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TO THE READER

This number of FINLANCE reflects the various trends that exist in the field of adult language teaching in Finland. Most of the authors are or have been working in Jyväskylä - this collection could thus be characterised as the Jyväskylä approach to language teaching and language learning.

Most of the articles report on different teaching practices and experiments: Merja Niemi and Tuija Nikko on the coordination of Finnish and Swedish communication studies; Aino Sallinen-Kuparinen on the teaching of speech communication with the aid of a computer laboratory. A more theoretical approach to teaching is shown in the articles by Matti Leiwo and Minna-Riitta Pöyhönen, Sirkka Laihiala-Kankainen, and Rolf Palmberg. An essential part of language teaching is language testing. Ari Huhta reports on the trial run of a proficiency test in the communicative use of English.

Other contributions focus on slightly different aspects of language teaching and language learning. Hartmut Schröder discusses German for specific purposes in Scandinavia, Ullrich Zeuner deals with the problems of speech styles, and Liisa Löfman reports on an in-service teacher education programme for language centre teachers.

Tampere 15.2.1988

Liisa Löfman

SISÄLTÖ

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SUJUVASTI SUOMEA JA RUOTSIA - RAPORTTI PUHEVIESTINNÄN JA RUOTSIN KOORDINOIDUSTA OPETTAMISESTA KIELIKESKUKSESSA

"Henkilökohtaisesti toivon vain selviäväni hengissä." "Haluan lisää esiintymisvarmuutta ja keinoja ilmaisun selkiyttämiseksi molemmilla kotimaisilla."
(Opiskelijoiden toiveita kokeilun alkaessa.)

1. JOHDANTO

Korkeakoulututkintojen yleisopintoihin sisältyville viestintä- ja kieliopinnoille on asetettu korkeat tavoitteet ja niiltä odotetaan paljon. Tämä on luonnollista, kun ottaa huomioon ihmisten välisen kanssakäymisen merkityksen kaikilla yhteiskunnan aloilla.

Kielikeskusjärjestelmä tarjoaa erinomaiset edellytykset äidinkielen ja vieraiden kielten kommunikaatiotaitojen harjaannuttamiseen. Mahdollisuudet tavoitteiden saavuttamiseen ovat kuitenkin rajalliset, muodostavathan nämä tärkeät opinnot vain pienen osan korkeakouluopintojen kokonaismäärästä. Koska opetuksen tuntimäärien lisääntyminen ei liene realistinen toive, on kielikeskusopetuksen kehittämisen kannalta ensiarvoisen tärkeää, että pienet tuntimäärät kyetään käyttämään hyväksi mahdollisimman tarkoituksenmukaisesti.

Kielikeskusten järjestämät opinnot muodostuvat muiden korkeakouluopintojen tavoin useista erillisistä osista. Edes saman kielen opetuksessa eri osa-alueet eivät aina muodosta kokonaisuutta vaan esim. äidinkielen puhe- ja kirjoitusviestintää tai englannin tekstin ymmärtämistä ja suullista kielitaitoa opetetaan yleensä erikseen, puhumattakaan siitä, että yhteensä noin kymmenen opintoviikon viestintä- ja kieliopinnot muodostaisivat viestintätaitojen kehittymisen kannalta johdonmukaisen kokonaisuuden. Kurssien hajanaisuutta voitaisiin mielestämme korjata opetuksen tavoitteita täsmentämällä ja opettajien yhteistyötä lisäämällä.

Korkeakoulujen kielikeskuksessa alettiin syksyllä 1985 suunnitella opetuskokeilua, jossa puheviestinnän ja vieraan kielen kurssit suunniteltiin siten, että ne muodostaisivat mielekkään kokonaisuuden sekä viestintätaitojen että kielitaidon kehittymisen kannalta. Vaikka tavoitteen tasolla ei tehtykään eroa äidinkielen ja vieraan kielen viestintätaidon välillä, tämä ei tarkoittanut sitä, että opetussisällöt olisivat olleet täsmälleen samat. Äidinkielen harjoittelussa kiinnitettiin päähuomio puheviestintätaitoihin ja niiden kehittämiseen. Vieraan kielen harjoituksissa vahvistettiin äidinkielen harjoituksissa käsiteltyjä taitoja, mutta harjoittelun varsinaisena kohteena olivat vieraan kielen ilmaisukeinot.

Tällainen opetuksen koordinointi edellyttää opettajilta paitsi tiivistä yhteistyötä, myös yhteistä näkemystä viestinnän ja viestintätaidon merkityksestä. Opetuskokeilua pidettiin parhaana tapana selvittää, miten viestintäopintojen koordinointia voitaisiin toteuttaa käytännön kielikeskusopetuksessa. Ensimmäiseksi päätettiin kokeilla äidinkielen puheviestinnän ja ruotsin kielen suullisen kielitaidon opintojen koordinoitua opettamista. Arveltiin, että sekä puhe- että kirjoitusviestinnän sisällyttäminen kokeiluun olisi ainakin alkuvaiheessa liian laaja tehtävä. Koordinoimista ruotsin opintojen kanssa perusteltiin sillä, että on hyvä aloittaa mahdollisimman lähellä toisiaan olevista puhekulttuureista. Lisäksi sitä perusteltiin sillä, että ruotsin kielikeskusopetuksen ja arvioinnin yhtenäistämiseksi on tehty melko paljon sellaista, mikä saattaisi olla hyödyksi puheviestinnän kurssin suunnittelussa.

Esittelemme tässä raportissa opetuskokeilun suunnittelun ja toteutuksen pääkohtia. Toivomme, että raportin pohjalta syntyy keskustelua kielikeskusopetuksen olennaisista piirteistä, että se innostaisi vastaavanlaisten pienimuotoisten kokeilujen järjestämiseen kielikeskuksissa ja että sitä voitaisiin myös mahdollisesti hyödyntää opetuskokeiluissa.

2. KIELIKESKUSOPINTOJEN VIRALLISET TAVOITTEET

Korkeakoulututkintojen edellyttämät kielitaitovaatimukset määrätään kunkin alan tutkintoasetuksessa. Eri alojen asetukset ovat sekä sisällöltään että sanamuodoltaan hyvin toistensa kaltaisia. Tiivistäen voidaan sanoa, että yleisopintoihin sisältyvien kieliopintojen tavoitteena on antaa opiskelijalle sellainen kotimaisten kielten ja ainakin yhden vieraan kielen suullinen ja kirjallinen taito, joka tyydyttää opiskelun, työelämän ja kansainvälisen kanssakäymisen tarpeet. Seuraavassa esimerkkinä asetus yhteiskuntatieteellisistä tutkinnoista (22.12.1978/1082):

> 11 §
>
> Yleisopintoihin sisältyvissä kieliopinnoissa opiskelijan tulee saavuttaa:
>
> 1) sellainen suomen ja ruotsin kielen taito, joka vastaa valtion virkamiehiltä vaadittavasta kielitaidosta annetun lain (149/22) nojalla kaksikielisellä virka-alueella toimivalta, korkeakoulututkinnon suorittaneelta valtion virkamieheltä vaadittavaa kielitaitoa ja joka opiskelun, oman alan seuraamisen ja ammatillisen kehityksen kannalta on tarpeellinen; sekä
> 2) sellainen yhden tai kahden vieraan kielen luetun tekstin ymmärtämistaito ja yhden vieraan kielen suullinen taito, joka opiskelun, oman alan seuraamisen ja ammatillisen kehityksen kannalta on tarpeellinen. (Ks. tarkemmin kielikeskusopetuksen virallisista tavoitteista Korpimies, Valtanen & Vaherva 1983,6.)

Kieliopinnoista annetaan tarkemmat määräykset tutkintosäännöissä. Esimerkiksi Jyväskylän yliopiston yhteiskuntatieteellisen koulutusalan tutkintosääntö (ks. Opinto-opas 1985-1986 ja 1986-1987) täsmentää kieliopintoja koskevaa asetusta kotimaisten kielten osalta seuraavasti:

> 8 §
>
> Yleisopintoihin kuuluvien äidinkielen ja muiden kielten opintojen laajuus on 9-12 opintoviikkoa.
>
> 9 §
>
> Kotimaisten kielten opinnoissa opiskelijan tulee osoittaa omaavansa vähintään sellainen suomen ja ruotsin kielen taito, joka vastaa valtion virkamieheltä vaadittavasta kielitaidosta annetun lain (149/22) nojalla kaksikielisellä virka-alueella toimivalta korkeakoulututkinnon suorittaneelta valtion virkamieheltä vaadittavaa kielitaitoa ja joka ammatin harjoittamisen ja ammatillisen kehityksen kannalta on tarpeellinen.

Opiskelijan on saavutettava täydellinen äidinkielen kirjallinen ja suullinen taito. Opiskelijan on lisäksi osoitettava sellainen toisen kotimaisen kielen taito, että hän ymmärtää ammattialaansa koskevaa puhetta ja kirjoitusta sekä osaa käyttää tätä kieltä ammatillisissa puhetilanteissa ja pystyy sanakirjaa apunaan käyttäen laatimaan ammattialaltaan kirjallisia esityksiä.

Tutkintojen edellyttämän kielitaidon opettamisesta huolehtivat yliopistojen kielikeskukset. Tiedekunnat sopivat yhdessä kielikeskuksen kanssa kutakin koulutusalaa koskevien kieliopintojen yksityiskohtaisemmista tavoitteista, laajuudesta ja ajankohdasta. Esimerkiksi Jyväskylän yliopiston yhteiskuntatieteellisen koulutusalan edellyttämät äidinkielen kirjallisen ja suullisen viestinnän opinnot ovat laajuudeltaan kaksi opintoviikkoa. Tavoitteena on kirjallisen viestinnän osalta "viestinnän perusteiden omaksuminen sekä käytännön valmiudet tieteellisten raporttien laadintaan". Puheviestinnän opintojen tavoitteena on, että opiskelija "ymmärtää puheviestintätapahtumaa ja siihen vaikuttavia tekijöitä ja pystyy toimimaan tarkoituksenmukaisesti erityisesti yliopisto-opintojen ja työelämän edellyttämissä puhetilanteissa". Sekä kirjallisen viestinnän että puheviestinnän opetus koostuu 12 tunnin luentosarjasta ja 20 tunnin demonstraatioista.

Ruotsin opintojen laajuus on Jyväskylän yliopiston yhteiskuntatieteellisellä koulutusalalla kolme opintoviikkoa ja opintojen tavoite määritellään opinto-oppaassa seuraavasti: "Opiskelijalla on opintojakson suoritettuaan kyky ymmärtää ammattia koskevaa puhetta ja kirjoitusta, kyky käyttää ruotsin kieltä ammatillisissa puhetilanteissa, kyky laatia sanakirjaa apuna käyttäen ammattiin liittyviä kirjallisia esityksiä." Opetusmuotoina ovat opettajan johtamat harjoitukset, jotka koostuvat puheharjoituksista (27 t), kirjoitusharjoituksista (24 t) ja tekstiharjoituksista (25 t) sekä itseopiskelu.

3. KIELEN JA VIESTINNÄN OPETUKSEN LÄHTÖKOHTIA

Kielikeskusopetukselle ei ole määritelty asetustekstien tavoitelausumien pohjalta yhteisiä, yksityiskohtaisempia tavoitteita, vaan kukin kielikeskus on kehittänyt omat tavoitelausumansa, jotka ovat hyvinkin erilaisia. Kielikeskusopetuksen kannalta olisi kuitenkin ensiarvoisen tärkeää, että opetuksen tavoitteet määriteltäisiin täsmällisesti. (Korpimies, Valtanen & Vaherva 1983, 7, 90)

Kielikeskusopetus, kuten lähes kaikki kielenopetus viime vuosikymmeneltä alkaen, on ns. kommunikatiivista kielenopetusta, jossa kieli nähdään ennen kaikkea kommunikaatiovälineenä. Ratkaisevaa taustalla olevan teorian kehittymiselle on ollut, että on hylätty näkemys ihanteellisesta kielen puhujasta ja kuuntelijasta ja kohdistettu huomio todelliseen puhujaan ja kuulijaan sosiaalisessa interaktiossa. Uusi näkemys kielestä vaikutti kielenopetukseen ennen kaikkea siten, että opetuksen tavoitteita ei opetussuunnitelmissa enää esitetty kieliopin termein, vaan tavoiteltavana päätekäyttäytymisenä. Esimerkkejä tällaisista opetussuunnitelmista ovat tilanteisiin, aihepiireihin ja kielellisiin funktioihin perustuvat opetussuunnitelmat.

Varsinkin erityisalojen kielenopetuksessa on perinteisesti pyritty kartoittamaan ennen opetuksen alkua yksityiskohtaisten tarveanalyysien pohjalta ne kielenkäyttötilanteet, joissa kielenoppija saattaa joutua tulevaisuudessa käyttämään kieltä (ks. esim. Munby 1978). Tämän jälkeen tehdään yksityiskohtaiset analyysit syntyperäisten puhujien vastaavissa tilanteissa käyttämästä kielestä ja analyysin tulokset asetetaan sellaisenaan opetuksen tavoitteeksi. Myös kielikeskusopintojen tavoitteena oleva kotimaisten kielten taito määritellään yleensä valmiudeksi toimia erilaisissa ammatin ja opintojen edellyttämissä puhetilanteissa.

Kielenopetuksen tavoitteenasettelussa keskeisiä ongelmia on, että kieli ei ole sisältöaine siinä mielessä kuin esimerkiksi historia. Kieli on dynaaminen eikä staattinen ilmiö. Tästä seuraa Brumfitin (1984, 29) mukaan, että kielitaitoa ei voi täsmällisesti määritellä: "we shall never, in principle, be able to specify what it is to know a particular language except in terms of general capacities to enter into negotiation with users of that language." Jotta opetuksen tavoitteet voitaisiin määritellä, halutaan kielestä kuitenkin samanlainen sisältökuvaus kuin muistakin aineista ja tällöin joudutaan turvautumaan keinotekoisiin tulkintoihin, kuten kielen rakenteeseen, aihepiireihin tai kielenkäyttötilanteisiin. (Brumfit 1984)

Sekä äidinkielen puhekasvatuksessa (ks. tarkemmin Valo 1986; Sallinen-Kuparinen 1986a) että vieraan kielen opetuksessa on pitkään vallinnut luonnollisuuden, todenmukaisuuden ja eheyden vaatimus. Widdowsonin (1983, 30) mukaan tämä kielenopetusta rasittanut harhakäsitys on johtunut oletuksesta, että kun kieltä opetetaan viestintätarkoituksiin (*for* communication), sen on tapahduttava viestinnän muodossa (*as* communication). Näin tehtäessä sotketaan Widdowsonin (1983, 20) mukaan kaksi eri tavoitetta: toisaalta se, mihin kielenoppija tulee tarvitsemaan kieltä ('aims') ja toisaalta se, mitä kielenoppijan on tehtävä, jotta hän saavuttaisi tarvitsemansa kielitaidon ('objectives'). Jälkimmäinen, opetuksen tavoite, jätetään usein määrittelemättä ja silloin käy yleensä niin, että edellinen, yleisiin päämääriin viittaava tavoite, otetaan sellaisenaan opetuksen tavoitteeksi.

Tuleviin kielenkäyttötarpeisiin perustuvat tavoitelausumat soveltuvat hyvin kieliopintojen yleistavoitteeksi tai hallinnolliseksi tavoitteeksi (Brumfit 1984, 93), mutta opetuksen tavoitteeksi ne ovat liian epämääräisiä. Tuleviin tarpeisiin perustuvan analyysin pohjalta saadaan kyllä hyvä kuvaus siitä, mitä olisi opittava, mutta siinä ei oteta lainkaan huomioon sitä, miten oppiminen ja opetus tapahtuvat. Widdowsonin (1983, 83) mielestä tarvitaan erikseen opetuksen tavoitteet, jotka hänen mukaansa liittyvät nimenomaan oppimisprosessiin: "When objectives are not a direct reflex of aims, that is to say when the learning product is not exactly specifiable, then they have to be defined in such a way as to develop a *process* in the learner *towards* his eventual aim." Näiden tavoitteiden olisi perustuttava oppimisprosessia koskevaan kuvaukseen, ei kuvaukseen opittavasta tuotoksesta ('product'). (Widdowson 1983)

Epäselvyys opetuksen tavoitteista on usein johtanut siihen, että opetuksen suunnittelu alkaa mielekkäältä tuntuvan tekemisen valinnasta. Yritetään löytää tunnille esim. mukaansatempaava keskustelunaihe tai ennustetun tulevan ammatin tyypillinen puhetilanne sen sijaan, että asetettaisiin oppimiselle tavoitteita. Opiskeluajan tai tulevan työelämän puhetilanteista lähtevä kurssisuunnittelu saattaa johtaa siihen, että lavastetaan oppitunnille seminaari-istunto, professorin vastaanotolla käynti, opiskelutovereiden kanssa keskusteleminen, työpaikkahaastattelu ja esitelmänpitotilaisuus. Näissä tilanteissa sitten ollaan, niistä keskustellaan jälkeenpäin ja annetaan palautetta siitä, miten niissä olisi voinut toimia paremmin. (Lehtonen, Valokorpi & Niemi 1981)

Tilanteet koetaan usein esiintymistilanteiksi, koska toiset opiskelijat (tai video) seuraavat niitä. Parhaassa tapauksessa opiskelija saakin hyvää ja tarpeellista esiintymiskokemusta, jota suomalaiselta nuorelta aikuiselta on todettu puuttuvan (ks. Sallinen-Kuparinen 1986b). Hän aktivoituu lisäksi huomaamaan tilanteissa vaikuttavia tekijöitä ja saa palautetta siitä, mihin hänen pitäisi kiinnittää huomiota vastaavissa "oikeissa" tilanteissa. Tehottomimmillaan tämäntapainen opetus on irrallisten tilanteiden turhauttavaa ja pakonomaista läpikäymistä. Opiskelijalle osoitetaan, mikä meni huonosti, mutta mahdollisuutta uusintakokeiluun ja vaihtoehtoisiin menettelytapoihin ei ole. Opetus saattaa tuottaa pahimmillaan lähinnä vain epäonnistumisen kokemuksia. Opiskelu ei motivoi, koska tilanteet voidaan kokea luonnottomiksi, eikä niillä nähdä olevan mitään yhteyttä kurssin ulkopuoliseen maailmaan. Opettaja ehkä kyllästyy jatkuviin luonnollisuusvaatimuksiin, koska hän nimenomaan tavoitteli "elävän elämän" puhetilanteita.

Edellä kuvatun, lähinnä behavioristiseen oppimisteoriaan perustuvan tilannepohjaisen opetuksen seurauksena kielenoppija on ensisijaisesti kompetentti vain sellaisissa tilanteissa, joita kurssilla on harjoiteltu (ks. esim. Faerchin & Kasper 1984:xix). Tavoitteen saavuttamiseksi olisi kyettävä ennakoimaan kaikki ne tilanteet, joissa kielenoppija joutuu tulevaisuudessa kieltä käyttämään tai kaikki ne aiheet, joista hän saattaa joutua keskustelemaan. Tällainen tehtävä on tietysti käytännössä mahdoton eikä vastaa tämänhetkisiä käsityksiä oppimisesta.

Behaviorismista poikkeavia käsityksiä oppimisesta on esitetty mm. kognitiivisen psykologian ja psykologisen toiminnan teorian piirissä (ks. tarkemmin esim. Engeström 1984; Laihiala-Kankainen 1987). Oppiminen nähdään näissä suuntauksissa aktiivisena, tavoitteellisena ja tietoisena toimintana. Opettajan tehtävä on auttaa oppilasta hahmottamaan oppiaines sisäisiksi malleiksi ja soveltamaan niitä vaihtuvissa tilanteissa.

Sosiaalis-kognitiiviset valmiudet, jollaisia sekä puheviestintätaito että kielitaito ovat, hahmotetaan näiden teorioiden pohjalta joukoksi tottumuksia tai taitoja, joiden hyvään hallintaan oppija pyrkii. Oppiminen nähdään useita vaiheita sisältäväksi prosessiksi, jonka aikana oppija muodostaa omien kokemustensa perusteella erilaisia hypoteeseja ja testaa niitä. Esim. kielenoppiminen ajatellaan prosessiksi, jonka aikana oppija keksii kielestä erilaisia pragmaattisia, semanttisia, syntaktisia ja fonologisia sääntöjä ja omaksuu ne vähitellen (ks. esim. Faerch & Kasper 1984, 53).

Kaikenlainen taitava toiminta, oli kyse sitten syvänmeren sukeltamisesta, tietokoneen käytöstä, vieraan kielen puhumisesta tai päätöksenteosta, edellyttää suuntautumista, orientoitumista, toiminnan suunnittelua, ratkaisujen tekemistä ja suorituksen jatkuvaa kontrollointia. Taitojen oppimisessa on kyse toisaalta tarkoituksenmukaisen tietovaraston luomisesta, toisaalta sellaisten soveltamis- ja yleistämistaitojen kehittämisestä, että pystyy toimimaan tuloksellisesti tiedon ohjaamana (ks. tarkemmin Vaherva & Ekola 1986, 164-169). Taidon harjoittelu vaatii yleensä alkuvaiheessa runsasta tiedostamista ja paljon energiaa oppijalta, mutta työlään alkuvaiheen jälkeen suoritus nopeutuu ja lopullisena tavoitteena on taidon muuttuminen automaattiseksi. Tässä vaiheessa tekemisen tiedostamista ei enää tapahdu, vaan esim. kokouksen avaaminen tai tien neuvominen vieraalla kielellä tapahtuu kuin itsestään.

Edellä esitetystä ei pidä tehdä sellaista johtopäätöstä, että tulevat kielenkäyttötilanteet olisivat esimerkiksi kielikeskusopetuksen kannalta merkityksettömiä. Vaikka tilanteet sellaisinaan eivät muodostakaan opetuksen tavoitetta, ne ovat hyvin tärkeitä sikäli, että ne tarjoavat erinomaiset puitteet viestintätaitojen monipuoliselle harjoittelemiselle ja niiden saattamiselle automaattisiksi. Taitojen harjoittelemisen kannalta ei ole niinkään merkityksellistä, mitä nämä tilanteet ovat, sillä eri tilanteiden edellyttämät viestintätaidot ovat hyvin samankaltaisia (Valo 1986). Aivan sama koskee keskusteluharjoitusten aihepiirejä. Oman alan työtilanteita simuloivat harjoitukset ja mielenkiintoiset keskustelunaiheet ovat kuitenkin erityisen tärkeitä opiskelijoiden motivaation kannalta, kunhan ne ovat sellaisia, joita he pitävät relevantteina.

4. PAREMMAT VIESTINTÄTAIDOT OPETUKSEN TAVOITTEENA

Puheviestintätaitoja on luokiteltu eri tavoin (ks. esim. Lehtonen 1986; Valo 1986; Valo & Niemi 1985). Perustana pidetään yleensä itsensä ilmaisemiseen ja ymmärretyksi saattamiseen tarvittavia kielellisiä ja ei-kielellisiä valmiuksia. Näihin sisältyvät esim. kielen sanaston ja rakenteiden hallinta ja kielellisen ilmaisun mukauttaminen eri tilanteiden vaatimuksiin (ns. kielen rekistereiden hallinta); äänenkäytön taidot: riittävän kuuluva puheääni, sopiva puhenopeus; eleiden, ilmeiden, asentojen ja tilankäytön hallinta.

Kommunikoijan on osattava myös suuntautua puhumistilanteisiin tarkoituksenmukaisesti. Oikean orientaation valitsemiseen hän tarvitsee tietoa mm. normistoltaan erilaisten puhetehtävien vaatimuksista (esim. haastattelijan rooliin liittyvät tehtävät; kokouksen puheenjohto). Puhumisen suunnittelu vaatii myös kykyä analysoida edessä olevaa tai juuri tapahtuvaa kommunikointia: mikä on oma tavoitteeni tilanteessa, mitä tavoitteita muilla on, mitä on otettava huomioon juuri näille keskustelukumppaneille puhuttaessa, ajankäyttö, paikan vaikutus jne. Taitava kommunikoija osaa esim. suhteuttaa puheenvuoronsa käytettävissä olevaan aikaan ja osanottajien määrään.

Oman taitoalueensa puheviestintäkompetenssista muodostavat erilaiset vuorovaikutukseen, kontaktin solmimiseen ja ylläpitoon liittyvät taidot (esim. keskustelun aloittaminen ja ylläpitäminen, omien mielipiteiden esittäminen järjestyneesti, tarvittaessa puhumisensa havainnollistaminen ja perusteleminen). Kommunikointi edellyttää tietysti myös vastaanottamista. Vastaanottamiseen liittyviä puheviestintätaitoja ovat mm. nonverbaalisen viestinnän havaitsemisen ja tulkitsemisen taidot sekä kuuntelemisen ja arvioinnin taidot (esim. osaa hahmottaa pääasiat, osaa erottaa mielipiteen tosiasiasta, huomaa, mistä näkökulmasta puhuja asiaa tarkastelee, osaa tehdä päätelmiä kuullusta, osaa arvioida kuullun luotettavuutta).

Puhekäyttäytymistä on mahdotonta opettaa oikein-väärin -sääntöinä, koska viestintä on useimmiten ennustamaton ja dynaaminen tapahtuma, jossa oikeita ja vääriä ratkaisuja ei ole - on vain erilaisia ratkaisuja. Erilaisten menettelyjen valinnasta seuraa tavallisesti erilaisia tuloksia. Hyvin keskeiseksi kommunikoinnin taidoksi muodostuu näin ollen taito arvioida oman puhekäyttäytymisen seurauksia. Tässä taidossa opettaja voi auttaa oppilaitaan paitsi järjestämällä systemaattista palautetta myös kertomalla inhimillisen käyttäytymisen tutkimuksissa löydetyistä lainalaisuuksista, esim. millaiset seikat aiheuttavat yleensä vastaanottajassa torjuntaa. Vieraan kielen opetuksen yhteydessä on tärkeää, että kerrotaan eri kielellisten tai toimintavaihtoehtojen mahdollisesti herättämistä reaktioista äidinkielisessä kuulijassa, jotta voidaan välttää esim. tahatonta epäkohteliaisuutta. Saamansa tiedon perusteella opiskelijan on mahdollista valita omaa viestintäpäämääräänsä paremmin palveleva menettelytapa. Puheviestintätaitojen koulutuksessa onkin viime vuosina korostettu mahdollisimman laajan toimintamallivalikoiman merkitystä (ks. esim. Greene 1984). Löytääkseen esim. neuvottelun ongelmatilanteessa etenemisvaihtoehtoja, neuvottelijalla on oltava "varastoa", mistä keinonsa valita. Keskeisenä tavoitteena sekä äidinkielen että vieraan kielen puheviestinnän opetuksessa voisi olla juuri tällaisten keinovarastojen kartuttaminen. Äidinkielen puheviestintäkoulutuksessa kyseeseen voisivat tulla esim. sellaiset keinot, joilla abstraktia asiaa voi konkretisoida; keinot, joilla puheenvuoron voi siirtää toiselle; keinot, joilla voi perustella väitettään, vaikuttaa ryhmän ilmapiiriin.

Äidinkielisessä viestinnässä ovat kielelliset taidot jo yleensä melko pitkälle automatisoituneet ja harjoittelussa voidaan keskittyä muiden taitojen kehittämiseen. Vieraan kielen opetuksessa taas joudutaan yleensä kiinnittämään melko paljon huomiota kielellisten keinovarastojen kartuttamiseen. Tarkoitus ei kuitenkaan ole tarjota oppilaille valmiita käyttäytymismalleja (poikkeuksena erilaiset rutinoituneet fraasit esim. kokouksessa tai puhelinkeskusteluissa), vaan kartuttaa heidän "keinovarastoaan" ja tehdä heidät myös tietoisiksi eri vaihtoehtojen eroista. Huomiota tulisi kiinnittää mm. eriävän mielipiteen ja negatiivisten tunteiden kohteliaaseen ilmaisemiseen. Kaikenkaikkiaan vieraan kielen puheviestintäopetuksen tavoitteena tulisi olla sellaisten keinojen tarjoaminen oppilaille, joiden avulla heillä olisi mahdollisuus tulla ymmärretyiksi tarkoittamallaan tavalla (ks. tarkemmin Thomas 1982).

Kun lähtökohtana on viestintätaitojen kehittäminen, voidaan opetukselle asettaa täsmälliset tavoitteet. Oppija tietää, mitä hän on tekemässä ja yleensä motivoituu. Arvioinnin kohteet asetetaan harjoituksen tavoitteiden mukaan ja arvioinnilla tähdätään ainoastaan ko. viestintätaitojen kehittämiseen. Taitoharjoittelun ei tarvitse muistuttaa luonnollista puhumista, se ei ole "todellisuuden matkimista", vaan selkeää ja systemaattista harjoittelua. Esimerkiksi perustelemisen taitoja voidaan mainiosti harjoitella järjestämällä väittelymuotoinen tilanne, mutta huomiota ei kiinnitetä "tilanteen aitouteen" vaan harjoituksen tavoitteena olleeseen perustelutapojen monipuoliseen hallintaan. Vieraan kielen opetuksen yhteydessä taas päähuomio kiinnitetään samojen perustelutapojen kielelliseen ilmaisemiseen kyseisellä kielellä ja niitä voidaan harjoitella esim. erilaisissa roolileikeissä. Sekä äidinkielen että vieraan kielen perustelutaitoja voidaan yhtä hyvin harjoitella muillakin tavoilla, esim. opiskelijalle voidaan antaa tehtäväksi analysoida tekstistä puhujan tai kirjoittajan esittämät väitteet ja tunnistaa tämän perustelutavat. Hänen tehtäväkseen voi myös tulla puheenvuoron käyttäminen esitettyä väitettä vastaan tai sen puolesta. Perustelemisen taidon kehittämiseen voidaan keksiä monia tapoja kulloisenkin kohderyhmän tarpeen mukaan.

Parhaimmillaan taitoharjoittelussa on jokaisella oppijalla mahdollisuus kehittyä: samoja tärkeitä taitoja valmennetaan erilaisten harjoitusten avulla oppijoiden yksilölliset tarpeet huomioon ottaen. Yleensä tavoitteisiin tähtääminen ja oman etenemisen tiedostaminen myös motivoi. Omien viestintätaitojen kehittäminen saattaa jatkua kurssin jälkeenkin.

5. PUHEVIESTINNÄN JA RUOTSIN OPETUSKOKEILU

5.1. Opetuskokeilun tavoitteet ja menetelmät

Kielikeskusopetuksen virallisista tavoitteista ilmenee, että äidinkielen viestintäopinnoilla ja vieraan kielen opinnoilla on paljon yhteisiä elementtejä. Kyseessä on molemmissa tapauksissa sekä lingvistisen että kommunikatiivisen kompetenssin opettaminen ja myös kohderyhmä on sama. Opetuksen tavoitteet eivät tietenkään voi olla täysin samat, koska tarpeet ovat niin erilaiset äidinkielessä ja vieraassa kielessä, mutta selvää on, että yhtäläisyyksiäkin on. Niitä ei kuitenkaan yleensä hyödynnetä opetuksessa, koska äidinkielen ja vieraiden kielten opetuksen ei katsota liittyvän toisiinsa. Tämä ei ole mikään kielikeskusopetuksen erityisongelma, vaan äidinkielen viestinnän ja erityisalojen vieraan kielen opetuksen vähäisiä yhteyksiä pidetään ongelmana myös muualla (ks. esim. Williams & al. 1984).

Tarkoituksenamme oli selvittää opetuskokeilun avulla, miten kielikeskusten puheviestinnän ja ruotsin kielen suullisen taidon opetus voitaisiin toteuttaa edellä esitettyjen ajatusten pohjalta. Opetus olisi suunniteltava siten, että siinä otettaisiin huomioon toisaalta viestintätaitojen kehittyminen kokonaisuutena, toisaalta oppiminen kognitiivisena prosessina.

Opetus tulisi järjestää koordinoidusti siten, että edellä kuvattuja keskeisiä viestintätaitoja harjoitellaan ensin äidinkielellä. Seuraavalle ruotsin tunnille valitaan harjoitus, jossa samojen taitojen hallintaa vahvistetaan, vaikka harjoituksen varsinaisena tavoitteena onkin vastaavien taitojen osoittaminen ruotsin kielellä. Esimerkiksi perustelemisen taitoa voidaan harjoitella siten, että puheviestinnän kurssilla kohdistetaan ensin huomio erilaisiin perustelutapoihin ja harjoitellaan mielipiteen perustelemista. Seuraavalla ruotsin tunnilla tehdään harjoituksia, joissa samoja taitoja sovelletaan ruotsinkielisissä viestintätilanteissa.

Harjoituksissa pyritään vaikeusasteen asteittaiseen kohottamiseen esim. siten, että äidinkielellä harjoitellaan päätöksentekoa yhdestä asiasta ennen laajempia neuvottelusimulaatioita. Ruotsin kielen käyttöön taas totutellaan erilaisten roolileikkien avulla, kuuntelemalla äänitteitä ja tekemällä funktioharjoituksia. Tällaisten valmentavien harjoitusten määrä ja luonne määräytyy lopullisesti opetuksen kuluessa, opetusryhmän tarpeiden mukaan.

Myös arvioinnissa pyritään edistämään oppimista. Koska oppijoilla on viestintätilanteissa mahdollisuus toimia monella eri tavalla, arviointia esitetään aina sellaisessa hengessä, että se edistäisi mielekkäiden menettelytapojen löytymistä. Arvioivat keskustelut ovat luonteeltaan pohdiskelevia, niissä punnitaan erilaisten toimintatapojen hyviä ja huonoja puolia. Opiskelijoita kannustetaan itseohjautuvaan arviointiin. Heitä ohjataan vertaamaan suorituksiaan tavoitteeseen ja omiin aikaisempiin suorituksiinsa, ei ryhmän muiden jäsenten suorituksiin, ja ottamaan tällä tavalla vastuuta omasta oppimisestaan. Sekä harjoitusten tavoitteet että niistä seuraavat arvioinnin kohteet ovat aina opiskelijoiden tiedossa. Tällä pyritään vahvasti tiedostettuun toimintaan harjoitusten aikana. Suuntautumista tiettyjen taitojen harjoittamiseen tuetaan kurssin alkupuolella laatimalla kirjalliset instruktiot ja käyttämällä arviointiin valmiita lomakkeita.

Opetuksen toteuttamista edellä kuvatulla tavalla selvitetään laatimalla yhteinen opetussuunnitelma kielikeskuksen puheviestinnän ja ruotsin kielen suullisen kielitaidon kursseille. Suunnitelmaa täsmennetään opetuskokeilun aikana ja siihen liittyviä kommentteja kirjataan. Koordinoinnin käytännön järjestelyjen onnistumisesta pidetään yksityiskohtaista päiväkirjaa ja niistä keskustellaan. Opiskelijoiden ja opettajien suhtautumista selvitetään samoin keskusteluissa ja päiväkirjamerkinnöin, opiskelijoiden suhtautumista lisäksi kyselylomakkeiden avulla.

5.2. Osanottajat ja kurssijärjestelyt

Opetuskokeilun kohderyhmäksi valittiin Jyväskylän yliopiston yhteiskuntatieteellisen tiedekunnan sosiaalialan opiskelijat. Kokeiluun ilmoittautui viisi opiskelijaa, joista kolme opiskeli yhteiskuntapolitiikan ja sosiaalityön, yksi lasten ja nuorten ohjauksen ja yksi sosiologian koulutusohjelmassa.

Opetuskokeiluun osallistuessaan opiskelijat suorittivat tiedekuntansa määräämät puheviestinnän ja ruotsin kielen suullisen kielitaidon opinnot. Opiskelijat kuuntelivat puheviestinnän perusteet -luentosarjan noin 100 muun yhteiskuntatieteellisen tiedekunnan opiskelijan kanssa. Ruotsin kielen kirjoitus- ja tekstiharjoitukset oli Jyväskylän yliopiston kielikeskuksessa noudatettavaa käytäntöä seuraten suoritettu aikaisemmin.

Äidinkielen ja ruotsin kielen kommunikaatioharjoittelua oli yhteensä 4-6 t viikossa. Kokeilun ajoitus ilmenee yksityiskohtaisemmin taulukosta 1.

TAULUKKO 1. Opetuskokeilun ajoitus

KURSSIN NIMI	TUNTIMÄÄRÄ	AJANKOHTA	VIIKONPÄIVÄ
puheviestinnän perusteet -luentosarja	12 t	10.-26.9.1985	tiistai ja torstai
puheviestinnän demonstraatiot	20 t	7.10.-10.12.1985	tiistai
ruotsin kielen puheharjoitukset	27 t	7.10.-10.12.1985	maanantai
yht.	59 t		

Suomen ja ruotsin kielellä tapahtuneet harjoitukset sijoitettiin eri viikonpäiville, joten yhden kokoontumiskerran aikana kommunikoitiin vain yhdellä kielellä. Poikkeuksena oli ensimmäinen kokoontumiskerta, jolloin kokeilu esiteltiin opiskelijoille ja kieli vaihtui opettajan mukaan.

Opetuskokeilun harjoitukset pidettiin Jyväskylän yliopiston viestintätieteiden laitoksen opetusstudiossa, jossa oli käytettävissä hyvätasoiset äänitys- ja kuvanauhoituslaitteet.

Ruotsin opetuksessa käytettiin valmiita kielikeskusmateriaaleja (May 1984; May 1985; Nikko et al 1983). Puheviestinnän opetukseen ei ollut valmista materiaalia, vaan opettaja laati sitä kurssin aikana.

Opettajina kokeilussa toimivat Eva May ja Tuija Nikko Korkeakoulujen kielikeskuksesta sekä Merja Niemi Jyväskylän yliopiston kielikeskuksesta.

5.3. Opetuksen eteneminen

Ennen opetuksen alkua sovittiin opetuksen keskeisistä tavoitteista ja suunniteltiin alustavasti, millaisia puhumisen ja kuuntelemisen taitoja kokeilussa harjoiteltaisiin. Pohdittiin sopivia harjoitustyyppejä, keskusteltiin arviointiperusteista ja sovittiin käytännön järjestelyistä.

Esitämme seuraavaksi opetuksen rungon siinä järjestyksessä kun opetus eteni. Opetusrungossa on eritelty tavoitteet, oppiainekset ja harjoitukset. Tavoitteista on mainittu lähinnä vain ns. psykomotoriset tavoitteet. Oppiainessarakkeessa on luetteloitu erityyppisiä asioita: luennon pääotsikoita, harjoituksia edeltäneiden tietoiskujen sisältöjä, luentoainesten kertauksia, tunnin teemoja ja aihealueita. Harjoitusten yksityiskohtainen selostaminen on tässä yhteydessä mahdotonta, niinpä on menetelty siten, että ruotsin harjoitusten kohdalla viitataan oppimateriaalien *Funktionsövningar* ja *Övningar i muntlig svenska* harjoituksiin. Äidinkielen puheviestinnän harjoituksia on vain tyypitelty tai luennehdittu parilla sanalla.

Opetusrunko on jaksoteltu (luennot 1-6, harjoitukset 1-10) 2-3 tunnin opetuskokonaisuuksien mukaan. Jaksonumerolla viitataan siihen, monesko kokoontumiskerta oli kyseessä.

LUENTOSARJA PUHEVIESTINNÄN PERUSTEISTA

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES
Opiskelija - tietää puheviestinnän kurssin tavoitteet, sisällöt ja opetusmenetelmät (1)	- kurssin esittely
- osaa määritellä, mitä puheviestintä on ja mitä ovat puheviestintätaidot	- puheviestinnän määritelmiä - puheviestintätaitojen merkitys - puheviestintätaitoluokituksia
- ymmärtää kielen, äänenkäytön ja sanattoman viestinnän merkityksen vuorovaikutuksessa (2)-(3)	- kielellisten valintojen merkitys sanoman perillemenoon - kielellisten valintojen merkitys - kielen rekisterit - kieli havainnollistamisen ja vaikuttamisen keinona - äänen piirteet - hyvän äänenkäytön kriteetit - nonverbaalin viestinnän määritelmä, osatekijät ja funktiot
- ymmärtää kuuntelemistaitojen merkityksen vuorovaikutuksessa (4)	- kuuntelemistottumukset - vastaanottamisen ja arvioimisen taidot - vastaanottoprosessin lainalaisuuksia
- perehtyy erilaisissa kommunikaatio tilanteissa vaikuttaviin tekijöihin ja ymmärtää, millaisia odotuksia ja käytänteitä erityyppisiin tilanteisiin liittyy (5)	- tapausesimerkkejä erilaisista puhetilanteista (esittely, alustus,koulutus, puhe, raportti, keskustelu, neuvottelu, väittely, kokous, haastattelu) ja niiden analysoimista seuraavien tekijöiden avulla: tavoitteet, kommunikaation muodot, normit, roolit, tilanteen eteneminen, odotukset ja käsitykset tarkoituksenmukaisesta toiminnasta tilanteessa, fyysinen ympäristö
- tietää, että puheviestintäkäyttäytymisessä on eroja eri kulttuurien välillä (6)	- suomalainen kommunikoijana - puheviestinnän piirteiden eroja eri kulttuureissa (suomalaisen, ruotsalaisen, japanilaisen, amerikkalaisen puhekulttuurin piirteitä)

PUHEVIESTINNÄN JA RUOTSIN HARJOITUKSET

PUHEVIESTINTÄ (1)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa hankkia tarkoituksenmukaisilla kysymyksillä tietoa haluamaltaan aihealueelta - tehdä päätelmiä kuullusta - esittää oman mielipiteen jäsentyneesti - esitellä henkilön ryhmälle myönteisesti ja lyhyesti - eritellä kielen, äänen ilmeiden, eleiden ja liikkeiden ominaisuuksia ja huomaa niiden merkityksen tilanteessa	- tutustuminen ja kurssiin virittäytyminen - kysymystekniikka: avoimet ja rajaavat kysymykset - aktiivisen kuuntelun asenne	- parin haastatteleminen opiskeluun henkilötaustaan ja liittyvistä asioista
	- puheenvuoron jäsentelymallit - esiintymistekniikka: ohjeita yleisön edessä puhumiseen	- parin esittely ryhmälle - tarkkailutehtäviä kuvanauhan katseluun omasta kielen- ja äänenkäytöstä ja sekä non-verb. viestinnästä

RUOTSI (1)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (1) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa	- tutustuminen - ruotsin kielen käyttöön totutteleminen - kysymysten esittäminen ja kysymyksiin vastaaminen - puheenvuoron valmistaminen ja pitäminen	- parin haastatteleminen opiskeluun ja henkilötaustaan liittyvistä asioista - parin esittely ryhmälle - oman esiintymisen arviointia kuvanauhaa katsomalla
Opiskelija tietää - miten ruotsin kielellä voidaan esitellä	- itsensä ja vieraan esittelemiseen liittyviä sanontoja	- funktioharjoitus 'Att motta en gäst'

PUHEVIESTINTÄ (2)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - havainnoida ryhmän toimintaa ja ryhmässä tapahtuvaa kommunikaatiota	- keskusteluun osallistumisen tavat (mielipiteen esittäminen ja kysyminen, yhteenvedon tekeminen jne.)	- erilaisia keskusteluja sisältävän kuvanauhakoosteen analysoiminen tarkkailutehtävien avulla
	- tuloksellisen keskustelun ominaispiirteitä (asiassa pysyminen, aktiivisuus, aiheen käsittelyn edistäminen, tasavertainen osallistuminen, avoin ilmapiiri jne.)	

RUOTSI (2)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (2) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa	- ruotsin kielen käyttöön ja kuuntelemiseen totutteleminen - mielipiteen ilmaiseminen ja muiden esittämien mielipiteiden kuunteleminen	- lyhyehkö ryhmäkeskusteluharjoitus 'Hur bra klarar du av stress?'
Opiskelija tietää - miten ruotsin kielellä voidaan ilmaista mielipidettä	- mielipiteen ilmaisemiseen ja muiden mielipiteiden tiedustelemiseen sanontoja	- funktioharjoitus 'Meningsutbyte del 1' - kuuntelemisen taitoja korostavan radio-ohjelman kuunteleminen ja keskusteleminen provokatiivisten väitteiden pohjalta

PUHEVIESTINTÄ (3)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - arvioida keskustelijoiden puheviestintätaitoja	- keskustelutilanteessa painottuvat puheviestintätaidot ja niiden ilmeneminen	- äänitetyn keskustelun arviointi keskustelijoiden taitojen kannalta - omien keskustelutaitojen arviointi
- kuunnella muiden keskustelijoiden puheenvuoroja ja tarkkailla keskustelun sisällön rakentumista - suhteuttaa omat puheenvuorot käytettävissä olevaan aikaan ja keskustelijoiden määrään - tehdä yhteenvetoja ja yhdistellä esitettyjä asioita - ottaa muiden keskustelijoiden näkökulma huomioon - ohjata keskustelua	- keskustelun koheesio - miten yhteistyötä voi edistää ryhmässä - keskustelun vetäjän tehtävät	- ryhmäkeskustelu

RUOTSI (3)

Opiskelija tietää, - miten ruotsin kielellä voidaan ilmaista mielipidettä	-'tycka', 'tänka', 'mena' -sanat mielidettä ilmaistaessa	- sanojen käyttöeroihin perehtyminen
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (1-3) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa	- ruotsin kielen käyttöön totutteleminen - mielipiteen ilmaiseminen ja muiden esittämien mielipiteiden huomioon ottaminen	- suullinen harjoitus 'Vilka artiklar representerar Finland av i dag?'
Opiskelija tietää, - miten ruotsin kielellä voidaan tiedustella kohteliaasti	- tiedustelemiseen liittyviä sanontoja	- funktioharjoitus 'Att visa omkring en gäst'

PUHEVIESTINTÄ (4)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - perustella oman mielipiteensä - kuunnella luotettavuutta ja vaikuttamisen keinoja arvioiden	- perustelutavat - suostuttelun keinot - luotettavuusvaikutelmaan vaikuttavat seikat kommunikaatiossa	- kuuntelutehtäviä ääninauhoitetuista väittelyistä - väittelyharjoituksia

RUOTSI (4)

Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (1-4) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa	- oman mielipiteen perusteleminen ja keskustelukumppanin mielipiteen huomioon ottaminen	- funktioharjoitus 'Meningsutbyte 2' - suullinen harjoitus 'Stress' - keskusteluharjoitus 'Hur skall pengarna användas?'

PUHEVIESTINTÄ (5)

Opiskelija osaa - eritellä neuvottelutilannetta - löytää erilaisia ratkaisumalleja erimielisyystilanteessa	- neuvottelun kohteen, osapuolten tavoitteiden ja strategioiden määritteleminen - neuvotteluun valmistautuminen - neuvottelutaktiikat	- konfliktiepisodien analysoimista ja ratkaisumallien kehittelyä (ryhmätyö kirjoitetun materiaalin pohjalta) - sopimuksentekoharjoituksia - neuvottelu-case

RUOTSI (5)

Opiskelija tietää, - miten ruotsin kielellä voidaan osoittaa epävarmuutta, epäilyä, vakuuttuneisuutta	- epävarmuuden, epäilyn ja vakuuttuneisuuden ilmaisemiseen liittyviä sanontoja	- funktioharjoitus 'Att uttrycka osäkerhet, tvivel, säkerhet och övertygelse' (delarna 1-2)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (1-5) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa	- mielipiteen voimakas ilmaiseminen ja perusteleminen - keskusteleminen	- suullinen harjoitus 'Egenskaper hos en god läkare' - keskustelu harjoituksen "Hur skall pengarna användas" onnistumisesta kuvanauhaa katsomalla

PUHEVIESTINTÄ (6)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa kokoustekniikkaa päätöksentekoon - johtaa puhetta kokouksessa - esittää perustellun ehdotuksen - arvioida toisten ehdotuksia	- kokouksen valmistelu - pj:n ja sihteerin tehtävät - kokouksen kulku - kokouspuheenvuorot - päätöksenteko kokouksessa	- kokousrutiinien kertaustehtäviä - simuloitu kokous

RUOTSI (6)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (1-5) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa	- mielipiteen perusteleminen ja keskustelukumppanin mielipiteiden huomioon ottaminen - kuunteleminen ja keskusteleminen	- kahdenkeskinen neuvottelusimulaatio 'Vilket råd skall vi ge?' - kotona kuunneltuun radio-ohjelmaan 'Tillväxt eller livskvalitet' liittyvien tehtävien läpikäyminen ja ohjelman sisällöstä keskusteleminen

PUHEVIESTINTÄ (7)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - havainnollistaa tieteellistä tekstiä	- havainnollistamisen verbaaliset keinot	- demonstrointiharjoituksia

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
- sopeuttaa puheensa muille kuin oman alan kuulijoille - analysoida kuulijakuntaa - puhua sujuvasti, tavoitteellisesti ja innostuneesti	- av-välineiden käyttö - kohderyhmäanalyysi - puhe-esityksen valmistelu - oman puheilmaisun kehittäminen	- oman alan tieteellisen artikkelin muokkaaminen puheesitykseksi ei-asiantuntijoille (kotitehtävänä) - alustus/esitelmä/raportti/puhe

RUOTSI (7)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija tietää, - millaisia fraaseja voidaan käyttää ruotsinkielisessä puhelinkeskustelussa - miten ruotsin kielellä voidaan kohteliaasti pyytää palvelusta, suostutella, kieltäytyä ja suostua	- puhelinkeskusteluissa käytettävää fraseologiaa - palveluksen pyytämiseen, suostutteluun, kieltäytymiseen ja suostumiseen liittyviä sanontoja	- funktioharjoitus 'Telefonsamtal' - puhelinkeskusteluharjoitus 'Förlåt jag uppfattade inte'
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (1-3) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa	- keskusteleminen	- suullinen harjoitus 'Vem vill du bjuda på middag?'

RUOTSI (8)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija tietää, - millaisia fraaseja voidaan käyttää ruotsinkielisessä kokouksessa	- ruotsinkielistä kokousterminologiaa	- funktioharjoitus 'Föreningsmöte'
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (1-7) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa	- kokouskäyttäytyminen - keskusteleminen	- kokoussimulaatio 'Vad skall huset användas till?' (kn) - suullinen harjoitus 'Inbjudningar'

RUOTSI (9)

TAVOITE	OPPIAINES	HARJOITUS
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (3,7) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa	- riikinruotsin kuunteleminen - alustuksen laatiminen ja pitäminen - keskusteleminen	- itse valittuun äänitteeseen perustuvan, kotona valmistellun, alustuksen pitäminen ja keskusteleminen sen keskeisestä sisällöstä

RUOTSI (10)

Opiskelija tietää, - miten ruotsin kielellä voidaan pyytää selvennystä	- selvennyksen pyytämiseen liittyviä ilmauksia	- funktio-harjoitukset 'Att söka jobb' ja 'Att be om en förklaring'
Opiskelija osaa - soveltaa pv:n harjoituksissa (1,4) korostettuja taitoja ruotsinkielisessä viestintätilanteessa haastatteluna	- keskusteleminen - kurssin arviointi	- työpaikkahaastattelusimulaatio 'Jobbintervju' - haastattelu-simulaatio 'Tidnings-intervjuer' televisio-haastatteluna

5.4. Havaintoja opetuksesta

Puhumisen ja kuuntelemisen taitoja opetuksen tavoitteena pidettiin onnistuneena valintana. Taitojen koordinointi opetuksessa siten, että tiettyjä taitoja harjoiteltiin ensin äidinkiellä ja sitten ruotsiksi, onnistui hyvin; varsinkin sen jälkeen kun oli huomattu, että harjoiteltavien taitojen määrä ei käytännössä voinut olla niin suuri kuin alunperin oli ajateltu. Tuli tarvetta kerrata, piti tehdä lisäharjoituksia, harjoitusten tekemiseen kului oletettua enemmän aikaa, tuli sairastumisia, tenttejä jne.

Ruotsin kurssilla jouduttiin tekemään huomattavasti suunniteltua enemmän erilaisia valmentavia harjoituksia, joiden avulla totuteltiin

ajatusten ilmaisemiseen ruotsin kielellä. Ryhmä oli taidoiltaan melko homogeeninen. Kukaan ei ollut puhunut ruotsia vuosikausiin ja puhumista ujosteltiin kovasti. Se ilmeni paitsi puhumattomuutena, myös voimakkaana monitoroimisena ("Vai kuinka se nyt sanotaan"; "Tuliko se nyt oikein?"). Tunnin alkuun sijoitettiin yleensä lyhyehköjä roolileikkejä tai pariharjoituksia, koska ne vapauttivat selvästi ilmapiiriä. Myös funktioharjoituksia käytiin läpi melko paljon, koska opiskelijat pitivät niitä hyödyllisinä. Lisäksi tehtiin kotitehtävinä oman alan aiheisiin liittyviä kuullun ymmärtämisharjoituksia.

Opetuskokeilussa koordinoitiin paitsi taitojen opettamista myös harjoitustyyppien valintaa. Pidettiin tärkeänä, että kursseilla tehtäisiin ainakin joitakin hyvin samantyyppisiä harjoituksia. Ajateltiin, että tehdessään samankaltaisia harjoituksia äidinkielellä ja vieraalla kielellä opiskelijat havaitsisivat konkreettisesti, että vieraskielisessä viestintätilanteessa voi käyttää hyväkseen aivan samoja taitoja kuin äidinkielisessä. Motivaation vuoksi harjoituksiin haluttiin kuitenkin hiukan variaatiota.

Myönteisen, oppimista kannustavan, ilmapiirin aikaansaamista pidettiin tärkeänä edellytyksenä viestintätaitojen onnistuneelle harjoittelulle. Opiskelijoille olisi aina kerrottava, mitkä ovat harjoitusten tavoitteet ja mihin palautteessa kiinnitettäisiin huomiota. Koska oppimisen arviointi ei ilmene opetussuunnitelmasta, kerromme siitä seuraavassa hiukan tarkemmin.

Harjoituksissa käytettiin välitöntä palautetta, arviot harjoiteltavan asian toteutuksesta kerrottiin heti harjoituksen jälkeen tai jo sen aikana. Puheviestinnän opettaja saattoi harjoituksen aikana kuiskailla palautteitaan ja ohjeitaan (esim. "Nyt on sopiva nopeus." "Puhu hiukan kuuluvammin." "Tee vielä yhteenveto." "Yritä kohteen laajentamistaktiikkaa." "Jatka suostuttelua."). Ruotsin harjoituksia tehtäessä opettaja selvitti eri ilmausten eroja ja ehdotti vaihtoehtoisia ilmauksia toiston välttämiseksi. Puheviestinnän harjoitteluun kuului, että esim. kokoussimulaatio keskeytettiin ja tilannetta arvioitiin yhdessä: mitä oli saavutettu, mitä olisi voitu tehdä toisin jne. Tarpeen mukaan kerrattiin harjoitusten edellyttämää taustatietoa tai otettiin harjoitus kokonaan alusta uudelleen. Pyrittiin siihen, että harjoituskerrat eivät päättyisi epäonnistumisen tai tuloksettomuuden mielialaan. Ruotsinkielisissä kokous- ja neuvottelusimulaatioissa taas saatettiin pysähtyä kertaamaan, millaisia sanontoja voidaan käyttää palautteen antamisessa tai miten voidaan taukoja täyttää, jotta ei menetä puheenvuoroaan.

Erityisesti äidinkielisessä keskustelussa opiskelijoiden oli aluksi vaikea tottua siihen, että opettaja saattoi keskeyttää puheenvuoron, onhan normaalissa puhumisessa nimenomaan totuttu toisen puheenvuoron kunnioittamiseen. Ruotsinkielisessä keskustelussa se oli "helpompaa". Siinä opiskelijat olivat muutenkin tottuneet puheenvuorojen keskeytymiseen kielellisten ongelmien edessä, jotka yleensä ratkaistiin tiedustelemalla opettajalta tiettyä sanaa tai sanontaa. Keskeyttämiseen kuitenkin totuttiin myös äidinkielisessä keskustelussa ja sitä alettiin jo odottaa. Tapana oli, että kuka tahansa saattoi milloin tahansa keskeyttää harjoitustilanteen ja kysyä ohjeita etenemiseen tai pyytää arviointia siihenastisesta.

Video palautteen antajana osoittautui hyvin onnistuneeksi. Kuvanauhalta saa realistisen käsityksen itsestään kommunikoijana ja näkee itse, mihin on kiinnitettävä huomiota. Ensimmäistä ruotsinkielistä kuvanauhaa katseltaessa kuului mm. seuraavanlaisia huudahduksia: "Sanonko mä tosiaan aina 'hon' kun pitäis sanoa 'han'!"; "Kauheeta millasia sanajärjestysvirheitä!" Opiskelijoille annettiin yleensä erityisiä katselutehtäviä, joissa heidän huomionsa kohdistettiin omiin keskustelutaitoihin tai tiettyjen ruotsin kielen funktioiden ilmaisemiseen. Niitä arvioitiin ja niistä keskusteltiin yhdessä. Tällaiset palautekeskustelut osoittautuivat myös erittäin mielekkäiksi keskusteluharjoituksiksi!

Opetuskokeilun näkökulmasta edellä kuvattu arviointi oli hiukan hankalaa, koska ajankäyttöä oli vaikea ennakoida etukäteen. Periaatteena pidettiin kuitenkin sitä, että opetustilanteesta viriävät spontaanit keskustelut ovat oppimisen kannalta niin merkityksellisiä, että niitä ei lopeteta sen vuoksi, että päästäisiin suunnitelmassa eteenpäin, vaan suunnitelmia muutetaan niiden mukaisesti.

Luentosarja puheviestinnän perusteista oli suunnattu koko tiedekunnan opiskelijoille, siis enemmistönä olivat kokeiluun osallistumattomat opiskelijat. Näin ollen erityisesti ruotsin kieleen liittyviä asioita ei ollut mielekästä korostaa luennoilla. Kokeilu otettiin kuitenkin luentosarjassa huomioon siten, että selvitettäessä puhekulttuurien eroja esimerkkejä otettiin erityisesti ruotsalaisen puhekulttuurin tutkimuksista (ks. esim. Allwood 1985; Phillips-Martinsson 1981).

6. OPETUSKOKEILUN ARVIOINTIA

Alkusysäyksenä opetuskokeilun järjestämiselle olivat olleet monissa yhteyksissä käydyt keskustelut, joissa oli todettu, että korkeakoulututkintojen yhteydessä suoritettavilla viestintäopinnoilla ja vieraiden kielten opinnoilla on paljon yhteisiä elementtejä. Opintojen tavoitteet ilmaistaan asetuksissa lähes samoin sanoin ja myös opetuksen sisällöissä on paljon samantapaisia aineksia, mm. harjoitustyypeissä ja arviointiperusteissa. Pohdittiin, voitaisiinko yhteisiä elementtejä käyttää hyväksi niin, että kielikeskusten pienet tuntimäärät saataisiin mahdollisimman tehokkaaseen käyttöön. Päätettiin järjestää opetuskokeilu, jossa selvitettäisiin alustavasti, miten äidinkielen puheviestinnän ja ruotsin kielen suullisen kielitaidon opetusta voitaisiin koordinoida.

Totesimme, että ensimmäinen tehtävämme oli tavoitteiden täsmentäminen opetustarkoituksia palveleviksi. Vaikka näkemyksemme opetuksen luonteesta oli samantapainen ja olimme yhtä mieltä koordinoinnin tarpeellisuudesta, osoittautui yhteisen kielen löytyminen yllättävän hankalaksi. Kävimme pitkiä keskusteluja opetuksen tavoitteista. Pyrimme täsmentämään niiden yhteisiä ja eroavia piirteitä ja mietimme keinoja, joilla ne voitaisiin opetuksessa saavuttaa. Näiden keskustelujen tuloksena päädyimme mm. siihen, että opetuksen suunnittelu ei saa alkaa mielekkäältä tuntuvan tekemisen valinnasta, esim. tulevan ammatin tyypillisistä puhetilanteista, vaan suunnittelu on aloitettava oppimisen tavoitteiden määrittelemisestä. Viestintäopintojen osalta sellaisia ovat erilaiset puhumisen ja kuuntelemisen taidot. Tulevia ammattitilanteita simuloivat harjoitukset tarjoavat kyllä erinomaiset puitteet viestintätaitojen monipuoliselle harjoittelulle, mutta ne eivät sellaisinaan saa toimia opetuksen tavoitteina; mm. keskustelutaitoja voidaan yhtä tehokkaasti harjoitella esim. arvioitaessa omia tai toisten keskustelutaitoja kuvanauhalta.

Keskeinen ajatuksemme aloittaessamme opetussuunnitelman laatimista oli, että viestintätaitojen opettaminen tulisi koordinoida mielekkäällä tavalla siten, että taitoja harjoiteltaisiin aina ensin äidinkielellä. Ruotsin kielen harjoituksissa vahvistettaisiin samojen taitojen hallintaa, mutta harjoittelun varsinaisena kohteena olisivat ruotsin kielen ilmaisukeinot. Vieraan kielen oppijan taakkaa oletettiin helpottavan, jos hänellä olisi tilaisuus harjoitella tietoisesti erilaisia puhumisen ja kuuntelemisen taitoja äidinkielellä ennen kuin hän joutuu vieraskieliseen viestintätilanteeseen, jossa hänellä on täysi työ kielellisten valmiuksien kanssa.

Opetuksen koordinoiminen onnistui mielestämme hyvin. Onnistumisen edellytyksenä oli, että opettajat pystyivät tapaamaan säännöllisesti, vähintään kerran viikossa, jolloin ohjelmasta voitiin sopia joustavasti. Käytännössä kokeilun järjestämistä vaikeutti se, että aluksi ei löytynyt sopivaa ryhmää. Kursseja ei yleensä suoriteta samana lukukautena, joten oli vaikea löytää opiskelijoita, jotka eivät olisi käyneet kumpaakaan kurssia. Ruotsin kohdalla hankaluutena oli vielä paikallisessa kielikeskuksessa noudatettava käytäntö, jonka mukaan ehtona suulliselle kurssille osallistumiselle on, että on suoritettu hyväksytysti tekstin ymmärtämisen ja kirjallisen esityksen kurssit. Kokeilu päätettiin kuitenkin toteuttaa, vaikka siihen saatiin vain viisi opiskelijaa, sillä pienen ryhmäkoon ei katsottu haittaavan kokeilun keskeisiä tavoitteita. Opiskelijoiden kannalta pieni ryhmäkoko oli vain eduksi, sillä se mahdollisti yksilöllisen opetuksen. Opetusrunkoa ei olekaan tarkoitettu malliksi, joka olisi sellaisenaan käytettävissä jonkin toisen ryhmän opettamiseen. Sen muotoutumiseen vaikuttivat olennaisesti opetusryhmän erityistarpeet.

Opiskelijoilta tiedusteltiin kyselylomakkeella kurssin alussa ja lopussa suhtautumista opetukseen. Heitä pyydettiin myös arvioimaan omia viestintätaitojaan. Viimeisellä kokoontumiskerralla kysyttiin lisäksi opetuksesta saadun hyödyn määrää. Ennakko-odotukset vaihtelivat (esim. "Henkilökohtaisesti toivon vain selviäväni hengissä." "Haluan lisää esiintymisvarmuutta ja keinoja ilmaisun selkiyttämiseksi molemmilla kotimaisilla." "Toivon kehittyväni." "Haluan päästä puhumisen pelosta."). Kurssin lopussa kaikki suhtautuivat kokeiluun hyvin myönteisesti. Vastauksissa pidettiin hyvänä kurssin ilmapiiriä, ruotsin kielen puhumisen pelon vähenemistä, kertauksen mahdollisuutta, videon käyttöä ja runsasta palautetta. Kaikki omat taidot arvioitiin kurssin alussa huonoiksi tai keskinkertaisiksi. Kokeilun lopussa arviointi oli muuttunut sikäli, että se oli täsmentynyt. Ilmeisesti tiedettiin, mitä osataan ja mikä kaipaa vielä harjoitusta. Opetuksen tasoa pidettiin erittäin hyvänä ja sen annin katsottiin olleen erittäin suuri. Koordinoinnin suurimpina etuina opiskelijat pitivät pienessä ryhmässä tutuksi tulemista ja sitä, että samantapaiset asiat toistuivat ensin äidinkielellä ja sitten ruotsiksi. Eräs opiskelija kirjoittaa: "Jotenkin pystyy paremmin keskittymään puhumiseen vieraalla kielellä, kun harjoituskuviossa on jotakin tuttua ja ryhmä tuntee toisensa hyvin."

Kysymykseen, oliko äidinkielisessä kommunikaatiossa helpompi saada ajatuksensa ilmaistuksi, kolme vastasi myöntävästi ja kahden mielestä ei ollut eroa. Kun taas kysyttiin, jännittikö ruotsinkielisissä kommunikaatiotilanteissa enemmän, vastasivat kaikki kieltävästi. Aluksi oli jännittänyt enemmän, mutta lopussa ei ollut mitään eroa, kahden mielestä jännitti jopa vähemmän.

Opiskelijoiden mielestä koordinointia pitäisi olla enemmän. Opetuksen kehittämiseksi ehdotettiin vielä täsmällisempää oppiaineksen toistumista. Harjoitukset olisivat yhden opiskelijan mielestä voineet olla jopa täysin samoja äidinkielen ja ruotsin tunneilla. Vaikka opetusta oli 4-6 viikkotuntia, opiskelijat toivoivat vielä tiiviimpää aikataulua. Myös jatkokurssia toivottiin.

Opimme itse kokeilun aikana, että on erittäin avartavaa keskustella perusteellisesti opetuksen tavoitteista, painotuksista, ongelmista, arvioinnin luonteesta yms. myös muiden kuin oman aineen kollegoiden kanssa. Se tuo perspektiiviä omaan ajatteluun ja auttaa näkemään oman opetuksen osana laajempaa kokonaisuutta. Opetuskokeilun järjestäminen ei liene välttämätön edellytys opetuksen koordinoimiseksi. Tärkeintä on, että tietää, mitä muilla kursseilla tapahtuu. Se tieto voidaan hyvin hankkia paitsi keskusteluissa myös esimerkiksi muiden kurssien opetusta seuraamalla. Toisaalta totesimme, että opiskelijat olivat erittäin innostuneita, kun saivat osallistua "kokeiluun" ja siksi suosittelemme lämpimästi opetuskokeilujen järjestämistä.

Kokeilun aikana huomattiin konkreettisesti, miten tärkeää olisi käydä keskustelua myös joidenkin kielikeskusopetukseen liittyvien ulkoisten järjestelyjen tarkoituksenmukaisuudesta. On selvää, että esimerkiksi keskustelu opetussisältöjen koordinoimisesta ei tunnu mielekkäältä, jos opiskelijat joutuvat suorittamaan äidinkielen kurssit vieraiden kielten kurssien jälkeen. Tällainen järjestys tuntuu olevan valitettavan yleinen. Pidimme kokeilussa epäkohtana sitä, että ruotsin kurssilla ei kaikkia kielitaidon osa-alueita voitu harjoitella integroidusti, jolloin olisi voitu hyödyntää esim. oman alan tekstejä suullisen kielitaidon opetuksessa huomattavasti tehokkaammin.

Kokeilun perusteella voi sanoa, että äidinkielen puheviestinnän ja vieraan kielen suullisen kielitaidon koordinoitu opettaminen on mahdollista. Se on myös erittäin perusteltua, sillä puheviestintätaitojen kehittäminen tarjoaa sille hyvän yhteisen pohjan. Koordinoinnin suurimpia ansioita mielestämme on, että se pakottaa ajattelemaan kielikeskusopetusta kokonaisuutena, "asiakkaan" näkökulmasta.

Kokeilun perusteella ei voi sanoa, opittiinko näiden järjestelyjen avulla enemmän tai tehokkaammin kuin muilla kursseilla. Sitä päästään toivottavasti tutkimaan jossakin myöhemmässä opetuskokeilussa.

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APPLYING A COMPUTERIZED AUDIENCE RESPONSE SYSTEM TO THE TEACHING OF SPEECH COMMUNICATION

1. INTRODUCTION

The rapid technological development and media extension necessitate the adoption of new communication technology in speech education. In the 1970s, videotape was introduced as a new instructional aid in teaching communication skills. Now we are faced with new educational applications of information technology which are more promising, more powerful and more threatening than any methodological innovations we have been accustomed to. Particularly the advent of low-cost microcomputers possesses potential for innovations in speech education.

In the educational system, computers have been largely established in natural, technical, and social sciences. Computing in the humanities is still in its infancy (cf. Phillips 1986; Seppänen 1986). The delay in utilizing the computer in the humanities is not surprising considering the speed at which computer technology has evolved. On the other hand, the complexity and ambiguity of human communication presents a challenge to computer science as compared to its traditional applications. The mystique around the computer and prejudice aside, a lack of appropriate software and insufficient teacher training have retarded the introduction of computers to the teaching of liberal arts.

Despite difficulties to be overcome, technological applications provide new arenas for communication education. Above all, technological innovations enhance the potential for improving the efficiency and effectiveness of instruction with the ultimate purpose of improving students' communication skills. Additionally, exposure to innovative instructional technology in speech classes habituates students to applicaions of new media they will be faced with in their working life. Particularly the introduction of new media into organizations and into society in general promotes new challenges to communication skills and has unforeseeable impacts on interaction (cf. Casmir 1986; Deethardt 1982; Hiukka & Hiukka 1986; Miller 1978; Wiio, Goldhaber & Yates 1980; Williams 1987; Williams & Rice 1983). Apart from habituation to technology, for example to use of personal computers, videotex, teletex, videodiscs, teleconferencing and computer conferencing presume a wide repertoire of communication skills adjusted to meet special demands of a particular medium.

Applications of microcomputers in speech education reported in the literature are so far scanty. A computerized system of speech criticism is described by Behnke and King (1984; see also Behnke & O'Hair 1984; Behnke & Sawyer 1987). In their system, a wide commentary encompassing various elements necessary for conveying feedback subsequent to public speaking assignments have been assembled and stored in the computer's memory. Rapid retrieval and the possibility for the teacher to supplement criticism by providing personalized comments enhance the quantity and quality of feedback as compared to conventional oral and written modes of feedback.

In what follows, the role of the computer in learning is discussed from the point of view of speech education. A computer-based audience response system developed at the Department of Communication at the University of Jyväskylä is introduced. Further computerized applications to speech communication pursued at the department include an automatic analysis of the chronography of conversation (Sneck 1986), examining of source credibility and its contriburoty factors as a function of time (Sallinen-Kuparinen 1986a), and a measurement and analysis technique of heart rate during interaction (Sallinen-Kuparinen & Pörhölä 1986). In the present article, a series of pedagogical applications of the audience response network employed in the teaching of speech communication is reported. In conjunction with the description of some examples, the applicability of the network system is discussed in terms of its contribution to learning outcomes.

2. COMLAB: SYSTEM DESCRIPTION

The original idea preceding the establishment of the Computer Based Communication Laboratory[1], abbreviated to COMLAB, was to create a network of low-cost microcomputers for examining audience reactions in communication encounters. Prior to that, a backlog of experiences of appplicability of closed circuit television in communication education had been accumulated, thus laying the groundwork for coupling the videorecording with the computer in COMLAB. The laboratory is intended primarily for research and teaching purposes in speech communication.

The COMLAB system consists of 13 standard Commodore 64 microcomputers, one of which serves as the master computer, and an additional CBM 200 for shared access to system peripherals such as disk drives and printers. The work stations include a microcomputer, a color video monitor, and a potentiometer. Optionally included are one disk drive and a dot matrix printer for graphics and alphanumeric output. The computers are hooked to an interactive network. Each unit can also be used as a stand alone system. The entire nework is linked via a modem to the university mainframe (VAX 8600). Figure 1 presents a simplistic desription of the structure of the system.

Audience reactions are assessed by asking the listeners to move a potentiometer to indicate their judgments on a given scale. The ratings are summarized by the master computer and converted to bar graphs and descriptive statistics indices representing the audience's appraisals at a desired moment. Statistics are fed to the teacher's display terminal and they can also be transmitted to students' monitors. The data can be printed immediately or stored in a database for further analysis.

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1 The software development was conducted by Seppo Sneck. Jaakko Lehtonen and Aino Sallinen-Kuparinen assisted in theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical planning, and Mauno Nieminen, Juhani Jäppinen, Keijo Ukkonen and Michael O'Dell contributed to the technical development of the system.

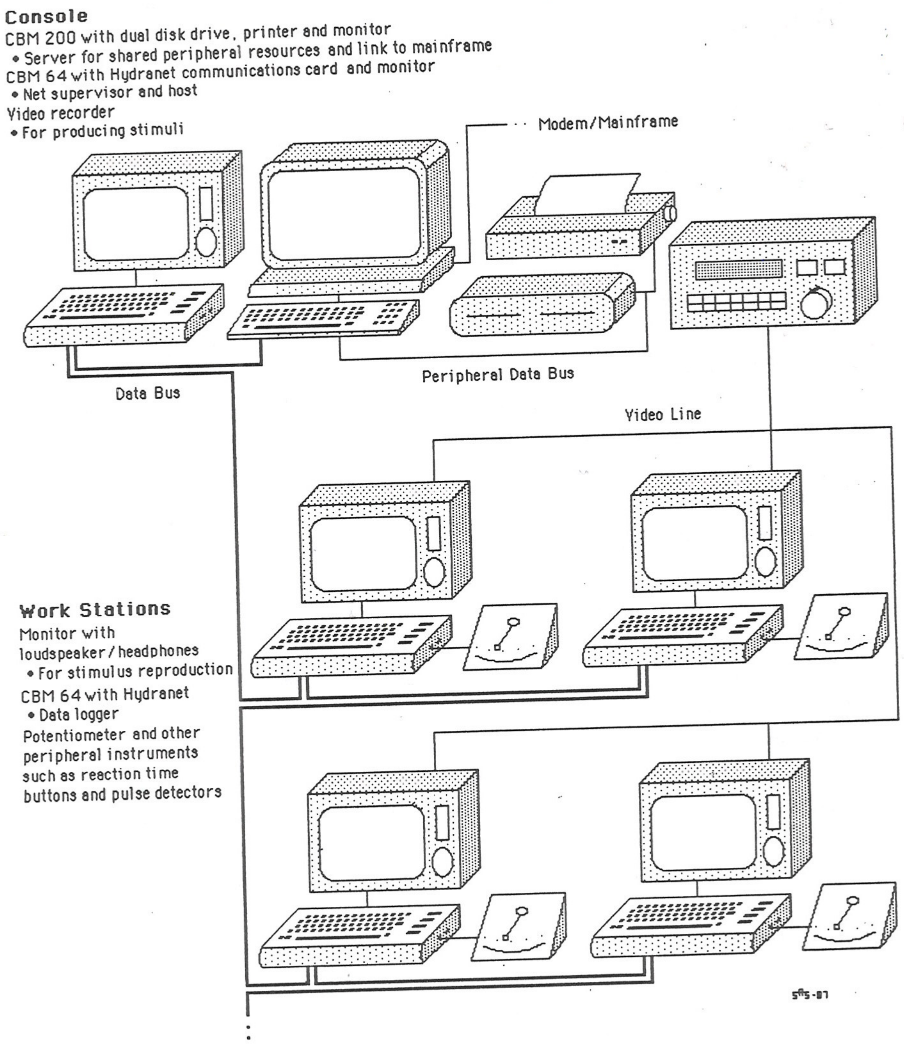

FIGURE 1. Diagram of Comlab. The present configuration consists of one console station and 12 work stations. Each computer can be used as an independent station or can be controlled remotely from the console station as an integral part of the system. The Hydranet databus links the stations into a network over which programs and data are transferred. The video line connects the work station monitors to a vide recorder or, alternatively, to the console (CBM 64).

3. ADVANTAGES OF THE NETWORK SYSTEM

The basic role of the computer in COMLAB and of the entire network is that of an educational medium. The ultimate criterion in evaluating the applicability of any educational medium is its contribution to learning outcomes. In the literature on computer-assisted teaching, the advantages of the computer in learning have been divided into three types: 1) those which are part of its inherent nature, 2) those which benefit the learner, and 3) those which benefit the teacher (e.g. Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers & Sussex 1985: 4-6).

Indicative of the advantages of the first category mentioned above, it has been suggested that the reduction of inauthentic labour be a first educational role for the computer (Phillips 1986: 4). The computer can handle quickly a much wider range of activities than other technological aids of a human teacher. In COMLAB, menu-driven programs allow rapid access to running instructional sessions. Additionally, programs intended for pedagogical use calculate basic statistics of audience reactions. Statistics illustrating central tendency and variability in appraisals (see Figure

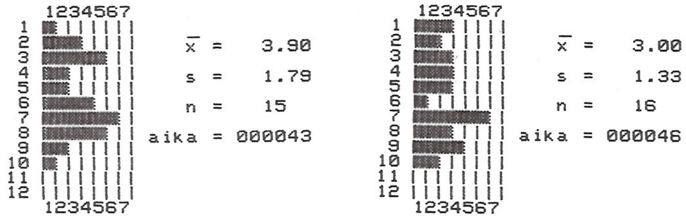

FIGURE 2. Graphics representation of audience reacitons. The bars show each evaluator's appraisal on a seven point scale. The mean and standard deviation illustrate central tendency and variability in appraisals of an entire group. The number and moment of triggering are also printed in the output. - This example illustrates an evaluation of a speaker's argumentation. As can be seen in the first graph, ratings remain below an average of four points. Standard deviation and the range indicate heterogeneity in appraisals. The second graph illustrtes a relatively unanimous decrease in evaluations of argumentation. - Individual evaluation strategies can also be analyzed in the graphics output. As can be seen in the graphs, the person at the seventh working station rates the target characteristic more positively than others.

2) are displayed for analysis and pedagogical discussion within a few seconds. An opportunity to confront others' ratings and to compare one's appraisals with the evaluation profile of the group increases the accuracy of ratings and, concomitantly, the validity of evaluation.

The COMLAB system is versatile in its nature; it is easily adjustable to suit the needs of each test or instructional session. Several options for triggering samples of audience reactions are available. The system enables both continuous recording of reactions of determining of desired triggering moments. The teacher can select triggering points during the playback of a stimulus material on the basis of statistical and graphical information transmitted to the screen. For instance, in cases where rapid changes in appraisals occur, ratings can be immediately derived. Another possibility is to preanalyze a stimulus tape and edit it by recording signals at those points where reactions are to be recorded.

The educational potential of the COMLAB system is enhanced by coupling video playback units with the computer. For almost two decades, the videotape has been used in speech classes successfully (for a review of its use, see Sallinen-Kuparinen 1981: 132-163). Given the fact that communication through different media offers different advantages and disadvantages for instance in terms of the cues available and delay in feedback (see e.g. Furnham 1986; Miles 1981; Steinmann 1986), videotape enables observation of both auditive and visual aspects in interaction. In COMLAB, video playback is primarily intended to serve as an instructional aid in analysis of communication processes and secondly, to provide immediate feedback concerning students' communication skills. Since the moments of triggering are visible in the graphics output they can be easily retrieved from the videotape, and evaluative data can be synchronized with actual events of interaction.

From the point of view of the student, immediacy of feedback is one of the major advantages of the COMLAB system. As largely acknowledged on the basis of learning theory, immediate feedback regarding performance is a crucial factor in effective skills development. In order to be efficient, immediate feedback should interfere minimally with ongoing communication (Behnke & O'Hair 1984). More importantly, feedback has its greatest impact upon learners when focused immediately upon communication behavior to be modified (e.g. Behnke & Beatty 1977). Due to technical innovations in COMLAB, students can be provided with instantanous feedback by using

various channels and various sources of information which is likely to enrice the nature of feedback and to reinforce its effects on learning outcomes.

Viewed from the vantage point of the speech communication teacher, a computerized audience response system affords several aspects of particular promise. Contrary to common prejudices, the computer does not threaten the teacher's position or make him redundant. Educational knowledge is needed in software development. Additionally, the teacher controls the presentation of programs and makes the computer assume various roles in learning.

Given the versatility of COMLAB programs, the teacher can modify computer-based receiver analysis to suite the specific needs of a particular class. Furthermore, a computerized network offers the teacher the possibility of employing a wide range of instructional strategies (cf. Ahmad et al. 1986: 4; Standiford, Jaycox & Auten 1983: 15-26). This may result in increased creativity and imaginativeness in teaching.

In sum, the most crucial advantages of a computerized audience response system can be well matched with the following functions of computers in learning (see Self 1985: 24-25):

(1) Engage the student's motivation.
(2) Recall earlier learning.
(3) Provide new learning stimuli.
(4) Activate the student's response.
(5) Give speedy feedback.
(6) Encourage appropriate practice.
(7) Sequence learning.
(8) Provide a resource.

In what follows, the above functions are illustrated by means of examples of applications performed in various speech classes in COMLAB.

4. EXAMPLES OF PEDAGOGICAL APPLICATIONS OF THE COMLAB SYSTEM

4.1. Assessing speaker-audience interaction

As implied in the above discussion, one primary significance of the COMLAB system lies in its capability of continuous recording of audience reactions over time. This option is suited to assessment of Gestalts in communication. Here, the cognitive tendency in human information processing to reduce complex information into selective and simplified Gestalts or easily understood configurations is utilized (see Miles & Huberman 1984: 21). In speech communication, for instance competence (Spitzberg & Cupach 1984: 100), communicator style (Norton 1983: 281-282) and source credibility (Sallinen-Kuparinen 1986a) serve as examples of Gestalts. In addition, for instance effectiveness, assertiveness and interestingness are multifaceted constructs which can vary during interaction. The following example of an assessment of interestingness of a speech illustrates changes in speaker-audience interaction measured by means of continuous evaluation of one Gestalt embedded in speaker-audience interaction.

One of the most crucial communication skills is the speaker's ability to engage in interaction with the audience. Therefore, the speaker must know what facilitates and what impedes effective interaction. In speech classes, considerable amount of time is devoted to the amplification of these principle.

In speech texts, students are instructed how to arouse and maintain a constructive interest from the audience. In order to be able to adjust his speech to meet the needs of the listeners, the speaker should, prior to delivering his speech, analyze among other things the receivers' attitudes toward the subject, for instance their probable interest level. During the presentation, the speaker should estimate the degree of the audience's attention and detect how the message is being received. (See e.g. Minnick 1979: 37-39.)

In speech classes, speaker-audience interaction is usually analyzed after each assignment or at the end of the calss period. Conversational memory research has, however, revealed a substantial receiver deterioration after only a few minutes to an exposure, although general themes are remembered well. Recall accuracy is facilitated by presenting evaluative

judgements as close to the stimulus being rated as possible (see Spitzberg & Cupach 1984: 177). Triggering audience reactions at a desired moment during ongoing interaction uncovers reveivers' short-term impressions of a target stimulus.

The following example illustrates changes in speaker-audience interaction assessed by means of continuous evaluation of interestingness of a speech. A videotape speech delivered by a female student majoring in speech communication was evaluated by 20 speech teachers who participated in a seminar on speech education at the University of Jyväskylä. The subjects were instructed to judge the interestingness of the speech on a seven point scale. They were asked to move a potentiometer whenever changes in interestingness occured. The continuous evaluation of interestingness was observed on the teacher's display terminal. At those points where striking decrease or increase in ratings were detected, audience reactions were triggered.

Subsequent to the test session, the videotape was played to 10 students enrolled in a speech communication class. Their evaluations were derived at the same points for comparisons. Figure 2 illustrates appraisals obtained from these groups.

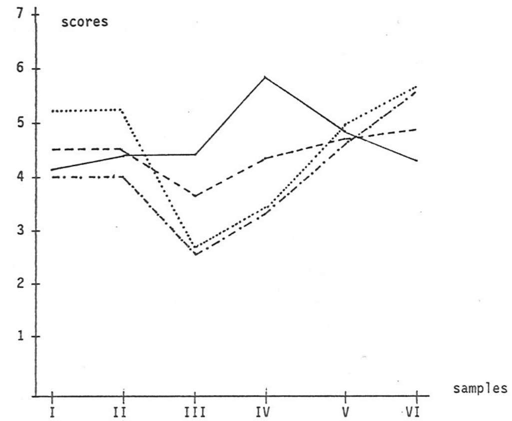

FIGURE 3. Changes in interestingness during a speech

———— = teachers of speech communication (N = 10)
-------- = teachers of speech communication (N = 10)
.... = students of speech communication (N = 5)
— . — . — = students of speech communication (N = 5)

It is obvious from Figure 3 that ratings of interestingness of the speech varied remarkably during performance. On a seven point scale, means ranged from 2.60 to 5.90, while standard deviations in the groups of ten members varied between 1.10 to 1.93. The most striking decrease in interestingness took place at the third triggering point. Toward the end of the speech, appraisals increased markedly.

Merely the notion that changes in interestingness were noticed does not benefit the speaker sufficiently. In order to learn to hold the audience's attention, the speaker should know why listeners reacted negatively. To shed light on this aspect in speaker-audience interaction, the students participating in the present pedagogical session were asked to name the reason for the change in their appraisals. The subjects worked in pairs, and one member of the pair wrote down the attributions named by the judge. The responses were categorized. It appeared that the most striking decrease noticed above was unanimously considered attributable to the fact that the speaker digressed too much from her topic. On the other hand, the speaker was able to capture her audience's interest again by using a current and emotional quotation in her argumentation.

At the end of the evaluation session the videotape was replayed and stopped at those points where audience reactions were triggered. Thereafter, means, standard deviations and attributions were discussed thoroughly.

The above example suggests that by combining information of continuous evaluation, attributions inferred simultaneously, and video playback, students can be provided with useful feedback concerning their oral performances and their ability to convey constructive criticism, as well. In cases where communication behavior being rated is performed by members of the group used as rators, it would be of the greatest benefit if the speaker would be offered an opportunity to refine his speech and deliver it accompanied by instantaneous evaluation. In any case, detailed computerized feedback is illuminating and contributes theoretically to further contextual adaptation of the speaker.

4.2. Measuring effects of oral performances

A speaker's basic purpose is to influence the knowledge, attitudes, and conduct of his audience. Therefore, it is profitable to the speaker to know

what elements of his presentation were effective or ineffective and why. As suggested in speech texts (see e.g. Minnick 1979: 41), the speaker should attempt to measure the outcome of his presentation in terms of audience responses. In COMLAB the impact of a speech can be quickly assessed numerically by means of a pre-test and post-test, as illustrated in the following example.

The effects of the speech described in the above chapter were measured. The procedure was as follows. At the outset of the evaluation session, the name of the speaker, her topic, as well as information concerning the actual occasion where the speech was delivered was disclosed. Subsequently, the subjects were asked to move their potentiometer to a position which indicated their interest level in the topic. During the playback of the videotape, continuous ratings of interestingness were performed. After viewing the videotape, the subjects were instructed to give an overall evaluation of the interestingness of the speech.

Figure 4 shows the results obtained in pre- and post-evaluations of the interests level. As can be seen in Figure 4, the speaker was able to increase students' interest level form 3.7 to 5.3. For speech teachers, the impact remained notably low. In a test like this, observations give rise to useful pedagogical discussion on the role of the topic in succesful speaking and on ways the speaker can gain and maintain various audiences' attention.

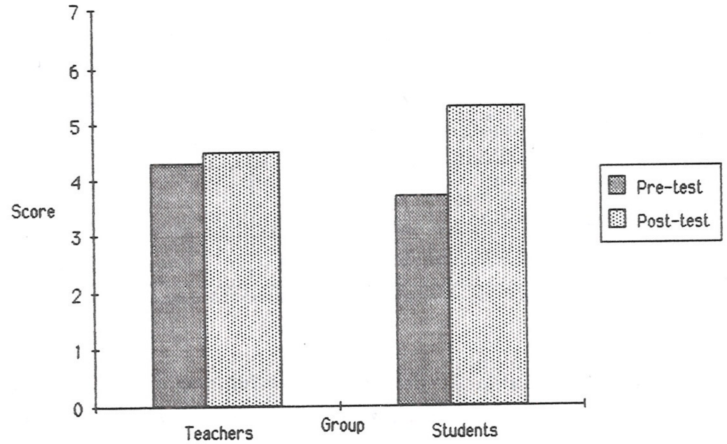

FIGURE 4. Graphics representation of pre- and post-evaluations of interestingness of speech

4.3. Speech criticism

Apart from continuous evaluation of target stimuli, another major use of the COMLAB system is in overall rating of oral performances. Due to rapid calculations and graphics output indicating central tendency and diversity in ratings, problems inherent in performance evaluation can be illustrated and discussed. Above all, speech education teachers need to know about test bias and statistical errors jeopardizing the reliability and validity of the speech rating process. In addition, they must be familiarized with methods of overcoming them in performance assessment (cf. Stiggins, Backlund & Bridgeford 1985).

The following example outlines the use of computerized analysis of audience reactions in training speech teachers. A group of 37 speech teachers enrolled in a didactic class on speech education at the University of Jyväskylä were asked to grade two audiotaped oral interpretation tasks. The major criterion was to evaluate the degree to which readers succeeded in their tasks given the objects of the class. The test was run separately in four groups after which the results shown in Table 1 were discussed together and criteria used by teachers in their appraisals were detected.

TABLE 1. Overall evaluations of two oral interpretations judged by teachers of speech communication

Target of evaluation / Evaluators	Performance A		Performance B	
	$\bar{x}$	s	$\bar{x}$	s
I group (N = 10)	4.2	1.1	5.5	0.8
II group (N = 9)	3.5	1.6	3.6	1.6
III group (N = 9)	4.2	0.8	4.4	1.4
IV group (N = 9)	4.4	1.7	5.0	1.0

As can be seen in Table 1, the second reader was rated unanimously higher. Additionally, standard deviations were lower, suggesting grater consistency in appraisals. However, the second reader caused more inter-group variation in ratings than the first performer.

In the literature on evaluation it has been repeatedly demonstrated that rating of performance is subject to bias. Apart from the rating instrument and the rating scale, the rater has been observed to constitute a major source of error. The basic types of errors are leniency error, halo error and trait error. (See e.g. Bohn & Bohn 1985.) With regard to evaluation strategies internalized by speech teachers in the present study, the discussion engendered in conjunction with interpretation of the results shown in Table 1 suggested that some teachers apparently committed negative leniency error or negative trait error by scrutinizing characteristics of voice more critically than other aspects in presentations. For some teachers, for instance, pausing was the major focus of attention. On the other hand, because the readings under evaluation were audiotaped thus emphasizing auditive features in stimulus, the impact of the medium may partially account for the results.

In further analysis, an attempt was made to elaborate on discussion concerning the validity and the inter-rater reliability of evaluation. Therefore, the teachers were asked to rate the communication behavior of two students participating in a videotaped debate with regard to various aspects of delivery, argumentation, and listening behavior. Judges reached the greatest agreement in ratings concerning debaters' use of their voices. However, perceptions of fluency were notably divided. Furthermore, high standard deviations were observed in ratings of debaters' relaxation. In sum, items focusing on observable aspects of delivery, especially the use of voice, yielded consistent evaluations. On the other hand, evaluation targets inherently connotative appeared to be significant sources of errors in rating accuracy (cf. Sallinen-Kuparinen 1986b).

The above discussion highlights the importance of rater training in teacher education curricula. There is evidence suggesting that training reduces variation in ratings (e.g. Bohn & Bohn 1985). Instantaneous feedback improves rating accuracy and increases both the validity and reliability of assessment of communication skills in the classroom.

5. EVALUATION OF THE USE OF THE COMLAB SYSTEM

Since the launching of the COMLAB system, brief discussions concerning the use of the system and motivational variables involved in computerized audience response tests have been pursued after each evaluation session. The major impression is that students' attitudes toward a computer-aided speech evaluation are extremely favorable.

A more systematic qualitative evaluation was carried out with 44 students. Except for students majoring in speech communication, all subjects participating in various COMLAB analyses during one month were surveyed. The sample was predominantly (70%) female. Respondents ranged in age from 17 to 46. Every fourth indicated that they use microcomputers very often in their work or studies, every second only occasionally and every fourth never. The majority (86%) had not worked in COMLAB before; 14% had done so once or twice. Accordingly, the responses represent mainly experiences of the first use of a computer-based speech evaluation.

The degree to which a particular task was motivating was measured by means of three questions. The subjects' responses indicating interestingness of tasks were consistent with the general observation made in computer-aided instruction that learning with a computer is rated highly by students (e.g. Ahmad et al 1985: 120-121; Behnke & King 1984; Thomas 1986; Windeatt 1986). Evaluation tasks were regarded as interesting by 80% of the respondents.

Indicative of a further motivational variable, we were interested in knowing whether the students were more motivated by computer-based speech evaluation than by tests run in non-computerized form. As a whole, 41% could not take a stand in this comparison. The opinions of 43% of the respondents paralleled observations made by Windeatt (1986) suggesting that the students were not more motivated by having the activity presented in one medium rather than the other. A minority (16%) of the subjects indicaed that computer-based tests motivated them more than conventional evaluation tasks. This group represented the youngest respondents in the sample with lowest educational background.

The third question was purported to tap the degree to which subjects' motivational level was aroused by knowing that the test was run using a computer. While for one third (28%) of the respondents the motivational level was positively affected by the computer, 44% reported lack of impact. Every third (28%) could not evaluate the effect of the medium. Given the above observation of a high interest level of the tasks and the answers given to subsequent questions, the data suggest that most subjects who took part in COMLAB analyses were highly motivated regardless of the medium used in the tests.

The very first experiences concerning the use of the COMLAB system indicated that the use of a potentiometer was problematic for many judges. In further tasks, special care has been therefore taken to provide detailed instruction concerning its use. This may partially account for the notion that 91% of the subjects either strongly or moderately agreed with the statement that the use of a potentiometer was easy. Conversely, expressing one's evaluative judgments by using a numerical scale posed problems to 43% of the users. For every second, a numerical scale did not impede their evaluation.

The data reinforced the notion that especially prior to a complex rating session including audiovisual stimuli and continuous evaluation of target characteristics, some preliminary exposure to evaluation procedures is needed. For instance Wellens (1982) recommends that "warm-up" tapes be employed. Studies in which videotaping has been used demonstrate that subjects can quickly adjust to an experimental environment (e.g. Wiemann 1981). Concomitantly, after a brief period of adaptation the novelty and the reactivity of an experimental condition dissipates, thus contributing to the validity of the test.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The discussion in the preceding chapters suggests that a computer-based audience response network is an innovative educational medium with substantial potential for a wide range of applications in speech education. By using a combination of rapid calculations performed by the computer, illustrative graphics and alphanumeric output, and advantages of various media, students' observations can be maximally focused on the learning aspects of the communication process.

First experiences with computerized applications in the teaching of communication skills are encouraging. Limitations of the network system have not been tested yet. There are adventurous possibilities which go beyond those described above. In speech classes, the new medium offers new forms and styles of interaction. Computerized analysis does not, however, displace conventional methods employed in teaching communication skills. Rather, it complements other methods and extends them, thus contributing to the efficiency of instruction (cf. Pace 1987).

Full implementation of the network system presumes systematic testing of various applications and assessment of learning outcomes. Current research projects to improve the effectiveness of the COMLAB system include for instance studies on the effects of various presentational combinations of stimulus materials, of the negativity effect in evaluations as to rating of videotaped stimuli, and of various methods in deriving attributions inferred simultaneously during an ongoing evaluation of a target performance.

In general, additional consideration is needed to discover what can be illustrated from communication by means of computers and what is programmable in speech communication. However, it is important to recognize that the novelty of an educational medium should not result in overemphasis on the equipment itself but should emphasize the functions that a medium should be able to perform in education. Development of technological innovations must be embedded in overall improving of the efficiency and effectiveness of instruction.

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ON THE STRUCTURE OF INSTRUCTIVE DISCOURSE

1. INSTRUCTIVE DISCUSSION

The teacher has a very dominant role in classroom discussion, as has been shown in several studies. The teacher speaks most of the time, delivers monologues and initiates the interaction. In the exchanges the teacher typically makes the opening move, the pupil responds, and the teacher concludes the exchange with a follow-up move that often includes an evaluation (e.g. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975 and Mehan 1978).

The teacher's questions are an important class of initiations in teaching, both in teaching new topics and in hearing homework. In instructive discussion, the main purpose of questions is learning by processing information and problem solving. For example, the hearing of homework when the teacher checks how much the pupils know and remember of the topics taught does not fulfill the prerequisites for genuine instructive discussion. Several educational and cognitive descriptions of classroom interaction have focused on the character and complexity of the teacher's questions and pupils' answers (e.g. Smith & Meux 1976 and Blank et al. 1978). It has also been shown that the teacher's questions influence learning and direct both short-term and long-term learning strategies (e.g. Marton & Säljö 1976).

Collins (1977) has even developed rules for instructive discussion, especially for teaching causal reasoning through discussion. The teacher can start the dialogue by asking about a known case, e.g. "Do they grow rice in China?". She can then go on and ask for any background factors, and, if the student gives an explanation that is not an immediate cause, try to elicit such causes. If the student offers insufficient reasons as an explanation, the teacher can formulate a general rule or give an counter-example in which the given factors supposedly are sufficient and ask the student if the rule is true. If the student, for example, gives water as the reason for growing rice in China, the teacher can ask him "Do you think any place with enough water can grow rice?" or "Do they grow rice in Finland?".

The problem with these kind of rules or strategies of instructive discussion is that the discussion centers on the ignorance and mistakes of the student. As Robinson (Goody 1979, 42) has pointed out, the instructive or Socratic dialogue is very control-oriented. The questions are not genuine and co-operative, they neglect the social aspect of the discourse (e.g. politeness principles) and concentrate on the defects of the answers and force the student to demonstrate his ignorance (cf. also Leiwo 1982). These types of factors are probably the main reason why it is so difficult to make instructive discussion work in the classroom.

Besides instructive discussion, another possible type of classroom discussion of pedagogical interest is investigative discussion. This is a discussion between equals aimed at acquiring or processing new knowledge. In investigative discussion there is no pre-estaplished authority. A typical example is student group discussion, where the students are equal as regards social status and knowledge, and authority has to be established through discussion (Leiwo 1984; Leiwo et al. 1987c).

2. A DESCRIPTION OF MONOLOGUES AND QUESTIONS IN INSTRUCTIVE DISCUSSION

2.1. THE STRUCTURE OF THE TEACHING MONOLOGUE

In our study (Leiwo et al. 1987a-b) teacher's monologues were analysed by applying Werlich's (1982) text typology of descriptive, narrative, expository and argumentative text forms. The monologues were described as hierarchical structures of utterances. The utterances in the monologues were classified as (1) naming, (2) definition, (3) description, (4) narrative, (5) comparision, (6) cause and effect, (7) reason and justification, (8) evaluation and assessment, (9) opinion, (10) inference, deduction and generalization, and (11) hypothesis.

The following is a simple example of teacher's narrative:

> 82 and when Heidi was afraid that the vision would disappear, everyghing would burn, Peter comforted her because he knew that it would come back, the next day, 83 to-morrow it would be the same said Peter, 84 and so they went on

The monologues have a hierarchical structure. Part of the expressions belong to the main theme of the monologue, part are subordinated to it. The division is often signalled by paralinguistic and nonverbal means. The teacher presents the main theme by explaining the central content of the lesson which is then commented on, exemplified and specified by other expressions, whose connection to the main theme may be quite loose. In the examples, the structure of the monologue is vertical, and the other expressions are horizontally connected to the main theme. The further to the right the expression is, the less important it is to the progression of the main theme. The text above is described as follows.

```
82 narrative
!
!
83 narrative
! and so
!
84 narrative
```

As a more complicated example, consider the following monologue:

> 1 that kind of ice, of course the mass of it weighed enormously, 2 one cubic meter weighs almost a tonne, you know 3 and so that great weight of ice, pressed the crust of the earth down 4 it was many hundreds of meters lower down than to day 5 on the other hand it is a bit like a rubber ball this globe, taken as a whole, like- 6 so on the other hand, areas here were pushed up 7 and that way they were higher 8 well maybe not here 9 but around here at any rate 10 and when the ice melted in its own good time 11 the weight was taken off 12 and all the land started to rise to its former height 13 and this is why we here in Finland even now get more land every year on these shores

The structure of the monologue can be described as follows:

```
1 narrative   ---   2 naming
!
3 effect     ---    3 description
!
!
                    5 description
6 effect
                    7 description      8 naming      9 naming
10 description
!
11 effect
!
12 effect
!
13 effect
```

Furthermore, the monologues as well as the episodes were classified in accordance with their cognitive level by applying Biggs and Collins (1982) SOLO-taxonomy.

2.2. The classification of questions

In the study, all thematic questions and answers, the teacher's as well as the students', were analysed according to their linguistic and cognitive character. The questions aimed at checking knowledge were classified as (1) questions involving choice of alternatives, (2) naming and classification questions, (3) definition and description questions, (4) cause, effect and reason questions, (5) comparision questions, (6) evaluation and assessment questions. The genuine information eliciting questions of the teacher and the students were both classified ceparately. The answers were classified according to content and cognitive level. We also coded the questions according to whether they were used in teaching new topics or in checking the knowledge of the students, i.e. hearing lessons.

3. THE STRUCTURE OF INSTRUCTIVE DISCOURSE

3.1. Quality and pedagogigal context of questions

The distribution of questions into, on the one hand, teaching new topics and, on the other hand, examining or checking what has been taught is a pedagogigally interesting index of the cognitive character of instructive discourse. Another pedagogically interesting aspect is the textual and pedagogical context of the questions.

In our (Leiwo et al. 1987b) carefully studied material of 24 lessons in Finnish compulsory schools we found that the huge majority of the questions (N = 1279) belongs to the first three classes (factual questions), and that there seems to be no qualitative differences between the teaching of new topics and the hearing of the topics.

TABLE 1. Distribution of questions in hearing lessons and teaching new topics

	Teaching	Hearing hoework
Factual	78.3	83.4
Others	21.7	16.7
of which causal and evaluative	12.8	12.7

The figures include the questions made by students, though the number (N = 51) is insignificant. It seems that both in teaching and in checking what the students have learned, the teachers concentrate on the remembering of facts, not, e.g., on causal reasoning. The discussion does not fulfill the preconditions for instructive discussion, i.e. the processing and developing of knowledge through discussion.

3.2. The cognitive function of monologues and interaction

In the material (Leiwo et al. 1987b), the cognitive level of the thematic episodes was not significantly higher than that of the thematic monologues.

TABLE 2. The cognitive level of thematic monologues and thematic episodes

Cognitive level	Teachers' monologues		Episodes	
unistructural	186	51.5	176	42.0
polystructural	128	35.5	198	47.1
relational	47	13.0	45	10.6
abstract	-	-	1	0.3
Total	361	100	420	100

It seems that the interactive parts of the episodes raise the cognitive level somewhat. The table does not, however, tell very much, because a polystructural sequence is actually the sum of two or more unistructural sequences. What can be clearly seen, however, is that a relational cognitive level is never reached by means of interaction.

In addition, the more complex the episode, the smaller the number of utterances in interactive moves in the episode appears to be (Leiwo et al. 1987b, 34):

TABLE 3. The number of utterances in monologues and interactive moves

Cognitive level of the episode	Number of utterances in monologues	Number of utterances in interactive moves	Total number of ut- terances
unistructural	12.6 %	87,4 %	2521
polystructural	21.6 %	78.4 %	4321
relational	29.0 %	58.9 %	1261
(abstract	23.5 %	76.5 %	68)
Total	21.8 %	78.2 %	8191

This type of statistical analysis does not, however, give much interesting information apart from they distribution of utterances into content classes and their context in the exchanges.

4. THE TEXTUAL AND DISCOURSIVE STRUCTURE OF INSTRUCTIVE DISCOURSE

4.1. The relation between monologues and questions

We also studied the textual and discursive context of the questions. Textually the questions often follow the teacher's monologue and deal with some minor aspects of the main theme like naming, describing and defining concepts that have been introduced by the teacher. For example, the teacher's short monologous narrative about Heidi and Peter continues with the following teacher's question:

> 85 how did Peter get the goats to come together,
> 86 Jukka
> 87 he whistled
> 88 by whistling, 89 and so they went back home, 90 and Heidi was happy again, 91 ...

The question (85) involves a description of how the goats were hearded together. It entails the proposition "(and next) Peter collected the goats", and the task of the student is to describe how he did it. In the textual and discursive context of the discourse, the fact that Peter collected the goats belongs to the main theme of the narrative progression, the way he did it is a subordinate matter. In the interaction it is the teacher who is responsible for the progression of the text, the student participates by talking only about matters subordinate to the main theme. However, in the pedagogical context of discussing home work when the students have already read the text there prerequisetes for their taking responsibility for the progression of the main theme exist.

The following discussion is another example of the textual context of the questions: (Lesson 1):

> T: 84 (the Swedes) had already started the conversion of Finland earlier, 85 the first crusade was made in 1140 if I remember right, 86 now did the Swedes act when the Orthodox religion penetrated into Finland, or threatened to do so?, 87 Leena
>
> P: 88 the Swedes started to spread that religion of their own

T: 89 and how, how was this done in practice 90 in other words what did the Swedes do? 91 Seija

P: 92 crusades

This episode can be described as follows:

```
84 narrative - 85 naming
!
!
86 causal
   question - 88 consequence (answer)
                !
                !
                89 causal question - 90 Swedes did x, name x
                                       !
                                       !
                                       92 naming of x (answer)
```

In the example, the text type develops from descriptive into expository in the interactive part of the episode. In the teacher's question (86) the main theme of the discussion is developed through interaction. After that the teacher again makes a causal question (89), but in narrowing the question (in 90) partly answers it and the student's task is (91) only to name what the Swedes did. The answer does not help develop the main theme of the discourse.

4.2. The openness of the questions

To enable a more exact evalution of discoursive and contextual aspect of the questions the concept of the opennes of questions was developed.

The definition of the openness of questions in context can be derived from Grice's maxim of quantity. The maxim can be formulated in its simplest form "If proposition p entails the proposition q and q does not entail p, p is stronger than q" (for further discussion see e.g. Leech 1983, 84-). The openness of questions can be defined as follows: "Question p is more open than question q if the answer of p entails or presupposes the answer to q in the contex". Thus, for example, in the context where the existence of Prince Birger and the crusades in presupposed, the question "Why did Prince Birger go on the crusade?" is more open than

the question "Did Prince Birger go for a crusade?". In the Peter and Heidi Story above, a more open question in that context could have been e.g. "What did Peter do next?" or "What happened next?" instead of "How did Peter collect the goats?".

4.3. The students' thematic questions

The instructive discourse could also proceed with the aid of the students' questions. In our material this hardly ever happened. The motive of the students' questions was almost without exception to learn if the answer to or solution of the thask was right or wrong. The questions (N = 51) were most often made in the pedagogical context of going throuh exercises and checking home work (N = 32). Only five questions were made in the context of teaching new subject matter, and only two of these dealt with the teaching topic. In the one instance the teacher was explaining about the prehistoric population of Finland and a student asked if there were more than one hundered thousand people here two thousand years ago. In the other, the student asked what the word annoyance meant in a sentence illustrating the use of conjunctions. Both questions surprised the teacher who was concentrating on teaching and the students did not receive a proper reply.

Bot the tencency of teachers to ask about facts and the nature of the students' questions show that students seem to have internalised a specific concept of knowledge. The information to be learned consists of facts that can, without exeption, be differentiated from non-facts. This is also illustrated by the following example (Lesson 13):

T: 309 it is easier to agree with the group than to disagree, 310 this is naturally totally crazy this type of experimental situation, mm. although you may think to yourself that John is a nice chap, but the others think he is a complete (clicks, i.e. "fool") well, 313 isn't it easier to agree with the group than, mm, go against it (and say) that, John is very nice, 315 so he -

P: 316 which one of these (answers) is the right one then

T: 317 well, I would say that you may choose the one you think is the right one

The student is not interested in the moral problem but he wants to know which one of the choices given in the exercise book is the right one.

5. DISCUSSION

Several rules and strategies for how to make questions, how to direct the conversation and what to talk about in instructive discourse have been suggested. The problem with the rules of instructive discussion is, however, that the students' mistakes and ignorance become the dominant factor in the discourse. Also, in talking about moral values or in finding out about the students' experiences using genuine information-eliciting questions (vs. information-eliciting questions) as in investigative discussion would seem to be a more proper way of discussing the theme. In discussing values and experiences, the teacher is not the omniscient authority and the discussion need not be built around the teacher's plan of how to proceed. The pupils have an equal right to make questions, to refute the relevance of the questions and answers etc. The analysis of classroom discourse presented above and studies in other countries show, however, that the main purpose of classroom discourse is checking the remembering of facts and eliciting a display of knowledge from the students. The possibilities of developing genuine instructive discussion or investigative discussion to process knowledge, to make hypotheses about causal chains, to develop ideas etc. are not exploited by the teachers.

An interesting task in the study of classroom discourse is to try to formulate the preconditions or maxims of genuine instructive discourse, i.e. what kind of questions in different contexts are optional if the teacher aims at genuine instructive (or investigative) discourse.

As an example, consider again the information checking question about how Peter herded the goats together. The pedagogical context of the interaction is hearing home work and the class of 12-year-olds is discussing a story the students have read in the reader. In this context it would be possible for the main narrative line of story to be advanced through

interaction using more open questions instead of the teacher's monologues and questions about detail. In the example, the questions deal with matters subordinate to the main narrative theme, such as naming the goats of the herd, discribing the concept the teacher introduces etc.

The most important and essential, but nevertheless insufficient, prerequisite for genuine instructive discourse could be formulated in the following way:

> In genuine instructive discussion there has to be questions that make the students participate in the development of the main theme.

The narrative theme, for example, is not advanced as regards content by questions that elicit naming of the teacher's descriptions or describing the concepts the teacher has presented. Equally, in causal discussion the students should participate in developing the causal main theme. Naturally, the teacher can make other types of questions to make sure everybody has understood, to check if the students remember the story etc., but there has to be more open questions in the discourse to make it a genuine instructive discussion.

The most general maxim following from this prerequisite could be formulated as follows:

> Make the questions as open as possible in the given pedagogical, textual and discoursive context.

As mentioned before, the precondition is necessary but insufficient to guarantee genuine instructive discussion. There are also several eliciting new information which answer genuine questions content and interaction preconditions as regards, questions dealing with values and moral judgements (investigative discourse) etc. It seems that in practice classroom discussion is relatively dependent on the progression and exercises in textbooks (e.g. Leiwo and Pöyhönen 1987), and the preconditions and maxims should be taken into consideration when compiling textbooks as well as in classroom discussion.

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THE THEORETICAL BASE OF INTENSIVE TEACHING

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this article[1] is to present some theoretical premises for the development of intensive teaching developed in the Soviet Union and its applications to foreign language teaching. The writing of the report was made possible by the co-operation agreement between the Finnish Ministry of Education and the Pushkin Institute of Russian, which gave me the opportunity of acquainting myself with the theory of intensive teaching and of following the practical application of intensive methods in teaching situations at the University of Moscow, the Pushkin Institute of Russian, and the Academy of Social Sciences.

The use of the term *intensive teaching* is sometimes criticised on grounds of ambiguity (see Sherzhan 1981). It is customary to refer to all teaching methods which are concentrated into a short-term framework as intensive teaching, regardless of the special features of the teaching content. In modern Russian the term normally used for this kind of teaching is *accelerated teaching* whereas intensive teaching is used in a more specific sense to denote teaching methods insipired by suggestopaedy, in which the intensiveness lies in the quality of the teaching-learning process, rather than in the organisational aspects of teaching.

Intensive teaching can be defined as a *methodological system* approach, in which an attempt is made to *qualitatively develop* the teaching by using the research results of several academic disciplines. Its central aim is to raise *internal learning intensity* by activating those potential resources (reserves) in the personality of the learner which generally go

[1] This article is based on the report: Sirkka Laihiala-Kankainen: "Intensive Methods of Language Teaching", published by Language Centre for Finnish Universities, 1988.

unheeded and unused in normal teaching. The objective of intensive teaching is, thus, for the student to learn as much as possible in the shortest possible time.

Suggestopaedy is considered as one form of intensive teaching, whose central ideas are frequently utilised, in one way or another, in nearly all intensive methods. Most supporters of and researchers into this approach have received their training in Bulgaria as students of Lozanov in the period 1960 - 70. Since then, there have been various opinions regarding the development of suggestopaedy; divergences from Lozanov's theories have occurred both in research trends and in teaching practice.

In the Soviet Union, suggestopaedy began to be applied to foreign language teaching in the early 1970s, and simultaneously there was an endeavour to create scientific and mehtodological basic principles for intensive teaching theory (see Leontiev 1981a: 114-118). Although there was agreement with Lozanov on many principles, the researchers also wished to seek their own solutions to the problems, both practical and theoretical, which the extensive application of suggestopaedy to language teaching entailed.

As the most important practical problem, Leontiev (1981a: 114) cites the adaptation of the principles and methods of intensive teaching to the forms and circumstances of language teaching prevailing in the country. In Bulgaria, suggestopaedy originally started out to meet the linguistic requirements of a fairly limited target group (adults travelling abroad), and the method was only later adapted, for instance, to school education. In the Soviet Union, language teaching is very broadly based, and different levels of education and different target groups have to be considered. This also involves a further practical problem, i.e. the training of teachers in the command of intensive teaching methods. Successful application of the method requires meticulously organised further training of teachers before large-scale teaching can be put into practice.

The application of suggestopaedy to language teaching also brought with it some theoretical problems. To begin with, attitudes in the Soviet Union towards some theoretical assumptions of suggestopaedy were rather critical, though Lozanov was held in esteem for his insights into the exploitation of involuntary memory and the subconscious in the learning process. While Lozanov's method above all emhpasises a psychotherapeutic

approach, considerable attention has been paid in the Soviet Union to the psychological, sociopsychological, and pedagogical principles of language teaching and learning. The development of theories of intensive teaching has been influenced above all by the theories of general, personalistic and social psychology, psychophysiological principles and various trends in psycholinguistics.

The present report begins with a general description of recent developments in intensive teaching in the Soviet Union: the psychological theory of activity (L.S. Vygotsky and his school), the theory of the psychology of the collective (A.V. Petrovsky), and the principles of pedagogical communication (A.A. Leontiev). This is followed by the description of the psychological and mehtodological principles of developed under G.A. Kitaigorodskay's direction.

2. THE PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY OF ACTIVITY

In the Soviet Union, the *psychological theory of activity* forms a kind of general frame of reference for language teaching methodology, from which can be deduced principles concerning the nature of language and its special features, and the nature of human learning: in other words, it provides basic elements for theories both of language and of learning.

The term "language" usually means a *code system* by means of which objects in the external world, their actions, qualities, and inter-relationships, are labelled (Luria 1979: 86). Language is also a *means of social interaction or communication* through which the individual stores and transmits information and assimilates the accumulated experience of previous generations.

Language is of central importance to the development of human consciousness, as it is linked to all areas of conscious human activity and raises human mental process to a new level. Thus, in the Soviet Union, speech and language analysis is not regarded as merely a subdomain of psychology, but rather as a factor affecting the structuring of the whole of conscious human life.

Soviet psychology differentiates between the concepts of *activity* and *behaviour*, both of which represent forms of activity characteristic of living organisms (e.h. Dridze 1980: 25). The difference between these concepts is related to consciousness; actions can be conscious, paraconscious, or subconscious. Conscious action manifests itself in activity; in other words, activity is conscious, motivated, purposeful, and socially regulated, and by means of it the individual relates to nature and to his socio-cultural environment. Subconscious or paraconscious action, on the other hand, represents behaviour manifested in outwardly visible forms of activity and stereotypes which the individual has adopted either as a result of repetition or imitation. Awareness is the element which distinguishes the human race from other living creatures.

The following section attempts to clarify briefly the essenetial components of activity theory (see Luria 1979: 80-94; Talyzina 1981: 32-44; Leontiev 1982: 4-5).

The structure of activity

One of the purposes of psychology is to examine the structure of human activity. It is possible to distinguish similar structural components in any kind of activity. Ordinarily, four phases of activity are distinguished (Leontiev, 1982: 5):

1) *orientation:* the adaptation of an activity to fit the circumstances;
2) the *planning phase;* the planning of the activity on the basis of the orientation phase;
3) the *implementation phase:* implementation of the plan;
4) *checking:* comparison of the results achieved with the original plan.

For example, a lecturer tries, in advance, to take account of his audience and any other factors that may affect his lecture, and to prepare his lecture accordingly. While lecturing, he can observe the audience and estimate how well he has achieved the desired results, whether the audience have understood his message, etc.

Every act has a certain *objective*, and activity is organised in such a way that the objective is to be reached in the best possible way, in the shortest possible time, and with the least trouble possible. The setting of

an objective for an activity supposes a *need* for its achievement. For this reason, every activity has its *motive*, or set of motives. It is the motive which provides the stimulus for the performance of the activity.

Activity is realised by means of *actions*, each of which may have its own objective. Every action, again, is composed of *operations*, whose selection depends upon the concrete conditions of the activity. For example, driving a car involvels a chain of objective-oriented actions (taking the car out of the garage, warming up the engine, etc.). These actions, in turn, are composed of separate operations; operations are the means by which an action is carried out. A learner driver sets himself each intermediate objective separately; in other words, he acts consciously. Gradually, the separate actions become automatic, and only the final objective remains conscious. In this way, a person first learns to produce each operation separately, and it is only when they have become automatic that they enter the subconscious. Thus, the structural components of activity - actions and operations - initially have their own motives and objectives, and are completely conscious. Later, however, they become automatic and merge with the activity as a whole.

In principle, the same transitions also occur in the development of *speech activity* in a foreign language. To begin with, the discrete components of the language - words, structures, grammatical rules, etc. - are assimilated consciouisly. These later become automatic and subconscious, there remaining only one conscious objective: to express a content.

The basic theory of controlled learning

The development of an activity also involves other than structural changes; external, material actions and operations change simultaneously into internal, mental processes. This ensues from the fact that human mental actions are genetically based on external actions. For example, when a child learns to count, it does so, first, with the aid of objects, and only later comes to perform the task mentally; similarly, external speech processes - thinking aloud - precede internal speech. The change from external to internal actions, and from practical to mental activity, is referred to as *interiorisation*. In Soviet psychology, this has been researched especially by P.Y. Galprin (see Galperin 1972; Galperin & Leontiev 1974).

According to Galperin, mental action is a psychic reflection of external, material actions. The theory of the stage-by-stage development of mental actions follows the development of actions from beginning to end - from external, materially realised actions to their internal, mental form. The most imortant stages in which learning should occur are as follows (Talyzina 1981: 109-134):

1) The orientation stage
Orientation is the most important means by which the learning of a new action may be quided and regulated. Different types of orienting basis provide different opportunities for the learning of actions.

2) The material (materialised) stage
In this stage, actions are performed either with the aid of materials (real objects of physical actions appropriate to the subject matter) or representations of these (plans, drawings, models, diagrams, etc.). External support is thus associated either directly with material objects, or with their representations. In teaching new actions, the first task is to compile material or representational forms of exercises and to define their contents. The orienting basis provides a framework for this.

3) The external speech stage
Actions pass from the stage of material-related actions into the form of external speech, in which the object of the action becomes ideational and abstract. In this way also, actions become shorter, operations are performed more quickly, and, because actions are expressed orally, they can easily be controlled.

4) The internal, silent speech stege
After the external speech stage comes a stage of action performance on an internal, mental level. The action, however, is not yet entirely internalised; the learner makes use of speech, mostly directed at himself (silent speech).

5) The internalised stage
In the internalised stage, the form of speech described in 4) above is abbreviated and compressed until only slight fragments of it remain conscious. Actions are carried out automatically, without conscious thought, and one can now speak of concrete actions being implemented as mental actions.

In teaching, it is important to consider the fact that the internalising process abbreviates and compresses physical actions. Teaching which aims directly at finished, abbreviated actions, without phased internalisation, leads to narrowranged mechanical performance. Correspondingly, teaching in which verbal knowledge does not derive from actions on a material level can easily lead to the acquisition of a verbal command of knowledge (verbalism, formalism) without the ability to understand or apply it.

The methodology based on Galperin's theory has been developed and tried out with good results, for instance in training young people for work, and teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic, and native language grammar (Leontiev 1982). Attempts have also been made to apply it to foreign language teaching, but so far with poorer results. This seems to be due, on the one hand, to the psychologists of Galperin's school not being sufficiently well acquainted with the special requirements of language teaching, and, on the other hand, to teachers and methodologists involved in practical education not being given sufficient information about the theory. For these reasons, the interest shown in Galperin's theory in the 1960s decreased after a brief period of enthusiasm (Leontiev & Utes 1986), and it is only in recent years that the theory has surfaced again, in the wake of intensive teaching. It is this theory which is seen as providing a scientific basis for the development of speech activity in foreign language teaching.

The application of activity theory to foreign language teaching

According to Leontiev (1982: 5), the task of the teacher is to aid the student in transforming the external form of the subject (e.g. a foreign language) into an internal. psychological form (interiorisation). The aim of teaching is not yet achieved if the learner can convert the language system into a "psycho-physiological ability to speak" (Shcherba), but is unable to realise this ability in spoken communication proper. Thus, a second, very important psychological task is to move form *ability* (competence) to *activity* (performance). The concept of activity thus takes on two meanings in language learning: firstly, it is data processing activity, in which language is assimilated; and, secondly, it is activity, during which the language is *used in communication.*

When performing the first function - transforming language from an external into an internal, psychological form - the teacher should try to ensure that the learner develops certain speech operations. In addition, these speech operations should be united to form speech actions. Speech operations which have developed to the level of complete performance are referred to as *speech habits*. Command of a foreign language is command of the system of speech habits.

The ability to correctly form and produce linguistic expressions does not yet guarantee realisation of the communicative functions of that language, since speech habits as such (even in a highly developed form) are insufficient in the ever-changing circumstances of communication. For this reason, it is necessary to acquire not only speech habits but also communicative skills, *verbal skills*. Verbal skills can be considered as a kind of structure existing above the level of speech habits, but they also have a certain psychological independence: for a person to be able to communicate freely and correctly, he must be able to adapt communication to circumstances and, on the basis of this orientation, structure his speech in different ways in different situations (cf. the structure of activity). While speech habits are by nature mechanical, verbal skills have a creative character. They are closely related to the various aspects of the human psyche: thought, imagination, and emotion - that is to say, to the entire human personality.

On the basis of the above, all forms of practice in language teaching can be divided into two main groups:

1) exercises whose purpose is to develop *speech habits* (i.e. operations) and unite them into actions
2) exercises whose purpose is to develop *verbal skills*.

Neither of these forms of practice is mechanical by nature. The development of speech habits involves the purposeful restructuring of activity: a movement from the conscious to the automatic; the combining of independent, individual activities to form parts of a larger whole; and the transformation of actions from an external into an internal form. Exercises concerned with the development of verbal skills are particularly demanding, as it is their function to give a creative character to speech activity. In order to develop verbal skills, communication must gradually be made to cover a wider range of circumstances, and attention must be paid to an increasing number of different factors affecting communication.

Until quite recently, psychologists and methodologists have concentrated on problems concerning the development of speech habits and have almost entirely neglected the complex area of verbal skills. The focussing of interest on the discrete components of speech activity and the overall structure they form has meant that the personality of the speaking individual has been ignored. The result of this has been a certain formality in teaching, and the neglect of the hidden resources of the individual, although theuse of just such psychological reserves could make the development of speech habits and verbal skills both quicker and easier. Realising the principle of communicativeness in language teaching requires organically combining speech habits and verbal skills in the teaching process, understanding the creative character of speech activity, and exploiting the entire psychological reserves of the personality.

2. THE PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY OF THE COLLECTIVE AND PEDAGOGICAL COMMUNICATION

Two problem areas of social psychology have come very much to the fore in the development of intensive teaching. The first of these is concerned with the social psychology of groups and collectives and involves the *collective nature of learning* in the circumstances of intensive teaching. The second area of concern is related to communication psychology and comprehends *pedagogic influence and the regulation of pedagogic interaction* in the teaching process. This chapter attempts to provide theoretical premises and basic data for understanding these phenomena.

The collective as an object of socia-psychological research

Traditional social psychology does not include the concept of the collective, as its object of research is generally considered to be only the group, or small group, and the phenomena and laws associated with it. For this reason, the collective - insofar as it appears in a text - is often identified with the group, although these concepts are not strictly equivalent. In more recent Soviet socio-psychological literature, the collective is very precisely defined as a specific group with its own characteristic features.

According to Petrovsky (1979: 227), a *collective* is a group in which inter-personal relationships are formed on a basis of a socially valuable and personally significant joint activity. This definition thus emphasies two special features, which act simultaneously as criteria for the collective 1) the *content* of collective activity (What kind of activity has drawn the group together? What is the object of the activity and what are its functions?) and 2) the social and personal *significance* of the activity (Is the activity based on socially important values? What is its social significance?).

In Soviet social psychology, the collective is understood as a highly developed group, whose internal processes and laws are basically different from the phenomena prevailling within diffuse groups. A *diffuse group* - which is the object of research in traditional Western social psychology - is not socially determined; in other words, it may not be examined from the viewpoint of joint activity content and the value attached to this feature, but rather, the nature of the interactive relationships within the group is seen as being *directly* determined by other factors, such as group size, frequency of contact, group cohesion, etc.

According to Petrovsky (1979: 207), the interaction between individuals in a group can, in principle, be portrayed in two dimensions. *functional relations* (Responsible dependency) and *personal relations*. In diffuse groups, contacts are created through personal relationships (sympathy, antipathy, etc.), while in a collective it is the functional relations which dominate, i.e. the interaction between individuals in a collective is *mediated* by the actual content of activity. Although this "theory of the indirect functional basis of interpersonal relationships", formulated in the early 1970s, is still at the developmental stage, it is possible, according to Petrovsky, to speak of a *psychological theory of the collective*, whose basic premises are common with those of the theory of activity.

The psychological theory of the collective and language teaching

One of the leading principles of Soviet pedagogy is the idea, originally proposed by A.S. Makarenko, of education "in and through the collective". Pedagogic theories of the collective were later developed further by, for instance, such well-known educational theorists as N.K. Krupskaya, S.T. Shchatsky, and V.A. Suhomlinsky. According to their view, teaching always has an educational function, and the group, the collective, is the natural community through which, and with the aid of which, this function can be realised. In this sense one can speak of a *learner collective*.

A learner collective might be characterised by adapting the general definition of a collective to signify a group in which the content of joint activity is learning (e.g. foreign language learning), and in which the social and personal significance of the activity is determined by the value placed on knowledge (or skills, e.g. linguistic skills) in the community. The organisation of the teaching-learning process determines interaction between group members. In contrast to the frontal teaching of individuals one can speak of *collective teaching* (e.g. Leontiev & Kitaigorodskaya 1983), in which interaction takes place between the teacher and the student collective. In this kind of teaching the reciprocal relationship between learners is also important; intellectual tasks are worked out jointly within a framework of task and role division.

In a group, a collective evolves through certain phases. It can be seen as a process which may be consciously influenced by different measures. In intensive teaching, which brings group members together each day for quite long periods (4 - 6 hours), a collective can evolve relatively quickly, if the teacher can direct this process. A description follows of the different phases in the evolution of a collective in intensive teaching and of the teacher's role as the promoter of this development (see Karpenko 1981: 63-65):

1) The initial phase: testing

   Initial testing is generally arranged for intensive teaching candidates, with the aim of trying to choose persons having a largely similar starting level of knowledge (linguistic skills). This is the teacher's first opportunity of orientate herself to the future group.

2) The contact phase: the development of inter-relationships within the group and the provision of behavioural models

   The evolution of a learner collective begins during the first meeting of group and teacher. This contact phase, which generally lasts 3-4 days in intensive teaching, is of particular importance and carries a large share of the responsibility for determining the nature of the development of subsequent activities. The most efficient mode of leadership for a group that is still in the process of formation is well organised and centralised guidance: the teacher must immediately take the initiative in the group, fix attention of herself, and direct the teaching process att all levels. It is the teacher's task to provide a model for inter-relationships within the group and a set of behavioural norms; in other words, she must demonstrate by example the kind of group activity that is desirable, positive, and acceptable, as well as what, on the other hand, is undesirable. If the teacher cannot take the initiative from the beginning, the group may instinctively begin to develop undesirable forms of interaction and behaviour, which it will be difficult to change later.

"Authoritarian" leadership of the contact group in this specific phase is based on the fact that a group in which people do not know each other - or do so only very slightly - is particularly susceptible to the influence of authoritarian suggestion. During the first few days of activity, the group easily accepts the model offered by the teacher, mainly through imitation and the mechanism of suggestion. This model later develops into a norm, habits, and customs, and becomes established as a behavioural stereotype.

3) The transition phase: transfer of regulation of norms and behavioural models to the group

The behavioural norms and models conveyed by the teacher gradually begin to act as regulators of interaction in the group. In this phase, on the 5th-6th day of teaching, interpersonal relationships generally display the first distinctive signs of the evolution of a collective: 1) a growing interest in the teaching and a wish to be involved in group community, 2) more active communication, 3) reinforcement of empathy and of the feeling of belonging to the group.

4) The establishment phase: the establishment of functional and friendly relations in the group

In this phase, the teacher changes her style of leadership: she stands aside more and more in order to give the group a chance to express its own activeness. The activeness and initiative of group members must be encouraged, since activeness expresses a growing interest in learning activity, and interested participation, again, points to a high level of internal motivation. From this phase onwards the teacher's activity should be directed mainly towards the

achievement of two aims: teaching effectively and maintaining and reinforcing learning motivation. In addition to this, the teacher's task is to control and guide group activity, if the normal progress in the process of evolution of the collective is in any way disturbed.

In the establishment phase, features typical of a welldeveloped collective can be perceived in the group; for instance, emotional identification within the group and the development of a *collectivistic identification* (Petrovsky 1979: 227), in other words, relating to group members in the same way as to the self, and vice versa. This kind of attitude is characterised by, for instance, a lack of egotism, a readiness to support and help others, to give way when necessary, and to work to achieve the general aims of the group. *Emotional identification* within the group, again, signifies a kind of interpersonal relationship in which the emotions of each member of the group motivate the behaviour of other group members in some way, channelling behaviour in such a direction that tasks related to the joint activity are performed, and, at the same time, any frustrating factors are removed (Petrovsky 1979: 226). The following features are also characteristic of an established collective: the great cohesion of the group, the uniformity of value orientation, and group members' collectivist self-determination.

When the group has acquired the characteristics of a collective, it can be regarded as a learner collective, capable of self-determination and self-development. The teacher's role is now to act as a knowledgeable authority; in all other respects she is an equal member of the collective and attached to it by bonds of function and friendship. The teacher retains elements of her earlier function as leader by providing information, controlling and stimulating group processes, and still providing support and encouragement.

The theory of collective teaching and learning is only in its developmental phase, but has already aroused very considerable interest in intensive teaching circles. Though this form of teaching has been presented here as an alternative to traditional frontal teaching, based on individual data acquisition and assimilation, the collective principle does not exclude individual learning. On the contrary, activity, creativity, and individuality are especially emphasised in collective learning theory, individualism being merely interpreted differently than in traditional teaching.

Individualism and the harmonious development of personality in a learner collective are realised through internal group interaction, where learners relate to each other through group activity content, and in which the distinctive personal characteristics of each group member enrich and support the activity of the group as a whole. The learner collective must also be aware of the aims of the joint activity. Initially, the group is engaged in achieving short-term aims, but, with the development of the collective, long-term objectives - perspectives of activity with social significance - become increasingly important. Attainment of the joint aim presupposes an often very complex division of labour, in which every group member has his own individual role and function, and in which awareness of the self as part of the whole has a great educational power. For this reason, collective work requires consciously organised and well planned pedagogical communication by the teacher.

The premises of pedagogical communication

Pedagogical influences are always at work in education and teaching. The nature of communication in the teaching process and its reflection in learning have in recent years been clearly recognised as forming one of the central problems of teaching and upbringing. One indicator of this is the formulation of the concept of *pedagogical communication*. This term was first used by A.A. Leontiev at the 5th Delegates' Meeting of Soviet psychologists in 1977 (Leontiev 1981b: 10), after which it quickly spread into general use. The first work to deal with pedagogical communication was Leontiev's *Pedagogičeskoe obščenie*, published in 1977, in which he attempted to describe the content of the concept and its research premises. The early years of this decade then saw the appearance of some theoretical and applied studies on the subject of pedagogical communication (Bodalev 1983; Bodalev & Kovalev 1983; Kan-Kalik & Kovalev 1985), and attempts have also been made to apply its principles to teacher training.

In the Soviet Union, pedagogical communication has been very much in the forefront in connection with the development of intensive teaching, as the central prerequisite for this form of teaching is the teacher's conscious control over her own communication and that occurring in the group, as well as the socio-psychological processes associated with it. A more precise analysis of this concept must be prefaced by a general definition of communication and a definition of pedagogical communication with its special features.

Communication as activity

Leontiev (1979b: 4-6) defines communication as a process (processes) which is realised within a certain social community, whether a group, a collective, or a whole society. This process is not interindividual but *social*. According to Leontiev, communicative processes are created by social needs of necessities. Communication serves collective activity, and simultaneously expresses and realises social relationships.

Leontiev (1979b: 5) distinguishes between three forms or types of communication:

1) *Socially oriented communication*
Communication of this type is represented by, for instance, a lecture, talk, television appearance, etc., in which the speaker acts as the representative of some community (collective or social group). His task is social in the sense that he tries to prompt his audience into being socially active, or to give them socially meaningful ideas, to inform them, or to change their opinions, value system, etc.

2) *Materially oriented communication*
Most theorists of communication take this form of communication, which consists of interaction between one individual and another, as their premise. This kind of communication can vary as regards objectives: it can be factual, i.e. oriented towards some joint activity and thus, in principle, congruent with materially oriented communication, or it can "clarify relationships", in other words, have no connection with activity.

The teaching situation involves social communication, which entails much more than a transfer of information. Pedagogical communication can, generally speaking, be defined as interaction between teacher and learners (pedagogic collective) in a teaching process which has certain pedagogical aims. According to Leontiev (1979b: 8; see also Kan-Kalik & Kovalev 1985), pedagogical communication is optimal when:

- it takes account of the creative nature of learning activity
- it tries to develop every aspect of the learner's personality

- it creates a favourable emotional climate for study and, above all, prevents the development of "psychological barriers" against learning
- the teacher is in control of the socio-psychological processes in the group
- the teacher's personal qualities can be exploited in the teaching process.

Consequently, pedagogical communication must be interpreted in a much broader way than that provided by traditional descriptions and analyses of the teaching process, in which the teacher is considered as being a provider of information transfer and verbal directions, while learner activity is considered almost exclusively from the point of view of learning results and behaviour in reaction to stimuli provided by the teacher.

The skills of pedagogical communication

According to Klimov's (1974: 143) classification, education and teaching belong to those forms of professional activity where communication plays a considerable part, and which require intersocial abilities and skills (socionomic type of activity). Klimov defines intersocial abilities as the personal characteristics which ensure successful interaction between people. These skills include, for instance, understanding and influencing people, establishing contacts, and organising joint activities. Communication is the main means by which educational and teaching tasks are carried out. In language teaching its significance is even more apparent, since communication is not only the *means* of teaching but also its *objective*: foreign language teaching is explicitly the teaching of communication in the language concerned. For this reason, particular attention should be paid to the communicative skills of the teacher.

The teacher's *personal characteristics* determine the individual style of her activity: what means and practices of concrete pedagogical influencing she chooses and how she combines the. Regardless of these personal characteristics she must also possess *professional skills*. These professional skills - including pedagogical communication - are, according to Leontiev, skills which can be learned, and which every teacher should possess.

It is possible to distinguish between two aspects of communicative skills. On the one hand, one can consider the communicative use of the teacher's personality in the communicative process, her *self presentation*. In communication psychology this means: the way in which a person presents himslef to an interlocutor to make it easier for the latter to form a picture of him. It is a question of providing a model of one's personality, which is an indispensable prerequisite of efficient communication, since it helps the interlocutor to orient himself with respect to the communicative situation. The other aspect of communicative skills is in the *technique of communication and contact*, which includes both verbal and non-verbal communication.

From a pedagogical viewpoint, Leontiev (1979b: 35) includes the following as central communicative skills:

- skills of social perception ("reading faces")
- the ability to understand a learner's personality and psychological state from external signs
- the communicative use of one's own personal characteristics
- verbal communication skills (optimal speech, in a ssychological sense)
- skills in establishing and maintaining contact on verbal and non-verbal levels.

Research into pedagogical communication is still at an unadvanced stage, as is its application to teaching and teacher training. Leotiev (1979b: 28) emphasies that pedagogical communication training, in fact, involves the creation of a completely "new type of teacher". The development of the teacher's personality is one of the most important aims of training, since the creative level of the teaching-learning process cannot be achieved by technical measures alone. The most important task of the teacher is seen as being the organisation and direction of learning and - as is usual in Soviet pedagogy - the combining of teaching and education in a teaching process that forms an organic whole.

4. THE PRINCIPLES OF INTENSIVE TEACHING

Intensive teaching can be described as foreign language teaching which (1) has as its primary goal the development of *oral linguistic skills* and the *understanding of speech* (communication in the foreign language), (2) utilises those *psychological resources* of the personality which conventional teaching ignores, and which (3) is usually carried out in an intensive fashion (4 - 6 hours daily) over short periods (ranging from two weeks to a few months).

Though intensive teaching has, in practice, established its position as a special form of language teaching, some uncertainty remains as to what is genuine intensive teaching and what is merely a matter of more efficient teaching and learning. This is due to the fact that, the principles of intensive teaching having become generally known, some "compromise intensive teaching methodologies" have appeared whose aim is to make teaching generally more effective within the framework of traditional methods. Some specific methodologies have also been developed which only partly apply the principles of intensive teaching (e.g. suggestive-cybernetic teaching).

It is, therefore, important to know the criteria by which the intensive teaching concept can be precisely and unambiguously defined (see Leontiev & Kitaigorodskaya 1983: 59). The *principles* of intensive teaching can be derived from the theoretical premises presented earlier. Kitaigorodskaya (1981: 6-14) divides the govering principles of intensive teaching into the *psychological and pedagogical principles* and the *psychological and methodological principles* of teaching, of which the former provide the general strategy of intensive teaching, while the latter can be considered as the tactics derived from that strategy. The most important pedagogical principle is considered to be the organisation of teaching through collective activity. The methodological principles are classified in various ways in the literature; the classification introduced by Kitaigorodskaya (1981: 6-14) will be used here.

The nature of collective activity

According to the *collective principle*, learning is optimal in a group or collective which operates as a mobilising force for each member's personal reserves, and through which these reserves can be put to effective use. The system of collective activity requires conscious and purposeful control of the group's interactive processes and communication. In intensive teaching, organisation is the teacher's most important function; creativeness and the use of personal reserves are required in order that educational and instructional objectives may be attained. In other words, the organisation of group teaching requires *pedagogic communn skills*.

Intensive teaching requires small groups. The optimal size of an adult group is considered to be twelve, with both sexes represented. Traditionally, learning is thought to be more effective the smaller the group. Research into the influence of group size on learning results in intensive teaching has shown, however, that in groups of under five people the individual group member receives insufficient stimuli for learning. In addition, the processes which turn the group into a collective do not occur in such small groups. The *process of collective formation* is a central pedagogical factor in intensive teaching as regards both teaching and educational functions.

In connection with intensive teaching, a theory of collective learning has recently been put forward (Kitaigorodskaya 1981; Leontiev 1981a), according to which the group is regarded as a *collective subject*. Each group member "selects" something from the teaching according to his own personality and characteristics; acting within the group, he transmits what he has learned to the other group members. In this way "collective learning" occurs; group members teach each other. Putting this principle into practice requires versatile teaching materials and an abundance of different teaching situations to ensure each group member self-expression through them.

The two levels of the teaching process

The most central principle of intensive teaching adopted from Lozanov is that of the *two levels of the teaching process*. To Lozanov, this principle meant, above all, resorting to both conscious and unconscious, or involuntary, language learning by exploiting emotional and other interactive processes. In teaching situation, this dual-level principle is realised through the way in which new study material is presented, and through its practice, e.g. in the form of play and games, which have central importance also in sustaining motivation. Unmotivated, purposeless communication is not used in intensive teaching; the communicative situation aloways has an aim or purpose to be achieved.

According to Kitaigorodskaya, the dual-level principle can be examined from a number of viewpoints. Psychologically and methodologically it expresses one of the central ideas of intensive teaching - the use of *indirect objectives* in teaching. This means that the learner is not constantly aware of the actual objective (learning a foreign language), but of reaching indirect communicative objectives (performance of a specific speech act in a specific situation). In intensive teaching, communication is not only the final objective, but also a means of teaching.

In the teaching situation, communication should be structured in such a way that, initially, the learner is above all aware of the communicative goal of a task; his choice of the linguistic means by which to achieve this goal will largely be made unconsciously. Thus, certain linguistic means are internalised only in relation to certain situations; in other words, awareness of their communicative value is generated without conscious linguistic analysis. Generalisation and the deductive systematisation of linguistic phenomena occur only later. This is the true objective towards which the teacher gradually directs the group and of which she must always be conscious. Thus, the teacher has her own aims: as well as developing communicative skills she must provide for the systematisation of linguistic matter and the practice and automatisation of speech operations. All this should be achieved in communicative situations meaningful to the learner. Realisation of this system of direct and indirect objectives requries careful lesson preparation adn teaching materials specially developed for the purpose.

The global approach

The term *global approach* generally signifies that all possible means and channels by which the psyche of the student may be influenced are exploited in teaching. The teacher tries to produce an emotional atmosphere

which will favourably influence the learning process: a relaxed state of mind, a pleasant learning environment, and the use of music, games, and other creative components in teaching stimulate the learner emotionally and such activity in turn aids the process of acquisition and learning. A favourable atmosphere and emotionally stimulating activity are also very important from the educational point of view.

Kitaigorodskaya has also applied the global approach as a methodological principle in the *choice of teaching content* and *organisation*. In the first phase of intensive teaching, large chunks of spoken language are dealt with. This is followed by a phase of language system analysis, and finally a return is made to the large entities in the phase of synthesis. Thus, three phases of teaching can be distinguished theoretically:

1st phase		2nd phase		3rd phase
speech (reč')	—	language (jazyk)	—	speech (reč')
synthesis		analysis		synthesis

This division is purely theoretical in the sense that in an intensive course three different phases with differing teaching aims cannot necessarily be clearly distinguished. It is, perhaps, more accurate to say that these phases are realised simultaneously; in other words, while part of the linguistic material is being introduced as new (first phase), another part may simultaneously be undergoing analysis (second phase). Thus, as the course advances, the amount of material entering the third (synthetic) phase is steadily increasing.

The *first synthetic phase* operates entirely on a spoken language level, without any attempt at analysing linguistic features. The length of this phase depends on the level of the group: in a beginners' course it will generally take up between a quarter and a third of the whole length of the course (on average, 5 - 7 days). This time is spent going through the so-called *communicative core* of the course - the most essential part of the learning material - the acquisition of which forms the ultimate objective (in a beginners' course, 1000 - 1500 lexical units). More advanced groups move on to the analytical phase more quickly and the different phases start to overlap.

In the *analytical phase* concentration centres largely on the language itself, its structures and characteristics; the objects of conscious analysis are expressly the elements most central in terms of communicativeness. This, however, does not mean resorting to traditional grammar teaching methods; instead, analysis is based on a command of language which has already been automatised to a certain extent as a result of practice in the first phase.

The teacher's task is to decide when the group is ready to make an analysis of what it has learnt, thus avoiding the "forced feeding" of grammar. When the learner himself experiences analysis and systematisation of the language as meaningful and appropriate, he is also motivated to embark on it.

Genuine creative speech is produced only after the analytical phase, as it is precisely the analytical examination of the communicative core of the learning materials that provides a foundation for the learner's own creative language production. The *second synthetic phase* presupposes mastery of the communicative core, because this enables the student to combine what he has learnt in new ways and apply it creatively to new situations.

This kind of approach can be described as deductive-inductive-deductive (Kitaigorodskaya 1981a: 91). The purpose of the comprehensive range of linguistic materials is to give the student an opportunity for analytical activity from the very beginning of his studies, i.e. a chance to search for or deduce connections and rules. Only after this can analytical operations be transferred to new material and creative language use become possible in a variety of communicative situations.

Linking the conscious and the subconscious

The *principle of linking the conscious and the subconscious* in intensive teaching is based on the premises of the psychological theory of activity and the speech activity theory. Speech activity is considered a purposeful and motivated activity, the development of which can also be followed on an operational level.

The premises for the development of speech activity are not those features of language which are the objects of learning, but the needs and motives which act as an impetus for certain speech acts. It is speech acts that create the system of operations. In the teaching process, not all operations are conscious simultaneously; at any given time, some are still unconscious, others are just then objects of awareness, and still others have already been consciously processed and become stereotypes (automatic). Oral communication is also a phased learning process. Meaning, or content, is the central element of communication, and within this framework the learner uses various speech operations to solve communicative tasks.

The linking of conscious and subconscious activity is closely related to the dual-level and the globality principles. In the first synthetic phase of teaching, the communicative core material is practised by developing speech habits and uniting them into speech acts. It is only in the second, analytical phase of teaching that some of these operations are made the objects of conscious analysis. With the automatisation of speech habits, the range of material over which the learner has conscious command increases. Thus, the analysis of linguistic elements occurs, not in an abstract system, but as a synthesis based on elements of content. In the third, synthetic phase proper, the student has already achieved, through conscious awareness, a creative command of the language - the level of possessing communicative skills. The efficiency of oral communication is optimal when the speaker is aware only of the content to be communicated, while the structural and lexical elements used to express this content need not be consciously recalled.

Because the conscious and subconscious levels are combined and realised in communication, it is necessary that speech habits and oral skills should also be organically combined in the teaching process. Exercises aimed at the development of speech habits and oral skills should be goal-oriented and motivated, as otherwise the learner will have to operate in so-called pseudo-communicatieve situations. The teacher must carefully consider and plan in advance the timing and selection of operations to be consciously processed, as well as the optimal manner of combining them into speech acts to complement the system of existing speech operations.

Individual teaching through the group

Although considerable emphasis has been placed, in the foregoing, on the principle of collective activity as the form of organisational activity dominating intensive teaching, an essential methodological principle is the use of *individual teaching* achieved through the medium of the group. The most central task of the teacher in intensive teaching is to organise and direct the teaching process. She mainly influences indirectly the learning results of individual group members: the relationship between teacher and learner is only one form of interactive relationship influencing the teaching situation; great importance is also attached to the inter-relatinships occurring within the student collective. In the traditional model of teaching, the learner receives feedback mainly from the teacher alone, but in intensive teaching, every member "tests" himself continually in the group and thus receives notably more feedback than in conventional teaching.

The successful outcome of teaching depends heavily on the cohesiveness of the group. By "cohesiveness" is meant the uniformity of the group's value orientation, which emerges as a uniformity of opinions, expectations concerning the teacher, and conceptions of the characteristic features of teaching. A cohesive group (well-developed collective), in which a favourable emotional atmosphere prevails, is effective from the point of view of group-member activity and learning: close interaction ensures the successful outcome of teaching.

All the intensive teaching principles introduced above form a unified whole and are closely interrelated and constitute the foundation of intensive teaching methods. They have been formulated on the basis of Soviet research traditions as a result of long and extensive developmental work. They cannot be considered either final or complete, as work on methodological developments and research into intensive teaching are still on ongoing concern. These principles, however, give the teacher some kind of starting point for the development of her own teaching. Each individual teacher who applies intensive teaching methods to a concrete teaching situation naturally uses those methodological means and solutions which suit her personality best. The teacher's procedures, however, should never conflict with the basic principles stated above - otherwise it is not possible to speak of intensive teaching.

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ON VOCABULARY-KNOWLEDGE CONTINUA AND FOREIGN-LANGUAGE LEARNERS' MENTAL LEXICONS

The paper discusses the concepts of vocabulary-knowledge continua and foreign-language learners' mental lexicons. It also introduces a simple model of vocabulary development in a foreign language.

Knowledge of vocabulary in a foreign language has been defined as a "continuum between ability to make sense of a word and ability to activate the word automatically for productive purposes" (Faerch et al. 1984: 100). The definition suggests that for one particular learner, there may be a varying number of foreign-language words to be found at each specific point on the continuum at any given point in time. Thus, at one end of the continuum we have what Berman et al. refer to as "potential vocabulary" (1968; cited in Takala 1984), which consists of such words in the foreign language which the learners have not come across before (either in speech or in writing), but which they can nevertheless understand when first encountered. Such potential vocabulary is based on the learners' ability to make lexical inferences using three types of cues to meaning (as distinguished in Carton 1971): when using *interlingual* cues, the learners draw on their ability to recognize formal similarities between foreign-language words and words in the mother tongue or any other language they may know; when using *extralingual* cues (also called contextual or pragmatic cues; Madden 1980), they draw on their background knowledge or "Knowledge of the world" (cf. Faerch et al. 1984: 96); and finally, when using *intralingual* cues, they draw on their ability to analyse foreign-language words they already know into their morphemes (cf. Denninghaus 1976, Faerch et al. 1984: 97).

At some point when moving along the continuum, we enter the area of "real vocabulary". Real vocabulary, according to Berman et al. (1968: cited in Takala 1984), includes those foreigh-language words which the learners have learned at some stage in the learning process, and which they can either only understand ("passive real vocabulary") or both understand and use ("active real vocabulary"). This assumed binary distinction between passive and active knowledge of foreign-language vocabulary has been frequently referred to in the literature (see e.g. Melka Teichroew 1982, whose comprehensive survey lists terms such as "passive vs active vocabulary", "receptive vs productive vocabulary", "comprehension vs production", "understanding vs speaking", and "recognitional vs actual or possible vocabulary use"): yet no one has been able to decide on any specific point on the continuum where receptive vocabulary knowledge ends and productive vocabulary knowledge begins.

This difficulty is more suggestive than real, however, and is largely due to the fact that we know very little about how learners actually learn foreign "words" and how they organize their mental lexicons as a result of exposure to the foreign language. Schleifer (1985), for example, suggests that there are two types of learners as far as learning new vocabulary is concerned. The learners may be "knowledge receivers", who attain only temporary vocabulary recognition due to the fact that they do not go beyond the stage of potential vocabulary. They may, on the other hand, be both knowledge receivers and "knowledge getters", i.e. the ones who reach out towards permanent vocabulary recognition (listening and reading comprehension) and, ultimately, permanent vocabulary learning (speaking and writing ability).

Assuming, therefore, that learners' mental lexicons differ significantly from those of native speakers of that language (cf. Meara 1984: 231) and, also, that the mental lexicons have their own characteristics insofar as learners pay attention to certain aspects of words more than others (cf. Sharwood Smith 1984, Levenston 1979), several interesting issues arise which concern the ways in which learners integrate or may integrate foreign-language words into their mental lexicons at the level of individual words. We do not, for example, know what the mechanisms are that control which words of those encountered by or taught to the learners become integrated into their mental lexicons, or why it is that some words, once learned, are more easily available for productive purposes than other. Clearly, vocabulary learning cannot (at least not all vocabulary learning) be an immediate "all-or-nothing" affair (Meare 1982: 35), that is, a matter of either learning a certain word or not, because if it were, and if for

example classroom presentation were the only critical variable involved (which is often implicitly assumed especially by textbook writers; cf. Levenston 1979; 151), then, as Meara points out, words would not be forgotten and there would be no need to relearn them (1980: 227).

If, following Meara (1984: 231), we assume that mental lexicons come in two parts: a phonological/orthographical code which identifies the basic form of a word, and a semantic entry which specifies its meaning, then the mental lexicon of learners who have a full working knowledge of the foreign language is one which will enable them to use the foreign-language words with the kind of fluency that characterizes the words they use in the mother tongue (cf. Meara 1982). To fully "know" a foreign-language word thus requires that they

- are able to recognize it in its spoken and written form (including its derivations);
- are able to recall it at will;
- are able to relate it to appropriate objects or concepts (i.e. they know the full meaning potential of the word and not just one specific meaning);
- can use it in the appropriate grammatical forms;
- are able to pronounce it in a recognizable way;
- can spell it correctly;
- know in what ways it can combine with other words (i.e. its syntactic constraints and correct collocations);
- know the relations between the word and other words within a lexical set (relations of hyponymy, antonymy etc,);
- are aware of its connotations and associations; and
- can use it at the appropriate level of formality and in the appropriate situations.

(List modified from Wallace 1982; 27 ff. and Fearch et al. 1984: 98-99.)

More typically, however, words are stored in learners' mental lexicons in less complete ways. For example, one half of the entry could be blank, as in the case of learners who know they "know" a word, but who also know that they no longer know its meaning (Meara 1984: 231). Or, the entry may be half-blank for other reasons: A Dutch learner once came across the French word <u>lunapar</u>, unknown to him, in a context that did not provide him with any clues as to its meaning. He did not, however, bother to look it up in a dictionary. Later, when he saw the word again in another context, he recognized the word, remembered it from its first occurrence, but still he did not know anything else about it. Thus, the word had been learned visually and existed in his mental lexicon in its orthographical form; yet he could not pronounce it, nor did he know its meaning. (Ecample from Melka Teichroew 1982: 12).

Psycholinguistic experiments reviewed in Melka Teichroew (1982) also show that it is not always necessary for a whole word to be stored in learners' mental lexicons for them to recognize it. Likewise, learners who could not produce a certain word at will although they knew that they "knew" it, were often able to remember the initial or final letter or syllable of the word, or, they could fairly accurately tell the number of syllables of the wanted word. For such "tip-of-the-tongue" words which are sometimes available for productive purposes and sometimes not, Levenston introduced the term "threshold vocabulary" (1979: 154).

The factors that govern foreign-language learning in general are, by and large, the same as those affecting the growth of foreign-language vocabulary. Some of them have been dealt with in Levenston (1979: 151), viz.

(a) features of the foreign language;
(b) features of the mother tongue (and other languages known to the learner);
(c) features of the learner (e.g. personality, motivation, attitudes towards language learning, and previous knowledge); and
(d) features of the learning situation (especially input factors).

Other features of the learner and the learning situation not explicitly mentioned in Levenston include the rate of forgetting (see e.g. Pimsleur 1987), the learner's use of mnemonic devices to increase learning ability (for two extensive reviews of experimental findings on foreign-language vocabulary learning, see Meara 1980 and Nation 1980), and the effects of different teaching methods and techniques on the learner's ability to learn and retain words in the long-term memory (see e.g. Stevick 1976, Nation 1982 & 1983, and Cunningsworth 1984).

If, therefore, we were to think of vocabulary development as a hill increasing in height as learning proceeds (an analogy adopted from Brown 1980), the size of such a hill for one particular learner at a given point in time could be like the one indicated by the curve A-B-C in the figure. In

this figure, column A represents the assumed size of the learner's potential vocabulary, column B shows the size of the receptive vocabulary, and column C that of the productive vocabulary.

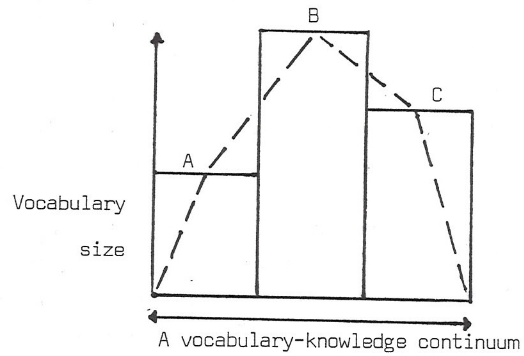

FIGURE 1. A vocabulary-knowledge curve

It must, however, be assumed that vocabulary size does not grow linearly. In fact, one will probably need to use some kind of exponential growth pattern, where the learner's potential vocabulary declines more quickly as the receptive and productive vocabularies get bigger. Nor is there any reason to assume that the learner's receptive and productive vocabulary should increase in tandem. On the contrary, thier relative sizes will probably be independent, until the productive vocabulary gets exceedingly large. (Yoshida's investigation, for example, showed the receptive vocabulary of a three-year-old Japanese learner of English to be twice the size of his productive vocabulary; Yoshida 1978. See also Melka Teichroew 1982 and Takala 1984.)

The curve depicted in the figure will therefore change its position and appearance continuously over time (in fact with the learning of every single new word), allowing vocabulary development in a foreign language to be described, as it were, on two dimensions: a quantitative and a qualitative one. Quantitatively, we may try to assess the number of words that individual learners do and/or can learn within certain periods of time, or, we may attempt to picture the vocabulary-knowledge curve for individual learners at regular intervals during the learning process. It may even be possible to trace and describe the order in which different words are learned by a learner, although this insight would probably not be interesting as such (cf. Sharwood Smith 1984).

Qualitatively, on the other hand, we may study first of all, how *far* individual words move along the continuum, and secondly, how *fast* they move however far they go. To put it differently, are there transitional stages of learning through which learned words pass, and if so, are these stages identifiable (Levenston 1979; Meare 1980)? Assuming that such transitional stages exist, because, as Sharwood Smith puts it: "it seems quite implausible that learners should switch from alpha to omega in their lexical abilities" (1984: 238), are there any clear thresholds of the type "active threshold and passive" suggested by Sharwood Smith (Levenston 1979; 154) which foreign words must cross before they can be considered to be properly learned (Meara 1980)? Do all words, given time, pass from recognition knowledge to active production, or do some words remain forever passive (Levenston 1989)? Do words become fully integrated into the learner's mental lexicon only gradually (as implied in Meara 1980; 227), or can they also, as it were (and if so, under what conditions), jump straight into active production from having been heard (and understood) by the learner for the very first time (cf. Madden 1980: 113)? As our methodology for testing vocabulary learning evolves, we will also, hopefully, find new ways to provide satisfactory answers for questions such as these.

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REPORT ON THE TRIAL RUN OF THE EXAMINATION IN THE COMMUNICATIVE USE OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

This article describes the examination in the Communicative Use of English as a Foreign Language produced by the Royal Society of Arts, and its trial run at the Language Centre for Finnish Universities in Jyväskylä in November 1986. The purpose of the trial was to find out how suitable the examination was in Finland and to get information which would enable us to give new candidates better advice in choosing the most appropriate levels and combinations in the examination. In some cases reference is also made to the second trial which was organized for a smaller group in June 1987.

The stimulus for arranging this kind of test came from Finnish students. For many years they have expressed a wish to have a possibility to get an internationally recognised certificate in their proficiency in English which they would need when applying for jobs abroad and when trying to enter universities in English-speaking countries. A certificate may also be useful in applying for jobs in Finnish companies and organisations with many international connections. As a first step towards meeting this need the Language Centre for Finnish Universities decided to arrange a trial run of the RSA examination which was chosen because it is one of the first communicatively oriented tests in the world and fits the increasingly communicative foreign language teaching in Finland. The examination is not intended to replace any existing exam at universities or

The trial test was carried out by Matti Laitinen and Ari Huhta (researchers at Language Centre for Finnish Universities) and by Tarja Wilson, who, assigned by the RSA, also acted as the Assessor for the Oral Interaction Test. Steven Saletta and Michael Peacock from the English Department of the University of Jyväskylä were the interlocutors in the Oral Interaction Test. The writer of this report wishes to thank Tarja Wilson for her invaluable comments and corrections.

Language Centres, but it is aimed to be an option that students and also those outside the universities may take, if they feel they need an international certificate in English. It is hoped that the existence of such an exam will have a positive washback effect by further encouraging communicative teaching and perhaps by serving as a source of ideas for test developers.

Twenty-four students in physical education or economics and ten local administration officers took part in the examination in November. The examination except the Oral Interaction Test, which was assessed in Jyväskylä, was assessed by the RSA in Britain, and the certificates issued by the RSA arrived in February. The exams and their results were analysed at the Language Centre for Finnish Universities, but the analysis is not yet complete, so that this article will report the results obtained so far. It has been difficult to get detailed information from the RSA about the assessment of the November 1986 series: for example, we have not yet received the lists of right answers to the test questions. Therefore we have carried out our own assessment which, we sincerely believe, does not significantly differ from that made by the RSA. It seems that we have been able to find out much of what we were looking for.

The CUEFL examination

The examinations called The Communicative Use of English as a Foreign Language is described in the RSA test guide as being the result of an effort on the part of the Royal Society of Arts Examination Board to develop new tests to match recent development in the communicative teaching of foreign languages. The first pilot examinations were administered in the spring of 1979 and the first examination on a wide scale was offered in May 1981. Since then, according to the RSA, the validity of the test has been checked each year, but the results of the studies on validity, or reliability for that matter, have not yet been available for the Finnish organisers.

Nowadays the examination is offered twice a year, in May and in November. It can be administered by centres accepted by the RSA, such as schools or institutions in the United Kingdom, British Council Centres

overseas or other institutions overseas under the auspices of the national government education authorities. The Language Centre for Finnish Universities is an example of the last category.

The target group of the RSA examination is defined very broadly. The test is geared to all who intend to visit, study or work in Britain on a long or short-term basis. It is also said to be suitable for candidates who have been taught communicatively in their country. There are no discipline or field specific parts in the exam but alternative papers are said to be available for overseas candidates. How these alternative papers would differ from the ordinary ones is not specified in the guide. No restriction in terms of age is imposed on entry, but the target group envisaged is adult (16+).

Characteristics of the examination

The CUEFL examination is performance oriented; i.e. it aims at measuring whether or not the candidates can do certain things in English. The tasks they are required to perform in the four tests are specified for each level and, according to the RSA, represent authentic tasks which confront language users in real life. The RSA put a great emphasis on the authenticity of their examination. It is a major criterion not only in selecting the tasks for the candidates to perform in the examination but also in choosing the types of texts to be produced and understood by the testees.

The examination is offered at three levels: Basic, Intermediate and Advanced. Each level has tests in the four language skills: Reading, Writing, Listening and Oral Interaction. Candidates can enter any combination of these skills at any combination of levels (except that the same test may not be attempted at more than one level at each sitting of the examination). Candidates can also decide not to take one or more of the tests and take only those that they feel they need. As a result, candidates can choose different combinations of levels and skills to meet their own requirements and abilities. An example of one possible choice made by a candidate will probably best clarify this issue:

	READING	WRITING	LISTENING	ORAL INTERACTION
ADVANCED	X			
INTERMEDIATE			X	
BASIC				X

In this example the candidate considers his or her reading ability good enough to try the advanced level but is not convinced about his or her listening and oral skills. This candidate does not need a certificate of writing ability, so there is no need to take the writing test. In this case, if the candidate is successful in all tests he or she will actually get three certificates, one for each test, but for practical reasons they all appear on one certificate form.

The RSA issue separate requirements for each test and level. This means that a list of criteria for the evaluation of candidates' performance is given for each test. For example, in the writing test the criteria are Accuracy, Appropriacy, Range, and Complexity, then followed by short descriptions of what these criteria mean at each level.

The CUEFL examination is thus a criterion referenced test that aims at measuring the level of candidates' performance rather than just ranking them. It is only by using criteria that we can measure the level of examinees' mastery of language.

The RSA do not issue any external yardstick which would match their three levels, probably because the exam is a relatively new one. They themselves admit that this would be very difficult and say that though they offer other examinations, the CUEFL is not intended to correspond to any of those. However, it would be useful for the potential candidates to have some point of comparison because they have to choose the suitable level themselves. It should be mentioned here that a failure in a higher level test does not mean that the candidate would get a lower level certificate though he may have done well enough to pass the lower level test had he chosen that level. It is therefore important that the right level is chosen. A failure in one test does not, of course, affect the results in the other tests. Also the Finnish organisers would need some external points of comparison, because it is to them that the potential candidates turn for advice when they have to decide which levels to choose.

Without any previous experience on candidate performance in the CUEFL examinations it was somewhat difficult to give any specific recommendations to the examinees as to what levels to choose. Based on the impression the testers got from earlier samples of RSA examinations and their criteria the following rules of thumb were devised: those who had had English as their first foreign language at school and who had done well in the English test in the final examination (Matriculation Examination) of the Finnish upper secondary school were advised to enter the advanced level tests; if the candidates had learnt less English or had not done so well in the final examination, they were advised to take tests at either of the lower levels depending on how much they had used their English after school. The specifications of criteria for all the tests and levels, as well as samples of earlier tests were available for inspection at the information meeting where the candidates had to decide on their choices. But even with all this information at hand it proved to be difficult to try to compare a list of criteria to one's own mastery of language.

ANALYSIS OF THE NOVEMBER 1986 CUEFL -EXAMINATION

1. Test of Reading

The test of reading was based on eighteen texts provided for the candidates in the form of photocopies of the original texts, stapled together as a single booklet. This booklet or collection of texts was the same for all the three levels, but the tasks that the candidates were required to do differed from level to level and were based on different texts at each level. Some of the tasks, however, were common to two or all the three levels, this reflecting the cumulative nature of the CUEFL examination: upper level candidates must also master the lower level tasks. A separate answer sheet was provided for the candidates' answers.

The texts varied greatly in difficulty and type, ranging from a snack bar menu and a television programme guide to a poem and a commentary on hunger in Africa. They were arranged in a rough order of difficulty starting with the easier texts and tasks. Reading ability, as tested in the CUEFL examination, measures not only the understanding of the content of the passages but also the ability to adopt suitable reading strategies such as skimming and scanning. The tasks vary from ordinary comprehension questions based on texts to tasks which require the examinee to study maps and graphic information such as pie charts and diagrams.

Criteria for Assessment

The following criteria are used to assess candidate performance in the CUEFL reading test (the descriptions of the assessment criteria and the operations required of the candidates in the reading test as well as in the other tests are based on the RSA examination guide):

a) size of the text
b) complexity of the text
c) range of language forms and comprehension skills
d) speed
e) flexibility in adopting suitable reading strategies
f) independence from source of reference

The first criterion, the size, means that at the basic level the candidate needs to understand only the main point(s) of rather short passages, and, in addition, a few details if attention is directed to them in advance. At the upper levels the length of texts becomes greater and total understanding of the texts is expected. The complexity criterion deals mainly with the ability to differentiate major and subsidiary points in the text and the ability to perceive the relationships between these points. At the lowest level the difference between major and subsidiary points need not be perceived while it is required at the upper levels. At the advanced level all the relationships should be understood whether or not explicitly signalled in the text.

The range requirement applies both to the number of text types and to the number of operations expected from the candidates. The text types at the basic level are leaflets, guides, advertisements, letters, postcards, forms, diaries, timetables, instructions and maps. At the intermediate level there are, in addition to these, newspaper reports and features and telegrams. The advanced level contains all these types plus extracts from

novels, poems and newspaper editorials. The operations required of the basic level candidates are scanning to locate information, deciding which part of the text is relevant and evaluating the content in terms of previous information. At the intermediate level candidates also have to skim text to obtain an impression and the gist. They must also be able to identify text types and status (as fact, opinion etc), and to find the relevant parts of the text. The advanced candidates have to study the text to appreciate content and to trace development of arguments and to find relevant points to summarise the whole text or idea. They also have to assess the implications of content and to decide on an appropriate course of action.

The speed of processing texts and answering questions increases from level to level. The answering time is the same at all levels (one hour), so the speed factor is taken into account by increasing the amount of texts at the upper levels. A reading speed of 60 to 100 words per minute is expected at the basic level which allows the candidate to resort to internal translation. At the intermediate level the reading and comprehension rate is 100-200 w.p.m., and at the uppermost level over 200 w.p.m.

The flexibility criterion deals with the ease with which the candidate detects the changes of topic, style and text type within the text and adopts his or her reading strategies accordingly to avoid being confused. At the basic level not more than one reading style is necessarily expected of the candidate, and at the advanced level the adoption of suitable reading styles should be easy.

Independence from source of reference is supposed to be greatest at the advanced level and gradually less at the intermediate and basic levels. Independence here means that the candidate need not consult dictionaries when reading the texts. Candidates are allowed to have bilingual or monolingual dictionaries in the reading and writing tests, which seems to increase the authenticity of these tests - real life readers and writers usually have access to a source of reference. Bensoussan et al. (1984) have studied the use of dictionaries in EFL tests and come to a conclusion that test takers (students in their study) prefer to use dictionaries if they are allowed to do so, but that this had no effect on the performance in the test. As expected, better students hardly used dictionaries at all.

The certificates that successful candidates receive include short descriptions of the types of 'texts' that test takers can handle in each test and at each level as well as the assessment criteria for the writing and oral interaction tests.

Results

The November 1986 reading test consisted of multiple choice, true-false and short answer questions. At the basic level there were 21 questions based on twelve texts, 30 questions at the intermediate level (ten texts) and 44 questions at the advanced level (nine texts). Ten basic level questions and seven basic level texts were used at the intermediate level. In addition to this there were more questions at the intermediate level about the texts that were used at both levels. These extra questions dealt mainly with the understanding of the gist or the purpose of the text. Similarly, 16 questions and five texts at the intermediate level also appeared at the advanced level. Here again some of the texts that were used at both levels contained more questions at the advanced level. The most salient feature of the questions typical of the advanced level was the fact that candidates were expected not only to decide if the statements were true or false but also to understand if a point was implied in the text. This clearly requires the ability to make inferences and to understand implications. Almost half of the questions at the advanced level fell into this category. Though fewer in number the intermediate and advanced level texts were longer and more difficult.

The number of candidates who took the reading test was 33 in total: three at the basic, twelve at the intermediate and 18 at the advanced level. In the light of the results the test was rather easy and the candidates had chosen the levels that matched their ability to read: only one advanced level candidate failed and all who passed did it soundly two thirds scoring 90 % or more when the pass/fail boundary was at about 70 %. Many of the intermediate level candidates made only one or two mistakes which implies that they would probably have passed the more demanding test had they chosen it.

There was one text that did not appear to be a very good measure because the questions were not clear (see Appendix 1). This was a short advanced level text on U.S. food aid policy and the questions were of the yes-no- doesn't say -type. Six persons, two of whom were almost native speakers of English, assessed the text, but all agreed that some questions were impossible to answer. It was problematic to decide how closely one should interpret the text and how far one could go in drawing conclusions. One of the aims at advanced level is to assess candidates' ability to make inferences, but in this case this resulted in unclear and confusing questions.

2. Test of Listening

The listening tests at each level were offered in the form of cassette recordings which included the instructions to candidates and the pauses during which the candidates could read the questions. There were no separate answer sheets but the candidates marked their answers onto the question forms. The duration of the test was about 25 minutes at the lowest level and about 30 minutes at the two higher levels.

According to the testing guide the distinction between the basic and intermediate level tests is based on the conditions under which the candidates are asked to listen to the input and to perform tasks on it. At the basic level the candidates study the questions first and then listen to a text before giving their responses; the tasks the examinees face represent thus identification. At the intermediate level the candidates are asked questions also after listening to a text, which requires a much greater degree of text processing. This also applies to the advanced level, but there the candidates can be asked to perform a wider range of tasks.

At the basic level the operations that the candidates are expected to perform include locating specific information, finding the relevant parts, obtaining the gist and an impression of the text and identifying the text type. Because of the post-listening questions the intermediate level operations also include a 'memory element': for example, candidates have to evaluate content in terms of subsequently given information and they need to recall which parts were relevant. The additional tasks at the advanced level may include identifying status (as fact, opinion etc) of a part, assessing implications of content and tracing development of arguments.

The distinction between pre- and post-listening questions does not seem very clear when one looks at the actual tests. The way the questions were presented to the listeners did not reflect this distinction. The pattern was always the same: first the candidates could read the questions and then listen to the recordings. Then, after answering, they heard them again, usually as a whole; sometimes the lower level candidates could hear the recordings more than twice. Not once were the listeners required to listen to the input and then study and answer the questions. Admittedly, this would be difficult to achieve when all the questions are written on the answer sheet: the candidates always have a chance to glance them through. The only solution would be to have the post-listening questions recorded on the same cassette as the listening texts. The June 1987 listening did not make the distinction between pre- and post-listening questions either.

The text types in listening tests comprise monologues and dialogues at the two lower levels and discussions between more than two persons at the highest level. At the basic level there may be announcements and interviews, at the intermediate level lectures, discussions, documentaries and social encounters, whereas anecdotes, jokes, sketches and commentaries may also be included at the highest level.

Criteria for Assessment

The criteria for determining the level of candidates' performance in the test of listening are mostly the same as in the reading test:

a) size of text
b) complexity of text
c) range of language forms and comprehension skills
d) speed of text delivery and processing
e) flexibility in adopting suitable listening strategies
f) repetition of text required for processing

The specifications for the three first criteria are the same as in the reading test with the exception that at 'range' the influence of accents is taken into account: at the basic level some accents and at the intermediate level still a few accents are allowed to cause confusion.

The speed criterion means that at the basic level only a crude processing of normal rate speech delivery is expected; if a more detailed comprehension is required, the rate of speech is lowered. At the intermediate level the entire text is not delivered at the normal rate: there are periods of a lower, more deliberate tempo in the test. At the advanced level no allowance need be made in the rate of delivery of texts.

The flexibility criterion deals with the ease with which the candidate can follow the switches of topics, speakers and text types within a text and the amount of background noise that may exist in the recording. At the basic level candidates are allowed to be confused by the changes and noise, but not so much at the intermediate level. At the highest level the flexibility of a native speaker is set as a model.

The repetition criterion means that the basic level candidates may hear the text repeated more often than at the upper levels. The ability to process the text at the first hearing (and thus the number of post-listening questions) increases from level to level, but even at the advanced level some repetition is allowed if the question deals with a detail.

The November 1986 Listening Test

The Basic level test comprised three sections and seventeen multiple choice questions, one of which had more than one true statement. The first section was a recording of a discussion between a waiter and a customer asking for information about the menu; the second was a similar situation between a traveller and an officer at a tourist information centre or at a bus station. The third section was about two women telling a third person about an accident. This third section also appeared at the intermediate level, and it was clearly the most difficult of the three and contained occasionally very fast speech.

The intermediate level test consisted of four sections and 25 questions, most of them being multiple choice in format. There were also a few short write-in questions and multiple choice questions with several correct statements. At this level the sections covered a wider range of language use: the first dealt with making an airline reservation, the second was the same as the last section at the basic level. The third part dealt with pubs and consisted of a short introduction and an interview of a pub-owner. In the last section a man talked about an unusual incident at a theatre.

The advanced level test comprised three sections and 29 questions that were multiple choice with one or more correct alternatives. The sections were longer than at the lower levels and contained more demanding vocabulary, but the rate of speech delivery was not noticeably greater, and there were very few examples of colloquialisms and dialectal forms: the language of the situations was more or less formal. The first section dealt with a guided tour, the second was the same story with exactly the same questions about a theatre as at the intermediate level and the last part was a story about a treasure find and included two interviews.

In this test, and to a great degree in the reading test, the sole use of multiple choice questions may be a negative feature. It seems that the test method affects the trait (e.g. reading or listening ability) that is measured (Bachman and Palmer 1981), and the use of more than one testing method may give a more valid estimate of the test taker's language ability.

Results

The number of candidates who took the listening test was three at the basic, six at the intermediate and seven at the advanced level, totalling sixteen. The results seem to indicate that this test, similarly to the reading test, was quite easy for the candidates. Almost half of them got 90 % or more of the maximum score, the pass/fail percentage was at about 70 %. Only two candidates scored under 80 % and one of them (a basic level candidate) was the only one who failed the listening test. The relative easiness of the listening test may be partly due to the section about the theatre which was common to both upper levels: it was probably too easy. Admittedly, the aim of the CUEFL examination is not to be a norm-referenced test that puts candidates in some kind of relative order, but a criterion-referenced test that intends to assess the level of candidates' mastery and performance. However, it seems that this section

really was too easy because even all the intermediate level candidates got it totally right. One reason for this may be that many of the distractors in the multiple-choice questions appeared not plausible enough and could be dismissed at once by the candidates. The small number of candidates prevents, however, all definite conclusions.

Other reasons for the easiness of the listening test at the advanced level are related to the degree it followed the assessment criteria.

In the November 1986 exam the range criterion was not perhaps followed closely enough because there was very little fast or colloquial/dialectal speech in the test as compared to the respective test in June 1987. The level of difficulty seems not to have been the same in these two advanced level listening test, which, of course, is a negative feature.

The November exam did not follow the repetition criterion very closely either. As mentioned earlier, the listeners heard the recordings at least twice even at the highest level and there was not one instance where the input was presented only once even when the question was not about a detail.

The June 1987 exam was different in this respect and there were parts which were presented only once.

Another explaining factor for the easiness of the both comprehension tests may be that there is perhaps something slightly incompatible in the rationale behind the CUEFL exam: it is a criterion referenced test with a different set of criteria for each level and test, but it is also a cumulative test.

This may sometimes result in tests that are too easy for their level. If an advanced level test contains some very easy parts/questions from the lower, or even the lowest level, it may be the case that these questions help the candidates get over the 70% boundary and pass the test they would have failed if all the questions had been equally difficult. This is a very complicated matter but perhaps less problematic in practice than in theory. However, it is a problem if the advanced level test is unbalanced and there are too many tasks from the lower levels.

3. Test of Writing

The writing test differed from the other tests in that it was totally cumulative from level to level: all the lower level tasks were included in the higher level tests. There were four tasks at the lowest level, the same four plus two additional tasks at the intermediate level and two further tasks at the advanced level. The time allowed for the tasks was increased from one hour at the basic level to one and a half hours and to two hours at the higher levels respectively.

Criteria for Assessment

In assessing the candidate's production, examiners make use of the following criteria:

a) accuracy in the production of forms (grammatical and lexical features, spelling, handwriting)
b) appropriacy in the use of these forms to convey meanings
c) range of language the candidate makes use of
d) complexity of the text produced

The accuracy criterion applied to the basic level means that the candidate should produce intelligible and unambiguous writing though there may be mistakes. At the intermediate level the accuracy is generally expected to be high, but there may be some errors that do not, however, destroy communication. At the highest level the accuracy is expected to be extremely high.

The appropriacy at the basic level means that the candidates' use of language is broadly appropriate to function and that their intention can be perceived without too much effort. At the intermediate level the examinees should use language appropriately to function and show some adaptation of style to the particular context. The intention should always be clear and the layout appropriate. The advanced level writers' products should always be appropriate to context, function and intention and their layout ought to be consistent and appropriate.

The range of expression can be severely limited at the basic level, but far less so at the intermediate level where the writers should be able to express themselves clearly without distortion. At the highest level only a few limitations on the range of language are allowed, and there should be no obvious uses of avoidance strategies.

Not much complexity is required of the basic level writers: their texts may be simple and show little development. Simple sentences with little attempt at cohesion are acceptable. At the next level the texts should display simple organisation with themes and points linked and related, and the advanced level candidates are expected to produce organised, coherent and cohesive discourse.

The November 1986 Writing Test

The operations that the examinees are expected to perform are best illustrated by the November 1986 test. Candidates at all levels had four tasks in common: an enrolment form for a language academy, a message to be left at a hotel reception, and two letters, one to an official body (language academy) and the other to a friend. All these tasks were related to the same theme, i.e. taking a language course in Britain. The list of operations that the candidate is expected to master is lengthy and includes operations such as expressing information, thanks, needs and attitudes, narrating events and eliciting information and service.

At the intermediate level the test had two additional tasks which included correcting wrong information in a bill and a form to be sent to an insurance company informing them about lost property. Here the candidate should be able to show mastery of all functions of language and should, for example, be able to persuade, warn, advice, complain, comment and elicit clarification. At the highest level the writers should show expansion, development and organisation of these functions. Two additional tasks were included at this level, thus allowing for the candidates more freedom of expression but also putting their writing ability to a greater test than the previous tasks had done. The candidates had to write a short autobiography for entrance to a British university and an article discussing one of the following subjects: a) Your own experience of language learning, b) What language learning will be like in 2020, or c) Should English be the world language?

Results

The number of candidates who took the writing test was fourteen; three at the basic, six at the intermediate and five at the advanced level. The test seems to have been rather demanding for the candidates because half of them failed, including all the five advanced level writers and one at both lower levels. The analysis of their failure is not yet complete but it seems that there was more than one reason for it. First, many candidates' writing speed was not sufficient for the advanced level: most of them wrote hurriedly to the end of the two-hour period, but could not produce texts that were long enough, especially in the last two tasks. Secondly, most of the candidates made too many grammatical mistakes, some of which were simply too gross for this level. Thirdly, their texts were not always appropriate to the function, expecially in the case of the last two tasks. Their texts were hardly more than lists of statements or events; in the last task there was hardly any real discussion of the topic; instead the candidates presented their own opinion only and neglected other points of view. This may have been due to lack of time, but all the same it was a clear deficiency. In addition, the use of politeness forms was perhaps not so frequent and appropriate as with native speakers.

In June 1987 seven candidates took the advanced writing test, but only one of them passed it. Also half of the intermediate level candidates failed, so that the writing test continues to be the toughest of the four tests.

The fundamental reason for not reaching the required standard at the highest level in writing is probably due to lack of experience in writing both at school and after school. In Finland the emphasis in teaching foreign languages is on comprehension, and though it can be argued that the so called language skills are not so separate and that there is a lot of overlapping and transference between the 'skills', it seems that the candidates' performance was better in the comprehension tests. The dominance of comprehension over production usually continues after school: students' contact with English is most frequently by reading books or by listening (TV, visiting lecturers).

4. Test of Oral Interaction

The purpose of this test is to assess candidates' oral communication. It takes place in three parts: first the candidate talks with a teacher; then he/she discusses, or negotiates, with another candidate over some problem, and finally both candidates justify their decisions or choices to the teacher. Each part takes about five minutes to complete, and the Assessor appointed by the RSA is present throughout the three parts and listens to the conversations in the same room and assesses the speakers' performance. The examinees have five minutes to prepare both for the first and second part of the test, so that in total the test takes 25 minutes.

The November 1986 Oral Interaction Test

In November 1986 the first task was the same at all levels: the candidate was told that the following week he or she would have an important interview for a new job or a place in a college and that he or she would discuss with the teacher the questions that might be asked in the interview. The candidate had five minutes to study the suggestions that were given to be considered; these dealt with schools attended, work experience, hobbies and future plans.

The second part or task was different at each level. The two students had two alternative tasks and five minutes to study them in silence; then they had to decide which one they would like to discuss in front of the Assessor during the following five minutes.

The first alternative task for part two was almost the same for all the three levels. The candidates had to choose six topics to be included in a short guide to their local area, to be produced by the candidates' school. At the basic level they were given a lengthy list of possible topics, but at the next level only three of the six topics were provided, and the advanced candidates had to decide on all the topics.

The second alternative was totally different at each level: at the lowest level it dealt with listing in order of importance the items that the candidates considered most important when moving into a new house or flat. A list of items was given. At the intermediate level the second alternative was to discuss matters such as keeping healthy, eating the right foods and taking regular exercise. Here too a list of suggested areas of discussion was provided. At the highest level the task was to discuss whether the college/company the candidates were supposed to represent should sponsor a charity, and if it should, which one. A list of suggested charities was given.

To sum up, the lower level tasks were much more guided than those at the higher levels where the candidates were left to invent and decide for themselves many of the topics they would like to discuss. This is expressed in the criteria for evaluating performance, too:

a) accuracy in producing individual sounds, stress/intonation, grammatical and lexical features
b) appropriacy in the use of the above forms to convey meanings
c) range of language the candidate makes use of
d) flexibility in dealing with new topics, functions and text types
e) size of contribution which the candidate makes

In the specifications accuracy is defined in terms of pronunciation, accent and lexical/grammatical errors. At the basic level the influence of L1 can be strong and there may be confusion due to errors that, however, the candidate can clarify. At the next level pronunciation should be clearly intelligible and can still be obviously influenced by L1. Some errors that do not destroy communication are allowed. At the advanced level the candidates' pronunciation should be accurate, though some residual accent is acceptable; grammatical and lexical accuracy is expected to be very high.

The appropriacy criterion for oral interaction test is exactly the same as for the writing test, except for layout.

The range criterion is almost the same as in the writing test: at the basic level the range of expression can be severely limited and repeated searches for ways to express desired meaning are acceptable. At the intermediate level the range should be greater and the candidates must express themselves without overtly having to search for words. At the advanced level the requirements are somewhat less severe than in writing,

probably because in writing more time is allowed for the tasks: only a few limitations on the range of language are accepted, but some obvious use of avoidance strategies is permissible.

Flexibility is probably the point where the influence of communicativeness on the assessment criteria is most obvious. The evaluation concentrates here on the candidate's ability to take part in the conversation. The basic level candidate need not usually take initiative in conversation and they may take time to respond to a change of topic. The interlocutor may have to make considerable allowances and often adopt a supportive role. At the intermediate level the speaker should be able to take the initiative in a conversation, and be able to adapt to new topics or changes of direction, though neither of these may be consistently manifested. At the highest level the candidate should contribute well to the interaction and take the initiative. Little strain is imposed on the interlocutor.

The size of contributions also distinguishes the three levels. At the lowest level the speaker's contributions may be limited to one or two simple utterances. At the next level most contributions may be short, but some evidence of ability to produce more complex utterances and to develop these into discourse should be manifested. At the highest level candidates should be able to produce lengthy and developed responses and contributions.

Results

In November 1986 twenty-eight candidates took the oral interaction test; four at the basic, fifteen at the intermediate and nine at the advanced level. Their choice of levels seems to have been just right because all of them passed. Their success may be due to the fact that quite a few of them, especially the students, had spent some time abroad. A more detailed analysis of this test may still be useful.

AUTHENTICITY OF THE EXAMINATION

The RSA examination guide claims that the CUEFL exam is authentic. However, there are limits to authenticity even in the most authentic looking tests. According to Spolsky (1985) testing is not authentic language use, and examination questions are not real, however much like real-life questions they seem. The rules of the examination differ from the rules of real life and the examinees need to learn, and to obey, these before they can succeed. The purpose of testing is always the assessment of the examinees' language performance and they know that. This restriction should be kept in mind when reading the descriptions of tests that claim to be authentic.

Oral interaction tests and interviews are usually considered to be among the most authentic language tests, but their authenticity has been questioned, too. In their review of authentic testing Shohamy and Reves (1985) examine an example that closely resembles the CUEFL Oral Interaction Test. They point out that there are several factors that reduce the 'authentic' language into 'authentic test language'.

First, the goal of the interaction in the test is different from that of the real life interaction: as mentioned earlier, the test taker always knows that the only purpose of the interaction is to obtain an assessment of his or her language performance. In pair or group work partners debate an issue not really to reach an agreement but to 'impress' the tester, and when reporting the result of their task to a teacher they perform a language task rather than a real act of communication - the examiner and/or the tape recorder is always there though the teacher the candidates talk to may not assess their performance.

The setting of the test is not usually normal for the type of interaction imitated in the test. The discussion with the teacher might take place in his office but the pair work is likely to happen elsewhere (in a library or a living room, for example). The partners do not usually know each other, neither would they discuss the subjects that are discussed in the test.

The topic in a test is decided in advance as opposed to the unplanned manner in which communication usually goes on in real life. Finally, the time to perform the tasks is artificially limited for practical reasons.

While recognising these facts about authenticity in testing, it can be noted that there are features in the November 1986 Oral Interaction Test that may be almost fully authentic. The first task, the interview/discussion, might represent what really happens in real life, since in a real interview when applying for a job or a place in a foreign university the goal of the interaction may be to get an impression on the applicant's language performance and not only to get information about his/her education, background etc.

Also, there were tasks in the Writing Test that were more authentic than the others: writings such as the two additional tasks at the advanced level (a short autobiography and an article for entrance to a British university) are likely to be assessed in terms of the language proficiency demonstrated in them as well as their content in a real context.

Otherwise Shohamy's and Reves' comments concerning the goal, setting and time of test tasks also apply to the reading, writing and listening tests of the CUEFL examination.

However, there are others who say that the texts and tasks in the CUEFL examination appear to be authentic, representing ways in which people use language in real life situations (Bingham Wesche 1981). In one survey in 1985 (Simmonds) the RSA/CUEFL examination was considered "probably the best example" of the approach which tries to shift testing towards a more meaningful context.

FEEDBACK FROM THE CANDIDATES

Nowadays there are demands for greater participation of test takers in the making of tests (see for example Alderson 1984). Examinees have a lot of experience in learning languages which allows them to give valid and informative opinions about how they should be tested. Also, they often have quite an accurate idea about their level of language mastery and it probably affects their attitude towards certain test types and thus success in them. The better match there is between the test takers' success in a test and their own assessment of their language performance, the better the test appears to them. If the success differs from their own estimate, the face validity of the test diminishes and the examinees begin to dislike the test. That was one reason for our inquiry into the candidates' opinions and own estimates.

A brief questionnaire was administered to the candidates after the last test, and all but one candidate answered. The questionnaire was designed to provide the organisers with some basic information about the candidates' background and own estimate of their mastery of English. The questions covered the candidates' profession or field of study, education and their experience with English. This included questions about the length of time they had had English at school or elsewhere (in years), about living or studying in an English-speaking country, having hobbies related to English and using English in studies or at work. The candidates were also asked to assess their own mastery of English on a four point scale in the four language skills tested in the CUEFL examination.

Finally, they were asked to express their opinion about the test they had just taken. The questionnaire was not intended to be comprehensive; the main aim was simply to get some idea of the candidates' education and experience in English so that in future new candidates could be given more detailed advice about the choice of test levels. However, there was at least one obvious lack in the questionnaire which will have to be improved: there was no question concerning the candidates' English marks in the Matriculation Examination and in the school leaving certificate.

Background Information and Success in the Examination

A simple correlational analysis was performed on the results of the examination and the information obtained from the questionnaire. The method used was the Spearman nonparametric correlational approach. The small number of candidates (33 or less in some cases) prevents any conclusive generalisations of the results, but it was interesting to see if the statistical results could help to give better advice to candidates. The only test score we could use was the score in the advanced reading test where there were almost enough candidates (17) for sufficiently reliable correlational analyses. Nevertheless, the candidates' choices of test levels seem to be an appropriate point of comparison for correlational studies, for in most tests almost all candidates passed, so that their choices can more or less be regarded as their test results. This approach, of course, neglects

the fact that some candidates chose a level that did not represent their mastery but was rather too low for them. The complete correlation matrix is in Appendix 2.

The students had studied much more English at school (10 years on average) than the local administration officers (five years). This was expected as the latter group consisted of mostly middle-aged people who had been at school at a time when there was less language teaching in schools and English had not yet become the most common foreign language. Consequently, the students chose mostly advanced level tests while the administrators took basic or intermediate tests. In the light of correlation coefficients the number of years the examinees had had English at school predicted well their own estimate of their language mastery (.4651 - .7663) and choice of test levels (.5329 - 7943). The number of school years did not predict success in the advanced reading test; this is due to the fact that nearly everybody who chose the advanced level had had the same number of years of English at school.

Most candidates had studied some English after school; the students had taken the compulsory English language course provided by the university language centre and the administrators had also had a language course provided by the town. About half of the examinees had been in an English speaking country for a period which ranged from two weeks to two years. Here the students of economics differed from the other candidates: nearly all of them had been abroad. The length of stay abroad predicted rather well the candidates' choice of test levels (.4375 - .7697) and also their own estimates on their reading and speaking abilities (.3029 and .3506), but not on the other two abilities. It must be kept in mind that the candidates were advised to choose the test levels according to their studies in and experiences of English, which may be the reason for correlations between language studies at school, stay abroad and the levels they chose. All the same, it seems that the quite commonsensical advice described earlier in this article about the choice of levels was correct, because the candidates chose the levels they could pass. The only exception was the advanced writing test.

No correlation was found between the advanced level reading test result and background information. This does not mean that the background information could not be used to predict success in the tests. As mentioned earlier, lack of any association was probably due to the small number of candidates in the reading test (17) and the lack of variation in the background information.

Most candidates had hobbies related to English but this did not seem to correlate with their test results or other compared measures. It seems that this question was interpreted in different ways by different candidates: some included watching English and American television programmes in their hobbies while others did not, though nowadays one can hardly avoid watching them.

All except two candidates said they used English either in their studies or in their work. As to the students they used the language in reading books for examinations; some had lectures or seminars in English. The local administration officers used English when they had foreign visitors and had to guide them around and tell them about their work. The fact that they had to use English in their work was probably the most important reason for their taking the test.

Candidates' Own Estimates of their Language Abilities

An interesting point in the questionnaire was the candidates' own estimate of their mastery of English. It was done on a four point scale where one stood for poor ability and four for good ability. The assessment was made separately on all four language aspects tested in the CUEFL: reading, writing, listening and speaking. The results seem to support the conclusions that were made previously when dealing with each test separately. In the teaching of English (and languages in general) in Finland more emphasis is put on reading and listening, and less on other skills. This is reflected in the candidates' own estimates, too. Here are their mean estimates for the four abilities:

Reading	3.5
Writing	2.9
Listening	3.3
Speaking	3.1

It seems that the candidates considered their reading ability to be their best asset, followed by the listening ability. The ability to write was thought to be the least developed. It was studied by statistical means

if these differences in estimates are real. The method used was the Wilcoxon test. The results indicate that the estimates really differ except in the case of speaking vs. writing, and speaking vs. listening. The greatest difference shown in the statistical study was between reading and writing, and reading and speaking, just as the means for estimates lead to expect:

	Probability	Number of cases
Reading vs. Writing	.0007 ***	33
Reading vs. Listening	.0342 *	33
Reading vs. Speaking	.0018 **	33
Writing vs. Listening	.0229 *	33
Writing vs. Speaking	.3078	33
Listening vs. Speaking	.0619	33

*** = very significant
** = significant
* = almost significant

When comparing the students' and the administrators' own estimates of their mastery of English, the students placed themselves higher on the four point scale than did the administrators, which most likely reflects the length of English learning at school. This gives further support to the view that language learners often have quite an accurate idea about their own language mastery, though, admittedly, in this case the students had had so much more English at school that it would have been very odd if they did not consider themselves better language users than the administrators:

Reading	(students)	3.7
	(administ.)	3.2
Writing	(students)	3.2
	(administ.)	2.3
Listening	(students)	3.6
	(administ.)	2.4
Speaking	(students)	3.4
	(administ.)	2.3

The advanced candidates' own estimates of their reading ability did not, however, correlate with the success in the advanced level reading test. This may be due to lack of variation in their estimates (all of them regarded their reading ability as good). This study did not provide the organisers with much information on the reliability of the candidates' own estimates in predicting their success in the tests: the number of candidates in each test was simply too small for that.

Face Validity of the Examination

The face validity of an examination is basically how good it seems to the examinees. This is a quality of a test that has often been neglected at the expense of other, usually statistically established qualities like reliability and validity. Face validity is difficult to study by empirical means and there is always a lot of subjectivity in all efforts to establish the face validity of any test. That is why little attention has previously been paid to it, though it now seems that the importance of what the test looks like is being recognised more often than in the past. The reason behind this is the growing importance given to motivation in studies and also testing - what the test looks like to the examinees is bound to affect their motivation and thus their performance in the test.

To help to establish the face validity of the CUEFL examination a question concerning the test itself was added to the questionnaire. We asked the candidates to give their opinion on how interesting the examination appeared to them and how good a measure of language mastery it seemed to be. Not all candidates commented on the tests but the majority gave at least some answers to this question, so it seems safe enough to draw some conclusions. Two thirds of the candidates considered the tests interesting and relevant to real life, which indicates quite a high face validity. This was the case both in the easiest test (reading) and in the most difficult test (writing), thus the experienced level of difficulty did not seem to have affected the candidates' interest in the test. One reason given for the interest in the examination was that it was so different from any other exam they had taken before. Because the question aimed at no finer distinctions it cannot be decided whether it was the materials or the tasks that were regarded as more interesting and relevant.

Very few candidates gave their opinion as to what the examination measured, which is no wonder because most people have a very vague idea about what a language test measures or should measure. However, if the candidates considered the examination interesting and relevant, we can infer that they probably meant that they thought it measured language abilities. Four or five expressed their opinion about the examination as a whole saying that they believed it was a good measure of mastery of English and especially of its use in real life.

One candidate was sceptical about the amount of language the reading test tried to measure; perhaps the relative easiness of the test decreased its value in his eyes. Some believed that the reading test also measured the ability to make logical inferences and accuracy. This sounds similar to the evaluation criteria the RSA have for the reading test; it seems that some candidates have noticed that the RSA's view about reading differs from that of the school.

The candidates' general opinions about the four tests in the November 1986 examination can be summarized as follows: The candidates' answers seem to confirm the notion that the reading test was easy for them. Two thirds of them considered it easy even at the highest level, and some of them thought it was too easy. On the other hand more than one third of the candidates said that the test was interesting, some giving as their reason that it was relevant to real life or that it was different from any other test they had taken before.

The candidates' comments on the listening test were, on the whole, positive. Almost half of them considered it interesting and relevant to real life, and many thought it was easy. Nevertheless, some questions were criticized for being unclear, especially in the section that dealt with the two women and the accident. One examinee would have preferred a more integrative test where the candidates could have produced something themselves.

The comments on the writing test support the view that it was more difficult than the other tests. The most usual opinions were that the test was good, interesting and relevant, but also that it was difficult, demanding and laborious. Only at the lower levels did a couple of candidates regard the test as easy.

The candidates appear to have liked the oral interaction test, since a fair number of them considered it good and interesting. Their opinion about its difficulty was divided rather evenly: some thought it was easy, the others it was difficult. However, a third of them complained that the testing time was too short to show what they really know, or that they had problems with starting to speak in such a short time. This is bound to affect negatively the face validity of the oral interaction test. It is obviously arguable whether a test which is perhaps the first opportunity for the candidate to use spoken English for many months is a good measure of the candidate's oral interaction skills. It has often been noticed that speaking ability deteriorates through lack of use and that it takes some time in a discussion until the potential level of fluency has been reached.

This problem could perhaps be solved by more preparation and practice before actually taking the test. It may, however, be difficult for practical reasons and, besides, the good results of the test seem to suggest that the "fluency problem" was not so great in reality - or perhaps these candidates were exceptionally good at oral interaction: many of them had spent some time in an English-speaking country. On the other hand everything that may raise the level of face validity is worth considering.

When the candidates were asked if the examination was necessary and why, two main reasons came out. Half of the students mentioned that they may need the certificate, which was the reason expected. However, almost as many students said that the examination was a way to find out how well they mastered English and that the certificate would be a proof for themselves of that mastery. The non-students gave the reason that the examination was a way to assess their own mastery of the language and, in addition, a way to motivate themselves for further study.

CONCLUSION

Though the analysis of the November 1986 examination is not yet finished, some conclusions can be drawn. The aims of the study were to find out the suitability of the test in Finland and to give the testers some information on which they will be able to base their recommendations as to which levels are best to different candidates. The suitability of the examination was studied by looking at the results of the various CUEFL tests and by asking the candidates' opinion. The other problem was approached similarly by looking at the results and then by trying to find correlations between background information and the choices of test levels and test results.

It seems that the CUEFL examination is suitable to Finns: the results of the tests were good and the test takers had a positive attitude to the examination. A possible cultural bias that was feared before the test did not affect the candidates' success. The examinees' performance need not be perfect even at advanced level, though by looking at the RSA assessment criteria you might get the impression that a native-like mastery of language is required to pass the most demanding tests. In the comprehension tests it is enough to get about 70 percent right to pass. When the evaluation takes into account so many different criteria, it is unlikely that a candidate would fail a test simply because he or she is not very familiar with British culture.

In addition, the teaching of foreign languages includes at least some basic facts about culture, so that the Finnish examinees cannot be ignorant of many of the features in the British way of life. Another, and perhaps a more important, source of cultural knowledge is provided by the vast number of British and American television programmes, songs, advertisements and other products of Anglo-American culture that are part of our everyday life.

The results indicate that either the four tests were not equally demanding or that the four "language skills" of the Finnish test takers were not equally developed. The comprehension tests and the oral interaction test seemed to be easier than the test of writing. We may assume that since the RSA have developed their examination for several years and tried it in different countries it is the candidates' abilities that vary, not the tests. The candidates' own assessment of their mastery of English in the four areas of language use supports this view: they rated their ability to comprehend clearly better than their production ability. But it seems that the tests can also vary in difficulty, as was apparently the case with the advanced level listening tests in November 1986 and June 1987.

The testers got a confirmation that their advice were more or less right. The only surprise we had was the difficulty of the advanced writing test. But it will probably not be necessary to change the writing part, since the reason for the candidates' failures seems to lie more in their lack of writing experience and ability than in the possible cultural bias of the tasks. Instead we should advise new candidates to think very carefully before choosing advanced level unless they have a lot of experience in writing in English. The writing test still requires a deeper analysis. One important practical consideration was noticed during the test: it would be wiser not to arrange the reading, writing and listening tests on the same day because the test became too long at least for the advanced candidates. In future the listening test will be held on a different day from the reading and writing tests.

The CUEFL examination may not be as authentic as the RSA claims but this is a problem with all testing including all other 'authentic' tests. However, the RSA tests seem to be good approximations to real life language tasks as their high face validity indicates. In spite of the slight limitations the CUEFL examination represents improvement in the field of language testing, thanks to its emphasis on communicativeness, authenticity and performance.

The result of the trial run was very promising and we continue to organize the exam to offer an opportunity for those who wish to get an international certificate in English and to obtain more information for the verification of the findings we have made so far. We will also have to decide whether to start producing alternative tests in cooperation with the RSA for various specific fields or disciplines.

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APPENDIX 1

Advanced Level Reading Test: Text 15 and the questions

Text 15

BRIEFLY...

FOOD AID

America's experiment

There were heavy floods and worries about famine in northern Bangladesh in 1974. That same year American food aid was sharply reduced. For Bangladesh wanted to sell three million dollars worth of jute sacks to Cuba. The US threatened to withhold the food aid as an experiment to compare the effectiveness of a food embargo with that of oil. In effect, food was delayed in shipment.

More than 50,000 Bangladeshis died that year in the affected regions. The Americans were not the only culprits. An inventory taken in the region where thousands died found that there was more than enough food for everyone. But it was held back from the market-place in anticipation of prices rising three or four times above normal levels. Which they did.

Both Food Aid stories from a speech by food expert René Dumont as reported in The IDRC Reports, Vol. 13, No. 4.

Read the article about food aid called 'America's experiment' from the column headed 'Briefly' (Text 15).

10. The article
    a) lays all the blame on the Americans.
    b) lays all the blame on the Cubans.
    c) says the Americans are not the only ones to blame.

Put a tick (✓) next to the correct answer in the answer column.

11. According to the article, which of the following statements are true?
    a) The Bangladeshis were not able to keep their contract with Cuba.
    b) The food aid from America did not reach northern Bangladesh in time.
    c) Food was three or four times the normal price level when it arrived.
    d) There was not enough food on sale for the starving Bangladeshis.
    e) There was no food at all in the affected regions.

Tick TRUE, FALSE or IT DOESN'T SAY where appropriate in the answer column.

Tick (✓) one box below

a	
b	
c	

Tick (✓) True, False or It Doesn't Say as appropriate

	TRUE	FALSE	DOESN'T SAY
a			
b			
c			
d			
e			

APPENDIX 2

SPEARMAN CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS MATRIX

*** = very significant
** = significant
* = almost significant

	ENGLISH ELSEWHERE (months)	STAY IN ENGL. SPEAK.COUNTRY (months)	HOBBIES IN ENGL. (yes/no)	USE OF ENGLISH (yes/no)	READING: OWN ESTIM. (1 to 4)	WRITING: OWN ESTIM. (1 to 4)
ENGLIHS AT SCHOOL	.1376 P=.223	.1519 P=.199	-.2156 P=.114	.0641 P=.362	.5211 P=001 **	.4651 P=003 **
ENGLISH ELSEWHERE		.3390 P=.011 *	.1729 P=.168	-.0152 P=.467	.2201 P=.109	.0162 P=.464
STAY IN ENG. SPEAK.COUNTRY			.0326 P=.429	-.2189 P=.110	.3029 P=.043 *	.2802 P=.057
HOBBIES IN ENGLISH				-.1920 P=.142	-.3364 P=.028 *	-.1460 P=.209
USE OF ENGLISH					-.0308 P=.432	-.3384 P=.027 *
READING: OWN ESTIM.						.4402 P=.005**

	LISTEN.: OWN EST. (1 to 4)	SPEAK.: OWN EST. (1 to 4)	READING LEVEL CHOSEN (B,I,A)	WRITING LEVEL CHOSEN (B,I,A)	LIST. LEVEL CHOSEN (B,I,A)	SPEAK. LEVEL CHOSEN (B,I,A)	%CORRECT IN ADV READ
ENGLISH AT SCHOOL	.7663 P=.000***	.5793 P=.000***	.5329 P=.001**	.7339 P=.002**	.7943 P=.000***	.5612 P=.001**	.0278 P=.458
ENGLISH ELSEWHERE	.2276 P=.101	.1348 P=.227	.2868 P=.056	.5347 P=.030*	.3969 P=.071	.3075 P=.056	-.1857 P=.238
STAY IN ENGL. SPEAK.COUNTRY	.1952 P=.138	.3506 P=.023 *	.4375 P=.006**	.7697 P=.001**	.5028 P=.028 *	.5409 P=.001**	-.3071 P=.115
HOBBIES IN ENGLISH	-.2733 P=.062	-.2183 P=.111	-.0399 P=.414	-.1108 P=.359	-.2490 P=.185	-.0563 P=.388	-.3573 P=.080
USE OF ENGLISH	-.0652 P=.359	-.1846 P=.152	-.2192 P=.114	can't be computed	can't be computed	-.0953 P=.315	can't be computed
READING: OWN ESTIM.	.6248 P=.000***	.5543 P=.000***	.3486 P=.025 *	.7570 P=.001**	.6351 P=.005 **	.6016 P=.000***	.2007 P=.220
WRITING: OWN ESTIM.	.5920 P=.000***	.7525 P=.000***	.4612 P=.004 **	.5583 P=.024*	.5164 P=.024 *	.5206 P=.002**	.0638 P=.404
LISTENING: OWN ESTIM.		.7798 P=.000***	.5123 P=.001 **	.7923 P=.001**	.7713 P=.000***	.5703 P=.001**	-.2424 P=.174
SPEAKING: OWN ESTIM.			.5663 P=.000***	.8001 P=.001**	.7243 P=.001 **	.6761 P=.000***	-.3054 P=.117
READING LEVEL CHOSEN				.9306 P=.000***	.9326 P=.000***	.7827 P=.000***	can't be comp.
WRITING LEVEL CHOSEN						1.0000 P=.000***	-.1391 P=.396
LISTENING LEVEL CHOSEN				1.0000 P=.000***		.9306 P=.000***	.0000 P=.500
SPEAKING LEVEL CHOSEN				1.0000 P=.000***			-.0189 P=.474
% CORRECT IN ADVANCED READING				-.1319 P=.396			

The number of candidates was usually 30 to 34. The correlations are less reliable in the following cases where the number of candidates was lower:

Writing and Listening Level Chosen (13 or 15)
% Correct in Advanced Reading (17)

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INTERKULTURELLE FACHKOMMUNIKATION UND LANDESKUNDEUNTERRICHT IN NORDEUROPA: AUFGABEN FÜR DEN FACHBEZOGENEN FREMDSPRACHENUNTERRICHT UND DIE AUSBILDUNG VON FACHÜBERSETZERN*

1. EINLEITUNG

Ich möchte zunächst mein Thema[1] etwas präzisieren: Im Rahmen dieses Vortrages ist es natürlich nicht möglich, in angemessener Weise auf *die* inhaltlichen Konzepte und *die* zugrunde liegenden curricularen und bildungspolitischen Absichten *der* Landeskunde deutschsprachiger Länder in einer gesamten Region wie Nordeuropa einzugehen. Notwendig wird eine Beschränkung auf einige Aspekte bestimmter inhaltlicher Konzepte, die auch keineswegs als typisch für Nordeuropa mißverstanden werden sollten. Landeskunde ist auch in den nordeuropäischen Ländern ein sehr weites Feld und umfaßt in Form und Inhalt eine ganze Palette verschiedener Vorstellungen. Art und Weise sowie der Stellenwert von Landeskunde im Rahmen von Deutsch als Fremdsprache hängen in einem so starken Maße letztendlich gerade vom einzelnen Lehrenden ab, daß es mir unmöglich scheint, (allgemein zutreffende) typische Züge des Landeskundeunterrichts in Nordeuropa zu beschreiben. Dazu sind trotz bestimmter Ähnlichkeiten die Bedingungen, Ziele und Funktionen des Deutsch als Fremdsprache - Unterrichts sowie die pädagogischen Auffassungen der Lehrenden in den

* Dieser Beitrag ist eine überarbeitete Fassung meines Vortrages auf der Jahrestagung des Arbeitskreises Deutsch als Fremdsprache im Juni 1987 in Freiburg. Bis auf einige (in der schriftlichen Fassung eingearbeitete) Fußnoten wurde der Vortragscharakter beibehalten. Der hier nur kurz dargestellte Ansatz einer fachbezogenen Landeskunde soll demnächst in einer umfangreicheren Arbeit weiter begründet und ausgebaut werden.

1 Für den Vortrag war mein Thema wie folgt angekündigt: "Landeskunde in Nordeuropa: Situation, Aufgaben und Beispiele aus der Praxis des fachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterrichts".

verschiedenen Einrichtungen der allgemein- und berufsbildenden Schulen, der Hochschulen und der Erwachsenenbildung in Nordeuropa zu unterschiedlich. Das wenige, was für die hier vorzustellende Region wirklich als Gemeinsamkeit und vielleicht auch als Besonderheit im Vergelich mit anderen Regionen festgestellt werden kann, sei im ersten Punkt des Beitrages kurz zusammengefaßt. In den anschließenden Punkten werde ich mich dann hauptsächlich mit Fragen des Verhältnisses von interkultureller Kommunikation und Landeskunde beschäftigen und versuchen, Aufgaben der Landeskunde für den fachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterricht und die Ausbildung von Fachübersetzern zu stellen. Dabei beziehe ich mich in erster Linie auf Ergebnisse der Textwissenschaften und Erfahrungen aus meiner Tätigkeit als DAAD-Lektor in Finnland. Insofern ist mein Vortrag nur als ein exemplarischer Beitrag zur Landeskunde in Nordeuropa zu verstehen und beansprucht in keiner Weise, ein "repräsentatives" Bild *der* Landeskunde in dieser Region zu geben.

2. LANDESKUNDEUNTERRICHT IN NORDEUROPA

Zu Beginn dieser kurzen Zusammenfassung wird eine weitere Einschränkung erforderlich: Ich beziehe mich im folgenden insbesondere auf Finnland und Schweden und verzichte auf eine Darstellung der Lage in Dänemark und Norwegen[2]. Beide Länder, d.h. Finnland und Schweden, gehören zu den blockfreien Staaten in Nordeuropa und unterscheiden sich (nicht nur) in dieser Hinsicht von den anderen blockgebundenen Staaten Skandinaviens. Dies scheint auch für die Landeskunde deutschsprachiger Länder von Bedeutung zu sein und ist eigentlich schon rein optisch sichtbar, wenn man z.B. bedenkt, daß in allen skandinavischen Ländern Goethe-Institute vertreten sind, DDR-Kulturzentren aber nur in Finnland und Schweden bestehen.

Daraus ergibt sich, daß sowohl in Finnland als auch in Schweden Kontakte der hiesigen Fortbildungsinstitutionen für Deutschlehrer mit *allen* deutschsprachigen Ländern gepflegt werden. Lehrende und Lernende haben

[2] Vgl. dazu u.a. die Beiträge in den vom DAAD herausgegebenen Sammelband "Deutsch als Fremdsprachenphilologie in den nordischen Ländern".

ausgezeichnete Möglichkeiten, sich in allen deutschsprachigen Ländern fortzubilden und erhalten durch die im Land vertretenen Kulturinstitute besonders im Bereich der Landeskunde Unterstützung und Beratung. Seit 1984 gibt es in Nordeuropa als feste Institution die 'Nordischen Tagungen für Deutschlehrer und Germanisten', die abwechselnd in direkter Zusammenarbeit mit einem deutschsprachigen Land einmal jährlich veranstaltet werden. Aus dem jeweiligen (deutschsprachigen) Land stehen dann Kollegen aus dem DaF-Bereich, aber auch Künstler, Literaten, Historiker und Politiker als Gesprächspartner zur Verfügung, wobei besonders der Landeskunde ein wichtiger Stellenwert eingeräumt wird. Die Ergebnisse der ersten drei 'Nordischen Tagungen' sind veröffentlicht worden[3] und bilden für die Lehrer eine reiche landeskundliche Fundgrube.

Neuere landeskundliche Projekte an den Fortbildungsinstitutionen für Deutschlehrer in Finnland und Schweden betonen besonders bisher (auch anderswo) vernachlässigte Bereiche. Erwähnenswert ist hier vor allem ein Projekt der Fortbildungsabteilung der Universität Uppsala zu *Fragen der Arbeitswelt und des Lebensalltags in deutschsprachigen Ländern*[4]. Im Rahmen eines anderen Projektes (Deutsch für Sozialwissenschaftler) am Zentralen Spracheninstitut der finnischen Hochschulen stand die Problematik landeskundlicher Aspekte bei der Vermittlung von fachbezogener Lesekompetenz in der Fremdsprache im Vordergrund.

Da Deutschunterricht in Nordeuropa zu einem wichtigen Teil fachbezogen ist[5] und eine ziel-, funktions- und bedingungsgerechte Landeskunde in diesem Bereich zum Abbau von Verstehensschwierigkeiten beitragen kann, sei auf die zuletzt genannte Problematik im folgenden näher eingegangen.

[3] Es liegen insgesamt fünf Konferenzbände vor, die in der Schriftenreihe des Zentralen Spracheninstitus der finnischen Hochschulen/Universität Jyväskylä erschienen und von dort direkt zu beziehen sind (Seminaarinkatu 15, SF-40100 Jyväskylä).

[4] Dieses Projekt und auch sonstige landeskundliche Aktivitäten der Fortbildungsabteilung in Uppsala verdienten es unbedingt, ausführlicher dargestellt zu werden. Weitere Informationen und zahlreiche einschlägige Publikationen sind direkt von der Fortbildungsabteilung erhältlich (Postbox 2137, S-75002 Uppsala).

[5] Vgl. dazu u.a. die Übersicht bei Schröder/Sörensen (1986).

Vorab kurz zu dem hier zugrundeliegenden Verständnis von Landeskunde: Unter Landeskunde verstehe ich in diesem Beitrag ganz allgemein alles (Wissen und Können), was zum Gelingen interkultureller Kommunikation hinzugehört, aber nicht unmittelbar Sprachliches betrifft. Als Ziel einer linguistischen Beschäftigung mit landeskundlichen Problemen der interkulturellen Fachkommunikation sehe ich die Erstellung eines Beitrags zur Entwicklung einer (fach-) '*textbezogenen Landeskunde*' im Sinne von Fritz Paepcke.

3. EINIGE ASPEKTE INTERKULTURELLER KOMMUNIKATION ZWISCHEN DEUTSCHSPRACHIGEN UND NORDEUROPÄERN

Bevor ich auf die (speziellere) Problematik der interkulturellen Fachkommunikation eingehe, seien zunächst kurz allgemeinere Aspekte der Alltagskommunikation zwischen Deutschsprachigen und Nordeuropäern behandelt, die ebenfalls - so meine ich - eine mögliche Grundlage für die Bestimmung eines Curriculums in Landeskunde bilden könnten.

In dem vom Titel her Interesse weckenden, aber leider sehr oberflächlichen, Buch von Heinz Commer 'Knigge International: Ungeschriebene Gesetze und richtige Umgangsformen im Ausland' heißt es unter dem Stichwort Skandinavien:

> "So unterschiedlich die skandinavischen Umgangsformen im einzelnen auch sein mögen, so sicher ist: Es gibt bestimmte skandinavische Gemeinsamkeiten, die sich auch in ähnlichen Verhaltensweisen, Sitten und Gebräuchen auswirken" (268).

Angeführt werden u.a. der "weithin realisierte kollektive Wohlfahrsstaat", "perfekte Pünktlichkeit" und Probleme im Umgang mit Alkohol. Außerdem findet sich ein direkter Hinweis auf die Kleidung: "Eine Idee förmlicher angezogen zu sein ist in Skandinavien immer eine gute Idee" (270). Natuürlich werden auch Besonderheiten in den einzelnen skandinavischen Ländern aufgezählt; Commer gibt zu jedem Land spezielle Tips, wobei er u.a. über Finnland ausführt:

> Das Wort 'Finnlandisierung' sollte vermieden werden, ebenso wie Finnland nicht als 'kleines Land' bezeichnet, bewertet und behandelt werden sollte; der Hausfrau wird nie zugeprostet; zur Begrüßung ist die Umarmung völlig unüblich, "ein Händedruck ist zwar möglich, wird aber nicht so häufig praktiziert wie bei uns" (84).
>
> Schließlich sollte man sich - so Commer - bei Gesprächen vor "jeder Besserwisserei, jeder schulmeisterischen Belehrung, jeder Großspurigkeit" hüten (84) und bei Titeln sehr auf Förmlichkeiten achten.

So richtig und wichtig solche noch recht allgemeinen Hinweise (zumindest für den Geschäftsreisenden) auch sein mögen, so unzureichend sind sie zugleich, wie Werner Bartsch bereits im Jahre 1960 in seinem Heft "Umgang mit Finnen" schreibt:

> "Denn je länger man unter fremden und mit der Zeit doch so vertrauten Menschen lebt, um so heikler wird es mit dem unbekümmerten Urteilen und dem Aufstellen von Patentregeln. Immer mehr lösen sich aus der etwas verwaschenen Vorstellung 'die Finnen' Gesichter und ausgeprägte Gestalten heraus, deren Farbigkeit das Gesamtbild eher verzerrt als klar und deutlich macht" (4).

In der Alltagsrealität kommunizieren eben ganz konkrete Menschen miteinander, die u.a. aus einer bestimmten Region und sozialen Schicht ihres Landes kommen, entsprechend unterschiedliche Sozialisationen erfahren haben und letztendlich auch charakterlich Individuen und keine Mustertypen sind. So löst sich der abstrakte Fall der Kommunikation "Finne - Deutschsprachiger" in der Wirklichkeit in einer eigentlich unbegrenzten Anzahl von denkbaren und möglichen Kommunikationsbeziehungen auf. Die jeweilige Wahl der Kommunikationsstrategien hängt dabei sicher auf beiden Seiten zu einem wichtigen Teil vom Geschlecht, Alter, von der sozialen Schicht, der Landsmannschaft usw. ab. Aus diesem Grunde kann es keine allgemeingültigen Kommunikationsregeln für die interkulturelle Kommunikation zwischen Finnen und Deutschsprachigen geben. Die Angemessenheit und auch der Erfolg des Kommunikationsverhaltens hängen immer konkret von der Situation und dem Kommunikationspartner ab: *Mit wem kommuniziere ich wo, zu welchem Zeitpunkt zu welchem Zweck und über welche Themen?* Erst die Beantwortung dieser Fragen kann mir helfen, kommunikativ 'rational'[6] zu handeln.

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6 Ich lehne mich hier, wie auch im folgenden, an die Terminologie von Els Oksaar an.

Denkbar und möglich in der Kommunikation "Finne - Deutschsprachiger" sind auch Situationen, in denen als weitere Gesprächspartner z.B. Dänen, Norweger und Schweden anwesend sind. In diesem Fall ist es für das 'rationale' Handeln des Deutschsprachigen wichtig, ausreichende Informationen über die Binnenverhältnisse der Nordeuropäer zu haben. Eigene Erfahrungen und Befragungen, die ich durchgeführt habe, machen deutlich, daß die Unterschiede zwischen Nordeuropäern bisweilen größer sind, als gemeinhin angeommen wird. Auch der Umgang untereinander und miteinander ist für die Nordeuropäer nicht problemlos; über den jeweils Fremden gibt es trotz der geographischen Nähe und trotz der historisch-kulturellen und politischen Gemeinsamkeiten Vorurteile; durch unterschiedliche Kommunikationsstrategien werden auch hier Mißverständnisse aufgebaut, und der Deutschsprachige sollte z. B. nicht ohne weiteres Schwedisch als *die* Kontaktspreche, als 'lingua franca', in der Kommunikation mit Nordeuropäern aus verschiedenen Ländern benutzen.

Diese wenigen Ausführungen mögen ausreichen, um zu illustrieren, wie komplex interkulturelle Kommunikation ist. In der Landeskunde sollte nun versucht werden, auf diese Komplexität hinzuweisen und sie durchschaubar zu machen, statt - wie noch oft genug in der Praxis anzutreffen - Stereotype über das 'Fremde' zu festigen bzw. gar erst aufzubauen. Durch Landeskunde sollten die Lernenden eine Hilfe für 'rationales' kommunikatives Handeln erhalten, so daß sie in der fremdsprachigen Kommunikation sicherer entscheiden können, was man wann, wem, wo und wie sagen kann[7]. Außerdem sollte die Fähigkeit entwickelt werden, das (andere, das fremde) Verhalten des Gesprächspartners aus der Perspektive des jeweiligen sozio-kulturellen Systems zu verstehen.

Nur unter Beachtung der hier geäußerten grundsätzlichen Bedenken hinsichtlich verallgemeinerter Vorstellungen über das 'Fremde' und der (soeben skizzierten) allgemeinen Aufgabe der Landeskunde, sollen im folgenden einige Problembereiche der Kommunikation zwischen Finnen und Deutschsprachigen genannt werden, die zum größten Teil auf der Grundlage von Intuition und Selbsterfahrung entstanden sind, im Einzelfall wissenschaftlich zwar nicht überprüft wurden, aber dennoch intersubjektiv nachvollziehbar sind. Ich gehe dabei von meiner eigenen individuellen Betroffenheit aus und beziehe mich insbesondere auf Kommunikations-

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7 Vgl. dazu insbesondere Els Oksaar (1985: 18).

situationen im Hochschulalltag (z.B.: Student - Lehrer, Lehrer - Lehrer in und außerhalb der Hochschule). In der Mündlichen Kommunikation fallen mir Unterschiede vor allem in den folgenden vier Bereichen auf:

1. *Schweigen* und *Sprechpausen* sowie *nonverbales Verhalten* in der Kommunikation haben eine andere Funktion bei Finnen und Deutschsprachigen. Stützen kann ich mich hier vorwiegend auf finnische Arbeiten, vor allem von Lehtonen, Tiittula und Widén. Verkürzt kann der Unterschied auf den Nenner gebracht werden, daß Finnen durch Schweigen/Sprechpausen Nachdenklichkeit anzeigen und durch Sprechen Ergebnisse von (vorab geleisteten) Denkprozessen mitteilen, während Deutsche eher laut zu denken scheinen, da Schweigen und Sprechpausen als 'peinlich' aufgefaßt werden.
2. Verbal Geäußertes hat bei Finnen eine größere *Verbindlichkeit hinsichtlich des Wahrheitsgehaltes der Äußerung und der Verpflichtung des Sprechers auf Einhaltung*. Zeit- und Maßangaben werden in Finnland viel strenger (wörtlicher!) genommen. Die Semantik von 'sofort', 'viel', 'bestimmt', 'bald' usw. scheint sich in den beiden Sprachen stark zu unterscheiden. Eine in Mittel- und Südeuropa moralisch unproblematische und mögliche Kommunikationsform, die z.B. Elias Canetti in seiner Lebensgeschichte zurückblickend auf das Wien der 20er Jahre mit "Was man gut erfand, war eine Geschichte keine Lüge" umschreibt (vgl. desweiteren dazu den österreichischen Phraseologismus 'einen Schmäh erzählen'), ist aus finnischer Sicht nicht nachvollziehbar: Man spricht vielleicht wenig, aber das was gesagt wird muß auch wahr und verbindlich sein!
3. Aus der Sicht Deutschsprachiger ist die *Einstellung zu Kritik und Selbstkritik* in Finnland schwer nachvollziehbar. Die Probleme der jüngeren Deutschsprachigen mit ihrer eigenen Geschichte und der daraus folgenden Selbstkritik sind wiederum dem Finnen unbekannt, obwohl die jüngere Geschichte auch dort (zumindest in den Augen jüngerer Deutschsprachiger) genügend Anlaß zur Selbstkritik bieten könnte[8].

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8 Umstrittene Themen (in Diskussionen zwischen jüngeren Deutschen und Finnen) sind häufig z.B. der Beitrag des deutschen Reiches bei der Gründung der finnischen Republik und der Niederschlagung der 'Roten' im Jahre 1918, die Wahl eines deutschen Königs für Finnland sowie die aktive Beteiligung Finnlands auf Seiten Hitlerdeutschlands im zweiten Weltkrieg, die Abschiebung und Nicht-Aufnahme deutscher und österreichischer Emigranten (meist jüdischer Nationalität) vor Beginn des zweiten Weltkrieges usw.

Kritisieren und Problematisieren sind zwar (wenn auch nicht in der gleichen Intensität) in intellektuellen Gesprächen in Finnland anzutreffen, jedoch fehlt, das von Galtung bei den 'Teutonen' festgestelle Dramatisieren: Demnach werden im 'teutonischen intellektuellen Stil' unüberbrückbare Widersprüche konstruiert, die nach 'radikalen Lösungen' verlangen oder ansonsten direkt in den bevorstehenden Weltuntergang münden. Ein deutscher Lektor Mit einer solchen Haltung wird bei Finnen wohl meistens auf Eis laufen, wenn er meint, durch ein 'heißes Eisen' Diskussionen provozieren zu können!

Ähnliches verhält es sich mit der *Traditionspflege* (übrigens auch im wissenschaftlichen Alltag an der Hochschule!). Zwar sind die Nordeuropäer einerseits für ihre Sachlichkeit und Modernität in vielen Lebensbereichen bekannt, andererseits halten sie jedoch an Traditionen fest, die dem ansonsten eher konservativen Deutschsprachigen als überholt anmuten. Der deutschsprachige Lektor, dem aus seiner eigenen Studentenzeit noch bestens der Spruch 'Unter den Talaren der Muff von 1000 Jahren' bekannt ist, wird in Finnland jedenfalls über so viel akademische Würde (z.B. Frack bei der Verteidigung der Doktorarbeit[9]) und Respekt gegenüber akademischen Amtspresonen nur staunen, sollte sich aber tunlichst davor hüten, solche Institutionen in Frage zu stellen.

4. Insgesamt scheint mir in Finnland das *Argumentationsverhalten* ein völlig anderes als in Mitteleuropa zu sein. Verbale Leistungen zählen in Mitteleuropa viel mehr als in Finnland, wo sie bis vor kurzem z.B. in der Schule gar nicht berücksichtigt wurden. Ein mündliches Abitur gibt es bis heute nicht, und es wird allgemein beklagt, daß die Argumentationsfähigkeit finnischer Schüler und Studenten unterentwickelt

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Im Kontrast zur Bundesrepublik scheint im öffentlichen Bewußtsein eine stärkere Problematisierung dieser Abschnitte der Geschichte nicht im Mittelpunkt des Interesses zu stehen. Statt dessen greift man wohl lieber auf andere Traditionslinien zurück, wie z.B. auf die Hervorhebung dessen, daß Finnland gegen Ende des zweiten Weltkrieges auf Seiten der Alliierten kämpfte, Finnland auch ein Opfer Hitlers war und die finnische Regierung sich massiv gegen die Auslieferung finnischer Bürger jüdischer Nationalität wehrte.

9 In dem finnischen 'Knigge' von Agneta Uddenberg (1986) finden sich mehr als fünf Seiten über Formalitäten bei der Doktorverteidigung und den damit verbundenen Feierlichkeiten, die zumeist auch peinlichst genau eingehalten werden.

sei[10]. Finnen, die an Hochschulen (und auch in Studentenkneipen!) im deutschsprachigen Raum waren, beklagen die Aggressivität der Deutschsprachigen im Gespräch: Man wird ständig nach Meinungen gefragt, dann wegen der geäußerten Meinung angegriffen und schließlich in einen Begründungszwang gebracht. Hingegen ist die eigene Meinung in Finnland beinahe 'heilig': Man kann sie äußern und einem anderen mitteilen, muß sie aber weder begründen noch mit Angriffen rechnen.

Wir könnten daher zusammenfassend auf der einen Seite (für das Finnische) von einer eher *passiv-mitteilenden Sprechkultur* und auf der anderen Seite (zumindest für einen gewissen Teil des deutschsprachigen Raumes) von einer eher *aktiv-streitbaren Sprechkultur* ausgehen. Wesentlich scheint mir aber, daß man hinter diesen Unterschieden nicht als Grund das 'Finnen-Sein' und 'Deutsch-Sein' an sich sieht, sondern über die Unterschiede in der Sozialisation die daraus resultierenden unterschiedlichen Kommunikationsstrategien nachvollziehbar macht[11].

4. ZUR OPERATIONALISIERUNG VON KULTURBEDINGTEN KOMMUNIKATIONSSTRATEGIEN ALS GRUNDLAGE FÜR DIE LANDESKUNDE

Meine o.g. Ausführungen zur Kommunikation zwischen Finnen und Deutschsprachigen beruhten ausschließlich auf Intuition und eigenen Erfahrungen. Kulturbedingte Unterschiede in Kommunikationsstrategien lassen sich aber auch linguistisch operationalisieren und systematischer erfassen, als das im Rahmen dieses Beitrages geleistet wurde. Nach M. Clyne lassen sich kulturbedingte Diskursvarianten z.B. durch folgende Fragen ermitteln:

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10 Vgl. dazu u.a. jüngst die Ergebnisse einer Studie von Kuusinen & Leiwo (1987).

11 Hier gilt es freilich (kulturkontrastiv) gezielte Untersuchungen durchzuführen: Welche Rolle spielt z.B. die 'Studentenkneipe' in der Sozialisation bundesdeutscher Studenten an der Hochschule? Wie hat sich die finnische Hochschulreform der 70er Jahre, die zu einer starken Verschulung führte (35 Wochenstunden Unterricht für Studenten sind durchaus normal!), auf studentisches Kommunikationsverhalten ausgewirkt?

1. Durch die Frage nach dem *Grad der Verbalität der Kommunikation*[12];
2. Durch die Frage nach dem *Grad der Formalität in der Kommunikation*[13];
3. Durch die Frage nach dem *Rhytmus des Diskurses*[14];
4. Durch die Frage nach dem *Grad der Linearität des Diskurses*[15].

Diese Fragen können sowohl für den mündlichen als auch für den schriftlichen Diskurs gestellt werden. Zusätzlich für die Analyse des mündlichen Diskurses wäre im Sinne von Els Oksaar noch nach dem Einsatz sonstiger kommunikativer (nicht-sprachlicher) Mittel zu fragen. D.h.:

- Welche *parasprachlichen Mittel* werden zur Erreichung des Kommunikationsziels eingesetzt? D.h. wie wird das Gesagte ausgedrückt? Humor, Ironie, Sarkasmus usw. können z.B. durch die Stimmqualität und Stimmgebungen (Lachen, Schluchzen, Rülpsen, Tonintensität, Tonhöhe, Geräusche der Zunge, Einatmen usw.) vermittelt werden.
- Welche *nonverbalen Mittel* werden zur Erreichung des Kommunikationsziels eingesetzt? Wie werden Senden und Empfangen von Mitteilungen durch Körpersprache begleitet? Welche Rolle spielen Mimik, Gestik, Körperbewegung und Augenkommunikation?
- Welche *extraverbalen Mittel* werden zur Erreichung des Kommunikationsziels eingesetzt? Zu diesen kommunikativen Einheiten gehören - nach Els Oksaar - Zeit, Raum und Proxemik, wobei letztere "die räumlichen Beziehungen und den Abstand der Redenden voneinander" betrachtet (16).

In dem umfassenden Kommunikationsmodell von Els Oksaar wird (mündliche) Kommunikation in vier Sphären unterteilt, die sich nach den spezifischen Beziehungen der Beteiligten untereinander unterscheiden:

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12 Gemeint sind die Bedeutung und der Anteil verbaler Äußerungen (gegenüber schriftlichen) in der Kommunikation. An bundesdeutschen Hochschulen scheinen verbale Äußerung viel wichtiger zu sein, als in Finnland, wo ohnehin nur die schriftlichen prüfungsrelevant sind.

13 Gemeint ist die Bedeutung und Verbildlichkeit von Gesprächsroutinen in bestimmten kommunikativen Situationen. Nach M. Clyne zeichnen sich z.B. britische Gesprächsroutinen durch einen besonders hohen Grad an Formalität aus.

14 Gemeint sind die Länge von Gesprächsschritten, ihr Verhältnis zueinander, die Verteilung von Gesprächsschritten auf die Kommunikanden, Gesprächswechsel usw.

15 Linearität bedeutet u.a. das Vermeiden von Redundanzen und Exkursen. Vgl. desweiteren M. Clyne und (kritisch!) Schröder (1987).

(1) Die *intime Sphäre*. In dieser kommunizieren sehr gute Freunde, nahe Verwandte.
(2) Die *persönliche Sphäre*. Hier redet man mit Vertrauten, guten Freunden, Verwandten.
(3) Die *soziale Sphäre*. Sie ist die normale Konversationssphäre mit Kollegen, Bekannten.
(4) Die *öffentliche Sphäre*. Hierher gehört jegliche Kommunikation mit Unbekannten; Kommunikation in Institutionen (Verwaltung, Gericht, Kirche usw.).

Im Rahmen dieser Sphären gibt es nach Els Oksaar feste Normen dafür, wem man was wie, wo und wann sagt. Diese Normen sind im weitesten Sinne kulturabhängig und im engeren Sinne sozialisationsbedingt. In der fremdsprachigen Kommunikation können sie jedenfalls keineswegs als bekannt und internalisiert vorausgesetzt werden. Ein Verstoß gegen diese Normen durch den Ausländer ist für die Erreichung des Kommunikationsziels i.d.R. aber schwerwiegender als ein Verstoß gegen grammatische Regeln: Nicht adäquates kommunikatives (d.h. auch parasprachliches, nonverbales und extraverbales) Verhalten werden dem Ausländer eher angekreidet als sprachliches Versagen, das aus der Situation heraus (ein Ausländer spricht!) interpretiert wird.

In ein landeskundliches Curriculum sollte daher aufgenommen werden, *wem man was wie, wo und wann in der verschiedenen Sphären der Fremdkommunikation under Nutzung der sprachlichen, parasprachlichen, nonverbalen und extraverbalen Mittel sagt.* Desweiteren sollte ein Curriculum Informationen über den Grad der Verbalität, der Formalität und Linearität von Äußerungen in der Fremdkultur und über den üblichen Diskursrhytmus enthalten. Ziel sollte es sein, daß der Lernende das Verhalten der 'Fremden' adäquat, d.h. auf der Grundlage ihres eigenen Kommunikationssystems, interpretieren und sich gleichzeitig selbst adäquat - d.h. den Normen des fremden Kommunikationssystems gemäß - verhalten kann. So sollte z.B. - zurückkommend auf die Kommunikation zwischen Deutschsprachigen und Finnen - der Deutschsprachige über die Bedeutung von Sprechpausen bei Finnen Bescheid wissen und über (in Finnland übliche!) Strategien zur Übernahme des Gesprächsschrittes verfügen. Der Finne umgekehrt müßte die Strategien kennen, mit denen Deutschsprachige das Wort ergreifen und verstehen, daß Unterbrechen nicht unbedingt Ausdruck von Unhöflichkeit und Rücksichtslosigkeit sein muß[16].

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16 Vgl. dazu ausführlicher L. Tiittula.

Schließlich wäre es Aufgabe der Grundlagenforschung im Bereich der Landeskunde, das argumentative Verhalten in der Fremdkommunikation in seiner gesamten Komplexität zu untersuchen, so daß es möglich wird, im Fremdsprachenunterricht nicht nur die sprachlichen Mittel für Kommunikationsverfahren wie 'Zustimmen', 'Ablehnen', 'Begründen', 'Widersprechen' usw. zu entwickeln und zu üben, sondern gleichzeitig alle sonstigen kommunikativen Mittel, die bei deren Realisierung eine Rolle spielen, für den Lernenden durchschaubar zu machen und ihren adäquaten Einsatz zu üben.

5. KULTURBEDINGTE SCHWIERIGKEITEN IN DER AUTOR-LESER-KOMMUNIKATION

Schwerpunkt der bisherigen Untersuchungen im Forschungsbereich Interkulturelle Kommunikation war ohne Zweifel die mündliche Alltagskommunikation; denn hier zeigen sich kulturbedingte Unterschiede (der Gesprächsstrategien usw.) am deutlichsten. Gleichwohl belegen Erfahrungen aus der Praxis des fachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterrichts, daß auch die schriftliche Fachkommunikation kulturbedingt ist: die These von der "Universalität des wissenschaftlichen Diskurses" und einem "wissenschaftlichen Weltstil" mag mehr oder weniger für die Fachkommunikation in einigen naturwissenschaftlichen und technischen Gebieten zutreffen, ist aber für den großen Bereich der Humanwissenschaften keineswegs haltbar. Unsere Beobachtungen bei der Erstellung und Arbeit mit einem Unterrichtsmaterial "Deutsch für Sozialwissenschaftler" ergaben folgende kulturbedingte Unterschiede in der schriftlichen Fachkommunikation in Finnland und im deutschsprachigen Raum:

1. Unterschiedliche *Textsortenvorkommen* und unterschiedliche *Vertextungsmuster* bei - oberflächlich betrachtet - gleichen Textsorten. So fehlt in Finnland weitgehend die Textsorte "Lexikonartikel" aus einsprachigen Fachwörterbüchern[17]. Rezensionen sind meistens viel freundlicher als im deutschsprachigen Raum, die 'Vernichtungsrezension' fehlt fast völlig.

17 In finnischer Sprache gibt es nur sehr wenige einsprachige Fachwörterbücher, überhaupt nicht anzutreffen sind paradigmen- und schulgebundene Fachwörterbücher.

Beurteilungen, Referenzen und Gutachten sind in Finnland wesentlich kürzer und enthalten anders als im deutschsprachigen Raum keine 'overstatements'. Außerdem unterscheiden sich die Anleitungen zum wissenschaftlichen Schreiben (ja sogar zum wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten!) sehr stark voneinander, so daß von der Existenz kulturbedingter Vertextungsstrategien ausgegangen werden kann[18].

2. Die *Einstellungen zum Geschriebenen*, d.h. zu schriftlichen Texten, und die *Lern- und Rezeptionsstrategien* unterscheiden sich voneinander. Zumindest bei Studenten in Finnland scheint ein 'kritisches Lesen' nur schwach entwickelt zu sein; auch in der Muttersprache wird vorwiegend 'total' gelesen[19]. In der Fremdsprache dominiert das an der Schule durch Übersetzungsübungen internalisierte 'analytische' Lesen, so daß 'synthetisches' Lesen oftmals erst unter viel Mühe aufgebaut werden muß. (Darauf weisen u.a. auch die Untersuchungen von Dressler und Schmidt hin.) Desweiteren scheint bei Wissenschaftlern die Schwelle zum Publizieren höher zu sein, als in Mitteleuropa: Ein wissenschaftlicher Artikel wird bisweilen nicht nur als ein Diskussionsbeitrag im Rahmen der wissenschaftlichen Gemeinschaft angesehen, sondern man verlangt auch hier - wie in der mündlichen Kommunikation - von sich selbst fertige Denkergebnisse, nach Möglichkeit auf Grundlage der Analyse der gesamten relevanten Fachliteratur zur gewählten Problemstellung. Insofern gibt es nicht nur mehr Sprechpausen, sondern auch mehr *Schreibpausen* im interkulturellen Vergleich.

3. Das jeder Textrezeption zugrundeliegende *'Weltwissen'* unterscheidet sich bei deutschen und finnischen Studenten, wobei auch der zur Verfügung stehende *'Bildungswortschatz'* starke Differenzen aufweist. Für das Finnische gilt eben nicht, daß über Internationalismen bzw. über das, was Mario Wandruszka für die Mehrzahl der europäischen Sprachen als

18 Interessant ist es z. B., die Anleitungen zum wissenschaftlichen Schreiben und Arbeiten (kulturkontrastiv) zu vergleichen.

19 In den Vorgaben zu Seminaren und Vorlesungen an Hochschulen wird meistens genauestens angegeben, welche Seiten (1) aus welchem Buch gelesen werden müssen. In einer Literaturprüfung muß das Wissen über diese Stellen nachgewiesen werden. 'Totales' Lesen ist für finnische Studenten so durchaus funktional.

"paneuropäischen Thesaurus" ermittelt hat[20], das Verständnis fremdsprachiger Texte wesentlich erleichtert wird.

4. Schließlich gibt es im jeweils zugrundliegenden *Wissenschaftsverständnis* und in jedem einzelnen Fach selbst unterschiedliche auch kulturraumbedingte Traditionen. So unterscheiden sich nach Beyme und Galtung die *"intellektuellen Stile"*, nach Kaplan und Clyne ist die den Texten zugrundliegende, *Rhetorik* kulturbedingt[21], und unsere eigenen (kontrastiven) Untersuchungen zeigen, daß auch in der schriftlichen Fachkommunikation die *Argumentationsstrategien* mehr oder weniger kulturbebunden sind. Dies spiegelt sich u.a. auch in den gegenseitigen Vorhaltungen hinsichtlich des Niveaus der Doktorarbeiten wider, wie es z.B. auf einem finnischen Professoren-Tag zum Ausdruck gebracht wurde: Aus finnischer Sicht seien deutsche Doktorarbeiten meist rein theoretisch-spekulativ, d.h. empirisch nicht untermauert; aus deutscher Sicht wiederum seien finnische Doktorarbeiten oftmals rein deskriptiv, d.h. ohne eigenständigen theoretischen Beitrag.

Insgesamt meine ich, daß auch in der schriftlichen Fachkommunikation kulturbedingte Kommunikationsprobleme auftreten. Das Lesen von Fachtexten ist kein passiver Vorgang, sondern ein höchst aktiver Prozeß, als dessen Ergebnis der Leser einem Text Bedeutung auf der Grundlage seiner eigenen verfügbaren 'Wissens'- und 'Kenntnissysteme'[22] zukommen läßt. Diesen Prozeß nenne ich daher auch Autor-Leser-*Kommunikation*. Im Falle der Rezeption fremdsprachiger Texte unterscheiden sich Autor und Leser nun nicht nur durch ihre Sprache (L1 und L2), sondern auch durch ihre kulturelle Herkunft (C1 und C2). Da Verstehen desweiteren nicht nur die Dekodierung von Informationen bedeutet, sondern auch eine konnotative Komponente hat und eine Wirkung bei dem Rezipienten hinterläßt, haben wir es hier eindeutig mit einem Fall der interkulturellen Kommunikation zu tun.

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20 Ich beziehe mich hier auf die Ausführungen von Marion Wandruszka in seinem (noch unveröffentlichten) Vortrag auf der Jahrestagung des Arbeitskreises Deutsch als Fremdsprache im Juni 1987 in Freiburg.

21 Ein Überblick dazu finder sich u.a. in Schröder (1987).

22 Ich benutze diese Begriffe in Anlehnung an Viehweger (1987).

In der schriftlichen Kommunikation gibt es übrigens auch ganz ähnliche parasprachliche, nonverbale und extralinguistische Mittel wie in der mündlichen Kommunikation. Für die mündliche Kommunikation stelle Els Oksaar fest:

> "Was man sagt, das Verbale, tritt nie ohne Signale des Wie hervor. Das Was und das Wie zusammen geben dem Empfänger eine Interpretationsstruktur des Gesagten".

Ähnliches gilt in entsprechender Weise für die schriftliche Kommunikation im Fach, in der u.a. rhetorisch-stilistische Mittel (z.B. Argumente, Funktion von Zitaten usw.) das Wie realisieren. So faßt Gauger in seinem Beitrag "Wissenschaft als Stil" den Begriff des Diskurses folgendermaßen auf:

> "Am Begriff des Diskurses ist interessant, beinahe faszinierend, daß er in ungeschiedener Weise das Wie und das Was zugleich meint; genauer: er meint das Was innerhalb eines Wie, er meint das Was als Wie und markiert so die symptomatische Verschiebung des Akzents vom Was auf das Wie. Mit den Begriffen 'Sprechweise' und 'Stil' meine ich ja ebenfalls nicht bloß das Sprachliche und Formale. Zum Stil gehört nicht nur die sprachliche und formale Drapierung; zu ihm gehört auch dasjenige, von dem die Rede ist und dasjenige, was über das jeweils Thematisierte gesagt wird. Zum Stil gehören somit drei Arten von Elementen: sprachliche, nichtsprachliche und inhaltliche".

Noch deutlicher kommt dies in den Ausführungen zum Stil (in der wissenschaftlichen Darstellung) bei Friedrich Nietzsche zum Ausdruck, der die *schriftliche Kommunikation als eine Nachahmung der mündlichen Kommunikation* versteht. So heißt es bei ihm in These 3 seiner "Lehre vom Stil":

> "Man muß erst genau wissen: 'so und so würde ich dies sprechen und vortragen' - bevor man schreiben darf. Schreiben muß eine Nachahmung sein".

Und weiter heißt es in These 4 und 5 bei Nietzsche:

> 4. "Weil dem Schreibenden viele Mittel des Vortragenden fehlen, so muß er im Allgemeinen eine sehr ausdrucksvolle Art von Vortrage zum Vorbild haben: das Abbild davon, das Geschriebene, wird schon nothwendig viel blässer ausfallen".
> 5. "Der Reechthum an Leben verräth sich durch Reichthum an Gebärden. Man muß Alles, Länge und Kürze der Sätze, die Interpunktionen, die Wahl der Worte, die Pausen, die Reihenfolge der Argumente - als Gebärden empfinden lernen".

Und schließlich heißt es in These 8:

> "Je abstrakter die Wahrheit ist, die man lehren will, um so mehr muß man die Sinne zu ihr verführen".

In diesen wenigen Thesen von Nietzsche steckt meines Erachtens ein ganzes Forschungsprogramm für die zukünftige Analyse wissenschaftlicher Texte. Auf den fachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterricht und die Ausbildung von Fachübersetzern bezogen folgere ich, daß Fremdverstehensprozesse nicht nur auf das Was, sozusagen auf die Informationen (bzw. auf die Sachverhalte, auf die Bezug genommen wird) eines Textes zu orientieren sind, sondern verstärkt die Ebene des Wie einzubeziehen ist: Mit welchen Mitteln wird argumentiert und relativiert? Wie werden 'hedges' realisiert[23]? Wozu dient die in humanwissenschaftlichen Fachtexten häufig anzutreffende Redundanz? Welche Rolle spielt die konnotative Komponente für den Textsinn? Wie werden die 'Gebärden' aus der mündlichen Kommunikation in schriftlichen Texten realisiert?

Auf die Problematik der Landeskunde zurückkommend meine ich - in Anlehnung an Fritz Paepcke -, daß deren Aufgabe u.a. "im Perspektiven- und Kategorienwechsel von der Ebene der Fakten- und Problemanalysen auf die Ebene der Interpretation von Textarten und Textsemantemen" liegt.

6. AUFGABEN EINER 'TEXTBEZOGENEN LANDESKUNDE'

Mit diesen Ausführungen sollte gezeigt werden, daß die Problematik der interkulturellen Kommunikation auch für das Leseverstehen in L2 und das Übersetzen von Fachtexten zutrifft und engstens mit den Aufgaben der Landeskunde zusammenhängt. Grundsätzliche Aufgabe der Landeskunde ist es, die nicht-sprachlichen Mittel zur Verfügung zu stellen, von denen der Erfolg der Kommunikation abhängt bzw. mit abhängt. Bezogen auf die schriftliche Fachkommunikation ist damit eine fachtextbezogene Landeskunde gefordert, die ich mir als integralen Bestandteil des fachbezogenen Fremdspachenunterrichts und der Übersetzerausbildung vorstelle. Voraussetzung für eine fachtextbezogene Landeskunde sind kontrastive Analysen, die den *'Fachtext-in-Kultur-und-Funktion'* als Untersuchungsgegenstand haben und einerseits kulturspezifische Vertextungsmuster ermitteln, sowie andererseits durch die Konfrontation von L1 und L2 und C1 und C2 kulturbedingte Verstehens- und Interpretationsprobleme feststellen. Daß damit freilich der traditionell ausgebildete Deutschlehrer (im fachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterricht und der Übersetzerausbildung) wieder einmal gründlichts überfordet ist, belegt ein weiteres Mal, die Notwendigkeit, fachbezogenen Fremdspracheunterricht und Übersetzerausbildung nicht nur theoretisch als interdisziplinäre Angelegenheit zu verstehen, sondern sie auch praktisch durch interdisziplinäre Zusammenarbeit zumindest von Fach-, Kultur- und Textwissenschaftlern, sowie Didaktikern und Linguisten durchzuführen.

[23] Vgl. dazu z.B. die Beiträge von Markkanen & Schröder.

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DENKSTILE - EINFLUßGRÖßEN FÜR SPRACHSTILE? EIN DISKUSSIONSBEITRAG ZUM PROBLEM DES ÜBEREINZELSPRACHLICHEN

1. PROBLEMANSATZ

Stellt man Überlegungen an, wie im Deutschunterricht auf Fortgeschrittenenniveau fremdsprachiges Können für die Bewältigung komplexer sprachlicher Leistungen weiterentwickelt werden kann, so gelangt man mit Michel zu der Frage: Wird in anderen Sprach- und Kommunikationsgemeinschaften genauso oder anders erzählt, beschrieben, argumentiert, gefragt, aufgefordert usw. als im Deutschen? (vgl. Michel 1986: 23) Dahinter steht die Beobachtung, daß muttersprachlich erworbene Sprachhandlungskenntnisse beim Fremdsprachengebrauch eine übertragbare Verwendung finden können, aber auch, daß Transferleistungen ausbleiben bzw. zu inadäquaten sprachlichen Leistungen führen.

Vorliegender Versuch stellt sich zum Ziel, einen Diskussionsbeitrag zur Beantwortung der Frage zu leisten, ob man bei der Arbeit an komplexen sprachlichen Leistungen im Fremdsprachenunterricht (exemplarisch dafür soll hier das Argumentieren stehen) davon ausgehen kann, daß die Struktur dieser Sprachhandlungen im Prinzip von der Muttersprache her bekannt ist und nur noch mit entsprechendem Sprachmaterial aufgefüllt werden muß. Oder gibt es Gründe, die vermuten lassen, daß die Strukturen komplexer Sprachhandlungen in einzelnen Sprachen unterschiedlich sind?

Dabei soll und kann diese Frage in diesem Rahmen nicht erschöpfend diskutiert werden. Wir wollen ledglich einige mögliche Aspekte aufzeigen, die mit einer Antwort im Zusammenhang stehen könnten.

2. AUSGANGSPOSITIONEN

Wir gehen aus von Erkenntnissen der funktional-kommunikativen Sprachbeschreibung, die sich seit Mitte der 70er Jahre entwickelt und vor allem in der Lehrerbildung der DDR verbreitet hat (vgl. Schmidt u.a. 1977; Schmidt u.a. 1981; Wilske (Hrsg.) 1983; Michel u.a. 1985; Michel u.a. 1986; kurzer Überblick in: Helbig 1986: 221-227). Die Untersuchungen dieser Sprachbeschreibung sind darauf gerichtet, "sprachliche Regularitäten bzw. Strategiebildungen der Textproduktion und -rezeption im Hinblick auf Erfordernisse der Kommunikationsbefähigung zu erfassen" (Harnisch 1986: 392). Wortschatz und Grammatik sollen so dargestellt werden, "daß das Sprachwissen umrissen wird, das zur Entwicklung des kommunikativen Könnens erforderlich ist" (Schippan 1985: 65). Deshalb scheint uns die funktional-kommunikative Sprachbeschreibung eine gute Grundlage für den Fremdsprachenunterricht Deutsch zu sein.

Grundbegriffe sind: Kommunikationsaufgabe, Kommunikationsabsicht, Kommunikationsplan sowie Kommunikationsverfahren. Kommunikationsverfahren werden als "Typen sprachlich-kommunikativen Handelns" (Michel u.a. 1985: 33) charakterisiert. Wilske bestimmt Kommunikationsverfahren in der fremdsprachigen Kommunikation "als operational strukturierte Typen sprachkommunikativen Handelns ..., deren Handlungscharakter sich aus ihrer Zielbindung und Gegenstandsbezogenheit und deren operationale Struktur sich aus ihren Realisierungsbedingungen, -formen und -mitteln ergibt". Solche komplexen kommunikativen Leistungen wie das Argumentieren faßt Wilske als "strukturierte Folgen von Handlungstypen" auf (Wilske 1985: 762, 770).

Nun wird angenommen, daß die Kommunikationspläne und die Kommunikationsverfahren als deren Strukturelemente *universellen* Charakter hätten und aus diesem Grund eine zweckmäßige Grundlage zur Entwicklung des Könnens im Fremdsprachenunterricht seien (vgl. z.B. Schmidt 1980: 134).

Dieser universelle Charakter mag für einfache Sprachhandlungen zutreffen. Wir sind aber der Auffassung, daß es Erkenntnisse und Beobachtungen gibt, die zu der Frage berechtigen: Kann bei der Vermittlung komplexer Kommunikationsverfahren (Sprachhandlungstypen wie Argumentieren) tatsächlich davon ausgegangen werden, daß ausländischen Lernern die Struktur dieser Sprachhandlungstypen im Prinzip von der Muttersprache her bekannt ist?

3. ARGUMENTE

Eine erste Annäherung an die Beantwortung dieser Frage bringt Wilskes (1986: 28 ff.) Unterscheidung von *Handlungstypen* und *Handlungsweisen*. Als Typen sprachkommunikativen Handelns werden von ihm die KV im handlungstheoretischen Sinne auf einer "übereinzesprachlichen Ebene" angesiedelt.

Heißt das nun, daß KV, wenn sie übereinzelsprachlicher Natur sind, in verschiedenen Sprachen gleiche oder ähnliche Strukturen aufweisen und nur die sprachlichen Mittel (Lexik, Grammatik usw.) von der Einzelsprache abhängig verschieden sind?

Betrachten wir daraufhin die operationale Struktur der KV, die nach Wilske aus den folgenden drei Arten von Operationen aufgebaut wird:

a) geistig-sprachliche Operationen
b) situativ-konditionierende Operationen
c) Operationen der lautlichen bzw. graphischen Exteriorisation.

In unserem Zusammenhang interessieren besonders die situativ-konditionierenden Operationen, denn es steht wohl außer Frage, daß die Operationsarten a) und c) von der konkreten Einzelsprache abhängig sind. Die situativ-konditionierenden Operationen sind solche, "die ein aufgabenorientiertes Situationsverständnis sichern und u.a. darüber entscheiden, was in welcher Weise (hervorhebend, knapp, unpersönlich usw.) versprachlicht oder nicht versprachlicht wird und welche textexternen (inhaltlichen, deiktischen, personalen) Kontexte herzustellen sind" (Wilske 1986: 28).

Diese Operationen sind in hohem Grade abhängig vom gesamten kulturellen Umfeld des Sprachträgers (vgl. u.a. Dodd 1982, Kienpointner 1983; Hinweise auch bei Ehnert 1985: 165 f. und Schleyer 1985: 105).

Ein aufgabenorientiertes Situationsverständnis ist nur möglich, wenn ein Sprecher die sozio-kulturellen Hintergründe der Sprache kennt, sonst findet er in der entsprechenden Situation keine der Kommunikationsaufgabe entsprechende Lösung. Diese Tatsache betont zum einen die Notwendigkeit der landeskundlichen Ausbildung in einer Fremdsprache; sie macht aber auch deutlich, daß es eben auf Grund unterschiedlicher sozio-kultureller Hintergründe nicht in allen Sprachen gleicht ist, "was in welcher Weise ... versprachlicht" wird. So führt Kienpointner an: "Sprechakte werden unterschiedlich explizit zum Ausdruck gebracht, etwa Vorwürfe von deutschen Sprechern häufig direkter als von englischen" (1983: 36). Und Robert Merle schreibt in Vorwort zu seinem Buch "Moncada" im Zusammenhang mit den Interviews, die er mit den kubanischen Freiheitskämpfern führte: "... diese Menschen, in der Mehrzahl von bescheidener Herkunft, hatten nicht die angelsächsische Scheu davor, über sich selbst und ihre Gefühle zu sprechen. Sie drückten sich mit iberischer Unbefangenheit aus, häufig mit Gewandtheit und fast immer mit Humor" (1983: 10).

Der Tatsache, daß die abstrakte Kategorie Kommunikationsverfahren in unterschiedlichen Sprachen unterschiedlich realisiert wird, trägt Wilske mit dem Begriff "Handlungsweise" Rechnung: "Wir wollen diejenige kommunikative Leistung, die als Inhalt des gesellschaftlichen Sprachbewußtseins einer Sprach- bzw. Kommunikationsgemeinschaft einzelsprachlich spezifisch in der Bedeutung eines sprachkommunikativen Verbs bzw. einer entsprechenden verbo-nominalen Fügung fixiert ist, als *Handlungsweise* bezeichnen ... Handlungsweisen sind aus der Sicht und den Traditionen einer Sprach- bzw. Kommunikationsgemeinschaft spezifisch umgrenzte und charakterisierte sprachkommunikative Leistungen" (Wilske 1986: 31 f.).

Wenn aber performative (eine Handlung kennzeichnende) Verben verschiedener Sprachen verglichen werden und sich Ähnlichkeit bzw. Gleichheit zeigt, dann ist damit u.E. nur die Bedeutung der Handlungsweise *allgemein* erfaßt; über die *Struktur* komplexer Handlungweisen gibt ein solcher Vergleich keine Aussage. Ein Beispiel soll das illustrieren: Verglichen werden sollen die Bedeutungen der performativen Verben "argumentieren" (deutsch) und "argue" (englisch):

"*argumentieren* ... Argumente vorbringen, darlegen ..."

"*Argument* ... etw., womit man eine Behauptung, einen Standpunkt begründend stützt, rechtfertigt ..." (Handwörterbuch 1984: 76).

"*argue* ... (for/against/that ...), maintain a case, give reasons (in support of, for, against, esp with the aim of persuading sb.) ..." (Hornby 1976: 40).

Abgesehen davon, daß das englische Wörterbuch noch das Ziel des Argumentierens nennt ("Überzeugen"), sind die Bedeutungserklärungen in beiden Wörterbüchern im Prinzip gleich. Trotzdem kann nicht einfach davon ausgegangen werden, daß nun die komplexen Handlungsweisen "argumentieren" in beiden Sprachen in der gleichen Struktur (der integrierten Handlungsweisen) umgesetzt werden.

Gestützt wird diese These auch durch einen Vergleich einiger Auffassungen von Wissenschaftlern der DDR und der BRD zum Argumentieren. In beiden Ländern wird in deutscher Sprache argumentiert, aber das Ziel des Argumentierens wird unterschiedlich gesehen (vgl. z.B. Huth 1975, Jäger 1976; Schmidt u.a. 1981; Einführung in die Journalistische Methodik 1985). Daraus abgeleitet werden auch unterschiedliche stilistische und sprachliche Mittel als brauchbar für das Argumentieren eingeschätzt (vgl. Kienpointner 1983, besonders S. 67; Wörterbuch der Sozialistischen Journalistik 1973).

Wenn nun schon in *einer* Sprache aufgrund unterschiedlicher gesellschaftlicher Systeme so unterschiedliche Ziel- und Mittelbestimmungen der Komplexen Sprachhandlung Argumentieren und demzufolge auch ein Einsatz unterschiedlicher Sprachmittel/Strukturen bestehen, welche Unterschiede mag es dann zwischen dem Deutschen und Portugiesischen, Spanischen, Vietnamesischen geben? Dabei ist zudem zu berücksichtigen, daß beispielsweise das Portugiesische für mocambiquanische Studenten bereits eine Fremdsprache ist, die auf dem Hintergrund verschiedener Stammessprachen angeeignet wurde.

So beobachteten Lehrkräfte der Pädagogischen Hochschule Dresden bei den mocambiquanischen Studenten in argumentativen Gesprächssequenzen eine sehr redundanzreiche, expandierte Art der Darstellung. Die Studenten greifen sehr schnell zum Beispiel und meiden abstraktere Strukturen der Darstellung. Das kann durch mangelnde Fertigkeiten und Fähigkeiten in der Fremdsprache Deutsch bedingt sein. Es kann aber auch auf kulturell differenzierte Strukturmuster des Argumentierens hinweisen. Diese letzte Vermutung wird durch Beobachtungen eines Kollegen gestützt, der einige Jahre in Mocambique arbeitete. Er konnte feststellen, daß die Mocambiquaner auch in Portugiesisch in der Diskussion ein breites Darstellen von

Beispielen und eine blumenreiche, anschauliche Sprache bevorzugen. Auch in ihrer Landessprache überwiegt nach seinen Erfahrungen die sachlich-konkrete Darstellungsweise vor der abstrakten. Die mocambiquanischen Partner waren bei längeren Beratungen überfordert, wenn die Problemdarstellung in der Weise erfolgte, wie es die Europäer gewohnt waren.

Diese Erfahrungen stützen u.E. die Annahme, daß die Struktur komplexer Sprachhandlungen aufgrund kultureller Einflüsse in verschiedenen Sprachen unterschiedlich ist. Andere Autoren stützen diese Annahme ebenfalls, wie die folgenden Beispiele zeigen sollen: So weisen Erkenntnisse der kognitiven Psychologie auf eine kulturabhängige Klassifizierung von Begriffen im menschlichen Gedächtnis hin. Hoffmann definiert Begriffe als "kognitive Zusammenfassungen von Objekten und/oder Erscheinungen nach gemeinsamen Funktionen in der Realisierung von Verhaltenszielen" (1986: 11) und stellt fest: "Wir sehen unsere Welt in den Begriffen, die wir als verhaltensnotwendige Klassifierungen gebildet haben" (1986: 12). Bei interkulturellen Vergleichen fallen Unterschiede in den Klassifizierungssystemen auf, "die auf die Wirkung unterschiedlicher Verhaltensnotwendigkeiten verweisen" (Hoffmann 1986: 19; Beispiele s. dort). Hoffman faßt die von ihm dafür genannten Beispiele zusammen: "Dort, wo notwendige Verhaltensalternativen Unterscheidungen erzwingen, werden sie gebildet und finden ihren Niederschlag in der Sprache. Dort, wo Unterscheidungen zwar wahrgenommen werden können, aber für die Verhaltensdynamik nicht bedeutsam sind, führen sie auch zu keinen stabilen begrifflichen Differenzierungen" (1986: 19). Zwar geht es in den zitierten Äußerungen um die Funktionen von Begriffen, aber könnte man nicht diese Gedanken auf unser Thema übertragen? Wäre es nicht möglich, eine angenommene unterschiedliche Struktur komplexer Sprachhandlungen in unterschiedlichen Kulturen damit zu begründen, daß Strukturen komplexer Sprachhandlungen letztlich auch von den Verhaltenszielen und Verhaltensnotwendigkeiten abhängig sind, die wiederum kulturabhängig differenzieren?

Hartung stellt im Zusammenhang mit dem Kommunikationsereignis Diskussion - das ja in starkem Maße argumentierende Abschnitte enthält - fest, daß das, was zu einem gegebenen Zeitpunkt des Diskussionsverlaufes gesagt werden kann, vom Gegenstand, vom Typ der Institution oder der einzelnen Institution, in der diskutiert wird, abhängen kann. Aber "es kann auch *kulturell, durch eine Sprachgemeinschaft oder eine soziale Gruppe bedingt sein*" (Hartung 1984: 273; Hervorhebung durch Verfasser). Er führt aus, daß bestimmte Merkmale, wie der Grad der Relativierungen, die Tiefe der Begründungen oder der Umfang, in dem Persönliches in die Diskussion eingebracht wird, einen bestimmten *Diskussionsstil* konstituieren, und vermutet, daß sie sogar Hinweise auf Entsprechende *Denkstile* sein können (Hartung 1984: 274).

Auch Schröder geht bei einer Untersuchung des wissenschaftlichen Diskurses in sozialwissenschaftlichen Fachtexten (FT) davon aus, "daß der wissenschaftliche Diskurs im FT *nicht kulturunabhängig ist*" (Schröder 1985: 3).

Er wird von einigen Faktoren bestimmt, die alle einer kulturspezifischen Beeinflussung unterliegen. Innerhalb dieser Fakroren nennt Schröder auch *Argumentationsweisen*, *Darstellungsmethoden* und *Mitteilungsstrukturen* (Textbaupläne, Textablaufschemata, Kommunikationsverfahren) (Schröder 1985: 14).

Er nimmt ebenfalls unterschiedliche Denkstile oder "intellektuelle Stile" an und zitiert dazu von Beyme, der die *intellektuellen Stile* hinsichtlich der Theoriebegründung wie folgt kennzeichnet:

"1. 'Saxonisch' (USA, Großbritannien): pragmatisch-induktiv - Wie operationalisieren Sie das?
2. 'Nipponisch' (Japan): rhetorisch-stilistisch - Wer ist Ihr Lehrer?
3. 'Gallisch' (Frankreich): rhetorisch-stilistisch - Könnten Sie das in gutem Französisch ausdrücken?
4. 'Teutonisch' (deutschsprachige Länder, UdSSR): theoretisch-deduktiv - Wie könnten Sie das stringent ableiten von ...?" (von Beyme 1984).

Dodd nimmt drei Typen von Denkweisen oder Denkstilen an, die seiner Meinung nach vom jeweiligen kulturellen Niveau der Gesellschaft abhängig sind. Zwischen diesen und dem Kommunikationsverhalten gibt es seiner Meinung nach Beziehungen: Sein erster Typ ist der nicht-lineare, d.h. die Kommunikation erfolgt vor allem mündlich, hat nicht notwendig nur ein Thema, sondern die Themen vermischen sich; Beweise/Begründungen für Behauptungen stammen aus der traditionellen Weisheit und von traditionellen Autoritäten. Der zweite, lineare Typ hat die vorwiegend mündliche durch schriftliche Kommunikation abgelöst; ein Thema wird mit deutlich markiertem Beginn und Abschluß und einzelnen Unterpunkten durchgeführt, Beweise für Behauptungen werden logisch oder durch Empirie untermauert. Als dritten Typ nennt Dodd den nichtlinear-linearen Typ, seiner Meinung nach typisch für "elektronische" Kulturen: Ein zentrales Hauptthema wird zusammen mit zahlreichen Subthemen abgehandelt; Beweise stammen aus der Erfahrung und gesellschaftlichen Normen (Dodd 1982: 258 f.).

Zwar ist es u.E. sehr problematisch, die Vielfalt von anzunehmenden möglichen Denkstilen und Kommunikationsformen auf diese relativ einfache Weise zu klassifizieren. Der Hinweis aber, daß es eine Beziehung zwischen kulturellem Umfeld, Denkweise/Denkstil und damit auch der Art des Kommunizierens gibt, erscheint uns bedenkenswert.

Nimmt man diese Beziehung bzw. generell die Existenz unterschiedlicher Denkstile/Kommunikationsstile an, so kann es beim Lösen von Kommunikationsaufgaben (vgl. Modellskizze in: Wilske (Hrsg.) 1983: 61) bereits in der ersten Stufe der Lösung, d.h. bei der Bildung und Erfassung der Kommunikationsaufgabe, zu Fehlern im Sinne der Zielsprache kommen, wenn muttersprachliche Erfahrungen durch den Sprecher genutzt werden. Mit anderen Worten: Schon die Erfassung des Kommunikationsgegenstandes, die Erfassung des kommunikativen Bedingungsgefüges und u.U. auch die Bestimmung der dominanten Kommunikationsintention erfolgen nicht nach den usuellen Vorstellungen für Aufgabengemäßes in der Zielsprache. So entspräche auch die Textgestaltung nicht den Erwartungen der Kommunikationspartner in der Zielsprache.

Wenn also die ausländischen Studenten beim Argumentieren anstelle der erwarteten KV Beweisen oder Begründen die KV Berichten, Erzählen oder Schildern verwenden, um ihre These zu stützen, dann kann das seine Ursache im ungenügenden Beherrschen der Sprache haben (Substitution durch bekannte Verfahren). Die Ursache kann aber auch sein, daß in solchen Fällen ein muttersprachlicher Einfluß zugrunde liegt, d.h.: im Heimatland ist es kommunikative Norm, so und nicht anders zu argumentieren.

4. SCHLUßFOLGERUNG

Aus dem Gesagten läßt sich, auf die Ausgangsfrage zurückkommend, u.E. schlußfolgern, daß man *nicht* einfach annehmen kann, daß in anderen Sprachen für komplexe Sprachhandlungstypen die gleichen oder doch sehr ähnliche Handlungsstrukturen bestehen wie im Deutschen. Solange nicht erwiesen ist, daß diese Handlungsstrukturen tatsächlich gleich sind (und dieser Nachweis würde umfangreiche konfrontative Untersuchungen erfordern), sollte man im Fremdsprachenunterricht davon ausgehen, daß diese Handlungsstrukturen unterschiedlich sein können.

Auf dieser Grundlage kann man mit Hartung feststellen, daß es im Fremdsprachenunterricht darauf ankommt, "natürlich die Verbalisierungsweise der Fremdsprache zu vermitteln, darüber hinaus aber auch kommunikative Erfahrungen bewußt zu machen, die beim Gebrauch der Muttersprache bereits gewonnen, unter dem Druck der Aneignung einer Fremdsprache aber verschüttet wurden. *Und dabei wird ganz besonders auf sprachgemeinschaftlich oder auch kommunikationsgemeinschaftlich gebundene Unterschiede in der Semantisierung kommunikativer Erfahrungen zu achten sein*" (Hartung 1984: 275; Hervorhebung durch Verfasser).

Für die Entwicklung von Fähigkeiten im Argumentieren in einer Fremdsprache heißt das: Es sind nicht nur die sprachlichen Mittel des Argumentierens zu vermitteln, sondern genauso wichtig sind die Strukturmuster/Textbaupläne argumentierender Texte, die den Erwartungen zielsprachlicher Sprecher an eine Argumentation entsprechen. Nur wenn beides - die sprachlichen Mittel und die kognitive Struktur des Argumentierens - für den Studenten verfügbar sind, kann er in der Fremdsprache diese komplexe kommunikative Handlung vollziehen.

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PROGRAMME OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR LANGUAGE CENTRE/LSP TEACHERS IN FINLAND (PILC)

A programme of in-service education for language centre/LSP teachers began in Autumn, 1986. As it has aroused considerable interest this paper tells how the training was begun and how far it has progressed.

1. BACKGROUND

The language centre organisation in Finland is one of the major developments in the teaching of foreign languages during the 1970's and 1980's. The organisation consists of twelve language centres (each university has its own) and their central unit, the Language Centre for Finnish Universities. The language centres take care of the language teaching that is given to all university students as part of their academic degree. Most of the teaching is obligatory; every student, regardless of his/her field of study, must take at least three language courses (Finnish, Swedish, one or two foreign languages). To take an example, a Finnish speaking student of psychology has to take a course in Finnish communication, in Swedish (the second official language of the country), and a course in two foreign languages. Among the foreign languages there are many choices: English, German, French and Spanish are the most popular languages, but the student can study also several other languages, including, Arabic, Portugese, Russian, Italian, Japanese, Chinese, Swahili etc.

The language courses can be characterised as being mainly LSP and partly LAP (language for academic purposes). During the courses, all language skills are taught. Although at the present moment there are courses in separate language skills, for example in reading comprehension vs spoken skills, the future trend is towards integrated skills courses.

A further characteristic of the LSP courses at the university language centres is the enormous number of them: when every student must take at least two language courses, the number of students taking language courses is at least three times the number of the students of the university!

In addition to the teaching of LSP at the universities there are other institues that offer similar kind of teaching. The Schools of Economics have traditionally given LSP teaching to their students. Also different institutes offer LSP teaching.

2. WHY A SPECIAL PROGRAMME FOR LANGUAGE CENTER TEACHERS?

The importance of linguistic skills required in professional life has recently been emphasized more than previously. Methods used in the teaching of languages to adults have received particular attention: teaching should be meaningful, motivational, appropriate and above all productive. University language centres teach adults: students, university staff, and those involved in futher education. In language centres attention is also continuously focused on the in-service education of teachers. Language centre teachers, who have generally received a traditional training in the teaching of languages, have felt a need to become familiarised particularly with those language teaching methods which would help them in new areas of language teaching for specific purposes. In addition to short, irregularly held training days and seminars some more substantial and more systematically organised in-service education is desired.

3. PRE-PLANNING: THE OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE OF LANGUAGE CENTRE TEACHERS

In order to design an in-service education programme, a research project was undertaken whose purpose was to define the characteristics of the occupational image of language centre teachers and on the basis of this analysis to find out and clarify the possible need for further education.

The profession of a language centre teacher is fairly new in Finland and, consequently, faces problems within the traditional academic world. One of the wishes of the researcher was that the study would also help to establish and improve the status of the profession and that of the teaching of foreign languages for specific purposes in Finnish universities.

The research was carried out with the help of a questionnaire and the purpose was to find answers to the following questions:

1. What is the education/training and teaching experience of the teachers?
2. Which tasks are especially emphasised in the work either with regard to the time or for some other reason?
3. Which tasks are regarded as particularly problematic in the work?
4. Which tasks are regarded as positive and pleasant?
5. How can the tasks be grouped and what problems occur in these groups?
6. Which are the factors that seem to give rise to problems?
7. Do the theachers wish to get further education?
8. What kind of wishes do the teachers have for their further education?
9. How much variation is there in the above questions depending on the language taught, the special field taught, the course taught, or depending on the status of the teacher?

The questionnaire was sent to all language centre teachers and to some teachers in the schools of economics (376). More than half of the teachers answered the questions.

The following diagram (Diagram 1) visualises the different stages and processes of the project. The starting situation is with the language centre teacher in his centre with all the different facts that can make him feel a need for further education. To specify the needs, an analysis of the occupational image is performed. In the analysis, special attention is focused on the subjective and objective concept of the profession, particularly on the negative and positive aspects of the work, and on future challenges. On the basis of the analysis, then, a further education programme can be designed. In the design special attention would have to be paid to the following facts: the programme must motivate the teachers and it must be relevant to their work: the programme must have a high standard; the principles of adult education must be kept in mind when designing the programme.

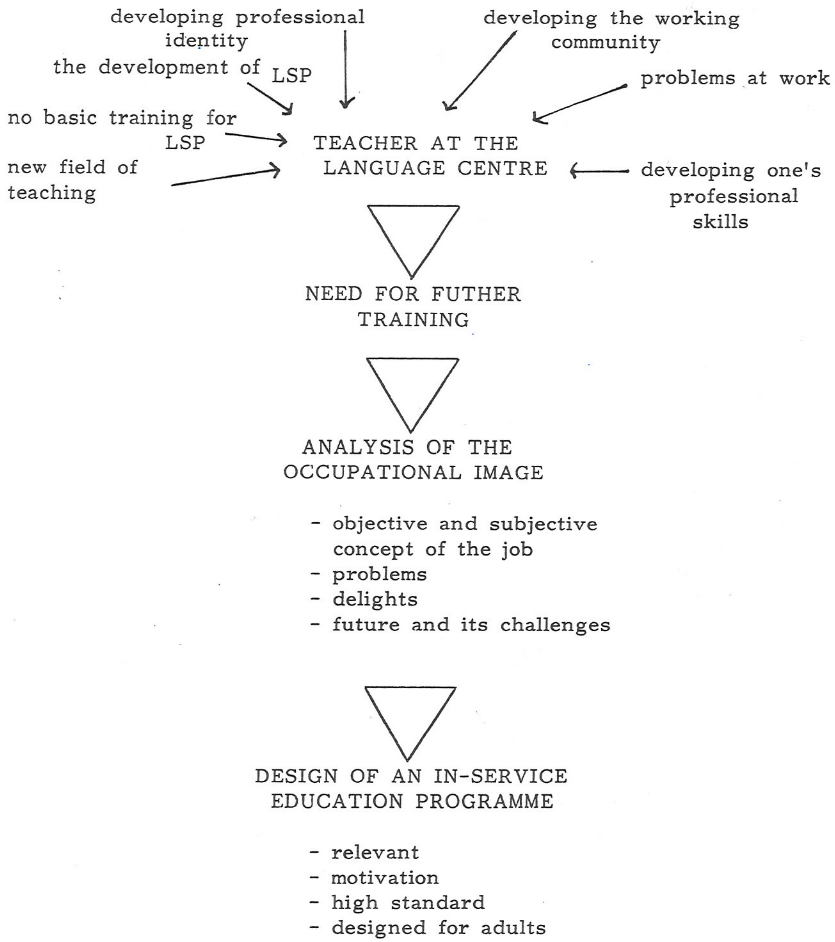


Diagram 1. The stages of the research into language centre teachers' occupational image and need for futher education

The results of the analysis showed that the language centre teachers are generally very competent language teachers: most of them have the degree of M.A. and have also studied as their main subject the language they teach ; they have done their teacher training; they have a long experience in teaching languages: most of them have designed teaching materials; many have studied the subjects their students are studying. There are no great differences between the Finnish and foreign teachers.

But the results showed also that although the teachers are very well qualified in the traditional sense, they lack, however, the specific training for their present job as a LSP teacher. This was not surprising to find out, because in Finland it is not even possible to find education or training for the profession of LSP teacher. But to compensate for this defect majority of the teachers had taken part in different kinds of further training courses both in Finland and abroad.

The results gave a lot of vital information about the feelings of the teachers towards their work. Thus it was found out that the most problematic tasks in the work of the language centre teacher concentrate on the following areas: teaching materials (planning, preparing, obtaining); teaching (methods, planning, needs analysis); teaching equipment (old/bad/missing); and language testing. In a more general sense, the worst drawbacks were seen to be: the undefined occupational image of the language centre teachers; the underestimation of language teaching at universities; the dominance of English.

The most interesting and rewarding tasks concentrated on the following areas: teaching (creativity of the work, planning of the new kind of teaching, interesting and new fields of science) cooperation with the students (students are adults, motivated, interested); teaching materials and methods (planning and developing, using different methods); personal gain (improving one's language, learning about new fields of science; possibilities for doing research).

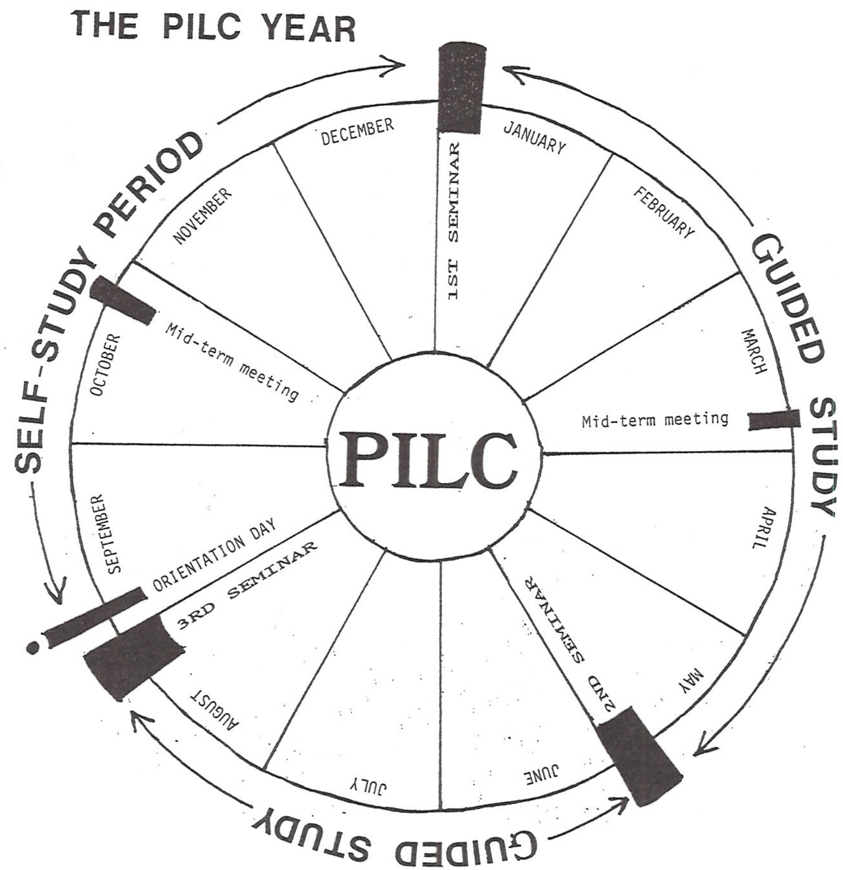
Most time-consuming were the following tasks: planning of teaching; preparing written material; keeping up with the development in one's own field; doing research; administrative tasks; designing language tests; getting familiar with the fields of science whose special language one is teaching, etc.

4. PLANNING THE PROGRAMME

The results of the research showed clearly that further education was needed, both on the basis of subjective and objective analysis, and that it should concentrate on the special skills the teaching of LSP to adult language learners requires, not on the basic skills of language teaching in general. The programme should contain the following areas: 1) questions elated to teaching materials; 2) questions related to teaching methods; 3) questions related to language testing; 4) the development of LSP. Additionally, it became clear that the existing form of short further training seminars or meetings arranged without a long-term plan was found insufficient. And the research results convinced the planners of the programme of the fact that a programme designed particularly for the language centre teachers would have a positive influence on the way the teachers experience the status of their profession.

4.1. Structure

The education is of one years duration and is run annually. It is composed of three seminars, with periods of study between them. The programme begins with a period of self-study lasting through the Autumn term. The first seminar takes place at the beginning of January, the second at the end of May, and the third at the end of August. Guided study takes place in the intervals between seminars and involves familiarisation with literature and various assignments. The education programme begins with an orientating introduction. Two opportunities for discussion are also arranged, one in the middle of the Autumn term and the other in the middle of the Spring term. The structure of the programme can be seen from the diagram on the following page.



4.2. Organisation

The Language Centre for Finnish Universities is responsible for the planning and implementation of the programme of in-service education, together with steering committee to which are elected representatives of various language centres. The implementation of the education programme receives support from the Ministry of Education and from the British Council, and is planned in co-operation with the British University of Birmingham. This institution was chosen as a partner as it has considerable experience of specialist language teaching and because the majority of the teachers involved in the first training period were teachers of English.

4.3. Content and targets

Both the period of self-study and the first seminar deal with questions relating to teaching materials: the preparation of material, the integration of different language skills, the authenticity of materials, the help of linguistics in the preparation of material, and the need to make the measurement of language skills an essential part of the whole teaching process.

The second seminar and the period of guided study preceding it deal with discourse in both spoken and written language. Their purpose is to give teachers theoretical knowledge and practical guidance in the analysis of language so that they can be better able to choose systematically the topics to teach and the materials with which to teach them.

The subject of the third seminar and of the guided study which precedes it is the methodology of teaching. They provide familiarisation with new language teaching methods, for instance different types of intensive teaching, community learning, silent way, total physical response, and various ways of using computers and video tapes in teaching. There is also discussion of how the choice of teaching methods is reflected in the preparation of teaching materials.

The targets of the teaching programme are as follows:

1) To increase the professional competence of language centre teachers (In contrast to so-called task competence, professional competence also involves orientation towards future aspects of development in the profession).

2) To intensify the professional identity of the language centre teacher.

The purpose of training is to give teachers the theoretical knowledge with which to make a critical assessment of their own teaching for the purpose of developments and systematicisation as well as new practical ideas and advice for use in teaching and planning. It is of fundamental importance to the whole training programme that teachers gain knowledge of developments in different areas of research supporting language teaching and that they are able, against this background, to evaluate and develop their own teaching.

The course does not include examinations but participants must perform those tasks and become familiar with those books which are given for the periods of self-education and guided education and for seminars. Participants who have satisfactorily completed the course receive a certificate of participation which outlines the content of the course. The course is not designed for the provision of formal qualifications. Its purpose is rather to provide noteworthy merit for those teachers who have participated in it.

5. IMPLEMENTATION

The first PILC programme started in the autumn 1986. On the Orientation Day at the beginning of September the participants received information about the course and a list of books to be read during the autumn term. The list contained books meant as an introduction to the whole course and books specifically for the first seminar. The participants received also a number of assignments for the first seminar that were to be done on the basis of the reading.

The first occasion to meet and discuss was presented by the Mid-term meeting held in the middle of October. The meeting was arranged by the Britisch Council and a few short tasks for the meeting were given on the Orientation Day.

The structure of all the three seminars followed a similar pattern: the five days of the seminars consisted of lectures, group work and individual guidance and feed-back from the assignments. The assignments done for the first seminar were discussed in the seminar, and at the end of seminar, new assignments were given to the participants. The same pattern was repeated also in the 2nd and 3rd seminar.

After the 1st and 2nd seminars a new book list was given to the participants.

The assignments could be characterised as being tasks where information from the reading for the seminars was to be applied to the practical teaching. An example of the assignments is provided by the following three assigments (for the 1st seminar):

1) Purpose: to get at the stuctures and patterns in ordinary talk.
Task: Look at this jumbled conversation and try and re-arrange it so that it makes sense. Then write two or three sides on how exactly it was that you were able to do this. What clues did you use? What difficulties did you experience? Does this conversation have anything that could be called a 'structure' to it? How can we recognise such a structure?
2) Purpose: to examine assumptions about reading that lie behind teaching materials
Task: compare these three extracts from reading coursebooks and consider what assumptions lie behind them about the nature of the reading process. What are the main assumptions? How do they compare with materials that you use/ have used in your teaching? If you are not a teacher of reading but had to do a reading teacher's job for a while, which would you choose and why?
3) Testing assignment
Purpose: to get at the skills and knowledge required of students in a typical reading test
Tasks: 1. Look at the reading comprehension test. Read the text and answer the questions (in a way that would enable you to use your own answers as a criterion for marking students' papers. In other words, prepare a marking key.
2. On basis of your reading the text and answering the questions, note down points about the knowledge and skills you had to possess and utilize in performing the task. What linguistic skills did you need: lexical, syntactic ...? What kind(s) of reading: skimming, scanning, intensive reading ...? Other cognitive skills: picking out essential information, condensing information, making inferences? What non-linguistic knowledge did you need?

The conversation is between two men, Jozef (a foreign visitor) and Chris (a British university lecturer). We have put all Jozef's remarks in one column and all Chris's in another:

The futher examples of assignments are given in Appendix 1. An example of a book list in given in Appendix 2.

6. EVALUATION

The PILC programme is the first further education programme for academic professionals which has been systematically designed to function on a long-term basis in Finland. It is an important development in the field of the teaching of LSP. Thus it is equally important that the evaluation of the programme is carried out systematically and efficiently. For this purpose a built-in system of evaluation is being used. By this system it is hoped that every phase in the planning and implementation of the programme can be evaluated, instead of having an evaluation only after the programme. The built-in evaluation system combines the development-oriented approach with the summative evaluation, and takes into account both extra-educational and intra-educational variables that influence the process and outcomes of the programme.

The evaluation system consists of the following stages: 1) appraisal of environmental setting; 2) evaluation of inputs; 3) evaluation of processes; 4) evaluation of immediate outcomes; and 5) evaluation of long-range effects. These five stages of evaluation are applied at all stages of the project cycle, which are the following: 1) pre-planning, 2) planning, 3) implementation, and 4) assimilation.

7. FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

The first PILC year has given some interesting feedback for the planners of the programme. It seems to be so that the Pilcers (participants to the PILC programme) want to keep in touch - a network of former Pilcers has been established that runs parallel with the present Pilcers' programme. The former Pilcers are sent the revised and new reading lists, and all other relevant information that also goes out to the present Pilcers. The former Pilcers will have weekend seminars in connection with the seminars of the present programme. Thus they are kept up with the development and trends of LSP all the time, and their number is increasing by thirty yearly.

The first two PILC programmes have had English as the working language. Already the second programme, however, included alternative reading lists and assignments in Swedish and in German, and the working language in some work-groups was either Swedish or German.

1. Speaking vs. Writing

Speaking and Writing are two different modes of language realisation. Structurally they differ remarkably from one another. The point of this assignment is to make you aware of the differences between these two modes.

Make or find a recording (English, Swedish or German; audio or video; bring the tape to the May seminar, if possible) of natural, spoken conversation. Listen to the tape several times and select from the tape a section which according to you is a 'whole' (NB! The longer the 'whole', the more work you have to do! Realistically 5-10 minutes should be enough!). Transcribe that section in as much detail as possible, marking down who speaks, all the 'uhms' and 'ers' and pauses (...= a short pause; ... ... = a slightly longer pause; ... ... = a long pause; if more than a minute, mark down also the minutes)

Now, **edit** the text. Editing means roughly making things clear and into a readable form. This may involve a considerable amount of restructuring of what has been said by the participants in discourse. Instead of the conversation the end result should be a comprehensible, written monologue.

While you are doing the tasks of transcribing and editing, make notes of all the difficulties, interesting questions that arise from the activity. Also think about the different kinds of processing which is taking place, when you are changing from one mode to another.

(The transcriptions and the written texts + a short summary of the notes (1 page) on the changes made sent to Eija Ventola, Helsingin yliopiston kielikeskus, Fabianinkatu 26, 00100 Helsinki by May 1st)

2. Exchanges

We can basically assume in conversation that when all is well in discourse, everything runs smoothly. Questions are answered, Commands are obeyed, statements are acknowledged, offers are accepted, etc. But we know that things do not run smootly all the time. Listen to some conversational exchanges (any type of conversation in any language) and take note of the troublesome exchanges that occurred (examples of troublesome exchanges given in the next page). See how the trouble has been repaired. Can you recognize typical patterns in repairs? How have you paid attention to these matters in your teaching? Write a report in English, Swedish or German (1 page, max. 2) on the different kinds functions of repair moves and include as many examples as possible (to EV by May 1st).

3. Cohesion - no assignment - excercises during the course

Select 3-4 texts (spoken or written; if possible, note very long ones) which according to you represent texts of the same kind - texts which belong to the same generic class. Write down (in note form) your intuitive feelings why you felt these texts represented the same text type. If possible send also these texts in advance to EV before the seminar. We shall continue their analysis in the seminar.

Examples of exchanges where trouble occurs:

S: any any any parcel sent to London by airmail
register uh insure them
C: register them
S: no
insure them
C: and insure them
S: yeah
C: okay

C: what time flights then go to Sydney tomorrow
S: tomorrow . . .
er morning or afternoon now [tone 2]
C: uh midmorning early afternoon
S: uh well you've got a 9:30 and 10:15 . . . and a
10:55 . . . and nothing then until 3:40 tomorrow

S: which one did you er . . . would you like to see out
. . .
any particular one there [tone 2] [— mobiles in the show window]
[2 secs]
C: the diver
S: the diver . . .
I'll take that one out
[9 secs—*S* bends down to get the mobile from the box on the floor]

S: the very cheapest fare is an advanced purchase airfare
. . . which is the one which is laid out here
C: here [tone 2] [*C* looks at the brochure *S* has put in front of her]
S: yes . . .
it depends when you're going, etc.

What seems to be the trouble and how is it repaired?

1. Trace the cohesive ties that link to the items miraculous, blood decontaminated, pumping, spleen and pig in sentence 4 of the following text. Identify any sentences that have three or more such links with sentence 4. Is there anything you can say about them?

A miracle cure

(1) MOSCOW, Dec. 31: A 15 year-old girl was dying of bad septecaemia, antibiotics wouldn't help. (2) But a miracle happened : the very next day after her blood was purified through the spleen of a pig, the girl was sitting in bed writing a letter to her parents.

(3) Some time later, a 35 year old man, suffering from the same malady, was taken to the resuscitation division of Moscow City Clinic No. 67. (4) A similar case : the patient on the verge of death, useless antibiotics, and a miraculous revivification after his blood had been decontaminated by pumping in through the spleen of a pig.

(5) As is known, the spleen plays a very important role in protecting organs from infection, and its leucocytes and macrophages most actively ingest and destroy foreign cells in the blood.

(6) According to medical statistics, people with ablated spleen develop surgical after effects 58 times more often than people with healthy spleens.

(7) In recent years, septic cases have been definitely on the rise because the number and variety of microbes resistant to antibiotics have increased and new methods of treatment have yet to be discovered.

(8) Attempts to transplant the spleen with a view to fortify the organism's protective shield appeared to be futile.

(9) Then surgeons tried to use the spleen as a natural filter. (10) Pumped through the live tissue, the blood remains as intact as if it were driven through the organisms own spleen. (11) The effect was marvelous.

(12) The idea of the new method was suggested by Professor Anatoly Tsypin, head of department of the Research Institute of Transplantology and Artificial Organs.

(13) Pig spleen reacts most actively to any infection, its immunological system being more developed than that of other animals. (14) In addition, it is akin to human spleen, having tissues that are compatible with ours. (15) (By the way, insulin is produced from the pig's pancreas, whereas the tissue from the pig's heart supplies material for making artificial heart valve implanted into the human heart.)

The technique

(16) How is the technique of linking up the donor's spleen accomplished? (17) A thin plastic tube connects the artery of the pig spleen kept in a thermostat with the patient's radial artery in the wrist. (18) A similar tube links up the donor's and the recipient's veins, thus making a closed cycle. (19) A pump drives the patient's poisoned blood through this live filter for about an hour a period sufficient for purifying and enriching it with biologically active substances. (20) When the case is very grave, treatment is repeated a few days later, but normally one transfusion is sufficient. (21) Blood tests bear evidence of rapid progress, the patient's blood becomes sterile.

(22) The method has an added advantage : blood purification mobilizes the organism's own immunological system. (23) The patient's spleen gets "tired", its protective reserves become exhausted and its active functioning drops. (24) The donor's spleen braces up the organism, ingesting and destroying microbes and toxins.

(25) The new method has already helped save the lives of 40 patients. (26) The method is promising, and Soviet specialists believe that it may come in quite handy for treating a number of other infectious diseases.

2. Fill in the gaps. It may be more than one word. What does it tell you about the relationship of cohesive ties and textual organisation?

(1) Aesop, the Greek writer of fables, was sitting by __________ one day when a __________ him, "Tell me, my friend, __________ sort of people live in Athens?"

(2) Aesop replied, "Tell me where you come from and what __________ of people live there, and I'll tell you what sort __________ people you'll __________ in Athens."

(3) Smiling, the man answered, "I come from Argos, and __________ are all friendly, generous and warm-hearted. I love them."

(4) At this Aesop answered, "I'm happy to tell you, my dear friend, that you'll find the people of Athens much the same."

(5) A few hours later another traveller came down the road, and he too stopped and asked Aesop, "Tell me, what are the people of Athens like?"

(6) Again Aesop replied, "Tell me __________ you come __________ and what the people are __________ there and I will tell you what the people are like in Athens."

(7) Frowning, the man __________, "I'm from Argos and there the people are unfriendly, mean, deceitful and vicious. They're thieves and murderers, ______ of them."

(8) I'm afraid you'll find the people of Athens __________" was Aesop's reply.

3. Suggest how the following advertisement might continue? What features of the text are you making use of in deciding how to continue.

(1) The less a car has holding it back, the less fuel it needs to drive it forward. (2) Imagine driving around with a parachute clamped to your rear bumper and you'll get an idea of what aerodynamic drag feels like. (3) Imagine driving around with 30% less parachute and you'll get an idea of what the new Audi 100CC feels like. (4) While the aerodynamic drag factor for the average car is Cd0.43, the 100 clocks up a mere Cd0.30. (5) It is, in fact, the most aerodynamic production car in the world. (6) Most cars are designed to accommodate people, their luggage, the laws of physics and the whims of designers. (7) And then streamlined in a wind tunnel.

4. Reorder this text. What problems do you encounter? Once you have it reordered, consider what would happen to the article if it ended at the second, third or fourth paragraph.

Introduction to 'The Seventh Seal' by Ingmar Bergman

Thus if I am asked what I would like the general purpose of my films to be, I would reply that I want to be one of the artists in the cathedral on the great plain. I want to make a dragon's head, an angel, a devil - or perhaps a saint - out of stone. It does not matter which; it is the sense of satisfaction that counts. Regardless of whether I believe or not, whether I am a Christian or not, I would play my part in the collective building of the cathedral.

Today the individual has become the highest form and the greatest bane of artistic creation. The smallest wound or pain of the ego is examined under a microscope as if it were of eternal importance. The artist considers his isolation, his subjectivity, his individualism almost holy. Thus we finally gather in one large pen, where we stand and bleat about our loneliness without listening to each other and without realising that we are smothering each other to death. The individualists stare into each other's eyes and yet deny the existence of each other. We walk in circles, so limited by our own anxieties that we can no longer distinguish between true and false, between the gangster's whim and the purest ideal.

There is an old story of how the cathedral of Chartres was struck by lightning and burned to the ground. Then thousands of people came from all points of the compass, like a giant procession of ants, and together they began to rebuild the cathedral on its old site. They worked until the building was completed - master builders, artists, labourers, clowns, noblemen, priests, burghers. But they all remained anonymous, and no one knows to this day who built the cathedral of Chartres.

People ask what are my intentions with my films - my aims. It is a difficult and dangerous question, and I usually give an evasive answer: I try to tell the truth about the human condition, the truth as I see it. This answer seems to satisfy everyone, but it is not quite correct. I prefer to describe what I would like my aim to be.

Regardless of my own beliefs and my own doubts, which are unimportant in this connection, it is my opinion that art lost its basic creative drive the moment it was separated from worship. It severed an umbilical cord and now lives its own sterile life, generating and degenerating itself. In former days the artist remained unknown and his work was to the glory of God. He lived and died without being more or less important than other artisans; 'eternal values', 'immortality' and 'masterpiece' were terms not applicable in his case. The ability to create was a gift. In such a world flourished invulnerable assurance and natural humility.

APPENDIX 2.

PILC: 2nd seminar

Compulsory:

Halliday, M.A.K. 1985. Spoken and Written Language. Deakin University Press.

Hoey, M. 1983. On the Surface of Discourse. Allen & Unwin.

Korpimies, L. 1981. Discourse Analysis and the Teaching of LSP. FINLANCE I.

Riley, P. (ed.) 1985. Discourse and Learning. Longman.

Swales, J. 1985. A Genre-Based Approach to Language Across the Curriculum. Paper delivered at RELC Conference, Singapore 1985.

Ventola, E. 1986. The Structure of Social Interaction. Part I. Frances Pinter.

Recommended reading:

Brazil, D., M. Coulthard & C. Johns 1980. Discourse Intonation and Language Teaching. Longman.

Brown, G. & G. Yule 1983. Teaching the Spoken Language. Cambridge Language Teaching Library.

Carter, R. & M. McCarthy 1988. Vocabulary and Language Teaching. Longman.

Coulthard, M. (ed.) 1987. Discussing Discourse. Discourse Analysis Monograph 14. English Language Research, University of Birmingham.

Coulthard, M. (ed.) 1987. Talking about Text. Discourse Analysis Monograph 13. English Language Research, University of Birmingham.

Dudley-Evans, T. (ed.) 1987. Genre Analysis and ESP. English Language Research Journal 1987 No. 1.

Kasper, G. (ed.) 1986. Learning, Teaching and Communication in the Foreign Language Classroom. Aarhus University Press.

Post-seminar reading:

Taylor, T.J. & D. Cameron 1987. Analysing Conversation: Rules and Units in the Structure of Talk. Pergamon Press.

Gunnarsson, B-L. (red.) 1987. Facktext. Liber.
Kelz, H.P. (Hrsg.) 1983. Fachsprache 1: Sprachanalyse und Vermittlungsmethoden. Bonn.

APPENDIX 3.

PILC Programme of In-Service Training for Language Centre Teachers

Join the PILCers!

The Language Centre for Finnish Universities is arranging the second 12-month Programme of In-Service Training for Language Centre Teachers (PILC).

The course is designed to cover current thinking in language teaching, existing materials, existing practice, testing procedures and theoretical insights. It will run over 12 months and consist of three one-week seminars with reading and assignments in between. The provisional programme is as follows:

September 2, 1987	Orientation day in Jyväskylä: Assignments, reading lists
January 4-8, 1988	Seminar I Materials analysis and testing procedures
May 23-27, 1988	Seminar II Techniques for analysing spoken and written discourse
August 29 - September 2, 1988	Seminar III Alternative methodology

The course is being designed in cooperation with the University of Birmingham and sponsored by the Finnish Ministry of Education and the British Council. The intention is to get sponsorship and lecturers from institutions such as DDR-Kulturzentrum, le Centre Culturel Français, Goethe Institut and Svenska Institutet. PILC is intended FOR ALL TEACHERS AT LANGUAGE CENTRES REGARDLESS OF THE LANGUAGE TAUGHT. The working language will be English although individual groups are free to choose the language they use in their group work. The number of participants is limited to 30.

Those who successfully complete the course will be awarded a certificate.

The seminars will be residential and they will be held at the TVK Institute at Kirkkonummi. Participants should make their own financing arrangements. The entire cost of all three seminars will be approx. 3.600 FIM per person.

Application forms should be returned by March 31st, 1987 to:

Language Centre for Finnish Universities
PILC
University of Jyväskylä
40100 Jyväskylä

Further information may be obtained from Markku Helin at the Language Centre for Finnish Universities, tel: 941-292 879.

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150 142 4576