

Looking Where the Light is Bad



Video Games and the Future of Assessment



JAMES PAUL GEE AND
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THERE'S AN OLD JOKE: A man parks his car on a dark street and drops his keys while trying to lock the door. So he goes into a bar nearby to try to find them. It's so dark on the street, he thinks, that he's better off looking in the bar where the light is good.

It's a funny joke ... or so we thought until we realized that all of us who study video games and learning have been in a bar for the last decade, looking for our keys.

Beside the Point

We've argued before that video games are good for learning (Gee, 2003, 2007; Shaffer, 2007), and by "video games" we mean any game played on a computer or game system, online, handheld, or otherwise. Video games are good for learning because games can create virtual worlds where players solve simulations of real-world problems and in the process learn real-world skills, knowledge, and values. Video games are good for learning because parents and teachers can use commercial games to stimulate discussions of important social, intellectual,

and academic subjects. But most of all, places where people learn—whether in schools, corporate training centers, summer camps, or living rooms—should, we argue, become more game-like.

Why should schools and other learning sites use the learning principles that are embedded in good video games? Well, good games focus on problem solving. They provide a good mix of practice and guidance. They use language and introduce complex concepts when they are needed—and thus when those tools can best be used and understood. There is a lot of time on task, but players are motivated to spend that time because games provide a

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sequence of challenges that gradually increase in difficulty, so players are constantly working at the cutting (and most exciting) edge of their abilities, producing what psychologists and game designers refer to as a “flow state” of high excitement and focus (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Gee, 2007). These are all things that any good learning environment should have, and commercial games have to use them because if players couldn’t learn to play commercial games—and eventually master them—no one would buy them (Gee, 2003, 2007).

These good principles for learning are even more important in the 21st century, where students need to learn to work with others and with digital tools to produce and not just to consume knowledge. They need 21st century skills like innovation, critical thinking, and systems thinking.

In other words, kids today need to learn precisely the kinds of things that video games are good at teaching. Digital technologies—including games—are letting young people produce products and knowledge and to participate in learning communities as never before. Through the Internet, young people are becoming amateurs with professional-level skills in areas like digital storytelling, fan fiction, graphic arts, machinima, game design, digital photography, robotics, and almost any other passion you can name (Leadbeater & Miller, 2004).

People in the commercial and educational world have spent years now figuring out how to use new technologies to create tools for 21st century learning. And yet, sadly, a decade into this new century, almost all of that work has been beside the point when it comes to school. Computers have changed learning. More and more, they are being used by privileged families to accelerate their children’s skills in literacy, history, civics, math, science, and technology. But the same changes haven’t happened in schools.

So what stands in the way? Why can’t we enter the 21st century in our classrooms?

The Answer is the Test

The answer is simple: assessment.

Our standardized tests, coupled with our accountability policies, force teachers to teach to out-of-

date tests. The curriculum is based on reading from textbooks and listening to teachers talking, on drill and practice. This leaves too little time for doing, for exploring, and for developing deep understanding of complex topics and issues. Classes focus on facts and formulas that learners need to pass standardized tests, but years of research shows that when people learn that way, they have a very hard time applying what they “know” to solve real problems (Gardner, 1991; Gee, 2004).

The difficulty is that in our schools right now, learning and assessment are quite separate things. A teacher teaches for weeks and months, but the judgment of how well student and teacher have done is made on one day, on a test that knows nothing about the development of the learner. It is an assessment that drops in from the proverbial sky and captures one small snapshot in time of what a student can do. Based on that small slice of time, students, teachers, schools, and neighborhoods are graded. Decisions are made that affect funding, careers, and futures.

Testing, in other words, is the tail that wags the dog of learning. If we are going to succeed in introducing the new ways of learning that computers make possible, first we have to radically transform assessment. Only when teachers, parents, educators, and policy makers look at testing and assessment in new ways will they look at learning in new ways. It is only when we redesign the tests that we will be able to start learning in a new way.

In other words, we’ve been looking in the wrong place because we’ve been *designing games for learning* when we should have been designing *games for testing*.

The Wheel

The idea of designing games for testing is less radical—far less radical, in fact—than it sounds. To see why, let’s think, for a moment, about what any GA²¹ (Good Assessment for the 21st century) might look like. Based on work done by the MacArthur Foundation in its 21st Century Learning and Assessment Project, we argue that three fundamental properties of assessment need to change in the 21st



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century: *what* is assessed, *how* the assessment takes place, and the *purpose* of assessment in the first place.

In other words, nearly everything.

What We Assess

The single biggest problem with standardized tests today is that they are built around facts and information in and for themselves, rather than around problem solving. When students master facts and information in isolation they often can write them down on a test, but they cannot reliably use them in the real world (Chi, Feltovich, & Glaser, 1981; Gardner, 1991; Gee, 2007). Any GA²¹ would have to be built around central problems in an academic domain (like algebra, civics, or biology) or a real-world profession (like medicine, engineering, or law)—any place where central concepts in 21st century thinking are put to work in solving complex, real-world problems.

In assessing students' problem solving skills, a GA²¹ would also have to assess 21st century skills. There are now lists of such skills (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2004), often including things like innovation, collaboration, civic engagement, critical thinking, systems thinking, technical skills, ability to produce with digital media, and so on. It seems to us that any GA²¹ would at a minimum assess collaboration, innovation, production, and design.

Moreover, a GA²¹ would not just tell us what students know and can do *now*. Knowledge and skills change and transform themselves quickly in the modern world. We need to know also how instruction has helped students be ready to learn more *later on*: that is, how well prepared students are to learn more in the same or a related area in the future. A GA²¹ needs to include resources that let students learn during the test, so we can assess what Bransford and Schwartz (1999) and others have described as *preparation for future learning*. Recent work has shown that choices students make while problem solving can tell us a great deal about their ability to learn new material later on, and this makes sense: Certain choices in a domain show that someone understands problem solving at a basic level well enough to succeed at higher levels (Schwartz & Arena, 2009). So a GA²¹ would assess whether learners can make good choices and understand the

consequences of their choices.

In other words, a GA²¹ would test whether students make the kind of choices that experts do in a domain as they work with other people to solve complex problems of innovation, production, and design.

How We Assess

In order to test whether students are making good decisions while problem solving, a GA²¹ will have to track multiple variables. Learning in any domain is a complex phenomenon. For example, successful reading for content (say, in social studies) requires skills in decoding text, domain vocabulary, interpretive skills, and so on. These different abilities have to work together in sophisticated ways. Learners with a problem in reading do not all have the same problem, and often the problem is an interaction between two or more different issues. So a GA²¹ has to be able to track how a student's decisions and actions are related to his or her overall development—and thus it needs to clearly explain its theory of how the domain being learned works and how learning and instruction works best.

Since decisions and actions unfold over time, a GA²¹ would also have to be developmental: It would provide information relevant to students' learning and growth at different points. But you can't track how a student's decisions and actions are related to his or her overall development based on one-off measurement events, like our current tests. Instead, we need measurements that show what students can do over time and tell us about the course of their development and how it can be improved. Any GA²¹ should tell us about the different paths that students can take to mastering a domain and also tell us where any student is on one of those paths.

In order to do this, a GA²¹ needs to integrate assessment with learning. Digital media makes it possible to collect huge volumes of information and to organize that information in real time. In a world where we can collect copious information and visualize it in different ways, the distinction between formative and summative assessments begins to disappear. We will be using much the same information to help learners and to judge the success of



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programs, processes, and practices for learning. To accomplish this, a GA²¹ should be part of the learning space. That is, students shouldn't have to "step outside" for separate assessment events. When diagnostic learning tasks continually assess the development of learners, we get a portrait of problem solving decisions in real time. We can provide feedback to customize learning, and we can probe the strengths and weaknesses of students' thinking.

Why We Assess

All of which points to what is perhaps the most significant point: We need to rethink why we assess students in the first place. In the world that the No Child Left Behind testing regime has created, assessment is largely about punishing teachers. But continuous assessments of multiple data sources about complex problem solving and 21st century skills would be more about giving teachers, parents, students, and other stakeholders useful and actionable information. Any GA²¹ should yield information—and organize that information—in ways that help teachers, parents, students, administrators, or policy makers to take appropriate actions to improve instruction and learning.

Most important in that regard, any GA²¹ has to deal with one of the deepest problems with our current assessments: They are designed to act as gatekeepers. They treat all learners as if they have had the same opportunity to learn—the same experiences relevant to learning—and judge them all alike. They are oriented to the "status" of each learner in the sense that we assess whether each learner has reached a "gate" labeled something like "proficient." We do not measure growth, only whether a student has passed through the gate, no matter how small or long a trip this was for the child. And we hold teachers accountable in such terms, regardless of the progress their students have made, making judgments only about how many of their students have passed through the gate.

This is patently absurd. On a reading test, for example, some children have experienced the content of the passages on the test in other books they have read, media they have watched, or on trips to the zoo or other educational locations. So they can answer some of the questions on the test—whether a tiger is

larger than an elephant, for example—based on background knowledge, while other children cannot. Some children have heard parents use school-based vocabulary many times—Latinate words like “process” and “establish” for instance—while others have not. A GA²¹ would have to take into account the fact that these children have not had the same experiences and provide the missing resources before or during the assessment. After all, what we care about is less whether children have passed point X in their development than what they are capable of doing next. We care about what they are capable of doing in a world where they have to solve complex problems with collaborators and technologies, not whether they remember the relative sizes of two species of mammals.

As a brief thought experiment, imagine two students. One comes from a very wealthy family that has provided many learning experiences outside of school. This student starts the school year working at the eleventh-grade level and finishes at the twelfth-grade level. A second student comes from a family that cannot (or does not) provide many enrichment experiences. She starts the school year working at the seventh-grade level and finishes at the eleventh-grade level. The first child is a year ahead of the second in terms of her performance, but with the appropriate resources, the second child made up four grade levels. Which of these students would you want to hire? The choice seems obvious if what we care about is how well students take advantage of opportunities and use resources, rather than simply measuring what resources were already made available to them.

What We Need

In other words, a decade into this new century, we need to break the mold in our schools and introduce a new paradigm for teaching and learning that is focused on real world problem solving and 21st century skills like innovation, critical thinking, and systems thinking. More and more people in the United States and other developed countries fear that low cost centers like China and India will out-compete us in the global economy (Friedman, 2007). They fear that if our school system continues

to focus on skill-and-drill and teaching to standardized tests, it will erase the lead the United States once had in innovation and creativity—and that as a result, there won’t be any work left that students can do when they graduate.

To break out of the old paradigm of teaching to standardized tests of basic facts and skills, we need new assessments that:

- 1. Change what we test** by focusing on complex problem solving, 21st century skills like collaboration, innovation, production, and design, and evaluating students’ preparation for future learning;
- 2. Change how the assessment takes place** by tracking many different kinds of information about a student over time, and integrate assessment with learning; and
- 3. Change the purpose of assessment** from sorting students and punishing “underperforming” teachers and schools to providing students, administrators, parents, and teachers with feedback they can use to make decisions that support good learning and that account for the fact that different students have had different opportunities to learn, inside school and out.

Now, that makes for a very different view of assessment than we currently have. But here’s the good news: To get an assessment system for the 21st century, we **don’t** have to reinvent the wheel.

Oh Brave New (Virtual) World!

We don’t have to reinvent the wheel because games are already an exemplary platform for assessment. They have much to teach us about 21st century assessment, and they can lead us to design transformative assessments and a transformative assessment system. This assessment system has the potential, in turn, to both usher in and demand a new paradigm for teaching and learning.

Too often today designers of learning in and out of school first think about how the learning ought to work—that is, what the curriculum and pedagogy will be—and then worry about how to assess the learning. To be clear, we include ourselves (or at least our past selves!) in that group.



Games assess whether a player is ready for future challenges.

But games take just the opposite approach. They worry first about how to test and challenge a player in an effective way. The learning design then follows from the assessment.

Consider, for example, some of the key properties of games and how they create the conditions of a GA²¹:

1. Games are built around problem solving, and on the choices and actions players take to solve problems. So players have to use facts, information, and other representations (like graphs, diagrams, maps, and models) in the context of making consequential decisions.

2. Games inherently require and assess a set of 21st century skills. Modern video games require players to solve problems collaboratively with other people. In a game like *World of Warcraft*, a team of five players constitutes what modern workplaces call a cross-functional team, composed of people with deep and special expertise in different areas who can understand and integrate with each of the other team members' specialties. Games place a premium on a player's ability to create, innovate, and produce. Players are pushed to find their own solutions to challenging boss levels and often share these solutions with other players on fan forums. (Boss battles at the end of a level in a game are often used to assess whether the player has mastered the skills of the level just finished and whether he or she is prepared for learning the more demanding challenge of the next level.) Many games today come with the software by which the game was made, so players can modify (mod) the game, designing their own levels and scenarios, becoming designers as well as players. Finally, players have to figure out and model the rule system of a game in order to use it. In a game like *Civilization*, the player must map out a complex set of relationships among variables within a civilization and across civilizations. In turn, the player must use this model-based reasoning and systems thinking to his or her advantage in the game.

3. Games assess whether a player is ready for future challenges. Boss levels do not just assess what a player knows and can do—that is, they

don't just measure a player's mastery of the previous level. They also are designed to see if players are prepared for the greater challenges ahead. Good boss levels test whether the player is ready and prepared to learn, and learn well, on the next level.

4. Games collect information about players on many dimensions. They track multiple variables and relate them back to players in clear and actionable ways. In a game like *Civilization*, the game keeps track of how players deal with problems across time: issues in the economy, industry, technology, military, environment, religion, diplomacy, and governance of a civilization. The game tracks how the player's decisions and actions in all these spheres are related to his or her overall development and success.

5. Games track information across time. Games are designed in terms of levels. Each level demands that players have mastered the skills on an earlier level and demands that they learn new skills on the new level. That is, levels are deliberately designed to model the development of the player as the game proceeds.

6. Games integrate learning and assessment. In a game, learning and assessment are, in many ways, inseparable, and it is often hard to tell where one ends and the other begins. Every action a player takes and every choice a player makes has consequences. The player is given feedback about what worked and what did not. The player's actions and choices across a game as a whole are tracked and the player is informed in various ways as to how he or she is progressing. Results are always apparent. But such information does not only help, mentor, and develop learners. All the information the game does or could track and give back to the player as helpful feedback is also just the sort of information that could give us a deeply nuanced evaluation of the player and his or her learning.

7. Games provide information that players can use to get better at the game. The information a game gives a player, level by level—or when the player gets graphs and diagrams in a real-time-

strategy game like *Rise of Nations*—is not used primarily to sort the player against other players; rather, the information is meant to be acted on, and so it is presented in ways that make it actionable. It is the sort of information that allows players—and would allow people who wanted to mentor them—to make decisions about what to do next to get better, have more success, and develop. When a player finishes a level of an action game like *Darksiders*, the player knows whether he or she should repeat the level to get better, practice certain skills with more care in the next level, or try a new approach to the game. When a player gets feedback from a real-time strategy game like *Age of Empires*, he or she knows what went well and what went poorly in the last session of play and has ideas about specific things to try next.

8. Games have to be equitable. To market a game successfully, game designers need to make games so that poor people and rich people, minorities and non-minorities, and players with little experience and players with lots of experience can play them. After all, the game industry is a business, and it cannot afford to cater only to the best players (although it cannot afford to lose them either). Games have traditionally not done a very good job at inviting girls and women in, but this is quickly being remedied. The majority of players of the bestselling game of all time, *The Sims*, are girls and women. The game industry is well aware that how much experience a player has already had with games or games of a certain type will predict a good deal about how well that player plays a new game of the same type. So games take this into consideration and offer different resources and different rewards for different sorts of players. Games provide resources differently for players with less experience than they do for more experienced players. They offer tutorials, advice and hints, lower difficulty levels, the ability to replay levels, and so on. Sometimes they adjust the difficulty of the game on the fly, making it easier or harder based on how well the player is doing moment by moment.

Deep down, in other words, games do not just “have good assessments built into them.” No, deep



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down, games are nothing but good assessment. The player is always being tested, given feedback, and challenged to get better. Good game design starts with this question: How will the player be tested? The design follows from that: How can we help the player pass the test? How will we know if the player has passed the test? If the player can pass one test, what's the next test he or she should be able to pass on the way to mastery? How do we know the test is fair? These questions lead games to incorporate good learning designs precisely because they have first incorporated good assessment designs.

Good games achieve good learning because they do not set out, first and foremost, to teach. They set out to assess, and their approach to assessment leads to good teaching and learning.

Take One: Build Them Like the Pros

The fact that games are based, fundamentally, on the kind of assessments we need to use to promote 21st century learning has three immediate—and very dramatic—consequences for games and for learning.

The first, and perhaps most evident, is that designers of 21st century assessments can learn a lot from games. Too much of the work currently being done on digital tools for assessment takes the same old standardized tests as a model: finding ways to make them cheaper, to use question banks more effectively, to make them more time-efficient by skipping questions a student is likely to get right, to make it harder to cheat, and so on.

Games offer a radically different example for assessment designers to build from, a kind of working model of what a 21st century test can look like. Designers can look for guidance to see how games offer hints or provide just-in-time resources to struggling students. They can look at how feedback is presented in games to help students and teachers use assessment as a constructive tool—that is, how to present feedback that can actually help students learn from the test. They can look at how games capture and use multiple sources of data over long periods of time to get information about a student's work. And perhaps most of all, they can look at games to see an example of how to present students with complex problems that require collaboration,

systems thinking, and creativity to solve.

In other words, games can provide educators with an example of assessments that are standardized—in the sense that every player who opens a box or logs onto a game’s website gets the same game—but are about more than basic facts and basic skills.

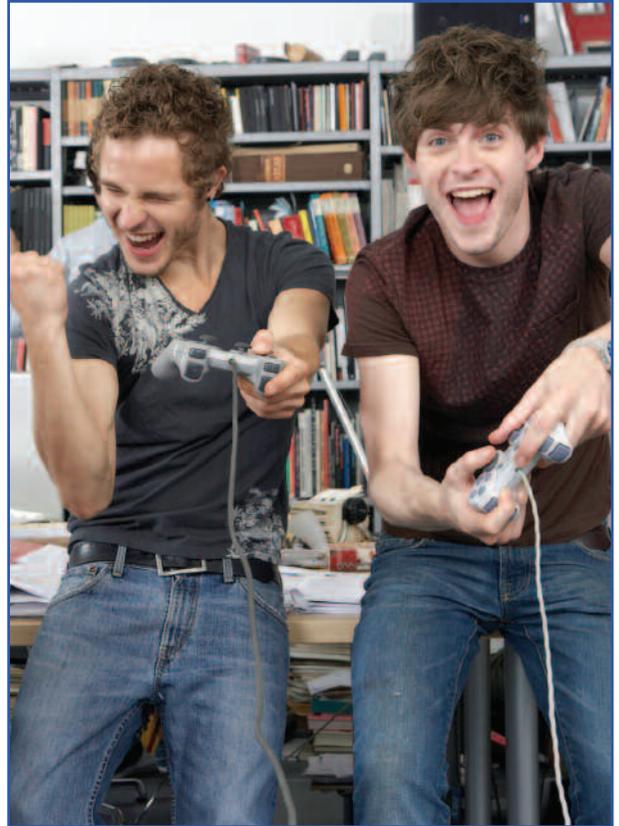
However, there is a far more radical—and we believe far more transformative—consequence of the fact that games are good examples of 21st century assessment: We should use games instead of traditional tests to assess what students know.

Take Two: Use What the Pros Already Built

The simplest way to use games as assessments is to have students play existing games and use their performance in the games (or perhaps their ability to explain what they did in the game and why) as a test of how well they understand a domain of knowledge.

For example, consider the game *Civilization*. *Civilization* is a strategy game in which players build an empire starting from a Stone Age settlement. They make strategic decisions to invest in technological development or agriculture and to use a combination of trade, diplomacy, religious conversion, and warfare with their neighbors. The game is based on historically accurate information about advances in technology, religion, warfare, and the arts and takes a materialist-determinist approach to history, like the one presented by Jared Diamond in his Pulitzer Prize-winning book *Guns, Germs, and Steel* (2005). To do well in the game, players have to understand how geographical location, ease of trade, and access to raw materials create conditions for the successful growth of a civilization—and they have to be able to demonstrate that understanding in action. The game provides a wealth of information about how well a player has done in building his or her civilization and about the strengths and weaknesses of the strategies a player has chosen.

The game is realistic enough that advanced players can develop better strategies by reading up on





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world history. So one can imagine a teacher asking students to play *Civilization* not to learn history (although that would surely be a good outcome), but to test how well they understand history. This might involve not just asking students to play the game and produce their scores, but also to provide an annotated explanation of what they did during the game and why. This is what advanced players in the game already do, for example, on the fan website Apolyton University, where advanced players share scenarios organized into courses on strategy games (including *Civilization*) and history more generally. The fact that games like *Civilization* can be modified by players means that teachers or curriculum developers could produce scenarios customized to a particular content area and also that students could be asked to design scenarios as part of their assessment.

There are, of course, two obvious drawbacks to such an approach. The first (and less significant) is that some work would need to be done to adapt a commercial game to serve as an assessment instrument, including a significant investment in determining the reliability of the measures used in the game, methods for ensuring that the test scenarios are not distributed in advance, and other criteria for

assessments that would have to be met. In other words, a commercial game could be the core of an assessment tool, but the tool would have to be built to use the game in that way. But that is only to say that more research and development would be needed before a commercial game could be part of an assessment system.

The more significant issue is that, because the demands of the commercial marketplace differ in some ways from our assessment needs, there are not necessarily commercial games out there that meet every testing need.

Fortunately, that presents an obvious solution: Develop a game system, game engine, and approach to educational gaming that can serve as a framework for creating assessment games.

Take Three: Build Your Own Pros

In what follows, we describe one system of developing games that can be used as 21st century assessments, and we do so by describing one particular game. It is a game we have written about elsewhere (Shaffer, 2007; Shaffer & Gee, 2005), and we present it as an example of the kind of assessment system we need to create. But we want to emphasize that there are other examples that we could have chosen as well.

We argued above that 21st century assessments have to be built around central problems in an academic domain or a real-world profession. The profession of urban planning is a good example of what we mean.

Urban planning is a domain of practice traditionally taught at the postsecondary level, but it is the kind of innovative and creative thinking that students need in the 21st century. Work in urban planning calls for some of the same skills and knowledge that are in the National Science Education Standards (National Research Council, 1995): things like understanding systems, order, and organization; evolution and equilibrium; and form and function in natural systems. Land use models that urban planners work with combine geographic features and other information into interactive visual

models of complex systems. They show how land use decisions affect key environmental, economic, and social indicators: pollution, tax revenue, acreage of wildlife habitat, and so on. These models show the interaction between ecological and social systems in a local community that let planners explore, propose, and justify solutions to complex ecological and economic issues.

So we developed a game, *Urban Science*, in which players work as urban planners who are creating proposals for the development of the north side of Madison, Wisconsin, an area adjacent to a large wetland known as Cherokee Marsh. This development project raises a number of economic and ecological issues around wetland ecology and conservation. Not surprisingly, while working on plans for development near the Cherokee Marsh, players of *Urban Science* have to investigate, analyze, understand, and communicate about scientific issues: local species, their life cycle, and their habitat; the role of wetlands in the local ecological system; and specific pollutants, their sources, and their impacts.

To be successful in the game, players have to use and develop skills and knowledge from state science and environmental science standards. They have to learn and use concepts in ecology, such as systems thinking and sustainability. They have to value civic thinking and use technology and scientific understanding to develop innovative solutions to real problems facing the city. They have to solve complex problems using the mathematics, communications, and science skills of urban planners (Bagley & Shaffer, 2009; Beckett & Shaffer, 2005; Shaffer, 2007).

Now, previous studies of *Urban Science* have focused on whether players developed these kinds of 21st century skills from playing the game. In one study, for example, middle school students used knowledge, skills, and values from ecology and urban planning more after playing the game (Bagley & Shaffer, 2009). Other studies have looked at whether games like *Urban Science* develop skills, interests, and motivation that can help players do better in science and other school subjects. For example, because players communicate with adult mentors in games like *Urban Science*, some become more comfortable talking with their teachers and talking in class (Shaffer, 2007)



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But we suggest that this previous work has just been another example of looking where the light is good. That is, instead of looking to see whether playing a game like *Urban Science* can help students in school, we should be focusing on how to use games like *Urban Science* to assess whether students are learning anything useful in their classes.

In order to do that, we need to be able to measure the kind of 21st century thinking that is happening in the game and show that the game can collect and report information that will help students, teachers, parents, and others decide whether teaching has been effective and where individual students still need help.

Fortunately, we know how to do that, too. Learning to solve complex problems comes from being part of a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), a group of people who share similar ways of solving problems. A community of practice shares a common body of knowledge and set of skills, but also a system of values that determines when and how those skills and that knowledge should be employed and a set of processes through which such decisions are made. And, of course, such a community also has a shared identity. In previous work we have described this collection of skills, knowledge, identity, values, and epistemology of a community as its epistemic frame (Shaffer, 2007).

What does it mean that a community of practice like urban planners has an epistemic frame? It means we can look at what urban planners say and

do in their work, find the relevant skills, knowledge, identity, values, and epistemology, and create a model of the way planners think about problems. We can create a model that describes what it means “to solve problems the way a planner does.” And we can do the same thing in the game *Urban Science*:

1. Look at what players say and do in their work in the game;
2. Find the relevant skills, knowledge, identity, values, and epistemology from urban planning;
3. Create a model of the way the players think about problems in the game; and
4. Compare that to how real planners think.

Consider, for example, a player in *Urban Science*. Let’s call her Sarah. We could figure out the epistemic frame of urban planning that Sarah has at any point in the game. We could also find the frame of the group or groups that Sarah has worked with. In fact, we could determine the frame of all of the parts of the game (including other players) that Sarah saw while playing. We could, from studies of real urban planners (or by having real planners play the game), construct a reference frame of how real planners solve problems.

Using a technique called epistemic network analysis (ENA), we can actually measure the similarities and differences between these ways of thinking—that is, between these epistemic frames (Shaffer, et al., 2009). So we might ask, for example, how close Sarah’s frame got to the reference frame of real planners. That is, we could measure how much Sarah learned to think like a planner. We could see the path over time of Sarah’s frame development in the game and compare it to experts or other players. We could ask whether Sarah’s frame was more likely to become like a real planner’s if the frame of the players she worked with had frames that became more like a planner’s frame. That is, we could quantify one of the most elusive concepts in education, opportunity to learn (Darling-Hammond, 2006), by looking at how players do in the game compared to the context in which they were being tested.

In other words, we could use *Urban Science* to show conclusively how well Sarah was thinking like

a planner and give feedback about what areas she still needed to work on. In this sense, we call *Urban Science* an epistemic game: that is, a game based on the way of thinking (the epistemic frame) of some important community in the real world (Shaffer, 2007). In a similar way, we could imagine creating a whole host of games that could test how well students are able to think like journalists, architects, mathematicians, historians, engineers, physicists, doctors, biologists, and so on. Using epistemic games, we can test whether students can solve complex problems using 21st century skills.

A Journey of a Thousand Miles

We want to reiterate that epistemic games like *Urban Science* are just one example of how learning games can—and should—be used as assessment games.

In prior work we have referred to games as good learning engines, and they are. But the point we would like to make here is that games are good learning engines because they are first good assessment engines. Games, as assessment engines, support and require the kind of learning that we need in the 21st century, and so they have the potential to usher in the new paradigm that we need to develop the skills students need. It is in this sense that we suggest that building games for learning is looking where the light is good, rather than tackling the more difficult—but more fundamental—problem of assessment.

Now, to be fair, there is a good reason why the field of educational video games (and educational technology more generally) has been looking at learning. Those of us who study educational games needed time to experiment with and to understand the kind of learning that computers make possible. But continuing to focus on learning without paying attention to assessment is an effort doomed to failure.

We all know what happens when we try to bring good games for learning into schools. Parents and teachers rightly ask: Will this help my children do well on the tests they need to pass? But just imagine, for a moment, what would happen if students were tested—and schools were judged—not by how well they perform on our current tests, but on



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Assessments drive the learning in which a system will engage. Today's standardized assessments, coupled with a punitive accountability model, encourage and support a skill-and-drill system of learning that does not lead to problem solving, innovation, or preparation for future learning. In fact, such assessment and accountability regimes lead to teachers, schools, and school leaders "gaming" the system.

We are arguing that gaming in another sense can lead us to a better system. Games are an assessment system. That system, too, would drive teaching and learning. But it would drive it where we want it and need it to go: to a new paradigm.

There is a great deal of research and policy work today concerned with how to change our standardized testing system and how to build deeper, more authentic forms of assessment. All of that work suggests that any change will be contentious and difficult to achieve (Abell & Lederman, 2007). But we believe that, as a policy matter, one way to achieve systemwide change is to provide assessment and accountability tools that demand better forms of learning. We also believe that properly designed games can do a better job of distinguishing between experts and novices and showing us where learners are in a course of development towards mastery than can any standard paper-and-pencil test.

They can do this because games use actual learning as the basis for assessment: Their assessments are built on problem solving and facing challenges. So they test not only current knowledge and skills, they also test preparation for future learning. They measure 21st century skills like collaboration, innovation, production, and design by tracking many different kinds of information about a student over time. They can account for the fact that different students have had different opportunities to learn inside school and out. And they can provide students, administrators, parents, and teachers with feedback they can use to make decisions that support good learning.

A game like *Urban Science* can be a completely new kind of standardized test. It is standardized, in the sense that every player can have an experience

designed in advance. It is a test in the sense that it can return a score or scores that indicates how well a player has done in the game. But it is a test that measures not the basic facts and basic skills of our current testing regime, but the kind of thinking that we value in the 21st century.

So we say: “Teach to the game.” The road to better schools starts by making the tests in school more like the games that students are already playing out of school.

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