graesser is a Professor in the Department of Psychology and the Institute of Intelligent Systems at the University of Memphis, as well as an Honorary Research Fellow at the University of Oxford. His research interests include discourse processing, cognitive science, computational linguistics, artificial intelligence and development of learning technologies with natural language (such as AutoTutor) and those that analyse text on multiple levels of language and discourse (Coh-Metrix and QUAID). He has served on expert panels on problem solving for OECD, including PISA 2015 Collaborative Problem Solving (Cochair).

Samuel Greiff is Associate Professor at the Institute of Cognitive Sciences and Assessment and Head of the research group Computer-Based Assessment at the University of Luxembourg. His current research interests cover large-scale assessment; cross-curricular skills such as problem solving, collaboration and adaptivity; and their assessment, validity and facilitation.

Päivi Häkkinen is a Professor of educational technology at the Finnish Institute for Educational Research, University of Jyväskylä. She has led research projects on technology-enhanced learning and computer-supported collaborative learning (CSCL). Together with her research group, she has conducted research related to processes, outcomes and contexts of CSCL. Her current research interests are related to the progression of twenty-first-century skills (skills for learning, problem solving and collaboration, as well as ability to use ICT in teaching and learning), particularly in the context of teacher education.

Daniel V. Holt is a Lecturer in theoretical and cognitive psychology at the Department of Psychology, Heidelberg University, Germany. His research interests include problem solving, executive functions and self-regulation.

Helyn Kim is a post-doctoral Fellow at the Center for Universal Education at the Brookings Institution. Her research focuses on understanding and assessing a broad range of skills that contribute to learning and development. She works on the Skills for a Changing World project, which seeks to ensure that all children have high-quality learning opportunities that build the breadth of skills necessary to succeed in the global economy. She received her Ph.D. in education from the University of Virginia. Her doctoral work provided a multidimensional approach to understanding the nature of and interplay between the foundations of learning.

Elizabeth Koh is Assistant Dean (research translation) and Research Scientist at the Learning Sciences Lab, Office of Education Research, at the National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore. Her research interests are in education and IT, particularly the twenty-first-century competency of teamwork in technology-mediated environments, computer-supported collaborative learning and learning analytics. She received her Ph.D. in information systems from the National University of Singapore.

Katarina Krkovic is a Research Assistant and a Doctoral Student at the Institute for Psychology, Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy at Universität Hamburg, Germany. Her current research interests cover emotion regulation processes and stress reactivity in psychopathology, as well as cognitive performance, including complex and collaborative problem solving.

Maida Mustafic is a Research Associate and Postdoctoral Research Fellow at the Institute of Cognitive Sciences and Assessment and a member of the research group Computer-Based Assessment at the University of Luxembourg. Her current research interests cover the understanding of the determinants and assessment of complex problem solving and collaborative problem-solving skills.

Hui Leng Ng is the Lead Research Specialist in international benchmarking and research at the Ministry of Education, Singapore. She received her B.Sc. and M.Sc. in mathematics from Imperial College of Science, Technology and Medicine; her M.Ed. in general education from the National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University; and her Ed.D. in quantitative policy analysis in education from Harvard University. She is involved in large-scale international studies such as TIMSS, ATC21S and other evaluation studies that inform educational policymaking and practice in Singapore. She is currently Singapore's National Research Coordinator for TIMSS.

Chew Leng Poon is Divisional Director for the Research and Management Information Division at the Ministry of Education, Singapore. She is also a Principal Specialist in research and curriculum. She earned her master's degree in curricular studies at the Ohio State University, USA, and her Ph.D. from the National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, specialising in science inquiry pedagogy. She currently directs Singapore's efforts in various international benchmarking studies and was Singapore's National Project Manager for the ATC21S project.

Leda Muñoz is the Executive Director of the Omar Dengo Foundation and Full Professor at the Faculty of Medicine of the University of Costa Rica. She holds a B.Sc. in biology (University of Costa Rica), an M.Sc. in physiology (California State University), a Ph.D. in human nutrition (University of California) and a post-doctorate in nutritional epidemiology (Cornell University). Her research is focussed on improving opportunities for the development of children and youth through education and health. She has engaged in the design and implementation of large-scale sustainable projects in these areas, focusing on educational interventions that support the development of skills and talents among youth.

Nienke Nieveen is Associate Professor at Eindhoven University of Technology, Netherlands, and Senior Researcher at the Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development (SLO). Her work focuses on teacher professional learning in relation to school-based curriculum development, educational design research and

curriculum design approaches and tools. Her doctoral dissertation (1997) was based on a design research project in the field of curriculum design and evaluation. She chairs the Curriculum Division of VOR (Netherlands Educational Research Association) and the Curriculum Network of EERA (European Educational Research Association) and is a member of the international advisory group of the Stirling Network for Curriculum Studies.

Tjeerd Plomp is Professor Emeritus at the University of Twente, Enschede, Netherlands. He has an M.Sc. in mathematics (1964) and a Ph.D. in education (1974) from the Free University Amsterdam. From 1989 to 1999, he was the chair of the IEA (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement), which conducts international comparative assessments, including TIMSS and PIRLS. He has received honorary doctorates from the Universities of Ghent, Belgium and Pretoria, South Africa. His research interests are educational design research, information technology in the curriculum and twenty-first-century skills in education. His most recent book is *Educational Design Research* (2013), coedited with Nienke Nieveen and freely downloadable from <http://international.slo.nl/edr>.

Johanna Pöysä-Tarhonen is a Senior Researcher at the Finnish Institute for Educational Research at the University of Jyväskylä. She obtained her Ph.D. in educational sciences in 2006 at Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Belgium, and the title of docent in 2016 at the University of Eastern Finland. Her research interests include computer-supported collaborative learning, learning environments and technology-enhanced assessment of collaboration and collaborative problem solving.

Dara Ramalingam is a Senior Research Fellow in the Assessment and Psychometric Division of the Australian Council for Educational Research. She is part of a test development team that specialises in constructing, describing and validating developmental continua. Dara played a leading role in test development for reading literacy in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2009 and led test development for the computer-based assessment of problem solving that was included in PISA 2012. Her Ph.D. focussed on how the data resulting from computer-delivered assessments can be used to improve construct validity and measurement precision.

Yigal Rosen is a Senior Research Scientist at Harvard University. He leads a research and development group that advances data analytics, learning and assessment initiatives across digital learning platforms such as HarvardX and Canvas. Dr. Rosen teaches design and development of technology-enhanced assessments at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. He obtained his Ph.D. in educational assessment from the University of Haifa, Israel. He was a Postdoctoral Fellow at Harvard University and at Tel Aviv University. Prior to joining Harvard, he was a Senior

Research Scientist at Pearson, leading innovative learning and assessment technology research.

Kathleen Scalise is Associate Professor at the University of Oregon and Director of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Science for ETS. Her areas of research are technology-enhanced assessments in science and mathematics education, item response models with innovative item types, computer-adaptive approaches and applications to equity studies. Her recent research projects include work on twenty-first-century skills assessments with Cisco, Intel and Microsoft; virtual performance assessments with Harvard University; and technology-enhanced assessments in the USA and with OECD and IEA projects.

Claire Scoular is a Research Fellow at the Assessment Research Centre, University of Melbourne, and the Australian Council for Educational Research. Her work focuses on the improvement of assessment practices in education, drawing on applications of psychological measurement. Her recent research has focused on measurements of twenty-first-century skills. Her doctoral work at the University of Melbourne identified a measurement methodology for assessing collaboration in online problem-solving environments. She has worked in psychometric assessment, intervention and research in the UK, the USA, New Zealand, Australia, the Philippines and Vietnam.

Jennifer Pei-Ling Tan is Senior Research Scientist (Learning Sciences Lab) and Assistant Dean (knowledge mobilisation) at the Office of Education Research, National Institute of Education, Singapore. She specialises in technology-mediated pedagogical innovations aimed at assessing and fostering twenty-first-century skills and dispositions in learners. She leads a number of competitively funded research projects, working closely with schools and policymakers to design, implement and evaluate web-based collaborative learning and formative learning analytics initiatives to promote collaborative creativity and criticality in young people. She holds doctoral and master's degrees in philosophy, education and business.

Michael Timms is Director of Assessment and Psychometric Research at the Australian Council for Educational Research. His research interests are in how technology can support the process of assessment by providing learners and teachers with feedback that enables them to advance their learning.

Sascha Wüstenberg works at TWT GmbH Science & Innovation. He received his Ph.D. at Heidelberg University, Germany, in 2013. His dissertation "Nature and Validity of Complex Problem Solving" considerably advanced research on CPS. He held a postdoctoral appointment at the University of Luxembourg from 2013 to 2015. His main research interests lie in educational measurement of problem-solving competency. He developed computer-based assessment of the interactive problem-solving tasks that were included in the assessment of interactive problem solving in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) in 2012.

Magaly Zúñiga is the Director of the Research and Evaluation Department in the Omar Dengo Foundation, Costa Rica. She currently leads the evaluation of learning outcomes of the National Program of Educational Informatics from a formative perspective, the development of tools to evaluate the professional development of educators regarding the educational use of digital technologies and the development of a test to evaluate computational thinking in students aged between 12 and 15 years.

Part I

Introduction

Chapter 1

Twenty-First Century Skills: From Theory to Action

Esther Care

Abstract This chapter provides a general introduction to issues and initiatives in the assessment of twenty-first century skills, the implications of assessment for the teacher and teacher training, the role played by technologies not only for demonstration of skills but for their measurement, and a look to the future. Frameworks that have informed a gradual shift in the aspirations of education systems for their students are described, followed by evidence of implementations globally and regionally. The role of the Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills (ATC21S; Griffin et al. (Eds.) (2012), *Assessment and teaching of 21st century skills*. Springer, Dordrecht) in reflecting and acting on a call by global consortia is outlined. This provides the context for the book contents, with the chapters briefly described within their thematic parts. The chapters provide a clear picture of the complexities of the introduction of teaching and assessment strategies based on skills rather than content.

The Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills (ATC21S; Griffin et al. 2012) initiative was stimulated by a coalition of global commercial organisations and engaged in by six countries in its research phase. Reflecting concerns about generating future workforces with the “21st century” skills that their workplaces required, Kozma (2011) discussed an aspiration for education reform which was information communications and technology-centric. The global discourse has moved toward a broader concern around global citizenship and global competence, but underpinning these concepts are the myriad twenty-first century skills identified in seminal frameworks of human characteristics. Each framework approaches the question of what people need to function effectively in society, and takes a variety of perspectives from high-level to detailed, and from inclusion of a vast array of human characteristics to skills or competencies alone. This is the context for the assessment and teaching of twenty-first century skills.

E. Care (✉)

Brookings Institution, Washington, DC, USA

e-mail: ecare@brookings.edu

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Frameworks

The frameworks, notwithstanding similarities (Voogt and Roblin 2012), also reveal very different ways of conceptualising human characteristics and the human condition. There are more differences across ways of framing these than there are in identifying the actual skills themselves. For example, some frameworks (e.g. Delors et al. 1996) take a very high-level perspective, echoing generic human learning targets – to know, to do, to be, to live together. Others such as OECD’s DeSeCo Report (Rychen and Salganik 2001) take into account the twenty-first century context more explicitly and provide more detail in identification of competencies. Similarly Partnerships 21 (www.p21.org) and the European Commission (Gordon et al. 2009) comprehend both the high-level concepts as well as specific competencies. The ATC21S framework (Binkley et al. 2012) follows this model but explicitly acknowledges competencies beyond skills, identifying knowledge, and the cluster set of attitudes, values and ethics. This perspective was prescient given the growing emphasis on global competency (OECD 2016) and global citizenship which clearly tap cognitive and social skills as well as morals, ethics, attitudes and values. Another influential framework, focussed on skills and abilities, was presented by Pellegrino and Hilton through the US National Research Council (2012). More recently, at the 2015 World Economic Forum core twenty-first century capabilities were again confirmed across the categories of foundational literacies (how students apply core skills to everyday tasks – e.g. literacy, ICT literacy), competencies (how students approach complex challenges – e.g. problem solving, communication), and character qualities (how students approach their environment – e.g. persistence, leadership).

In terms of the particular competencies that populate these frameworks, and that are identified as salient to twenty-first century education, there is strong consistency across global organisations and research groups. The majority of identified competencies generally fall within the cognitive and social domains, although a variety of classification systems is used. Since release of the aspirations that are the Sustainable Development Goals (UNESCO 2015a), a solid platform for consideration of a broader curricular approach has been established. Of particular interest in this context, Sustainable Development Goal 4 calls for skills beyond literacy and numeracy – including readiness for primary education (4.2), technical and vocational skills (4.4), and skills needed to promote global citizenship and sustainable development (4.7). These targets signal an emphasis on the breadth of skills necessary to prepare children, youth and adults comprehensively for twenty-first century citizenship and life. In order to capture an indication of how regions or countries, as opposed to global consortia and academia, are investing in a breadth-of-skills perspective in considering education reform, three initiatives illuminate the current state.

Movement at Regional and Global Levels

The Learning Metrics Task Force (2013a, b) was convened in 2012 to investigate how learning progress can be tracked at a global level and to “improve the learning outcomes of all children and youth by strengthening assessment systems and the use of assessment data”. The Task Force was coordinated by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and the Brookings Institution. It conducted two phases of research work. In the first phase the task force completed several rounds of global consultation and technical development involving 1700 people from 118 countries. Through this consultation process, a series of recommendations for improving learning outcomes and measurement at the global level was put forward. A significant output of the consultation was the Global Framework of Learning Domains, which described seven domains of learning that should be available to all children: physical well-being, social and emotional, culture and the arts, literacy and communication, learning approaches and cognition, numeracy and mathematics, and science and technology. The focus on competencies across the domains of learning took a curricular approach to twenty-first century skills. The penetration of the LMTF initiative is in large part due to the strong engagement by countries as well as global partners.

Since 2013, the UNESCO-supported ERI-NET and NEQMAP groups have been exploring the status and reach of transversal competencies in the Asia Pacific region. The first report (UNESCO 2015b) describes transversal competencies arrived at through an ERI-NET consensus process. Ten countries (Australia, Shanghai [China], China, Hong Kong, Republic of Korea, Japan, Malaysia, Mongolia, Philippines, and Thailand) in the Asia-Pacific region participated in the study which documented the variety of approaches to transversal competencies that these countries took at policy and practice levels. The list represented core sets of skills (critical and innovative thinking, inter-personal skills, intra-personal skills, global citizenship) as well as allowing for national and cultural differences across countries in the region. The report concluded that “the ten education systems... have all recently introduced or moved to strengthen existing dimensions of transversal competencies in their education policies and curricula” (p. 21). The second study in the series (UNESCO 2016) addressed the links between policy and practice. The emergence of teaching practices which emphasised student-centred practical tasks was documented, as was also the lack of teacher training to support these practices. The majority of participating systems were of the view that existing mechanisms could be used for assessment of transversal competencies. This finding hinted at lack of deep understanding of the implications of introduction of competencies to the education process. This finding was supported in the fourth study supported by UNESCO through NEQMAP (Care and Luo 2016) which explored implementation of assessment of these skills. Across the nine participating countries in the fourth study, there was strong evidence of awareness at policy and school levels of the drive for assessment, but its implementation was hampered by lack of teacher understanding about the skills and relevant materials and resources.

In the third initiative, and taking an individual countries perspective, a scan of online national education websites representing 102 countries by the Brookings Institution (Care et al. 2016) demonstrated that 86% of sampled countries include twenty-first century skills in some aspect of their educational aspirations. The most frequently named skills drawn from the global scan were communication, creativity, critical thinking and problem solving. The congruence of these country-nominated skills with those identified in the global frameworks and elsewhere (e.g., Voogt and Roblin 2012; UNESCO 2016) is striking, and provides strong support for the stability of attitudes about what qualities are to be valued in twenty-first century education.

The second decade of the twenty-first century has thus seen evidence of increasing emphasis on twenty-first century skills, demonstrating that the conversations are not confined to global organisations or academic consortia, but are being addressed at regional and country levels.

Both the UNESCO NEQMAP initiative and the Brookings Institution global scan surface the big issue – implementation. The scan of the 102 countries represented information available in the second half of 2016, and is dynamically updated (www.skills.brookings.edu). It does not represent the total population of such information – merely that which is accessible through online search. The data were analysed across four levels. The first level explored vision or mission statements. Where these include a reference to a goal that is explicit concerning twenty-first century skills, or implicit by virtue of referring to a quality that requires such skills, this is taken as evidence of endorsement of the importance of twenty-first century skills. The second level explored whether a country identifies particular skills. The third level sought for evidence that would clarify that skills are a part of the curriculum; and the fourth sought for evidence of awareness that skills in their own right follow a learning progression and will therefore be taught and learnt at different stages and through different discipline areas. Meeting this final level would imply that the notion of development of skills as part of a sequence of learning is accepted. This would be a pre-requisite for adaptive integration of skills in the curriculum, in pedagogy and assessment.

The data demonstrate that most countries identify twenty-first century skills as part of their educational goals, while fewer countries identify skills development progressions and their integration through the curriculum (Fig. 1.1). In some cases, the commitments of national education authorities are to specific skills or competencies, and how these are included in the curriculum without information about learning progressions. In other cases, just mission or vision statements make explicit the valuing of the competencies.

In cases where the mission is not supported by information at all the levels, it may well be due to natural lag between intention and action. Notwithstanding, it is clear from the patterns of penetration of the “skills agenda”, as well as from the richer information derived from the ERI-NET and NEQMAP studies (2015, 2016), that some national systems face challenges in addressing what amounts to a considerable education reform. The challenges can be ascribed to many factors that play into reform generally – political, procedural, and technical. Beyond these are factors

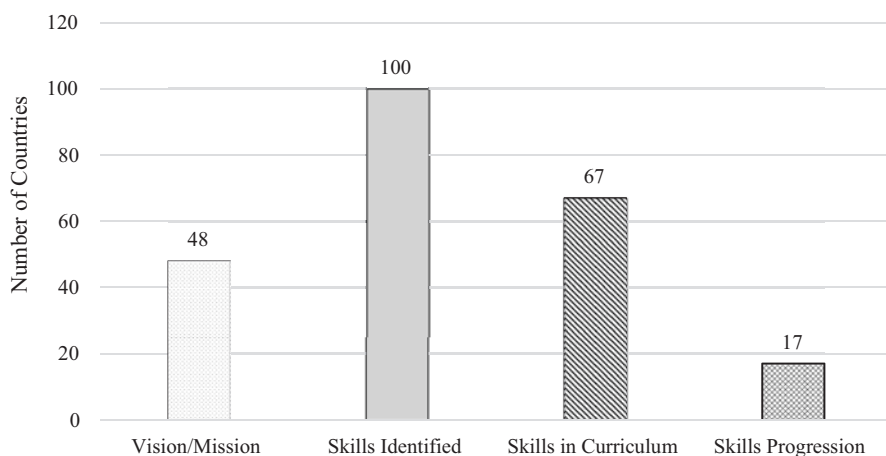


Fig. 1.1 Skills across layers of country documentation (Adapted and updated from Care et al. 2016)

associated with this particular reform. Introduction of a competencies focus in education requires a shift from the content focus that characterises many national curricula. This shift relies not only on curriculum reform, but also changed approaches to pedagogy and assessment. What is to be taught dictates best methods for teaching and best methods for assessment. And this is the area which currently challenges us.

The Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills Project

The ATC21S project was sited very much in this space, of establishing frameworks within which to link assessment and teaching. The project closed formally in 2012 with the development and delivery of a conceptual framework for twenty-first century skills (Griffin et al. 2012); a focus on two skills areas – collaborative problem solving and ICT literacy in digital networks; an approach to formative assessment; and teacher professional development modules (Griffin and Care 2015). Since that time, interest has peaked in collaborative problem solving, mainly as a result of the 2015 PISA study in which collaborative problem solving was assessed in up to 65 countries.

ATC21S provided an approach to assess students as they engaged with tasks online and collaborated. Student navigation of digital networks and problem solving behaviour was captured electronically in activity log files for synchronous scoring and reporting against developmental progressions. The progressions provided guidelines for teachers about how students might demonstrate the skills at increasing levels of sophistication and competence such that these could be integrated into their teaching. How the insights into these complex twenty-first century skills might

be translated into classroom practice is the challenge for national education systems globally.

Technology permeates our living and working. If education is to prepare students for the future, technology is an integral component. If, however, technology is to realise its potential, it needs to be better integrated at the classroom level, as part of instructional delivery, formative assessment, and appropriate intervention and tracking of outcomes and learning. At the system level, technology can be embedded into the broader educational policy decisions that align standards and objectives with twenty-first century skills.

A great deal of current research and system monitoring programs focus on basic skills such as reading comprehension, writing, mathematics, and scientific literacy, which are taught in schools under pressure of traditional curriculum demands. Little progress in terms of international comparative studies that examine the processes by which cognitive and social skills are developed had been made either at the student or the system level until 2015 when the OECD through its PISA project measured student performance in collaborative problem solving. Building on the ATC21S research across six countries on collaborative problem solving and digital literacy in social networks, the measurement and identification of collaborative problem solving assumes an important status in twenty-first century skills education. Collaborative problem solving (Hesse et al. 2015) incorporates the cognitive skills of task analysis (problem analysis, goal setting resource management, flexibility and ambiguity, collecting information and systematicity), and problem resolution (representing and formulating relationships, forming rules and generalisation and testing hypotheses), as well as interpersonal skills such as participation (action, interaction and perseverance), perspective taking (adaptive responsiveness, and audience awareness [mutual modelling]) and social regulation (negotiation, meta-memory, transactive memory, and responsibility initiative). These non-cognitive skills are increasingly important and the identification of ways to focus attention on them in terms of their measurement and development at student and system level is becoming increasingly urgent.

An Explicit Shift in Education

What we are seeing is not a revolution in education. It is better understood as a shift in how we recognize the importance of developing generic skills and competencies during basic and secondary education. We are making explicit our expectations of education in terms of these generic outcomes. The point of education has always been to equip students to function effectively in society. As our society has changed, we are re-visiting this expectation, and focusing more explicitly on the particular skills and competencies that have been highlighted as essential for functioning in our technological world.

Intrinsic to this move toward the explicit, countries are including twenty-first century skills in their curricula, looking at the implications for teaching, and exploring assessment approaches that might both capture and support the skills. There is

clearly major interest in twenty-first century skills at country, regional and global levels. Lagging behind the interest is knowledge about how to assess and teach the skills. In this volume we see initiatives to redress this balance.

Description of This Volume

The chapters in this volume are organised within three main themes. These are assessment of twenty-first century skills, country initiatives with a focus on implications of the twenty-first century skills agenda for teachers and teacher education, and the measurement and applications of information technologies. The final chapter provides a comprehensive systemic view on the phenomenon.

Part 1, Assessment of 21st Century Skills, opens with this chapter, and is followed by a chapter exploring the authenticity of assessments of twenty-first century skills. Care and Kim (2018) highlight the challenges associated with the measurement of skills in a general education context. Taking the position that assessment should reflect as closely as possible the way in which the object of that assessment will be demonstrated, they highlight the consequences of the nature of twenty-first century skills for assessment. The practical and adaptive nature of skills is identified as a primary challenge to their assessment, since it is the capacity to respond to different situations and non-routine scenarios that is the goal, while the nature of assessment typically requires that a situation is known and that there is a finite number of responses to ensure objective evaluation. To illustrate their argument Care and Kim use Gulikers et al. (2004) principles of authenticity as a framework to review a selection of assessments of twenty-first century skills. They conclude on a note of major concern about lack of progress in the assessment of complex constructs, thereby raising challenges which authors of the subsequent chapters explore from different perspectives.

The following three papers delve into the history of technology-supported problem solving and its move into complex and collaborative variants. The perspective of these papers distinguishes the concerns of assessment specialists rather than practitioners, and traverse terrain far removed from assessment in the classroom.

Funke et al. (2018) focus on complexity. Rather than seeing problem solving as a simple model in which a number of processes combine to facilitate a desired outcome, their approach considers the role played by non-cognitive factors such as motivation and self-regulation. This moves the discussion past recent views which have focussed on problem solving solely as a cognitive set of processes. Constructs such as collaborative problem solving have considered the additional role of social processes but primarily due to the need to make interactive processes explicit as part of group approaches to problem solving. The authors express some impatience with the slowness of technical progress in assessment of problem solving, dare to refer to the invisible elephant, “g”, although without resolution of its role, and suggest expansion of the computer-simulated microworlds approach to assess their postulated “systems competence”. Although this may provide the potential to capture

communication as well as the cognitive processes in problem solving, social characteristics such as self-regulation or motivation, initially identified as clearly important by the authors, remain to be addressed. As researchers struggle to theorise and measure increasing complexity as knowledge about that complexity increases, this chapter raises questions about whether systems competence is merely about acting on a complex problem space that requires a multiplicity of different problem solving processes, or whether it is something qualitatively different.

Krkovic et al. (2018) follow the iterations in online assessment of problem solving. They introduce their work with reference to the ambiguous and non-routine nature of complex and collaborative problem solving. Grounding much of their discussion in the MicroDYN tasks designed as minimal complex systems (Funke 2010) where respondents manipulate input variables and monitor effects on outcome variables, the authors move from assessment of the individual to the collaborative. Noting the challenges inherent in trying to capture both social and cognitive processes in online assessment environments, the authors contrast the PISA human-to-agent approach with the ATC21S human-to-human approach. Krkovic et al. point out that large scale assessments of problem solving processes have now been implemented for over 15 years. The history of these processes makes clear the early progress in online capture through dynamic systems, and the complexities that arise as our understanding of the cognitive and social competencies becomes successively more comprehensive.

Graesser et al. (2018) identify differences between problem solving and collaborative problem solving as based primarily in need for multiple resources, division of labour, and diverse perspectives. Their focus is on these needs rather than on what characterises the two sets of activities – to wit, that collaborative problem solving requires the processes to be explicit due to the need to communicate. Their approach leads directly to the issue of whether the team or the individual needs to be the focus of assessment. Aligned with OECD's PISA (2013) approach to assessment of the construct, Graesser et al. provide a comprehensive justification for assessment of the individual within the collaborative dynamic – primarily on logistic grounds. Notwithstanding a matrix approach of 12 skills to identify the structure of the construct for PISA, the authors describe the main task as working toward a unidimensional scale for collaborative problem solving. This tension between complexity and the desire for simplicity is reflected more broadly in other efforts in measurement of skills – for example in OECD's efforts to measure global competency (2016), or current attempts to determine a universal global metric for education. Graesser et al. describe the approach taken by the PISA Collaborative Problem Solving Expert Group and following the ATC21S method of initially identifying three levels of functioning to guide task development and measurement. Issues of interdependence and symmetry are also highlighted although the human-agent nature of the PISA approach nullifies some of the measurement issues associated with these (Scoular et al. 2017). Moving to the challenges in assessment and measurement of complex skills, Graesser et al. highlight discourse management, group composition, and the use of computer agents in assessments. An extensive discussion of the complexities of communication makes clear the huge challenge in

attempting to capture this phenomenon in a standard and automated way. This challenge of course is inextricably linked to decisions concerning use of agents in online assessment platforms, an issue that Graesser et al. inform.

Both the circumscribing of capacity to stimulate human processes and collect the emanating data, as well as the potential of that data capture, are highlighted. Notwithstanding aspirations to identify sets of complex processes as unidimensional constructs, it is not yet clear that our methods or data can support these. These chapters reflect concern with assessment issues in a space far from the use of results by teachers to enhance student skills.

The chapters in Part 2 illustrate applications and exploration of assessment of twenty-first century skills from founder countries in ATC21S. From the focus on assessment which characterised the original project, these chapters reflect transition to deeper exploration of skills and their implications for teaching and learning. The authors respond to the global uptake of the notion of skills education, and focus on how implementation of these complex constructs might be seen, monitored, and enhanced in the classroom.

Tan et al. (2018) jump right into this conundrum, hypothesising associations between collective creativity and collaborative problem solving with a focus on students. Using Assessment and Teaching of twenty-first Century Skills (ATC21S) project data, Tan and colleagues argue that creativity is central to problem solving, implicitly drawing on creativity's cognitive dimensions such as divergent thinking, and explore the degree to which the assessment data support the association. Tan et al.'s definition of collective creativity identifies dimensions similar to those that were hypothesized by Hesse et al. (2015) as contributing to collaborative problem solving, thereby providing a rationale for associations between the two constructs. The complexity of the model proposed highlights the challenge of assessment of interactive problem solving behaviour. The authors' finding of lack of impact of metacognition needs to be considered within the wider question of whether knowledge-building necessarily has immediate impact on the learning task itself, as opposed to longer-term impact. Tan et al.'s contribution confirms the value of deconstruction of complex constructs to components that can be brought to the attention of teachers for instructional purposes.

Ahonen et al. (2018) reflect upon the demand for better assessment of twenty-first century skills as a result of Finland's emphasis on interdisciplinary and generic skills and competencies. Introduction of more inquiry-based learning approaches and reliance on small group learning and teaching assumes teachers' own understanding of these approaches and their own skills. Ahonen et al. seek in particular to understand teachers' teamwork and collaborative dispositions given the centrality of these to Finland's vision for inquiry-based learning approaches that rely on collaborative as well as technology-enhanced modes of working. Within a large scale study of training needs of pre-service teachers, the authors focus on a small group of pre-service teachers, and analyse self-report across components of collaboration, such as negotiation and cooperation, as well as their performance on ATC21S tasks. Lack of consistency across the data sources raises both methodological and substantive questions. Do collaborative skills necessarily contribute to outcomes in a

collaborative problem solving context? To what extent are self evaluations valid forms of assessment of characteristics such as collaborative dispositions? The PREP21 project provides a valuable context through which to understand the preparation needed to ensure that teachers can shift from their own learning experiences to a twenty-first century learning and teaching environment.

Comfort and Timms (2018) introduce their concerns about twenty-first century learning by alluding to the transmission model, through which teachers transmit factual knowledge to students but which does not necessarily facilitate students' capacity to understand and apply. They postulate that twenty-first century skills are not learnt unless explicitly taught. Comfort and Timms hold that despite large scale twenty-first century initiatives such as Partnerships21 and ATC21S, as well as development of the US-specific Common Core State Standards, teaching and assessment of twenty-first century skills in the US is minimal. Taking a particular interest in Next Generation Science Standards, the authors consider how learning activities in the classroom might be structured through the use of games, drawing on collaborative skills and focussed on inquiry, explanation, argumentation and evaluation. Expanding on a study by Bressler (2014), Comfort and Timms highlight the specific opportunities needed by teachers in order to develop the skills to model the learning that needs to take place in the twenty-first century classroom.

Scoular and Care (2018) focus on how systems might facilitate the teaching of twenty-first century skills, through looking at Australian approaches to teacher development. They draw attention to the issues generated by lack of understanding of the nature of the skills, and how and when the various skills might differentially be brought to bear across school subjects. Notwithstanding the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority's (ACARA) development of the General Capabilities (ACARA 2013) which is accompanied by extensive online resources for teachers, the gap between policy and implementation is noted. With trans-disciplinary skills needing a coherent messaging across different teaching staff, school approaches rather than individual professional development for teachers need to be considered. Looking specifically at collaborative problem solving, Scoular and Care present three case studies which focus on preparation of teachers themselves, teacher resources, and higher education responsibilities. The diversity of the case studies across these topics is testament to the complexity of this education shift and the need for a systemic perspective.

Bujanda et al. (2018) position Costa Rica's education initiatives in the country's decision to prioritise needs and opportunities associated with technologies and technology-based learning since the 1980s. The National Program of Educational Informatics established in 1988 has moved from a learning-by-doing orientation to a learning-by-making approach. Its constructivist approach draws attention to evidence of learning, often enabled through technologies. Costa Rica's current curriculum emphasises project-based learning, and assessment is increasingly influenced by its formative purpose. Bujanda et al. identify the contributions of ATC21S to the country's increasing expertise through initiatives such as the National Program's assessment of Citizenship and Communication, Productivity and Research and Problem Solving. The 2017 announcement of Costa Rica's new curriculum identifies

the ATC21S framework as inspiring expected learning outcomes. The authors make clear the country's continuing emphasis on technologies and their use as an intrinsic component of twenty-first century education provision.

Together, the perspectives contributed by these authors who participated in the research active phase of ATC21S, demonstrate an increasing concern for translation of the theory into approaches to implementation. It is clear that despite varied performance in international large scale assessments across the countries, there is consensus at the actual delivery level to students for education systems to explore how to deliver opportunities to their students for acquisition of skills above and beyond traditional discipline achievements.

The chapters in Part 3 witness the multiple implications of information and communications technologies – for measurement and within the classroom. We follow the technical path taken by Wilson and colleagues in the context of the skills themselves, to insights from Ramalingam and Adams about how capture of process data further informs our understanding of the skills. Scalise follows with examples of student activities at differing levels of proficiency within an information literacy environment.

Wilson et al. (2018a) present a historical account of development of concepts of ICT literacy over the past two decades which form the framework for their work on ICT literacy in networks. In describing this framework Wilson et al. also provide contextual information about the ATC21S project at large providing a picture of the drivers for the project and its goals. From this base, Wilson et al. (2018b) raise some fascinating issues around complementarity of the measurement approach taken by Wilson et al. (2015) with learning analytics. They describe four principles that good assessment and measurement should adhere to: to be based on a developmental paradigm, to be aligned with instructional goals, to produce valid and reliable evidence, and to provide information useful to teachers and students. Wilson et al. (2018b) argue that a learning analytics approach can be used to explore data that remain inaccessible to most automated scoring methods, such as may be used in text analysis. Their “sentiment analysis” demonstrates reasonably strong alignment with handscoring methods, prompting their conclusion that learning analytics modules might reasonably be embedded within measurement models. Wilson et al. (2018b) also approach a vexed issue in the assessment of individuals operating within groups. Where individuals' responses cannot be regarded as independent, there are both measurement and substantive concerns. From modelling of results from ATC21S using both unidimensional and multidimensional item response models, and with and without random effects for groups, the authors propose that a combined measure of group and individual level performance provides the best estimates of ability. How these findings are to be explored in the context of the four principles of good assessment and measurement is part of the new vista for assessment.

Ramalingam and Adams (2018) explore the nature of and the opportunities provided by data captured as part of online assessment of complex constructs. Drawing on the traditional item format also used by Graesser et al. (2018) – multiple choice items – Ramalingam and Adams interrogate PISA digital reading data to determine