



**“Stop measuring black kids with a white stick”:  
Translanguaging for classroom assessment**

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## **“Stop measuring black kids with a white stick”: Translanguaging for classroom assessment**

### **Abstract**

In this conceptual paper, we explore the opportunities and challenges that translanguaging may provide for students from Australian Aboriginal backgrounds and their teachers. We use examples taken from Australian Aboriginal students who may speak Standard Australian English (SAE), Australian Aboriginal English, creoles (Kriol being the common one across the north of Australia) and traditional languages (e.g., Kija, Martu etc.). We begin by examining the concept of translanguaging and show how Australian Aboriginal students can move fluidly between their various linguistic resources, dialects and repertoires to make meaning, express their thoughts, understandings and feelings, create their identities and, do so in often playful and creative ways. The principles of fair and valid assessment are explored and the role that translanguaging can fulfil for assessment purposes is considered. We also document some of the social, cultural and linguistic biases that underpin aspects of assessment and make suggestions for improvement. In particular, we examine how teachers can approach assessment so that students with Aboriginal backgrounds are able to draw on their full linguistic repertoire and, in this way, address the issues surrounding discriminatory assessment practices that are founded on monolingual mindsets (Gramling, 2016). We also take up the gauntlet to "stop measuring black kids with a white stick" and seek positive and embracing ways for all students with Aboriginal backgrounds to engage in assessment practices.

### **Introduction**

Speakers have a wide-ranging linguistic and semiotic repertoire they can access for various language practices. For those deemed traditionally to be bi/multilingual, including many Australian Aboriginal people, this may include the use of more than one language. However, when such speakers are students in schools, those parts of their language that do not align to ‘classroom/school talk’ are often overlooked, particularly with respect to assessment, despite the conceptual, cultural and linguistic richness that might be encompassed. In this paper, we propose that encompassing translanguaging – a fluid approach to language use – should be embraced within assessment because it addresses the inherent requirements of valid and fair assessment and provides opportunity to address current injustices. To do so, however, will require changes to teaching practices. We also document some of the social, cultural and linguistic biases that underpin aspects of assessment and make suggestions for improvement. In particular, we examine how teachers can approach assessment so that students with Aboriginal backgrounds are able to draw on their full linguistic repertoire and, in this way, address the issues surrounding discriminatory assessment practices that are founded on monolingual mindsets (Gramling, 2016). We take up the gauntlet to "stop measuring black kids with a white stick"<sup>1</sup> and seek positive and embracing ways for all students with Aboriginal backgrounds to engage.

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<sup>1</sup> Here we quote Michelle Martin (with her permission) who is a proud Aboriginal woman from the Kija Nation and passionate educator. In this quote she expresses her dismay with a system that does not recognise Aboriginal students’ significant funds of knowledge and instead perpetuates educational disadvantage for Aboriginal students by measuring their knowledge and understanding with assessment regimes informed only by White Western linguistic and cultural systems. We have used this phrase in the title and throughout to illustrate the ways in which current approaches to assessment are at odds with translanguaging theory.

### The conceptual understanding of translanguaging

Recent research in Applied Linguistics has begun problematising traditional concepts such as mono/bi/multilingualism for failing to address linguistic resources, cultural and semiotic repertoires constructed out of a transnational diversity in late modernity (Authors, 2019; Gramling, 2016). The ideology underpinning these traditional conceptual frameworks seems to create the sense of utopian bi/multilingualism which is understood through a pluralised monolingualism, rebuffing not only other linguistic possibilities, but also other identity expressions closely attached with other language possibilities (Pennycook and Otsuji, 2015). For some scholars, such a view of separate languages is an abstract ideological construction, which is highly questionable when it comes to describing and analysing everyday language use (Lee, 2018). These highly-ideologized views of bi/multilingualism, in which the co-existence of two or more linguistic systems is central, and “the enumerative strategy of counting languages” (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007: 251), seem to presuppose that there is a clear border between languages, and these languages can be counted and classified (Authors, 2021). The importance of opting for a more critical perspective is acknowledged by Heller (2007: 1), who provides an alternative way to understand language practices as “socially and politically embedded”. For example, she suggests that the notion of bilingualism needs to shift away “from a focus on the whole bounded units of code and community, and towards a more processual and materialist approach which privileges language as social practice, speakers as social actors and boundaries as products of social action” (Heller, 2007: 1). Not only is it problematic, and at times needless, to differentiate linguistic features according to specific languages or linguistic systems, but it is also evident that the smooth and fluid movement and (re)merging between languages that is often observed requires different ways of thinking and new terminologies to describe them. As Møller (2008: 218) asks:

What if the participants do not orient to the juxtaposition of languages in terms of switching? What if they instead orient to a linguistic norm where all available linguistic resources can be used to reach the goals of the speaker? Then it is not adequate to categorise this conversation as bilingual or multilingual, or even as language mixing, because all these terms depend on the separability of linguistic categories.

Nevertheless, it is also possible that the participants may orient to distinct modes and codes, or orient to distinct resources even when they use their whole linguistic repertoires to make meaning (Canagarajah, 2018). While they may see their use of codes and modalities as a mix, which we refer to as translanguaging, they also see them as distinct in situated interaction (e.g., Authors, 2017). As shown by Authors (2020) Aboriginal speakers demonstrate high degrees of language awareness as they orient to particular codes depending on audience and context. In line with this thinking, recent studies in Applied Linguistics have been critical of the romanticisation of linguistic plurality based on putative language counts, while re-focusing on linguistic features rather than languages (Otheguy et al., 2015). Such studies suggest it may be more useful to talk, for example, in terms of “translanguaging” - an approach to the use of language, bi/multilingualism and the education of bi/multilinguals that considers the language practices of bi/multilinguals not as two or three autonomous language systems as has been traditionally the case, but as one linguistic repertoire with features that have been societally constructed as belonging to two or three separate languages (Li, 2018). Thus, translanguaging has been introduced to capture the critical complexity of language practices that are receiving greater attention in the context of late modernity, advocating for

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3 the fluid movement between linguistic codes which absorb characters and features from a  
4 wide range of semiotic resources (Canagarajah, 2018). Addressing language beyond its  
5 systematic and formal features, translanguaging tries to close the gap in the old and  
6 seemingly discrete dichotomy between the visibly “systematic features of the language, such  
7 as syntax, grammar, or the relatively fixed meanings of words, and their unsystematizable  
8 contexts, which interact with such stable features in any actual conversation” (Sultana et al.,  
9 2015: 2). The focus is on both language users and learners’ available “fluid and creative  
10 adaptation of a wide array of semiotic resources,” (Hawkins and Mori, 2018: 2–3) to make  
11 relevant meanings and to achieve one’s communicative aims. It is viewed as multi-layered  
12 complex processes of entangled and intertwined linguistic and semiotic resources – the  
13 (dis)assemblages of fluid, mixed, kaleidoscopic, and fluid semiotic resources, styles, modes,  
14 registers, acts, genres, and repertoires. When Makoni and Pennycook (2007) call for  
15 disinventing and reconstituting languages, they indicate that what counts as a particular  
16 language is often negotiated by people as they still have the concept of particular codes,  
17 dialects, languages, even if they are socially constructed. The so-called languages (e.g.,  
18 English, Russian, etc.) become continuously “dis-invented” (Makoni and Pennycook, 2007)  
19 and “resemiotised ... process by means of which every 'repetition' of a sign involves an  
20 entirely new set of contextualisation conditions and thus results in an entirely 'new' semiotic  
21 process, allowing new semiotic modes and resources to be involved in the repetition process”  
22 (Varis and Blommaert, 2015: 36). Recent studies in translanguaging are, therefore, more  
23 inclusive and all-encompassing than many other bi/multilingual studies, as they seek to  
24 account for modern language use, including the use of linguistic features, modes, registers,  
25 genres and styles.

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31 While translanguaging is manifested in the (re)mixture of languages, registers, styles  
32 and symbols, it can also become “a product of their sociohistorical trajectories through a  
33 multitude of interactions across space and time” (Hawkins and Mori, 2018: 2–3), which may  
34 play an ideological role in reforming and sustaining sub-cultural affiliations of identities,  
35 aspirations, class, gender, religion, demographic background, desires and so on (Authors,  
36 2021; Parra and Proctor, 2021). It treats language not as a separate code or self-standing  
37 product, but instead a gathering of meanings both spatially and temporally, within and across  
38 past and present contexts in their historical, local, discursive and interpretive elements,  
39 considering language beyond its observable linguistic features. While addressing the  
40 continual flow and location of meaning within the layers of complexity of their relations,  
41 translanguaging also puts forward social semiotics in which signs need to be understood  
42 productively, contextually and discursively (Li and Zhu, 2019).

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46 In order to understand the fluidity in translanguaging created by the mixed codes,  
47 modes and genres and its social dynamics caused by the social, political, historical and  
48 ideological associations, we seek to understand the concept of translanguaging not so much  
49 through separate linguistic codes (though they remain useful for analysing the belonging of  
50 languages), but rather by unveiling “the absorption and transformation of texts by texts”  
51 (Lesic-Thomas, 2005: 6), or “the voices within a voice”. We also interrogate those processes  
52 by which language learners and users engage with translanguaging to reflect their own  
53 personal, social and historical ideas, identities and identifications in relation to others’  
54 contradictory and conflicting ideas (Liu and Fang, 2020). By doing so we can come to  
55 understand language learners and users’ inclination towards recycling linguistic and semiotic  
56 resources from available resources, their dexterity in bringing several voices, genres, styles  
57 into one single utterance, their sophisticated ways of connecting the past with the present  
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3 with sociohistorical references, particularly if linguistic forms are transcended through  
4 translanguaging.  
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7 Lastly, recent arguments have further insisted that the participants are indeed quite  
8 normal, unremarkable, and ordinary in their language use (Authors, 2017), and that  
9 translanguaging is by no means a 'new' phenomenon (Canagarajah, 2018; Authors, 2019).  
10 Rather it should be understood as reflective of everyday, quotidian, basic, mundane,  
11 unremarkable and ordinary practices, rather than of peculiar, exotic, strange or  
12 unconventional practice. It is "neither to celebrate nor to deplore, but something to observe  
13 and examine with interest like anything else" (Sarkar & Low, 2012: 412). Despite these  
14 claims, translanguaging has been overlooked for pedagogical assessment purposes, as  
15 discussed in the next section.  
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### 19 **Validity and fairness in assessment**

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21 The integrity and quality of assessment practices are underpinned by the validity they  
22 hold. Despite the centrality of the concept of validity to effective assessment, there are  
23 various interpretations of its meaning, which have been expanded over time (Newton and  
24 Shaw, 2016). From a socio-cultural perspective, principles of fairness are deeply embedded  
25 in the notion of validity and have been used to reveal the presence of cultural and linguistic  
26 biases across a range of assessment practices and processes.  
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30 Validity theory in assessment has developed over the last one hundred years. Initially,  
31 the focus was content validity, which is useful for narrow content specific domains and is  
32 represented in most standardised achievement tests (Kane, 2013). Criterion validity was  
33 developed to measure relationship, or correlation, between the test and the criteria, and in  
34 educational assessment there was an important shift from norm-referenced testing to a  
35 criterion-based approach (Glaser, 1963). The notion of construct validity was introduced to  
36 investigate the degree to which the construct itself influences task performance and the extent  
37 to which it can measure what it is intended (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955). Compared to  
38 content and criterion validity, construct validity was concerned less with the evaluation of the  
39 test than the evaluation of the interpretation of the test scores (Cronbach, 1971). Bringing  
40 these approaches together, Messick (1989) proposed a "unified" understanding of validity as  
41 a combination of content, criterion and construct validities with consideration of the  
42 consequences, both intended and unintended. In this view, validity is a holistic concept that  
43 cannot be met in part: "To validate an action inference requires validation not only of the  
44 score meaning but also of value implications and action outcomes, especially of the relevance  
45 and utility of the test scores for particular applied purposes and of the social consequences of  
46 using the scores for applied decision making" (Messick, 1989: 5). Thus, validity extends  
47 beyond the inferences drawn to how they are used. Messick's (1989) perspective differs to  
48 other propositions for measuring validity, such as Kane (2013, 2016) who advocates for an  
49 argument-based approach to validity - if the aims of an assessment are clearly stated and the  
50 evidence collected are aligned with the aims - the assessment and its interpretations are  
51 considered valid (Kane, 2013).  
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56 Sociocultural and social justice perspectives in educational assessment have  
57 developed from Messick's (1989) unified approach to validity and highlight that many  
58 assessments do not hold validity for culturally and linguistically diverse background students  
59 (Gipps and Stobart, 2009; Klenowski 2009, 2014; Stobart, 2005). For Gipps and Stobart  
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(2009) validity is founded in the notion of the ‘fairness’ of assessment practices. Assessment cannot be separated from the social, cultural and political contexts in which they are created, “assessment is a socially embedded activity that can only be fully understood by taking account of the social and cultural contexts within which it operates, alongside the technical characteristics” (Gipps and Stobart, 2009: 107). The social, cultural and political contexts in which assessments are embedded advantage some groups in society and disadvantage others and these biases are inherently unfair and, therefore, threaten the validity of the assessment. Wigglesworth et al. (2011: 325–326) provide an example from Australia’s national standardised NAPLAN<sup>2</sup> testing for Year 3 Reading in which students were asked to interpret a graphical representation of a poster for a film to be screened at a cinema. They argue that this question disadvantages Australia’s Aboriginal children living in rural remote communities who are unlikely to have access to cinemas. Additionally, they point out that the Standard Australian English (SAE) grammatical constructions used in the questions, such as passives, are not present in many Indigenous languages and creole varieties spoken, thus it is grammatical knowledge and cultural knowledge that is being tested rather than reading comprehension (Wigglesworth et al., 2011: 326). Another question related to a paperboy delivering newspapers, a completely foreign concept in remote communities, serves to consolidate the point being made (Wigglesworth et al., 2011: 326). The cultural and linguistic bias present in these questions challenges our sense of fairness and poses a threat to all aspects of validity. Content validity is not met due to the unfamiliar cultural content and the influence of language in the question does not uphold construct validity, and importantly in the context of widely publicised high-stakes testing, the social consequences are considerable. The reporting of NAPLAN results frequently positions Indigenous children in remote Australia as ‘failing’, fuelling deficit perspectives pervasive in educational discourse on the premise of unfair and invalid testing (Dixon, 2013; Freeman, 2013; Vass, 2012).

The negative social and political consequences of large-scale standardised assessment is not limited to the test itself and its interpretation as high stakes testing can significantly impact classroom practices. This occurs in the form of a “washback effect”, that is when the presence of the test influences the nature of teaching to align with the test (Messick, 1996; Shomany, 2011). When English dominant monolingual perspectives underpin the testing regime, then these views become entrenched in classroom teaching and assessment practices as teachers seek to improve student performance. As a consequence, in Australia teaching and learning has become focused on Standard Australia English (SAE) and moreover, the development of literacy in this dialect to the detriment of other languages, knowledges and skills. In this way, the assessment reflects the social values of the social-political context (McNamara, 2012). The negative social consequences are reinforced in the classroom as teachers seek to align teaching with tests that perpetuate the disadvantage that is experienced in the initial testing. That is, teaching becomes aligned with testing rather than context of the students. An example from the Australian context clearly illustrates the far-reaching negative consequences of high-stakes standardised assessment for Aboriginal students and their language practices. In 2008 following from the first NAPLAN results which showed Aboriginal students in the Northern Territory (NT) of Australia performed well below average, the NT Minister for Education, in what has been described as a “knee-jerk” reaction, announced that all schools will run “first four hours in English” programs effective immediately (Devlin, 2017: 207). This drastic change was implemented after 35 years of

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<sup>2</sup> NAPLAN – in Australia this is the nation-wide, high stakes tests of literacy (reading, writing and grammar) and numeracy for all children in years 3, 5, 7 and 9 of schooling

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3 bilingual programs in Aboriginal languages. After the ‘first four hours in English’ ended in  
4 2012, there was little left in terms of Aboriginal language education (Wilson, 2014).  
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7 In response, Gorter and Cenoz (2017) argue that policies and practices must change to  
8 reflect the language practices of populations in fair and accurate ways through the adoption of  
9 multilingual assessments. Currently, the language of assessment in the Australian schooling  
10 system is limited to Standard Australian English (SAE), reflecting the nation’s monolingual  
11 mindset (Clyne, 2005) which stands in juxtaposition with the cultural and linguistic realities  
12 of its population. Thus, current assessment practices, even classroom-based assessments  
13 which have the scope to ensure inclusive practices, become tests of language and in this way  
14 do not hold construct validity for those who are not proficient in the language of the test  
15 (Shomany, 2011).  
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18 As we have shown, language practices and assessment practices are both “socially  
19 and politically embedded” and have been systematically used in education to gain social and  
20 political advantage for the largely white English-speaking middle upper-class (García and  
21 Otheguy, 2017; Flores and Rosa, 2015). While many argue that it is impossible to  
22 completely remove cultural and linguistic bias from assessment (e.g., Klenowski, 2009),  
23 improvements can be made. We propose that the concept of translanguaging provides such an  
24 opportunity. Translanguaging recognises the entirety of students’ linguistic repertoires which  
25 can be actively employed in the classroom to promote learning (see Authors, 2021 and edited  
26 collection by Authors, 2021). When it is extended to assessment students are able to use all  
27 the linguistic resources available to them to demonstrate the full extent of their knowledge  
28 and understanding. In this way, assessment can better meet the criteria of validity; that is, it  
29 becomes fairer and more accurate. In this way translanguaging can serve as a theory for  
30 transformative practice in both teaching and assessment.  
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### 34 **Translanguaging and assessment**

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36 In this section, we argue for the adoption of a translanguaging perspective in  
37 assessment and propose two changes to current assessment practices in Australia. First,  
38 assessment practices need to provide opportunities for students to translanguage, that is, to  
39 employ all their linguistic resources to demonstrate their knowledge, understanding and skills  
40 (Otheguy et al., 2015; Menken and Shohamy, 2015). Second, incorporating translanguaging  
41 practices alone will not suffice, the modes of assessment must also change. Literacy  
42 dominant assessment practices do not provide adequate room for translingual students to  
43 express themselves using all their linguistic resources and, therefore, the modes of expression  
44 must be re-aligned to allow for this to occur. We suggest transmodal assessment is required to  
45 match the realities of language practices and to uphold principles of fair and valid  
46 assessment.  
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50 Monolingual, literacy-based assessment currently dominates assessment practices.  
51 ‘One country, one language’ ideologies permeate assessment practices and are reinforced by  
52 the ‘one test, one language’ principle. As we have shown, such practices are discriminatory  
53 and unfair and do not meet the criteria for valid assessment. Limited to the confines of one  
54 language, in this paradigm, students’ knowledge is actively silenced as they are not able to  
55 access and use all the linguistic resources available to them. As argued by García and  
56 Otheguy (2017: 61) in assessments a monolingual student can enlist the full extent of their  
57 linguistic system, whereas a bilingual is only permitted to use half, concluding that such  
58 assessment is “deeply and inherently biased”. They provide the example of ‘Paco’ a child  
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3 who has a large linguistic repertoire of both Spanish and English, but who is judged in each  
4 of these languages separately and so his knowledge is considered deficient (García and  
5 Otheguy, 2017: 61–62). The assessment does not accurately judge Paco’s knowledge,  
6 understanding and skills and as such, does not meet the purpose of assessment. Additionally,  
7 to impose monolingual requirements in assessment stifles creativity and bounds the  
8 imagination. The large and growing field of translanguaging has described how speakers  
9 simultaneously bring together multiple linguistic resources in innovative ways such as the  
10 creation of new words as part of the process. One example from the Australian context acts to  
11 highlight this process, the word “Noongaroke” was coined to describe the adaption of  
12 ‘karaoke’ popularised in Japan into the contemporary cultural practices of Noongar people,  
13 who are the Aboriginal traditional custodian in the South-West region of Western Australia  
14 (Haebich and Morrison, 2014). This word does not belong to the boundaries of one language  
15 and cannot be easily ascribed to one language. It is used in English and Aboriginal English,  
16 but does not bear any features of these languages, instead it represents a fusion of the  
17 traditional Aboriginal language, ‘Noongar’ and ‘-oke’ borrowed from Japanese. This serves  
18 to show how translanguaging practices can be used to more accurately describe a concept or  
19 phenomena and does so in creative, playful and innovative ways. It is envisaged that when  
20 assessments practices provide scope for translanguaging freedom of expression, the quality and  
21 creativity of student responses would increase.  
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27 Current assessment practices are not only monolingual, but there is also a preference  
28 for the use of words in written or spoken modes, which means for speakers of some  
29 languages the full message cannot be communicated. For example, in some Australian  
30 Aboriginal languages meaning is communicated with a combination of words, and hand,  
31 body and face gestures which work together to create the full story. Haviland (1993)  
32 describes Guugu Yimithirr (GY), an Aboriginal language in northeast Queensland which uses  
33 cardinal direction in contrast to a left/right system centred on personal location, he explains,  
34 “Rather than calculating location relative to inherent asymmetries in such local objects, the  
35 GY system apparently takes as its primitives global geocentric coordinates, independent of  
36 specific local terrain, and based instead on absolute horizontal angles” (Haviland, 1993: 6).  
37 Haviland (1993) compares video footage of a man retelling a story in 1980 and again in 1982  
38 to demonstrate the extent to which cardinal direction is embedded the Guugu Yimithirr  
39 systems of communication. In the first set of footage, the man retelling the story of the boat  
40 flipping over rolls his hands over one another to communicate an east to west direction.  
41 Footage of the same person telling the story two years later, this time in a different location,  
42 showed an outward circling movement. Haviland (1993: 16) concludes that the man adjusted  
43 his motions to align with his geographical location in order accurately depict the direction the  
44 boat flipped. This information was not spoken, instead the combination of hand gestures and  
45 body position was used to communicate this information, which in this cultural context where  
46 cardinal direction is highly valued, can be viewed as vital information. The interactional  
47 significance of gesture in Aboriginal communities has been widely described and is often  
48 used to replace verbal information in ‘selectively covert’ (Haviland, 1993: 17) and  
49 meaningful ways (Eades, 2013; Malcolm, 2018). The dominance of Standard Australian  
50 English and moreover, written literacy practices in schooling, assessment and society  
51 generally, threatens the unique linguistic diversity of Australia which provides insight to the  
52 inner workings of the human mind, through the development of language and culture.  
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57 Therefore, it is not just the language of the assessment that needs to be considered, it  
58 is the modality of the assessment. Current assessment modes reflect the communicative  
59 preferences of the language, which may be informed by social and political values. In  
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3 Australian, the dominant assessment modes of reading and writing or ‘literacy’ reflect current  
4 social and political views of the importance, and even superiority, of Standard Australian  
5 English (SAE). The monolingual linear equation previously described can be extended to  
6 include ‘one language, one test, one mode’ assessment designs. The same assessment cannot  
7 be re-written to become translanguaging because the meaning making practices of other  
8 languages may not fit within the confines of the assessment mode. Nor is multimodality an  
9 acceptable response to translanguaging. As a concept, it is premised on the same monolingual  
10 thinking as multilingualism that each exists as a separate unit rather than one expansive  
11 repertoire (Canagarajah, 2018; Li, 2018). As monolingual assessment constructs limit  
12 students’ ability to demonstrate their knowledge, multilingual constructs limit students’  
13 ability to demonstrate their understanding as they are forced to express themselves in the  
14 confines of prescribed language boundaries, for complete freedom of expression, and to be a  
15 fair and valid assessment of students’ performance, assessment must be designed to enable  
16 students to access their full semiotic system. **Adopting a translanguaging perspective in  
17 assessment requires an expansion of forms and modes of assessments beyond those in which  
18 print literacy dominates to include diverse modes of expression - those that are not present in  
19 texts and cannot or should not be replicated in other forms. In this way, assessment can  
20 become inclusive of all knowledge forms and their modes of communication.** Transmodal  
21 assessment is required. We suggest that classroom-based assessment is the main vehicle that  
22 can drive this shift in perspectives.

### 23 24 25 26 27 **Transmodal assessment**

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29 Current assessment practices attempt to fix students’ knowledge or skills into a discrete  
30 singular measurable set much like languages have been confined to distinct boundaries.  
31 However, as we have seen through a translanguaging lens, this is not how language systems  
32 nor how knowledge systems operate. Assessment practices need to open-up and embrace  
33 transmodal freedom of expression to capture student’s knowledge more fully. **Building upon  
34 multimodality and multiliteracies (Kress, 2009; New London group 1996), we adopt the term  
35 ‘transmodal’ or ‘transmodality’ to accurately capture, and align to, the concept of  
36 translanguaging by expanding the notion of modality from multiple unitary modes to the fluid  
37 movement through modes (shown in the examples below) as other scholars have, for  
38 example, “transliteracies” (Stornaiuolo, Smith and Phillips, 2017) and “transmodality”  
39 (Hawkins, 2018). Transmodality has been discussed in a range of contexts in relation to  
40 linguistic expression, especially in relation to translanguaging practices (Alim et al., 2009;  
41 Pennycook, 2007). Traditionally, assessment design has been represented as multimodal,  
42 although there is growing interest in the conceptual development of ‘transmodal’ practices  
43 (Govender, 2020; Newfield, 2014; Tomlinson, 2015). **Transmodality is not only deployed as  
44 “a way of thinking about language use as located within multiple modes of semiotic  
45 diffusion” (Pennycook, 2007, p.44), but it also suggests that certain modes cannot be viewed  
46 as discrete items outside other meaning making practices, e.g., “bodies, texts, contexts and  
47 histories in which they are embedded” (p.49). Transmodality thus points to the ways in which  
48 translanguaging meaning occurs across fluid modes of meaning-making in ways that  
49 transgress fixed ideologies in discrete channels.****

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55 What could transmodal assessment look like? Any concept can be explored and  
56 represented in different spaces, times and places as expression moves through different  
57 modes and across the expanse of an individual’s entire linguistic repertoire and/or semiotic  
58 system. In assessment, an individual could express their knowledge and understanding using  
59 drama, music, singing, narration, art in any medium, gestures and hand signals in written and  
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3 oral forms in a range of languages, standard and non-standard. The modes could be layered,  
4 intertwined, and infused. Each mode could interact with the other and used purposefully to  
5 communicate and demonstrate the student's knowledge, understanding and skills. The  
6 assessment task is an opportunity for students to demonstrate their current knowledge, as well  
7 as their ability to use their linguistic and semiotic resources to communicate effectively, that  
8 is, to make meaning. Indigenous youth are already engaging in such practices (e.g., within  
9 social media – see Authors, 2017) and current educational technologies make it possible to  
10 bring these practices into the classroom by creating authentic transmodal assessments.  
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14 Using ethnographic research methods situated outside of institutional settings such as  
15 schools, Kral and colleagues (2011, 2014, 2016, Kral et al., 2019) describe how Indigenous  
16 youth in remote communities are rapidly adopting digital media technologies to engage in  
17 new forms of cultural productions across different modes of expression seamlessly blending  
18 and infusing these old and new modes. Kral (2011: 7) describes pre-contact modes of  
19 complex interaction including translanguaging practices of Aboriginal societies:  
20

21  
22 Prior to contact with Anglo-Australian society, Ngaanyatjarra, Ngaatjatjarra and  
23 Pitjantjatjara people had inhabited the Western Desert for thousands of years using a  
24 complex of multimodal communication forms and semiotic systems to convey  
25 meaning; through language, sign, gesture and gaze, special speech styles and  
26 registers, non-verbal communication and the iconic representations found in body  
27 painting, carved designs and sand drawings.  
28

29  
30 Technology is now being harnessed by youth as vehicle to express themselves using their  
31 complex semiotic systems. With exposure to a wide range of Western genres and modes of  
32 communication, Aboriginal youth have an expansive meaning-making repertoire at their  
33 disposal to express themselves in innovative and creative ways, while at the same time  
34 documenting and preserving their culture. Kral (2016: 71) explains, "Indigenous youth are  
35 the markers of social change and new influences are shaping the multimodal literacy  
36 practices they engage in. In these resource rich communicative ecologies young people are  
37 employing multiple modes of communication. They are drawing on traditional  
38 communication styles integrated with new embedded literacy traditions." An example of  
39 transmodal practices is shown in the description of young girls telling sand stories on an iPad  
40 screen that captures their finger movements digitally:  
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43  
44 The film recordings we made between 2013 and 2018 with ten young women who  
45 transferred the traditional sand storytelling practice to iPads have injected new life  
46 into this traditional narrative form. The films burst with colour, energy and  
47 originality, and we see traditional iconography merging with contemporary symbols  
48 as the young storytellers recount stories of trips out bush collecting traditional foods  
49 with humorous memories of flat tyres and seeing scary animals. Other stories reveal  
50 the contemporary pastimes of young people-playing football, softball and going to the  
51 disco. (Kral et al., 2019: 43)  
52

53  
54 Another example shows youth transforming cultural stories into new modes of  
55 communication:  
56

57  
58 In the contemporary songs of young Ngaanyatjarra musicians we also see a  
59 performative process of creation and renewal, and an indication of the enduring  
60 importance of the verbal arts in the lifeworlds of young people. Here, direct and

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2  
3 indirect references to the tjukurpa [Dreaming] abound, translating intangible  
4 concepts into tangible objects in the form of CDs and music videos. Young musicians  
5 are using digital technologies to lay down new narrative forms. (Kral et al., 2019: 43)  
6  
7

8 With technological development, the locus of control has shifted from institutional settings to  
9 communities (Kral, 2014), providing youth with the tools to express themselves as they see  
10 fit, in translingual, transmodal cultural productions. This is a picture of rich, purposeful and  
11 creative Indigenous literacy practices that are not portrayed in public discourse nor  
12 universally celebrated in schools (Kral, 2014), and particularly as a form of assessment.  
13 Instead, Aboriginal students continue to be measured by a “white stick” - limited to the  
14 constraints of SAE and the written practices of white, often middle-class Australia. As we  
15 have argued earlier, policy and practices, particularly the language of assessment, needs to  
16 represent the linguistic realities of the populations subject to these practices (Gorter and  
17 Cenoz, 2017). Street et al. (2009: 195) argue ‘print literacies’ that currently dominate school  
18 practices are not keeping pace with the global realities of contemporary communication  
19 dominated by digital technologies. To embrace translanguaging perspective in assessment, to  
20 truly capture an individual’s knowledge, understanding and skills, transmodal assessment is  
21 required to encapsulate students’ communicative realities – their expansive linguistic and  
22 semiotic systems, which currently remain a source of untapped potential.  
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### 26 **Limitations and future directions**

  
27

28 The obvious limitations that exist are the education systems that protect and maintain  
29 standard monolingual language ideologies, which filter into the classroom, including  
30 assessment and teaching practices. Despite this, there has been a recent move to incorporate a  
31 translanguaging approach in assessment (Baker and Hope, 2019; Heugh et al., 2016; Lopez,  
32 Turkan and Guzman-Orth, 2017; Schissel De Korne and López-Gopar, 2021). However,  
33 these efforts remain limited to specific contexts and modes, most commonly reading,  
34 speaking and writing, but they have not yet embraced transmodality in their design. A  
35 translanguaging approach to assessment requires significant shift in teacher perceptions and  
36 practice. Schissel et al. (2021: 347) report how teachers struggle when attempting to reconcile  
37 two divergent themes: the pressure to produce monolingual-like language and, the potential  
38 to validate students’ multilingualism and they (Schissel et al., 2021) highlight teachers’  
39 conformity to national policies and entrenched practices. Kumaravadivelu (2016: 81) argues  
40 that these ‘top-down’ approaches act to maintain hegemonic forces and entrench colonial  
41 perspectives, but can be countered using ‘bottom-up’ approaches to teaching and learning  
42 through the design of context-specific teaching strategies and materials. Teachers need to  
43 develop their own agency to decolonise English language teaching and empower local  
44 communities (Kumaravadivelu, 2016: 81). We argue that this also needs to extend to  
45 assessment. However, a significant gap exists both in research and teaching/assessment  
46 practices and there is a need to explore how a translanguaging approach can be adopted to  
47 inform the development of transmodal assessment to ensure that assessment is used in the  
48 classroom to evaluate students’ knowledge and understanding accurately and fairly.  
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### 54 **Conclusion**

  
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56 Until educational policies and practices fairly represent the linguistic and semiotic practices  
57 of the Australian Aboriginal students, it is important that practitioners feel empowered to  
58 adopt and enact translanguaging approaches in their pedagogy and assessment of their  
59 students. Translanguaging approaches move beyond fixed language boundaries and  
60

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2  
3 homogenous ideologies to represent the true nature of human communication. The true nature  
4 of language use is not only characterised by verbal expression and limits of a single  
5 standardised language code, rather it is designated with different forms of expression through  
6 drama, music, singing, narration, and art, using hand gestures and signals, in written and  
7 spoken medium, as well as within both standard and non-standard language forms. Therefore,  
8 current “socially and politically embedded” standardised language and assessment practices,  
9 which are used to perpetuate socio-political advantages for the white English-speaking  
10 middle upper-class (García and Otherguy, 2017; Flores and Rosa, 2015), sustain the  
11 discrimination of Australian Aboriginal students. Such forms of assessment do not allow  
12 teachers to address the needs of their individual students, but rather are simply a pragmatic  
13 match for decontextualized assessment policies and standardised tests (e.g. NAPLAN).

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16 Although we would like it to, we understand NAPLAN is unlikely to change, at least not in  
17 the short to mid-term future. Therefore, we advocate changes to classroom-based assessment  
18 to be inclusive of students’ entire linguistic and semiotic systems. Using this approach in  
19 language assessments will enable students’ knowledge and understanding to be fairly and  
20 accurately assessed.  
21

22  
23 With this in mind, we argue for a transmodal freedom of expression in assessment  
24 practices to cater for the needs of diverse individual students and to capture their knowledge  
25 to its full extent. The assessment tasks should be an opportunity for students to show their  
26 current knowledge, and to do so using diverse linguistic and semiotic resources. Furthermore,  
27 we suggest current assessment practices do not hold validity for Australian Aboriginal  
28 students (Gipps and Stobart, 2009; Stobart, 2005; Klenowski 2009, 2014) and they perpetuate  
29 deficit perspectives leading to the negative social and political consequences (e.g., abolition  
30 of bilingual education programmes for Aboriginal students and the move to English only  
31 approaches in response to NAPLAN results). Therefore, transmodal assessment practices are  
32 much needed to provide students with the tools to express themselves in translingual and  
33 transmodal ways as is appropriate to their diverse backgrounds.  
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36  
37 Embracing and acknowledging transmodal assessment practices is particularly  
38 important for the diverse context of Australia where Aboriginal students are continuously  
39 being assessed based on Standard Australian language norm, led by predominantly white  
40 cultural values. Such ways of assessment neglect cultural background, knowledge, tradition,  
41 and living contexts of those students, as they are asked to perform on something that is  
42 different from their reality. It is important to emphasise that policy and practices, particularly  
43 the language of assessment, need to represent the linguistic realities of the populations subject  
44 to these practices (Gorter and Cenoz, 2017). Translanguaging and transmodal assessment  
45 provides an opportunity for all students to have an equal opportunity to fully express their  
46 knowledge using diverse translingual linguistic and semiotic systems in various modalities.  
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