

## Ethical Aspects in Language Testing

■ Hossein Farhady

□□ Prof. Iran University of Science and Technology

### Abstract

*In spite of the inherent imprecision, incompleteness, and subjectivity, language testing has witnessed great advancements in the last few decades. From teacher-made tests to highly standardized tests, to assessment procedures all have contributed to the development of psychometrically better tests, instructionally more useful tests, and socially fairer tests. However, there remain some unresolved issues in the field which require attention, research, and clarification.*

*One of the major topics which has been the focus of so much debate among the scholars is the concept of ethics in language testing. What is ethical and what is not? Is the whole testing procedure ethical or not? Should testing be ethical? And finally, can it always be ethical?*

*The purpose of this paper is to touch upon the issue of ethics in language testing from a sociopolitical perspective. More specifically, the paper addresses the following issues. First, the uses and misuses of language tests, teacher-made or standard, which lead to unfair*



*decisions raising, in turn, the issue of ethics, will be presented. Second, the concepts of ethical and antiethical applications of test results within different social and political contexts will be explained arguing for the idea that in some cases, an antiethical procedure may be not only inevitable, but also necessary. And finally, some suggestions and guidelines will be offered for fair application of language test scores.*

**Keywords:** *Ethical Aspect, Testing, Language, Sociopolitical*

## **Introduction**

In the last few decades, testing in general, and language testing in particular, have witnessed shifts of focus in theory as well as in practice. The short history of language testing has witnessed different perspectives which have appeared, grown, popularized, taken control over the field, and eventually faded away. Formerly, testing and measurement followed what can be called the instructional perspective. That is, tests were normally prepared and used by teachers only. No scientific characteristic such as reliability or validity was required for the tests used by the teachers as testers. Thus, testing was performed on the basis of the tastes, knowledge, or in short, on the basis of idiosyncratic preferences of the teachers. With the advancements in the application of scientific findings to instruction, testing moved into what can be called the psychometric perspective. Principles of psychometrics were firmly applied to instructional tests with the belief that educational outcome should be measured by valid and reliable instruments. In the present century, psychometric dynasty has come to rule over the educational measurement.

Within the psychometric perspective of language testing, however, two major obstacles have persisted. First, an operational definition of the phenomenon to be tested has not been available. This lack of concise operational definition is due, among other reasons, to the complexity, the multidisciplinary nature, and the abstractness of the construct of language ability. Once defined in pure linguistic terms, language ability is now an applied linguistic phenomenon influenced by the

advances in psychology, sociology, anthropology, and other related fields. Consequently, the formerly accepted linguistic definition of language ability is no longer satisfactory because defining language ability in purely linguistic terms does not seem comprehensive enough to account for its use, change, acquisition, and interpretation. These aspects, which are not exclusively related to linguistics, constitute the interdisciplinary nature of language as a medium of communication. The use of language, for example, relates to sociolinguistics, its acquisition to psycholinguistics, its changing nature to linguistics, and its interpretation to discourse and pragmatics. That is why a comprehensive treatment of language through one single dimension is neither easy nor acceptable. In addition, concepts and constructs in the above-mentioned areas, as branches of applied linguistics, are not concrete or objective by themselves. This subjectivity adds more complexity to the definition of language itself as well as to that of language ability. When the ability to be measured cannot be, at least, easily defined, the whole idea of validity, which is the heart of the educational measurement, would be jeopardized.

The second shortcoming in the psychometric perspective is rooted in the problems and prospects of the measurement field itself. From among theoretical approaches to measurement in educational psychology, Classical Test Theory dominated the test statistics for a long time. The scope of this paper does not allow for a discussion of the deficiencies of the Classical Test Theory at the moment; nor does it seem necessary here because it has been treated fairly comprehensively in the literature (Henning, 1987; Bachman, 1990). However, although the emergence of Generalizability Theory and Item Response Theory to account for psychometric problems of measurement have considerably advanced our understanding of the test score treatment, they have not cured all the ills either (Shavelson and Webb, 1991; Hamblton, et al., 1991; McNamara, 1991, 1996). This implies that regarding the measurement of language ability, some imprecisions exist which could jeopardize the reliability, the brain in contrast to the heart, of the tests. Thus, from a live creature like a test of which the heart and the brain do not or cannot function properly, a perfect performance should not be expected.

It should be noted, however, that no matter how imprecise psychometric devices



of language measurement might be, and no matter how applied linguistics foundations of language tests might be, language educators have to prepare and administer the tests. Furthermore, language testers are bestowed with the power of making decisions on the educational, social, occupational, and, sometimes, the personal lives of the test takers. That is why, tests in general, language tests no exception, have turned into extremely powerful weapons in the hands of not only teachers, but also administrators, economists, politicians, and some other authorities in the society.

When there is power, there develop all sorts of principles for the appropriate implementation of the power. In language testing, "appropriate implementation" is often referred to as fair application of test results to the decisions made on the lives of the test-takers. Fortunately, in the last few decades, appreciable attention has been directed towards a fair implementation of test results under the topic of **ethics** in language testing (Lynch, 1997; Shohamy, 1997). However, as with many other concepts in the field of language testing, there are disagreements among the scholars on the treatment of the term "ethics" from different perspectives. The issue is touched upon here from a sociopolitical perspective. More specifically, this paper addresses the following issues. First, the uses and misuses of language tests which may lead to unfair decisions, which in turn, may raise the question of ethics in language testing, will be presented. Second, the concept of ethical and unethical applications of test results within different sociopolitical contexts will be explained, arguing for the idea that, in some cases, an unethical perspective may be not only inevitable, but also necessary. And finally, some suggestions and guidelines will be offered for fair implementation of language tests.

### **Uses and Misuses of Language Tests**

Extensive and strict application of psychometric principles led educational testing into a discipline where numbers played a determining role. From the very first stage of test development to the last stage of interpretation of test scores and evaluation, numerical information controlled the whole process of testing and measurement. Items were prepared, revised, and evaluated with reference to numerical values such

as item facility, item discrimination, and choice distribution. Tests were judged almost entirely on the basis of empirical pieces of information such as reliability and validity indexes. Decisions were made on the basis of the numerical values obtained from the tests. This number-oriented attitude toward language testing became so strong that sometimes it overshadowed the quality of the tests in terms of content relevance, content coverage, and context appropriacy (Bachman, 1990).

On the other hand, the diversity of the tests, developed under different conditions and used for different purposes, led to the multiplicity of and the discrepancies in the interpretations of the numbers obtained from the tests. Thus, test organizations tried to justify their interpretations by resorting to psychometric qualities of the tests. For instance, it was assumed that the higher the reliability and validity indexes, the better the test. Therefore, test developers tried their best to improve such numerical values even to the cost of quality. However, when the interpretations of the scores expanded too much, they tended to confuse the test users as well as the decision makers. As a result, the field was forced to come up with a uniform interpretation of the numbers because the reported numbers had to communicate similar meanings to different people independent of the effect of contextual and situational variables. Apparently, the idea of uniformity in its strong sense led to the concept of standardization. And thus, an era of standard tests started, developed, and extended control over the entire educational systems in the world.

The era of standardization mandated a clear definition of the concept of the "standard" itself. That is, both test administrators and test users were interested in an agreed-upon definition of the expression of "a standard test". At first, standardization was used as an umbrella term for a variety of tests even with unclear and unspecified characteristics without any serious objections from the field. With growing dissatisfaction about the concept of standardization, test developers began to identify the extent of standardization for tests, specially for professionally marketed, and I don't mean professionally catered, tests. Eventually, some features were identified as necessary requirements of standard tests. These features included uniform procedures for test planning, item selection, scale development, norming,



instructions to the testees and proctors, timing, scoring, and interpretation of the scores. Each and every one of these issues has been the focus of much discussion in the literature.

Although standardization through the above mentioned stages of test development may seem quite obvious for testing authorities, not all the stages are followed to the satisfaction in some standardization processes. When such well-known factors have not been satisfactorily accounted for, other less obvious ones may not even be taken into consideration. For instance, it is assumed that instructions to the proctors, testees, and administrators are interpreted exactly and accurately by all people involved in testing processes. Almost all contextual, situational, and environmental varieties, which might influence the examinees' performance and thus introduce irrelevant test variance, are most often ignored. Of course, the purpose of standardization is to eliminate the effect of as many extraneous factors as possible on test performance. However, most of these factors along with others such as physical surroundings in which the test is done, the health, attitude, and emotional status of the examinees, time of the testing, to name a few, are not, or cannot be empirically accounted for. Nor could they be standardized. In most cases, these factors creep into test development and administration processes and contaminate the information which is assumed to be related only to the trait being tested.

In addition to the above problems, which were basically related to the process of test standardization, other disadvantages have often been attributed to standard tests. The most significant of all is the correspondence between the content of the standard tests and what the learners have actually been taught. In most cases, students focus on learning the materials that are most likely to appear in the test. Apart from the fact that this is the student's legitimate right to make best out of his endeavor in preparing for the test, it may lead to what Livingston, et al. (1989) called "test driven curricula". They claim that when the results of the tests are used to compare individual learners, teachers, school systems, and even school districts, it might be assumed that test driven curricula would be the most logically natural outcome. Most of the scholars, however, claim that there is a mismatch between the



content of the standard tests and what exactly goes on in the classroom.

Moreover, some testing authorities claim that nation-wide tests are designed to measure students' achievement in schools. The purpose of such tests is to improve the quality of education. The implication is that the testers control and almost dictate what will be tested and consequently what will be learned. Teachers and educators, on the other hand claim, that testers view tests as synonymous with curriculum and learning (Shepard, 1991). Nation-wide tests are often based on the materials to which not all schools are equally exposed. They claim that such tests are inefficient because there is no correspondence between what teachers are supposed to teach, what they actually teach, and how their teaching outcomes are evaluated.

And finally, some scholars have demonstrated that factors such as sex, socioeconomic status, test form, students' majors, and exposure to language significantly influence test performance. For instance, Shohamy (1993) examined the effect of introducing a new EFL oral test as part of the nation-wide high school matriculation exam on the level of English proficiency. She found that introducing a new test led to the teaching of "test language", i.e., only those language tasks and skills were taught which were likely to appear on the tests. Furthermore, teachers focused on the procedures that facilitated achieving the goals of the test rather than on the real learning of the materials. Further, it was claimed that performance on a standard test and meeting the standard set by the test does not necessarily guarantee the existence of the abilities which the testees are required to perform. Thus, standard tests served neither the purpose of achievement tests nor the purpose of proficiency tests.

In spite of the existence and persistence of the above-mentioned problems, most scholars claim that standard tests are efficient devices to measure educational outcomes, at least more efficient than the traditional assessment procedures. Of course, this is a tradition in educational measurement and specialists in this area believe that mass assessment is a procedure to investigate the failure or the decline of educational programs and to offer remedial steps. They also believe that standard tests are used to provide comparable data for the purpose of offering guidelines for students' future academic career, and even to investigate the efficiency of instruction



(Wiggins, 1989; Robinson and Craver, 1989). Others go further to claim that standardized tests render viable, inexpensive, reliable, and valid indicators of student learning. They also claim that data from standardized test are readily available, cheap, and abundant. Most statistical properties are provided by the test developers which make test users relieved from the complexities of data analysis. They further believe that standardized tests make it possible to generalize and to draw conclusions about the data and their implications (Sanders and Horn, 1995).

Although there are advantages and disadvantages regarding the utilization of standardized tests, they still have their position as major sources of information upon which decisions are made. When there is a decision to be made, there comes the power on the side of the decision-makers. That is why tests (standardized or teacher-made) with local, national, or international norms have become a means of power in the hands of people who may not be well-informed about the process of testing and measurement. Since uses and misuses of power can lead to serious consequences, a brief description of the concept of power in language testing seems necessary.

### **Power of the Tests**

There is no doubt that testing is an indispensable and, at the same time, an important part of education. Therefore, those who are involved in education (teachers, learners, administrators, teacher trainers, decision-makers) assume responsibility toward their profession. When there is responsibility, there should also be power to enforce the fulfillment of the responsibility. So, tests are and should, I would assume, by their very nature, be powerful. That is why Spolsky (1997) claims that the concept of power has been inherently associated with tests and examinations ever since their invention.

Part of the power of the test is due to the fact that within areas of human sciences and particularly applied linguistics, testing is one of the few fields that approximate empirical sciences. Testing is scientific and allows experimental procedures through which empirical data can be obtained and statistical techniques applied (Shohamy, 1993). That is, the collected data would be interpreted as



objective and fairly true. The "objective" and "empirical" information obtained through tests is then used as a reliable device for making decisions. She also argues that tests are powerful because they produce scores which are possessed by the testers not the test-takers, and documentation of these scores places the individual in an area of surveillance. She believes that test scores are described by decision-makers as useful educational means for the advancement and improvement of education. That is, through the tests, educational authorities exert power over the educational systems to make their intended modifications; and testers assume that test scores are obtained through objective measures and that these scores provide true pieces of information on test takers' ability (Shohamy, 1997). Along the same lines, McIntyre (1984) states that since the aim of decision-makers is to adjust means to ends in the most economical and efficient way, they will use scientific information as if it were universally true.

In addition, tests are powerful because so many people are influenced by test scores. These people, or to follow Rea-Dickins (1997), stakeholders, include language testers and teachers, parents, administrators, teacher educators, governments, sponsors and funding organizations, public, and the list is not exhaustive. Each and every group has a share of power in the testing process. The long list of stakeholders can be divided into educational, social, and political groups. Each group has a different type of interest in and intention for utilizing tests as a source of power because each group is concerned with a number of internal and external factors.

People in the educational context include students, teachers, and teacher trainers whose careers are often evaluated by the results of the tests. They are the ones who might be later victims of the tests being administered. Therefore, they show more enthusiasm for the test quality and are anxious about the consequences of the tests. More specifically, teachers do know what they have taught, what portions of the materials they have concentrated on, and what subjects deserve to be included in the test. Therefore, they are curious to observe the correspondence between what they have taught to the students and what the students are tested on.

The discrepancies between what is taught and what is tested would lead to



changes in instruction, in focus on the materials, and eventually in the quality of education. Thus, tests administered on a national scale, whether intended or not, bring about certain modification in the quality and quantity of education. These changes are desirable if they are in the direction of improvement, though in some cases, they are not purely educational. Further, tests are sometimes used by the authoritative agencies to frighten the educators in order to stimulate the system. It usually occurs when there is a failure in learning. An example is the proposals to introduce national tests in the USA because of the low scores that American children obtain on international tests (Madaus, 1991). Spolsky (1997) also points out that test results are used as tools for enforcing educational goals, especially in situations where actual education has failed.

People in the social context are greater in number than those in the educational context. From individual and family characteristics, to community structures, to national and international macrostructures are all influential factors regarding the implementation of power by the test users. Test-takers, as members of different families, react differently to test results because they have different infrastructures. Some individuals do not have much sensitivity toward the outcome of the test because their family structure makes no imposition on the young members of the family to try hard enough that they can pass a test. Even some families are not very much concerned about what the consequences of the test scores might be on the lives of their children. On the other hand, there are individuals whose families are quite dogmatic about test scores. Such families create the impression on their children that a failure on a test may cost their whole future. Therefore, these families would exercise all sorts of restrictions and limitations on the personal lives of the youngsters in order for them to succeed in the tests. And still a great majority fall in between the two extreme positions. The various attitudes toward test results can be attributed to many factors including the educational background of the parents, the socio-economic status of the family, the number of children in the family, and even the residential area of the family.

The community structure is also important in shaping the attitudes of its members toward how powerful tests can be. In some countries, there is an incredible

competition among the contestants for certain cases. For instance, one and half a million high school graduates take the university entrance examination in Iran where only about one tenth of the applicants can have their ways to higher education. For some of them, it takes one or two years of round-the-clock preparation for the test which usually costs them more than the total annual income of their families. In some communities, even the personal and social values of individuals are judged by their success or failure in this particular exam. Thus, there is an immense degree of pressure on the individuals and families in the community regarding the outcome of the tests.

National and international factors are also important in some countries. The number of students in higher education institutes, i.e., the quantity, and the number of students winning some international academic awards, i.e., quality, leave a great pressure on the educational authorities. This pressure is downloaded to teachers to prepare students for such competitions. In some cases, these students are selected through different phases of local and national testing procedures. Those who are selected, undergo strict and special training to succeed in international competitions. Although success of such specially-trained people, who do not represent the population, is in no way an indication of academic standards of the society, it is recorded as national academic achievement. On the other hand, indexes referring to the number of academic institutions, students, teachers, and the international awards won by a few intelligent and specially trained individuals often determine the academic rating of a nation in the world.

People in the political context probably enjoy the highest share of power regarding the outcome of the tests. Those who make educational policies at the national level can make decisions which might turn the test scores into a source of fear for the individuals. The exercise of power and control through tests can be observed in a variety of settings and contexts. Tests are used by policy-makers as tools to manipulate the educational system, to control curricula, and to impose the introduction of new textbooks and new teaching methods.

For instance, Hawthorne (1997) claims that Australia can be characterized by the use of language testing for political purposes – frequently in the context governed



by macropolitical pressures (Hawthorne, 1994, 1995; McNamara, 1991, 1996). English language ability is used as a criterion to control skilled immigration intakes. When the country was suffering from economic recession and the government wanted to cut the number of immigrants, high pass levels were required. With the economic recovery and a cautious rise in the migration program, language requirements were significantly eased (Hawthorne, 1994). Another case is the standard set by universities in western countries for the admission of nonnative students. For example, ETS has set the standard of 500 on TOEFL as an indication of one's ability to pursue his/her education in a university where English is the medium of instruction. When Iran was exercising some political problems with these countries, some of the universities raised the standard from 500 to 550 just to deny admissions to Iranian applicants.

Educational and sociopolitical contexts mentioned above normally inject power into the tests, which is somewhat worrying because there is always a possibility of the misuse of power. It does not really make any difference who misuses the power because the result will harm an individual or a group of people. Of course, all tests including language tests are constructed by a specialist or a group of specialists in an academic atmosphere and with good will. They hope that their tests will be used fairly and justly. However, the uses and misuses of the tests as powerful tools for decision-making are not under the control of the test developers.

A potentially reasonable way to avoid power misuse in testing is to inform those in power through giving them information on the nature and consequences of the tests. Then it would be possible to control the misuse of power in a logical manner. For example, some stakeholders are more important than others. The more important ones make the decisions and take actions while the less important ones are those affected by the decisions. Therefore, the orientation should be directed toward the people in the power position in order to help them make fair decisions. Those who are affected by test scores also need orientation to understand how they have been judged and what the test scores could mean to them. In spite of the fact that language testers have repeatedly and publicly announced the importance of decision-making, many decisions are still made which cannot be justified on the

grounds of the ability being tested. As Shohamy (1997) states, the difference between description and judgment should be taken into account in decision-making; while tests give descriptive information, decision makers often use the results for judgment, i.e., punishment or reward.

Since the use of tests for the purpose of power and control has become a widespread phenomenon in many countries, questions have been raised not only on whether using tests in such a way can advance and improve learning in a meaningful way, but also on the ethicality of using tests for these purposes. That is why ethics in language testing has become one of the major concerns of language testers in recent years.

### **Ethics in Language Testing**

Problems in language testing are not limited to only the vagueness of the trait being measured or the imprecision in the measurement of the trait. The ultimate goal of administering a test, whether it measures a well-defined construct or not, and whether it measures the construct with precision or not, is to enable test authorities to make fair decisions on the lives of stakeholders. Bachman (1991) groups the types of decisions to be made into two major categories: first, the decisions made about test takers' language abilities as well as their ability to use language in contexts outside the test itself; and second, the decisions made on selecting the testees for a particular occupation or academic career, on diagnosing the students' problem areas in language, on placing test-takers in appropriate channels of instructional programs, on monitoring student progress, on assigning them class grades, on granting them certificates of many kinds, and giving them occupational and employment opportunities.

In spite of the multitude of decisions to be made, language testers are often not directly involved in decision-making processes. However, they are aware of the potential problems with test scores due to unclear definition of the trait as well as to the imprecise measurement procedures. They are also aware that no test score is, in any sense, an absolute indication of any ability it may claim to be. Therefore, had language testers been in charge of decision-making, they would have made decisions.



cautiously. Nevertheless, decision-makers are usually administrators, bureaucrats, and politicians who are not well aware of the problems involved in testing. They often assume that test scores are true indications of abilities and make decisions as if there were no faults in testing procedures. That is why language testers have always complained about the total authoritarian attitude of the decision-makers. Language testers claim that decisions should be made with taking the potential flaws of test scores into considerations. Language testers also claim that the decisions should be fair, not harming, and just regarding the test-takers. In recent years, these issues in language testing have been receiving an increasing attention under the cover term of "ethics."

No one would deny the fact that ethical considerations are important, not only in language testing, but also in any other academic activity. Nor would anyone disagree that language testers should assume responsibility toward social and individual aspects of the test-takers' lives. What is difficult to operationalize, however, is the definition, extent, and limits of ethics. Punch (1994) claims that ethical issues include consent, deception, privacy, confidentiality, and equal opportunity to learn. Lynch (1997) elaborates on these concepts quite succinctly. However, neither of them clearly states whether the context of discussion is language testing for the purpose of making decisions or language testing for the purpose of conducting research.

Regarding ethical issues, then, some confusions exist. Concepts such as fairness, bias, morality, and the context in which these concepts have been used are not at all clearly identified in the field. Fairness is discussed in terms of bias, and bias in terms of ethics and both are assumed to be immoral. Even Lynch goes too far to claim that Davies' definition of a test as a discriminating instrument is immoral to start with. Davies (1997) defines a test quite professionally because in the context of assessment if there is no discrimination, there is neither fairness nor morality. For instance, if calling a test-taker "a low achiever" might hurt his/ her feelings morally, not telling a test-taker a "high achiever" might hurt his/ her feelings even more because the knowledgeable test-taker deserves to be informed of his high achievements.

In relation to consent, Lynch (1997) mentions that, "this may not be a matter of



much concern in the context of language testing, except when language tests are used for research purposes” (p. 317). However, the effect of other parameters of ethicality such as deception, privacy, and confidentiality seems to be, at best, unclear. Almost all test-takers are well aware that they are supposed to take a test, and in most cases, they are informed of the type, purpose, and consequences of the test in advance.

Furthermore, the importance of the consequences of the test results, what Messick (1989) calls consequential validity, seems to have been overemphasized in recent years. Davies (1997) states, quite considerably, that “the apparent open ended offer of consequential validity goes too far. I maintain that it is not possible for a tester as a member of profession to take account of all possible social consequences” (p. 335). It can be argued that in some sociopolitical contexts, a tester is not even allowed to assume responsibility towards the consequences of the decisions made on the test scores. In such cases, language testers are assigned to develop such tests and deliver the tests to certain government agencies. What kind of use the agencies would make of the test scores is often a matter of sociopolitical concerns rather than an academic endeavor. Thus, ethical considerations should be discussed in different contexts each with different parameters because what may be ethical in one context, may not be so in another. Some of these contexts are educational contexts (research vs. decision-making), sociopolitical contexts (public vs. government), and moral contexts (fairness vs. bias). Each is briefly discussed below.

### **Educational Context (*Research vs. Decision-Making*)**

*Educational context* refers to what Bachman (1990), and Bachman and Palmer (1996) call *language use*, or the purpose for which a given language test is administered. The idea of ethics and ethical considerations have long been established as an important issue in the context of educational research. Right of being anonymous, right of privacy, and right of confidentiality are agreed upon codes of conduct in educational research. Although these ethical considerations are necessary in conducting research, they are not essential in the context of language testing for two reasons:

First, in doing research, the main purpose is to collect information in order to



uncover the mysteries and solve some of the problems of human life. There is absolutely no force on the subjects to participate in research because no decision is to be made on them personally. Second, since in the research context, people who serve as respondents or participants are not the target for decisions, the researcher is mostly interested in the nature of the information rather than its exact source. Therefore, the identity of the respondents is not as important as the quality of the data they provide. Only in special cases of outliers would the researchers be curious about the personal identity of the subjects for the purpose of follow up studies. In other words, for research purposes, one can enslave a number of subjects and collect data on various aspects of a variable. Depending on the extent of internal and external validity of the research project, a certain degree of generalizability can be achieved.

In the context of educational testing, which almost always ends up with some sort of decision making, however, testers should be concerned with the realities of educational contexts rather than with theoretical rhetoric of testing. No matter how psychometrically sound, theoretically strong, and ethically desirable a test may be, practical considerations may limit its use. That is, from the four desirable characteristics of a test, i.e., reliability, validity, ethicality, and practicality, the last one may override the others depending on the limitations and restrictions of the educational systems. The following examples may help clarify the point.

No one would disagree that listening comprehension is an important component of language ability, especially in an academic setting. Nor would any board of education disagree with incorporating a listening comprehension component into language test batteries. To administer a listening comprehension test, however the least a practitioner needs is a tape recorder, a native or a near native speaker of the language to prepare the tape, and more importantly, a dependable electric power. When such rudimentary facilities are not available in a particular testing context, it would not be fair to include a listening comprehension component in the test.

As another case, although oral interview is known to be a valid and reliable measure of speaking ability, most standardized language tests deliberately ignore measuring this ability because it has practicality constraints. In most cases, regardless

of these limitations, however, the educator or the language tester has to make decisions on a large number of applicants. This is exactly where the social responsibility of the language tester plays a crucial role in offering a viable alternative. If indirect measures can be utilized to compensate for these constraints, the outsider critic would consider the test as unfair and the decisions unethical, while the whole idea was to improve the quality of the test scores in order to make fairer decisions.

Thus, the concept of ethics is and should be important in both testing for research purposes and testing for decision making. The point, however, is that in the context of education, some factors may influence the interpretation of ethicality beyond its commonly assumed limits. More importantly, it should be determined whether ethical considerations in testing are similar to those in research or testing should find its ethical considerations and standards in its own context.

### **Sociopolitical Context (*Public vs. Government*)**

Within the social contexts of language testing, the degree of public awareness about the quality of the tests is an important factor. Public interest in the quality of the tests, however, depends very much on the success or the failure of the test-takers. That is, no matter how ill-formed a test might be, as long as the test-taker obtains a passing score, no one would complain or even be concerned about the test. Failure on the test, however, would be often blamed on the quality and unfairness of the test rather than the test-takers' ability. This is particularly true in societies where the culture of testing is not appropriately cultivated. In such societies, there is a wide gap between the public perception of language testing process and what the test does.

Political context is even more important because it is related to the government agencies. Governments are often the owners of the educational institutions, and thus act as super-controllers of the whole system. For instance, certain laws are suggested and approved by the parliament to give certain stakeholders an advantage on the test over the others. The reason for such a decision may not need to be explained here. It would suffice to state that no matter how legitimate such decisions might be, they



are not academically justified. Of course, within the conceptual world of ethics, such a procedure is immoral, unethical, biased, unfair, and a legalized illegality. Nevertheless, it is a fact that political preferences mandate certain actions which are quite justified on the basis of the conditions of a country. So, what might be considered quite unethical some where is perfectly ethical elsewhere. This implies that ethics is simply a value code rather than an objectively defined term.

### **Moral Contexts (*Bias vs. Fairness*)**

Morality refers to whether a test is biased for or against a particular group of test-takers which might lead to unfair decisions. It should be mentioned that the terms “bias” and “fairness” are closely related but quite distinct at the same time. Bias is a statistical characteristic of the test score, or of the predictions based upon those scores. Bias is said to exist when a test involves systematic sources of error in measurement or prediction. The existence of bias can be defined empirically and determined statistically. By examining the data, one can determine the extent to which a test provides biased measures or biased predictions. Fairness, on the other hand, refers to a value judgment regarding decisions or actions taken as a result of test scores. It involves a comparison between the decision which were made and the decisions which should have been made. A test is most likely to be attacked as unfair when (a) it leads to adverse decisions for some groups in the population, (b) it is the sole basis for decisions, and (c) the consequences of doing poorly on the test are harsh (Seymour, 1988).

Although fairness cannot be determined by statistical methods, it can be remedied in different ways. Spolsky (1995) reviews the literature and states that in old times, one was to mitigate the hardship of those who having just approached the gates of Paradise are excluded, though in all probability not a whit worse than those who are just included, by giving a second examination to the best of the unsuccessful and the worst of the successful, and ranking them on the average of the two results. Thus, one way to alleviate the consequences of unfairness is multiple assessment through which many relevant factors can be taken into account. Another way is to employ multiple stage decision models rather than making irreversible decisions

about everyone at the point of testing (Cronbach & Gleser, 1965).

## **Conclusions and Suggestions**

In order to put the sociopolitical aspects of ethics in language testing in a proper context, a three way conversation between the test-taker, the test developer, and the decision-maker is presented.

The test taker states "I am a high school graduate. I have studied English for 6 years. The kind of English I have learned is planned with the materials developed by the central board of education. I usually received the textbooks a couple of months after the academic year had begun. In some cases, I did not have a teacher from the beginning of the course. When I had the textbooks, I did not have the teacher, and when I had the teacher, I did not have the textbook. There is no private language institute in my hometown that I could improve my English. Nor did I have the facilities to attend even if there were the opportunities. I have had no access to extra educational materials, books, magazines, technomedia, or any other facilities. I have a friend, however, who is also a high school graduate, whose case is quite different. He attended private institutes ever since he was in junior high school. He studied in a private school with highly qualified teachers with excellent materials in English. He had also access to many TV programs broadcast in English. Although I may be more motivated to learn English than my friend might have been, I have not had the opportunity to learn the language. With this sort of difference in our educational backgrounds, I don't think it is fair to give both of us the same test because he would naturally outperform me."

The verse seems quite impressive and may raise a lot of enthusiasm from the audience. Everybody would tend to believe that given the same test to such differently educated people may not be fair.

The second person in the conversation is the test developer who states: "I am in charge of test development. My responsibility is to prepare a test on the basis of the specifications given by the officials. I have been assigned to make the test in such a way that it represents the whole materials which were supposed to have been covered during the courses of instruction. I was not provided with information about



the regional differences in the quality and the quantity of education. Even if I had the information, I was not permitted to consider such differences in the construction of the test. I don't even teach anymore, and I don't have any idea of the priorities given by different teachers in different regions to different language elements. The test, however, is developed on the assumption (whether true or not, whether fair or not, whether valid or not) that all students in all places in the nation have studied and supposedly learned the materials. Fair or not is not my responsibility."

Such statements make people feel enthusiastic about the test developers because he is not really in fault. He has followed the instruction given to him by the authorities. The test-taker and the test-developer seem to be innocently guilty in the testing process which does not seem fair.

The third person in the conversation is the official in charge of the testing process who claims: "Based on the rules and regulations governing the national education, the whole planning is done once and for everybody in the country. The textbooks are the same, the teachers are instructed to cover the materials, and everybody is given similar opportunity to learn. Of course, I am aware of some inequalities at the levels of education across the nation as well as unequal distribution of good teachers and availability of good materials in different places in the country. However, I have to follow the rules of competition and select the most knowledgeable students for the purpose of higher education. It is not very important whether the students have had equal opportunities to learn. What is important for me, as the person in charge of selecting students for the job, giving them admission to universities, or awarding them certain educational grants, is to select the best ones from among the members of the group. If I had to take into account such discrepancies, I had to give different tests of differing degrees of difficulty, or I had to make selections on different qualifications. This would jeopardize national standards and the purpose for which the test is designed."

The audience is left in a dilemma. It is quite logical for the test-taker to complain about the opportunities he had had for his educational career. It is also quite natural for the test-developer to clean himself of any accusation regarding the unfair testing procedure. And finally, it is quite understandable for the officials to make their best



effort in selecting the most competent applicants from among others. But where is the flaw? Who is acting unfairly? Where is the bias? What is unethical? And finally, what is the responsibility of each, in general, and the responsibility of the language tester in particular? Pennycook (1994) answers this last question by stating that the responsibility of language testers is clear: we must accept responsibility for all those consequences which we are aware of. Furthermore, there needs to be a set of conditions and parameters inside which we are sure of the consequences of our work and we need to develop a conscious agenda to push outward the boundaries of our knowledge of the consequences of language tests and their practices.

To achieve such a goal, language testers should assume three types of responsibility. First, they should attempt to provide a clear definition of the trait being measured, in this case language ability. Clarification of the trait to be measured is the responsibility of the testers in so far as it can be fulfilled by the findings in applied linguistics. Second, language testers should be concerned with how precisely the trait can be measured. The precise measurement of the trait is the responsibility of the language testers in so far as it can be fulfilled by the findings in psychometrics. The third, and probably the most important, responsibility of language testers is to exercise care about the decisions made on the basis of scores obtained from the measurement of the trait. The appropriacy of the decisions to be made, which is the social responsibility of the language testers, may be fulfilled in so far as they are involved in the process of decision making.

To fulfill the first responsibility, language testers can benefit from the most advanced developments in applied linguistics. They can utilize the latest theoretical findings about the nature and the structure of language from the field of linguistics. They can also get advantage from the findings in the area of educational psychology and second language acquisition about the theories of learning in general, and those of language learning/ acquisition in particular. By accumulating knowledge from different fields of applied linguistics, language testers feel responsible for formulating the clearest understanding of the trait of language. As for the second responsibility, language testers can utilize the findings of psychometricians to understand the complexities of measurement theories. They assume responsibility in



practicing the principles of psychometrics in order to make the measurement of the trait as precise as possible. Regarding the third area of responsibility, i.e., decision-making, however, testers cannot do much because decision-making is in the hands of people other than language testers. In spite of the fact that language testers are at the center of the process of language testing, they do not have direct access to the parameters of decision-making. Politicians, educators, bureaucrats, and so many other sectors in the society are in the position to make decisions. Language testers' responsibility in this case is limited to only giving guidelines to the decision-makers, of course, if they ever get the opportunity.

The interaction among language testing, applied linguistics, and psychometrics, has helped the field of language testing to mature in recent decades. It has not been more than a three-decade period that language testing has moved from utilizing simple primitive statistical techniques to test data to most sophisticated ones. It may be true that in the early years the concepts such as the mean, the standard deviation, the variance, and correlation coefficient were striking for the people in the field. While at present, utilizing the most complex statistics such as Generalizability studies, different models of Item Response Theory, structural equations models, and varieties of factor analytic techniques do not surprise any one in the field. All these achievements have been possible through collaborations among language testers, applied linguists, and psychometricians. Such a trend will hopefully improve the testing conditions to the benefit of all stakeholders in the future.

A word of caution is in order here to close the paper. Putting the findings of different fields of study together, which is inevitable in interdisciplinary fields, may lead to some disadvantages as well. Some language testers may not have a firm grasp of the complexities of the fields from which they may seek help. This may cause misapplications of the theoretical and practical principles. No one would disagree with the misuses of correlational and factorial analyses in the 70's and 80's, which led to an outbreak of the so-called indivisible nature of language as well as other mental processes which somehow involved language. Therefore, great care should be exercised in the application of the principles of the other fields to language testing in order to avoid misleading conclusions.

## **References**

- [1] Bachman, L. (1990). What does language testing have to offer. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26 (4).
- [2] Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. OUP.
- [3] Bachman, L. & B. Palmer (1996). *Language Tests in Practice*. OUP.
- [4] Cronbach, L. J. & G. Gleser (1965). *Psychological Tests and Personnel Decisions*, (2nd ed.). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- [5] Davies, A. (1997). Introduction: The limits of ethics in language testing. *Language Testing*, 14 (3).
- [6] Davies, A. (1997). Demands of being professional in language testing. *Language Testing*, 14 (3), 328-339.
- [7] Hambleton, R. K., H. Swaminathan and H. G. Rogers (1991). *Fundamentals of Item Response Theory*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- [8] Hawthorn, L. (1994a). The politicisation of English: the evolution of language testing. *People and Place*. Vol. 2. Melbourne: Australian Forum for Population Studies, Monash University.
- [9] Hawthorn, L. (1995). The politicisation of English. Part Two. The access test and the skilled migration program. *People and Place*. Vol. 3. Melbourne: Australian Forum for Population Studies, Monash University.
- [10] Henning, G. (1987). *A Guide to Language Testing*. Newbury House Publishers.
- [11] Livingstons, C., S. Castle and J. Nations (1989). Testing and curricular reform: one school's experience. *Educational Leadership*, 46 (7).
- [12] Lynch, B. (1997). In search of the ethical test. *Language Testing*, 14 (3).
- [13] Madus, G. (1991). Current trends in testing in USA. Paper presented in the conference Testing and Evaluation. *Feedback Strategies for Improvement of Foreign Language Learning*, February 4-5 Washington, Dc. The National Foreign Language Center.
- [14] Messick, S. A. (1989). Validity. In R. L. Linn (ed.), *Educational Measurement*. American Council on Education. MacMillan.
- [15] McIntyre, A. (1984). *After Virtue*, (2nd ed.). Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press.



- [16] McNamara, T. F. (1991). Test dimensionality: IRT analysis of an ESP listening test. *Language Testing*, 8 (2), 45-65.
- [17] McNamara, T. F. (1996). *Measuring Second Language Performance*. Addison Wesley, Longman Limited.
- [18] Pennycook, A. (1994). *The Cultural Politics of English as a World Language*. London: Longman.
- [19] Punch, M. (1994). Politics and ethics in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzing, and Y. S. Lincoln, (eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- [20] Rea-Dickins, P. (1997). So, why do we need relationships with stakeholders in language testing? A view from the UK. *Language Testing*, 14 (3).
- [21] Robinson, G. and J. Craver (1989). *Assessing and Grading Student Achievement*. Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service.
- [22] Sanders, W. and S. Horn (1995). Educational assessment reassessed. *Educational Policy Analysis Archive*, 3 (6).
- [23] Seymour, R. T. (1988). Why plaintiffs council challenge tests, and how they can successfully challenge the theory of validity generalization. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 33, 331-364.
- [24] Shavelson, J. R. & N. Webb (1991). *Generalizability Theory: A Primer*. Sage Publications.
- [25] Shepard, L. (1991). Psychometricians' beliefs about learning. *Educational Researcher*, 20 (7), 2-9.
- [26] Shohamy, E. (1993). The power of tests: the impact of language tests on teaching and learning. *National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) Occasional Papers*, June.
- [27] Shohamy, E. (1997). Testing methods, testing consequences: Are they ethical? Are they fair? *Language Testing*, 14 (3).
- [28] Spolsky, B. (1997). The ethics of gatekeeping tests: What have learned in a hundred years. *Language Testing*, 14 (3).
- [29] Spolsky, B. (1995). *Measured Words: the development of objective language testing*. Oxford: OUP.
- [30] Wiggins, G. (1989). A true test: toward more authentic and equitable assessment. *PHI DELTA KAPPAN*, 70 (9), EJ 388723.