

LEARNERS, TEACHERS AND GRADED OBJECTIVES IN COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

VILJO KOHONEN

University of Tampere

ABSTRACT

After a brief examination of some basic assumptions of learner-centered education, an attempt will be made to relate these views with the communicative approach to foreign language teaching. Graded objectives and tests will be suggested as a promising possibility for teaching languages in mixed-ability groups. Finally, some views are offered about the significance of the teacher in learner-centered language teaching.

1. Why the learner-centered approach?

The learner-centered approach is based on the notion that the goal of teaching is learning. This means that hypotheses about teaching should ultimately be related to hypotheses of learning. Recent learning theories can be discussed in terms of the humanistic and cognitive orientations.

1.1. Humanistic psychology emphasizes the uniqueness of the individual, the importance of values and meanings, and the individual's potential for self-direction and personal growth. It is assumed that persons are basically good and worthy of respect, and will move towards realization of their potentialities if environmental conditions are right. According to Maslow's (1970) well-known self-actualization theory of personality, a person is never static but is always in the process of becoming something different. This process of becoming, or self-actualization, is inherent in human nature and makes life rewarding and meaningful.

In his hierarchical theory of motivation Maslow suggests five kinds of needs, in the following order of potency: (1) basic physiological needs, (2) safety needs, (3) belongingness and love needs, (4) self-esteem needs, and (5) self-actualization needs. An underlying assumption in this hierarchy is that lower-order needs must be satisfied to some extent at least before an individual can be motivated by higher-order needs. Thus physiological needs must be met before safety needs become salient, and both must be satisfied to some degree before the needs for belongingness and love will emerge. Similarly, a reasonable satisfaction of the latter paves the way for self-esteem needs. These include self-respect and esteem from others, i.e., a desire for confidence and personal adequacy and independence; and recognition, acceptance and appreciation by others. Satisfaction of self-esteem needs generates feelings of self-confidence and capability and the sense of being useful and necessary in the world. The highest level, self-actualization, is described as the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming, a movement towards the full use and exploitation of the person's talents and potentialities. Maslow points out, however, that this level is achieved by only a few people, partly because people are blind to their potential or because of constraints of society, partly because of the negative influence of safety needs. Growth requires courage, a constant willingness to take risks and break old habits, and an openness to novel ideas and experiences. However, the farther up the hierarchy a person is able to go, the more individuality, humanness and psychological health he will display. (Cf. Hjelle and Ziegler 1981:368-74.)

The individual's self-concept is shaped gradually as a result of his learning experiences and the social comparisons in learning situations. For a positive development of the self-concept, it is important that the individual should get successful experiences, within his own potential for learning. It is assumed that learning will be more effective if the learning atmosphere is secure: any threat in the learning situation is likely to cause the individual to defend himself, thus slowing down the rate of learning. It is further assumed that learning is personal and meaningful when it involves the total personality of the learner, both intellectually and emotionally. This leads to an emphasis on the affective side of learning. Meaningful learning also entails an active participation of the learner, his personal involvement in the task: the learner should do something to the input so that the output is his own. Thus the individual should be studied as an integrated and unique whole functioning as a totality. Education should aim at supporting the individual's personal growth and his quest for identi-

ty and autonomy. The growth of an autonomous personality requires development of a balanced self-concept and the learner's own responsibility for his progress. This leads to the idea of life-long education. To the extent that school can support such developments it is likely to better prepare pupils to live in a rapidly changing world. (Cf. Nyström 1976; Burns 1979.)

1.2. In cognitive psychology, learning is investigated as information processing in memory. Recent studies (e.g., Pask 1976; Andersson 1980; Entwistle 1981; Leino 1982) have suggested individual differences in learning styles. It seems likely that individuals can reach the same levels of understanding and knowledge by different ways of processing the information. Learners can be classified along some dimensions (which are surely overlapping to some extent) according to their preferred styles of learning. A well-documented dimension is the distinction between the holist and serialist styles. While holists tend to build up first an overall picture of the learning task to guide learning and see where the details fit into that picture, the serialist learner seems to put more emphasis on separate topics and details and the logical connections between them, forming an overall picture only rather late in the process.

Now, the interesting question is how far teaching can be adapted to provide a better match between teaching and learning, and how this would affect the learning results. It is probably a familiar experience to several teachers that learning seems to improve with a change in teaching method (e.g., in remedial instruction), and Pask's experiments suggest quite dramatic possibilities. Such observations and research evidence inevitably lead to learner-centered thinking and offer a new challenge for the profession: designing syllabuses and teaching arrangements that fit the learners, rather than having learners fit the existing syllabuses. Obviously, one has to be realistic about how far such individualization can be taken within the constraints of large groups of learners. But the notion of learning styles suggests, in any case, the need for a larger variety in classroom procedures than has perhaps been customary; in teacher-centered classroom instruction the implicit assumption is that pupils learn roughly in the same way.

Cognitive psychology, too, emphasizes the importance of an active processing of information by the learner. If learners are given problems to solve, rather than ready answers, they have to work more intensively by making inferences and structuring information independently. Such discovery learning will increase the depth of information processing. This will improve memory by providing additional retrieval paths. It seems, in fact, that encoding, storage and retrieval are interdependent processes, as sug-

gested by Tulving and Thomson (1973): what is stored is determined by what is perceived and how it is encoded, and this also determines what retrieval cues will be effective. An implication of this finding to teaching is that the stage of presentation seems crucial for learning. If learners also store information about the learning situation and use that information subsequently in retrieval, the cues in the original learning context are important for the facilitation of recognition and recall.

In terms of foreign language teaching, the Tulving-Thomson hypothesis (known as the encoding specificity hypothesis) suggests that we should utilize the learner's tendency to store information about the learning situation by arranging learning contexts closely resembling contexts of language use in real life: language items encoded and stored in communicative contexts might be more easily retrievable than items encoded, say, in more artificial drill situations. The hypothesis would also seem to support the communicative claim for authentic learning materials, i.e., a "naturalistic" approach to language teaching.

Memory thus has a central role in all learning, and a research-based knowledge of its functioning will be useful in the design of instruction. As Gagné (1977) argues, the external conditions of learning should be arranged so that they activate, support and maintain the learner's internal processing in an optimal way at different stages of learning.

Humanistic and cognitive theories should obviously not be seen as mutually exclusive orientations, but, rather, as supplementing each other by giving together a better view of the learner. They support the learner-centered approach by suggesting that the success of instruction depends on the quality of human relations in the classroom, the learning atmosphere, and on the extent to which teaching can be adapted to individual differences in motivation, abilities and learning styles.

A good summary of individual differences is provided by Strevens (1980), who suggests the following list of learner variables:

1. Predictors of eventual success:
 - reasons for learning
 - attitudes towards learning
 - expectations of success or failure
 - possession of qualities needed for learning
2. Personal qualities of the learner:
 - (i) Offering few possibilities of management by a teacher ('static')
 - potentiality for learning languages
 - age
 - willingness to give time and effort
 - stamina for learning
 - special abilities in language learning
 - previous relevant language experience (L1 and foreign languages)

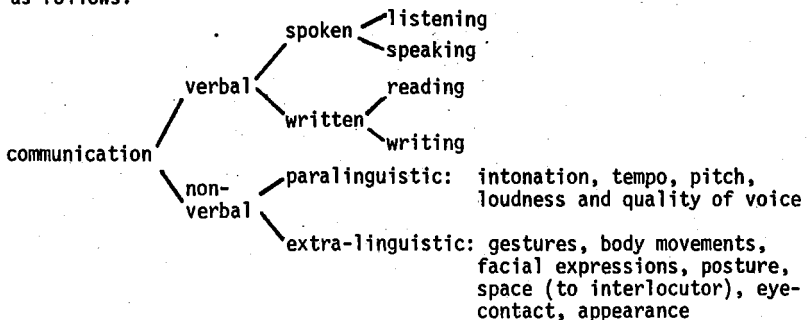
- previous relevant learning experience
- (ii) Offering possibilities of management by a teacher ('dynamic')
- personal learning rate
- preferred learning style
- success needs
- self-view as a language learner
- relations with the teacher

In the light of such lists, it seems that we have to live with the fact that learners come to us different and leave us different, since a great number of the above variables are so stable that it is difficult to do much about them by teaching efforts. This is certainly the case in contexts where languages are taught to the whole of the year group within an obligatory educational system (as, for instance, in the Finnish comprehensive school, where every learner has to study at least two foreign languages, usually English and Swedish).

The wide range of learner abilities in compulsory foreign language teaching imposes limitations on the achievement of common cognitive objectives. This suggests the idea of graded objectives whereby each learner is encouraged to proceed as far as possible, within his potential and interest for learning. This means that learners take on learning "contracts" of different sizes, in consultation with the teacher. Such individual aims lie at the heart of learner-centered education.

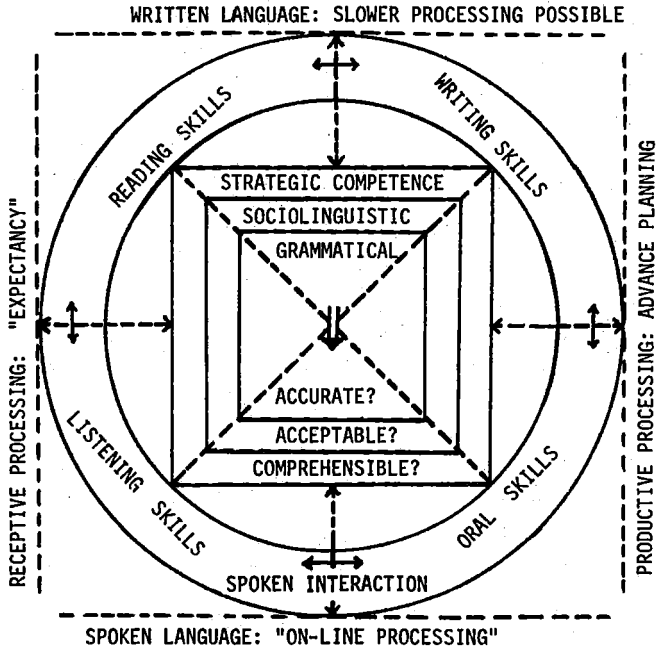
2. Learner-centered communicative FL teaching

2.1. A model of communicative competence. Following the seminal ideas of Hymes (cf. also Canale and Swain 1980), communicative competence can be thought of as consisting of three components: grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Further, communicative competence involves both verbal and non-verbal communication. This well-known distinction can be presented as follows:



In this view, communication is a multi-faceted phenomenon involving both verbal and non-verbal aspects; as Abercrombie (1968) puts it, "we speak with our vocal organs, but we converse with our entire bodies". Thus verbal communication is normally supplemented - and may even be contradicted - by non-verbal communication, with the two means together constituting our total communicative behaviour and thereby the intended meanings.

The theoretical concept of communicative competence can be illustrated by the following diagram:



The diagram shows the three overlapping components which constitute the system whereby messages are processed:

Grammatical competence, which is concerned with linguistic accuracy. Accuracy can be specified at all levels of the linguistic system: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and the textual level. At the textual level, the question is whether a sentence is well-formed, whether a text is cohesive, and whether it is coherent, i.e., pragmatically well-formed (cf. Widdowson).

Sociolinguistic competence, which is concerned with acceptability. This notion is related with the sociolinguistic variables in a given speech

situation: roles of interlocutors (who speaks to whom?), the situation, the topic (about what?), and communicative intentions (functions: why?).

Strategic competence, which is concerned with comprehensibility.

A basic element of communication is meaningfulness: we attempt to send messages that are readily interpretable, and therefore adjust what we say (or write) to what we think is activated in the consciousness of our interlocutor. Similarly, the listener (reader), using the multi-level cues provided by the situation and the context, makes predictions as to what follows in a given string of discourse. Discourse production and interpretation are thus seen as an active process of anticipating meanings and negotiating about them. Essential in this dynamic process of creating meanings is the pragmatic notion of shared knowledge: what can be taken for granted in a communicative situation and what needs to be said explicitly, for the discourse to be comprehensible and thus coherent.

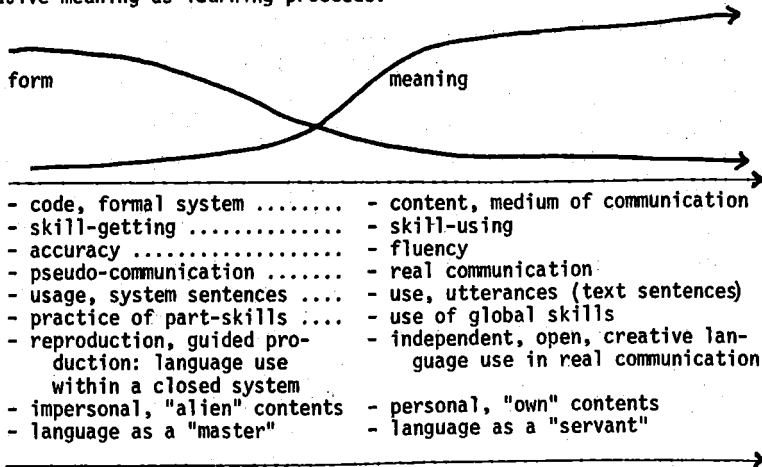
The model also indicates that the four "skills" should not be seen as strictly compartmentalized, as it was assumed in the structuralist theory, but rather as communication channels subject to various kinds of channel-specific properties such as visual input in reading and auditory input in listening, and the motor skills involved in written and spoken production. But they are all based on the underlying competence and tap it variously in communicative tasks. Perhaps a major distinction should be made between productive and receptive processing of messages. While the latter involves recognition of linguistic elements, the former requires recall. This is a more demanding activity in memory: we can recognize items which we may not be able to recall, while recalled items can usually be recognized as well. This is connected with the level of processing in memory; recall requires processing at a deeper level than recognition (cf. Anderson 1980). But this distinction does not mean that receptive processing is less "active" than productive language use: both involve participation in a creative meaning-making process to express or interpret potential meaning in discourse, as pointed out by Breen and Candlin (1980; cf. also Widdowson, in this volume).

2.2. Communication as a teaching objective. Foreign language learning in formal classroom contexts can be regarded as a continuum in which the learner proceeds from a conscious learning of structures and vocabulary to the use of language in communication. In this view language learning involves a gradual shift of conscious attention from structures to meanings. After a given structure is internalized its use becomes automatic in the sense that the language user does not have to pay conscious attention to it any longer. In Krashen's (1981, 1982) terms it could be said that such a

language element is in the acquisition rather than learning mode: it is available for the language user without conscious monitoring. This is a very important distinction, and the big question - and indeed a challenge - for the profession is the extent to which we can encourage subconscious acquisition in classroom contexts. Two factors are crucial in this thinking: the communicative meaningfulness of the tasks, and the learning atmosphere.

The meaningfulness of the tasks emphasizes the communicative quality of the classroom work. The more motivating and challenging opportunities of language use we can design, the more committed the learners are likely to be. If the goal of instruction is an independent, creative use of the language there must be opportunities for such practice: language use can only be learned by using the language! To put this important point in another way, a communicative use of the target language incorporates the grammatical component, but the converse is not true: rule-bound mechanical exercises within a closed system will not automatically yield communicative abilities.

The shift of attention from structures to meaning in foreign language learning has been discussed variously by different applied linguists. It can be illustrated by the following continuum where the arrows indicate the learner's gradual shift of conscious attention from linguistic form to communicative meaning as learning proceeds:



Now, the closer the learner's conscious activities are to the right end of the continuum, the more "communicative" his language use is. This parallels the everyday situation in spontaneous mother tongue use, where we are normally not aware of structures but concentrate on what we want to say or what is being said to us. To achieve this end more attention should be paid

in classes to putting the language items to meaningful use once they have been presented. As Littlewood (1981) points out, the central question in teaching arrangements is how we could possibly increase the number of situations in which the learner's attention would be focused on what he wants to say rather than how he could say it.

The dimension is also connected with the learner's attitude towards the foreign language. This can be described by posing the question, "should the language be a master or a servant?" As long as the language is felt to be the "master" the learner is, as it were, within the structural strait-jacket of the language, which compels him to do certain things. This may be the case as long as his use of the language is limited to imitation, reproduction and mechanical activities. In the "servant" mode, by contrast, it is the language that obeys the user's will as a tool of communication. For the learner, the important thing is now: what do I want to use my language for? This stresses the primacy of meaning over linguistic form in language use: form without meaning is futile and empty, and one could ask, indeed, why talk if one has nothing to say? On the other hand, however, meanings cannot be communicated efficiently without a sufficient knowledge of the terms. The essential criterion in language use is thus intelligibility. But this will always include a margin of error tolerance without a break in communication.

The quality of the learning atmosphere is an important factor in communicative teaching. Fostering and encouraging the learner's communicative attempts requires a secure atmosphere where learners feel free to express themselves. It can be said, in fact, that the development of communicative competence involves an element of communicative confidence, which can only develop through positive communicative feedback. Nothing works like success, and even a modest feeling of success will breed self-confidence. For the teacher, the question is: what can I do to foster the learner's communicative self-confidence? Two things seem to be important in this: attitudes and the quality of the learning tasks.

Tasks that are "idiot-proof" (cf. imitation, mechanical reproduction, closed applications) are not likely to pose any great risks for the learner. It seems that self-confidence can better develop in situations that involve risks, jumps into the unknown, exposure to unknown elements. Positive experiences of success in such contexts of language use are valuable for the learner. Perhaps we should learn to trust the learner more and make more use of what he brings to learning situations. As Price (1981) points out, perhaps we expect too much of ourselves and too little of our learner. A secure atmosphere also entails a respect for the learner and an apprecia-

tion of his performance and opinions - even when they are expressed in language that is full of mistakes. Error tolerance is no easy lesson for the teacher that has traditionally been preoccupied with mistakes; but it can be learned.

2.3. Communication as a learner objective: graded objectives. The development of communicative skills is an individual process in which different learners will end up with varying levels of performance within a given number of teaching hours. In heterogeneous groups, the wide ability range poses problems for the achievement of common objectives at any theoretically significant level. An easy solution would obviously be to exempt slow learners from foreign language teaching, but if this is not considered educationally desirable in a comprehensive school system, the only alternative is mixedability teaching. A manageable solution is offered by graded objectives: nobody can be expected to do more than he is capable of doing - and willing to do (which may not be the same thing).

Graded objectives have been discussed, debated and experimented with to some extent in Britain since the late 1970's. As in Finland (and elsewhere in Europe), the need for "grading" the objectives was due to the rapid increase of foreign language teaching (usually French) from some 30 per cent in the early sixties to nearly 90 per cent of the learners by the mid 1970's. The changed situation has compelled syllabus designers to re-examine what can be realistically expected from the new, heterogeneous group of learners in terms of the traditional emphasis on grammatical accuracy. The graded objectives schemes have entailed breaking up the traditional five-year course to CSE/'O' level into a set of short-term objectives, each leading to the next stage and even beyond the 'O' level. In this process, objectives have been defined in terms of what learners should be able to do with their language at each stage. Emphasis was thus shifted to the ability to use language for realistic communicative purposes, in the spirit of the European Threshold Level Project (cf. van Ek 1976, Page 1979). Graded objectives thus refer to the consecutive stages in a continuum offered to all learners. With regard to variation in learner ability, objectives are not tied to any particular age level, thus making it possible for any learner (including adults) to attempt any level whenever he feels he is ready for it. Behind the experimental schemes is the conviction that "...a high percentage of learners should be able to attain some measurable standard of achievement in a modern language" (Harding et al 1980:5). A guiding principle in the schemes is consequently that learners must be given increasing

opportunities for shaping the language to convey their own ideas, and grammar will serve such communicative needs.

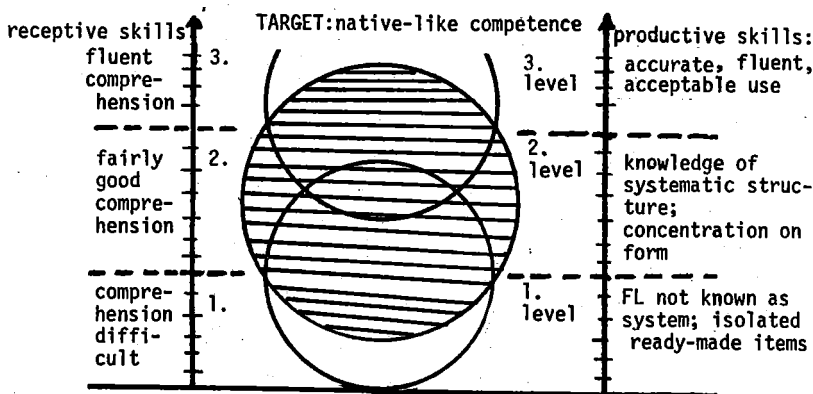
Communicative thinking offers possibilities for graded objectives: communication is certainly possible even with very modest verbal skills, given the need to communicate and the courage to try both verbal and non-verbal means of communication. Mere intelligibility does not require an accurate mastery of the language. Communicative abilities are thus a relative concept, ranging from zero level to perfectly fluent native-like performance. This continuum can be roughly divided into three broad levels of accuracy, each containing a further scale of variation:

1. Ability to use foreign language only at the level of separate phrases, expressions and vocabulary items, not as a systematic grammatical structure. This level is a modest "tourism language" (witness the various tourist guidebooks and electronic pocket interpreters!). It enables the language user to communicate very limited needs using ready-made language items, but he has great difficulties in understanding what is said to him.

2. Ability to use foreign language as a grammatical, creative system which makes it possible to produce novel expressions by applying internalized rules. The learner has crossed the threshold for independent language use and can be said to know the language, even though he may make frequent mistakes that hamper intelligibility. Language use is halting as the learner has to struggle with the code, and his comprehension is similarly impaired by the effort required to decode the message form.

3. Ability to use foreign language accurately and fluently and in a pragmatically acceptable way, enabling concentration on meaning. There may still be mistakes, but these do not hamper intelligibility, and the learner gives the impression of being fluent. Comprehension is similarly effortless as the learner can utilize redundancy to anticipate message contents.

The levels cannot obviously be specified in absolute and detailed terms, but it should be possible to achieve a relatively high amount of consensus as to the placement of a given learner within the levels. There is also overlapping between the levels, as suggested by the intersecting circles:



Now, the scale suggests the possibility of negotiating about individual objectives for a learner or a group of learners, in terms of a manageable reconciliation between quality and quantity: what kind of language would seem to be the best investment for the learner, and how much of it, within a given number of teaching hours. Such individualized objectives would be based on a global diagnosis of the learner's total situation: what he expects from his language learning (apart from the obligatory attendance of the lessons!), how motivated he is to learn, what his aptitude for language learning seems to be like, and what special wishes or problems he might have. Such diagnoses might even lead to goal-oriented study plans, or learning "contracts", for a learner or a group of learners in which individual expectations and potential would be reconciled with the common objectives. Obviously it is not possible to make any accurate specifications, and one should be cautious about setting any ultimate limits for the learner's progress. After Rosenthal's classic study of the "Pygmalion" in the classroom (1968; cf. also Elashoff and Snow 1971, Rosenthal 1978, Babad et al 1982), educators have become increasingly aware of the effects of teacher expectations on learner performance. If expectations are pitched too low it is possible that learners will be underachievers. Ideally, each learner should be allowed - and encouraged - to aim for that level of learning which is possible for him in his total learning situation. So the notion of learning contracts should be viewed with caution, and no contract should be in any sense "final" for the learner: they should rather be open-ended and allow adjustments. But realistic contracts might increase the learner's motivation to work for them and thus lead to a more effective use of his learning potential. Closely related to the notion of contracts is the idea of the

learner's own responsibility for his progress by way of, e.g., keeping a record of the work done and passed.

Perhaps a good way of making such diagnoses might be a combination of unhurried observation of the learner, talks with him and possibly other teachers, and written tests. A problem is that this requires time. One might therefore question the usefulness of spending valuable teacher time on diagnosing and counselling rather than teaching, as the work would obviously have to be done during the teacher's working day (with the rest of the class doing, for example, teacher-assigned independent work). An answer to this might be that we never have enough time to do everything in school. We should therefore learn to set priorities for the different tasks in the light of the objectives and allocate our time for them accordingly. And if counselling is regarded as important enough, it simply has to be made room for.

3 Evaluation

3.1. Should we count errors or measure success? This question, posed by Enkvist (1973), lies at the heart of communicative evaluation: how to reconcile accuracy with communicative efficiency and willingness? It is only too well-known that penalizing for errors will lead to inhibited communication. But on the other hand errors do hamper communication, and the final aim must therefore be both accurate and fluent communication. As errors are a factor in communicative success, the question should perhaps not be posed in an either/or form. It is rather one of reconciling accuracy and fluency by doing justice to both and still encouraging the learner's communicative efforts.

The above discussion of three levels of accuracy in the process of language learning and the differences in learner aptitude and motivation suggest some possible solutions to the problem. As the linguistic system is context-free and generalizable to various communicative tasks and situations, it would seem justifiable to take this component of communicative abilities as the basis of grading learner performance. This would also be in accordance with the basically structural progression of the syllabus. In terms of the grading scale used in Finnish schools, ranging from 4 (=fail) and 5 (=pass) to 10 (=very good), the basic variation of report grades within the three levels could be as follows:

level 1: FL not mastered as a system	4 - 6	Fail - Pass
level 2: basic system of FL mastered	5 - 8	Pass - Good
level 3: accurate and fluent use of FL	7 - 9	Good - Very good

Depending on the quality (accuracy) of the language, learner performance could thus be assessed at one of the three levels, allowing necessary variation at each level. In other words, grading would not be done in terms of only the pass/fail distinction, but there would be a qualitative grade for passed performance, thus giving credit for communicatively better performance.

On the other hand, evaluation should also encourage learners to use the language, regardless of errors, if we are to produce communicators in school. As long as credits have the magic power of motivating learners to work for them, it ought to be possible to give credit for the learner's communicative efforts and willingness. One possibility would be to introduce a "communicative bonus" which could raise the grade by one class. This would result in the following total range of grades for communicative abilities at each level:

level 1: (4 - 6 +1)	5 - 7	Pass - Good-
level 2: (5 - 8 +1)	6 - 9	Good - Very good-
level 3: (7 - 9 +1)	8 - 10	Good+ - Very good

The credit for communication would be based largely on continuous assessment, and learners should be informed about the criteria for obtaining the communicative bonus. And they should be motivated to work for it by encouraging their communicative efforts. The above suggestion for grades shows, then, that the mid-grade 7 can consist of various kinds of performance: it can be given to the slow learner who has difficulties with accuracy but nonetheless manages to get meanings across by brave attempt (and non-verbal communication); and it could also be given to the faster learner who knows the code rather accurately but refuses to use it. For the topmost grades (9 - 10), however, the accuracy standards should be quite high.

In this way of thinking, then, slower learners could also be credited for erroneous performances as long as the criterion of intelligibility is fulfilled. They should be encouraged to use whatever language they have learned and supplement it with non-verbal communication. Lowering accuracy standards and correspondingly encouraging communicative efforts seems well-grounded in the case of the theoretically weaker learner, who seems to be unable to learn the abstract code at any remarkable level. Rather than frustrate such learners (and their teachers) by attempting to push the code through and fail in so doing, it seems more advisable to put into communicative use that amount of language which is within their reach.

But the same principle of helping learners to work up to their learning potential - no more, but no less - also entails that faster learners should

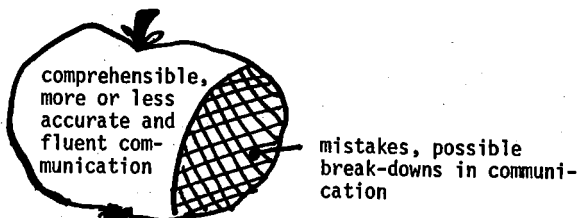
be encouraged to aim for high-standard performance. They should be required to work for both accuracy and fluency, that is, communication in the actual and demanding sense of the concept. Accuracy standards should not be lowered where they can be kept. It should be made clear to these learners that they can do well if they wish, and they should be encouraged to take on far more demanding learning contracts than their slower classroom mates.

The basic task of classroom evaluation should be to encourage student learning. It should also support a balanced and realistic development of the learner's self-concept. In this sense it is perhaps justified to take the accuracy of the code as the basis for giving grades in school reports. One of the tasks of the obligatory school system is surely guiding pupils to see realistically their talent in various fields of human learning: some are good at languages, others at mathematics, still others at sports or crafts, and so on. Learners have the right to expect the school to guide their decision-making about their future careers in the various walks of life after they leave school. It is one of the language teacher's functions to give feedback about the learner's chances of succeeding in careers that require high-standard abilities in foreign languages - e.g., prospective language teachers, translators, foreign business etc. Evaluation should not "deceive" the learner by giving him unrealistically good feedback about his talent in foreign languages.

But it is quite another thing how the grades are given: in what kind of classroom atmosphere, and with what kinds of attitudes. Two things should be kept absolutely apart: human dignity and respect for the learner, and his performance, say, in foreign languages. And this is a question of attitudes. We too often seem to find ourselves talking about "bad" or "excellent" pupils when we mean, in fact, that they are growing human beings (and somebody's sons and daughters) who happen to be slow or fast learners in languages and who need our professional help and human encouragement in either case.

The question posed at the beginning of this section - should we count errors or measure success? - also brings in a further important point. As long as we "count errors" we are basing our evaluation on the negative side of learner performance, i.e., what he cannot do correctly. This is what was traditionally done when the major aim of language teaching in secondary schools was to weed out as many errors as possible. But the situation has changed radically in comprehensive schools where languages are taught to the whole age group (and not just the more theoretically-minded fifty per cent of it selected at eleven-plus). As long as we are preoccupied with mistakes

we easily lose sight of the other side of the coin: what the learner can do with his language. And communicative thinking emphasizes precisely this positive side of learner performance. The problem can be illustrated by an apple of which part is rotten:



Now, we all know that the unspoilt part of the apple is quite eatable, in fact, it may be delicious! In the same way, it might be wise for us to be less worried about the mistakes and give more positive feedback to the learner about what and how much he can do with his language communicatively. Such encouragement is necessary for the development of the learner's communicative self-confidence. This point is emphasized also by Dulay et al (1982:75), who point out that "nearly all the available literature suggests that self-confidence is very much related to second language development. All things being equal, the self-confident, secure person is a more successful language learner".

The communicative approach thus offers possible ways of reconciling the demands of accuracy and fluency in terms of graded objectives and tests and the view that communication is possible at various levels of accuracy. Essential in this way of thinking is the idea the learner is competing with himself rather than with his peers. Graded objectives thus entail a shift in testing policy towards the criterion-referenced approach: learners are encouraged to work for agreed levels of communicative efficiency, defined in terms of criterion-based descriptions. They are thus facing hurdles which are within their capabilities, as pointed out by Harding et al (1980), and they know that they have a good chance to pass working reasonably hard. Tests are thus supportive to the learner. If evaluation can be geared to guide the learner's progress in a way that encourages him to proceed in his own discovery of the language, it can serve the educational goal of supporting a balanced development of the learner's total personality. This might be a direction that would be worth more investment of our professional thinking and effort.

3.2. Designing graded tests: some principles. When designing tests for a heterogeneous group there are some basic questions to be discussed: (1) what to measure?, (2) at what level of mastery?, (3) what kinds of tests to use?, and (4) what criteria to use?

(1) What to measure? In classroom testing there is a place for both analytic and integrative tests; the two approaches will supplement each other. The former are useful for measuring the learners' knowledge of the language (linguistic competence), while integrative tests are equally important for measuring their abilities to use that knowledge for communicative purposes. There is perhaps a decreasing need for analytic tests as learning proceeds: once the elements are mastered (at the desired level of accuracy), the balance can be shifted to measuring the use of those elements in various communicative tasks. A possible division of labour for the two types of tests might be the customary distinction between the formative and summative tests. Analytic tests of structural and vocabulary items are useful and economic as formative tests. In summative tests, on the other hand, it seems wiser to use integrative tests and thereby give learners positive feedback of what they can do with whatever amount of language they have learned. This would also provide a communicatively balanced basis for giving grades in school reports. Summative tests will inevitably indicate what we regard as important in the objectives and the syllabus. Traditionally, it has been lack of mistakes. In a communicative framework it must be the ability and willingness to put language items into meaningful use. The question is of course about the construct validity of our tests, based on our theoretical views of what it means to "know" a language.

(2) At what level? In a heterogeneous group it is essential that the summative test should contain items at all levels of mastery if we are to have grounds for giving grades to all learners. Following the familiar Bloomian taxonomy, it is helpful to think of language processing in terms of three levels:

- understanding in receptive mode; limited ability to produce something
- receptive and productive mechanical skills; and guided production
- effortless receptive skills; and independent, creative production

Test items can be graded along these levels to constitute a progressively more demanding scale. Fast learners will solve the first few items quickly, while slower learners will proceed as far as they can.

(3) What kinds of tests? This question has been answered basically under points (1) and (2), but it is useful to have it on the check list as a reminder that the same objectives and contents can be measured by various

kinds of tests, which will emphasize different aspects of communicative abilities. A guiding principle in the choice of test types should be authenticity: just as the proof of the pudding is in the eating, the proof of communication is in the ability to use language for communicatively meaningful purposes. This means that tests should be fair; they should not contain any unnecessary gimmicks, no matter how good such a test might be statistically - statistics is a good servant but a bad master! Since language use involves interaction between the interlocutors, the tests should always contain items requiring production, even though such items will be difficult for slower learners. Mere recognition items (multiple-choice, or, even worse, true/false items) only test the ability to recognize limited elements of language or message contents in a forced-choice situation. This is, of course, a valuable aim already, but if language processing is better regarded as a creative reconstruction of meanings, this can be more directly measured by open, productive questions. Such questions will also challenge the learner to process the text at a deeper level and thereby increase his task involvement. From the teacher's point of view, the problem is that open questions are more laborious to score, while multiple-choice items are even machine-scorable. There are no easy solutions to these problems, but compromises should be made with a clear understanding of what would be theoretically desirable and how far such aims can be achieved in practice, i.e., what we can afford with available resources.

(4) What criteria to use? Recognition items do not pose scoring problems (provided that they are properly designed), but problems do arise in productive items where the range of learner responses is wide in heterogeneous groups. There will be miss-spelt words that are hardly recognizable at all, structures that cause difficulties of understanding even to the experienced (and benevolent!) teacher - and, on the other hand, correct and fluent language. The only way to cope with this range seems to be the use of a scale, e.g., 0-3 (or more, in longer passages). The basic criterion for the application of the scale must be intelligibility: would a speaker of the target language understand the meaning as intended by the learner? If the answer is positive (even allowing incorrect spelling and bad mistakes in structures) the learner is given some credit; = would obviously be given for a blank answer as well as for answers that are clearly not interpretable. Thus, on a scale 0-3 for example, 3 points would be given for a "perfect" answer, 1 point for a comprehensible answer, and 2 points for a variety of combinations of incorrect language and message contents. There is also no reason why slower learners could not answer in the mother tongue (in reading

and listening comprehension): what is measured is the ability to understand the target text, and this can be equally well controlled by answers in the mother tongue.

Similar ideas have also emerged in the British schemes of graded testing. The following criteria have been used in some projects:

Knowledge: Can the learner identify a (simple) piece of information?

Communication: Has the learner succeeded in passing a (simple) piece of information to a speaker of the foreign language so that it is correctly perceived by the recipient?

At the lower levels of performance errors become irrelevant if the receiving and passing of messages is successful. At higher levels delicacy of choice and accuracy of expression will become more critical (Harding et al 1980: 34).

The application of such criteria will obviously entail a margin of subjectivity and thus pose some problems of inter-rater reliability. But if it is impossible to maximize validity and reliability in the same test, one has to recognize that validity should come first and reliability only second.

In the conversion of test scores into grades in school reports, it is desirable to aim towards a somewhat loosely defined system of criterion-based grades. The change entails the abandonment of the Gaussian recommendations for averages and percentage distributions of the different grades (the recommendation for the average has been 7-8). Such recommendations have been increasingly felt to be arbitrary, since they are not based on any pre-defined standards or performance; their informative value is thus rather low. Another point, as noted before, is that evaluation should be supportive to the learner, rather than compare him with the performance of others. It must be remembered that even though competition is supposed to be healthy for some learners it is surely unhealthy for some other learners precisely because being "fast" means, by definition, that somebody else must be "slow". This supportive aspect has been emphasized recently by Bloom (1981:3) as follows:

Education must be increasingly concerned about the fullest development of all children and youth, and it will be the responsibility of the schools to seek learning conditions which will enable each individual to reach the highest level of learning possible for him or her.

Such criterion-based grades are a realistic possibility in the Finnish comprehensive school, for instance, now that there are official objectives for the different foreign languages in the national syllabus, defined for each form separately. Such objectives make it possible to design criterion-based descriptions for the different grades. As it is currently being planned, the pass grades (5 - 10) will first be described at three broad levels:

- (1) pass level (grades 5 and 6)
- (2) level of common basic objectives (grades 7 and 8), and
- (3) level of extended objectives (grades 9 and 10).

Setting the achievement of the basic objectives at 7 means that the slower learners whose performance is not judged as sufficient for that level (in terms of accuracy and own production) still have a chance to obtain a pass grade (5 or 6) if they work for it. In addition to written summative tests, there are also other criteria that affect the report grades and make it possible to raise the grade by one class (possibly even two), such as

- active participation during the lessons
- diligence in doing the homework
- responsibility for the social climate of the classroom
- oral skills (tested mainly through continuous assessment)

Evaluation of communicative skills is thus seen as part of the school's wider educational task of developing the learner's total personality.

3.3. Graded tests: some empirical findings. During the past few years, graded tests have been designed according to the above principles within a heterogeneous groups teaching experiment in two upper comprehensive schools in the Tampere district. In the experiment, learners have been taught, not in groups streamed according to ability (the streaming for languages and mathematics has been done within three ability groups), but in mixed-ability groups whereby the whole year groups (forms 7-9, aged 13-15 years) attending the given upper comprehensive school have been taught in heterogeneous groups. Behind the experiment in Tampere (and many other schools elsewhere in the country) is the new school law that has just been passed by the Parliament, whereby streaming will be abolished totally from August 1984 onwards. This means that languages and mathematics, too, will be taught in heterogeneous groups throughout the comprehensive school, i.e., there will be a shift from organizational to pedagogical differentiation. Thus all learners (the whole year group) will be studying the same syllabus and will be tested by the same tests, and grades will be based on the level of attainment by each learner according to the criterion-based descriptions discussed above. There are basic objectives, a common syllabus, outlined for each year, but it has become evident that these objectives are not achieved by all learners; and that faster learners will go far beyond them (extended objectives). Considering the wide ability range in the two compulsory foreign languages offered to the whole year group ('A' and 'B' languages, usually English and Swedish), there is an obvious need for the notion of graded objectives and tests.

In October 1982, a summative test in English was administered in the two schools to pupils in the 9th form (aged 14-15 years, 7th year of studying English, N=473 pupils). The test consisted of the following parts:

- 1 vocabulary test (requiring recognition and guided production, 20 items)
- 2 grammar: passive constructions (guided production, 10 items)
- 3 dialogue completion (guided production, 9 items)
- 4 written production: story telling
- 5 listening comprehension (10 open questions, 5 in Finnish, 5 in English)
- 6 reading comprehension (10 open questions, 6 in Finnish and 4 in English)

There was thus a total of 64 items, administered during two periods (first period: tests 1-4, second period: tests 5 and 6). Tests 1, 3 and 4 are given in Appendix 1 and will be discussed briefly; results of the statistical analysis are given in Appendix 2.

In the vocabulary test, the first ten items were aided recognition in context: the learners were given the Finnish counterpart in brackets, and the English words were given in the box on the exam sheet. To remove easy guessing, however, the box had a total of some forty words taken from the relevant units. Thus learners had to be able to identify the correct word out of a large selection. In items 11-16, the Finnish counterparts were still given, but there was no "box" to identify the words from; they had to be recalled on the basis of the Finnish cue. Items 17-20 were meant to be more difficult: this part of the test was a modified cloze without any cues other than the context. The scoring was 0/1 throughout the test, with the acceptable-word scoring in the cloze passage. The statistical results show that the test functioned as expected: the items were progressively more and more difficult (facility values from some 90 per cent down to some 30 per cent) and the reliability index of the test was high (.93, internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha coefficient).

The dialogue completion test consisted of two dialogues. In the first dialogue (items 31-34) the moves of the interlocutors were given in Finnish. The second dialogue was more difficult. The semantic description of the contents was given in Finnish, and the learner had to produce the shop assistant's moves accordingly, partly aided by functional cues in Finnish. The scoring was done on a scale 0-2. The first half of the test was quite easy, as intended, while the functional dialogue was somewhat more difficult (facility values from some 90 per cent to some 60 per cent). The reliability index was again high (.87), indicating consistent discrimination.

The written production test was meant to be more demanding. The picture stimulus was made into a personal description by having the learner tell

about the imaginary traffic accident in which she had been involved. The scoring was 0/1 for the factual information (four things to tell about: where, when, how and what had happened), but there was an additional "communicative bonus" of three points (on scale 0-3), given on the basis of the total communicative impression of the piece of text produced by the learner, i.e., how well the story came out and how fluent it was. The test was rather difficult (average facility value 55 per cent). The facility value of item 5 (the communicative bonus) was 25 per cent, and the item correlation (.64) indicates that it was fast learners who were credited for this item. The reliability index (.81) is good considering that the test consisted of only five items.

As shown by the item correlations (Appendix 2), there was a generally high amount of internal consistency in discrimination, indicating that those who obtained high scores on the whole tests also scored well on the individual items. The reliability index of the whole test battery was consequently very high (.98). The tests functioned thus well at all levels of performance.

In this approach, "graded" tests refer to a deliberate and careful design of items at all levels of performance in the given group of learners. There are thus items from aided recognition and guided production to an open, creative use of the language. The emphasis is on integrative tests, enabling learners to show what they can do with their language. A second important point is that learners are allowed and encouraged to proceed as far as they can: they should try the items as far as possible and only then move onto the next test. This is in accordance with our conviction that we should avoid imposing any limits on learner performance by way of specifying, e.g., "easy", "medium" or "difficult" sections. We prefer grading to be tactful, something that takes place automatically in the learner's head when he sees that he cannot solve the items any further.

4. On the significance of the teacher in learner-centered instruction

Learner-centered instruction entails a shift in the teacher's role towards what might be called a counsellor-diagnostician. As pointed out by Stevick (1980), however, learner-centered instruction does not imply that the classroom should become a power vacuum: the security of the learning atmosphere can only be based on the teacher's authority. An important task of the teacher is still to control and lead classroom activities and provide

feedback for the learner. Stevick offers the following list of the teacher's functions:

- cognitive function: imparting knowledge about the foreign language and the foreign culture
- classroom management function: leading classroom activities
- instructional design: translating long-range goals into weekly, daily and hourly activities
- interpersonal function: setting the emotional and interpersonal tone, the learning atmosphere of the classroom
- encouraging and motivating the learner, showing the value of the task at hand, providing feedback.

The teacher's work has perhaps become more versatile, in some sense more demanding; but perhaps also more rewarding and professionally more challenging than in traditional teacher-centered instruction.

One concern is, of course, the lack of time, under the pressure of having to cover a fixed amount of material during the school year. But if the coverage remains hasty, superficial and undigested to a large number of learners, one might question the usefulness of such a haste. The question of a manageable balance between the common syllabus on the one hand, and individualized study plans on the other, still needs discussions, debates and research.

Another problem is the large learner groups and relatively few teaching hours (2-3 hours a week). It is certainly difficult to get to know all learners as individuals; the classes are too big, and making them smaller is of course a question of money. But if getting to know the learner better is regarded as important enough, time must be provided for this during the teacher's working day. This means that objectives must be adjusted realistically to the time available. Nobody can be required to do more than he is capable of doing. Perhaps we should also learn to make more time for observing and monitoring what happens in the class by doing less ourselves and having learners do more, and more independently. After all, nobody can learn on anybody else's behalf, and it is the learner who has to do the job of learning. We can only act as facilitators in the process. Just as we can bring the horse to water but cannot force it to drink, we can present the language to the learner but cannot compel him to learn, unless he is able and motivated to do so. Perhaps we should learn to have more faith in the learner and thereby encourage his own responsibility for learning.

Interesting thoughts are offered by Stevick (1980) about the teacher's role as a facilitator of the learner's growth. If the learner is to become an autonomous and self-confident language user, the responsibility for learning should be shifted to him gradually, but not prematurely. It is a

question of a delicate balance between control and freedom: too much control will stifle the learner's initiative just as too much freedom will make him frustrated and anxious. Growth requires space. It is important that the learner should also experience the teacher as a secure, genuine fellow human being who is interested in his progress:

If we, in our zeal to be "humanistic", become too "learner-centered" with regard to "control", we undermine the learner's most basic need, which is for security. ... In a task-oriented group like a language class, the student's place is at the center of a space which the teacher has structured, with room left for him to grow into. In this kind of relationship, there are two essentials for the teacher: faith that the student will in fact grow into that space, and understanding of where the student is in that space at any given moment (1980:33).

Such views emphasize the significance of the teacher's own personality in instruction and his ability to establish and maintain human contact with a large number of different, developing learner personalities. But this should not be taken to mean that the teacher should be any kind of "superman" or "superwoman". Few people in any field are. It would rather mean a reasonably balanced view of oneself, and a willingness to be open to new possibilities.

The importance of security in human contacts has also been emphasized by Dr. Vikström, the present Finnish Archbishop (1982). He points out that a person who feels secure can afford to be generous to others because he does not have to watch his own interests all the time. An element in the learner's security is the existence of clear and accepted rules of conduct in the school, i.e. of what is expected from members of the school community. A further element of security is acceptance and appreciation by the others. Such attitude will support a positive development of learner's self-concept and self-confidence.

Similar views have been offered by Rogers, a representative of humanistic psychology, who discusses the teacher's role as a facilitator of student learning. He suggests the following attitudes as conducive to better learning (1967/1975:17-18):

- genuineness of teacher personality, being able to meet the learner on a person-to-person basis
- acceptance of the learner as having worth in his own right, and a basic trust in the other person
- empathetic understanding of the other person, thus creating a facilitating classroom atmosphere that releases learner potential.

For Rogers, a teacher who has internalized such attitudes is a "real person" who can bring about significant learning in the class.

The teacher's role from the learner's point of view has been discussed by Altman (1981). He suggests a number of properties that a "real second

language teacher" might possess in the learner's opinion. Thus, a real second language teacher,

- is on my side
- lets me be me and tries to understand what it's like to be me
- accepts me whether he or she likes me or not
- does not have expectations of me because of what I've been or he or she has been
- is more interested in how I learn than what I learn
- does not make me feel anxious and afraid
- provides many choices
- lets me teach myself even if it takes longer
- talks so I can understand what he or she means to say
- can make mistakes and admit it
- can show his or her feelings and let me show mine
- wants me to evaluate my own work.

In view of the teacher's educational responsibility, Altman points out that the priority of our roles in the classroom is first, a human being, second, a teacher, and only third, a teacher of languages. It is perhaps worth noting that even though we are "language" teachers we are not teaching the language, but the learner to use that language.

Learner-centered instruction is thus also teacher-managed instruction: it is the teacher who develops a learner-centered classroom. It is a question of our attitudes and professional skill how we focus on the learner. Deepening one's professional understanding of the work is always a slow process. We can adopt new ideas and techniques only to the extent that we have internalized them as part of our value system. Knowledge is necessary, but not enough; what is also needed is an attitudinal acceptance of the innovation by way of realizing its importance and possibilities for me in my own situation. There is thus a natural lag in any innovations. But it depends on me how long that lag will remain in my case. Nobody is too old to learn new ideas and change attitudes accordingly if he wants to. Growth requires courage, but courage will also breed confidence that enables further growth.¹

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Appendix 1. Graded Tests (1,3,4) for heterogeneous groups in English.

Kaukajärvi Comprehensive School, Tampere
Pikkola Comprehensive School, Kangasala
9th Form, Summative Test in English
October 1982

TEST 1. Vocabulary.

Fill in, from the box below, suitable missing words for the English text.
The box contains more words than necessary.

School has started again. The 5th (1/1) _____ (luokka)
of Brompton Comprehensive meets after summer. (2/2) _____
(aikana) the summer most of the pupils have had a summer job.
Emma's summer has been absolutely (3/3) _____
(loistava). She told Tim had an accident. He is learning to
walk with (4/4) _____ (kainalosauvoilla). He'll
(5/5) _____ (todennäköisesti) come to school
next week. Tom says Tim will always (6/6) _____ (ontua)
slightly. Liz told her uncle has an (7/7) _____ (maja-
talo) in Florida. There are also boats (8/8) _____
(vuokrattavana) and they have a lot of foreign (9/9) _____
(asiakkaita). Emma and John think they will (10/10) _____
(nauttia) this year because it is the last one at B.C.

	0
1)	1
2)	
3)	
4)	
5)	
6)	
7)	
8)	
9)	
10)	

relax/ twice/ for hire/ ice rink/ case/ person/ enjoy/ form/
pretty/ medium/ pupils/ garment/ realize/ material/ great/
wool/ bleach/ compare/ customers/ terrific/ sandal/ limp/
pineapple/ crutches/ kipper/ shelf/ fibre/ inn/ never/ probably/
without/ till/ inch/ during/ rack/ bolt/ course

Fill in suitable English words according to the cue in Finnish.

This year Brompton pupils try to learn to have a healthy
breakfast. Tom eats fresh fruit, (11/11) _____ (pekonia)
some (12/12) _____ (viljatuotteita), juice and (13/13) _____
(puuroa). He says it (14/14) _____ (sisältää)
enough calories. Emma says she can eat a lot in the morning
but not in the evening because she has to watch her
(15/15) _____ (paino). She likes (16/16) _____
(kirsikkapiiraasta) very much but she mustn't eat it.

	0
11)	1
12)	
13)	
14)	
15)	
16)	

In the following text, some words have been left out. Fill in words that you think are sensible in the context:

A year ago Andrew had to (17/17) _____ a difficult operation. He had to lie in bed for quite a long time. The illness left him slightly lame. To be quite honest he didn't much care for sports and games before. But now things have (18/18) _____. He takes as much exercise (19/19) _____. He has to. What, then, can a handicapped person do to keep fit? A lot. He plays table tennis, for instance. What he (20/20) _____, however, is swimming.

	0	1
17)		1
18)		
19)		
20)		

Test 3. "At the Restaurant": complete the following dialogue:

waiter: Good evening. (1/31) _____
 Mitä haluaisitte (what would you like?)
 Jean: (2/32) _____
 Voisinko nähdä ruokalistan (could I see the menu, please?)
 Thank you. (3/33) _____
 Haluaisin kahvia ja kakkua (I'd like to have coffee and some cake)
 Jack: (4/34) _____
 Samaa minulle (the same for me, please)
 waiter: Here you are. Have a nice evening.

	0	1
1)		2
2)		
3)		
4)		

"At the Shop": Fill in suitable utterances in the following dialogue.

- Your mother has bought you a blouse, but you don't like its colour.

You go to the shop to change it. You have the receipt with you.

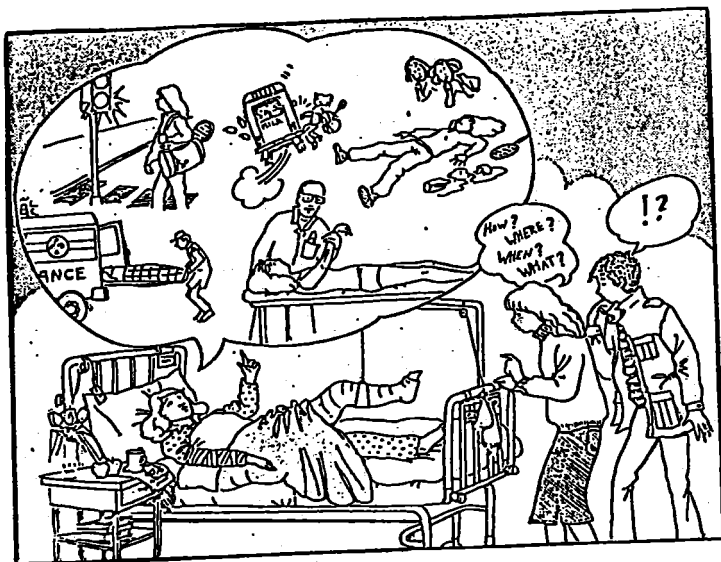
assistant: (5/35) _____
 you: Yes, I got this pullover as a present but (6/36) _____

 and (7/37) _____
 assistant: (8/38) _____
 (Myyjä kysyy kuittia) (assistant asks for receipt)
 you: Oh yes, here it is.
 assistant: That's fine. (9/39) _____
 you: 36.

	0	1
5)		2
6)		
7)		
8)		
9)		

Test 4. "The Accident"

You have been in an accident and lie in bed as a patient. Your friend has come to see you. Tell her about the accident so that you answer the questions in the bulb: 1)where, 2)when, 3)how, 4)what happened?



- (1/40) _____
- (2/41) _____
- (3/42) _____
- (4/43) _____

	0	1
1)		
2)		
3)		
4)		

"communicative bonus"

(5/44) score:	0	1	2	3
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Appendix 2. Results of statistical analysis of tests.

N = 473 (9th form, Finnish Comprehensive School, age 15 years, 7th year of English)

Tests: 1= vocabulary; 2= grammar: passive constructions, 3= dialogue completion,
4= written production: telling a story, 5= listening comprehension (open questions), 6= reading comprehension (open questions)

7= whole test battery (tests 1-6)

CORR. = item correlation
F.V. = facility value
(solution percentage)

ITEM ANALYSIS

TEST 1 (N = 473)

	CORR.	F.V.(%)
1/ 1	0.53	86.26
2/ 2	0.70	76.11
3/ 3	0.50	87.53
4/ 4	0.63	83.72
5/ 5	0.62	80.34
6/ 6	0.55	89.22
7/ 7	0.66	61.10
8/ 8	0.69	75.05
9/ 9	0.74	69.13
10/ 10	0.53	88.37
11/ 11	0.26	90.70
12/ 12	0.54	40.17
13/ 13	0.65	67.23
14/ 14	0.67	43.13
15/ 15	0.65	41.23
16/ 16	0.64	60.89
17/ 17	0.59	36.15
18/ 18	0.51	30.23
19/ 19	0.70	46.72
20/ 20	0.68	67.86
MEAN	0.60	66.06
S	0.11	19.54

TEST 3 (N = 473)

1/ 31	0.65	88.37
2/ 32	0.62	84.78
3/ 33	0.53	80.23
4/ 34	0.57	76.85
5/ 35	0.60	84.88
6/ 36	0.68	69.34
7/ 37	0.65	61.95
8/ 38	0.72	80.66
9/ 39	0.54	70.40

MEAN 0.62 77.50
S 0.06 8.18

TEST 4 (N = 473)

1/ 40	0.64	63.21
2/ 41	0.64	65.33
3/ 42	0.70	58.14
4/ 43	0.69	62.16
5/ 44	0.64	25.44

MEAN 0.66 54.86
S 0.03 14.89

TEST PROPERTIES

TEST	ITEMS	MEAN	S	RELIABILITY
1	20	13.211	5.612	0.928
2	10	8.497	4.676	0.889
3	9	13.949	4.426	0.873
4	5	3.252	2.371	0.812
5	10	14.144	4.471	0.833
6	10	11.886	5.565	0.879
7		64.939	24.816	0.975