

Encouraging Students Evaluative Judgement in Project Courses: Do's and Don't Lessons Learned from Three Course Instances

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Abstract

Evaluative judgement, which is defined as “the capability to make decisions about the quality of work of oneself and others”, has long been recognised and considered in higher education literature as an important goal of study programs. A number of in-course practices (such as self-assessment, peer review, feedback, etc.) have been used to help students to develop evaluative judgement. However, only a few empirical studies has been conducted to actually prove the impacts of those practices to improvement of student’s evaluative judgement. In this paper, we present our observation on student’s judgement ability during a period of 3 years across 3 instances of a project course where different practices have been applied to help students to achieve evaluative judgement at each instance. From the observation, we present a lesson

1. Introduction

2 According to Cowan Cowan [1], evaluative judgement has recently been
3 taken up in the higher education literature, as a high-level cognitive ability
4 required for life-long learning. The impact of evaluative and critical judge-
5 ment to production of effective feedback have been underlined by Sadler [2],
6 Nicol [3, 4] and Boud and Molloy [5].

7 Little empirical work has so far been conducted within an explicit eval-
8 uative judgement framework. Firstly, Nicol et al. (2014) demonstrated the
9 ability of peer learning activities to facilitate students judgement making in
10 higher education settings. Secondly, Tai et al. (2016) also explored the role
11 of informal peer learning in producing accurate evaluative judgements, which

12 impacted on students capacity to engage in feedback conversations, through
13 a better understanding of standards. Thirdly, Barton et al. (2016) reframed
14 formal feedback processes to develop evaluative judgement, including dialogic
15 feedback, self-assessment, and a programmatic feedback journal.

16 This paper is structured as follow: Section 2 provides readers with basic
17 knowledge of evaluative judgement, section 3 summarises the methods to
18 collect and analyse data. Section 4, 5 and 6 highlight the settings of instances
19 of the project course toward applying the practices. Section 7 concludes the
20 paper with lesson learned and potential future works.

21 **2. Background**

22 This section aims to provide readers with basic components of evaluative
23 judgement including its definition (Section 2.1), the practices that have been
24 used to improve student’s evaluative judgement (Section 2.2) and the threats
25 to the development of student’s evaluative judgement (Section 2.3). This
26 knowledge is lately used as a basis to discuss the treatments/incentives for
27 developing student’s evaluative judgement in the three course-instances.

28 *2.1. Definition of Evaluative Judgement*

29 The definition of evaluative judgement has a root from a closely-related
30 literature which is formative assessment. This supports students develop-
31 ing capability for evaluative judgement through applying practices of self-
32 assessment [6, 7] and peer assessment [8, 9]. Tai. et al. proposed to take into
33 account an extra aspect of sustainable assessment (introduced by Boud and
34 Soler [10]) when it comes to definition of evaluative judgement [11].

35 Tai et al. given two definitions of evaluative judgement in two different
36 contexts. The first definition was formed in the context of medical student’s
37 learning on clinical placements being: “*the ability to critically assess a per-
38 formance in relation to a predefined but not necessarily explicit standard,
39 which entails a complex process of reflection. It has an internal application,
40 in the form of self-evaluation, and an external application, in making deci-
41 sions about the quality of others work*” (pp.661 of [11]). The second definition
42 is a simplified version of the first definition with exclusion of tautological
43 components. The second definition is: “***Evaluative judgement is the
44 capability to make decisions about the quality of work of self and
45 others***” [12]. In this paper, we discuss student’s evaluative judgement in

46 general project courses, thus we shall take the latter as the baseline to build
47 up our discussion.

48 *2.2. Practices to Improve Student's Evaluative Judgement*

49 According to Tai. et al., student's evaluative adjudgement can be devel-
50 oped in higher educational courses by applying/employing a number of prac-
51 tices, including self-assessment, peer review/assessment, feedback, rubrics
52 and exemplars [12]. This section summarises the practices and its potential
53 application in project courses.

54 *2.2.1. Self-assessment*

55 Self-assessment is the practice that encourages students to appraise their
56 own work. This practice often implies a comparison of student-generated
57 marks and teacher-generated marks. Despite long-established criticisms by
58 Boud and Falchikov [13], this strategy remains common in self-assessment
59 research (Panadero et al. 2016) because of a number of reasons. Firstly,
60 such comparison is easy to conduct and analyse within a course - It requires
61 little to no changes to curriculum and pedagogy. Secondly, there remains a
62 legitimate interest in understanding students self-marking [12].

63 Self-assessment can assist students to develop multiple criteria and quali-
64 tatively review their own work against them. Therefore self-assessment helps
65 students to refine their judgements rather than to generate grades that might
66 be distorted by their potential use as a substitute for teacher grades.

67 Self-assessment can only be effectively used with students thoroughly un-
68 derstanding the task they are performing, the requirements towards the task
69 what is expected as 'standard'. In modern project course which often con-
70 sists of highly-dynamic tasks (with the aim to capture realistic working en-
71 vironment), before applying self-assessment, teachers need to pay an extra
72 attention to ensure all students have an adequate understanding of the above-
73 mentioned components.

74 *2.2.2. Peer Review/Assessment*

75 Similar to self-assessment, peer review/assessment practice focus on the
76 accuracy of marks generated and the potential for a number calculated from
77 peer assessments to contribute to grades [14, 15]. Peer review/assessment is
78 aimed at contributing to multiple aspects of teaching and learning, includ-
79 ing formative, educative and pedagogical elements [16, 17, 8]. In addition,
80 with peer review/assessment, students are required to give and receive peer

81 feedbacks. According to van den Berg et al. [18] and Nicol et al. [4], this
82 significantly contributes to student learning and development of evaluative
83 judgement.

84 Empirical works by McConlogue [19] and Tai. et al. [11] report that by
85 engaging more closely with criteria and standards, and having to compare
86 work to these, students have obtained a better understanding of quality work.
87 In particular, by a more explicit focus on evaluative judgement, students
88 can pay close attention to what constitutes “quality” in others work and
89 how that may transfer to their own work. Moreover, understanding the
90 notions of quality through evaluating the work of peer students may reduce
91 the effect of cognitive biases directed towards the self when undertaking self-
92 assessment [20]. Therefore, this is generally considered as a complementary
93 option for self-assessment. However, it is important (for teachers) to keep
94 in mind that conducting peer review/assessment is often more “expensive”
95 than self-assessment.

96 2.2.3. Feedback

97 Feedback is the practice where dialogues are given to students about
98 their work as the courses undergo. Recent studies about feedback practices
99 in higher education has emphasised the effects of feedback on students sub-
100 sequent work and on engaging the students as active agents in a forward
101 looking dialogue about their studies [5, 21, 22]. These works suggest that
102 feedback could help develop students evaluative judgement in different ways,
103 including: i) clarifying applicable standards and criteria that define qual-
104 ity; ii) refining the judgement of students about their work; and iii) assisting
105 students to formulate actions that arise from their appreciation of their work.

106 The consideration of feedback toward evaluative judgement requires an
107 extra attention to the content of the feedback and the way it is given. Com-
108 ments to students should not only about their work per se but about *the*
109 *judgements they make about it*. According to Tai. et al., in order for stu-
110 dents to refine their judgements, the following feedbacks can be given: i)
111 whether the students have chosen suitable criteria/standard; ii) whether the
112 students have reached justifiable decisions about the work; and iii) what the
113 students need to do to develop these capabilities further [12].

114 In the context of project courses where the working topic is often broad
115 and could be extensively developed, feedback can also be used to help stu-
116 dents to scope their work. With a consideration to develop student’s evalu-
117 ative judgement in mind, teachers may give comments that trigger students

118 to judge their (own or group's) resource and capability to finish given tasks,
119 thus better scope their project.

120 2.2.4. Rubrics

121 Rubric is defined as “a document that articulates the expectations for
122 an assignment by listing the criteria or what counts, and describing levels
123 of quality from excellent to poor” [23, 24, 25]. A rubric has three essential
124 features: evaluation criteria, quality definitions and a scoring strategy [26].
125 Rubrics can be considered of as a scaffold or pedagogy to support the de-
126 velopment of evaluative judgement. There is extensive diversity of rubric
127 practices, some of which better supports evaluative judgement than others,
128 according to Dawson [27].

129 Prior study (such as [5]) suggests that students could be trained to use
130 rubrics to evaluate their own work and the work of others. However, the abil-
131 ity to apply a rubric does not necessarily imply that students have developed
132 or achieved evaluative judgement without a rubric. Hendry and Anderson
133 (2013) proposed that marking guides are only helpful for students to under-
134 stand quality when the students themselves use them to critically evaluate
135 work. Andrade, by observing how middle-school students use rubrics, con-
136 cludes that students must engage deeply with rubrics, perhaps by co-creating
137 them and using them for self- and peer assessments. Andrade lists an exam-
138 ple of proper use of rubrics in Reitmeier et al.'s study [28].

139 In addition, to support the development of evaluative judgement, rubrics
140 should be designed and used in ways that reflect the sound understandings
141 of quality that experts use when making judgement about a particular type
142 of task while acknowledging the complexity and fluidity of the practices, and
143 hence standards, they represent [12].

144 2.2.5. Exemplars

145 Sadler defines exemplars as “key examples of products or processes chosen
146 so as to be typical of designated levels of quality or competence” [29]. Exem-
147 plars can also be simply understood as examples of best or worst practice
148 in the educational environment. Exemplars provide a form of scaffolding for
149 students. Scaffolding refers to support provided during the learning process,
150 focused on helping students achieve learning goals and gradually reduced or
151 faded according to the progress of the learner. The intention is that the sup-
152 port not only assists students in accomplishing tasks but also enables them to
153 learn from the experience to improve performance in future tasks [30]. Wise

154 and O'Neill mention an important social aspect to scaffolding in which learn-
155 ing occurs through interactions with more capable others, primarily peers or
156 teachers [31].

157 A challenge in using exemplars is to ensure that they are sustainable,
158 meaning that, they represent features not just of a given task but of a broader
159 discipline or profession. In project courses, which often aim at preparing
160 students to future working tasks, this challenge can be resolved by recruiting
161 actual industrial tasks and involving industrial assessment in the exemplars.

162 *2.3. Threats to the Development of Student's Evaluative Judgement*

163 Joughin et al. in their paper [32] draw an attention to a number of heuristics
164 that unconsciously hold the ability of making evaluative judgement and
165 decision-making. This section summarises the threats listed in the paper,
166 including attribute substitution, overconfidence, the endowment effect, an-
167 choring & adjustment and the law of least effort. We would argue it is very
168 important to keep in mind and to manage these threats when designing a
169 course with the objective of developing student's evaluative judgement.

170 *2.3.1. Attribute Substitution*

171 According to this heuristic, when confronted with a difficult, complex
172 problem, we human may unconsciously substitute a simpler problem for
173 which we can find an answer. Kahneman refers to this as "answering an eas-
174 ier question" [33]. The main concern is whether students, asked to evaluate
175 their work by applying a complex rubric or a criterion they do not under-
176 stand, might respond by unconsciously simplifying the task. For example,
177 instead of answering the question, How well did I do against this criterion?,
178 the students may unconsciously substitute the question, How much effort did
179 I invest in relation to this criterion?.

180 *2.3.2. Framing*

181 Framing refers to ones conception of a task, its intended outcomes and
182 the implications of those outcomes. Framing arises from both how a task is
183 presented and how it is perceived and is thus influenced by both the task per
184 se and its context. The main concern is that any given task can be presented
185 in different ways, and any given presentation of a task can be perceived dif-
186 ferently. The impact of framing has been powerfully demonstrated in relation
187 to complex judgements in medical [34] and financial contexts [35] amongst
188 others. For example, a task being "Write the formula on the white board"

189 can be interpreted as writing an actual chemical formula or writing the words
190 “the formula” on the whiteboard, resulting in two different outputs. To re-
191 duce this type of threat, it is important that teachers and students have to
192 achieve a mutual agreement on their “framing” of the given task. Techniques
193 such as *replicating*, *clarification*, *requesting student’s interpretation* might be
194 used by teachers to ensure check student’s framing of the task.

195 2.3.3. *Overconfidence*

196 Overconfidence plays a major role in misjudgement and flawed decisions
197 and is linked to numerous other factors affecting judgement [36, 37]. Over-
198 confidence concerns human’s tendency to overrate the quality of own work,
199 decisions or judgement and is based on how coherent a view of the judgement
200 we have. More information might challenge that sense so that, we may be
201 more confident if we have less rather than more information to guide our
202 judgement. Accordingly, the overconfidence heuristic should be expected to
203 lead students to overvalue their work, with less knowledgeable students more
204 prone to this than their better informed and hence more uncertain peers. In
205 fact, as the well-documented Dunning-Kruger effect shows, the effect on stu-
206 dents is more nuanced, with lower performing students tending to exaggerate
207 their grades while higher performing students tend to do the opposite [38].
208 This phenomenon provides a rare instance of research into an unconscious
209 heuristic in higher education.

210 2.3.4. *The Endowment Effect and the IKEA Effect*

211 These effects concern our tendency to overvalue what we have come to
212 own or what we have created ourselves. The *endowment effect*, so named by
213 Thaler [39], posits that we attach more value to an object if we have a sense
214 of ownership than if we do not. The *IKEA effect* as its name says-it-all:
215 the increased valuing of products we have constructed ourselves compared
216 to those constructed by others. These effects should be expected to inflate
217 students judgements of work in which they have a strong personal investment
218 and/ or which represent a significant effort or act of creation. The effects
219 may apply not only to how highly a piece of work is valued, but also to
220 the students judgement itself once that judgement has been made, so that
221 students may not only over-rate their work but also hold more strongly to
222 their evaluation of it.

223 *2.3.5. Anchoring and Adjustment*

224 This heuristic refers to the tendency to use a given value as a start-
225 ing point and then adjust our judgement from that point. The effect of
226 this heuristic on second marker judgement has been documented by Brooks
227 (2012). When students are evaluating their own work, four sets of appar-
228 ently useful points of reference may act as anchors: verbal descriptors of
229 standards; exemplars; the work of peers; and their own previous work. Thus,
230 for example, students advised of an expected class average of 80% would be
231 more likely to rate their work as closer to 80% than students advised of an
232 expected class average of 50% or students not advised of any average. A sim-
233 ilar dynamic may occur in relation to student's evaluations with respect to
234 individual criteria and standards. In other words, the presence of particular
235 exemplars, criteria and standards statements may ironically work to distort
236 rather than promote accurate judgement.

237 *2.3.6. The Law of Least Effort*

238 This heuristic assumes that we are working in the right direction, but
239 that our attention and energy are finite and that we therefore tend to choose
240 the means of achieving a goal that requires the least effort. This heuristic has
241 several possible implications for students evaluative judgement. For example,
242 if judgement requires attention to too many factors either simultaneously or
243 sequentially, students may find their capacity to attend to these diminishing
244 as they work through them. Moreover, if evaluative judgement is required
245 at the end of a complex assessment task or is seen as peripheral to the main
246 task, it may be done reluctantly and with limited energy and attention. If
247 such judgement can be undertaken through several more or less intensive
248 means, students may tend to opt for the most straightforward and avoid the
249 more demanding.

250 **3. Study Method**

251 This study is constructed as an action research on a 15 HEC project
252 course (DIT598 Software Evolution Project) over 3 course instances between
253 September 2015 and December 2017. During the three iterations teachers
254 and students lenses [40] were used to analyze problems and change the course
255 design.

256 TBD: Course is about ...

257 Data for assessing the students lens was collected throughout the three
258 courses with the help of course surveys and course evaluation meetings.
259 Course evaluation meetings were held twice for each course instance, once
260 around mid-term and once after the course was over. Between one and five
261 students ("course representatives") participated in these meetings together
262 with the teachers and, during the respective final meetings, the program re-
263 sponsible. The course survey includes standard questions, which were asked
264 in all three years. While the course survey includes quantitative measures,
265 assessed with Likert-scale questions, it is necessary to be careful when using
266 these quantitative measures. This is due to the existence of changes that
267 are not related to the research questions, which biases the quantitative mea-
268 sures. Instead, the focus is on the qualitative data, i.e. free-text answers in
269 the course survey that can be related to the changes performed to address
270 the researched issues. The teachers perspective will be reconstructed based
271 on personal notes of the main teacher, who is also the author of this paper.

272 **4. Course Instance Fall 2015/2016**

273 *4.1. Course Design*

274 *4.1.1. Team Setup*

275 Teams had 6 to 8 students and were assigned semi-randomly. The as-
276 signment process was: Students could submit project proposals together in
277 small teams of 1 to 4. Then students could vote for the projects they wanted
278 to participate in. The 7 most popular projects were instantiated. Each of
279 these projects was then filled first with the students who proposed it and
280 afterwards with additional students who voted for it. Due to differences in
281 popularity of the project proposals not all students could participate in the
282 projects of their first choice.

283 *4.1.2. In-course Components to Develop Student's Evaluative Judgement*

284 *Self-assessment.* Allow students to choose their own projects as a way to
285 motivate them to work and to reduce the learning curve and can better
286 choose a project that fit their capability (e.g. the programming language that
287 fits, the topics that they like...).

288 *Peer review.* Peer reviews have done at several levels: i) between team mem-
289 bers: teachers motivated the teams to apply industrial working practices
290 such as work-in-pair (for coding/reviewing code); ii) between teams: in the

291 Scrums-of-scrum meetings, representatives from all groups meet and present
292 their progress, other groups are allowed to ask questions and give recommen-
293 dations

294 *Feedback.* Similar to peer-review/assessment, feedback was given in several
295 levels: i) between team members: ...; ii) between groups: ; iii) between
296 students and teachers: via supervision sessions or

297 *Rubrics.* The final grade included the teams grade to 50%. An additional
298 part of the grade that was bound to the team performance was a bonus of
299 up to 3 points (worth 3% of the grade) that could be reached by teams. The
300 other 50% were based on: - the individual contribution to the project (10%):
301 This differs a bit from the strategies of personal reporting and peer assessment
302 listed by Hayes et al. [14], as students report themselves and others - but
303 as a team. Thus, they have to agree on the reporting. In addition, the
304 reporting should include details about the actual tasks performed. - the 4
305 discussions (20%) and an individual report at the end of the project (20%):
306 Both, discussions and the individual report functioned as cross-validation as
307 known from Hayes et al. [14]. We aligned the report to the projects by
308 asking students to describe and measure quality improvements achieved on
309 the projects during the team work.

310 *Exemplars.*

311 *4.1.3. Data Collection*

312 *4.2. Result*

313 *4.2.1. Teacher's Perspective*

314 We observed problems in multiple teams. Several teams split up the work
315 into small chunks they worked on individually or in pairs (an effect that needs
316 to be prevented for learning based on social constructivism). Some of these
317 pairs worked in a way that made us teachers suspect that one student covered
318 for lacking contribution of the other. There were single students who had
319 little to no contribution to the teams work. In one team, some of the students
320 discussed their progress in team meetings, but refused to actually share their
321 contributions with the other team members over weeks. Furthermore, we
322 saw a first case of a weaker student who was not supported by the team.

323 The topic choice of individual reports caused problems, as students com-
324 peted for the topics that seemed easiest to address. This might ultimately

325 also have contributed to a less fair grading. Students would often also con-
326 tribute very little to the team work and spend much more time working on
327 their individual reports.

328 Many components of the course, e.g. poster sessions or discussion, had
329 no positive effect on the teams. It was difficult to compare contributions
330 between teams, due to the self-selection of the topics.

331 4.2.2. Student's Perspective

332 The following issues were mentioned by students in the course evaluation.

333 *Teaching team does not have enough insight.* Multiple feedback from students
334 mentioned the lack of understanding and proper check between teachers and
335 students. This feedback included partly very harsh comments on supervisors
336 being useless and the teaching team not having enough insight into what the
337 students really did. A student commented: “the teachers (have) got no deep
338 insight about the code we were writing, our report’s contents, our experi-
339 ments, etc.”. Surprisingly, the same student lately mentioned that he/she
340 used a superficial communication strategy to always say “well” to the super-
341 visors when being asked about the project progress. This can be considered
342 as part of the anchoring effect where a student *with the expectation of get-
343 ting no useful help from supervisor* in mind might overlook the opportunity
344 to discuss and get feedback from teaching teams, thus lose the chance to
345 develop his/her evaluative judgement.

346 *Lack of communication between teachers and students.* Some students men-
347 tioned lack of feedback and communication between their teams and teachers.
348 This, according to the students, caused some serious issues as the course pro-
349 gresses, including: i) the teachers do not understand student’s background
350 (e.g. a student mentioned “...*the teachers thought that we had taken Soft-
351 ware Quality (which wasn’t taught last year), so they kind of assumed that we
352 knew what we were doing, e.g. about the metrics...*”); ii) the students do not
353 have the same views as teachers when it comes to project outcomes (e.g. a
354 comment being “... *because they (the students) hadn’t understood what kind
355 of contributions she (the teacher) had expected*”). It is clear that this poor
356 communication channel could leave a huge room for student’s self interpre-
357 tation of requirements and tasks, thus being a serious threat of *framing* and
358 *attribute substitution* to development of student’s evaluative judgement.

359 *Lack of communication and peer review/assessment within team.* Two stu-
360 dents also reported lack of understanding and communication within their
361 team, which lately resulted in stress taking extra work to cover others work,
362 giving free-ride to other team members (so called free-rider/slacker [41]). As
363 an example, a student reported: “*The majority of my group members were*
364 *incompetent and I had to help them with coding problems, etc, while I gained*
365 *nothing from them*”. The comment might sound a bit extreme, but it clearly
366 shows that the reporting student was expecting more feedback from his/her
367 teammates. This might have a root cause from the team not being able to
368 define/choose a task that every team members can participate or the other
369 team-members intently expecting a free-ride. Either ways could potentially
370 harm the student’s experience with development of his/her own evaluative
371 judgement.

372 *Disconnection between individual components of the grading.* A disconnec-
373 tion between individual components of the grading (discussions and individ-
374 ual reports) form the project was mentioned negatively. Students mentioned
375 the lack of frequent checks and indicated that they did not work much on
376 the course for a long time. A student also mentioned their decision to follow
377 the law of least effort: “*many group members ended up changing charac-*
378 *teristics later completely and we did, for instance, an analysis of the issue*
379 *tracker and mailing list for the sake of the report in December*”. Allowing
380 students to be able to adjust the goals/requirements of their task without
381 an effective guidance/monitor from the supervision team could therefore be
382 a clear threat to the development of the students, including development of
383 evaluative judgement.

384 *4.2.3. Lessons Learned*

385 **5. Course Instance Fall 2016/2017**

386 *5.1. Course Design*

387 *5.1.1. Team Setup*

388 The creation of teams changed only little compared to the year before.
389 While the topics were no longer selected by students, they were still asked
390 to indicate sub-teams up to 4 students, which were then mixed randomly by
391 the teacher to for teams of 6-8.

392 5.1.2. *In-course Components to Develop Student's Evaluative Judgement*

393 5.1.3. *Data Collection*

394 5.2. *Result*

395 5.2.1. *Teacher's Perspective*

396 5.2.2. *Student's Perspective*

397 **6. Course Instance Fall 2017/2018**

398 6.1. *Course Design*

399 6.1.1. *Team Setup*

400 To find another approach towards the problems in teams, the team size
401 was reduced to 4-5 student per team. Furthermore, students got the chance
402 to select their teams fully on their own.

403 6.1.2. *In-course Components to Develop Student's Evaluative Judgement*

404 6.1.3. *Data Collection*

405 6.2. *Result*

406 6.2.1. *Teacher's Perspective*

407 6.2.2. *Student's Perspective*

408 **7. Conclusion**

409 7.1. *Do's and Don't*

410 7.2. *Threats to Validity*

411 7.3. *Future Work*

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