



PRODUCTIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS: A CONCEPTUAL LITERATURE REVIEW AND EXAMPLES OF ASSESSMENT TOOLSⁱ

Rabia Çetintaş¹ⁱⁱ,

Gülay Ekici²

¹MEB Almanca Öğretmeni,
Kahramanmaraş, Türkiye

²Prof. Dr.,
Balıkesir Üniversitesi,
Necatibey Eğitim Fakültesi,
Balıkesir, Türkiye

Abstract:

This study examines productive language skills in relation to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), the action-oriented approach, and performance-based assessment. By synthesizing the literature on language skills and rubric-based assessment, the study addresses how productive skills can be comprehensively assessed. The literature shows that productive skills cannot be assessed solely through grammatical accuracy or vocabulary ability. Speaking and writing skills require students to construct meaningful structures, communicate effectively, and demonstrate observable performance in specific contexts. The CEFR's action-oriented perspective emphasizes students as social actors and requires them to complete meaningful tasks through language. Accordingly, the assessment of productive skills should encompass not only linguistic accuracy but also many dimensions appropriate to the skill being assessed, such as content, coherence, fluency, vocabulary, pronunciation, interaction, task success, spelling, and organization. Therefore, performance assessment tools, particularly analytical rubrics, are useful because they clearly reveal and allow for the scoring of multiple dimensions of performance. The article also provides examples of these performance assessment rubrics. In conclusion, this literature review offers implications for language teachers, curriculum development specialists, and researchers interested in teaching and assessing productive language skills.

Keywords: productive language skills; speaking; writing; language assessment; analytic rubrics

ⁱ ÜRETİCİ DİL BECERİLERİ: KAVRAMSAL BİR YAKLAŞIM LİTERATÜR İNCELEMESİ VE DEĞERLENDİRME ARAÇLARI ÖRNEKLERİ

ⁱⁱ Correspondence: email rb.ctnts88@gmail.com

Özet:

Bu çalışma, Avrupa Ortak Dil Referans Çerçevesi (CEFR), eylem odaklı yaklaşım ve performansa dayalı değerlendirme bağlamında üretici dil becerilerini incelemektedir. Dil becerileri ve rubrik tabanlı değerlendirme üzerine literatürü sentezleyerek, çalışma üretken becerilerin nasıl kapsamlı bir şekilde değerlendirilebileceğini ele almaktadır. Literatür, üretici becerilerin yalnızca dilbilgisel doğruluk veya kelime bilgisi yeteneğiyle değerlendirilemeyeceğini göstermektedir. Konuşma ve yazma becerileri, öğrencilerin anlamlı yapılar oluşturmalarını, etkili bir şekilde iletişim kurmasını ve belirli bağlamlarda gözlemlenebilir performans sergilemesini gerektirir. CEFR'nin eylem odaklı bakış açısı, öğrencileri sosyal aktörler olarak vurgular ve onlardan dil yoluyla anlamlı görevleri tamamlamalarını ister. Buna göre, üretici becerilerin değerlendirilmesi yalnızca dilsel doğruluğu değil, aynı zamanda değerlendirilen beceriye uygun birçok boyutu da kapsamalıdır; bunlar arasında içerik, tutarlılık, akıcılık, kelime bilgisi, telaffuz, etkileşim, görev başarısı, yazım ve organizasyon yer almaktadır. Bu nedenle, performans değerlendirme araçları, özellikle analitik rubrikler, performansın birden fazla boyutunu açıkça ortaya koydukları ve puanlamaya olanak sağladıkları için faydalıdır. Makale ayrıca bu performans değerlendirme rubriklerine örnekler de sunmaktadır. Sonuç olarak, bu literatür taraması, üretici dil becerilerinin öğretimi ve değerlendirilmesiyle ilgilenen dil öğretmenleri, müfredat geliştirme uzmanları ve araştırmacılar için çıkarımlar sunmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: üretici dil becerileri; konuşma; yazma; dil değerlendirmesi; analitik rubrikler

1. Introduction

People convey their emotions, thoughts, and knowledge to others in various ways; this transmission and the process of interpreting it are called communication. A person's relationship with other people, nature, and the universe makes life meaningful. A person's sense of existence in the world is possible only through meaningful relationships with their inner and outer worlds. Communication is one of the most important prerequisites for people to live together (Özkan, 2015). Human beings' effort to communicate with the person they address begins from the very first moment of birth. This communication, which first manifests itself in the form of crying, later develops as cooing, babbling, and syllabification. Subsequently, the desire to communicate becomes more systematic and takes the form of speech. This systematic structure that enables people to communicate with one another is called language.

Human language is indisputably our most remarkable characteristic, the feature that distinguishes our species from others more than anything else. Our linguistic ability, which we generally take for granted, displays a remarkable, even astonishing, range of properties. Without language, it would be almost impossible for us to create the human

world as we know it. The development of everything from music to war could never have taken place in the absence of language. Thus, more than any other characteristic, language is what makes us human. And human language is unique (Trask, 2003). In other words, it can be stated that humanity has reached its present point largely thanks to language.

Every language perceives and interprets the universe in its own distinctive way. Every language follows a different path in understanding and describing the world. A child opens their eyes to a language that surrounds them. This is their mother tongue. They acquire the sound system of that language, and their consciousness awakens through the language's way of understanding and describing (Adalı, 1983). The mother tongue is defined as the language an individual acquires from birth through interaction with family and the immediate environment and uses for communication throughout life. In addition, the mother tongue is regarded as one of the fundamental elements that contributes to establishing a common bond among individuals living in the same society and supports social integration (Çağlar, 2026). A person opens their eyes to the world through their mother tongue, and life gains meaning in the light of this first language they acquire. However, for many different reasons, people also begin to learn languages other than their mother tongue. Languages learned after the mother tongue are generally referred to as foreign languages.

A foreign language is a language unknown to a child or individual. As the name suggests, it is a language that has remained foreign, the language of a foreign nation. It should be particularly emphasized that for a language to be regarded as a foreign language, it must have remained foreign, been perceived as foreign, and remained an unknown language for a certain period of time. We can define a foreign language as the second language decided upon after the process of mother-tongue acquisition has been completed (Küzeci, 2015). Today, a second language/foreign language has gained great importance. Regardless of the sector in which they work, people feel the need to learn a foreign language, or even a second foreign language. In today's world, where knowing a foreign language is no longer a privilege but a necessary skill for everyone, the importance of foreign-language education has also increased (Göçer, 2009).

The main purpose of learning a foreign language is for the individual to use that language effectively. For this reason, foreign-language teaching is not merely the teaching of grammar rules. It also aims to functionally develop the language skills that will enable the individual to use the language as a means of communication whenever needed. For all these reasons, reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills are fundamental components of the educational process in foreign-language teaching.

2. Conceptual Framework of Language Skills

2.1. Language As a Skill

Language is essentially a skill. It is not a content-oriented subject such as Science, Social Studies, Commerce, Mathematics, etc., whose purpose is to transmit information and fill the human mind with knowledge. Since language is a skill, it naturally falls within the psychomotor domain. A skill may be defined as the ability to do something well. Swimming, playing games, etc. are skills that people perform after acquiring them. Knowing these things is an intellectual exercise (cognition), whereas using or doing them is a skill (action). Language is a complex skill that includes four subskills, as shown in Figure 1 (Husain, 2015):

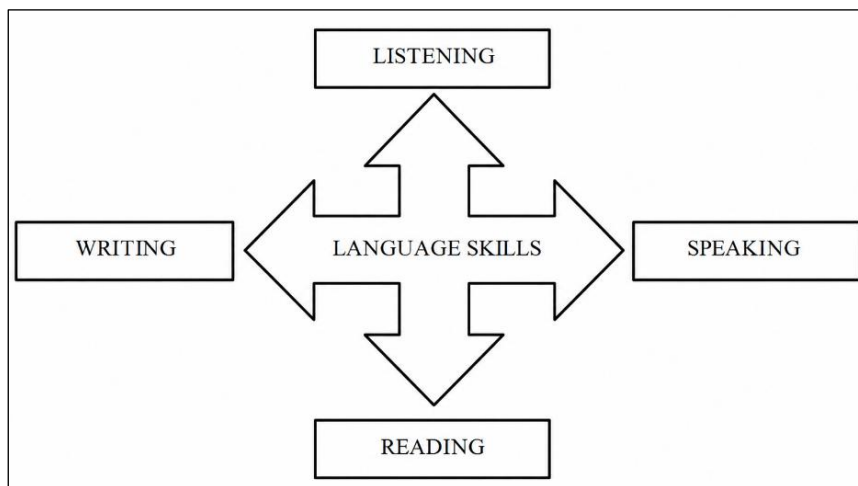


Figure 1: The four basic language skills (Husain, 2015)

As seen in Figure 1, language consists of four basic skills. These are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Although these skills are categorized in many ways, the most common classification is productive skills and receptive skills.

Speaking and writing are called productive skills because, while using these skills, the learner/user is not only active but also produces sounds when speaking and symbols (letters, etc.) when writing. On the other hand, listening and reading are regarded as receptive skills because the learner is generally passive and receives information either by listening or by reading. Figure 2 provides a better idea about these skills (Husain, 2016):

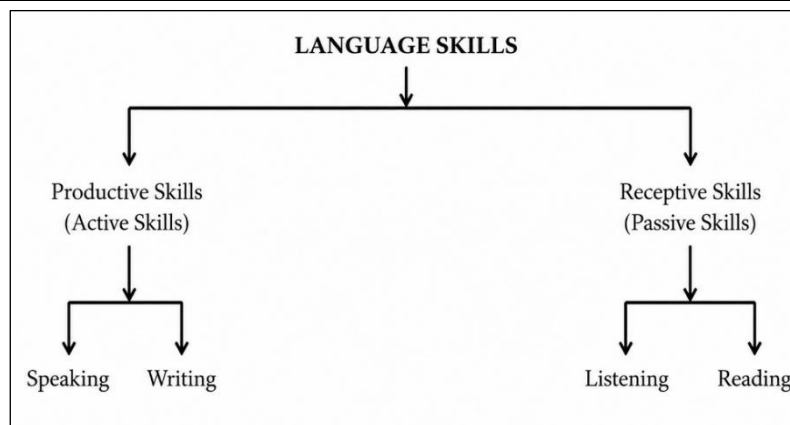


Figure 2: Classification of Language Skills (Husain, 2016)

2.2. Productive Language Skills

Based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), productive activities and the strategies directed toward these activities, which are evaluated within the scope of productive language skills, include speaking and writing skills.

There are two types of language skills for any language: receptive language skills and productive language skills. While receptive language skills include reading and listening, productive language skills include writing and speaking (Golkova & Hubackova, 2014). An individual's ability to communicate effectively and actively in any foreign language by speaking and writing is referred to as productive skills (Davies, 1976: 441). It is important to recognize that receptive language skills require students only to understand what they read or hear, not to produce something. This is the exact opposite of productive language skills; productive language skills require students both to understand a situation and to produce something appropriate to that situation (Golkova & Hubackova, 2014). When all these definitions are considered, it is seen that productive language skills do not consist solely of grammar in the target language; they also include meaning-making, communication, and written or oral production related to the subject. In this context, it can be stated that the most important observable indicators in a foreign language are found in productive language skills.

Students with effective productive skills can produce things. These are also known as active skills. Students need to produce language in order to communicate their ideas orally or in writing (Sreena & Ilankumaran, 2018). In other words, in receptive language skills, learners receive language passively and may later attempt to produce spoken language in dialogues; the same procedure may be applied to productive language skills, also called active language skills, but in this case learners are expected to expend more energy while producing something orally or in writing. Nevertheless, both categories of language skills are indispensable parts of teaching and learning processes (Golkova & Hubackova, 2014). All these skills are like parts of a system. Regardless of which part is missing, the healthy functioning of the language system cannot be conceived. From this

perspective, it is important to develop all four skills together, whether in mother-tongue acquisition or in the process of foreign-language learning.

When one begins learning a foreign language, one is inevitably and subconsciously exposed to both categories of language skills. As stated earlier, productive skills—also called active skills—refer to the transmission of information produced by a language user in oral or written form. Productive skills cannot exist without the support of receptive skills. Passive knowledge—such as listening and reading—serves as a springboard for the active application of the grammatical structures of a foreign language, passive vocabulary lists, and sounds that are heard and repeated. This theoretical background applies to any language being studied. It should also demonstrate that the two types of skills are inseparable and that one cannot exist without the other. When learning a foreign language, receptive skills generally come first and should then be followed by the practical application of productive skills. If one of these is missing from a learning process, the final outcome will not be complete (Golkova & Hubackova, 2014). Therefore, since these skills are not independent of one another, they should be addressed in an integrated manner in foreign-language education. This is because these skills do not have a linear relationship. On the contrary, they have a spiral relationship in which they nourish one another.

Because of the classifications, these skills may be assumed to be separate; however, they need to be addressed holistically. They support one another and should be treated reciprocally in the teaching process (Birsh & Carreker, 2018; Burns & Siegel, 2018). None of these skills is superior to another, and language learners' proficiency levels may vary depending on the skill; speaking skills may not always be a problem as expected. Therefore, a balance should be established in the teaching of language skills according to students' needs (Birsh & Carreker, 2018; Harmer, 2001; Watkins, 2017). Nevertheless, speaking and writing are two skills in which a more visible performance can be displayed (Burns & Siegel, 2018). For this reason, teachers need to be active in the classroom and observe students. Of course, language skills are too complex to be addressed from only one perspective; therefore, they should be planned and taught in ways that support one another (Birsh & Carreker, 2018; Patel & Jain, 2008).

However, today productive language skills are not viewed merely as a complement to receptive language skills; with CEFR (2020), they are reconsidered within the scope of the action-oriented approach. In CEFR (2020), the approach recommended for use in foreign-language teaching is the Action-Oriented Approach. This approach aims at language teaching in which the learner is more active and assumes various roles as a social agent. Students are expected to complete assigned tasks through interaction. Many countries in Europe have adopted this approach and shaped their foreign-language teaching plans according to its basic characteristics. The main purpose of this approach is to make collective/collaborative action possible in the target language. The approach demonstrates a transition and orientation from 'interpersonal action' to 'joint action' through the target language. Joint action, in turn, involves carrying out various

activities and tasks collaboratively rather than merely interacting in the target language (Günday & Atmaca, 2017).

From this approach, the main purpose of language learning is to enable learners to express themselves effectively and to perform tasks of different kinds in real life. Therefore, in assessing proficiency in the target language, not only criteria related to linguistic knowledge but also the learner's level of ability to carry out assigned real-life tasks and communicate are important (CEFR, 2020). The basic characteristics of the action-oriented approach regarding the learner, language use, task, and assessment can be summarized in Figure 3 as follows:

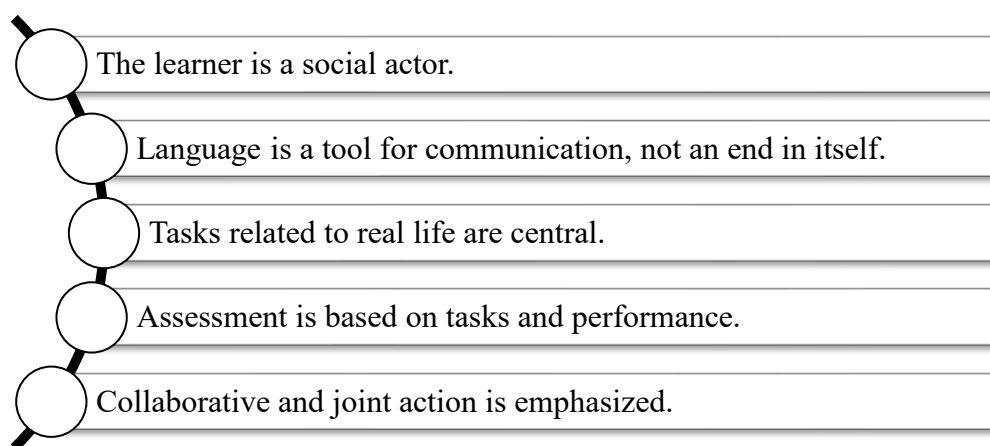


Figure 3: General Characteristics of the Action-Oriented Approach
(created by the researcher based on CEFR (2020))

The action-oriented approach also has reflections on the teaching and assessment processes of productive language skills. Speaking and writing skills cannot be limited to activities that measure only the correct use of the structures of the target language, because these skills require the individual to construct meaning through language, express themselves, and achieve a specific communicative goal. Instead, it is important for the student to use the language through real or realistic communicative tasks and for performance to be assessed within the context of these tasks.

Because productive skills require the individual to use the target language actively, they emerge as the most visible aspect of language proficiency. These skills are addressed in two parts, speaking and writing, and each has characteristics different from the other. Therefore, these skills need to be examined separately in terms of their own distinctive structures and functioning.

2.2.1. Speaking Skill

Speaking, one of the dimensions of productive language skills, enables a person to express emotions and thoughts by using the target language orally. Speaking skill, which stands out because it is observable when language proficiency is concerned, requires the learner to construct meaning in the language they wish to learn and to convey that

constructed meaning orally to another person. From this perspective, speaking has a highly complex structure involving not only grammatical structures but also communicative, interactional, and semantic dimensions.

In order to learn a language and gain proficiency, receptive skills—listening and reading—and productive skills—speaking and writing—must be used fluently and accurately. One of the greatest indicators of knowing a language is speaking and writing in that language. One of the most difficult aspects of foreign-language teaching is putting what has been learned into practice. However, this is not always easy for language learners. Indeed, the immediate nature of speaking, particularly its interactive aspect, makes this situation even more complex (Yorgancı, 2021).

In foreign-language teaching, speaking skill, one of the productive language activities, refers to an individual's ability to express emotions and thoughts orally in the target language. Speaking is the second skill that should be developed after listening in the mother-tongue acquisition process. However, it is regarded as a more difficult area to develop in the foreign-language learning process. For a language user to demonstrate speaking skills even at the most basic level, they need to know the phonetic and pronunciation features of the target language and possess at least a limited vocabulary and knowledge of language structures (Tanrikulu & Çiftçi, 2019). However, speaking skill cannot be assessed solely through these elements. Since speaking performances also have a communicative purpose, meaning-making, conveying meaning, and engaging in interaction must also be assessed.

Speaking is a type of productive language skill and an indispensable part of language because it enables people to communicate orally. In language education, this skill is one of the important skills that must be taught and learned. However, some problems concerning reliability may arise when speaking is assessed. Students' speaking skills are generally assessed in face-to-face interactions between an assessor and a speaker; moreover, assessment may simultaneously depend on speaking characteristics such as fluency and accuracy, the student's gender, and the assessor's language level and characteristics. In addition, specific tasks and questions posed to students during these interactions may also affect their performance (Ahmed & Alamin, 2014). Therefore, in the teaching and assessment of speaking skills, it is also important to create activities and tasks through which learners can improve themselves in a communicative context.

2.2.2. Writing Skills

Writing is another productive language skill. Students are expected to convey their messages or what they know about a subject in written form. Writing has gained popularity worldwide as a means of communication and is one of the most important components of a language because it makes communication possible even when oral communication is not possible. Therefore, teaching and learning this productive language skill is vital because it helps both students and teachers communicate worldwide (Arslan, 2022). Writing, one of the most effective methods for individuals to

convey their emotions and thoughts, is also one of the broadest forms of communication. Writing can be defined as the exchange of ideas through symbols. It is frequently used both in daily life and in educational settings. While many social media platforms (Twitter, Facebook, WordPress, e-mail) rely on written communication, writing is also used to record information in classroom settings or during distance education (Yorgancı, 2021).

The process of learning a foreign language begins alongside or after learning one's mother tongue. Individuals may be good writers in their own language, but writing in a foreign language is a different process. The basic, secondary, figurative, and metaphorical meanings and linguistic features of the language to which the individual has been exposed from birth naturally support writing skills in the mother tongue. The mental vocabulary acquired and learned in the mother tongue and the mental vocabulary of the foreign language learned as a second language create limitations, particularly in writing skills (Yorgancı, 2021). Writing is a way of adding variety to classroom processes. It provides the student with physical evidence of achievement, and progress can be noticed easily. It helps the learner grasp vocabulary and structure and complements other language skills. In the act of writing, the effort to express ideas and the continuous use of the eyes, hands, and brain involve a unique way of supporting learning and discovering new ways to express ideas. Every act of writing is regarded as an act of reading, and reading is also a kind of writing (Sreena & Ilankumaran, 2018).

Raines (1987: 36), in her explanation of the question 'Why do language teachers ask their students to write?', divides the purposes of writing instruction into six categories: reinforcement, training, imitation, communication, fluency, and writing for learning. In writing for reinforcement, students are asked to demonstrate their accuracy in using English sentences. Because it emphasizes accuracy more than fluency, this type of writing is criticized on the grounds that it inhibits idea generation. In writing for training, students are given sample texts longer than sentences and are asked to write according to the rhetorical patterns of the texts. Thus, similar to writing for reinforcement, which emphasizes the accuracy of grammatical structures, this type of writing also operates at the discourse level. In writing for imitation, students are asked to write according to linear and various text types produced by native speakers of English. Through this type of writing, students become familiar with typical English writing forms that may differ from those in their mother tongue.

In writing for communication, students are made aware of the purpose of writing and the audience they address. Therefore, in this type of writing, students write with the reader in mind and may also receive feedback from their teachers as readers of their written texts. In writing for fluency, writing is regarded as a tool for generating and exploring ideas. Students are given the freedom to develop their ideas and continue writing; because they are given time to revise their drafts, attention is not paid to grammatical accuracy. The final type, writing for learning, aims to encompass the other five purposes of writing instruction presented separately. Thus, through writing for learning, which supersedes the principles of the other five purposes, students may be

given various writing tasks consisting of any one of the five types or combinations of some of them (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006).

In summary, writing skill enables a person to express emotions, thoughts, and experiences by transforming them into a written product. This productive skill has linguistic, cognitive, and communicative dimensions. In foreign-language writing skills, what is expected of the individual is to use the target language well and transform this use into a written product for communication. Therefore, in developing writing skills, it will be beneficial to focus both on using the language functionally and on producing written products through the correct use of grammar.

When all dimensions of speaking and writing skills are considered together, it becomes clear that the assessment of productive language skills cannot be limited to grammar alone. Since these skills require both the display of a performance in their own right and the creation of a meaningful product by using the target language for a specific purpose, assessment processes must also be carried out by considering many dimensions.

3. Assessment of Productive Language Skills

Many course objectives concern successfully completing a task. The skills required to perform a task cannot be measured through tests. Moreover, measuring knowledge related to performance-oriented learning outcomes in education cannot be accepted as evidence of how a task will be performed, because there is not a high correlation between knowing the steps involved in a task and performing the task according to specified criteria. For example, having knowledge about child development does not guarantee that you will be a good parent when you have a child. Knowing and saying this is always easy, but applying it and putting it into practice is difficult. Therefore, when measuring performance, assessment tools appropriate to performance must be used. With these tools, the process of carrying out the task is observed, or the qualities of the product resulting from specific procedures are examined. Consequently, when educational objectives require the student to follow a particular sequence of procedures or to produce a product in a particular field by using a specific method or approach, performance measurement is absolutely necessary (Tekin, 1991). In this context, speaking and writing skills, defined as productive language skills, emerge as skills that require the demonstration of performance. Assessing this performance is possible not merely through outcome-oriented assessments but through detailed assessment tools that encompass both product and process.

Situations in which a student can demonstrate performance may involve a task covering many subdimensions. Examples include an oral presentation, composition, assignment, written report, laboratory work, group work, classroom behavior, and so forth. Depending on the type of work, different methods will be used to assess student performance by comparing the expected behaviors with the behaviors displayed at each stage of the task (Sezer, 2005).

According to Mertler (2000), the types of scoring tools used in performance assessments are as shown in Figure 4:

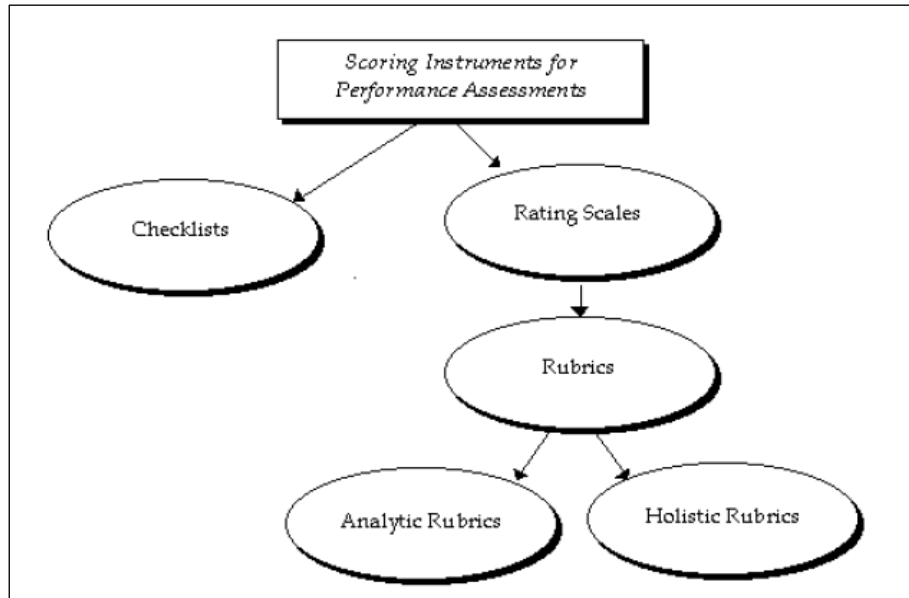


Figure 4: Scoring Tools Used in Performance Assessments (Mertler, 2000)

As seen in Figure 4, the tools most frequently used in performance assessment are checklists and rubrics. Checklists are an appropriate technique for determining how many of the elements that constitute performance related to any subject or skill are demonstrated by the student (Kan, 2009, 278). What is important in checklists is not to reveal the level of the performance to be observed, but to obtain information about its presence and outward manifestation (Tabak & Göçer, 2014). In other words, checklists provide general information about the presence or absence of the subdimensions of the observed performance. Rubrics, the other measurement tool, are used to determine the level of the subdimensions of performance.

A rubric (graded scoring key) is defined as a specified scoring design developed by a teacher or any assessor to analyze students' work or products (Kutlu, Doğan, & Karakaya, 2008). With the help of rubrics, teachers may feel both more consistent and more objective in the grades they assign. Although it is known that no tool can ensure 100% objectivity in the assessment of complex tasks such as oral examinations and projects, it can be stated that using rubrics makes it easier and more practical to ensure reliability in measurement and to communicate assessment criteria to students (Sezer, 2005). A rubric can be described as a consistent set of criteria for students' work. The main purpose of rubrics is to assess performance (Brookhart, 2013). Rubrics help students understand and motivate themselves. Informing students about assessment and grading criteria makes it easier for them to demonstrate the expected achievements (Sezer, 2005).

A review of the literature shows that there are two types of rubrics: holistic rubrics and analytic rubrics. A holistic rubric is a rubric that requires the teacher to assess the

process or product as a whole and assign a score without evaluating its component parts separately (Nitko, 2001).

Holistic rubrics may be used in the following situations:

- When teachers prepare a rubric for the performance to be assessed for the first time,
- When students' work needs to be assessed quickly (for example, daily assignments),
- When the performance intended to be measured with the rubric has low importance in the overall assessment (for example, end-of-unit work),
- When the dimensions of the performance intended to be measured are difficult to separate,
- When the students are in a young age group (Sezer, 2005).

Analytic rubrics are appropriate when there is a need to assess student work in detail and provide students with feedback about their performance. Analytic criteria make it possible to create a 'profile' of students' specific strengths and weaknesses. Before designing specific criteria to be used as an instructional aid, the teacher should decide whether the performance or product should be assessed holistically or analytically (Turgut & Kayaoğlu, 2015). Analytic scoring criteria describe the assessment for each criterion. In this respect, they are more useful than holistic scoring criteria because they explain the level of performance at each stage in detail, help students identify their strengths and weaknesses, and enable them to recognize deficiencies in areas where they demonstrate weak performance. Thus, the student becomes aware of the intended learning objectives and assessment criteria and gains information about the performance expected of them. In this context, analytic scoring assessment lists can also be used as a self-assessment form (Amanvermez İncirkuş & Beyreli, 2019).

Analytic rubrics may be used in the following situations:

- When there are many dimensions covering the performance intended to be measured,
- When it is easy to assign ratings to the dimensions of the performance,
- For performances with observable dimensions and levels,
- When sufficient time is available for assessing the performance (for example, projects or research studies) (Sezer, 2005).

In conclusion, analytic rubrics are detailed, whereas holistic rubrics are general. While assessment with analytic rubrics takes considerable time, holistic rubrics save time. Compared with holistic rubrics, analytic rubrics are more difficult to develop and score. When the characteristics of analytic rubrics are considered, they are seen to be more reliable and valid than holistic rubrics (Tabak & Göçer, 2014).

In conclusion, considering the multidimensional structure of productive language skills, analytic rubrics can be regarded as a functional tool for assessing speaking and writing skills. This is because many dimensions such as grammar, vocabulary, content, expression, fluency, pronunciation, and spelling are assessed within the same

performance in these skills. Therefore, assessing these performances in detail rather than superficially is important for obtaining accurate results. Analytic rubrics make it possible to assess all dimensions of productive language skills under separate criteria and at different performance levels. In this way, the learner's strengths and areas requiring improvement are revealed in detail. Examples of analytic rubrics are provided below:

Table 1: Analytical Rubric (Şahin, 2024)

	3	2	1	0
Ideas and Content	The paper tells an interesting story with lots of relevant details. It stays on topic.	The paper tells a story but without much detail. Stays on topic.	There is a very general story but the writing strays off topic or doesn't give enough detail.	The story is unclear. It may be repetitious or disconnected thoughts with no main point.
Organization	The story has a beginning with an interesting lead, a middle, and an ending. It is in an order that makes sense.	The story has a beginning, middle and end. The order makes sense.	The story has an attempt at a beginning &/or ending. Some ideas seem out of order.	There is no real beginning or ending. Ideas seem loosely strung together.
Voice	The writing shows what the writer thinks and feels. It sounds like the writer cares about the topic.	The writer seems sincere but not enthusiastic. The writer's voice fades in and out	The story could have been written by anyone. It shows very little about what the writer thought and felt.	The writing is bland and sounds like the writer doesn't like the topic. No thoughts or feelings.
Word Choice	Descriptive words are used ("comical" instead of "funny" or "miserable" instead of "sad").	The words are mostly ordinary, with a few attempts at descriptive words.	The words are ordinary but generally correct.	The same words are used over and over. Some words are used incorrectly.
Sentence Fluency	The sentences are complete, clear, and begin in different ways.	The sentences are usually correct.	There are many incomplete sentences and run-ons.	The story is hard to read because of incomplete and run-on sentences.
Convention	Spelling, punctuation, capitalization, grammar and paragraphs are correct. Only minor edits are needed.	Spelling, punctuation and caps are usually correct. Some problems with grammar and paragraphs	There are enough errors to make the writing hard to read and understand.	There are so many errors that the writing is almost impossible to read.

Table 2: Analytical Rubric for Writing Proficiency (Yörüdü, 2021)

Content 4. Meets Expectations: Essay addresses the assigned topic; ideas are concrete and thoroughly developed with supporting evidence provided; counterargument with a sound refutation; no extraneous material; essay reflects carefully planned thought 3. Approaches Expectations: Essay addresses the assigned topic but misses some points; ideas could be more fully developed as some evidence may be lacking; counterargument with an acceptable refutation; some extraneous material is present 2. Needs Development: Development of ideas not complete or essay is somewhat off the topic; the main ideas may not be fully supported by the evidence given; counterargument with weak or no refutation 1. Inadequate: Ideas incomplete due to lack of supporting data; essay does not reflect careful thinking or was hurriedly written; inadequate effort in area of content
Organization 4. Meets Expectations: An informative title that covers the topic; effective introductory paragraph, topic is stated in a clear thesis statement, leads to body with three full paragraphs; appropriate transitional expressions used; conclusion logical & complete 3. Approaches Expectations: Adequate title, introduction & conclusion; body of essay is acceptable with three paragraphs that may not be fully developed; sequence is logical but few transitional expressions may be absent, misused, or overused 2. Needs Development: Mediocre or scant introduction, body, or conclusion; paragraphs aren't divided exactly right; problems with the order of ideas in body; problems of organization interfere 1. Inadequate: Shaky or minimally recognizable introduction; organization can barely be seen; severe problems of ordering ideas
Grammar 4. Meets Expectations: Proficient in English grammar with almost no grammar errors; all/majority of simple, compound, and complex sentences are correct and appropriate; mostly accurate and appropriate use of prepositions, modals, articles, verb forms, and tense sequencing; no fragments or run-on sentences 3. Approaches Expectations: Rather proficient in English grammar; few grammar problems which don't distort meaning; almost no fragments or run-on sentences 2. Needs Development: Somewhat proficient in English grammar; grammar problems distort meaning; fragments or run-on sentences present 1. Inadequate: Limited proficiency in English grammar; grammar problems hinder meaning; difficult to understand sentences
Vocabulary 4. Meets Expectations: All/majority of vocabulary use is appropriate, accurate, and varied 3. Approaches Expectations: Appropriate and accurate use of vocabulary with few errors; attempts variety 2. Needs Development: Some vocabulary misused; repetitive use of vocabulary with little variety 1. Inadequate: Serious problems of vocabulary; lacks variety
Mechanics 4. Meets Expectations: Correct use of English writing conventions; all needed capitals, paragraphs indented, almost no punctuation and spelling errors; very neat

3. Approaches Expectations: Some problems with writing conventions or punctuation; occasional spelling errors; paper is neat
2. Needs Development: Uses general writing conventions but has errors; spelling problems distract reader; punctuation errors interfere with ideas
1. Inadequate: Complete disregard of English writing conventions; severe spelling problems; errors in sentence-final punctuation; obvious capitals missing

4. Discussion and Conclusions

The literature synthesized in this study shows that productive language skills should not be considered merely as simple grammatical knowledge, but rather as consisting of complex performances. Speaking and writing, known as productive language skills, are among the most important skills that students demonstrate themselves. And, as the name suggests, they require the creation of a product. Therefore, the assessment of these skills should not be done with superficial tools, but with comprehensive tools that encompass many dimensions.

The action-oriented perspective within the CEFR also supports this. In this perspective, students are social actors, and language proficiency is demonstrated through action. The main question here is not whether a student possesses grammatical knowledge; it is also whether they use the available resources correctly to complete a given task, construct meaningful structures, interact with others, or produce understandable products. Therefore, assessment should be consistent with meaningful performance tasks and descriptors that represent the structure being assessed.

Analytical rubrics make this multi-dimensional perspective functional. An analytical rubric prepared for speaking skills can distinguish vocabulary, grammatical structures, coherence, fluency, pronunciation, and interaction. A rubric designed for writing skills can also distinguish content structure, organization, lexical and grammatical expression, and presentation. Such details are valuable from an instructional perspective because they provide students with feedback on specific strengths and areas for improvement, rather than just an overall score. However, assessments conducted with analytical rubrics are not automatically valid or reliable. The quality of the assessment depends on many factors: whether the defined criteria are appropriate, whether the descriptors are clear, whether the performance levels are distinguishable, whether the evaluators share a common interpretation of the scale, and whether the tasks reveal the intended structure. Therefore, analytical rubrics should be developed appropriately in relation to student competence, purpose, curriculum outcomes, and validity and consistency of scoring.

Creative Commons License Statement

This research work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License. To view a copy of this license, visit <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0>. To view the complete legal code, visit

<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/legalcode.en>. Under the terms of this license, members of the community may copy, distribute, and transmit the article, provided that proper, prominent, and unambiguous attribution is given to the authors, and the material is not used for commercial purposes or modified in any way. Reuse is only allowed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare no conflicts of interest

About the Author(s)

Rabia Çetintaş is pursuing her doctoral studies at Gazi University, Institute of Educational Sciences, Department of Educational Programs and Teaching. She completed her master's degree at Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam University. She currently works as a German teacher within the Ministry of National Education. Her research and study areas include educational programs, language skills, productive language skills, and foreign language anxiety.

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3836-5403>

Gülay Ekici works as a Professor in the Department of Educational Sciences at Balıkesir University. Her research focuses on measurement and evaluation in education, educational programs, curriculum development, educational psychology, teacher training, and learning and teaching approaches. She has published in numerous national and international peer-reviewed journals. She has also advised on many scientific studies and research projects in the field of educational sciences.

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2418-1929>

References

- Adalı, O. (1983). *Ana dili olarak Türkçe öğretimi üstüne*. Türk Dili Dil ve Edebiyat Dergisi, 379, 31–35.
- Ahmed, S., & Alamin, A. (2014). Assessing speaking ability in academic context for fourth-year Taif University students. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 4(6), 97. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v4n6p97>
- Amanvermez İncirkuş, F., & Beyreli, L. (2019). Öyküleyici metinler aracılığıyla eleştirel düşünme becerilerini değerlendirmeye yönelik bir rubrik. *Ana Dili Eğitimi Dergisi*, 7(3), 597–629. <https://doi.org/10.16916/aded.553569>
- Arslan, S. (2022). *Depicting EFL instructors' language assessment literacy in assessing productive language skills and their perceptions and practices on formative assessment of productive language skills* [Master's thesis, Başkent University]. Retrieved from <https://acikerisim.baskent.edu.tr/items/2d881912-dccd-4c4a-b157-4ec678d3347a>

- Birsh, J. R., & Carreker, S. (2018). Multisensory teaching of basic language skills (4th ed.). Paul H. Brookes. Retrieved from [https://books.google.ro/books/about/Multisensory Teaching of Basic Language_.html?id=u9-QuAAACAAJ&redir_esc=y](https://books.google.ro/books/about/Multisensory_Teaching_of_Basic_Language_.html?id=u9-QuAAACAAJ&redir_esc=y)
- Brookhart, S. M. (2013). *How to create and use rubrics for formative assessment and grading*. ASCD. Retrieved from https://books.google.com.tr/books?hl=tr&lr=&id=v_9QBAAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PP1&dq=How+to+create+and+use+rubrics+for+formative+assessment+and+grading.&ots=xAceihA0tw&sig=amlmEBJy7FcK-chdVAOi0R4dW94&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false
- Burns, A., & Siegel, J. (2018). *International perspectives on teaching the four skills in ELT: Listening, speaking, reading, writing*. Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-63444-9>
- CEFR. (2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume*. Council of Europe Publishing. Retrieved from <https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learning-teaching/16809ea0d4>
- Çağlar, B. (2026). *Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenler için çok dillileştirilmiş temel seviye sözlük modeli önerisi* [Master's thesis, Yıldız Technical University].
- Davies, N. F. (1976). Receptive versus productive skills in foreign language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 60(8), 440–443. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1976.tb03667.x>
- Golkova, D., & Hubackova, S. (2014). Productive skills in second language learning. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 143, 477–481. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.07.520>
- Göçer, A. (2009). Türkiye’de Türkçeyi yabancı dil olarak öğreten öğretmenlerin uygulamalarına yönelik nitel bir araştırma. *Dil Dergisi*, 145, 28–47. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/780190>
- Günday, R., & Atmaca, H. (2017). Öğrenme stratejileri ve eylem odaklı yaklaşım. In 1st International Black Sea Conference on Language and Language Education (pp. 438–448). Ondokuz Mayıs University. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Rifat-Guenday/publication/333319624_OGRENME_STRATEJILERI_VE_EYLEM_ODAKLI_YAKLASIM/links/5ce69692299bf14d95b2bcd1/OeGRENME-STRATEJILERI-VE-EYLEM-ODAKLI-YAKLASIM.pdf
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching* (3rd ed.). Longman. Retrieved from [https://books.google.ro/books/about/The Practice of English Language Teaching.html?hl=es&id=178lAQAAIAAJ&redir_esc=y](https://books.google.ro/books/about/The_Practice_of_English_Language_Teaching.html?hl=es&id=178lAQAAIAAJ&redir_esc=y)
- Husain, N. (2015). Language and language skills. Maulana Azad National Urdu University, 1, 1–11. Retrieved from

- https://www.researchgate.net/publication/274310952_Language_and_Language_Skills
- Kan, A. (2009). Ödev ve projeler. In H. Atılğan (Ed.), *Eğitimde ölçme ve değerlendirme* (4th ed., pp. 269–292). Anı.
- Kutlu, Ö., Doğan, C. D., & Karakaya, İ. (2008). Öğrenci başarısının belirlenmesi: Performans ve portfolyoya dayalı durum belirleme. Pegem.
- Mertler, C. A. (2000). Mertler, C. A. (2000). Designing scoring rubrics for your classroom. *Practical assessment, research, and evaluation*, 7(1), 25. doi: <https://doi.org/10.7275/gcy8-0w24>
- Nitko, A. J. (2001). *Educational assessment of students* (3rd ed.). Merrill. Retrieved from https://books.google.ro/books/about/Educational_Assessment_of_Students.html?id=8dy-QgAACAAJ&redir_esc=y
- Özkan, M. (2015). Edebiyatta dil kullanımı. *Journal of Turkish Language and Literature*, 52(52), 65–77. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/158417>
- Patel, M. F., & Jain, P. M. (2008). *English language teaching*. Sunrise Publishers & Distributors. <https://search.worldcat.org/title/English-language-teaching-:-methods-tools-and-techniques/oclc/656364220>
- Raimes, A. (1983). *Techniques in teaching writing*. Oxford University Press. Retrieved from https://books.google.ro/books/about/Techniques_in_Teaching_Writing.html?id=n1J5AAAAIAAJ&redir_esc=y
- Raimes, A. (1987). Why write? From purpose to pedagogy. *English Teaching Forum*, 25(4), 36–41.
- Sezer, S. (2005). Öğrencinin akademik başarısının belirlenmesinde tamamlayıcı değerlendirme aracı olarak rubrik kullanımı üzerine bir araştırma. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 18, 61–69. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/pauefd/article/133050>
- Sreena, S., & Ilankumaran, M. (2018). Developing productive skills through receptive skills: A cognitive approach. *International Journal of Engineering & Technology*, 7(4.36), 669–673. <https://doi.org/10.14419/ijet.v7i4.36.24220>
- Şahin, M. (2024). *Putting rubrics to test: The effects of rubric-referenced self-assessment on middle school students' writing skills*. Master's thesis, Ordu University.
- Tabak, G., & Göçer, A. (2014). Dinleme becerisine yönelik alternatif ölçme ve değerlendirme araçları. *Bartın University Journal of Faculty of Education*, 3(2), 250–272. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/43643>
- Tanrıkulu, L., & Çiftçi, H. (2019). The analysis of productive skills in foreign language teaching methods. *International Journal of Language Academy*, 7(4), 232–245. <http://dx.doi.org/10.18033/ijla>
- Taşköprü, G. (2024). *Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğretiminde konuşmanın değerlendirilmesi için puanlama anahtarı önerisi: A1–A2 düzeyi*. Doctoral dissertation, Hacettepe University.

- Tekin, H. (1991). *Eğitimde ölçme ve değerlendirme*. Yargı Kitap ve Yayınevi.
- Trask, R. L. (2003). *Language: The basics*. Routledge. Retrieved from https://books.google.ro/books/about/Language.html?id=0oQJPHjCSAC&redir_esc=y
- Turgut, F., & Kayaoğlu, M. N. (2015). Using rubrics as an instructional tool in EFL writing courses. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 11(1), 47–58. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/440741>
- Watkins, P. (2017). *Teaching and developing reading skills*. Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from https://books.google.ro/books/about/Teaching_and_Developing_Reading_Skills_G.html?id=w0xaDwAAQBAJ&redir_esc=y
- Widiati, U., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2006). The teaching of EFL writing in the Indonesian context: The state of the art. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan*, 13(3), 139–150. <https://doi.org/10.17977/um048v13i32006p139-150>
- Yanpar Yelken, T. (2010). Oluşturmacı ölçme ve değerlendirme yaklaşımları. In M. Safran (Ed.), *Tarih nasıl öğretilir? Tarih öğretmenleri için özel öğretim yöntemleri* (pp. 358–364). Yeni İnsan Yayınevi.
- Yorgancı, O. K. (2021). *Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğretiminde podcast (sesli yayın) kullanımının üretici dil becerilerine etkisi*. Doctoral dissertation, Yıldız Technical University.
- Yörüdü, A. E. (2021). *An alternative multi-trait rubric for the performance-based assessment of EFL writing proficiency at Bursa Uludağ University, School of Foreign Languages*. Doctoral dissertation, Anadolu University. Retrieved from <https://www.proquest.com/openview/9649f97e5f816ab618f09646bfd63dfe/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=2026366&diss=y>