Assessing the Affective Behaviours in Learners

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Abstract
There is a great need to balance the assessment of learning outcomes in learners by assessing all the domains associated with behavioural changes instead of assessing the cognitive achievement in the learner alone. This paper x-rays what affective assessment is, the ground rules for affective assessment, school affective behaviours and the tools for affective assessments. The authors advocated that teachers should assess the affective outcome in learners as this will enable learners not only to acquire academic competencies but to be adequately equipped with knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, practical and psychosocial skills that would enable them live healthy and satisfying lives and derive the benefit of learning.

Introduction

Teaching and learning are complementary activities, which are formally undertaken in a school context and informally at home, community and the larger environment. In the school teaching describes an action of the teacher that helps pupils to acquire and retain knowledge, attitude and skills. Learning is associated with behavioural changes in the cognitive (mental processes), affective (attitudes and feelings) and psychomotor (coordination between brain and muscles) domains (Farrant, 1980). The teacher plays a very important role during teaching/learning sessions: deciding on what, how and when to teach. In addition, he/she takes stock of the teaching learning process by providing answers to fundamental questions: how well are students learning? How effective is the teaching? Hence, classroom assessment helps the teacher provide answers to these questions (Erinosho & Badru, 2000).

Assessment is a process of fashioning data into interpretable forms. As opposed to one dimensional measurement, assessment focuses on a number of variables judged to be important and utilizes a number of techniques to gather data from multiple sources (Okpala, Onocha & Oyedeji, 1993). Assessment process is applicable in nearly all the endeavours of human existence but most widely used by schools, industries, military services, and those interested in the political and social behaviour of groups and in interpersonal relations. Specifically, assessment makes decision making easy by providing relevant data on various aspects of the curriculum and instruction. So, assessment in the classroom is seen as an integral part of the teaching learning processes without which the amount of learning that has taken place would not be known.

Abe (2004) and Owolabi & Olasehinde-Williams (2008) submitted that the traditional paper and pencil test has been the dominant method of assessment practice in schools. This is because of the much emphasis on test results and the Nigerian educational system which is still driven by examinations. Hence much attention has been focused on the assessment and evaluation of cognitive variables at the end of formal instruction which is always done through the administration of an achievement test in the subject areas.

Educationists and evaluators have agreed that affective behaviours are very important in the process of education and educational evaluation. Obemeata (1984) affirmed that teachers do not make any deliberate attempt to assess affective outcomes, and might have forgotten that the attainment of a pupil is the result of the functioning of his whole personality. As such most of the various tests given in schools are meant to assess the cognitive behaviours of the students to the total neglect of the affective and psychomotor behaviours. This chapter, therefore, focuses on the nature of affective assessment and its ground rules. It also illustrates some tools for affective assessment. And it is hoped to help our teachers develop a prepared approach on the questions of this sphere.

What is affective assessment?

Affective variables, most educators concede are important. Petrosyan, Khachatryan et al (2005) say that students' attitudes toward learning, for example, play major role in how much learning those students subsequently pursue. The values that students have regarding truthfulness and integrity shape students' daily conduct. And students' self-esteem, of course, influences almost everything they do. There's little doubt that the affective status of students should concern all educators. In truth, however, few classroom teachers give explicit attention to influencing their students' attitudes and values. Even fewer classroom teachers actually try to assess the affective status of their students. Certainly, a teacher may observe a student and conclude that, for example, student is "a bit depressed", but how many times have you heard about teachers, asks Popham (1995) who tried to gather systematic evidence regarding students' attitudes and values? Unfortunately, concludes he, systematic

assessment of affect is pretty uncommon.

Many teachers, particularly those who teach older students, believe that their only educational mission is to increase students' knowledge and skills. Affect, such teachers believe, simply doesn't fall into their proper sphere of influence. However, students who can compose outstanding essays but believe they are "really rotten writers" won't spend much time volitionally whipping out essays. Many specialists in the assessment arena now regard affective variables as far more significant sometimes than even cognitive variables (See Popham, 1995: Stiggins, 2005, Ward, Murray-Ward, 1999). In real life we can see people who weren't all that "gifted" intellectually but they still succeed because they are highly motivated and hard working. And conversely, many times we see truly able people simply veer from challenges because they did not consider themselves worthy. Day in and day out, we see the enormous impact that people's affective status has on them. Affect is every bit as important in school, especially for UBE where students also learn to become motivated, how to resist difficulties, how to find themselves and moral values that will lead them to a whole life. Why is affect important? The reason that such affective variables as students' attitudes and values are important to us is that those variables typically influence students' future behavior. Students who have positive attitudes toward learning today will be disposed to purse learning in the future. So, values and attitudes that are emerging in students today will affect all their lives and future behavior. Of course, people change, but if a student in UBE has formed an inner belief about the need for a healthy lifestyle it's realistic to believe that this person will be attentive to health issues the rest of his/her life. Or if a person developed an approach that human beings are more important than materials items, this person will be respectful to self and others. So, teachers will agree that the current affective status of a person may predict future behavior.

There are many types of possible attitudinal for a teacher's instruction. But following are some of them, suggested by Popham (1995).

- *Subject-approaching attitudes*. Students should regard the subject matter taught more positively at the end of instruction than they did when instruction began. At the very least, students should be no more negative toward the subject being taught as a consequence of instruction.
- *Positive attitudes toward learning*. Students should regard the act of learning positively. Students who are positive about learning today will tend to be learners tomorrow.
- *Positive attitude toward self*. Self-esteem is the attitude, around which most people's personal worlds turn. Although children's self-esteem is probably influenced more by parents and nonschool events than by teachers, what happens in the classroom can have a significant impact on children's self-esteem.
- *Positive attitude toward self as a learner*. Self-esteem as a learner is an affective variable over which educators have substantial influence if students believe they are capable of learning, they will tend to learn.
- *Attitudes toward national and world values*. School is the place where students will become bearers of all high values created by mankind. Emergence and development of these values will be the premise for a future moral society.

Of course, there are many values which people think are not the province of schools. For example, political approaches of different parties shouldn't enter schools, and even if teachers are members of particular parties or have some strong feelings about political reality in the country they should not transfer their own values into the teaching process leaving students free to choose their approaches themselves. But there are basic human values that need to be taught in school and especially in UBE classroom. So teachers need to assess if the most important values and attitudes are displayed by students. Some examples of such values can be:

- *Honesty*. Students should learn to value honesty in their dealing with others.
- *Integrity*. Students should firmly adhere to their own code of values-for example, moral or artistic.
- *Justice*. Students should subscribe to the view that all citizens should be the recipients of equal justice.
- *Democratic values,* Students should believe that democratic government must provide the maximum level of freedom to its citizens, and citizens in turn should cultivate in themselves the ability to be free. They should also believe in the rule of law, consent of the governed, human rights, majority rule, minority rights and others.
- *Responsibility*. Students should understand that responsibility is the other side of freedom without which freedom is empty sound. They should fulfill their obligations.

Ground rules for affective assessment

When educators assess dispositions, they tap the feeling dimension of students in school, the inner motivations or desires that influence their thoughts and their actions. In this case we center not on what students know and can do, but what they feel about key aspects of their schooling: the attitudes, motivations, and interests that

predispose students to behave in academically productive ways. Stiggins (2005) emphasizes, that we can't separate affective and achievement assessment from one another in the classroom. As teachers, we must know how to use those dispositions to promote their own success.

Students who have positive attitudes about the things they are learning, and feel a sense of internal control over their own academic well-being, are more likely to achieve at high levels than those who are negative, lack desire, and see themselves as victims of a hostile school world. Very often students fail, not because they cannot achieve. Often, they have given up and are not motivated to learn. Why? Stiggins think there may be many reasons: they don't understand the work: find it too hard to do, lack prerequisite achievement and so on. And so they fail, which in turns robs them of (1) the prerequisites for the next learning and (2) a sense that they could succeed if they tried. This can become a vicious cycle: they feel academically powerless and they become powerless. This download spiral can result from the complex interaction between achievement and dispositions.

But this spiral also can take a very positive direction. If teachers can give students evidence that they are succeeding, what can begin to grow in them is a sense of hope for the future and expectation of further success down the road. This, in turn, fuels their motivation to strive for excellence, which results in the upward spiral of positive dispositions and academic achievement that every parent and teacher dream for their children. So ground rules are:

1. Assess only for helping, for making upward spiral, not causing depression.
2. Remain aware of the sensitive nature of students' feeling and strive to promote appropriate dispositions through your assessment of them.
3. Be caring, but stay in bounds with assessing students' feelings.
4. If you assessed some attitudes or dispositions, be caring enough to change certain things in instruction and students will understand that your assessment procedures weren't purposeless (Petrosyan, Khachatryan et al 2005).

School Affective Behaviours

The affective behaviours regularly reported by schools are increasing in number. At the lower and middle basic levels, there are about seven of them. These include punctuality, class attendance, personal hygiene, attentiveness, honesty, neatness and participation at work (Owolabi & Olaseinde-Williams, 2007). The easiest to assess of all these is class attendance, as it could be directly measured from the register kept by class teachers. At the upper basic level, a few more affective behaviours like politeness, self-control, reliability, perseverance, promptness in completing assigned work are reported on. The Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives on affective domain includes objectives on interests, values, appreciation and attitudes. Five levels are identified in the hierarchy as follow: Receiving: Become aware of the affective stimulus; Attending/responding: Reaction to stimulus; Valuing: Attaching value to the stimulus; Organisation: Incorporate the value to a value system; and Characterisation by a value: Use value system to control behaviour (Bloom,1956).

According to Anderson and Bourke (2000) dimensions of classroom affect are attitudes, school-related values, academic self-efficacy, interests, academic aspirations and evaluation or assessment anxiety. Though Popham (1995) and Ward and Murry-Ward (1999) suggest other classifications, generally approaches are very similar. These dimensions of classroom affect influence directly students' motivation to learn.

Attitudes. An attitude is a favourable or unfavourable feeling about someone or something. The focus might be a person, a school subject, or a particular method of instruction. Attitudes can be changeable, especially among young people.

School-related value. Values are our beliefs about what should be desired, what is important or cherished, and what standards of conduct are acceptable (Anderson and Bourke (2000). Values are the way that human society transfers culture from one generation to another. Values related with school or academic success can be: Belief in the value of education for a productive life; belief in the benefits of strong effort in school; and belief in the good relationships between teachers and students, honesty and trust.

Academic self-efficacy. No affective characteristic is more school related than this one. It is the evaluative judgment one makes about one's possibility of success and productivity in an academic context. Those, who see themselves as capable learners are predisposed to be capable learners. Stiggins (2005) believes, that teachers' aspiration must be to help students see the connection between their efforts and their levels of academic success. Those who perceive themselves as being in control of their own academic destiny, and who at the same time see the goal as being within their grasp, are disposed to succeed. In short, we seek to imbue students with an internal locus of academic control.

Interests. Interest is preference given to certain things: processes, skills, ideas etc. Students might be very interested in simulation games but not in interviews. So teachers need to assess their interests to understand which methods will work best in a certain environment

Academic Aspirations. These refer to the intention of students to continue to learn or to stop. If students like the process of learning and feel growth, they supposedly would like to continue and learn more and more, but if

something in the learning process irritates students they probably will want to stop learning. And in fact will do it even while attending school regularly.

Evaluation anxiety. This factor is very important for teachers to reflect upon. They should create an environment where students will not be anxious for their assessment or evaluation results, they will expect fair and caring assessment procedures. Also teachers in UBE should teach students how to overcome assessment anxiety during entrance exams or different academic competitions outside the school.

When teachers know these dimensions of classroom affect and try to stress a positive affect students become more confident and desire to continue learning.

Tools for Affective Assessment

There are so many affects, attitudes, and values that could be assessed. Of course, teachers don't have sufficient time to do such assessment in the classroom, but they can sometimes use very simple psychological techniques to assess students' most important affects. Popham (1995) suggests some good tools: interviews with students, self-report assessment (essay) and Likert inventories. Once it is decided that it is desirable for affective outcomes to be measured, the next step is for the teacher to devise situations and techniques which will make it possible for pupils to manifest the desired affective behaviour he intends to measure. Affective characteristics are evaluated primarily through observation (using checklist or rating scales) or self-report (e.g. interviewing and written questionnaire). Three common approaches for measuring affective behaviour are: What a person says about himself (self reporting inventory); what others say about the person (sociometric methods); and what the person does in a particular kind of situation (observational technique).

1. Observation

Observation is the act of looking out for and recording the presence or absence of verbal and non-verbal behaviours of a person or group of persons in a natural or simulated setting, in order to make valid inferences on the individual observed (Okpala, Onocha & Oyedeji, 1993; Onocha & Okpala, 1995). Observation is classified into two kinds, namely, perceived (remembered) observation and actual observation. Perceived behaviour observation refers to the rating of impressions of behaviour that are assumed to have been demonstrated by an individual while in actual observation, a trained observer records what he sees and hears during observation within a prescribed period.

The characteristics of observation according to Okpala, Onocha & Oyedeji (1993) are: One or more observers are placed in an observation setting at a specified time and for a prescribed length of time. Observers are guided by some instructions and ground rules on the use of the observational tool, and observers are not usually associated with the programme or research so as to avoid biased recording of observed behaviours.

Generally, observational tools are of three types: rating scales, systematic observation and unstructured observation (anecdotal records).

Rating Scales

A rating scale is a kind of questionnaire which consists of a set of traits or psychological objects which are assigned to categories, continua or a common quantitative scale to indicate status or quality. It possess the ability of providing finer discriminations of the trait being rated, the presence of a trait may be recorded while observation progresses, immediately after observation or long after observations have been made. Rating scales are useful in evaluating psychological objects, individual characteristic and reactions, stimuli and products, such as essays, concept, handwriting, interview protocols and projective test materials (Onocha & Okpala, 1995).

Types of rating scales are: Numerical, Graphical, Comparative, Paired Comparison and Ranking types.

- Numerical rating scale: This is the simplest type where the traits being measured is presented as a statement and numerical values, usually 1-10 are assigned. It has the common key which is a verbal description, and the key is used for responding to all items in the scale. Its advantage is that any of the other scales can be converted to the numerical scale, simply by assigning values to the categories and it is most useful if the trait to be rated is easily classified into a specific number of categories of numerical value.

- Graphical rating scale: This is a combination of lines and descriptive phrases. The lines may be continuous, broken, marked into equal intervals, segmented or unmarked. It enables a rater to assign values on any position along the continuum; it also provides a pictorial impression of student's behaviour. Moreover, the scale is easy to understand and use and it is described as the best type of rating scales.

- Comparative rating scale: In this type, the product or behaviour being rated is compared against standard samples in varying degrees of quantity of the product. The comparative scale is also suitable for rating handwriting, products of craft and handiworks, and essays of various descriptions.

- Ranking Procedure: The rater ranks a number of individuals on the trait being rated. It takes many forms. The rater may decide to rank individuals from the highest to the lowest scale or vice versa. But to guarantee validity of the ranks, it is proper to rank from both extremes.

- Paired Comparison: This scale is similar to the ranking procedure. In the application of the scale, each

individual is paired with every other individual and the rater judges and records, which among the two is superior on the trait being rated. The rater records the number of times each individual is rated superior and he finally ranks the scores to obtain a picture of each individual's behaviour. It is more precise than the ranking procedure and it tends to produce more reliable results but it is more time consuming.

A few of the advantages and limitations of rating scales are to be noted. Rating scales like other evaluation instruments have certain strengths and weaknesses which should be taken into consideration before they are used in data gathering. Rating scales are flexible; therefore they can be adapted to many situations in natural or simulated settings. They are easy to construct and quick to use. As a result, the scales can be used to observe behaviours of a large number of individuals. They direct observations toward specific and clearly defined traits. They provide a common frame of reference for comparing individuals on the same set of traits; and they provide a convenient method for recording judgements of observers.

The effective use of rating scales is limited by certain factors related to the scale itself, the trait being rated and the rater.

Ambiguity in traits being measured: In some rating scales the traits to be measured may have more than one meaning such that a rater may not be sure of what he is expected to rate. To avert this, all traits being measured should be defined operationally and the categories should also be delineated into a series of observable and measurable traits.

Halo Effect: This is the tendency to rate an individual's behaviour on the basis of global impressions of the individual rather than on the specific trait under consideration. As such the rater is unduly influenced by a single favourable or unfavourable impression which biases his judgement of the specific traits. It should be noted that results from such biased observations are usually spuriously low or high and as a result of this the validity and reliability of such result are questionable. In order to combat this problem, several procedures should be developed which include: defining the traits as concrete behaviours to provide specificity and clarity, and involving independent or external raters.

Error of Central Tendency, Leniency and Severity: Central tendency error refers to the error on the part of raters to bunch ratings in the middle of a continuum while avoiding the extremes. Leniency errors refer to the conscious effort of a rater to bunch ratings on the high desirable end of the scale while severity error is the tendency to concentrate ratings on the low or undesirable end of the scale. These errors made rating becomes less discriminating .To reduce these errors the ranking procedure should be adopted.

Logical Error: The logical error is similar to the halo effect, except that it is not due to rater biases of the relationships among traits. It is the tendency to rate two traits more alike than they actually are, as a result of the raters conceptions of their relationships.*) Systematic Observation*

Systematic Observation refers to the use of techniques in which pre-determined low-inference behaviours are observed and recorded in an organized manner. Systematic observation technique is of two kinds: Sign system and Category system.

Sign system: Here the observational schedule contains a number of behaviourally defined events, traits or activities. During observation, any behaviour which occurs within the prescribed time interval is recorded with a sign on the appropriate column of the schedule. The system does not allow an observer to record the frequency of occurrence of an event nor the time during observation when the event occurs. In some situations, the observer may not make any sign if none of the behaviours occurs within the observation period and the sign system is static but broad.

Category system: The behaviour to be observed is analysed into its components, each of which is classified as a category of the system. Observations in the category system are made for a few seconds to one minute, after which, the observer categorises each observed behaviour and records. Unlike sign system, behaviours are recorded as often as they occur. In essence, the system provides the frequency of occurrence for each particular behaviour. The recording pattern of the category system is such that, it reveals the time during observation when each behaviour occurs.

The advantages of systematic observation include: Applicability in a natural setting: in systematic observation, behaviours are observed as they are being exhibited in true life situations. For instance, students can be observed in the classroom, on the play ground, in the laboratory, or in other situations outside the classroom. Provision of a record of actual behaviours: behaviours are recorded as they are observed. The observer follows strictly the observational procedures to record dependable behaviours of individuals being observed. Applicability in non-verbal conditions: an important advantage of systematic observation is its application in non-verbal conditions. For young children, especially those in nursery schools who cannot communicate effectively, systematic observation is indispensable in gathering data on their behaviours. Absence of test anxiety: the usual test anxiety associated with achievement tests does not occur when systematic observation instruments are used.

Some of the limitations of systematic observation are: Observation is expensive: systematic observation is expensive in three aspects. First, several man-hours are spent by trained observers when observing behaviours of persons in field or classroom setting. Second, a lot of hard and soft ware equipment and time are required for

the training of observers to acquire effective observational skills. Third, analysis of recording on audio-visual equipment is cumbersome, time consuming and therefore costly. Reliability and validity of data for systematic observation are relatively difficult to establish, in comparison with data obtained with other research instruments. The problem in respect of reliability centres on the observer because if the observer introduces biases in the process of relating observed behaviours to the delineated categories or gives inaccurate interpretations, the results will not reflect a true picture of the proceedings in the observational setting.

Anecdotal Records (Unstructured Observation)

These are factual written descriptions of meaningful events in the behaviours of students. The behaviours are objectively recorded as they occur and are reported to provide a qualitative picture of observed behaviours. The records may be used to supplement or verify data gathered with more objective methods. Qualities of a good Anecdotal Record include: the specific event or behaviour should be significant to the growth and development of the student to be observed. The record should provide a factual description of a specific behaviour, when it occurs and the circumstances under which the behaviour occurs; and the interpretation of the behaviour and recommendations (if any) should be done separately from the behaviour description.

The advantages of anecdotal records are that it provides a written report of critical incidents of spontaneous behaviour, many of which do not lend themselves to systematic observation; it provides the teacher with objective descriptions rather than make him rely on vague generalizations; it directs the teacher's attention to a single student; it provides a cumulative record of growth and development, if collected over a period of time ,and it provides for a more thorough description of the students' behaviour than the checklist, rating scales or sociograms.

Anecdotal Records have some limitations. It is very difficult for observers to guarantee objectivity of their observations. Anecdotes do not reveal causes; rather, they only provide verbal descriptions of events. They do not use time sampling technique, as a result, an appreciable amount of time is spent observing and recording events; and they are informal and mainly qualitative to the extent that their measures are less reliable in comparison with other observational tools.

2. Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a self-reporting instrument that has received a good use in educational research, psychological research, programme evaluation, etc. Out of its many forms Likert inventories can handle almost all affective assessment requirements, because it is a very serviceable affective measurement strategy. Likert inventories consist of a series of statements to which the respondent registers his/her agreement or disagreement. For example, you are given a statement such as "Reading this book about classroom assessment represents one of the finest professional experiences of my career". The respondent then chooses from set of options to agree or disagree with this statement. The usual options are *strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, and strongly disagree*. (Many assessors have removed the *uncertain* aspect of the scale on the ground that neutrality is far-fetch in the issues of affect.) Let's look, then at a simple series of steps teachers should follow to create a Likert inventory for their own classroom:

1. *Choose the affective variable you want to assess*. Decide what attitude or value you want to assess, and then try to get as clearheaded as possible about what the affective variable really means.
2. *Generate a series of favourable and unfavourabke statements regarding the affective variables*. For example, if you were interested in students' attitudes regarding reading, you might construct a positive statement such as "People who read for fun are stupid". Try to generate a few more statements than you ultimately plan to use. For students in secondary schools, a 10-item Likert inventory takes little time to complete. Try to construct an approximately equal number of positive and negative statements.
3. *Get several people to classify each statement as positive or negative*. Corral a few colleagues or family members to look at your generated statements and classify each statement as positive or negative. Toss out any statement that isn't unanimously classified as positive or negative.
4. *Decide on the number and phrasing of the response options for each statement*. The original Likert inventory had the following five options: SD = strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, NS = Not Sure, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree.
5. *Prepare the self-report inventory giving students directions regarding how to respond and stipulating that the inventory must be completed anonymously*. If students haven't previously completed such inventories, they'll need good, clear directions. It is helpful to include an illustration or two on how students might respond. Simple statements about generally known topics, such as, food or movies work well on such illustrations.
6. *Administer the inventory either to your own students or, if possible (as a tryout), to other students*. If another teacher is willing, try out your inventory with students similar to your own. Based on the responses of those students, you can then improve the inventory before giving it to your own students. If you must use inventory with the same students, you can still improve the inventory for use later in the

year with the same students or, perhaps, next year with another set of students.

7. *Score the inventories.* Assign points for each student's response to each item based on the direction of the statement. For instance, if you are using five response options, you would give five points to strongly agree responses to positive statements and also five points to strongly disagree responses to negative statements. Thus, for a 10-item inventory the scores could range from 10 to 50. Generally speaking, the higher the score, the more appropriate students' affective status appears to be.

8. *Identify and eliminate the statements that fail to function in accord with the other statements.* Simply "eye-ball" students' responses and try to detect statements to which students are responding differently than rest of the statements. Dump those statements. Then restore the inventories without the rejected items.

For each affective variable of interest you can create a different inventory. The more experience you accumulate in creating Likert inventories, the easier it gets. Remember, that answers should be anonymous. One other way is to not collect answers of students, but let them reflect on their attitudes and understand where they are. Don't allow students to write anything other than simple circles on the right answers, emphasize that answers are anonymous. If students are sure of it they will be more honest and open. You can assess attitudes before certain instruction periods and after that to see if you succeed in implementing certain content, approaches or values. Use average results to make inferences about all students. With such an inventory you can't assess a single student.

The advantages of the use of this type of questionnaire are: It is a relatively simple method of obtaining data. Items can be constructed rather easily by beginning teachers. Less time is consumed in using this method of gathering information. The teacher is able to gather data from a widely scattered sample. It is rather inexpensive to distribute, and data from close-ended items are relatively easy to tabulate, especially if they are check-off responses.   The following are recognized as some of the disadvantages of the use of questionnaire as an assessment tool: the instrument is unable to probe a topic in-depth without becoming unduly lengthy; the respondent may omit or disregard any item he chooses, without giving any explanation; some items may force the subject to select responses that are not his actual choice; the amount of information that can be gathered is limited by the subject's available time and interest span. Printing may be costly if the questionnaire is lengthy and is printed on high quality paper. Data are limited to the information voluntarily supplied by the respondents; and some items may be misunderstood or the respondents may fake their behaviours or responses, a situation that puts the validity and reliability of the results in doubt.

3. Interview Schedule

An interview schedule is a written guide for asking a person questions in order to collect information from him/her about him/herself or a system he/she is used to. The use of interview schedule to collect evaluation information usually goes beyond a list of simple questions which may be answered by mere 'Yes' or 'No'. A good interview schedule should also be capable of eliciting elaborate responses from the learner. An interview schedule may or may not be structured, controlled or standardized with respect to both the questions and the possible answers. When it is structured, controlled or standardized, it provides an opportunity to obtain the same responses from the respondents. It is however difficult to adapt this type of interview schedule to the level of each respondent because of its lack of flexibility. This may however make the interviewer to miss some vital information. It may also pose a problem since the procedure for collecting the information varies from one respondent to another.

The use of interview schedule to collect evaluation information has some merits. They include: it could be used to collect information from kindergartens and lower basic pupils who can not read and write properly; and it gives the teacher the opportunity to have direct interaction with the respondents. It would however be mentioned that: the use of interview schedule in collecting evaluation information is prone to subjectivity; and the analysis of such information is always very difficult and time consuming.

Conclusion

The purpose of advocating for assessment of affective behaviours in learners is to enable learners not only to acquire academic competencies but to be adequately equipped with knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, practical and psychosocial skills that would enable them live healthy and satisfying lives and derive the benefit of learning. The teacher's task in achieving this include observing and reporting learner's affective behaviours; conducting periodic interview with students; noting, writing and reporting important incidents; and asking students to self-report themselves in Likert-like questionnaire or in essay type. There are other tools being developed but are not yet perfected for Nigerian classroom environment due to cultural orientations. For example, Johnson and Johnson (1996) have developed a *Class life instrument* which can be one tool for assessing student's attitude in different areas of classroom life. Teachers can use it if they work in a cooperative manner, because many questions are about cooperative learning. There are also different value clarification sheets being developed to

asses students' values. Whatever tool that might be used, teachers should know how to deal with assessment results. They need to prepare a student profile (a bank of information on a student) and professionally share this with other teachers, other school personnel, parents and the students themselves.

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