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**A STUDY INTO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN
TURKEY: ASSESSING COMPETENCIES IN
SPEAKING AND WRITING**

BY

A. KASIM VARLI

**A thesis submitted to the University of Bristol in accordance with the
requirement of the degree of Ph.D. in the Graduate School of Education,
Faculty of Social Sciences**

March 2001

ABSTRACT

This study is an attempt to identify the spoken and written competencies Turkish ELT students achieve at the end of their course of study at University. It also investigates the practices that teachers employ in the teaching and assessment of the English language.

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative data gathered through questionnaires and the assessment of spoken and written tasks. Questionnaires were administered to 90 students and 30 teachers in three ELT departments while tasks were administered to 30 students in one ELT department. Very limited official documentation was obtained mainly through the web page of the Higher Education Council of Turkey.

Qualitative data were analysed manually while SPSS (v6) for Windows and Excel statistical packages were used to analyse the quantitative data.

The study found that the motivation to learn English in Turkey is instrumental. It is important for such instrumental purposes as communication in economic, social and scientific spheres of life. English is seen as a prerequisite for finding a high-status job. Teacher and student perceptions on the role and importance of English correlate well.

The study established that teachers and university departments varied in the extent to which they were able to support the development of language competencies. Those departments that were studied did not employ a range of teaching methodologies. On the other hand, teachers seemed to be aware of the importance of language activities and they employed a variety of language activities. However, the aims of most of the activities were found to be unclear. Assessment was found to be a largely neglected area and the present system to be ineffective. The study found that ELT departments do not have an effective and sensitive system of assessment. The present system of assessment is norm-referenced and the findings show that it is not used to develop both student learning and the programme.

It was assumed that ELT students graduate with a low level of competence in speaking and writing. Through teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of students' levels and through spoken and written tasks, the study found that students achieve lower intermediate to intermediate levels at the end of their course of study. It was also found that both teachers and students are aware that students presently achieve low levels and that they should achieve higher levels.

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DEDICATION

To my parents, my wife Nuray and my sons Oğuzhan and Batuhan

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my unaided work and that I have given full acknowledgement in the content and in the bibliography to the resources I have used, and that this thesis has not been submitted for any other degree or award.

Signed *K. Venkum* Date ... *8 March 2001* ...

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SECTION A

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

This section introduces the study. It starts with a discussion of recent developments in Turkey which have made English an important element in educational curricula, and which made literacy in English a prerequisite for high-status jobs. Then the chapter presents the research problem and the rationale of the study. In brief, the chapter proposes to investigate whether ELT departments have a suitable methodology for English language instruction and the assessment of students' competence in the English language. The next section presents the questions of the study, and the aims of the questions. Finally, the chapter ends by outlining the study.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Nature of the Study

When the new government came to power in 1983, it marked the beginning of important changes in all aspects of life in Turkey. Since then organisations in the public sector, industry, education, and economy have been altered dramatically. This period is generally considered a turning point in the social, economic and educational life in Turkey. The new government encouraged private enterprise to invest in all areas. This was the beginning of the big change. The fastest change occurred in the media. Numerous new radio and television channels started broadcasting. Before this, there were only four television channels and few radio stations, which were run by the state. With the new government, the number of nation-wide television channels increased day by day and has today exceeded fifteen. As well as nation-wide television channels hundreds of local radio and television channels emerged. The number of magazines and daily newspapers reached many hundreds. The mass media has generally been the fastest growing sector in Turkey and also one that has contributed to changes in other aspects in life in Turkey.

This period also marks the introduction of free market economy into the country. State monopoly in many areas started to be replaced by the rules of free market economy. This resulted in a change in the habits of Turkish people.

New rules in the economy and the effects of mass media increased people's tendency to consume more. As people consumed more, more goods were demanded. More demand meant more investment for the production of goods. This resulted in

an intensive investment by the private sector in all areas. Therefore, this period is also the beginning of industrialisation. Although private enterprise existed in different areas before 1983, this involvement was not as effective and intensive as it has been since 1983. Before 1983, industrial investments were mostly made by the state. Since the involvement of the private sector in all areas of industry, state control over industry and enterprise has been replaced by private enterprise. More importantly, small scale and medium scale businesses have had the chance to flourish, resulting in the spread of production all over Turkey. These investments by the private sector brought new technologies into the country. Public sector usually had old technology or technology which was based mainly on manpower. However, the private sector employed modern technology. They used new technology in their investments either by importing it directly or as joint ventures with foreign companies. The flow of technology into the country was spectacular. Modern technology was extensively employed in communications and banking. In a very short time, the whole country was transformed into an electronic age. The production in Turkey was mainly based on agriculture and many things were imported. However, with these investments, the agricultural and importing country became an industrial and exporting country.

The production of goods came to a point where domestic consumption became insufficient. Consequently, these goods needed to be exported to the foreign markets. In order to do this, more qualified personnel were needed. This raised a demand for more qualified personnel. This demand for qualified personnel was felt heavily by both private and public sectors. Consequently, this demand resulted in the involvement of the private enterprise in education. Hundreds of private primary,

secondary, high schools, and universities were opened. Presently there are 16 private universities, while there was only one before 1983 which was established in 1982. The number of state universities also increased considerably. There are 51 state universities now while there were 23 before 1983. Because the private sector became the dominant power in the economy and because their standards required of personnel were high, people started to seek better education which would prepare students according to the demands of the new situation. People became more conscious about the importance of quality education. This brought about a huge demand for quality education among the public. This demand is still increasing. In order to get a high-status job in the private sector, literacy in English was a prerequisite. However, simply being able to speak English is no longer considered enough today. Different literacies, such as literacy in computer and communications technologies, have become essential prerequisites.

Private schools and universities started with the maxim of 'quality education.' Soon after the opening of first private schools and universities, it became clear that the education that these schools provided was better than the traditional state-run education in Turkey. The first important difference was the weight of English and use of computers in education in these schools and universities. Many private schools and universities used English as the medium of instruction. Therefore, quality education provides students with different requirements of today's world, learning English and using modern technology in education being the most important ones. The importance of English arises from the demand for personnel who can follow international trends and developments, and who can do business internationally.

Because of the above-mentioned developments, English became the most

important prerequisite for a high-status job in the private sector. Because English became the most important prerequisite for a high-status job, a growing demand emerged for learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in schools and outside schools. State universities started to open more departments whose medium of instruction is English. In private universities, the medium of instruction is usually English.

As well as the ones mentioned above, there are other factors which contributed to this demand for learning English as a foreign language. Among these are the persistent attempts of Turkish governments to be a member of the European Community and consequently people's expectations for the European Community, flow of foreign investment into Turkey, high tourism potential and huge investments in tourism, and the interest of the intellectuals in following the foreign media. In addition, since the early 1980s, Turkish governments have always stressed the importance of learning a foreign language, and encouraged any attempt, both public and private, in the provision of foreign language instruction. In order to encourage foreign language learning in Turkey, the then-government started to pay extra money to its employees for every language they learned. In parallel with these developments, some Turkish-medium state universities converted the medium of instruction in some of their faculties into English. The main sources of foreign language instruction in state universities are the Departments of English Language Teacher Training, Departments of English Language and Literature, Departments of Linguistics, and Departments of Translation and Interpretation. Of these, only the Departments of English Language Teacher Training have the aim of training students as the teachers of English. However, the quality of foreign language instruction in

state universities is thought to be lower than it should have been, and to a great extent students who graduate from the above mentioned departments in state universities do not usually achieve good levels of competence in English.

1.2. Rationale of the Study

Given all the discussions above and the researcher's own experiences as a teacher of English in one of the higher education institutions in Turkey, a decision was made to investigate English language instruction in the Departments of English Language Teacher Training (ELT) in state universities in Turkey. Before we proceed, it would be useful to describe what we mean by ELT.

According to Richards, Platt & Weber (1985), in Britain, ELT refers to the teaching of English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) while in North America, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is often used to refer to both.

Following World War II, "English has been shown to be the major world language" (Conrad & Fishman, 1977, cited in Judd, 1987). Its role in international communication has increased and because of its role in the international arena, teaching English has an important role in all educational systems. Because of its role in international arena and various other factors, distinct disciplines such as ESL and EFL emerged in the teaching of English. According to Richards, Platt & Weber (1985), ESL has three meanings: (1) the use of English by immigrant and other minority groups in English-speaking countries, (2) the use of English in countries where it is widely used but is not the first language of the people, and (3) in US usage, the use of English in countries where it is not a first language. In Britain, this

is called English as a Foreign Language (EFL). On the other hand, Richards, Platt & Weber (1985) define EFL as the teaching of English in countries where it is not the mother tongue and where it is taught as a subject in schools. English language instruction as a whole in such countries is known as English Language Teaching (ELT).

Judd (1987) lists more acronyms which have emerged “to describe the theory and process of teaching English to non-native speakers” (p. 3). These are the Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL), the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), the Teaching of English as an International Language (TEIL), the Teaching of English as an Auxiliary Language (TEAL), the Teaching of English as an International-Auxiliary language (TEIAL), and the Teaching of English as a Language of Wider Communication (TELWC). In this study, we shall use ELT to describe the teaching of English and EFL to describe the teaching of English as a Foreign Language.

It is commonly believed that students graduate from ELT departments with a good level of English. However, this remains largely untested. It is natural to expect ELT graduates to have a good command of the English language since they graduate from a department whose primary aim is to produce teachers of English. However, based on the personal experience of the researcher as a teacher of English, his close contacts with other teachers of English employed in Foreign Languages Departments (FLT) in different universities, and familiarity with ELT departments, it was thought to be the case that ELT students graduate from these departments with an insufficient level of competence in English. The main problem that these students have seems to be that although they have a good knowledge of the English grammar, they have

difficulty in producing the language. That is, they experience difficulties when speaking and writing in the English language.

The common belief is that a language has four main skills. However, it has been claimed that there are indeed two main skills in a language, speaking and writing, in the sense that speaking necessarily involves listening and writing necessarily involves reading (Widdowson, 1978; Kress, 1997). That is, speaking and writing constitutes a language. However, the traditional fourfold division of language skills is still dominant (This discussion will be returned to in Chapter 2). Whether a language consists of two or four skills, the importance of speaking and writing is apparent because these are the two skills which is used to produce the language. Learning these skills may be much easier in first language (L1) than learning them in a second/foreign (L2) language. In an environment where English is taught as a foreign language and where English is seen as a prerequisite for a good job, learning and teaching these skills requires more effort. Therefore, teaching speaking and writing in ELT departments becomes very important in the English language instruction. One might expect therefore that ELT departments employ effective language teaching methodologies. Along with the teaching of these skills, it is vitally important for these departments to monitor student learning and programme effectiveness. In order to do this, it might be expected that ELT departments should have a reliable assessment system which would allow students, teachers, and policy-makers to monitor student learning and the effects of instruction.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

The growing importance of the role of English in Turkey has been indicated above. It was also stated above that a language is generally considered to have four

basic skills: listening, reading, speaking, and writing. In order for students to be able to use the English language effectively for different purposes in different communicative domains, they must have a good level of competence in these skills. That is, they must have “the capacity to perform a range of occupationally or professionally relevant communicative tasks with members of another cultural and linguistic community using the language of that community, whether that community is domestic or abroad” (Hancock, 1994: From the Internet, no page numbers). However, it is apparent from the researcher’s experience and the literature that approaches to the teaching of English in ELT departments may be outdated and not evidence-based. It is also apparent that these departments have an assessment system which is questionable in its validity for making assumptions about the language competence of ELT students. Depending on the department, the present assessment system in ELT departments involves one or two mid-term examinations and one end-of-term examination. This system has a pre set level and does not say much about student achievement in language instruction.

Further, the lack of research on the foreign language instruction and its outcomes in ELT departments in Turkey is also apparent. A literature survey held by the present researcher on the subject in Turkey has shown that there is a lack of research on student achievement and assessment in foreign language instruction in ELT departments. The only research that could be found by this researcher are at MA or PhD levels, which deal with different aspects of foreign language instruction in Turkey but do not cover all the problem areas in foreign language instruction in ELT departments. This study, therefore, is mainly an investigation into foreign language instruction in ELT departments in Turkey. It attempts to provide a description of the

context in which English is taught and assessed in ELT departments, and to test the validity of a criterion-referenced assessment system for profiling the language competences of Turkish graduate students. The study seeks to draw conclusions for future policy directions in the teaching and assessment of ELT in Turkey.

1.4. Research Questions

Given the role and importance of English in Turkey, the primary purpose of this study is, then, to profile ELT students' levels of competence in the speaking and writing skills of the English language for a variety of purposes at the end of their higher education. It is proposed that this is achieved through a framework for assessment developed in this study. The belief that the use of language differs for different purposes is central to the framework for assessment.

This study will seek to find answers to a number questions. The first of these questions explores the role and function of English in Turkey, and examines the relationship of these to the aims of English language instruction in ELT departments. This question aims to establish whether the stated aims of ELT departments in the teaching of English match the perceptions of teachers of English of the role that English plays in Turkish society. Therefore, the first question is

Is there a match between the perceptions teachers and students have of the role and function of English in Turkey, and the aims of ELT?

The second question is concerned with the context of ELT in Turkey and seeks to gain an understanding of pedagogy. This question attempts to investigate the

activities and strategies that teachers use to develop students' language skills. It also explores the kinds of assessment methods and approaches that teachers use in determining how competent students are as users of the English language. Therefore, the second question is

What activities and strategies do teachers employ in teaching and assessing the English language?

Continuous monitoring of student learning is important since it gives both students and teachers a chance to see students' strengths and weaknesses in English language instruction. Thus, the third question is an attempt to find whether teachers are aware of students' achievement, and whether students know their own level of achievement in English language instruction. Monitoring might be both formal and informal. Formal monitoring requires an element of evidence gathering whereas informal monitoring might rely on observation and intuitive judgements. Informal monitoring is said to play an important, formative function in teaching and complements more standardised forms of assessment. Important as they are, intuitive judgements are rarely researched for assessment purposes and are little understood. In particular, the question as to their reliability in relation to more standardised forms of assessment is rarely tested. Thus, the third question enquires into the role of intuition in providing an awareness of student achievement and progression.

Are students and teachers aware of students' levels of competence that they achieve?

As already stated, the main aim of this study is to investigate the level of competence that ELT students achieve in the speaking and writing skills of English at the end of their course of study. In order to find out students levels of competence in these two skills, the study also sets out to test a framework for language assessment. Therefore, the fourth question is

How competent are students in using the language in spoken and written modes for different communicative purposes?

1.5. Significance of Research

This study may be the first research on the related issues in ELT departments. Student achievement at the end of their higher education, practices in the teaching of English and in the assessment of English, teachers' awareness of their students' development during language instruction have not been addressed in Turkey so far. Thus, an investigation into these areas is likely to contribute to the development of language instruction in ELT departments. This study may also be a guide for both teachers and researchers in the field of English language instruction in higher education. It is hoped that this study will highlight important issues in the teaching and assessment of ELT that have been ignored so far.

1.6. Outline of the Study

The study consists of five sections and eleven chapters. The first section, Section A, introduces the study, and clarifies its purpose, states the research questions, and outlines the objectives that it aims to achieve.

Section B reviews the literature and consists of three chapters. Chapter 2 is about language and literacy. This chapter discusses traditional and modern meanings of literacy, and changing understandings of language. Then the chapter explains why a discussion on language and literacy was needed in this study.

Chapter 3 reviews the research on different approaches to English language teaching. It describes four of the language teaching methodologies and three main approaches that are still extensively used in the teaching of writing.

Chapter 4 reviews some of the recent literature on assessment. The chapter begins with a discussion of the importance of assessment in education. Then it discusses the most commonly used methods and techniques of assessment in education and particularly reviews methods for profiling language competence.

Section C contains Chapter 5, which describes ELT in Turkey and assessment methods used in assessing students' level of competence in different skills in the ELT departments.

Section D contains Chapter 6, which is the Methodology chapter. This chapter outlines the methodology of the study, rationale for choosing the particular method, data collection instruments, and the stages in the data collection. This chapter also presents in detail the National Reporting System (NRS) (S. Coates, L. Fitzpatrick, A. McKenna & A. Makin, 1994) of Australia and the English Speaking Union (ESU) Framework (Carroll & West, 1989) used in the assessment of students language competence.

Section E analyses the data in four chapters. Chapter 7 presents the data about the first question of the study. It presents the findings about teachers' and students'

perceptions of the role and function of English, and their perceptions of the aims of the ELT departments.

Chapter 8 presents the findings about the practices in the teaching of English and in the assessment of students' level of competence. The chapter also discusses the domains for which the English language instruction prepares students in ELT departments.

Chapter 9 starts with a discussion about intuition and judgement and their importance in assessment. Then the chapter presents teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of students, and teachers' criterion-based judgements of students.

Chapter 10 presents the findings about students actual levels of achievement in speaking and writing skills of the English language, namely, the results of the spoken and written tasks which were administered to students.

Finally, Section F, which contains Chapter 11, summarises the findings of the study, draws conclusions from the findings, gives policy recommendations and presents the contributions of the study.

SECTION B

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

As stated in the introductory section, this study seeks to profile the levels of competence achieved by ELT students in speaking and writing at the end of their higher education. As the questions of this study imply, this study incorporates three main concepts: language/literacy, pedagogy and assessment. This section is divided into three chapters, each of which examines these concepts.

Chapter 2 reviews some of the literature on language and literacy. In this chapter, different understandings of language and literacy are presented. In addition, the close relation between language and literacy is discussed briefly.

Chapter 3 discusses some of the approaches/methods to teaching English as a second/foreign language, approaches to the teaching of speaking and writing. It is argued in this chapter that for various reasons speaking has been a neglected area of study in foreign language contexts, and that the teaching of writing has been dominated mainly by three approaches. This chapter also compares the approaches to the teaching of English and to the teaching of writing.

In Chapter 4, the main issue is the assessment of language competence. Various methods of assessment are examined in detail, and norm-referenced assessment, which is still extensively used, as well as criterion-referenced assessment methods, receive attention.

CHAPTER 2

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY

2.1. Introduction

This chapter briefly gives the different understandings of language and literacy, and reviews some of the literature on the importance of speaking and writing skills of a language. It is argued here that together with the recent developments in social and technological domains, the conceptualisation of language and literacy is changing.

2.2. Language and Literacy

Currently, there are at least four views about the meaning of literacy. The first is the traditional definition which defines it as the ability to read and write and as a learned skill (Oxenham, 1980; Levine, 1986; Robinson, 1988; Kaestle, 1988; Goody & Watt, 1988; Heath, 1988; Brandt, 1990; Graff, 1994). However, the traditional definitions of literacy have recently attracted criticism from many researchers (e.g., Graff, 1994; Kress, 1997). They claim that traditional definitions are inadequate, and because of the recent developments in the media and communications technologies, current notions of literacy are narrow and do not reflect the real needs of young people in the societies of the coming decades (Kress, 1997). This understanding of literacy no longer conceives it as a single-meaninged concept (Hasan, 1996) and the word literacy implies more than a simple definition. (Olson, 1985; Cole & Keyssar, 1985; Olson, Torrance & Hildyard, 1985; Cook-Gumperz, 1986; Cashdan, 1986; Szwed, 1988; Robinson, 1988; Garton & Pratt, 1989; Tuman, 1992; Hasan, Barton, 1994; 1996; Halliday, 1996). Literacy is seen as

a social phenomenon and the concept of literacy in public imagination goes beyond simple definitions to include both individuals and societies. For example, Robinson (1988) argues that

Literacy is not merely the capacity to understand the conceptual content of writings and utterances, but the ability to participate fully in a set of social and intellectual practices. It is not passive but active; not imitative but creative, for participation in the speaking and writing of language includes participation in the activities it makes possible (p. 250).

In contrast to the traditional definition, there are wider definitions which consider speech as part of literacy as well as reading and writing. For example, Garton & Pratt (1989) claim that literacy includes both spoken and written language, the latter involving both reading and writing. According to them, literacy is “the mastery of spoken language, and reading and writing.” They argue that “a literate person has the ability to talk, read and write with another person, and the achievement of literacy involves learning how to talk, read and write in a competent manner” (pp. 1-2). Garton & Pratt’s claim that written language involves reading may imply that spoken language involves listening (this point will be returned to later in this chapter). According to this understanding, it may be said that literacy is the ability to use the language.

However, according to Halliday (1996), in recent years the word ‘literacy’ has been used in ways that are different from its traditional notion of learning and knowing how to read and write. It no longer has a single standard definition. Overall, literacy has evolved into something different from reading and writing, and has been generalised to cover all forms of discourse, spoken as well as written. In this sense, literacy refers to effective participation of any kind in social processes (Halliday, 1996).

Together with Halliday's discussion that literacy covers all forms of discourse, it has recently gained a much wider meaning. Cole and Keyssar (1985) speak about different literacies. They argue that although "literacy is conventionally understood as the ability to use graphic symbols to represent spoken language ... in ordinary language literacy often refers to the ability to interpret and negotiate understanding within any mode of communication. Therefore, we speak of film literacy, music literacy, or computer literacy" (p. 50). Similar assumptions have been expressed by Levine (1986) who talks about different literacies such as computer literacy, political literacy, and so on. In this sense, literacy may be understood as having an ability to communicate in a variety of discourses in different areas. Barton (1994) sees this meaning of literacy "as understanding an area of knowledge" (p. 13). This understanding of literacy implies one's knowledge in an area.

The New London Group (Cazden *et al*, 1996) looks at the issue from the perspective of social and technological developments. Mass media and computer technologies are changing and developing rapidly. It becomes necessary for people to adapt and use some or all aspects of these developments, or people should have, at least, some kind of acquaintance with these developments since they cover all our lives. Due to the developments in mass media and computer technologies in the last two decades, different text types emerged and the traditional concept of literacy does not adequately incorporate these texts. Taking this into consideration, Cazden *et al*. (1996) claim that because current understanding of literacy is based on a restricted view that sees literacy as teaching and learning to read and write, a broader view of literacy is necessary because of "the multiplicity of communications channels and increasing cultural and linguistic diversity" (p. 60). Therefore, they offer a pedagogy

of multiliteracies incorporating a multiplicity of discourses which has two main features. The first is to “extend the idea and scope of literacy pedagogy to account for the context of our culturally and linguistically diverse and globalised societies” (p. 61), and secondly, they argue, “literacy pedagogy now accounts for the burgeoning variety of text forms that are associated with information and multimedia technologies” (p. 61).

Due to the social and technological developments, Kress (1997) also stresses the need for a new definition of language and literacy. According to him, we express our sense of our environment to others by means of language. Language gives us the tools to express our thoughts to others and to make them public. We live in an information age, and we cannot understand new technologies of communication with present theories of language and literacy. Cultural and social changes require new thinking. Furthermore, there are changes in the form of communication, which have remarkable effects on the use of language. Modes of communication, other than language, are becoming more and more important and dominant in many areas of public communication in which language was previously used dominantly. This is especially true of visual images.

Kress’s reference to the use of the visual in the media is important because of the fact that many signs and symbols give us different ideas about what they are or what they represent without written or spoken language. In newspapers, advertisements, television and computers, images are being used extensively and increasingly. Information comes in different forms: in numbers, in images, in binary codes, and still in language. Language is in a process of a rapid change due to social and technological factors, and other forms of communication penetrate increasingly

into the domains of communication which were previously dominated by written language. Anywhere in the world, newspapers and magazines use language less. Print on a page, according to Kress (1997), is being replaced by the visual. The point that Kress makes here is that in all cases we use the language, though in different forms, and as well as the language itself, the new modes of communication must also be made available to students. It is, therefore, apparent that making meaning from the visual is part of literacy.

Another point that Kress (1997) makes is that with the developments in media and electronic communications, the skills that were required of people for work no longer suffice. People are required to be able to make use of such developments, or, at least, to be literate in them. That is, people need to develop skills in these domains. Consequently, literacy in different domains is becoming increasingly important.

The discussion in this section reflects the fact that as well as the lexical definition of literacy in dictionaries, the word has gained new meanings. This understanding is the result of the social and technological developments around the world. This view defines literacy as the ability to use the language for different purposes in different social situations, which is a much broader definition than the traditional definitions. This new understanding of literacy assumes that the developments in media and electronic communications have brought about new information and text types (Cazden et al, 1996; Kress, 1997). These should be taken into account while making curricula in educational settings. That is, new types of texts and new domains of language use should be introduced to students in order to make them literate in those domains. In this study, our understanding of literacy calls

for a broader view than the traditional understanding. By literacy, we do not mean being able to read and write, but being able to communicate competently through language in all areas. Because our understanding calls for a broader view of the term, we will use it in this sense—literacy in English.

2.3. Speaking and Writing

As stated above, literacy is variously defined as the ability to read and write, or as the ability to speak, read and write, or as the ability to use the language effectively in any mode of communication and in different social situations, or as being knowledgeable in any area. Because our understanding of language and literacy requires a broader understanding of literacy, the last two interpretations form the basis of our understanding of literacy in this study. However, it is necessary to make some things more explicit here. So far, the definitions of literacy usually implicate L1 contexts. However, all of them reflect the fact that literacy has to do with the language. Because of the widespread use of English as an international language, English language instruction has also become widespread all over the world. In some countries, it is the second language and in many countries, it is taught as a foreign language either in private language courses or in English language departments at different levels in education. In each case, depending on our understanding of literacy, it may be said that having the ability to use English may also be called literacy in English. In this study, we are investigating ELT students' level of literacy that they achieve in speaking and writing skills of English at the end of their course of study. In other words, we are investigating students' levels of competence in speaking and writing skills of the English language.

Although the view that a language has four skills is prevalent, some researchers (e.g. Kress, 1997) define language as consisting of “two deeply distinct forms – speech and writing” (p.1) in the sense that speaking requires listening and writing requires reading (Widdowson, 1978; Kress, 1997). Since literacy has to do with using the language, we, therefore, assume in this study that speaking and writing are important constituents of literacy. However, the argument put forward in this study is based on the classical fourfold division of the skills.

A language is said to have four main skills: speaking, writing, listening, and reading (e.g., Widdowson, 1978; Cumming, 1996). Therefore, “the aims of a language teaching course are very often defined with reference to four ‘language skills’: understanding speech (*listening*), speaking, reading and writing” (Widdowson, 1978: p. 1). According to Widdowson, listening, speaking, reading, and writing constitute the language itself that students are learning. These skills have often been classified according to their nature, and way of production. Of the four, speaking and writing have traditionally been classified as active or productive skills in the sense that they create language outcomes, and listening and reading as passive or receptive skills (e.g., Widdowson, 1978; Peacock, 1986; McDonough & Shaw, 1993). According to Widdowson (1978)

Speaking and listening are said to relate to language expressed through the aural medium and reading and writing are said to relate to language expressed through the visual medium. Another way of representing these skills is by reference not to the medium but to the activity of the language user. Thus speaking and writing are said to be active, or productive skills whereas listening and reading are said to be passive or receptive skills (p. 57).

The following table shows the traditional classification of the four skills.

Table 2.1. Traditional Classification of the Four Skills (Widdowson, 1978: p. 57)

	Productive/active	Receptive/passive
Aural medium	Speaking	Listening
Visual medium	Writing	Reading

Widdowson makes a distinction between 'usage' and 'use'. According to him, 'usage' refers to acquiring the ability to compose correct sentences, and 'use' refers to acquiring an understanding of which sentences or parts of sentences are appropriate in a particular context. In terms of 'usage', speaking is active or productive and uses the aural medium. Therefore, it is only aural. However, Widdowson argues, in terms of 'use', speaking is part of a reciprocal exchange which makes it both receptive and productive. Although the 'active-passive' distinction has been subject to criticism (e.g., Widdowson, 1978; Morley, 1991), this conception is still dominant in language teaching.

While it is clear that all skills are equally important in learning a second/foreign language as well as for effective communication in both the mother tongue and second/foreign language, these skills are all interrelated and lack of, or incompetence in, one will cause ineffective and incomplete communication.

It is also important to note that different real life contexts demand different uses of the language – spoken or written. It is also important to note that prospective teachers of English at tertiary level should be able to use the English language effectively in different contexts. Within speaking and writing, there are different genres such as narration, exposition, and argumentation, and each genre requires different uses of the language. The use of language in one genre is different from the

use of language in another. If we take the genres in Table 2.3 as an example, the genre narration is different from the genre exposition and argumentation and vice versa. Because the aims and functions of a genre are different, so is the language of that genre. Similarly, because of the characteristics of speech, speaking in one genre is relatively easier than writing the same thing in the same genre (genre will be dealt with in the next chapter).

Table 2.2. Writing Types by Genre Forms (From Johnson, 1994)

Narration	Exposition	Argumentation
Personal account Imaginative account Report Narrative Reflection	Instruction Description Explanation Information Compare and contrast	Opinion Persuasion Argument Analysis

It seems that the main problem with the ELT departments in Turkey is that language instruction develops students' language competence in a single domain. This domain, it seems, is course related. However, if students were prepared enough to use the language in one domain competently, one would expect them to be able to use the language at a certain level in another. We will discover in later chapters whether students can use the language in domains other than the one with which they are most familiar.

2.4. Conclusion

From the preceding literature review on language and literacy, it may be said that the traditional notions of language and literacy are changing. Different forms of language have emerged and the traditional definition of literacy has been inadequate.

As indicated above, speaking and writing are the two important skills of a language and a literate person is considered to be the one who uses language effectively and who has certain amount of knowledge on an area. However, while the research literature on writing is rich, that on speaking is not. The research literature usually compares the two forms and tries to show the differences between them.

This study is an investigation into the levels of literacy that Turkish ELT students achieve in speaking and writing in different areas. Taking into account the modern definitions of literacy it seems more appropriate to use the term literacy to refer to using the language to fully participate in any kind of social and intellectual practices (Robinson, 1988; Halliday, 1996) or the ability to use the language effectively in any mode of communication and in different social situations. However, emphasis is placed on the two constituents of literacy, speaking and writing skills of English.

CHAPTER 3

APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

3.1. Introduction

The main aim of this study is to explore ELT students' levels of competence that they achieve in speaking and writing at the end of their course of study. Therefore, this chapter specifically focuses on the teaching of these skills.

Investigating students' levels of English necessarily requires an insight into the approaches that are commonly used in second/foreign language instruction. This is necessary in that it helps us to understand the aims, strengths and weaknesses of these approaches and their suitability to the teaching of English and to the teaching of different skills in ELT departments. Consequently, this chapter briefly reviews some of the approaches that are commonly used in the teaching of English as a second/foreign language. In this chapter, we shall also examine some other approaches used in the teaching of writing. Therefore, we shall make a distinction between approaches to second/foreign language teaching and approaches to the teaching of speaking and writing. The approaches to the teaching of English as a second/foreign language will be evaluated in terms of their suitability in the teaching of English in ELT departments, and the approaches to the teaching of writing in terms of their emphasis on different uses of language.

In Chapter 2, it was argued that current conceptualisations define literacy as using the language effectively in any mode for different purposes in different situations. We have also argued in Chapter 2 that although some researchers define language as consisting of two skills, the traditional fourfold division is still dominant. Therefore, in this study, we will use literacy to mean to use the language, L1 or L2,

in any mode for different purposes in different situations and concentrate only on the skills of speaking and writing.

ELT departments have an important role in the English language instruction in Turkey. They are the main sources of English language teacher training for all levels of education. Most graduates of the ELT departments become teachers of English in secondary education, some in tertiary education, and some prefer professions outside the educational domain. In both domains, they will be expected to use the English language. Therefore, English language will play an important part in students' future careers. It is a common belief that ELT students achieve good levels of competence in English by the end of their higher education. However, this belief has been largely untested. Research literature on English language instruction and its outcomes in these departments is non-existent. Based on the present researcher's personal experience and observations, it may be said that most graduates of these departments in Turkey are competent in the grammar of the English language but fail to use their knowledge of grammar in producing the language. That is, they are usually, from personal observation as a language teacher, not sufficiently competent in speaking and writing. It is this observation that is the *raison d'être* of this study. In this study, competence is used to mean the knowledge of the structures of the language and the ability to use this knowledge of language appropriately for different contexts and in any mode.

It is apparent from the literature that the description of some skills has been relatively neglected in second/foreign language teaching. Speaking skill is an example (Brown & Yule, 1983; Bygate, 1987; McDonough & Shaw, 1993). Far less work has been done on the description of spoken English. (Brown & Yule 1983).

The main reason for this neglect, according to Brown & Yule (1983), is that for most of its history, language teaching has dealt with the study of the written language because it is the language of literature and of scholarship, and it is the language which is admired and studied. Another reason for this neglect may be that because almost all of us speak, we take it too much for granted, and that because speaking is transitory and spontaneous, it can be viewed as simple or superficial. However, speaking is as important as writing, both in first and second languages, because learners need to be able to speak confidently to convey their transactions. A third reason may be that in many parts of the world, teaching the spoken language is largely understood as teaching students to pronounce written sentences (Bygate, 1987). This neglect of the teaching of speaking has changed. Language students are considered successful today if they can communicate effectively in their second/foreign language, whereas two decades ago the accuracy of the language produced was the major criterion for a student's success (Riggenbach & Lazaraton 1991). Unlike speaking, writing has been the centre of discussions in education since the late 1960s.

There are different opinions about the importance given to the writing component in language instruction. Some researchers claim that the teaching of writing has long been an important element in educational systems (e.g., Tribble, 1996), while others believe that writing has been a neglected but important component in language instruction. As a medium of communication, writing gained importance in educational institutions in the United States and Europe in the 1960s, and has become the focus of research in the 1980s and 1990s (Santos, 1992; Harris, 1993). The debate on writing resulted in new approaches to the teaching of writing.

There is extensive research on models of English language teaching internationally. However, it appears that research into the teaching of English as a foreign language in Turkey is relatively limited. In the following sections, there will be an analysis of some major 20th century approaches to second/foreign language teaching and of their advantages and drawbacks.

3.2. Common Approaches to Second/Foreign Language Teaching

Since the beginning of language instruction, language instructors have sought for better ways to facilitate second/foreign language learning (Blair, 1991). Consequently, numerous approaches emerged in second/foreign language teaching. Most of these approaches emerged in the second half of the 20th century. Some have their own theories of language and some add features from previous approaches together with new concepts of language teaching. Some of the most widely used 20th century approaches to second/foreign language teaching are: The Direct Approach (Method), the Audio-Lingual Approach, the Situational (Oral) Approach, and the Communicative Approach. Although there are many more approaches, which appeared in the last quarter of the 20th century, they have not been as widely accepted as the others in second/foreign language instruction. Most of the approaches to second/foreign language teaching follow a continuum of development and certain features of some of these approaches arose in reaction to perceived inadequacies or impracticalities in an earlier approach or approaches (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Some of these approaches stress one or two skills in second/foreign language instruction and neglect others, some stress grammar only, and some stress all four skills together

with other aspects of the language, such as grammar and vocabulary. Some stress accuracy at the expense of fluency, and some stress fluency as well as accuracy.

In the following sections, the Direct Approach, the Audiolingual Approach and the Situational Approach will be described very shortly (for a more comprehensive account of the 20th century approaches, see Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Celce-Murcia, 1991). However, the Communicative Approach will be described in detail because of its widespread impact in the teaching of English as a second/foreign language. Of the many, only these four approaches are included here because of their wide impact in second/foreign language instruction.

3.2.1. The Direct Approach

The Direct Approach emerged around the turn of the 20th century as a reaction to the Grammar –Translation Approach because of its failure in producing learners who could use the foreign language they had been learning (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Celce-Murcia, 1991). In this approach, the instruction is exclusively carried out in the target language, which is a strong point of the approach. However, this approach assumes that English should be taught by native speaker teachers or by teachers who have native-like proficiency in the target language. This seems impractical since it may not be possible for all language teaching programmes to employ native speakers. A second disadvantage of this approach is its emphasis on everyday vocabulary and sentences. That is, learners learn vocabulary and sentences that will enable them to survive in basic daily communications only, leaving them unprepared for different types of communications in other areas. A third disadvantage is that it stresses oral/aural skills (speaking and listening) and neglects reading and writing. It

may be argued that such a methodology will produce learners who have limited proficiency in different skills of the language.

3.2.2. The Audio-Lingual Approach

The Audio-Lingual Approach became dominant in the United States during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s. It emphasises oral-aural skills. It takes much from the direct approach but adds features from structural linguistics and behavioural psychology. It sees foreign language learning as a process of mechanical habit formation: good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes, and memorising dialogues and performing pattern drills reduce the risk of making mistakes. Its strict emphasis on avoiding mistakes may be considered a disadvantage of this approach because it prevents learners from using the language. This approach assumes that language skills can be learned better if the items to be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form before they are seen in written form. That is, in order to develop other skills, aural-oral skills (listening-speaking) should be developed first. Therefore, this approach sequences the skills as listening, speaking – reading, writing postponed. This is a disadvantage because graphic skills (reading and writing) are delayed until learners are proficient enough in aural/oral skills (listening and speaking). Another assumption of this approach is that the meanings that words have for a native speaker can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context. Therefore, language teaching also involves teaching the cultural system of the target language. This assumption is impractical since it may not always be possible to employ teachers who are familiar with the culture of the language learned, and since there may be a resistance to the culture of the

language learned. The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary, etc. that s/he is teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Celce-Murcia, 1991). This is another disadvantage of the approach because it implies the emphasis on the teaching of grammar and vocabulary. A good repertoire of rules and vocabulary may not ensure competent use of the language. This may lead to producing 'structurally competent but communicatively incompetent' learners who could form correct sentences to describe simple habits but fail to transfer this knowledge to talk about themselves in real-life settings (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

3.2.3 The Situational Approach (or Oral Approach)

Situational Approach (or Oral Approach) was dominant in Britain during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s. It emphasised oral-aural skills. It draws much from the direct approach but adds features from Firthian Linguistics and the emerging professional field of language pedagogy. In this approach, the spoken language is primary. Language teaching begins with the spoken language and material is practised orally before it is presented in written form. Reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and grammatical forms has been established. This may be considered as a disadvantage because, as in the previous approach, learners should wait until they have enough knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. The target language is the language of the classroom, which may be considered an advantage. New language points are introduced and practised situationally. Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented. This is another drawback of this approach since learners learn the language that can only be used in predetermined situations. Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex.

According to this approach, language is based on speech and structure, and learning is a type of behaviourist habit learning. It addresses primarily the processes rather than the conditions of learning. Its objectives are to teach a practical command of the four basic skills through structure; accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar are essential and errors must be avoided. Again, emphasis on avoiding errors may prevent learners from using the language until they are confident enough that they can use the language without committing errors. Automatic control of structures is important to reading and writing skills and this can be achieved through speech practice (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Celce-Murcia, 1991).

3.2.4. The Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach is a product of 1970s and grew out of the work of Hymes (1972) and Halliday (1973 both cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991), who view language primarily as a system for communication, as a reaction to the Audiolingual Approach, which emphasised the teaching of structure without recourse to meaning (Melrose, 1991; Celce-Murcia, 1991).

In the late 1960s, there was a growing dissatisfaction with the Audio-Lingual approach whose emphasis was on the mastery of language structure. Learners were required to learn and use grammatical forms accurately for competence in a foreign language. This type of instruction produced 'structurally competent' but 'communicatively incompetent' learners who could form correct sentences to describe simple habits but fail to transfer this knowledge to talk about themselves in real-life settings (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). A lesson in audio-lingual approach might consist of not very meaningful sentences in response to even less meaningful cues. By the late 1960s, the study of meaning gained importance, and this change in

the status of meaning in linguistics called for a new approach to language learning. This led to the emergence of 'functional' or 'notional' or 'functional-notional' approach (the early names for the Communicative Approach) to language instruction in the early 1970s (Melrose, 1991). On the other hand, developments in international cooperation and the development of European Common Market made it necessary for European countries to make some changes in language teaching. Furthermore, significant theoretical developments took place in linguistics and sociolinguistics. Out of these developments, 1970s witnessed the emergence of the principles of communicative approach (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

The Communicative Approach sees the purpose of language (and thus the goal of language teaching) as communication. It aims to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching, and develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. It pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language. In this approach, meaning is paramount. It assumes that the goal of language teaching is the learner ability to communicate in the target language. The content of a language course includes semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures. Students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer (and negotiate) meaning in situations where one person has information that the other(s) don't. Students often engage in role-play or dramatisation to use the target language in different social contexts. Classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real-life situations and demands. Skills are integrated from the beginning; an activity may involve reading, speaking, listening, and writing. The teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors. The

teacher needs to be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately. One theory of this approach is language as communication, and the goal of language teaching is 'communicative competence.' Learning a second language is viewed as acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Celce-Murcia, 1991).

One distinctive characteristic of the Communicative Approach is its emphasis on four skills. Unlike other approaches, this approach assumes that the four skills are interrelated and cannot be separated and taught discretely. Unlike the traditional active/passive classification of skills, the communicative approach assumes that all skills are active. Like speaking and writing, listening and reading are active skills in that a listener is involved in different activities such as guessing, anticipating, checking, interpreting, interacting and organising just as a reader is involved in a written text. Speaking is not the oral production of written language, but involves learners in the mastery of a variety of sub-skills which constitute an overall competence in the spoken language. Speaking is something which is used to achieve particular purposes. In this approach, there is less control over accuracy in the teaching of speaking because that may encourage learners to sustain communication (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

According to Mitchell (1994), the communicative Approach makes the following assumptions about classroom activities:

1. Classroom activities should maximise opportunities for learners to use the target language for meaningful purposes, with their attention on the messages they are creating and the task they are completing, rather than on correctness of language form and language structure.

2. Learners trying their best to use the target language creatively and unpredictably are bound to make errors; this is a normal part of language learning, and constant correction is unnecessary, and even counterproductive.
3. Language analysis and grammar explanation may help some learners, but extensive experience of target language use helps everyone (p. 38).

The Communicative Approach has had perhaps the most influence on second/foreign language teaching. Because of the emphases of other approaches on limited skills, their use of non real-life material, and their impracticalities, the Communicative Approach seems to be better than the others in second/foreign language teaching.

3.3. Approaches/Methods to the Teaching of Speaking and Writing

Teaching speaking is usually carried out through language teaching approaches or methodologies such as the Direct Approach, the Audiolingual Approach, the Situational Approach, and the Communicative Approach, and so forth. Some of these approaches emphasise speaking, some emphasise listening and speaking, and some emphasise all four skills. Research has shown that emphasising one or two skills and delaying or neglecting others produces learners who may not be able to use the language effectively. Most of the approaches before the Communicative Approach were criticised in terms of their emphases on limited skills. However, unlike other approaches, the Communicative Approach emphasises all four skills in the teaching of English as a second/foreign language. Because our

focus in this study is the teaching of speaking and writing, we will emphasise the teaching of the two skills.

3.3.1. Teaching Speaking in the Communicative Approach

Communicative approach assumes that the aim of language learning is to communicate, and in making learners communicatively competent in English as a second/foreign language, speaking skills play an important role. In the beginning of the Communicative Approach, communication mainly meant oral production, and therefore other skills were relatively neglected. However, in recent years, there has been a balance between the skills (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

The communicative Approach assumes that teachers should be aware of the differences between, and the characteristics of, the spoken and written language (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). Spoken language is said to be interactional and transactional in nature, while writing is said to be transactional (e.g., Brown & Yule, 1983). Transactional language contains factual information such as facts about a society, facts about individuals in a society, records of who owns what, and so on. These types of information include messages which can be used at a later time than the time of writing. The main characteristic of transactional language is that the message is clearly conveyed, making the language message-based. The exceptions are 'thank you' letters, love letters, party games, and so on in which the transactional characteristic of written language is not primary. On the other hand, speaking is mainly used for the maintenance of social relationships such as greetings, talking to a friend, and so on, which is the interactional aspect of the spoken language. However, spoken language can also contain a transactional element. An example of

transactional speaking may be the talk between a learner and a driving instructor which usually begins with a greeting followed by comments on the weather (Brown & Yule 1983).

In teaching speaking, the Communicative Approach uses a variety of activities in the classroom. In these activities, the interaction is more realistic and far less teacher-centred while in non-communicative classrooms students usually responded to teacher prompts which were usually predictable. The aim of this type of activities is to make learners speak to each other for a certain reason in order to achieve a certain outcome. The control of the form of language in communicative classroom is less than the previous approaches. In previous approaches, the speaking skills were largely accuracy-focused, while in the communicative approach the emphasis is on the whole target language as a potential tool for communication. Therefore, activities are designed to develop learners' fluency. The communicative approach differs from previous approaches in terms of classroom materials (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

McDonough & Shaw (1993) state that recent teaching materials in communicative classrooms include activities which focus on tasks that involve negotiation or sharing information by the participants. The belief behind this is that "learners should be given the opportunity to actively use the language that they know in meaningful activities that they feel motivated to talk about" (p. 162). Some of the activities that communicative approach uses to develop learners' speaking skills are communication games, problem solving, simulation/role play materials, materials requiring personal responses, materials illustrating rules/patterns of conversation.

Communication games include activities such as describing, predicting, simplifying, asking for feedback through activities such as filling in questionnaires and guessing unknown information. Such activities give learners a good practice in speaking. These activities are based on communication and require learners to use the information that they find out in a collaborative way to complete a task successfully. In such activities, students usually work in pairs or groups, and each pair or group works with other groups therefore creating communication (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

Some activities for speaking skills assume that a communicative purpose can be established in the classroom through the information gap. Problem solving is one of these activities. In such activities, students listen to different parts of information, and then they are required to complete the missing parts. In this activity, students are exposed to listening and then in pairs or groups share information with other pairs or groups of students (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). Here we see that listening and speaking are practised together, and therefore, through pair or group work, student practice speaking. Because there is not a strict control over students in such activities, they have more freedom than in activities in other approaches. Freedom in such activities encourages students to use the language without the fear of teacher correction of errors.

Simulation/role play activities make students speak in different social contexts and assume different social roles. These activities are a suitable way of integrating skills in the language classroom. Role-play activities usually require students to express opinions, to present and defend points of view, and to evaluate arguments. In such an activity, a problem is put forward, students in pairs or groups

prepare some notes to speak from in a meeting (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). In these activities, students practise listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

In the three types of activities mentioned above, we can make a distinction as 'functional communication activities' (problem solving, questionnaires, describe and draw) and 'social interaction activities' (role play and simulation). This distinction further reflects the transactional and interactional distinction in that in functional communication activities, learners use the language that they know to make the meaning clear, and in the social interaction activities, students pay attention to establishing and maintaining social relationship (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

Activities that require personal responses aim to encourage students to react individually to questions concerning different aspects of their daily lives. Unlike the previous activities in which students worked in pairs or in groups, students and teachers in these activities get outside the activities and use learners' own background and personalities in speaking classes. (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

Activities showing rules/patterns of conversation aim to introduce learners to the effective use of remarks in conversations. The remarks are divided into opening remarks (starting and introducing ideas into conversation), linking remarks (linking ones ideas to someone else's), and responding remarks (agreeing and disagreeing) (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

Although these activities described above are used for speaking, they include the use of other skills. That is, in speaking activities, other skills are also practised. This shows that skills are integrated and teaching one skill necessarily involves the use and practise of other skills. This makes the communicative approach ideal in a language classroom.

3.3.2. Teaching Writing in the Communicative Approach

Writing is also an important skill in communicative approach. We have already noted that in the early years of this approach, 'communicative' was meant to be the oral production of the language. However, 'communicative' included the other skills later (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). Therefore, the word 'communicative' includes using and producing language.

This approach recognises that there are different purposes and contexts of writing, which means that it stresses different uses of the language in different situations. In this sense, it stresses the teaching of different genres, which is very important in making students competent in different uses of the language. One important assumption of this approach is that writing should reflect the functions outside the classroom as well as the educational functions in the classroom. That is, students should write on real life topics as well as topics devised inside the classroom.

The Communicative Approach stresses the final product of writing on the one hand and the processes of writing on the other, making it a mixture of the product and process approaches to writing (which will be discussed later). It stresses syntax, grammar, mechanics, organisation, word choice, purpose, audience and content. It also assumes that writing has some stages: pre-writing, drafting, redrafting and editing (McDonough & Shaw, 1993). In this context, writing instruction in the Communicative Approach has elements of both the product and the process approaches. That is, the Communicative Approach combines the 'what' of the product approach and the 'how' of the process approach.

This approach claims that there are different contexts and purposes of writing: personal, public, creative, social, study and institutional. Traditional writing activities ‘controlled sentence construction’ and ‘free composition’ lead learners through several stages from one to another. Each composition begins with structure practice, continues with a sample composition and then uses this material as a model for students’ own compositions. On the other hand, the ‘homework’ activities at the end of each unit in general coursebooks ask students to write a composition either in the classroom or as homework and to return it to the teacher for correction. In this type of writing instruction, there is an emphasis on accuracy and finished ‘product’, the teacher is given a role of judge, and writing has a consolidating function. In other words, this type of materials did not reflect the real world writing (authenticity), and the ‘process’ was not a concern. Although controlled practice leads to ‘automaticity’ in grammatical usage, a structured scheme does not provide a comprehensive view of writing (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

Although this approach accepts that writing is an individual, solitary activity (absence of readers), it claims that students are language learners not writers, and having students write alone would not be helpful. Writing can be done in the classroom at every stage by establishing a collaborative, interactive framework where learners work together on their writing in a workshop atmosphere. In order to help students find and write about a topic, this approach stresses that students can use strategies such as brainstorming a topic by talking to other students to get ideas; cooperating with other students at the planning stage, editing another student’s draft, and preparing interview questions. On the other hand, feedback to student writing is important in the Communicative Approach. Teacher’s intervention at all stages of

writing, not just at the end, is considered useful. Therefore, by commenting and making suggestions, a teacher becomes a reader as well as a critic. In this context, the feedback given to students is both formative (developmental) and summative (product evaluation). In this feedback, the only concern is not the grammar but also the appropriacy of writing to its purpose, audience, topic and content. This approach also values students' role in the feedback process. If students are involved in the feedback process, they contribute the production of other students' work and creation of a cooperative working environment (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

Given all these, it may be said that there are several reasons why the Communicative Approach is an ideal approach to the teaching of a second/foreign language. First, it includes wider concerns of what is appropriate as well as what is accurate. Second, it handles a wider range of language which includes texts and conversations as well as sentences. Third, it provides realistic and motivating language practice. Fourth, it uses what learners 'know' about the functions of language from their experience with their first languages (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

However, although the Communicative Approach has many advantages over the other approaches, it is not free from problems. The main problem in this approach is the question of grammar. In some contexts, the communicative approach is still producing learners who can only reproduce unanalysed global phrases and who have not internalised the language system, which will allow them to produce original utterances correctly in open and unpredictable target language use. To eliminate this problem, theorists of the communicative approach have suggested that teachers should find out a balance between meaning-oriented 'fluency' and form-

oriented 'accuracy'. On the other hand, some communicative approach practitioners still teach grammar in traditional ways. However, the communicative approach still lacks a developed understanding of the most effective and principled way to tackle grammar in the communicative approach (Mitchell, 1994). That is, there is no perfect approach to the teaching of English. This shows us the difficulty in the teaching of writing. As Raimes (1983) puts it, "there is no one answer to the question of how to teach writing. There are as many answers as there are teachers and teaching styles, or learners and learning styles" (p. 5).

Except for the communicative approach, the approaches above usually take one or two skills as the basis of their language teaching/learning theories. The other skills are either delayed or not emphasised at all. Since the aim of the ELT departments is to train students as competent users of the English language, it seems that the Communicative Approach will serve the aims of ELT department best since it stresses all four skills.

3.4. Approaches to Writing

The early 1970s mark the beginning of the debate on the efficacy of writing instruction in schools in the United States. Some teachers and researchers started to question the prevalent approaches used in the teaching of writing claiming that they were not adequate to improve both the standard of writing instruction and students' writing skills. (Freedman et al, 1987). They started to discuss the weaknesses of the then-current approaches and techniques, and claimed that new ones had to be developed in order to improve both the writing instruction and students' writing skills. Initially, this concern for writing was mainly for the first language (L1) of young school children. Hence, the early research literature on writing instruction in

schools was mainly on writing in the first language (L1). Then, alongside the L1 research, researchers developed an interest in writing in second language contexts (L2) in schools. Together with the body of literature on L1 developed another body of literature on L2. Before the 1980s, there was little research on second/foreign language (L2) writing (Johns, 1990; Krapels, 1990). In the 1980s, second/foreign language composition research developed and matured (Johns, 1990). However, L2 writing research does not have a theory (Silva, 1993) and is largely based on the L1 writing research and theory (Johns, 1990; Krapels, 1990; Silva, 1990).

The product approach to writing dominated the teaching of writing until the early 1970s when it was challenged by the process approach. After two decades of intensive discussion, the process approach was found to have some drawbacks. The 1970s also witnessed the emergence of the genre approach which has recently become increasingly popular in educational systems. The three approaches will be examined in detail. However, before we describe these approaches, let us look at Raimes' (1991) description of the approaches used in the teaching of writing.

3.4.1. Focus on Form, 1966 –

During the 1960s and mid 1970s the audio-lingual method of language teaching was dominant. In this approach, speech was primary and writing served a subordinate role. Writing was merely used to reinforce speech. In language instruction, writing consisted of sentence drills, fill-ins, substitutions, transformations, and completions, and the content of writing was provided by the teacher. Writing was a tool to reinforce or test the accurate use of grammatical rules. Controlled composition tasks provided the text and the student was required to manipulate linguistic forms within that text. As well as grammatical form, concern

for rhetorical form was important. This approach stresses the written product and is known as the product approach, or current-traditional approach.

3.4.2. Focus on the Writer, 1976 –

The 1970s are the years when teachers and researchers, influenced by L1 research on composing processes (Emig, 1971; Zamel, 1976, both cited in Raimes, 1991), reacted against a form-dominated (product) approach by developing an interest in what L2 writers actually do as they write. ‘Accuracy’ and ‘patterns’ were replaced by ‘process’, ‘making meaning’, ‘invention’, and ‘multiple drafts.’ This approach uses new classroom tasks identified by the use of journals, invention, peer collaboration, revision, and attention to content before form. With the emergence of theory and research on writers’ processes, teachers started to allow students time and opportunity to select topics, generate ideas, write drafts and revise, and provide feedback. Grammatical accuracy was not emphasised at the beginning of the writing process and it was postponed until writers had solved problems with ideas and organisation. This approach is known as the process approach.

3.4.3. Focus on Content 1986 –

Some teachers and theorists reacted against the process approach and perceived it as an “almost total obsession” (Horowitz, 1986c, cited in Raimes, 1991). These opponents thought the new approach inappropriate for academic demands and for the expectations of academic readers and shifted their focus from the processes of the writer to the content and to the demands of the academy. By 1986, the process approach was included among “traditional” (Shih, 1986: P.624 cited in Raimes, 1991) approaches, and in its place was proposed a content-based approach. In content-based instruction, an ESL course might be attached to a content course or

language courses might be grouped with courses in other disciplines. With a content focus, learners get help with “the language of the thinking processes and the structure or shape of content. While classroom methodology might take on some features of a writer-focused approach (process), such as prewriting tasks and the opportunity for revision, the main emphasis is on the instructor’s determination of what academic content is most suitable, in order to build whole courses or modules of reading and writing tasks around that content. This approach is known as the genre approach.

These approaches are all widely used, discretely and sequentially. The last two appear to exist on a principle of critical reaction to a previous approach (Raimes, 1991).

Tribble (1996) reinforces this classification. According to Tribble, there have been three movements in the teaching of writing: focus on form, focus on the writer, and focus on the reader. The first is a traditional, text-based approach (product approach) and is still widely used. Teachers stress the form and give well-known texts as models to students to imitate and adapt. They also see errors as something that they have to correct and, where possible, eliminate. In this approach, the teacher’s main roles are to teach notions of correctness and conformity. The second approach (process approach) has developed as a reaction against the previous approach and focuses on the writer. It particularly stresses the cycle of writing activities (processes) which move learners from the generation of ideas and the collection of data through to the ‘publication’ of a finished text. The third approach (genre) is more socially oriented and focuses on the ways in which writers and texts need to interact with readers. In this approach, writing is seen as a social activity in

which texts are written to do things. The assumption is that if the reader cannot identify the purpose of a text, communication will not take place.

3.5. The Product Approach to the Teaching of Writing

The terms product approach, or current-traditional approach, or traditional paradigm have been used interchangeably to denote the product approach. The emergence of the current-traditional approach goes back to the second half of the nineteenth century (Halloran, 1990, cited in Killingsworth, 1993). This approach dominated the teaching of writing until the early 1970s, and stressed the final written product and form of the discourse. "The teaching of writing was intended principally to lead to the composition of correct texts" (Lynch, 1996: p. 148). This model of the teaching of writing was based on audio-lingual principles and current-traditional rhetoric which was widely used in the books on ESL/EFL writing instruction from the 1960s until the 1970s (Susser, 1994).

The product approach to the teaching of writing has some pre-defined principles and it classifies discourse into four forms, an influence inherited from classical rhetoric. According to Young (1978),

The emphasis is on the composed product ... rather than the composing process; the analysis of discourse into words, sentences, and paragraphs; the classification of discourse into description, narration, exposition, and argument; the strong concern with usage (syntax, spelling, punctuation) and with style (economy, clarity, emphasis); the preoccupation with the informal essay and the research paper; and so on ... One important characteristic of current-traditional rhetoric is the exclusion of invention as a sub-discipline of the art (p. 31).

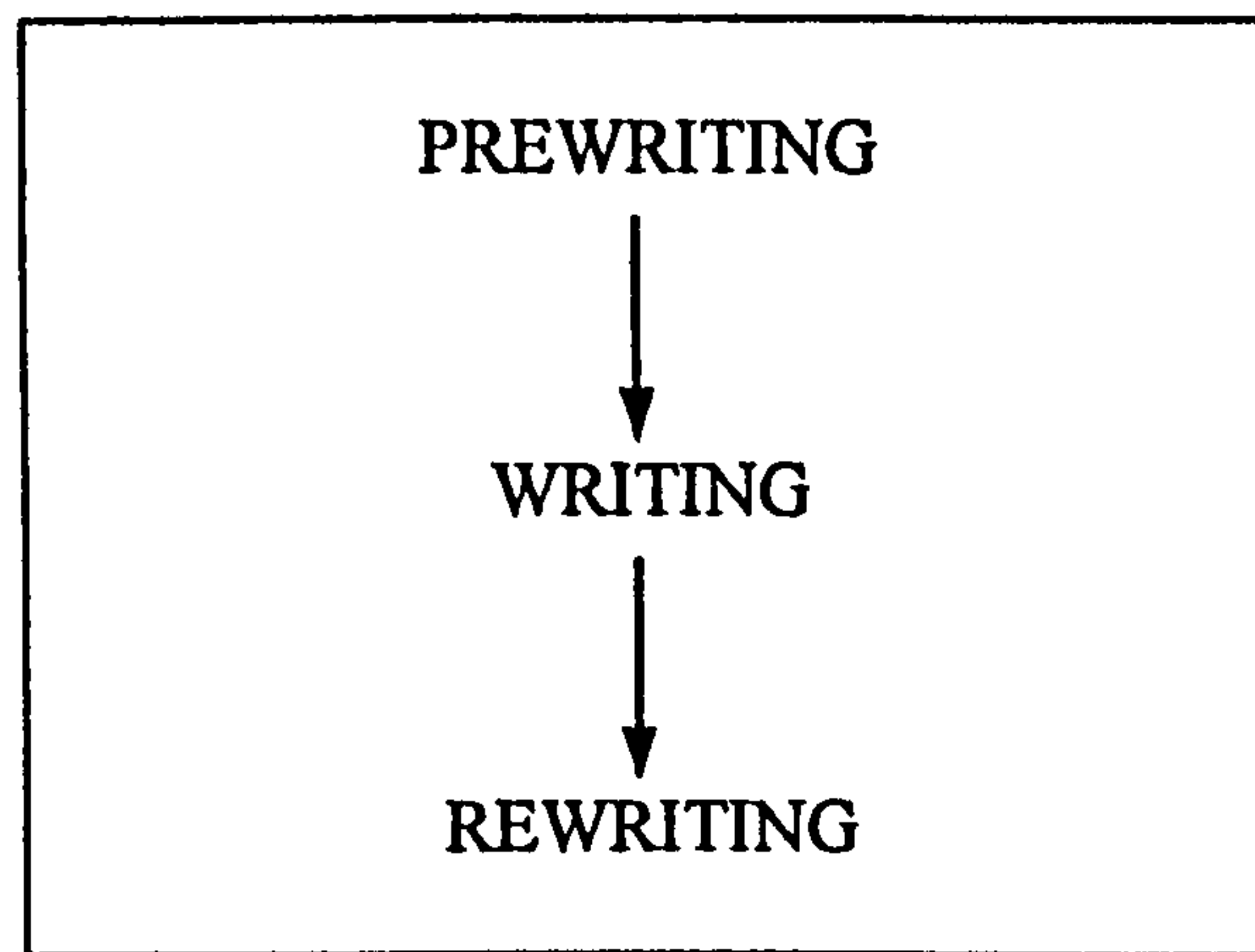
This description reflects an opposition to the product approach and adjacency to the process approach. The aim of the product approach is to form habits of writing by giving model passages to students, and includes extensive correction of

student writing in order to prevent students from committing errors. Students' first writing becomes their final product. Therefore, the focus is on the form and final product. Final product is seen in terms of correct usage of the language and accuracy rather than fluency and creativity. The process proponents (e.g., Zamel, 1982, 1983a, b; 1987; Susser, 1994) criticise the product approach on different grounds. In traditional classrooms, students were familiar with instruction that emphasised narrow and limited assumptions about the functions of writing. Students thought of writing as something that was done for teachers to examine. Form was more important than meaning. Students had to be drilled in the rules and principles, and had little perception of audience and reader (Zamel, 1987). According to Susser (1994), the teaching of writing in a product-centred classroom is seen as grammar instruction; the emphasis is on controlled composition, teachers correct student writing extensively, using the correct form is more important than the expression of ideas, and organisation of ideas is important on both paragraph level and the overall composition level.

The product approach uses writing as a test of checking accuracy of language forms. It assumes that writers know what to write before they begin to write, and composing is a linear process proceeding from prewriting to writing to rewriting (Berlin and Inkster, 1980 cited in Hairston, 1982).

The product approach represents a linear stage model for the teaching of writing. These stages follow each other, and writers do not go back during writing (Figure 3.1). Pre-writing is the stage before words are put on paper; writing is the stage in which writing is done; and re-writing is the final amendment of the writing (Flower and Hayes, 1981).

Figure 3.1. Linear Stage Model of the Product Writing Approach.



Although some aspects of the product approach seem useful in the teaching of writing, this approach has received a considerable amount of criticism since the early 1970s. Much of the criticism comes from the process proponents. They criticise the product approach from the view of the process approach. For example, Hairston (1982) claim that the traditional paradigm is not an outcome of research and experimentation. It is partly based on the classical rhetorical model that categorises the production of discourse into invention, arrangement, and style. It is a prescriptive and systematic view of the creative act.

Applebee (1986) criticises the product approach for its nature, emphasis on grammatical aspects of the language and for classical examples of texts. He argues that the product approach

has been prescriptive and product-centred. At the sentence level, instruction has emphasised correct usage and mechanics; at the text level, it has emphasised the traditional modes of discourse (narration, description, exposition, persuasion, and sometimes poetry). In this approach, instruction usually consists of analysing classic examples of good form, learning the rules that govern those classic examples, and practising following the rules (either in exercise of limited scope or by imitating the classic models). In turn, success in writing has been measured by the ability to incorporate those rules into one's own writing (p. 95).

3.6. The Process Approach to the Teaching of Writing

In the early 1970s, some teachers and researchers reacted against the limiting and prescriptive nature of the product approach and started to search for more effective ways of teaching writing (Freedman et al, 1987). Teachers started to think of *how* writers write instead of *what* they write. Consequently, the process approach emerged as the new approach to writing and was welcomed with enthusiasm. Emig's 1971 article, *The Composing Processes of Twelfth Graders*, is considered one of the pioneering articles that started the discussions on the process (Zamel, 1987; Killingsworth, 1993; Connor, 1987; Susser, 1994; Hairston, 1986; Freedman et al, 1987; Applebee, 1986; Witte & Cherry, 1986; Lynch, 1996). This article emphasises the processes that writers go through when composing. According to Caudery (1997),

No late twentieth-century approach to the teaching of writing has had as much influence ... as 'process writing' or 'the process approach'. Nor has any approach to the teaching of writing aroused so much controversy and disagreement, or so much passion" (p. 3).

Consequently, the focus of teachers and researchers shifted from product to the processes of writers. Process approach assumes that "before we know how to teach writing, we must first understand how we write" (Zamel, 1982: p 196). The early process studies were concerned with prewriting, activities during pauses, rate of writing and what writers do when they stop (Hillocks, 1986).

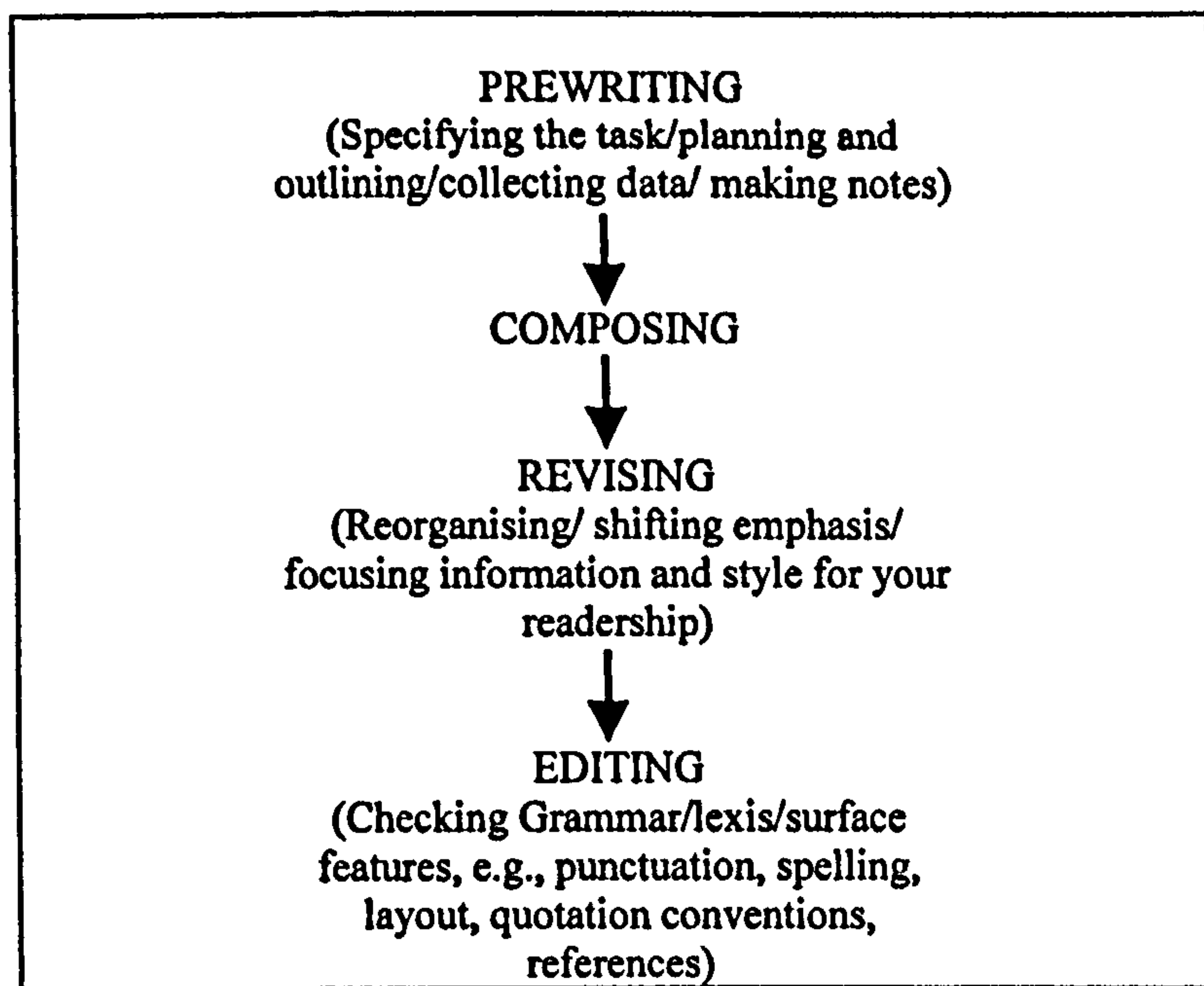
The process approach originally started in L1 contexts in the late 1960s as the study of the mental processes that students go through while composing a text and continues into the 1990s. It has contributed to the teaching and learning of ESL writing (Johns, 1995).

Susser (1994) mentions three meanings of process: (a) to mean the act of writing itself (writing, the writing process and composing are synonymous), (b) to describe writing pedagogies (process as a shorthand for a variety of writing pedagogies), and (c) to designate a theory or theories of writing (claims that process is a new paradigm, close to a theory of writing, but it actually is not).

In the process approach, the focus is on the reader. It emphasises not the product but the processes of writers while they write (Zamel, 1982; Applebee, 1986; Hairston, 1986; Connor, 1987; Killingsworth, 1993; Susser 1994). Awareness and intervention are the two important aspects of process writing. Intervention is the teacher's involvement in the act of writing. During this process, teachers react to what students write but do not correct mistakes (Susser, 1994). On the other hand, the process approach aims to make students aware that writing is mostly a process of discovery in which ideas are generated and that every piece of writing is not necessarily the discovery of ideas; in some situations writers may have a pre-planned and entire mental image of what they want to say before they begin writing (Susser, 1994). The early process model was different in some ways from the process model that is used now.

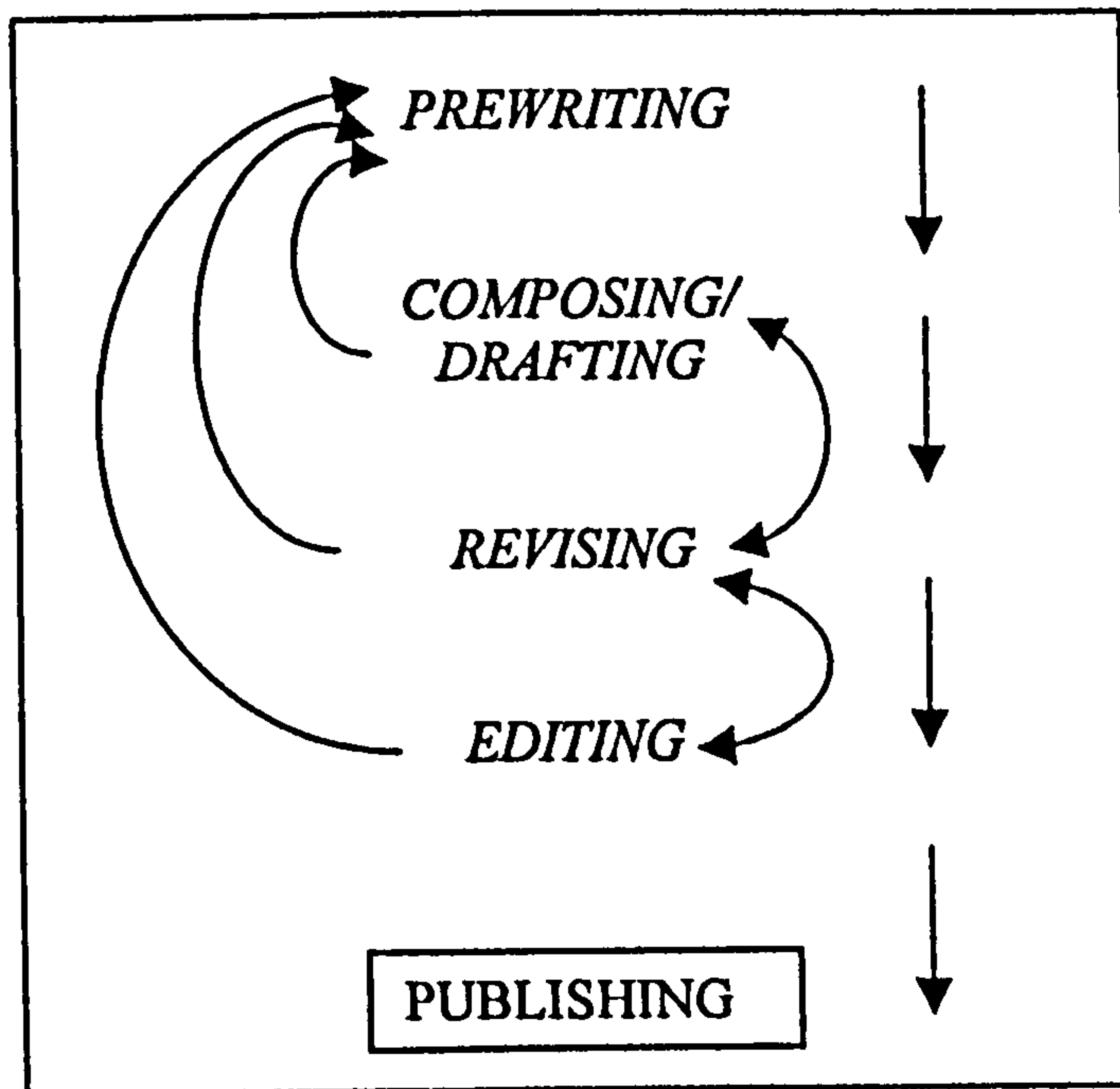
The first model of process writing is the linear stage model of writing (Figure 3.2). According to this model, the writing act involves prewriting, composing (writing), revising and editing (Figure 3.2). This model of composing process claims that the writers go through these stages without going back and thus showing similarity with the product model of writing. This model of the writing process has been criticised by some researchers because of not exploring what successful writers actually do when they write (Zamel 1983a; Raimes 1985).

Figure 3.2. Early Linear Stage Model of Process Writing Approach (Tribble, 1996)



These researchers describe the process of writing as recursive and complex. That is, although there are some stages in the composition texts, writers often go back to the previous stages and check what they wrote before they complete a text (Tribble, 1996). The recursive model of composing (Figure 3.3) is more complex than the linear stage model, and the process of writing does not have a fixed sequence of stages. Writers do not follow the planning, organising, writing and then revising stages in a sequence. Instead, they loop between stages, using what they had written to 'launch' them into the next cycle of composing.

Figure 3.3. Recursive Model of Process Writing Approach. (Tribble, 1996)



Although the process approach was welcomed with enthusiasm and utilised widely in the 1980s and 1990s, it also encountered serious criticism. Critics of the process approach highlight various drawbacks of the process approach to writing. The main argument against the process approach is that it is not a theory at all but a pedagogy or part of other theories (Berlin & Inkster, 1980; Fulkerson, 1990, all cited in Susser, 1994). Rodriguez (1985) and Horowitz (1986a, b) claim that the process approach does not prepare students for academic expectations. That is, it may not be suitable in preparing students as writers in different disciplines. Another criticism is that the process approach is in conflict with the requirements of academic writing and that it does not take into consideration the final product. For example, Barnes (1983) criticises the process approach because it ignores product, and observes that the process approach leads to “personal narratives and ruminative essays” (p. 138). Reid (1984) also criticises the process approach for its lack of concern with

organisational skills and for its lack of consideration of the effects of contrastive rhetoric.

Rodriguez (1985) criticises the process approach for its lack of emphasis on different aspects of writing. He argues:

The unfettered writing process approach has been just as artificial as the traditional high school research paper. Writing without structure accomplishes as little as writing a mock structure ... [Students] need structure, they need models to practice, they need to improve even mechanical skills, and they still need time to think through their ideas, to revise them, and to write for real audiences and real purposes (pp. 26-27).

Daniel Horowitz (1986b) points out that the process approach has been accepted without any criticism of its drawbacks, and he advises researchers and teachers to be cautious of four points:

Its emphasis on multiple drafts may leave students unprepared for essay examinations; overuse of peer evaluation may leave students with an unrealistic view of their abilities; trying to make over bad writers in the image of good ones may be of questionable efficacy; and the inductive orientation of the process approach is suited only to some writers and some academic tasks (p. 446).

Horowitz (1986b) also claims that “the process approach ... has failed to take into account the many forces outside of an individual writer’s control which define, shape, and ultimately judge a piece of writing” (p. 446).

Process approaches differ from product approaches in many ways. Table 3.1 shows the claimed differences between the two approaches found in the literature.

Table 3.1. Differences Between the Product and Process Approaches (Barritt, 1981; Raimes, 1983; Shih, 1986; Connor, 1987; Killingsworth, 1993; Susser, 1994; Lynch, 1996).

	PROCESS APPROACH	PRODUCT APPROACH
1	Helps student to understand their own composing processes, to build their strategies for prewriting, drafting, rewriting.	The focus is on product
2	The processes leading to the final product are the central focus of instruction.	The product is the central focus of instruction
3	Students are given time to write, rewrite and to discover, and to consider feedback from the teacher and peers.	Students write in a given period. They do not get feedback from the teacher and peers.
4	Is student-centred and student writing is the central course material.	Is teacher-centred, and students write according to model texts.
5	No strict, predetermined syllabus.	Rule governed.
6	Revision is important	Minimum revision.
7	Awareness and intervention stressed. Teachers intervene throughout the composing process, therefore, problems are treated as they emerge, making writing task interactive.	No teacher intervention during the writing process. Teachers react to the final product.
8	Individual conferences/class workshops held on the problems with the writing.	Focus on formal correctness
9	Focus on writing processes.	Focus on final written text.
10	Teaches strategies for invention and discovery.	Focus on structure
11	Considers audience, purpose and context.	Focus on form
12	Emphasises recursiveness of discourse.	Emphasise linearity.
13	Is concerned with the production and comprehension of texts. Correct grammar, spelling, vocabulary, and punctuation come the latest.	Focus is on the acquisition of correct grammar, spelling, vocabulary and punctuation.
14	Emphasises superstructures of text over a linear representation of sentences.	Emphasis is on intersentential logic
15	Stresses that what is first written is not the finished product but just a beginning.	Students first writing is the final product.
16	Stresses that what is first written need not be perfect right away.	Intends to lead to the composition of correct texts.
17	The first draft is not corrected or graded. The reader responds to the ideas expressed.	Extensive error correction.
18	Students do not write on a given topic. Instead, students explore a topic through writing.	The topic is important
19	Goal is important — going about it the right way	Goal is important — getting it right
20	Final text is not important in the beginning of writing. The processes of writer to the goal are important.	Final text is important since there is no chance to edit and revise it.
21	Teachers are as facilitators.	Teachers have an authoritarian role.

However, although it has been claimed that the process approach differs in many ways from the product approach, the distinction between the two have been claimed to be false and controversial (Odell, 1983, cited in Witte & Cherry, 1986; Harris, 1986, cited in Killingsworth, 1993). Parallel to the discussions on the product and process models of writing in the 1970s, another approach attracted the attention of many researchers, and has been the focus of considerable debate: the genre approach.

3.7. The Genre Approach

The term genre has traditionally been used to refer to different literary forms and is associated exclusively with written genres. However, the term has recently gained acceptance outside literature, especially in film and cultural media. For example, 'film noir', 'western', 'spaghetti western', and 'sci-fi' are seen as new genre forms (Gee, 1997). Genre represents "a distinctive category of discourse of any type, spoken or written..." (Swales, 1990, cited in Gee, 1997: p.26). According to Tribble (1996), the term genre is often used to describe different types of literature, e.g., lyric, tragedy, novel, or different types of film etc. Recently, educationalists used the term to refer to language use for particular purposes in particular social contexts. Thus, genre refers to different types of social activity achieved through different texts—spoken or written—that are associated with them (Tribble 1996).

The genre approach to the teaching of writing was developed in Australia in the 1970s and has gained wide acceptance (Barrs, 1994; Gee, 1997). Martin & Christie (1984, cited in Gee, 1997) Martin & Rothery (1980, 1981, 1986 cited in Gee, 1997) initiated the work on genre on the premise that equality for all would be achieved through literacy. According to these researchers, the curriculum established

by the system excluded some sections of Australian society not only from education but also from power. Such injustices motivated them to develop an alternative approach to the teaching of literacy, a genre-based approach (Gee, 1997). Among the proponents of genre theory are Kress (1982, 1993), Kay (1994, 1998), Martin (1985), Cope and Kalantzis (1993), Dudley-Evans (1987, 1998).

The process approach represents a reaction against the product approach while the genre approach represents a reaction to both the so-called current-traditional (product), and progressivist curriculum (process approach) (Johnson, 1994). The reason for rejecting the traditional curriculum was that it stressed the literary rules and grammar, which was no longer adequate in the 1970s. On the other hand, the progressivist curriculum was rejected by the genre school mainly because it did not provide the expected improvement in the writing standards of parts of Australian society. Therefore, the genre approach had an ideological basis, the main concern of its proponents being to introduce equality in education and to give equal opportunity to everyone through the teaching of writing. The teaching of writing was based on a selection of relevant genres as practised in mainstream education. This required a move away from a preoccupation with narrative/expressive writing and gave recognition to factual writing. The concern of the genre school was that factual genres should be given recognition but also that it should be recognised that narrative/expressive or 'creative' and factual genres serve different functions in society. Thus, their primary aim was to move away from what they perceived to be the hidden curriculum and to create a place for factual genres on the curriculum. In Martin's (1985, cited in Gee, 1997) view, writing was not taught and his aim was to address the situation by developing a model of writing that was to be available to all

(Gee, 1997). These linguists took up Halliday's slogan of 'learning language, learning through language, learning about language'. Therefore, the genre approach is based theoretically on the systemic-functional model of linguistics developed by Halliday (Gee, 1997; Barrs, 1994). Genre theory emphasises the differences between speaking and writing rather than the continuities (Barrs, 1994).

However, there are other bases for the emergence of genre theory. According to genre theorists, process approaches failed "to portray the nature of language use" (Martin et al 1994, cited in Johnson, 1994), and created "a false impression of the nature of writing in higher education" (Horowitz, 1986a, cited in Johnson, 1994). Another objection that genre theorists have with the process approach is its assumption that language development is a naturally occurring process (Johnson, 1994).

There are two genre traditions: Australian and Swalesian (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998) which evolved independently of each other (Freedman & Medway, 1994). The pedagogical focus of the Swalesian tradition is at the tertiary level and beyond while the pedagogical focus of Australian tradition is on schoolchildren. Most discussions of genre are based on the definitions of Martin (1984, cited in Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998) and Swales (1990, cited in Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998). The aim of Swalesian tradition is "to enable students to produce the genres required in their academic and professional study" while the aim of the Australian tradition is "to provide equal access to the genres needed to function fully in the society" (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998, p. 310). In both traditions, the emphasis is always on "involving students in the process of composing a text of a particular genre, not simply on text as product" (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998, p. 310).

Swales (1990) describes genre as:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style” (p. 58).

Cope & Kalantzis (1993) define genre as “a type or kind of text, defined in terms of its social purpose; also the level of context dealing with social purpose” (p. 250).

According to Barrs (1994), ‘Genre’ is a useful label for different kinds of writing that has different functions in written discourse and in society. Barrs maintains that the definition of genre has gradually been extended to mean ‘a purposeful staged cultural activity’ and ‘texts’ to include all forms of language use. For example, if one is writing a report for an investigation, the genre in which one is writing will effect various aspects of the text such as the vocabulary and the layout of the text.

According to Kress (1993), the aims of genre theory are

to bring different [*language*]conventions into focus, show what kind of social situations produce them, and what the meanings of those social situations are. At the same time genre theory aims at creating a sufficient understanding of grammar as a dynamic resource for making meaning, to enable teachers to understand their students’ texts, as well as the texts which they would wish their students to be able to produce (p.24) (*italics added*).

In the beginning, the term genre represented a different approach to the teaching of writing. However, today genre represents an approach to the teaching of speaking and writing. Nunan (1991) argues:

Within functional linguistics, the concept of genre has been proposed as a useful one for helping us to understand the nature of language in use ... Language exists to fulfil certain functions and ... these functions will determine the shape of the text which emerge as people communicate with one another. The term genre refers to a purposeful, socially-constructed, communicative event. Most such events result in texts (oral and written)... These are all different text types, which have different communicative functions... Each has its distinctive linguistic characteristics, and its own generic structure (pp. 43-44).

It seems, then, that the main argument of genre is that different situations requires different uses of the language (spoken and written), and these different text types should be taught to learners.

However, despite its wide acceptance, the genre approach has some problems. The main issues with the genre approach appear to be in its application in the classroom and its overemphasis on certain types of texts. Barrs (1994) recognises that the genre theory presents some problems, and over the past few years, there has been a debate in Australia on the application of this theory to the classroom. Barrs argues that

It is disappointing that it is not being developed and used more positively and interestingly by the genre linguists. Like many others in language education, their first response to finding out something important about the way that language works has been to codify their findings, develop rules of use, and advocate the teaching of these rules (p. 257).

According to Johnson (1994), the major drawback of genre theory is that it may create "a genre orthodoxy which predetermines what kind of writing is acceptable or generically sound" (p. 67). On the other hand, Kay & Dudley-Evans (1998) report the reflections of a multicultural group of teachers on the genre approach. Their findings show that the genre approach may be prescriptive rather than descriptive; it may lead students to expect to be told how to write particular types of text; if the genre-base approach is used by inexperienced teachers, it may be restrictive, leading to lack of creativity and demotivation of students; it may become boring if overdone or done incorrectly; it may be a text-centred approach focused on the reproduction of the product rather than a student-centred one; a genre-based approach is connected largely with the teaching of writing, and does not say much about oral fluency,

therefore posing a problem of communicative language teaching. On the positive side, Kay & Dudley-Evans (1998) found that

a genre-based approach is empowering and enabling, allowing students to make sense of the world around them and participate in it, and be more aware of writing as a tool that can be used and manipulated. It enables students to enter a particular discourse community, and discover how writers organise texts; it promotes flexible thinking and ...informed creativity, since students 'need to learn the rules before they can transcend them'... The approach is particularly suitable for learners at beginner or intermediate levels of proficiency in a second language, in that it gives them confidence, and enables them to produce a text that serves its intended purpose. Genre-based approaches can liberate students from their own fears of writing by giving them security and offering them models (p. 310).

Kay & Dudley-Evans' study (1998) also revealed attempts for a possible combination of process approach with a genre-based approach, which was previously discussed by Nunan (1991) and Kay (1994). Such an approach, according to Kay & Dudley-Evans, "would combine knowledge about the genre product with the opportunity to plan, draft, revise, and edit work, as well as provide the opportunity for greater interaction (p. 312). They argue,

The concept of genre provides a way of looking at what students have to do linguistically—what kinds of discourses they have to be able to understand and produce in speech and writing. It also provides us with an understanding of why a discourse is the way it is, through a consideration of its social context and its purpose. Genre would thus seem to be a potentially very powerful pedagogic tool (p. 310).

The main differences between, product and process and genre theories of writing are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Differences Between the Product, Process and Genre Approaches (Source: Cope & Kalantzis (Eds.) 1993, pp. 17-18).

	Product	Process	Genre
1	Traditional curriculum attempts to transmit fixed cultural and linguistic contents through curriculum but fails those who do not find a comfortable home in the culture of schooling.	Progressivist curriculum ... operates with a set of cultural and linguistic presuppositions that are loaded in less explicit ways to favour a certain sort of middle class culture and discourse.	The pedagogy behind genre literacy ... establishes a dialogue between the culture and the discourse of institutionalised schooling, and the cultures and discourses of students.
2	Traditional curriculum sets out to assimilate students, to teach them cultural and linguistic uniformity in the interests of constructs like 'national unity' and 'failing' those who along the way do not meet up to these singular expectations.	Progressivist curriculum values differences but in so doing leaves social relations of inequity fundamentally unquestioned.	Genre literacy ... uses cultural and linguistic difference as a resource for access.
3	Traditional pedagogy tends to draw it towards a textual, classroom and cultural authoritarianism.	The tendency of progressivist theory is to reduce the teacher to the role of facilitator and manager in the name of student-centred learning which relativises all discourses.	Genre literacy sets out to reinstate the teacher as professional, as expert on language whose status in the learning process is authoritative but not authoritarian.
4	Traditional curriculum ... rigidly structures the knowledge it values as universal into dictatorial syllabuses, dogmatic textbooks and didactic teaching practices.	Progressivism ... favours unstructured experience, natural immersion, and an eclectic pastiche of curriculum content.	The pedagogy that underlies genre literacy uses explicit curriculum scaffolds to support both the systematic unfolding of the fundamental structure of a discipline and the recursive patterns that characterise classroom experience.
5	Traditional curriculum ... puts a premium on deductive reasoning by positing received epistemological truths as the point of departure.	Progressivism ... puts a premium on inductive reasoning based on experience.	In the pedagogy of genre literacy, students move backwards and forwards, through alternate processes of induction and deduction, between language and metalanguage, activity and received knowledge, experience and theory.

3.8. Conclusion

In this chapter, we have examined the major approaches to the teaching of English as a second/foreign language and the three major approaches to the teaching of writing.

In light of the descriptions of the approaches, it seems that the communicative approach seems to have the most developed and comprehensive theory of second/foreign language teaching. Its emphasis on language use rather than learning more about grammar, its concern with meaning in communication, its emphasis on appropriacy together with accuracy, its relevance to all skills, its stress on communication beyond the level of sentence makes it an ideal approach to second/foreign language teaching. On the other hand, it rejects the traditional active/passive distinction of the four skills, and assumes that all skills are active and equally important, which ensures a balance in the teaching of the four skills. However, it has a problem with the teaching of grammar.

We have also reviewed three approaches specifically used for the teaching of writing. The product approach was and still is the most common approach to the teaching of writing. We have found from the literature that the product approach is based on pre-defined rules that students have to follow when they write. There is a strict control by teachers over composition. In this approach, the emphasis is on the written product. It involves analysis of words, sentences and paragraphs and classifies the discourse into description, narration, exposition, and argument. It is very much concerned with usage and style. It upholds the notion that writing can be learned through habit-forming, that is, students should imitate model passages before they actually start to write. There is extensive error correction by teachers. Using the

correct form of the language comes before the expression of ideas. Expository writing is the most important type of writing. Invention, which involves finding ideas, is totally neglected. According to its adherents, good writers know what to write before they begin to write, and they believe that the composing process is linear, proceeding from prewriting to writing to rewriting. Success, in this approach, means students' ability to combine the rules in their writing. In the product approach, the only reader is the teacher, and students do a lot of writing to learn to write well.

The process approach grew as a reaction to the perceived limiting and prescriptive nature of the product approach. In the process approach, the focus is on the reader not on the product. It stresses the processes that writers go through during the writing activity. That is, instead of 'what' of writing in the product approach it stresses 'how' of writing. Awareness and intervention are the two important characteristics of this approach. It assumes that students should be aware that writing activity is a process of discovery in which ideas are generated, and that every piece of writing is not necessarily the discovery of ideas. Intervention refers to teachers' involvement in the writing activity, during which teachers give feedback to students, react to what students write but not correct mistakes. The process approach assumes that writing consists of stages and writers go back and forth to check what they have written. Unlike the product approach, the process approach gives students time to find a topic and to write on it. The first draft of writing is not the final product. Teachers give feedback to student writing, and students have the opportunity to revise what they have written before they finalised it.

Although the process approach was seen as a fresh start to the teaching of writing, the literature would appear to indicate that it has not proved to be entirely

adequate for the teaching of writing. It has been claimed that the process approach is not suitable in higher education context. One of the main drawbacks of the process approach is that it considers all the writers as the same (e.g. Reid, 1984; Horowitz, 1986a, b). That is, it does not take into account student diversity.

The product approach emphasises rules while process models place more emphasis on such considerations as discovery and invention. On the other hand, the genre approach brings a much wider scope to the teaching of writing incorporating different areas in which language can be used—spoken or written. It allows students to understand the world around them and participate in it; it may make students more aware of writing as a tool that can be used and manipulated; it enables students to enter a particular discourse community; it is suitable for learners at beginner or intermediate levels in a second language, and can give students confidence in writing by giving them models (Kay & Dudley-Evans, (1998). However, like product and the process approaches, genre theory also has some problems that are mainly concerned with its classroom applications and its overemphasis on some texts (Barrs, 1994; Johnson, 1994). Other criticisms are that it may be prescriptive rather than descriptive, may be a text-centred approach rather than a student-centred one, is connected to a great extent with the teaching of writing at the neglect of speaking.

CHAPTER 4

THE ASSESSMENT OF LANGUAGE

4.1. Introduction

The main aim of this study is to profile Turkish ELT students' level of competence in speaking and writing in English. In order to profile students' levels of competence, we need to use some sort of methods of/approaches to assessment.

Although assessment is one of the main topics for debate in education in the world, there appears to be little research into the assessment of language and literacy in ELT departments in Turkish higher education. Students' literacy levels in various aspects of the English language, therefore, remain largely unknown to both the instructors and researchers. Given the lack of research into the assessment of different aspects of the English language instruction, this study attempts to explore the methods/approaches used in the assessment of students' levels of competence in different aspects of the English language in ELT departments. In parallel with the main aim, therefore, a second aim of this study is to find out the methods/approaches used in the assessment of students' levels of competence in ELT departments in Turkey.

Talking about assessment requires an understanding of the approaches that are currently used in the assessment of students level of competence in second/foreign language instruction. Therefore, this chapter reviews some of the literature on assessment in education in order to find out about the practices and developments in assessment in the world, and compare them with the ones used in ELT departments in Turkey. This chapter starts with a discussion on the perceptions of assessment and related terms, and then, it discusses briefly various approaches to

the assessment of students' language and literacy in the second/foreign language.

4.2. Assessment

Assessment in education has been the subject of discussion over the past three decades. "Central to any consideration of educational provision are issues concerned with the assessment, recording and reporting of student learning outcomes" (Rowe & Hill, 1996: p. 309). It has a crucial role in any educational system (Lloyd-Jones, *et al.* 1986; Murphy & Torrance, 1990; Somervell, 1993; Broadfoot, 1994, 1996a, b; Rowe & Hill, 1996; Freeman & Lewis, 1998).

In order to know about students' needs, the extent of student learning and their abilities, the quality of teaching, and to gather data to improve the educational system, assessment is essential. It could be argued that if the effects of teaching are not measured, then it would be difficult to know whether the aims of teaching are achieved. In other words, assessment gives us the opportunity to see whether the aims of teaching are fulfilled. Without assessment, teachers and students will never know how far they have achieved the course objectives (Lloyd-Jones, Bray, Johnson & Currie, 1986).

It is also necessary to gain an understanding of what is meant by different terminology in the field of assessment. Therefore, before we proceed further, it would be useful here to clarify what we mean by looking at the debate around assessment and related terms.

4.3. Definitions: Testing, Measurement, Assessment, and Evaluation

Discussions on assessment in education in the past three decades have generated some definitional confusion in terms of what is meant by testing,

measurement, assessment and evaluation (Rowntree, 1987; Bell, 1990; Griffin & Nix, 1991; Fitzgerald 1991; Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1992; Hancock, 1994; Nitko, 1996). Sometimes assessment and evaluation are used synonymously, and sometimes testing and assessment are used synonymously. Confusion in terms of assessment and evaluation, According to Rowntree (1987), is caused by different understandings of the terms in the USA and in the UK. In education in the UK, assessment and evaluation represent two different but closely related activities. Assessment is used to “discover what the student is becoming or has accomplished” (p.7) while evaluation is used “to do the same for a course or learning experience or episode of teaching” (p.7). In the USA, evaluation is used to refer to both contexts.

According to Griffin & Nix (1991), testing refers to “any procedure for determining the worth of a person’s effort ... Any assessment that is conducted in a formal setting with specified procedures and provides comparability (not necessarily with other students) is a test.” Measurement refers to “the classification of observations of student performance, or behaviour, using set procedures.” Assessment is “a general term encompassing all methods ... used to appraise the performance of an individual pupil or group. It may refer to a broad appraisal including many sources of evidence and many aspects of a pupils knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes; or to a particular occasion or instrument”. Evaluation refers to “making judgements of worth. The assessment process provides the information on which judgements of worth are based (pp. 3-5).

According to Hancock (1994), tests are widely used by teachers to make judgements about the level of student learning. They measure variance in different kinds of performances. In this sense, testing – typically achievement testing – serves

as a tool to observe student learning. On the other hand, assessment is an ongoing process in which student learning is monitored and decisions about the level of student performance are made. Hancock concludes: “assessment, then, should be viewed as an interactive process that engages both teacher and student in monitoring the student’s performance” (through the Internet, no page numbers).

According to Nitko (1996),

Assessment is a ... process for obtaining information that is used for making decisions about students, curricula and programs, and educational policy (p. 4). A test is a concept narrower than assessment. It is ... an instrument or systematic procedure for observing and describing one or more characteristics of a student using either a numerical scale or a classification scheme (p. 6). Measurement is defined as a procedure for assigning numbers (scores) to a specified attribute or characteristic of a person in such a way that the numbers describe the degree to which the person possesses the attribute (p. 8). Assessment is a broader term than test or measurement because not all types of assessments yield measurements (p.8). Evaluation is ... the process of making a value judgement about the worth of a student’s product or performance ... Evaluations are the bases for decisions about what course of action should be followed. Evaluation may or may not be based on measurements or test results ... Not all evaluations are of individual students. You also can evaluate a textbook, a set of instructional materials, an instructional procedure, a curriculum, or an educational program. (p. 8).

In line with the descriptions above, we will use the term assessment in this study to mean all methods and procedures used to monitor student learning and to obtain information that is used to make decisions about students, curricula and programmes, and educational policy. Because tests and examinations are the main tools for assessment, we will be dealing with the test and examination scheme in the ELT departments. We will try to find out the kind of tests and exams – norm-referenced or criterion-referenced, formative or summative, formal or informal – and whether they are used in line with the objectives of the tests used.

4.4. Purposes of assessment

Freeman & Lewis (1998) identified five purposes of assessment: “to select, to certify, to describe, to aid learning, and to improve teaching” (p. 10). Selection refers to choosing students for a further course or for employment. In this sense, assessment is used to predict which students need further study or how individuals might perform in employment. Selection can help the learner make a choice between options. In this way, selection comes closer to the purpose of aiding learning. Selection has been linked to the ranking of students and therefore associated with norm-referenced assessment (to be discussed in the next section). In this sense, assessment rank orders students in terms of their achievement.

Certification refers to the function of confirming that a student has reached a particular standard. In this sense, assessment certifies that a particular level has been achieved. Description refers to what is known as ‘profile’. A profile is a statement which shows the outcome of assessment. It describes in detail what a student has learned or can do.

The fourth and fifth purposes are very closely related to our study. Assessment aids learning in that it motivates students, gives them practice so that they can see how well they are learning, after the practice with feedback helps students diagnose their strengths and weaknesses, provides information which helps students for future planning, and helps students and others to monitor progress.

Assessment also improves teaching. Earlier in this chapter, we argued that assessment data can be used for evaluation purposes. Therefore, assessment information can be used to see the effectiveness of the teaching and to make necessary modifications. In this study, we are especially interested in assessment for

aiding learning, and for improving teaching.

Freeman & Lewis (1998) state that discussions on the purposes of assessment “tend to polarise between assessment for selection and certification, and assessment for learning” (p. 12), and “these are linked to the two main types of assessment, which are norm- and criterion referenced (p. 15).

4.5. Types of Assessment

A variety of assessment methods have been used throughout the world to assess student learning and competencies. Norm-referencing and criterion-referencing have been the most commonly used methods in assessing students’ level of competence.

4.5.1. Norm-referenced and Criterion-referenced Assessment

One commonly used method of assessment is known as norm-referenced assessment (NRA). Norm-referenced assessment is used to rank order students in terms of their achievement by assessing the performance of students relative to other students. That is, it is used to discover how much each student has learned from a course. The aim of this type of assessment is to discriminate between students by comparing them with one another. In norm-referenced assessment, a level is fixed as the norm, which means that some students will be above the norm and some below the norm. In this sense, it is discriminating. Depending on students’ performance in a particular year, NRA may also have a cut-off point between competent and not competent performance. That is, students do not know in advance the targets that they have to achieve. NRA is mainly used for selection. However, it is used for purposes other than selection, which is the main disadvantage of NRA. In NRA, it is

claimed that students are assessed against a standard. However, NRA does not have a pre-defined standard. When NRA is used in this way, the results are usually as a global mark or grade which does not say much about what a student knows or can do. (Freeman & Lewis, 1998).

Another commonly used method is known as criterion-referenced assessment (CRA). Criterion-referenced assessment was first mentioned in a 1963 article by Glaser (Berk, 1980; Wood, 1990; Farr & Beck, 1991; Gipps, 1994). It did not attract attention until 1969. After Popham & Husek's (1969, cited in Berk, 1980 and Farr & Beck, 1991) article, an explosion of interest in CRA followed. With the publication of this article, discussions questioned the efficacy of traditional methods of assessment, and research on CRA methods grew rapidly. CRA has been widely used in the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s.

Unlike NRA, CRA measures students' performances against an explicit, previously determined standard. It is used to discover how many students have achieved a certain level of competence, or whether a student has performed a given task. Unlike NRA, all students may be successful in CRA as long as they meet the standards. It is used mainly for guidance and diagnosis by saying what students have achieved and have yet to achieve. In this sense, CRA is more informative than NRA, providing specific information on what students can do. The advantage of CRA is that with clearly defined criteria, it is hard to misuse it in the way that one can misuse NRA. If the criteria are not good, then it is easy to implement CRA badly. In CRA, students know in advance the targets that they have to achieve (Freeman & Lewis, 1998).

Although NRA and CRA are considered different, the distinction between the

two is not clear. CRA data can be used, for example, for NRA purposes. The only distinction between NRA and CRA is that in CRA, students know in advance what targets they must achieve (Christofi, 1985; Gipps, 1994; Freeman & Lewis, 1998).

4.5.2. Modes and Sources of Assessment

Depending on the purpose and target group for the assessment, there are different modes of, or approaches to, assessment. Some of these are formal and informal assessment, formative and summative assessment, and continuous and final assessment (Freeman & Lewis, 1998).

Formal assessment includes examinations, tests, and presentations. They can be useful for ensuring that the work being assessed is student's own. The results of formal assessments are recorded and used as pass, fail or credit. Informal assessment takes place casually without planning or may be pre-planned but results may not be recorded. One benefit of informal assessment is that it is closer to our assessments of our everyday life. (Freeman & Lewis, 1998).

Formative assessment mainly provides feedback to students so that they can improve their work, and to teachers for future planning. Formative feedback should be given to students soon after the completion of test or homework and students should be given time to reflect on the feedback. Formative assessment is made during a course. It is diagnostic in nature and uncovers students' strengths and weaknesses. Formative assessment also gives teachers information on which students are having difficulty. The audience of formative assessment is students and teachers. Formative assessment is mainly concerned with the difficulties students are having, when the difficulties occur, the reasons for the difficulties, and how the difficulties can be overcome. Summative assessment, on the other hand, is done at the end of a

part of a programme or at the end of a programme. It is used to make a final judgement, confirming that a student has achieved a certain standard or passed a specific part of a programme. The audience of summative assessment is wider, and therefore it is brief and lacks detail. They can be formative, if they are detailed enough for students (Freeman & Lewis, 1998).

Continuous assessment takes place throughout a course of study. It is preferred because it enables teachers to take a wider sample of student behaviour under different conditions. Continuous assessment also helps teachers pace students which ensure that they keep up with the work. Continuous assessment works better on longer courses. Final assessment takes place at the end of a course of study. It may be an opportunity for teachers to assess together various skills previously assessed separately. It need not be in the form of traditional examination. It may involve a presentation, a performance, or the submission of a portfolio (Freeman & Lewis, 1998).

Freeman & Lewis's (1998) 'sources of assessment' involve self-assessment, peer assessment, and collaborative assessment. According to Freeman & Lewis, 'source' of assessment refers to the person who is responsible for carrying it out. The main sources of assessment are the students themselves, their peers, and tutors and others within the learning environment. These types of assessment are the outcomes of reform movement in assessment.

4.5.2.1. Self-Assessment, Peer Assessment, and Collaborative Assessment

The traditional assessment methods in higher education had been subject to serious criticism because of their limitations in assessing students' competencies. The 1970s are considered to be the onset of the arguments about the efficacy of the

traditional assessment methods. The questioning of the then-current methods of assessment in higher education resulted in some new approaches which gained acceptance in some educational systems in the world. In these new approaches, students are seen part of the assessment procedure. The rationale for these approaches is that current assessment methods may not always be suitable in assessing students, and there are issues relating to who should assess. These new approaches are self-assessment, peer-assessment, and collaborative assessment (Boud, 1990; Somervell, 1993; Brown & Knight, 1994; Oldfield & Macalpine, 1995).

In self-assessment, students are involved in the assessment of their own work. A rationale behind self-assessment is that “students learn best when they consider assessment to be linked to real life, when the assessment requirements are realistic and achievable and when students can see some relevance in what they are doing” (Ramsden, 1992 cited in Hinett & Thomas, 1999; Martin et al., 1984 cited in Hinett & Thomas, 1999: p. 11). Another rationale is that students will be able to practise self-evaluation in all areas of their lives after graduation, and their involvement in the assessment of their own work during their education will extend their assessment abilities and prepare them for life.

In peer-assessment, students are assessed by their peers after a group work. In this type of assessment, assessment criteria are provided by teachers (Brown & Knight, 1994). Peer-assessment is seen as part of the self-assessment process and “serves to inform self-assessment” (Boud, 1986: p. 22).

In collaborative assessment, students and tutors meet to determine the criteria for assessment. By so doing, students and tutors clarify the objectives and

standards of assessment.

Falchikov (1986) and Oldfield & Macalpine (1995) have measured university students' competence in self- and peer assessment by asking them to assess themselves and their peers. The authors found that student assessments were acceptably accurate when compared with those of tutors'. However, a common objection to self-assessment is that it lacks objectivity. It is claimed that when students are competing with each other and marks are important, they tend to over-estimate. In such cases, self-assessment cannot be considered accurate, and thus are unreliable. But peer-assessment or a combination of peer- and self-assessment may be more reliable (Bowen, 1988). On the other hand, Hinett & Thomas (1999) argue that self-assessment poses some problems for academics and external stakeholders in terms of accountability, ethical considerations of disclosure, quality, and standards. That learners not only define their own criteria but also assess their own work by that criteria creates another problem with reliability. According to Hinett & Thomas (1999), "self-assessment is not a remedy for the ills of higher education. Introducing self-assessment into programmes takes time, commitment and resources, and the benefits of such an approach are not always immediately recognisable" (p. 10).

4.6. Profiles and Scales

One use of criterion-referenced assessment has been in the development of profiles. Discussions about the inadequacies of the traditional methods of assessment resulted in some reforms in assessment. Parallel to these reforms came the development of profiling as a new approach to assessment (Rowe & Hill, 1996). Profiles are used mainly in the primary and secondary education for purposes of recording, reporting and monitoring students' educational progress. Because profiles

are commonly used in primary and secondary education, they are not described here in detail. However, we will provide a short description of profiles here.

According to Broadfoot (1987), the aim of profiling is to divide assessment into its main elements. She describes profiling as follows:

A profile is an outline or representation of separate elements and levels which usually includes information on skills, behaviours, traits or attitudes. Typically profiles are a form of teacher-based report designed to be applicable to all pupils' many different skills, characteristics and achievements across the whole range of the curriculum, both formal and informal; to provide ... a basis for continuing in-school teaching and guidance and culminating in a relevant and useful school-leaving report for all pupils (p. 12).

Rowe and Hill (1996) describe a profile as a “shared framework of empirically calibrated descriptive performance indicators, located on a developmental growth continuum (or scale), designed to assist teachers, schools, and systems with the process of assessing, recording, reporting and monitoring students' educational progress” (p.318). Profiling itself is not an assessment method, but a tool which helps assessment (Broadfoot, 1987; Rowe & Hill, 1996).

A profile consists of three essential elements for a given subject of the curriculum: areas of knowledge and skills; aspects within which students are to be assessed, recorded and reported on; levels of achievement and competency which describe and illustrate both achievement and developing competence (Rowe & Hill, 1996). Figure 4.1 shows a profile used in primary/secondary education with the integration of the three essential elements.

Figure 4.1. A student Profile (source: Rowe & Hill, 1996, p. 319)

AREA : Language and communication ASPECT : Writing		
Individual Student Profile		
	Levels Example indicators of criterion competencies	
Developing Developed	10	Adapts well to the demands of scientific and academic writing
	9	Is a skilled writer, able to produce text in a variety of forms for a variety of purposes
	8	Is analytical in developing arguments and precise in providing descriptions
	7	Can describe something well and tell a story skilfully. Edits to improve writing
	6	Is able to plan, organise, and polish own writing. Writes convincingly
	5	Can write in paragraphs using vocabulary and grammar suited to the topic
	4	Is able to write own 'stories'. Changes words and spelling to improve result
	3	Is able to say something in writing, in sentence form
	2	Is learning about handwriting. Writes own name and single words
	1	Is curious about print and is beginning to find out what it means

According to Latham (1997), profiles have also been used by colleges of further and higher education. The process of profiling in further and higher education follows a similar structure to that in schools. Based on the criterion-referenced assessment methods, profiles have gained wide acceptance throughout the world. Many countries such as the USA, UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand have incorporated profiles into their education systems for the assessment of student achievement in schools.

Based on criterion referencing, another widely used assessment system is scales. They have levels ranging from 1-5 to 1-10. Each level has some descriptors. Scales are closely related to profiles, and are known variously as band scores, band scales, profile bands, proficiency levels, proficiency scales, proficiency ratings, and rating scales (Alderson, 1991).

Scales serve different purposes in assessing language proficiency. Alderson (1991) has identified three purposes of scales and descriptors. The first purpose is to describe the levels of performance. The descriptors of each level explain what that level means. These descriptors are used by test users to interpret the test results. This purpose has a reporting function. The second purpose of scales and descriptors is to guide assessors or raters during student performance. The rating scale is standard for different raters, which aims to ensure reliability and validity. This purpose of the scales functions as a guide in the rating process. The third purpose of scales and descriptors is to provide guidelines for test constructors. This purpose functions as a guide in the construction of tests at suitable levels. One important point here is that the descriptors of each level on the scale should reflect the content of the test (Alderson, 1991).

Scales are closely related to profiles. However, there is an important difference between the two in terms of the aims that they serve. Profiles are usually used to find out student achievements across a variety of skills while scales are usually used to find out students competence in the language. Profiles are used mainly for reporting purposes. They are reports of student achievement to students, parents, and employers about what the student can do; they may show achievements of a student, of a school or of a district; they may be used to assess students, schools, and districts. On the other hand, scales are primarily used to assess students' level of competence, though they may also have a reporting function. The descriptors of a scale vary according to the subject assessed, therefore, descriptors are mainly for test users to interpret the test results (with a reporting function). A scale guides assessors/raters during student performance. Scales may be used as guidelines for

test constructors. Descriptors of a scale are suitable to the aims of the test (Alderson, 1991).

In order to be able to talk about the outcomes of an educational system, reliable information about the outcomes of instruction in that system is needed. As stated above, standardised tests and examinations have been criticised on the premise that they do not show students' actual levels of competence. Therefore, data obtained through these tests are not considered reliable. This inevitably raises questions as to whether these data can be used to evaluate the outcomes of instruction. One attempt to obtain reliable data to be used to draw reliable conclusions about the outcomes of an educational system is the incorporation of profiles and scales into the assessment system. As stated earlier, profiling provides information about the outcomes of education, students, and the whole system, and therefore, it has had wide acceptance over the past two decades. Another attempt to provide as accurate information about students as possible is the use of scales. Scales have been used commonly in the 1980s and 1990s.

4.6.1 Countrywide Profiling Systems

One example of countrywide profiling system is the National Reporting System (NRS) of Australia. Based on criterion referencing, the NRS is an outcomes-based model of assessment and is mainly used for two purposes: reporting the outcomes of adult English language, literacy and numeracy education, and assessing students' competence in terms of using four skills in six areas of language use. An outcomes-based model reports the level or progress or characteristics of students at the end of an educational programme based on teacher observations and records of the students during their education. The NRS is a long-term assessment system

which assesses adults' literacy competencies in language use and numeracy in different domains. The NRS has been the outcome of the assumption that

language, literacy and numeracy developments in adults is a complex matter, and simple tools used in the past for initial and on-going assessment have either been limited in their reliability or have been extended beyond their intended functions and capabilities by current vocational education and training needs in changed social and economic circumstances (the NRS: p.1).

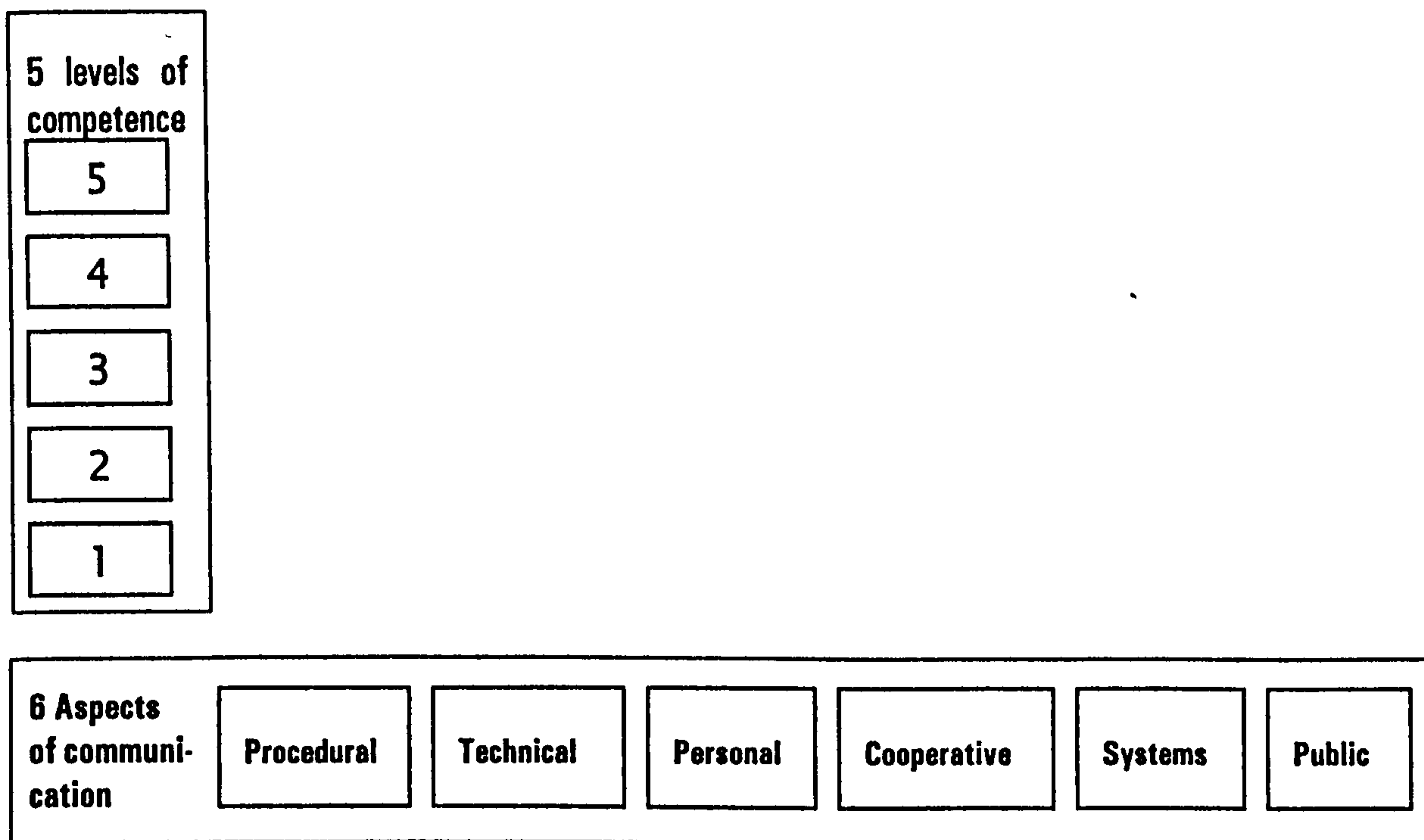
Out of this assumption emerged "a mechanism for reporting the outcomes of adult English language, literacy and numeracy provision, in the vocational education and training system, in labour market programs and in the adult, community education sector" (the NRS: p.1).

The NRS consists of one vertical and one horizontal dimension (Figure 4.2). The vertical dimension consists of five levels of competence. Each level has some indicators of competence. "The indicators of competence... form the basis for reporting using the NRS. They comprise statements about achievement in terms of reading, writing, oral communication, numeracy and learning processes" (p.8). The horizontal dimension consists of six different areas of communication. The six areas of communication are the six areas or domains in which language can be used for different social activities involving reading, writing, speaking, listening, and/or numeracy. An overview of the NRS is shown in Appendix A, and the descriptions of the six areas are shown in Appendix B

The NRS has two important characteristics. The first is that because of its scope it is multidimensional. It assesses students' literacy competencies in using the four basic skills, learning strategies and numeracy in six different areas or domains or social situations in which students may engage. The NRS conceives of social activities in terms of six interrelated aspects which provide a means of description of

the different social activities including reading, writing, speaking, listening and/or numeracy. This implies that in an educational programme where the NRS is used, students will develop the language and numeracy skills that will enable them to use the language effectively in these domains. This may eliminate the problem of a curriculum that develops students' competence in limited areas. From this perspective, the NRS has a wide scope and it improves students' capability in using the language in different skills for a variety of purposes.

Figure 4.2. The National Reporting System.



The second characteristic of the NRS is that it addresses not only educational institutions but also a variety of institutions outside the educational domain – the reporting function of the NRS. In order to address such a variety of institutions, feedback was also obtained from institutions outside the educational domain in establishing the principles of the NRS. Among the users of the NRS are students, curriculum developers, and programme providers.

The NRS defines competence in terms of five levels. Each level has a varying number of descriptors. These descriptors are used as reporting information. Skills are represented as reading, writing, oral communication, learning strategies, and numeracy. Oral communication comprises listening and speaking. At each level, each skill has two to three descriptors used for reporting purposes. In addition, for each domain the NRS has descriptors in terms of the four skills and numeracy. The skills in each domain are grouped as reading and writing (graphic/written), and listening and speaking (oral/spoken). These descriptors are more detailed than the descriptors for reporting and define competence in terms of the related area. An NRS report is based on five levels of competence, five skill areas and six aspects of communication. The criteria for reporting and the criteria for assessing the skills in the six areas are shown in Appendix C. Because the numeracy aspect of the NRS is not dealt with in this study, the criteria for numeracy are not included in Appendix C.

Griffin (1996) describes the theoretical basis of the NRS:

The NRS does not refer to any one theoretical or empirically driven model. "It has been designed to be inclusive of the range of theories, philosophies, and curriculum approaches currently in practice. These include activity theory, genre theory and systemic functional linguistics, critical linguistics, critical literacy pedagogy and theories of task and text complexity, adult learning, constructivism, critical constructivism, second language acquisition and assessment" (Coates 1995). Surprisingly, the NRS seems to be supported by the leading proponents of all these theories, ideologies, and paradigms (p. 18).

The NRS was first published in 1995. Following the publication, it received some criticism because of its shortages such as its complexity, its heavily theoretical nature, the possibility of its multiple interpretation, its lack of concise directions in terms of its use, and the lack of empirical data in terms of its implementation (Coates, 1995; McKenna, 1996; Griffin, 1996). On the other hand, Krajcer (no date) claims that "the NRS is a common language for teachers and literacy providers only.

It is extremely difficult for students to understand, as it has no everyday common-sense meaning to them” (p. 8). The NRS has been tested, re-examined, and reflected on in all states and territories in Australia. Based on the feedback from these studies, necessary modifications have been made and it has been in country-wide use since 1997.

4.6.2. The English Speaking Union (ESU) Scale

Another assessment system is called the ESU Framework, developed by Carroll & West (1989) for the English Speaking Union (ESU). Based on criterion referencing, the ESU framework is an attempt to standardise different types of marking systems employed by different examination boards in the UK in determining the EFL students’ levels of competence. The ESU framework consists of twenty-two scales or yardsticks or profiles which aim to assess students’ levels of competence in different skills of the English language. Each scale or profile has nine levels (Figure 4.3), and each level has clear and detailed criteria or descriptors (Appendix D). The detailed criteria make it easy for assessors to place a student at a suitable level.

Figure 4.3. The Nine Levels of the ESU Framework

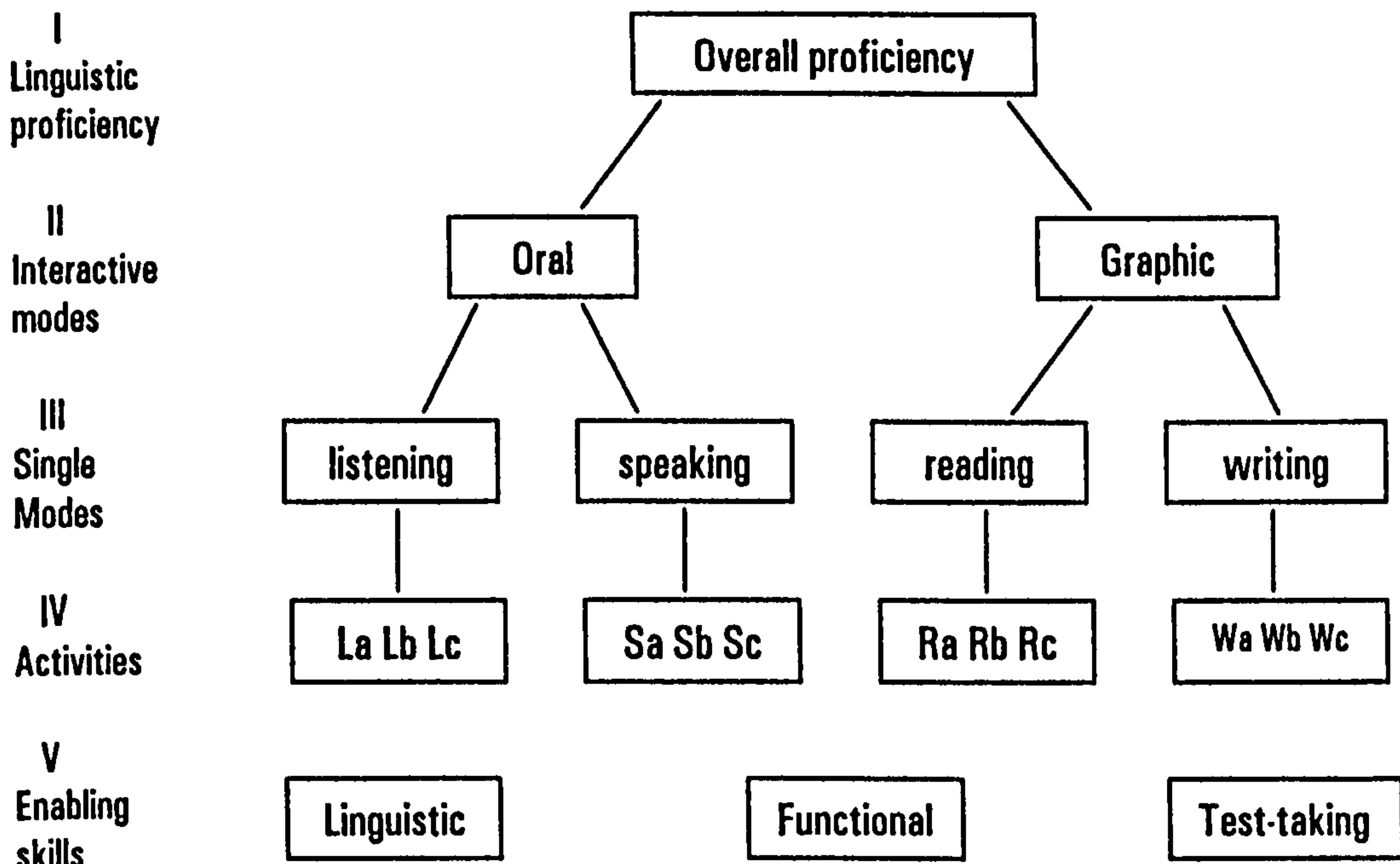
9	<u>Maximum performance</u>
8	
7	
6	
5	
4	
3	
2	
1	<u>Minimum performance</u>

Level 1 in the ESU scales represents 'extremely limited command' of the language, while Level 9 represents 'fully competent command' of the language. Carroll & West (1989) state that they decided on nine levels because they found that this number was sufficient to cover the whole language performance on the premise that language learning was often thought to have three stages: elementary, intermediate, and advanced. Performance in each stage can be classified as being at, below, or above each of these levels. Out of this assumption, they determined nine levels in all.

Carroll & West (1989) further state that there are different types of language proficiency examinations. Some of these are indirect tests that focus on translation, general usage or grammar and style. Others are direct tests that do not deal with these aspects but focus on real-life tasks, e.g., telephone conversation, writing business letters, taking part in meetings. However, there is a range of examinations between these two types that use both direct and indirect types of examinations. Therefore, it became necessary to devise a model to describe this range of test types. This model, which is called the ESU Framework, has five stages in an increasing order of detail (Figure 4.4).

The five stages in Figure 4.4 consist of twenty-two skills. Each skill has a set of criteria (Appendix D) in terms of nine levels. According to Carroll & West (1989), the twenty-two profiles "can be used not only for assessment purposes but also for defining learners' needs, textbook design and language programmes" (p.20). This aspect of the ESU framework is a characteristic of profiles. That is, the ESU framework can also be used for the purposes for which profiles are used. In a way, the ESU framework is a profile since it may show the extent of student learning and of the effectiveness of the language programme.

Figure 4.4. The Five-Stage ESU Model



By using direct tests or indirect tests or a mixture of both, overall language proficiency at Stage I intends to evaluate broadly the candidate's overall proficiency in using the language without making a distinction between skills. Stage II is a broad separation of overall language proficiency into spoken and written communication. The descriptors are more specific than at Level I. Stage III is the stage at which the broad separation at Stage II is divided into four basic skills. At this stage, the descriptors are more specific than the previous stage. Stage IV includes activities in the four skills which consist of different real life tasks. At the previous stages, the number of yardsticks or scales is limited while at this stage the number may be unlimited. At this point, more yardsticks or scales may be created if needed. The descriptors in the scales to be created will reflect the demands of the skills for which new scales are to be created. Stage V incorporates three important skills which underlie one's achievement in real life. Linguistic skills include grammatical and

lexical skills; functional skills include carrying out inter-personal and conceptual activities; and test-taking or examination skills are required to respond appropriately to the demands of examinations (Carroll & West, 1989).

The twenty-two scales in Table 4.1 consist of the skills at five stages in Figure 4.4. (The descriptors for each skill in Table 4.1 are given in Appendix D).

Table 4.1. The Twenty-Two Skills in Terms of Five Stages.

1	Stage I	Overall language proficiency
2	Stage II	Oral proficiency
3	Stage II	Graphic proficiency
4	Stage III	Listening
5	Stage III	Speaking
6	Stage III	Reading
7	Stage III	Writing
8	Stage IV	Listening for social and personal purposes
9	Stage IV	Listening for business purposes
10	Stage IV	Listening for study/training purposes
11	Stage IV	Speaking for social and personal purposes
12	Stage IV	Speaking for business purposes
13	Stage IV	Speaking for study/training purposes
14	Stage IV	Reading for social and personal purposes
15	Stage IV	Reading for business purposes
16	Stage IV	Reading for study/training purposes
17	Stage IV	Writing for social and personal purposes
18	Stage IV	Writing for business purposes
19	Stage IV	Writing for study/training purposes
20	Stage V	Linguistic skills
21	Stage V	Functional skills
22	Stage V	Examination skills

Both the NRS and the ESU have important design implications for this study.

In Chapter 6, the two frameworks are returned to for further discussion.

4.7. Conclusion

This chapter briefly reviewed some of the literature on the importance of assessment in education, approaches to assessment, and two assessment systems that

will be utilised in this study. It was argued that assessment has an important role in education and that it is used to discover students' achievement. It was also argued that norm- and criterion referenced assessment systems have been widely used in assessing student achievement. Norm-referenced assessment has long been used in the assessment of student achievement. It discriminates students as successful and unsuccessful. However, it has been argued that norm-referenced assessment was limited in assessing student achievement and that student achievement had to be assessed against some sort of criteria. This resulted in a new approach to assessment called criterion referencing, in which students are assessed against a set of predetermined criteria and which has been widely used now.

The effectiveness of traditional assessment methods has been questioned and it has been found that they might not always be suitable in assessing student achievements. The discussions about the effectiveness of these methods have resulted in some reforms in assessment in some countries. One outcome of these discussions is profiles, which is based on criterion referencing and which have been used mainly in primary and secondary education. It has been found to be a very useful tool in the assessment of student achievement. Closely related to the profiles and based on criterion referencing, another development in the assessment of students levels of competence is scales or frameworks. The NRS is an example of profiles and the ESU Framework is an example of scales which are, which are utilised in this study.

SECTION C

RESEARCH CONTEXT

Introduction

This section will present the context in which the study was carried out. As stated before, the focus of this study is the ELT departments in Turkey. Chapter 5 then sets the scene by locating a discussion of ELT within Turkish higher education. Assessment in ELT is of particular importance to this study and the discussion in Chapter 5 moves on to an appraisal of assessment in higher education in Turkey in general and then moves specifically to look at some trends of assessment in ELT in Turkey. The first part of Chapter 5 discusses the English language instruction in Turkey. The next part discusses the assessment of students' language competence in ELT departments in Turkey.

CHAPTER 5

REVIEW OF ELT AND ASSESSMENT OF LANGUAGE IN TURKEY

5.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews the current status of the teaching of English and assessment of competence in ELT departments in Turkey. Problems associated with the teaching of English in ELT departments in Turkey have not been reliably documented. Therefore, this study seeks to redress the situation.

The context in which language teaching takes place involves four factors: Social, educational, instructional, and individual. Social factors involve the role of English in society and its effects on the need for English in educational and occupational settings, the range of which may vary from one country to another. This has been reflected by the terminology such as English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English as an International Language (EIL), and so on. Educational factors involve the types of objectives set for English language teaching programmes and types of curriculum and syllabus developed. Instructional factors involve the amount of time allotted to English language instruction, the type and quality of instruction, teaching skill and language proficiency of teachers. Individual factors involve learner attitudes, learner motivation, and learning styles. These factors determine the plans and goals for second/foreign language instruction at the national level; the method through which these goals are realised; and the learning outcomes that result from particular instructional systems (Long & Richards, 1987).

5.2. English Language Teaching in Turkey.

Foreign language teaching institutions in Turkey were first established in the 1940s, being known as the School of French Language Teaching, School of English Language Teaching and School of German Language Teaching respectively (Demircan, 1988; Okutan & Meydan, 1992, cited in Arslan, 1998). The main aim of these schools was to train their students to meet the need for English speaking people at different institutions of the state and for teachers of English in secondary and higher education. Until the early 1980s, foreign language teacher training schools did not see any important organisational and administrative changes in their structures.

With the passing of the Higher Education Law in 1981, the organisational and administrative structures of higher education were subject to some important changes. Responsibility for training teachers was given to newly established Faculties of Education. Therefore, the teacher training departments were incorporated into the body of the Faculty of Education.

As its name indicates, the main aim of Teacher Training Faculties is to train their students as teachers for different subjects at different levels of education in Turkey. ELT departments train their students as teachers for English language instruction in Turkey. However, as well as ELT departments in Faculties of Education there are other departments in the Faculties of Science and Letters which offer pre-service English. These are the Departments of English Language and Literature, Departments of American Culture and Literature, Departments of Linguistics, and Departments of Translation and Interpretation. Although their primary aim of these departments is not to produce teachers for foreign language instruction, those who graduate from these courses are allowed to teach English in

secondary and higher education provided that they have a pedagogical formation certificate. In 1998, 19 out of 55 Faculties of Education had ELT departments. Of the departments mentioned above, only the Faculty of Education has the main aim of training foreign language teachers (Arslan, 1998).

Given the above information, it is clear that the main aim of the ELT departments is to meet the need for English language teachers in secondary and higher education with the necessary qualifications and skills.

Because of the developments described in Chapter 1, English language has been the major foreign language in Turkey. Because of the importance of English as a foreign language in Turkey, and because ELT departments are the main sources of teachers of English for secondary and tertiary education, the importance of their role in the provision of English language instruction is obvious. However, the outcomes of instruction in ELT departments in Turkey have largely been unknown and are thus in need of urgent research. This study constitutes an attempt to uncover the present situation in various aspects of English language instruction in ELT departments. One aspect that this study has is to uncover the present practices in the assessment of student competences in ELT departments.

5.3. Assessing Competence in ELT Departments in Turkey

Although there is a growing interest in assessment in higher education, it has been a neglected area of study in Turkey and would greatly benefit from research. Parallel to the general lack of interest in assessment in higher education in Turkey, systems for assessing students' language competencies in ELT departments appear to be underdeveloped. A literature survey on the topic in Turkey carried out by this researcher showed that there have been no published studies on assessment in

ELT departments in Turkish higher education, nor have there been any concerted efforts by the Higher education Council of Turkey to undertake assessment of students' language competence in ELT departments. This makes it difficult to make judgements about the effectiveness of assessment practices in Turkey.

The problem of competence and its assessment in ELT departments in Turkey has a long history. Since the early 1980s with the introduction of reforms in higher education, the Higher Education Council of Turkey (HEC) introduced a new system of assessment. This system contained mid-term examinations and a final examination. Since its first introduction, it has seen many changes. However, these changes essentially amounted to changing the number of mid-term exams and their effects on the final exam. None of these changes brought an apparent improvement. More importantly, the effects of the assessment procedures used in ELT departments have been unknown even to teachers in these departments. During the implementation of this study, students were taking one mid-term examination and a final examination for each course.

The present system of assessment in ELT departments was developed by the HEC and has been in practice since the establishment of the HEC in the early 1980s. All state universities are expected to use the same system. Therefore, the same system of assessment is employed by all departments at state universities. Because this study was carried out in Turkish-medium universities, and because the majority of universities in Turkey are state universities, private universities will not be dealt with in detail. However, a brief summary of the assessment practices in private universities will be given in terms of showing the differences between the two types of universities in Turkey. The present system of assessment in ELT departments can

be summarised as follows.

The system is norm-referenced and has not proved suitable or effective in meeting the needs of these departments. In this system, students presently take one mid-term examination and a final examination for each course of study. Although from time to time the number of mid-term examinations changed, the system has remained the same in essence. An examination is given, then graded by the teacher, and then the grades are announced. Students usually do not have any chance to get feedback on any aspect of the examination such as the use of language or the accuracy of the knowledge on a given subject. Therefore, students do not know about their failure or success. There is a pre-determined limit and in order for students to be successful in a particular course, they must get a mark above that limit. That is, students are identified as successful or unsuccessful which is a characteristic of the norm-referenced assessment method.

Because of the nature of the present system of assessment, teachers are not able to monitor student learning effectively. This means that teachers do not know students' strengths and weaknesses, and their level of competence in the language and course taught. Student performance in an examination is assessed by the teacher not against explicit criteria but according to some criteria in his/her mind. The number of exams given to students for each course is very limited. Therefore, it may be argued that the results of these tests cannot be reliably used to determine students' level of competence. Furthermore, examinations and tasks usually take account of language use in a very limited area of that specific course. That is, competence in these departments is being assessed in such a way that its contribution to student learning becomes very limited.

In the second, third and fourth years in ELT departments, literature-related courses occupy an important place in the curriculum (Appendices E, F, G, H). This means that students' level of competence is developed mainly in the context of literature-related courses. This brings with it the problem of competence in using the language in different domains. Being able to use the language competently in different domains is important for effective communication in that language. The term 'domain' refers to a distinct social situation such as home, school and work situations, and it involves identifiably different types and uses of literacy (Barton, 1991). In this study, the term domain will be used in a similar way to mean using the language in different situations for different purposes.

It is evident then that the methods and procedures used in assessment of students' competence in different aspects of the language remain underdeveloped. Naturally, examinations for different courses demand different information from students. An examination for a literature-related course will require students to provide accurate information on the topic and accurate use of the language. On the other hand, an examination for a language-related course, say writing, will demand students to show their understanding of topic and their competence in using the language for that aspect of the language. Accordingly, students will be assessed by teachers using a suitable method of assessment for that aspect of the language. In this study, we will deal with the assessment of language skills since assessment of literature-related courses is not within the scope of this inquiry.

In ELT departments, types of general holistic marking procedures are commonly employed, especially in assessing students' writing abilities in the English language. Cooper (1977) describes holistic assessment as

a guided procedure for sorting or ranking written pieces. The rater takes a piece of writing and either (1) matches it with another piece in a graded series of pieces or (2) scores it for the prominence of certain features important to that kind of writing or (3) assigns it a letter or number grade. The placing, scoring, or grading occurs quickly, impressionistically ... The rater does not make corrections or revisions in the paper. Holistic evaluation is usually guided by a holistic scoring guide which describes each feature and identifies high, middle, and low quality levels for each feature (p. 3).

Cooper further identifies seven different types of holistic scoring procedures: essay scale, analytic scale, dichotomous scale, feature analysis, primary trait scoring, general impression marking, and “center of gravity” response. Of these, feature analysis and general impression marking are commonly used in ELT departments in assessing students’ writing abilities in the English language. Feature analysis focuses on a specific aspect of a piece of writing ... and has nine categories: “indicated order, principle of selection, methods of arrangement, syntax, balance, organization, connectives, openings, and conclusion (p. 10). On the other hand, general impression marking is the simplest of the seven procedures in holistic evaluation. It does not require “detailed discussion of features and no summing of scores given to separate features. The rater simply scores the paper by deciding where the paper fits within the range of papers produced for that assignment or occasion (Cooper, 1977; p. 11). Beveridge and Johnson (1991) describes the drawbacks of general impression marking:

They have not proved to be sensitive enough to determine the exact nature of the difficulties students experience in the production of academic discourse. They do not take into account that writing quality might vary across different types of writing or even across different writing tasks which have the same generic form (Odell and Cooper, 1980). They tend to ignore the context of communication or the notion of audience (Taylor et al, 1989). They place student essays on a continuum of relative quality, but do not describe student performance in terms of specific text features nor do they provide detailed information about strengths and weaknesses of students’ writing. (p. 2).

Johnson (1994) argues that in general impression marking, students are compared with each other, and the marking is not done against predetermined criteria. It involves a grade based on teacher's prior knowledge or intuition. This does not give students any understanding of their failure or success, nor any guidelines on how to improve their writing. However, because of the lack of research literature on the effectiveness of this type of marking procedures in these departments in Turkey, it is difficult to talk about their effectiveness in the assessment of student competence.

The lack of research on assessment and on the outcomes of English language instruction in higher education is evident and would benefit from being addressed urgently. More importantly, departments seem to have been insensitive to the problem and have not attempted to find solutions to it. It has been the general opinion that students who graduate from ELT departments have a good command of the English language. However, this is to a great extent untested and this study sets out to test whether students attain the necessary levels of competence in different skills in the English language. The fact that students in ELT departments are prospective teachers of English makes the problem more serious since most of them will be employed as teachers who will teach a language in which they are not sufficiently competent themselves.

As stated earlier, a literature review conducted in Turkey showed that there is no published research on assessment or on the outcomes of English language instruction in ELT departments. To some extent, the lack of research may be part of a general insufficiency of research and debate on assessment in ELT literature in the world (Smith, 1999).

Except for two universities, the medium of instruction in state universities is

Turkish. However, in ELT departments the medium of instruction is English. These departments have literature-related courses as well as language-related courses, and students in these departments are prospective teachers. Contrary to common belief, it is generally accepted among students and academia that although these departments train students as teachers of English, students usually do not have the necessary level of competence in the English language at the time of graduation. One reason for this problem may be that literature-related courses occupy an important place in the curriculum and students spend most of their time to prepare for examinations relating to these courses. The other reason may be the lack of an appropriate and sensitive assessment system that could be used to monitor student learning and to assess students' competencies in different skills. Assessing the skills of the English language must be given special importance in order to identify the weaknesses and strengths of students, thus providing for feedback and improvement. Because of the lack of such a system, teaching and learning cannot be monitored, and teachers do not know students' level of competence in different skills of the English language. Because assessment is not done against any predetermined criteria, students' competence may not be assessed objectively. The criterion against which student learning is assessed is whether students have provided the necessary information with correct usage. In the absence of an appropriate assessment system, it is also difficult for departments to make formative plans for teaching and learning.

In general, almost all ELT departments suffer from the lack of an appropriate assessment system in which the language competence can be determined for different purposes. The main source of the problem is that higher education system in Turkey is highly centralised and decisions are made by the HEC, to which

universities must conform. Another source of the problem may be the curricula of the ELT departments. According to Altan (1998), the curriculum in Teacher Training Faculties lacks coherence, and the purpose of many courses is 'outmoded and hazy'. There is also a lack of empirical data on the impact of the courses" (p. 410). Altan goes on to describe the situation in ELT departments:

In the last two decades, the theoretical basis of ELT has evolved from the study of phonetics and grammatical theory to include the study of pedagogical grammar, discourse analysis, a second/foreign language, classroom-based research, curriculum and syllabus design, and language testing. Most ELT programmes still follow the curriculum prepared by the Higher Education Council in August 1983, which comprises too many literature courses. Therefore, one cannot say that they are designed to produce teachers (p. 413).

Altan's reference to the emphasis on literature-related courses is an important issue which has been the object of dissatisfaction among students in ELT departments, with more emphasis usually being placed on literature-related courses than on language-related ones. Students' level of competence depends only on their mastery of the language in the recently introduced preparatory classes, which does not always prepare students sufficiently to cope with the demands of the courses.

Against this background, it is fair to say that the present system of assessment is not effective and sensitive to students' needs. Departments are in the main silent about assessment and the problems associated with it. In the absence of an effective and sensitive assessment system, it is difficult for students to monitor their learning, and for teachers and policy makers to monitor the effectiveness of the teaching and of the programme and to make plans for development. It is clear that this system of assessment does not provide enough information about student achievement in different aspects of the language. Although the presence of mid-term

exams indicates the presence of a formative assessment system, this system, it seems, is far from being formative, because it does not provide necessary feedback to students, teachers, and policy-makers, and the results of the tests or examinations are not used to make necessary improvements in the curriculum, assessment system, and the programme.

However, after a long period of indifference to the problems in higher education, the HEC started a project in 1996 that was published as a report. The aim of the project was to increase the quality of instruction in Teacher Training Faculties. In this report, the HEC states that they have decided to reorganise the teacher training programs in the Teacher Training Faculties with the aim of improving the qualities of prospective teachers. This report shows that the HEC recognises that the teacher training departments had some important problems in terms of programme contents and instruction. The report further states that

In light of the analyses of the curricula used in the Teacher Training Faculties in the past and of the research results on the topic, it has been concluded that a) there were not any standards in terms of content, number and credits of the courses, b) the contents of the courses in teacher training programmes were inconsistent with the domain of the related school for which students were trained, c) there were no gradual and complementing rational relationships between the courses, d) emphases were on theoretical courses and practice were largely ignored, e) the courses in a subject field oriented students to specialise only in one domain of that subject field, and the courses on the methodology of teaching this domain were found insufficient, f) the courses in these programmes were usually put in the curricula according to teachers' orientations and preferences rather than the needs of prospective teachers and of the schools for which students were trained, increasing considerably the number of courses and credits, g) pedagogical formation courses consisted only of theoretical courses and, therefore, were found far from equipping prospective teachers with knowledge, skills and views which are required for teaching, h) Students could not spare time for electives because of the excessive workload of main courses, and i) the programmes were inconsistent with the practicum (HEC Web page in the internet, no page numbers).

These and other factors contributed to the general inpreparedness of these students who graduated from Teacher Training Faculties in the past. In addition, the pedagogical formation courses had been ineffective in equipping students with necessary teaching skills. In developing the new system for Teacher Training Faculties, both the curricula and the coursebooks of the schools in the national education in Turkey and the teacher training programmes of the developed countries were taken into consideration. (HEC Web Page in the Internet). Based on the findings, the ELT curriculum (Appendix E) was revised (Appendix G) and the aims of the courses (Appendix F) were redefined (Appendix H). In addition, the HEC also established a “National Committee for Teacher Training” whose aims are to supervise, evaluate and improve the curricula (HEC Web page in the Internet).

5.4. The New Curriculum

Two things are worthy of note in the new curriculum. The first is the reduction in the number of courses in the four-year instruction period. The second is that there is neither a course on assessment methods and techniques nor a mention of how students are to be assessed in these courses. Although the ‘Planning and Evaluation in Teaching’ course in the fourth term involves some theoretical information on assessment, it is apparent that a 16-week period is not adequate for teaching the theory and practice of various assessment methods.

As seen in the curriculum, skills’ training is concentrated in the first year only. In the second year, the reading skill is included in the first term, and the writing skill is included in the second term. The second year marks the introduction to literature-related courses. The third and fourth years also include literature-related courses. After passing the skills courses in the first year and starting other non-

language-related courses, skills are almost entirely left aside. If students show in the exams that they are able to write about their course-related subjects they are seen as competent. The problem begins here. Being able to speak and write in a single domain or in domains that will not be of much use during their future careers creates problems, of which students are aware. Students are left alone to develop their competencies in different domains, which is almost impossible because of the high pressure of the weekly workload and examinations. Although the new curriculum seems to be aimed at overcoming the difficulties encountered in ELT departments, and at meeting the long-neglected needs of prospective teachers of English, we will not be sure of the extent to which it is successful in achieving this for some time.

We have noted in Chapter 4 that norm-referenced assessment has been criticised because of its limitations in determining students' actual levels of competence, and of its discrimination of students as 'successful' and 'unsuccessful'. Despite this, ELT departments in Turkey seem to depend solely on a norm-referenced assessment system which seems largely incapable of providing useful information about student achievement in language in relation to different social contexts. It also seems inadequate in monitoring student achievement and programme effectiveness. Consequently, teachers may not know exactly where students are in terms of competence in using the English language in different skills. It also fails to provide sufficient feedback for teachers and decision-makers to make plans to improve programmes. Therefore, considering the ineffectiveness of the present norm-referenced assessment system in ELT departments, this study proposes to test the application of a new criterion-based framework to be used in assessing students' level of competence in different skills of the English language in different

areas. This framework consists of the merger of two different systems used in assessing students' level of competence in different areas and in different skills. This framework will be explained in detail in the next chapter.

5.5. Conclusion

This section presented the context of the study. It was argued that because of the developments since the early 1980s, the English language has gained widespread popularity in Turkey. Learning and teaching English have become increasingly important. ELT departments have the biggest role to play in the teaching of English, since they are the only sources of English language teacher provision.

One of the main arguments in this study is that assessment has an indisputable role both in learning and teaching, and that in ELT departments, the present system of assessment may not be suitable and sensitive to students' needs. It is thus prudent to test the efficacy of our assessment system based on theory-based assumptions about language and literacy.

SECTION D

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This section discusses the nature of the research and the context in which the study was carried out. The research problem is identified first, and then the study shows how the research questions evolved. Next, the chapter discusses the choice of research methods and strategies and finally explains the procedures employed in sample selection and developing the research instruments. Data collection and analysis are discussed briefly here and are explained more fully in the next section.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

6.1. Introduction

The main aim of this study is to find out Turkish ELT students' level of competence in speaking and writing skills of the English language by the end of their higher education. In order to do this, the study needed to explore the current context of language assessment in ELT departments, specifically, the procedures and methods currently in use for language assessment and to find out whether they were suitable and if not to develop a methodology for profiling Turkish ELT students' language competences.

Further, developing a model appropriate for language assessment for use in ELT in Turkey required the researcher to develop an understanding of 'teacher thinking' and 'knowledge' about the social purposes and social contexts of assessment. Similarly, the researcher was interested in student thinking of the assessment process (e.g., Cowan, 1981; Boyd & Cowan, 1985; Boud, 1986; Weaver & Cotrell, 1986; Earl, 1986; Falchikov, 1986; Bowen, 1988; Somervell, 1993; Matthews, 1994; Oldfield & Macalpine, 1995). Therefore, the enquiry was focused on three broad areas:

1. Understanding teacher perceptions and knowledge of the assessment process.
2. Understanding student perceptions and knowledge of the assessment process.
3. Developing methodologies and procedures for assessment of ELT in Turkey.

6.2. The Nature of the Research

Arising from these broad aims, the research then is an attempt to describe the present context for the assessment of English language instruction in the ELT departments in Turkish universities, and an attempt to develop a culturally appropriate model for assessing language competence. In this sense, this research is descriptive and developmental in nature.

Charles (1988) identifies six types of educational research: historical, descriptive, correlational, causal-comparative, experimental, and research and development. According to Charles, “descriptive research describes conditions, situations and events of the present,” (pp. 7-8), and developmental research “focuses on the development and evaluation of a new product” (p. 12). Developmental research, Charles further argues, has two stages. First, a product is developed, and second, the new product is evaluated for its effects. According to Kane (1984), “the first step in any research is to find out what is happening or what has happened. This involves describing attitudes, behaviours, or conditions, and is called descriptive research” (p.13). Anderson (1990) also support this view and states that “any approach that attempts to describe data might be referred to as a descriptive method” (p. 120). According to Herbert (1990), descriptive research describes certain characteristics of populations as well as seeking relationships between variables. Therefore, the main characteristics of descriptive research are to describe, clarify and interpret existing situations, conditions and events (Hopkins, 1976; Charles, 1988;) by using people, documents, places, reports, scales, observation, interview, questionnaire, standardised tests, other measuring instruments and other written documents as the sources of information. The data obtained through descriptive

methods can be qualitative or quantitative (Hopkins, 1976; Kane, 1984; Charles, 1988; Anderson, 1990).

The study also employed elements of survey research, e.g., questionnaire, with case studies of ELT departments in three universities. The general term survey is used for several information-gathering techniques (Kane, 1984) and survey research methods are widely used to gather data in descriptive research (Nunan, 1992; Cohen & Manion, 1994; Czaja & Blair, 1996). These methods collect data to be used to describe, define, and explain a group's attitudes, opinions and characteristics of people (Babbie, 1973; Kane, 1984; Brown, 1988; Herbert, 1990; Fink, 1995b).

6.3. Research Design and Methodology

6.3.1. The Research Problem

This study was mainly aimed at obtaining a description of Turkish ELT students' level of competence in speaking and writing attained at the end of their course of study. A language is said to consist of four main skills. A good level of competence in these skills allows learners to use the language effectively in different areas for different purposes. On the other hand, a low level of competence in one or more skills will hinder students considerably in using the language. In this context, assessment of students language competence becomes important since it is the main tool for monitoring student achievement during instruction. We need perhaps to reflect on why competence in English is given as much currency in this study.

Many researchers have indicated the undeniable role of English in the modern world ranging from its importance in the global economy to its perceived status amongst parents as a vehicle for social mobility (Broughton et al, 1978;

Stevens, 1982; Smith, 1985; Conrad & Fishman, 1977, cited in Judd, 1987; Paulston, 1992; Nayar, 1997; Widdowson, 1998). Because of this, the teaching of English in Turkey occupies an important place in the curricula of educational systems.

ELT has had an important place in Turkish educational system since the 1940s and since then its importance has been frequently emphasised. Indeed unlike, for example, Malaysia, where the role and status of English has been subject to political review at different historical junctions (see Watson, 1993), changes in social, economical and technological areas in Turkey since 1983 has made English a prerequisite for finding a good job. This, in turn, made the teaching and learning of English even more important. ELT and EFL, however, have not escaped criticism of 'cultural transfer' or worse, neo-colonialism. Thus, thinking about developing a model for assessing language competences demanded political and cultural sensitivity. Thus, this study starts from the premise that in order to develop a culturally sensitive model of assessment, we need to know what perceptions are held of English and ELT. Further we need to know how closely the perceptions of the role and function of English in Turkey match the aims of teaching English in ELT departments. Out of these assumptions, the first question of this study, therefore, is:

Is there a match between the perceptions teachers and students have of the role and function of English in Turkey, and of the aims of ELT?

The second main focus of this study is to determine what practices exist in ELT departments in Turkey in the teaching and assessment of English language. In ELT departments, the curriculum (Appendix G) is made up of different courses, such

as the four basic skills, grammar, literature-related courses, linguistics, etc. These courses aim to teach students the various aspects of the English language. As seen in Appendix H, the aims of the courses are highly challenging. Teaching the skills without different language activities would be almost impossible. The importance and effects of different language activities, and the limiting effect of the teacher and textbooks in foreign language learning/teaching have been clearly documented in the literature (Greenall, 1984; Nunan, 1991). According to Greenall (1984), "A language activity ... refers to any activity which is used to consolidate language already taught or acquired" (p. 5). Language activities are commonly used in the classroom to allow students to practice the language they are learning. They may motivate students to actively produce authentic language in the classroom (Greenall, 1984). Therefore, language activities must not be limited to the ones in the textbooks. Because the language in the classroom is under the control of teachers and the textbooks it is necessary for teachers to bring into the class various language activities. The language that students produce in the class is limited. For learning to be effective, students should start to use the language as soon and as much as possible through such activities. In such activities, students have the chance to produce the language without the limiting effect of the teacher and the textbooks. Students' active involvement in language activities may also create a listening activity. Language activities have been found to reinforce the learning process (Greenall, 1984). Similarly Nunan (1991) points to the limiting nature of activities presented by textbooks, commenting that although textbook exercises are necessary for preparatory practice, they are essentially enabling activities which give controlled practice in the grammatical and phonological aspects of the language. They do not

provide enough opportunities for real communicative interaction. One important point that Nunan makes is that classroom activities should reflect the purposes for which learners learn the language.

Assessment practices at the ELT departments were also the subject of inquiry in this study. It was argued in Chapter 4 that assessment has a vital role in any educational system (Lloyd-Jones et al, 1986; Murphy & Torrance, 1990; Somervell, 1993; Broadfoot, 1994, 1996a; Rowe & Hill, 1996; Freeman & Lewis, 1998), and that it allows teachers and policymakers to know about student achievement and about the quality of the programme, allowing for improvement. It has a significant effect on student learning. It was also argued in the same chapter that from the 1980s on, there have been important developments in the assessment practices in higher education (Hancock, 1994; Harris & McCann, 1994; Boud, 1995).

In the light of the literature on the importance of language activities and assessment, the second question of this study, then, is

What activities and strategies do teachers employ in teaching and assessing the English language?

The third line of enquiry was to gain an understanding of the awareness that teachers have of their students' levels of achievement. In addition, the study was interested in students' own awareness of their language competence. Thus the study set out to explore teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of students' levels of proficiency. In a language teaching programme, teachers are expected to know their students' levels in different aspects of the language. Monitoring student achievement

can be done intuitively as well as through tests and examinations. Intuitive or 'internal' judgements may give teachers an immediate chance to establish the weaknesses of students and the programme without having recourse to the results of regular tests and examinations.

Intuition is seen as a necessary skill in teaching profession (Johnson, 2000; Atkinson, 2000). Intuition is not based on conscious thinking and certain criteria but on perceptions. According to Claxton (2000), intuition is a family of ways of knowing which are implicit, sensory, holistic and perceptive giving an understanding of the structure as a whole. As well as analytical and reflective thinking, teachers seem to have intuitive thinking skills, which may be developed primarily through experience. The importance of intuition is especially seen in the field of assessment. Claiming that intuition is a neglected but an important skill in education, Broadfoot (2000) claims that keeping the objectivity of assessment methods, an intuitive approach to educational assessment is necessary, and that much of the assessment today is intuitive.

On the other hand, judgement is closely related to intuition, and a judgement has an element of intuition. That is, a judgement is partly based on intuition. According to Johnson (2000), a judgement is "made not on the basis of explicit indicators but intuitively" and "they ... grow out of a set of implicit understandings" (p. 306). Given the importance of teachers' knowledge of student achievement and the importance of intuitive judgement skills in assessing student level of competence, the third question is

Are students and teachers aware of students' levels of competence that they achieve?

It was argued in Chapter 2 that a language consists of four main skills. Of these, speaking and writing are traditionally classified as active or productive skills in that they are the two skills which produce language (Kress, 1997; Widdowson, 1978). Therefore, the main prerequisite for competency in a language is having a good level of competency in speaking and writing. Based on the present researcher's personal observations as a teacher of English, another assumption that this study made was that students graduate from the ELT departments with a level of competence in the speaking and writing which would not allow them to use the language effectively for different purposes in different situations. Therefore, the fourth question was aimed at developing a profile of students' actual levels of competence in the two skills. An interesting associated question is how intuitive judgements compare with actual levels of achievement. Therefore, the fourth question of this study is

How competent are students in using the language in spoken and written modes for different social purposes?

6.3.2. Research Settings

The main aim of this study is to profile ELT students' levels of competence in speaking and writing skills of the English language. This required us to review present situation in these departments. Therefore, a major component of this study was to review the current context in the teaching and assessment of English in ELT

departments in Turkey. Further, the study was interested in developing a profile of competencies for ELT students. Accordingly, ELT departments in three universities were selected as the focus of this investigation. Although there are fifty state universities in Turkey, only nineteen have ELT departments. Given the resource constraints and limitations of doctoral studies, the researcher decided to carry out an investigation of only three of these departments (see Table 6.1). The universities were chosen from different geographical locations. The main concern for choosing universities from different locations was that of representation. Considerations in selecting these universities also included ease of travel to the locations and popularity of the departments. The study does not lay claim to random sampling procedures in the selection of universities. The nature of the techniques employed for the gathering of data required that purposive sampling technique be applied to select the institutions. However, random sampling procedures were used in selecting student samples. To maintain confidentiality, universities are referred to here as University A, University B and University C.

6.3.3. Sampling of the Study

This study employs a case study approach in gathering the necessary data for the questions that we asked. According to Cohen and Manion (1994)

A case study researcher typically observes the characteristics of an individual unit – a child, a clique, a class, a school or a community. The purpose of such observation is to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit with a view to establishing generalisations about the wider population to which that unit belongs (pp. 106-107).

That is, a case study is interested in an individual unit for the purposes of investigating and analysing various aspects of the unit intensively. In addition to the

case study approach, elements of survey research methods, e.g., sampling and questionnaire, were used in the case studies of the three ELT departments. Sample selection is an important element in survey research. A sample is a small part of a larger population and is representative of the population. Therefore, a population represents the whole group to be sampled (Fink, 1995b, Schofield, 1996). If we take this study as an example, the teachers of English in all ELT departments in Turkey are the population or target population, and the ones that participated in this study constitute our sample. Among the advantages of using samples rather than larger populations are that they are effective and accurate, can be studied more quickly, are less expensive, and help focus the survey on exactly the characteristics of interest (Fink, 1995b). As in case studies, generalisations are also part of survey research. They are used not only for testing hypotheses but also for making descriptions. Generalisations are not based on data collected from all the observations or all the respondents, but on a relatively small sample to make inferences about a whole population (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992).

This study addressed two target populations: teachers and students. Accordingly, in order to represent the two populations, two samples were selected. The size of the student sample was determined as 30 from each ELT department making 90 (N=90). The size of the teacher sample was determined as 10 from each department, making 30 (N=30). Table 6.1 shows the universities and the size of each sample from these universities.

Table 6.1. Participating Universities, Departments and the Number of Samples

UNIVERSITIES	DEPARTMENTS	Number of student sample	Number of teacher sample
University A	English Language Teaching	30	10
University B	English Language Teaching	30	10
University C	English Language Teaching	30	10
TOTAL		N=90	N=30

Teacher samples in all three ELT departments were selected by using a convenience-sampling method. This is a type of non-probability sampling method which means choosing the sample from among a group of individuals who are readily available (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992; Fink, 1995b). The rationale for using convenience sampling for the teacher sample was that because of time constraints and heavy coursework, not all the teachers were available at the time of the administration of questionnaires. Therefore, the teacher questionnaire was distributed to those who were willing and available to participate in the study at the time.

On the other hand, a simple random sampling method, a type of probability sampling, was used to select the student sample. Probability sampling allows the researcher to say statistically that a sample is representative of the population, and allows every member of the population a probability of being included in the sample. This sampling procedure implies the use of random selection that eliminates the problem of bias in sample selection (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992; Fink, 1995b; Schofield, 1996). Members are selected one at a time, and once one is selected, s/he is not eligible for a second time, which reduces the risk of bias. Following the principles and procedures of probability sampling, students' names in each department were put on small slips of paper, put in a bowl, and then picked one

by one. Student samples were selected from larger populations and consisted only of fourth year students in 1998-1999 winter-term.

6.3.4. Characteristics of the Samples

According to the background information that was obtained through the teacher questionnaire (to be discussed later), the characteristics of the teacher sample are shown in Table 6.2. One respondent in the teacher sample only identified his gender, two did not respond to this section at all, two respondents did not specify their areas of specialisation while others provided all information required.

The characteristics of the teacher sample in Table 6.2 were not determined beforehand, and the data presented in this table were obtained through the teacher questionnaire. The main aim of this section of the questionnaire was to elicit information on subjects' qualifications and areas of specialisation, and for possible future correspondence.

Of the responding sample, six had BA degrees, two were research assistants one holding an MA degree, two had PhD degrees, and six were assistant professors. Of the responding sample, more people at University C had higher degrees than University A and University B. The position of assistant professor is an interim one between PhD and associate professor. Of the responding sample only one held a position in the department. She was the head of the ELT Department.

Table 6.2. Characteristics of the Teacher Sample.

(RA = Research Assistant; BA = University degree; MA = Masters degree; PhD = Doctoral degree; AP = Assistant Professor)

University	Qualification	Specialised in
A	Lecturer (PhD)	English language and literature
	Lecturer (MA)	English language and literature
	Lecturer (BA)	Translation
	Not specified	Not specified
	Not specified	Not specified
B	Lecturer (AP)	Linguistics
	Lecturer (AP)	English language and literature
	Lecturer (BA)	Not specified
	Lecturer (BA)	Reading, Writing, Grammar
	Lecturer (BA)	English language and literature
	Lecturer (BA)	Not specified
	Not specified	Not specified
C	Lecturer (AP)	Language teacher education
	Lecturer (PhD)	Writing
	Lecturer (AP)	English language and literature
	Lecturer (AP)	English literature (novel)
	Senior Lecturer (AP)	English literature
	Lecturer (RA with BA)	Modern English Drama
	Lecturer (RA with (MA)	EFL

The characteristics of student sample in Table 6.3 were obtained through the student questionnaire (to be discussed later). This table illustrates the gender balance of the sample. The aim of this section of the students questionnaire was to elicit information about subjects mainly for possible future correspondence.

Table 6.3. Characteristics of the Student Sample.

UNIVERSITY	Male	Female
University A		24
	6	
University B		17
	13	
University C		9
	21	
TOTAL	40	50

6.3.5. Research Instruments

Three instruments were used in this study: self-administered questionnaires, tasks, and two assessment scales.

The self-administered questionnaire was used for both teacher and student samples. Student questionnaires were not dissimilar to teacher questionnaires in that the questions in student questionnaire were taken from the teacher questionnaire. However, there were fewer questions in the student questionnaire.

The second instrument consisted of spoken and written tasks. These tasks were used to assess students' level of competence in speaking and writing in six different areas. The same tasks were used for both speaking and writing. The tasks will be explained later.

The third instrument was an assessment scale which was the product of the merger of two assessment scales: the NRS and the ESU. This merger included the six aspects of the NRS and the nine levels and descriptors of the ESU framework. Because students were assessed only in speaking and writing skills of the English language, only the descriptors for speaking and writing (Yardsticks 5 and 7 in Appendix D) were used during the administration of the tasks. Students' level of competence in spoken and written tasks was assessed against this scale. The following sections describe each instrument in detail.

6.3.5.1. The Teacher Questionnaire

As stated earlier, this study is descriptive in nature, and methods and instruments that are commonly used in survey research were used during the data collection for this study. One common method of data collection in surveys is the questionnaire. Questionnaires are useful tools for many respects. They allow

researchers to gather data from a large population in different places which otherwise is difficult to obtain, and they may be mailed or completed on site (Fink, 1995a). Among the advantages of well-designed questionnaires are that they are easy to administer, cheap, timesaving, can be applied to large populations, and enable researchers to collect data in field settings (Anderson, 1990; Nunan, 1992; Nisbet & Entwistle, 1970). The main disadvantage of the questionnaire is that once it is completed, it is very difficult to ask for clarification from the respondents.

In order to gather both qualitative and quantitative data from teacher and student samples, two questionnaires were constructed: one for teachers and one for students. Both teacher and student questionnaires were self-administered questionnaires. "A self administered questionnaire consists of questions that an individual completes by oneself. Self-administered questionnaires can be mailed or completed 'on site'" (Fink, 1995a: p. 42).

The teacher questionnaire (Appendix J) was constructed so that it would elicit answers to the questions posed earlier in this chapter. During the construction of the teacher questionnaire, the measures recommended by the rich literature on questionnaire design were followed to minimise the problems that could be encountered during the later stages of the study.

Amongst those recommended measures, the researcher followed particularly the advice that the questions in a questionnaire must reflect the nature of the inquiry and must elicit what it is intended to. Furthermore, the instructions in the questionnaire must be clear and the respondents should not have any difficulty in understanding them. An instrument which elicits the necessary data must have three aspects: the questions must be clear and produce clear and quantifiable answers; the

format of the questionnaire must be constructed in such a way that the respondent will respond easily, and the questions must be in a logical order; the instructions must be clear since the respondent may have no chance to ask for clarification (Hopkins, 1976).

In order to develop valid questionnaires, the information required must be clearly identified beforehand and must be as specific as possible, enabling the questions to achieve the goals. It also helps to limit the number of questions to the information needed (Anderson, 1990). Any question in a questionnaire should relate to the research problem, questions or hypothesis; should be clear and unambiguous, should include only one concept, should request the information that the respondent is able to provide, should be relatively short, and should not contain negatives especially double negatives (Wiersma, 1991).

In the light of the research literature on questionnaire design, the information needed was determined and as many questions as possible were gathered before the construction of the teacher questionnaire. Using these questions, several draft questionnaires were constructed. Instructions and questions were revised several times to ensure reliability and validity before the pilot work. It was also necessary to choose the wording carefully. By making necessary omissions and additions, the final questionnaire was prepared. The teacher questionnaire contained eleven questions.

Two types of questions were used in this questionnaire: closed-ended questions and open-ended questions. Open-ended questions asked respondents to reflect on the subject of the questions, thus eliciting respondents' thoughts on the topic. On the other hand, closed-ended questions were of three types: yes-no

questions, which asked respondents to choose either yes or no; Likert scales, which included a number of statements and asked respondents to rate the statements; and ranking scales, which included several statements and asked respondents to rank them in terms of their importance (de Vaus, 1991; Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993). To ensure reliability and validity, special attention was given to question construction. According to Oppenheim (1992),

Each question has a job to do, and that job is the measurement of a particular variable. In trying to assess how well each question, or group of questions, does its job, we shall need to use the terms reliability and validity ... Reliability refers to the purity and consistency of a measure, to repeatability, to the probability of obtaining the same results if the measure were to be duplicated. Validity, on the other hand, tells us whether the question, item, or score measures what it is supposed to measure (pp. 144-145).

The teacher questionnaire also contained a cover page which included a letter to the respondents describing the subject, aims and importance of the inquiry. A statement of confidentiality was also included in this letter. It took several months to construct the teacher questionnaire.

The teacher questionnaire (Appendix J) was divided into three sections. Section I of the teachers' questionnaire aimed at collecting background information on the following:

Name (optional)
Gender
Title
Institution
Positions they hold in their institutions
Area of specialisation
Address of correspondence

The data obtained in this section was intended for use in possible future correspondence and in order to be able to talk about the characteristics of the sample during the description of the sample.

Section II of the teacher questionnaire was aimed at eliciting teachers' perceptions of the importance of English in Turkey, and of the aims of the teaching English in ELT departments. These data were elicited through questions on the following topics.

The importance of English as a foreign language in Turkey.
The most important aims in the teaching of English in their institutions.
Areas for which English language teaching prepares students in their institution.
Activities that they are doing to prepare student for these areas.
Aspects of the English language they placed most and least emphasis on.

Section III of the teacher questionnaire was aimed at eliciting the type of assessment used in assessing students level of language competency, and teachers' perceptions of students' present and desired levels of language competence. In order to elicit these data, the following questions were asked.

Whether they use any assessment criteria.
If they do, for which aspect of the language they use assessment criteria.
The assessment criteria, if used, for any aspect of the language.
Students' level of competence in different skills.
The level students attain at the end of the course of study in the present system of instruction (according to a set of criteria provided).
The level at which students should be at the end of the course of study (according to the criteria provided).

The teacher questionnaire contained aspects of both the NRS and the ESU Framework. For example, some questions elicited information on language use in the

six different areas of the NRS, and some questions asked teachers to judge students' levels in speaking and writing against the ESU criteria. In order to make respondents clearly understand these six areas of language use, their descriptions were included in the appendix of teacher questionnaire. The ESU scales against which students' level were to be judged by teachers were also included in the appendix of the teacher questionnaire.

6.3.5.2. Piloting the Teacher Questionnaire.

One of the prerequisites for successful and effective construction of a survey instrument is the pilot work (Hopkins, 1976; Oppenheim, 1992; Litwin, 1995; Fink, 1995a; Mertens, 1998). "A pilot study is a scaled-down version of the full-blown study. It uses a small number of subjects who will not be used to provide data for the major study" (Hopkins, 1976; p. 140). Pilot testing is "an opportunity to try out an instrument well before it is made final" (Fink, 1995a: p. 86). It helps to identify problems such as typographical mistakes, overlapping response sets, ambiguous instructions and difficulties that may arise during data collection and problems of form (Litwin, 1995).

The teacher questionnaire was piloted on two samples: the first sample consisted of two Turkish PhD students at the University of Bristol, whose areas of specialisation were Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), and who had an experience of teaching at least ten years. They were also graduates of ELT departments. They were asked to respond to the questionnaire, and reflect on any question that they thought should be modified or omitted.

The second sample consisted of teachers of English in two different universities in Turkey. This sample was similar to the main sample to which the

questionnaire was administered during data collection process. The questionnaire was piloted on a population of twenty teachers of English at two Departments of Foreign Languages in two universities. The names of the subjects were chosen randomly from the lists of teachers that had been obtained from these departments beforehand. This pilot work was carried out through posting the questionnaire to Turkey. Before mailing the questionnaires to the departments, permission was obtained from both departments.

In the light of the responses from both samples, necessary modifications were made to the questions and instructions. This questionnaire had a cover page on which respondents were informed of the subject, aims, and importance of the study. The cover page also contained a statement of confidentiality. Of the 20 respondents, 15 (75 %) responded the pilot questionnaire.

6.3.5.3. The Student Questionnaire

The student questionnaire contained fewer questions than the teacher questionnaire. Therefore, the construction of the student questionnaire (Appendix K) was relatively easier than the construction of the teacher questionnaire. The student questionnaire contained three questions that were the same with three questions in the teacher questionnaire. The aim of asking the same questions to students was to make comparisons between the responses of teachers and students on the same aspects of English language instruction in Turkey.

The student questionnaire contained a cover page and two sections. The cover page contained a letter to the respondents describing the subject, aims, and importance of the study. The cover page also contained a statement of confidentiality.

Section I of the student questionnaire aimed to gather background information and contained the following questions:

Name (optional)
Gender
Their university
Their department
Their subject
Address of correspondence

The aim of eliciting background information was to get information that could be used for correspondence in case it was needed and in describing the population.

Section II contained three questions and aimed at eliciting students' perceptions on various aspects of English language instruction in Turkey. This section contained questions on the following topics.

Why learning English as a foreign language was important in Turkey.
Aspects of communication for which they thought their courses prepared them.
How proficient they thought they were in different skills in the English language.

6.3.5.4. Piloting the Student Questionnaire

The student questionnaire was not piloted because the student questionnaire contained the three questions of the teacher questionnaire, and because the teacher questionnaire was piloted and corrected according to the feedback. However, this may be a limitation of the study since teacher and student perceptions may vary considerably depending on experience.

6.3.6. The Tasks

This study was aimed at determining ELT students' levels of competence in the speaking and writing skills of the English language. In order to determine students' actual levels in these skills, and to be able to make a comparison between students' perceived levels and actual levels, students were given six different tasks in these two skills. The tasks (Appendices L and M) were aimed at discovering students' ability to speak and write in the six different areas.

The areas in which students' level of competence was to be tested were those that the NRS determined as possible areas in which students may use the language (Appendix B). The main concern in preparing the tasks was that each task had to reflect the area that it aimed to test. Bearing this in mind, the six tasks were prepared. They were relatively short and easy to understand, and reflected everyday situations in the Turkish context.

First, the spoken tasks were prepared. The preparation of the spoken tasks was a somewhat long and difficult process since it required us to consider the context in Turkey carefully, and accordingly, to choose the most suitable ones. Special attention was given to the subjects of the topics. Political and private topics were especially avoided. Finally, after a few weeks work, six tasks were decided upon from among the many that were prepared for speaking.

The tasks that were used for speaking were also used for writing. However, minor changes were made in wording to serve the aims of writing. By using the same tasks for both skills, it was aimed to discover whether students were able to use the language equally competently in both skills. The following paragraphs describe each task and each area.

6.3.6.1. Description of the Spoken Tasks

The spoken tasks (Appendix L) were aimed at finding out students' oral competence. The first task was aimed at testing students' oral competence in procedural communication. "Procedural communication refers to the language ... related to carrying out a task or a number of tasks. It includes giving instructions, applying and following a number of steps or procedures in order to perform and complete a task or tasks" (The NRS, p. 8). In this task, students were given an application form of a company that makes arrangements for English language courses in different parts of the world. The form was in Turkish and included several sections to be filled in by applicants. Students were asked to give instructions to a person about how to fill in the form by reinterpreting the information in English. Students were asked to give the instructions to the present researcher who acted as the person who needed that information. The writing type of this task was 'instruction' of exposition genre.

The second task aimed to test students' oral competence in technical communication. "Technical communication refers to the language ... related to the use of tools or machines – whether simple or complex. It includes the language ... involved in understanding and learning about media as well as about the function of technology and how to use it" (The NRS, p. 8). In this task, students were given a one-page manual of a TV remote control handset. The page contained a drawing of the handset with information in Turkish of the functions of its buttons. Students were asked to reinterpret the information in English. This writing type of this task was 'description or explanation' of the exposition genre.

The third task aimed to test students' ability to speak about themselves,

which constitutes the task in personal communication. “Personal communication refers to the language ... related to expressing personal identity and/or goals. It includes the different ways personal history, knowledge, attributes, goals and opinions are drawn on and expressed for particular purposes” (The NRS, p. 8). In this task students were asked to pretend as if they were interviewed by the executive committee of the company to which they had previously applied for a position. Students were asked to talk about themselves and why they applied for this position. In this task, the present researcher acted as a member of the interviewing committee, asking questions, asking for clarification, and so on. The writing type of this task was ‘personal account’ of narration genre.

In the fourth task, students’ oral competence was tested in systems communication. “Systems communication refers to the language ... related to understanding and interacting within an organisation or institution. In an educational institution or programme it includes learning about the range and design of educational choices and pathways as well as the relationship between classroom and non-classroom activities” (The NRS, p. 8). In this task, students were asked to give information about their department to a friend of theirs who wanted to be a student in that department but who did not know anything about the department. Students were asked to give as much information as possible. The writing type of this task was ‘information’ of the exposition genre.

The fifth task aimed to test students’ oral competence in public communication. “Public communication refers to the language ... related to understanding and interacting within the wider social or community context. In an educational institution or programme it includes learning about and interacting with

other institutions - educational ones, those in local community or those related to employment - for the purposes of future work or study, entertainment or engagement with public interest issues” (The NRS, p. 8). In this task, students were given two topics. They were asked to choose one and speak on it. The first topic was on the roads in Turkey. Students were asked to pretend as if they were talking to the Minister of Transport. Students were asked to tell him their complaints about the roads and present solutions to such problems as the general conditions of the roads, traffic accidents, and public transport. They were also told to act as if their talk were being broadcast on nation-wide television. The second topic was a similar one, but this time it was about the health policies in Turkey. Students were asked to pretend as if they were talking to the Minister of Health about the health policies in Turkey. They were asked to talk about the general conditions of hospitals and problems with them and then present their solutions. They were also told to act as if their talk were being broadcast on a nation-wide television. The writing type of this task may be said to be ‘argument’ and ‘analysis’ of argumentation genre.

The last task was on cooperative communication. “Cooperative communication refers to the language ... related to understanding the function of a group and the roles of the different members, as well as participating in the group including establishing cooperative relationships with its members” (The NRS, p. 8). For this task, students were put in groups of three or four. They were asked to discuss membership to the skiing society of their university. Students were asked to discuss such matters as qualifications needed to be a member of this society, possible rules and regulations of the society, its activities and its administration. The writing type of this task may be said to be ‘opinion’ and ‘argument’ of the argumentation genre.

Table 6.4. The Tasks and Their Genres

Social contexts of communication	Task Types	Genres
Procedural Communication	Instruction	Exposition
Technical communication	Description/Explanation	Exposition
Personal communication	Personal account	Narration
Systems communication	Description	Exposition
Public communication	Argument/Analysis	Argumentation
Cooperative communication	Opinion/Argument	Argumentation

6.3.6.2. Description of the Written Tasks

The written tasks (Appendix M) were in the same order as in the spoken tasks. The descriptions of each area of language use is given in the previous section, and therefore, we will not described them here again. The first task in written communication was procedural communication, and the aim of this task was to test students' competence to write procedures in English. In this task students were given the application form for English language courses in different parts of the world. This application form was in Turkish and students were asked to reinterpret in English in a composition format what procedures that one should follow to apply for one of those language courses. The written tasks represent the same writing types and genres as the spoken tasks.

The second task was technical communication. The aim of this task was to test students' competence in writing in a technical domain. In this task, students were asked to write in English a manual of a television remote control handset by reinterpreting the information on the Turkish version of the handset.

The third task was personal communication. The aim of this task was to test students' competence in writing about themselves. In this task students were asked to

pretend as if their application for a position in a company was accepted and were asked by the executive committee of the company to write about themselves and why they have applied for this position in the company. Although students were asked to write a curriculum vitae, which normally contains short statements about one's qualifications, career and so on, the instructions for this task clearly asked students to write a detailed account of themselves and why they wanted the position. This may be another limitation of the study.

The fourth task was on systems communication. The aim of this task was to test students' competence in writing about their institutions. In this task, students were asked to pretend as if they were giving information to a friend about their department who wanted to become a student at their department but who did not know anything about the department. Students were asked to give as much information as possible.

The fifth task was about public communication. The aim of this task was to test students' competence in writing about events that concern a wider community. In public communication, students were given two topics. During spoken tasks, students had made their choice on which to speak. In written tasks, students were asked to write on the topic that they had chosen in spoken tasks. Depending on the topic, students were asked to write to the related minister about the problems and about the solutions to the problems.

The last task was cooperative communication. The aim of this task was to test students' competence to express opinions and make arguments. In this task, students were asked to write down what happened during the group discussion about the membership to their university's Skiing Society.

6.3.7. The Assessment Scale

The NRS and ESU Framework were the two assessment systems that were considered in this study (see Chapter 4). The two were merged for use in assessing students' levels of competence in the spoken and written tasks.

In the discussion in Chapter 4, it was proposed that the NRS provided a useful account of the contexts of communication, and a description of areas of language use which were thought to be important for the development of a model in this study. The ESU Framework, also discussed in Chapter 4, provided a sensitive and comprehensive set of descriptors for the assessment of student competencies.

It was thought that the new framework based on the NRS and the ESU could be used for both assessment and reporting purposes (i.e., profiling achievement). The merging of the two systems (Figure 6.1) comprises the six areas of the NRS in Figure 4.2, and the ESU levels (Figure 4.3) and descriptors (Appendix D). In the NRS, students' language competence is assessed in six different areas. These are the areas in which students will be likely to use the language. On the other hand, although the ESU system seems more comprehensive, it does not mention specific areas as is the case in the NRS. In fact, the ESU system stresses some areas but not as many as in the NRS. The areas stressed in the ESU are concerned with social and personal, business, and study/training. However, an important characteristic of the ESU system is that it is more flexible than the NRS and allows for the creation of new areas and descriptors whenever needed.

Figure 6.1. The Proposed System With the 9 Levels of the ESU and the 6 Areas of the NRS.

9 Levels of competence						
9						
8						
7						
6						
5						
4						
3						
2						
1						

6 areas of communication	Procedural	Technical	Personal	Systems	Public	Cooperative
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Both the NRS and the ESU are based on criterion referencing. Consequently, the two have much in common. In essence, they assess students in the same way. They compare students' performances to a set of criteria. However, they have some differences.

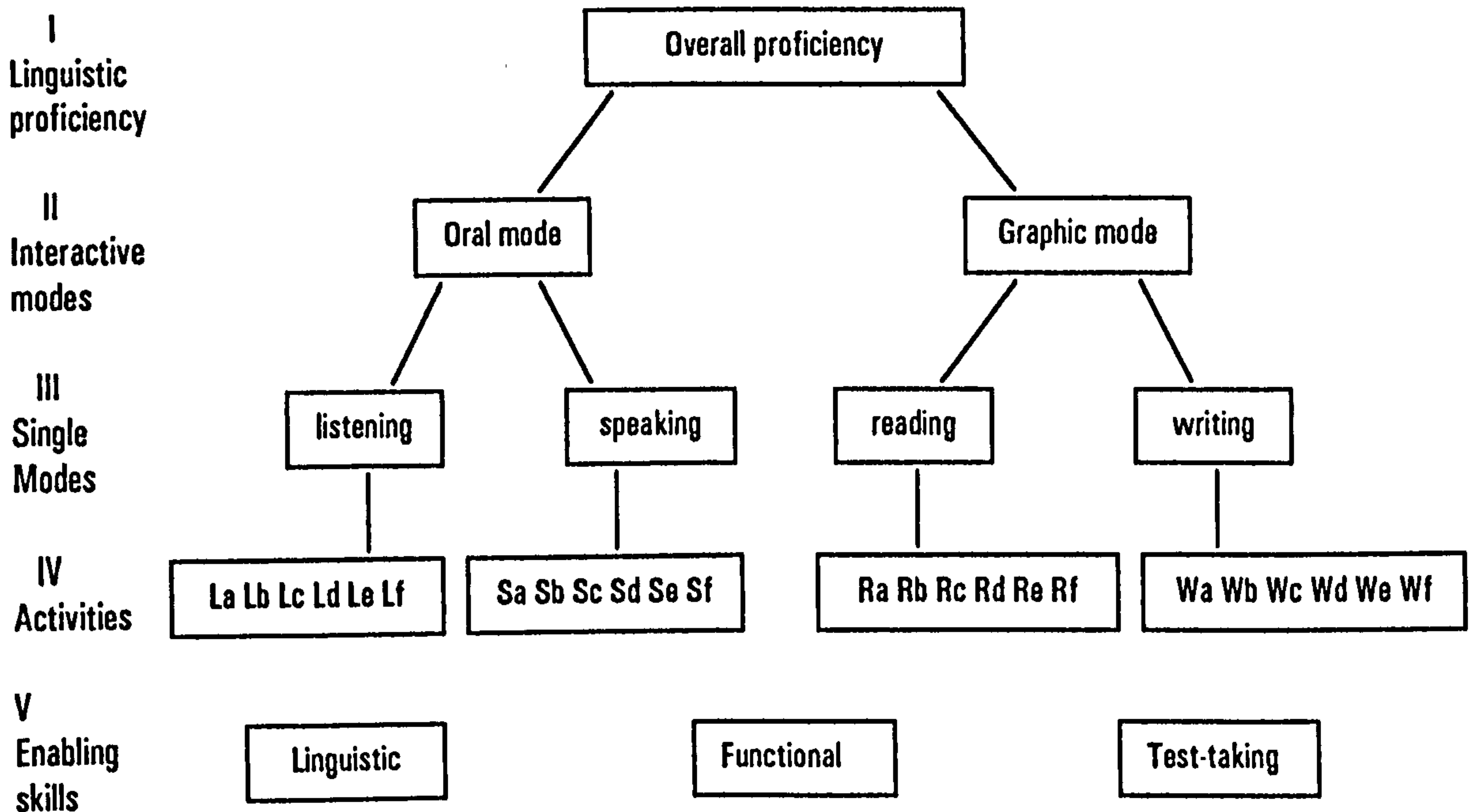
The criteria in the NRS are of two types. Criteria for reporting and criteria for assessing competence in six areas in terms of reading and writing, and listening and speaking. The first type of criteria are used for reporting the characteristics of students to those who need them, and the latter for the assessment of students. However, we are not specifically interested in the reporting function of the NRS, since our intention is not to create a system for reporting. The number of skills emphasised in the NRS is less than the number of skills emphasised in the ESU

system. This makes the ESU system more flexible than the NRS. Consequently, because the ESU has more skills and levels than the NRS and because the descriptors of the ESU are more detailed than those of the NRS, it was found to be more suitable to use the levels and descriptors of the ESU system to assess students' level of competence in the six areas.

The merging of these two systems may lend itself to the needs of the ELT departments. The six areas of the NRS may be used as the areas or domains in which competence in all skills is sought, and the ESU levels and descriptors may be used in assessing the skills in six areas. However, it is important to note that the ESU criteria need to be modified to incorporate the requirements for proficiency in the six areas. It must also be noted that in creating such a profiling system, it may not be necessary to copy the descriptors of other systems. Similar descriptors may be devised according to the needs in Turkish contexts. As Carroll & West (1989) indicate, the ESU criteria can also be changed according to the needs and skills which are tested. The ESU system is flexible enough to make changes in it. The number of domains or areas of language use in the NRS may also be increased whenever a need arises. However, it is important here to point out that although the descriptors needed some changes to incorporate the needs of the six areas, they were not changed while assessing students competence in speaking and writing during the data collection for this study.

Figure 4.2 in Chapter 4 shows the five-stage ESU framework. In Figure 4.2, stage IV contains three different activities in different situations for each skill. In the proposed system, the activities in six areas of the NRS are incorporated at Level IV. Consequently, the proposed system will appear as in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2. The Proposed Five-Stage Model



The only difference between Figure 4.2 and Figure 6.2 is that Stage IV in the proposed system contains activities in the six areas of the NRS instead of activities of the ESU. While describing the stages above, it has already been stated that unlimited scales may be created at Stage IV if needed. Considering the flexibility of the ESU system, the six areas of the NRS have been incorporated in this stage. Including the six areas inevitably increases the number of yardsticks or profiles. The outcome of the merging of the two systems is shown in Table 6.5. A profile in the proposed system might look like the overview shown in Appendix I. This profile consists of three elements: area of knowledge, which is what is to be assessed, e.g., using English language; domain e.g., procedural communication, technical communication, and so on; aspect, which is a particular skill to be assessed, e.g., speaking, writing, listening, reading.

Table 6.5. The Thirty-Four Skills of the Proposed System.

1	Stage I	Overall language proficiency
2	Stage II	Oral proficiency
3	Stage II	Graphic proficiency
4	Stage III	Listening
5	Stage III	Speaking
6	Stage III	Reading
7	Stage III	Writing
8	Stage IV	Listening to and understanding procedures.
9	Stage IV	Listening to and understanding technical communication
10	Stage IV	Listening to and understanding personal communication
11	Stage IV	Listening to and understanding systems communication
12	Stage IV	Listening to and understanding public communication
13	Stage IV	Listening to and understanding cooperative communication
14	Stage IV	Giving procedures.
15	Stage IV	Talking about technical matters
16	Stage IV	Talking about oneself or others
17	Stage IV	Talking about systems
18	Stage IV	Talking about public events or talking to the public
19	Stage IV	Talking about groups and their activities
20	Stage IV	Reading and understanding procedures
19	Stage IV	Reading and understanding technical texts
20	Stage IV	Reading and understanding about others
21	Stage IV	Reading and understanding texts about systems
22	Stage IV	Reading and understanding public matters
23	Stage IV	Reading and understanding about groups and their activities
24	Stage IV	Writing procedures
25	Stage IV	Writing technical texts
26	Stage IV	Writing about oneself or others
27	Stage IV	Writing about institutions/systems
28	Stage IV	Writing about public events or matters
29	Stage IV	Writing about groups and their activities
32	Stage V	Linguistic skills
33	Stage V	Functional skills
34	Stage V	Examination skills

The descriptors in Appendix I are the ESU descriptors of competence for speaking. They are used as an example and have not been modified. However, it is necessary to modify them to incorporate the needs of the domain for use in Turkish contexts.

Appendix I shows the ESU scale for speaking. A similar one was created for writing. During the administration of spoken tasks and after the written tasks the

raters rated students' performances against these two scales. Although we believe that the criteria must be modified, they were not modified for two reasons. The first was that they were tested in the assessment of ELT students in Turkey. Secondly, creating new criteria requires the involvement of ELT departments in a much larger, longer and detailed study "to establish the principles and minimum specifications" (The NRS, p. 1) for the development of such an assessment system. Such a study has to be carried out since this system of assessment is a new one, and the needs for each area in Turkish context must be carefully defined, and criteria must be determined according to these needs.

The descriptors in the NRS have been prepared for use in Australian context for English-speaking people. In order to use them in an EFL context, the descriptors need to be changed, enabling new and wider uses while keeping its functions. In contrast to the NRS, the ESU Framework were prepared for EFL students, and they may be altered to suit the needs of a particular context. However, the ESU criteria that were used in this study were not modified for the purposes of this study because it seemed that this would not have a significant effect on the results in that the criteria were broad and detailed enough to serve the aims of our study.

In the present study, the NRS has been partly utilised. Only the six areas of possible language use the NRS have been used in the proposed assessment system. However, the levels and descriptors of the NRS were not used in the present study because of the following assumptions.

1. Although one function of the NRS is to assess students' level of competence, it is not mainly an assessment system. It is mainly an outcomes-based model of assessment. That is, it is used mainly for reporting the outcomes of adult

education. The aim of the present study is not to create a reporting system, but to create an assessment system to be used to determine ELT students' levels of competence.

2. The NRS has been prepared for Australian context, in an English-speaking country for English-speaking people. Contexts may vary considerably from one country to another.

3. Non-English-speaking background students will have different profiles from those of English-speaking background students.

4. The NRS does not consist of an adequate number of levels to reflect ELT students' levels accurately.

5. The NRS does not consist of detailed competence statements. The descriptors for each level are not descriptive enough to accurately determine students' levels of literacy competency.

Instead of the levels and descriptors of the NRS, the ESU levels and descriptors were used because of the following assumptions:

1. The ESU Framework is an assessment system, not a reporting system though it may be used for reporting purposes.

2. The ESU Framework has an adequate number of levels. This gives teachers more flexibility in placing a student at the exact level.

3. The descriptors for each level in the ESU Framework are more detailed. This may enable teachers to determine the exact level of a student more easily.

5. The descriptors in the ESU Framework were prepared for EFL situations.

6. The ESU Framework offers descriptors for competency in any individual skill in the language as well as for overall language proficiency.

7. By its nature, the descriptors in the ESU Framework can easily be adjusted or altered depending on to the needs and contexts.

6.3.8. Fieldwork.

The fieldwork of (or data collection for) this study took five weeks to complete. During the fieldwork of this study, questionnaires and spoken and written tasks were administered. Doing fieldwork in another country is a difficult job since it requires travel from one place to another, which may be tiring and costly. Except for these problems, no problems were encountered. Doing research in Turkey does not require formal correspondence with the state, and hence time is not spent waiting for permission. Therefore bureaucracy was not a problem. The only requirement is to inform the institution concerned and get their consent prior to starting the fieldwork.

When the ELT departments to be included in this study were identified, the heads of departments were informed of the nature and processes of the study and permission was obtained promptly. Upon receiving the permission from the departments, departments were informed of the dates of visits, departments were visited, and the fieldwork was completed.

Two types of work were carried out during the data collection process: administering the questionnaires and administering the spoken and written tasks. Data collection at University A and University B consisted only of administering the questionnaires while at University C data collection consisted of administering spoken and written tasks as well as administering the questionnaires.

6.3.8.1. Fieldwork at University A

Administering the student questionnaire was the first part of the data collection procedure in each university. Firstly, the ELT department at University A was visited. Although this university was informed and permission for the study was obtained beforehand, detailed information about the aims and procedures of the study was given verbally to the deputy head of department during this visit. Because the head of department had been abroad at the time, the researcher spoke to the deputy head of this department. During this conversation, I was told that I could go into any class any time and administer the questionnaire. Together with the deputy head of department, I entered the first class in the morning and was introduced to students. The head of department briefly told students what I wanted to do and left the class. There were about 60 students in the classroom and students seemed curious about me and my project. They wanted to know about me, my background and why I was doing this study. Therefore, they asked a lot of questions about my education, preferences, profession, and how long I had been teaching, and so on. I answered their questions and talked to them about the subject, aims, and importance of the study. In order to encourage students to participate in the study, I paid special attention to establishing a good rapport between them and me. I observed that students were interested in the study.

During our conversation a verbal statement of confidentiality was made as well as a written statement of confidentiality on the cover page of the questionnaire. All students volunteered to take part in the study. After getting students' consent, it was time to select the sample. The sample was selected as described in section 6.3.3 of this chapter. Students' names had already been obtained from the department and

put on slips of paper. By putting students names in a bowl and picking them randomly one by one, the sample selection was completed. Those who were excluded also wanted to complete the questionnaire. The student sample was selected from a class of sixty. After selecting the sample, the student questionnaire was distributed to students. It took students about 25 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The administration of student questionnaire took about one and a half hours. The first hour was spent talking about the study and establishing a rapport. During the administration of the student questionnaire, students did not ask any questions about the questions in the questionnaire.

The next stage of the data collection procedure at this university was to administer the teacher's questionnaire. During my conversation with the deputy head of department, I was told that because of heavy workload, teachers were very busy at the time, and therefore, some of them were not be available. Following on this new information, the sample selection procedure was changed from simple sampling to convenience-sampling. Therefore, the teacher sample was selected by using the convenience-sampling method as described in section 6.3.3 of this chapter. Because of the unavailability of teachers at the time of the data collection process at this university, teacher questionnaires were given to the deputy head of department to be distributed and collected. One week later, I went back to this department and collected the teacher questionnaires. 50% of the teacher sample at University A responded to the questionnaire.

6.3.8.2. Fieldwork at University B

Secondly, the ELT department at University B was visited for the purpose of administering student and teacher questionnaires. Although permission for the study

had been obtained beforehand, I wanted to visit the head of department to talk about the study. At the time of my visit I was told that students were busy studying for exams. I decided that the questionnaires should be administered by a member of staff at a convenient time. A teacher was identified and he agreed to help. He was instructed about the study and procedures of administering the questionnaires.

The teacher followed the stipulated procedures in selecting the student sample at this department. He first talked to the class about the aims, procedures, and importance of the study. Then he selected from a large class the sample, which had been determined as 30 beforehand. Finally, he administered the student questionnaire. During our later telephone conversation, he stated that students at his department volunteered to take part in the study, and that students spent less than half an hour in completing the questionnaire. He also said that students did not have any difficulty in understanding the instructions and questions in the questionnaire.

I was faced with the same problem in selecting the teacher sample in the ELT department in University B. During my conversation with the teacher who administered the questionnaire, he told me that teachers were very busy and that he was not sure whether he could find enough teachers. Therefore, I decided to use the convenience-sampling method for this sample, too. Consequently, he distributed the questionnaire to those who were available. He collected the questionnaires and about three weeks later, he mailed them to me in a self stamped and self addressed envelope. 70% of the teacher sample at University B responded to the questionnaire.

6.3.8.3. Fieldwork at University C

After the completion of the questionnaire administration at University A and University B, the final part of the fieldwork in Turkey was the fieldwork at

University C. Unlike at University A and University B, the data collection process at University C consisted of three parts: administering student questionnaire, administering teacher questionnaire, and administering spoken and written tasks.

As with the previous two universities, permission for the study was obtained from this university beforehand. When I arrived at this university, I first visited the head of the ELT department. We talked about the aims and the procedures of the study, and he told me that I could start any time I wanted. Then, together with a colleague from this department, we decided on the dates and times of the administration of the questionnaires and tasks. According to this plan, the student questionnaire was to be administered first. Then the spoken and written tasks were to be administered, and finally, the teacher questionnaire was to be administered. We decided to start collecting the data as soon as possible because of the approaching examination period.

Together with a colleague I entered a classroom of fifty-eight students. The fourth class in this department had been divided into two because of the large student population. We chose the earliest class from which to select the sample. He introduced me to the students and gave a brief explanation as to why I was there. Then he left the class. I introduced myself again, talked about my background, my profession and why I was there. I paid particular attention to establishing a good rapport between the students and me in order to encourage their involvement in the study. I told them about the importance of such studies for the development of different components of the ELT programs in Turkey. I gave them detailed explanations as to what I wanted to do and why. I talked to them about the aims, importance and procedures of the study. A verbal statement of confidentiality was

also made. They stated that being part of such a study was important to them and except for two students, they all volunteered. The two students maintained their unwillingness to be involved in the study.

After getting students' consent, the next step was to select a student sample. The student sample was selected by using the same procedures in the previous two universities. After the sample selection, the questionnaires were distributed to students. In total, administering the student questionnaire took about ninety minutes. However, students completed the questionnaires in less than half an hour.

The second step at University C was to administer the tasks (Appendices L and M). This part of the study was completed in two stages. The first stage was the administration of spoken tasks. There were six tasks for speaking in the six areas described earlier in this chapter. The spoken tasks were administered in a room and except for the task for cooperative communication, students were seen individually. Together with each student there were three raters in the room, and they had the ESU framework for speaking ready at hand. Each student was asked to read the topic and to talk about it. When a task was finished, the next one was given to the students. The raters rated each student's performance promptly and independently. The raters included this researcher and another two from this department. Students' conversations were also tape-recorded for later assessment. The task for cooperative communication was given as the last task. In this task students were put in groups of three and four, and they discussed the topic for cooperative communication with each other. During the administration of spoken tasks, this researcher, who was also one of the raters, encouraged students to go on speaking by providing them with prompts. In some tasks, this researcher also took on different roles. For example, during the

task for personal communication this researcher acted as a member of the interviewing committee, and in public communication as the ministers. This was necessary due to the nature of the task. For example, in personal communication, students were interviewed by some people and the conversation had to be interactive. Similarly, in public communication, students were discussing with the ministers. Administering the spoken tasks took three days.

Written tasks were administered in the first class the next day. Although the topics of the tasks for writing were the same as tasks used for speaking, the task for personal communication was somewhat different from the same task for speaking. The task for writing in personal communication asked students to write a curriculum vitae. A curriculum vitae usually consists of short statements. However, the instructions clearly shows that students were asked to do more: to write about themselves in a composition format, not in CV format. This may be considered as a limitation. All the tasks were given to students at the same time, and students were asked to write on the topics. Small changes had been made in wording the questions to serve the aim of writing. For cooperative communication, students were told to write what happened during their group discussion for cooperative communication in speaking tasks. No time limit was determined for written tasks. However, students completed written tasks in less than two hours. The written tasks were also rated by the same raters according to the ESU criteria for writing. Students' written papers were left to the two raters and each rater rated the tasks independently of each other. After rating the written performances, the raters mailed the written papers to the researcher a few days later.

Administering the teacher questionnaire was the last stage of data collection at University C. However, I encountered the same problem that I encountered in selecting the teacher samples in University A and University B. At this university, too, the convenience-sampling method was used in selecting the teacher sample due to the unavailability of teachers. The questionnaire was distributed to those teachers who were available on that particular day. 70% of the teacher sample responded to the questionnaire.

6.4. An Overview of Data Analysis

Two types of data were collected for this study: qualitative and quantitative. In order to analyse the quantitative data, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v6.0) for Windows, and Excel statistical programmes were used. Quantitative data are presented through charts and tables while qualitative data are presented mainly through categorisation and percentages. Charts were created by using both SPSS and Excel statistical programs. Interrater reliability analysis, descriptive statistics, frequencies, means and percentages were computed by using both SPSS v6.0 and Excel.

The student questionnaire elicited students' perceptions of the importance of learning English in Turkey, their perceptions of the areas for which the ELT instruction prepares them, and their perceptions of their own level of competences. Responses to these questions were presented in categories, percentages and means.

The teacher questionnaire contained eleven questions and elicited teachers' perceptions of various aspects of English language instruction, their reflections on the importance of, and aims in, the teaching of English, and activities they did to prepare students in different domains, their perceptions of students' level of

competence in different skills in the English language. The data obtained through these questions were presented in percentages, categories and means. The means and percentages were computed by using the SPSS v6.0 and Excel statistical packages for Windows.

SECTION E

RESULTS

Introduction

This section presents the findings of the study. As stated in earlier chapters, the main question of this study addressed ELT students' level of competence in speaking and writing. In order to study the students' level of competence in speaking and writing, four main types of data were collected, namely:

- 1) teachers' and students' perceptions of the role and function of English in Turkey, and teachers' perceptions of the aims of English language instruction in the ELT departments;
- 2) teachers' practices in the teaching of English and in the assessment of students' level of competence;
- 3) teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence; and
- 4) students' actual levels of competence.

The data on the above topics are presented in four chapters in this section. Chapter 7 presents data on the teachers' and students' perceptions of the role and function of English language in Turkey, and teachers' perceptions of the aims of teaching English language in ELT departments.

Chapter 8 presents data on teachers' activities and practices in the teaching of English and in assessing the students' level of competence. Chapter 9 presents the data about teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence. Chapter 10 is the final chapter of this section. It presents the data about students' actual profiles of competence in the speaking and writing skills of English language

CHAPTER 7

TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ROLE AND FUNCTION OF ENGLISH IN TURKEY

7.1. Introduction.

One aim of this study was to discover teachers' and students' perceptions of the role and function of English in Turkey, and to determine whether teachers' and students' perceptions match. This chapter presents the findings of teachers' and students' perceptions of the role and function of English in Turkey. However, before we present our findings, it will be useful to look at the status of English in the world, and the types of motivation behind learning English.

English is a major world language. It is the most widely used language, and it is the official language of many international organisations, international aviation, and international activities, such as sports and music (Broughton et al., 1978; Strevens, 1982; Paulston, 1992). Broughton et al. (1978) attribute the widespread use of English to two factors. The first is the colonisation of some native peoples by the British. During colonisation, the instrument of colonial power and the medium for commerce and education made English the common means of communication among the colonised peoples. The second factor was the rapidly developing technology of the English-speaking countries. Half of the scientific literature is written in English. Many other languages do not have the concepts and terms of modern sciences and technology which makes English an important tool for learning. Today, English is not considered only the language of English-speaking countries but the language of the world. Paulston (1992) also reinforces this notion. She argues

that social conditions such as emigration, colonialism, military power, trade, scientific knowledge and advanced technology affected the spread of English. Because of these factors, teaching and learning English has been given a great deal of importance.

As stated in Chapter 1, some distinctions are usually made in terms of the uses that English language has in different countries (Broughton et al 1978; Strevens, 1982; Paulston, 1992; Nayar, 1997). In each case, learners have some motivations in learning the English language. Among the many, the most common forms of language teaching are English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL). ENL is used for English in countries where it is the mother tongue of the people. ESL is used in countries where it is the language of mass media, commerce, education, and administration. EFL is used in countries where it is taught in schools as a subject but does not have an important role in national and social life (Broughton et al 1978; Strevens, 1982). Broughton et al (1978) and Lambert & Tucker (1972, cited in Moag, 1982) identified two types of motivation in foreign language learning: instrumental and integrative. According to Broughton et al., the two motivations are characteristics of EFL and ESL situations respectively. When one learns English for instrumental purposes, s/he needs it for operational purposes such as visiting English-speaking countries, reading books and newspapers, communicating with other speakers of the language. When one learns English for integrative purposes, s/he learns it to involve in a speech community more closely, to feel comfortable in it, and to understand the behaviours and the worldview of that community. There are some other factors which make it necessary to learn English in EFL situations. Because English has been the

international language, because it is the language of science, technology and art, and because of the increasing international contacts in all areas some people in EFL situations feels that learning English is necessary. However, although there are such distinctions between the uses or types of learning English, the distinction between ESL and EFL is not clear cut.

Lambert & Tucker (1972, cited in Moag, 1982) claim that integrative motivation has a positive effect in the achievement in foreign language learning, (the desire to identify with the cultural norms and values of the group whose language one is learning) while instrumental motivation has a negative effect in the achievement in foreign language learning, (the desire to learn the language in order to accomplish certain personal goals). Smith (1972, cited in Moag, 1982) identified a third type of motivation: expressive motivation, which is one's desire to express his/her feelings and personality, and to share them with others. Pride (1978, cited in Moag, 1982) states that the three types of motivation – instrumental, integrative, expressive – have an interplay between them. Moag comments:

Whenever anyone uses English, it is, in part at least, to serve some purpose, that is, instrumental. The fact that one is learning and using English, for whatever purpose, reflects at least some degree of willingness to identify with others who use the language, integrative. Finally, the purposes for which one learns and uses English, one's feelings of identification (even if they be negative) with others who use it, and the type of English one uses in a given speech event (Pride, 1978), all express something of one's personality (p. 32).

On the other hand, another important factor which determines the status of a language in a society is, in Moag's (1982) terms, the 'language attitude'. Language attitude is the "relative presence or absence of prestige that a language holds in a given society" (p. 35). It can be said that as a foreign language, English has a high prestige in Turkey. It is more prestigious than French and German, which are the

other two most common languages taught in secondary and higher education in Turkey. Because of the prestige that English has in Turkey, people choose to learn and use it. This prestige comes from its widespread use in the world, and its status as the language of modern, developed countries (Moag, 1982). Table 7.1 is adapted from Moag (1982) and shows the characteristics of English-using societies.

Table 7.1. Characteristics of English-Using Societies (Source from Moag, 1982; p. 12)

FEATURE	EFL	ESL	ENL
SOCIOLINGUISTIC FEATURES			
Language Policy 1. Degree of official recognition	Low	High	High
Language Use 2. Percentage of population using English 3. Influence of English-using group in the society. 4. Range of activities conducted in English. 5. Use in formal domains. 6. Use within informal domains. 7. Learner/user ratio.	Very low Minor Narrow + - High	3% or more Major Broad + + Moderate	40% or more Major Full + + Inverse
Language acquisition 8. Dominant type of motivation. 9. Reference group for integrative component. 10. Secondary external reference group. 11. Degree of informal learning.	Instrumental External - Minimal	Integrative Internal + Considerable	Expressive Internal - Maximal
Language attitude 12. Prestige to speakers. 13. Prestige in society at large.	+ / - + / -	+ +	+ +
Bilingualism 14. Individual versus societal. 15. Type of English bilingualism. 16. Language of higher proficiency. 17. English skills attrition.	Individual Functional L1 High	Societal Coordinate L2 Moderate	Individual Nil L1 Low
LINGUISTIC FEATURES			
Models 18. Competence model. 19. Performance model.	Native Non-native	Non-native Non-native	Native Native
Variation within English 20. Basis of lectal variation. 21. Stylistic variation. 22. Language distance between varieties. 23. Range of registers. 24. Rapid speech forms.	Dominant Minimal Minimal Minimal Nil	Communal Moderate Moderate Moderate Few	Regional and social Maximal Minimal Maximal Many
Interlanguage features 25. Transfer from other languages. 26. Overgeneralisation of rules.	Maximal Moderate	Moderate Maximal	Minimal Minimal

According to Strevens (1980), the demands of today's societies have changed, and these changes affect the current language learning and teaching in many countries. These changes, according to Strevens, may be put in two categories. The first is the "changed social needs and educational functions of foreign languages" (p. 5). Because of the growth of international communication, in almost every country more people are required to have a better command of different languages. This is an instrumental demand in that people and governments need to understand, respond and act, in and through many languages. The second is the changed expectations and attitudes of learners and students, and changes in approaches and methodology. Children learn everything willingly and easily. However, adolescents and adults expect some satisfying reasons for learning a foreign language. If they do not understand the importance of learning a foreign language to their lives, they may not want to learn. However, adult learners become increasingly aware that they need a good command of a foreign language for their future careers, and this has an encouraging motivation in learning a foreign language.

Given all this information about different types of learning English and the motivations behind each type, it was important to find out the kinds of motivation and beliefs behind the English language instruction in Turkey.

7.2. Teachers' Perceptions of the Importance of Learning English in Turkey

Earlier in this chapter, it was argued that English has been a universal language and the reasons for this were explained. In Chapter 1 and in Chapter 5, it was argued that with the developments in Turkey since early 1980s, many changes have been observed in social and economic life. Accordingly, English language gained more importance and its importance is still increasing. It was also argued in

Chapter 5 that English language instruction occupies an important place at secondary and tertiary education in Turkey, and the importance of English is generally believed to come from its role in international communication. However, the validity of this commonly held belief needed to be tested. Also, the nature of the study demands that we understand exactly what role and function English language has in the social, political and educational contexts of Turkish society. Thus, in order to explore this, we elicited both teachers' and students' perceptions of the importance of English in Turkey.

The first question in the teacher questionnaire was an open-ended question and asked teachers to comment on the role of English in Turkey. The aim of this question was threefold: to elicit teachers' perceptions of why English is seen to be important in Turkey; to compare teachers' perceptions of the importance of English to those of students; and to find out the kind/s of motivation behind learning English by comparing the responses with the research described in section 7.1 of this chapter.

Although teachers did not provide detailed explanations, their responses may be categorised as in Table 7.2. The number of responses to this question is 39. The table was constructed by using the categories defined by Moag (1982) in Table 7.1. Table 7.2 shows the responses, types of motivation (Smith, 1972, cited in Moag, 1982) behind learning English or aims of learning English, and functions of English.

Table 7.2. Teachers' Perceptions of the Importance of English, Types of Motivation Behind Learning English, and Functions of English in Turkey.

Motivation	Function	English as a foreign language is important in Turkey because ...	No. of responses	%	Total %
Instrumental	Communicative	English is the international/universal/world/common language	12	30.77	43.59
		English is necessary to communicate with foreigners	3	7.69	
		English is necessary in all areas of communication	2	5.13	
	Social	Knowing English allows people to watch films, follow literature and media	1	2.56	2.56
	Economic	English is a prerequisite to find a (high-status) job	8	20.51	35.89
		English is the language of industry, trade, finance and economy	5	12.82	
		English provides advantages	1	2.56	
	Scientific	English is necessary to use technological tools	2	5.13	15.38
		English is the language of science	3	7.69	
English is necessary to follow the advances in the world		1	2.56		
Integrative		English is necessary to take place among developed countries.	1	2.58	2.58
			39	99.98	99.98

The data in Table 7.2 shows that the role and function of English in Turkey is seen to be mainly communicative and economic. Earlier in this chapter it was argued that English has become a world language, and learning and teaching it has been an important issue for educational systems. The majority of teacher responses (30.77%) indicate that learning English is important because of its international status. This finding correlates with the research literature on the role and status of English as a foreign language in most other countries. As well as its international status, it is seen to have other communicative functions. 7.69% of the responses refer to the role of English to communicate with foreigners. In fact, this response is parallel to the previous one and may be considered together. 5.13% of the responses refer to the importance of English-speaking people to be employed in various areas

of communication. In total, 43.59% of the responses indicated the use of English for communicative purposes.

The second most important function of English is its role in the economy. 35.89% of the responses indicate that English is important for various economical reasons. 20.51% of the responses indicate that English is necessary to find a job/a high-status job or to earn more money. 12.82% see English as necessary in industry, trade, finance, and economy. According to these people, all these areas have connections with foreign counterparts, which makes English necessary in these areas. 2.56% indicate that English provides advantages. These advantages are that English-speaking people are preferred when applying for a job, and those who speak English get good positions and higher wages/salaries.

Another factor that makes English important is its role and status in the sciences. As stated elsewhere, a great proportion of scientific studies are published in English, and in order to gain access to this body of scientific literature, English is seen as a prerequisite. 15.38% of the responses indicate the use of English for scientific purposes, which correlates well with the research literature. 5.13% of the responses indicate that English is necessary to use the technological tools such as computers or many other electronic devices. 7.69% indicate that English is the language of science, and 2.56% indicate that English is necessary to follow the developments in the world. All these findings correlate with the literature.

The role and status of English in social life is indicated by only 2.56% of the responses. This may be quite reasonable because Turkey is an EFL country and English has no role in the daily lives of people. On the other hand, 2.56% of the responses indicate the use of English to be part of the developed countries, which

shows the presence of integrative motivation. This is interesting since, according to literature, it is a characteristic of ESL countries.

The classification of the above data in terms of motivation shows that, according to teachers, there are two types of motivations behind learning English in Turkey: instrumental and integrative. The majority of the responses indicate the presence of instrumental motivation. Instrumental motivation has four different uses: communicative, economic, social, and scientific, which constitutes 97.42% of the responses. This finding correlates very well with Table 7.1.

As for the integrative motivation, it is interesting to see this in teacher responses since, according to Table 7.1, this type of motivation is a characteristic of ESL situations. Only 2.56% of the responses indicate this type of motivation. According to these responses, English is necessary to take place among the developed countries.

One limitation of these responses is that respondents did not state in detail why its international status makes English important in Turkey. Here we face one limitation of obtaining data through the use of questionnaires. This makes it difficult to make inferences about teachers' perceptions. However, teachers' perceptions may be based on the common assumptions that English is the most commonly used world language and as such it is necessary to know English for international communication. Teachers' responses will be compared to those of students in the next section.

We argued here that people learn English for various purposes or motivations, and that these purposes or motivations were either instrumental, or integrative or expressive. Teachers' responses in Table 7.2 show that they believe

that English mainly has an instrumental function in Turkey. That is, according to teachers, English is an important instrument for different purposes in life. Because of the nature of ELT in Turkey, it would be considered reasonable that none of the responses would indicate the integrative motivation behind learning English, since it is considered an aspect in ESL situations. However, it would be reasonable to find responses which would stress the expressive motivation behind learning English since one function of language is to express oneself.

In the previous section, it was claimed that English has become the main international language (Strevens, 1982). Teachers' perceptions of the importance of English in Turkey correlate well with the research literature mentioned in section 7.1 above. That is, English is learned in Turkey mainly for its role and status in the communicative domain, with which our findings in Table 7.2 correlate. On the other hand, the principal motivation behind learning English in EFL situations is said to be instrumental, which was also confirmed by our findings. According to the teachers, English is perceived in Turkey as an instrument for international communication. This indicates that the importance of English comes from its international status. Secondly, it is perceived as an important tool especially in social and economic lives of people. The findings also confirm that in Turkey, where English language instruction may be classified as EFL, English has mainly an instrumental function which correlates well with Table 7.1.

7.3. Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Learning English in Turkey

Because of the assumptions made in Chapter 1 and earlier in this chapter, students were also asked to state their views on the role and function of English in Turkey. The aim here was to find out whether students' perceptions correlate with

the literature, whether there was a correlation between the perceptions of both samples, and whether or not students' preference of learning English was affected by the developments in Turkey after the early 1980s.

An open-ended question in the questionnaire asked respondents to state why learning English was important to them. Students stated a variety of reasons which are presented in Table 7.3. This table was constructed using the categories defined by Moag (1982) in Table 7.1. The total of responses to this question is 165. In this table we see that the responses are more varied than those of teachers' and reflect three types of motivation (Smith, 1972, cited in Moag, 1982) in learning a foreign language. This table indicates that students are aware of the importance of the English language.

The data in Table 7.3 is interesting in that it confirms the findings in the previous literature about the motivation in EFL situations on the one hand, and it shows other types of motivations which are supposed to be found in ESL and ENL situations on the other. The table confirms the previous findings that in Turkey, which is an EFL situation, learning English is important to students mainly for its instrumental function.

Student responses in Table 7.3 indicate the presence of the three types of motivation in learning English: instrumental, integrative, and expressive. However, the majority of responses indicate that students learn English mainly for instrumental purposes.

Table 7.3. Students' Perceptions of the Importance of English, Types of Motivation Behind Learning English, and Functions of English in Turkey.

Motivation		Learning English is important to me because ...	No of responses	%	Total %
Instrumental	Communicative	It is the world/universal/common/international language	51	30.91	49.7
		It is necessary to communicate with different people	24	14.55	
		It is necessary for/means of international communication	7	4.24	
	Economic	It is necessary to find a good job/I will be an English Teacher	25	15.15	29.09
		It is the language of/necessary for economy, trade, business	15	9.09	
		It provides opportunities/advantages in your profession	8	4.85	
	Social	It is the language of art, culture, music and politics	5	3.03	6.66
		It is necessary/I want to read books and magazines	4	2.42	
		It is the language of/important in education	2	1.21	
	Scientific	It is necessary to follow/keep up with the developments in the world.	5	3.03	7.27
It is the language of/necessary for (developing/adapting/using) science and technology		7	4.24		
Integrative		It is necessary to be a member of the world/to be a modern country (individuals and countries)	2	1.21	4.85
		It is a bridge between countries.	1	0.61	
		It is important/necessary to know what is happening around us.	2	1.21	
		It is necessary/I want/helps to know different cultures, people, and life styles.	3	1.82	
Expressive		It is necessary/I want to express myself (wherever I am)	4	2.42	2.42
			165	99.99	99.99

In student responses, too, we see that the role and function of English in Turkey is seen to be mainly communicative and economic. 49.7% of the responses indicate the use of English as a medium of communication, which is in line with the research literature. Student responses also indicate that English has four different communicative functions. The majority of students (30.91%) attributed the

importance of English to its role as the major world language. 14.55% indicate that it is the main tool to communicate with other nations, and 4.24% indicate that it is necessary in or a means of international communication. These findings correlate with the research literature mentioned earlier in this chapter.

The second most important factor that makes English important is its economic function. 29.09% of the responses indicate that learning English is important for economical purposes. 15.15% of the responses indicate that learning English is important to find a good job, or because they will be teachers of English. 9.09% of the responses indicate that English is the language of or necessary for the economy, trade and business. 4.85% of the responses indicate that knowing English provides people with more opportunities or advantages in finding a good job with relatively higher wages or salaries. This may indicate its importance as a tool to find a good job.

6.66% of the responses indicate that students also learn English because of its social functions. In this category, 3.03% of the responses show that students see English as the language of art, culture, music, and politics which correlate with teacher responses and the literature; 2.42% of the responses show that students learn English to read books and magazines; and 1.21% of the responses indicate that students learn English because of its importance in education.

7.27% of the responses indicate that learning English is important for scientific purposes. 3.03% of the responses indicate that learning English is important in following or keeping up with the developments in the world, while 4.24% indicate that it is the language of science and technology. Here we see that

English is necessary in developing, adapting or using science and technology, which is again in line with the research literature.

As for the integrative motivation, 1.21% of the responses indicate that students see English as a tool for both individuals and countries to be a member of the world or to be a modern country. On the other hand, 1.82% of the responses indicate that English allows/helps one to know different cultures, people and life styles. 0.61% of the responses indicate that English is a bridge between countries. On the other hand, 1.21% of the responses indicate that English is important/necessary to know what is happening around the world.

There is a difference between teachers and students in terms of integrative motivation. In teacher responses, integrative motivation constituted a very small part of the responses (2.56%) while in student responses it constitutes a larger part of the responses (4.85%).

Another motivation found in student responses is expressive motivation, which was not present in teacher responses. 2.42% of the student responses indicate the presence of expressive motivation in learning English in Turkey. The responses contain statements about the importance of self-expression anywhere in the world.

In terms of teachers' and students' perceptions of the role and function of English, the findings correlate in some areas and not in others. 43.59% of teacher responses attributed the importance of English to its communicative function while 49.7% of student responses attributed its importance to its communicative function. 35.89% of teacher responses attributed its importance to its economic function while 29.09% of student responses attributed its importance to its economical function.

15.38% of teacher responses attributed its importance to its scientific function while 7.27% of student responses attributed its importance to its scientific function.

If we classify the student responses in terms of motivation, we see all three motivations: instrumental, integrative, and expressive. As in teacher responses, the instrumental motivation in student responses involves the four different functions of English: communicative, economic, social and scientific, which constitutes 92.72% of the responses and which is lower than teacher responses (97.42%). On the other hand, responses that show integrative motivation are higher in student responses (4.85%) than in teacher responses (2.56%). Responses that show the presence of expressive motivation in student responses constitute 2.42% while in teacher responses this motivation is not present. As described in the previous section, integrative motivation is a characteristic of ESL situation. The responses in this category suggest that some students see English as a means to know different cultures, as a bridge between countries, and as a means to be a member of the world. Although the percentage of expressive motivation is small, it is important because it shows that students are aware of the importance of being able to express themselves in a different language other than their mother tongue.

The findings in Table 7.3 correlate with the research cited in section 7.1 of this chapter in which it was argued that the most common motivation in EFL situations is instrumental. It was found that students see English as a tool for communication, and that they learn English mainly for instrumental purposes. The findings also support our argument in Chapter 1 that English language has been an increasingly important language in Turkey since the early 1980s.

If we compare both teacher and student responses in Table 7.4 below, we see that there is an instrumental motivation behind teaching and learning English. 97.42% of teacher responses and 92.72% of student responses indicate this fact. 43.59% of teacher responses indicate its use for communicative purposes while 49.7% of student responses indicated its use for communicative purposes. 35.89% of teacher responses indicated its use for economical purposes while 29.09% of student responses indicated its use for economical purposes. 2.56% of the teacher responses indicated the use of English for social purposes while 6.66% of student responses indicated its use for social purposes. On the other hand, 15.38% of teacher responses indicated its use for scientific purposes while 7.27% of student responses indicated its use for scientific purposes. The instrumental uses of English in both teacher and student responses correlate. However, there are some differences between the two response sets in terms of types of motivation. Teacher responses involve instrumental and integrative motivation while student responses involve all three motivations.

Table 7.4. A Comparison Between Teacher and Student Responses in Terms of Motivation

Teachers			Students		
Motivation		%	%	Motivation	
Instrumental	Communicative	43.59	49.7	Communicative	Instrumental
	Economic	35.89	29.09	Economic	
	Social	2.56	6.66	Social	
	Scientific	15.38	7.18	Scientific	
Integrative		2.56	4.85	Integrative	
Expressive		—	2.42	Expressive	
		99.98	99.9		

The findings show that the motivation behind learning English in Turkey is varied. English is important in Turkey mainly for its instrumental functions. However, we found that integrative and expressive motivations are also present behind learning English in Turkey. One important finding is that English is important because of its role in international communication. It is seen as a universal language, and its importance comes mainly from its international status. The findings also show that teacher and student responses correlate with the research literature on the importance of English. The findings also show that there is a good correlation between teacher and student perceptions in terms of the importance of English.

A t-test was performed to determine the differences between teacher and student responses in terms of three types of motivation. The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between teachers and students in terms of motivation (instrumental: $d=.0475$, $t=.027$; integrative: $d=.229$, $t=.256$). Another t-test was run to compare the differences between teacher and student responses in terms of communicative, social, economic and scientific functions of English. The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between teacher and student responses in terms of communicative, economic, social and scientific functions of English (communicative: $d=.0611$, $t=.054$; economic: $d=.068$, $t=.069$; social: $d=.041$, $t=.4266$; scientific: $d=.564$, $t=.671$). Overall, $t_{TABLE}(202; .05) = 1.96$, and $t_{TABLE}(202;.01) = 2.58$.

7.4. Teachers' Perceptions of the Aims of English Language Instruction in ELT Departments

Teacher perceptions of the role and functions of English are described in the previous section and student perceptions of the role and functions of English, although more varied, confirm this. The next question that arises then is whether

there are explicit aims which govern English language instruction in ELT departments and whether they match the perceptions of the role and function of English. In other words, if teachers and students perceive instrumental function to be most important, are the aims of ELT consistent with this or at odds?

In Chapter 5, it was argued that the aim of the ELT departments is to train students as teachers of English to be employed in secondary and tertiary education. In order to do this, they should have enough knowledge of the target language and should be able to use it effectively in different social situations for different purposes. Before we present teachers' perceptions of the aims of English language teaching in ELT departments, it would be useful to remember the aims that these departments have and their role in the teaching of English.

In Chapter 5, it was argued that the main aim of ELT departments in Turkey is to train their students as teachers of English that are needed mainly in secondary and higher education for foreign language instruction. However, we did not have any information about whether teachers were aware of the aims of the ELT departments.

An open-ended question in the teacher questionnaire elicited teachers' perceptions of the aims of English language teaching in ELT departments. The aim of this question was to explore whether teachers' aims were parallel to the aims of their departments in the teaching of English. Teachers' awareness of the departmental aims is important because it may show us whether the teaching of English is carried out in accordance with the aims of the ELT departments.

Teacher responses to this question (Table 7.5) show significant variety in terms of the aims of these departments. The figures in Table 7.5 show the percentages of occurrences of each response among twenty-one responses. Except for two, other responses have only one occurrence.

Although, there is a significant diversity among the responses, the majority of the responses show that the aim of English language teaching in ELT departments is to prepare students as teachers of English. Of the ten different responses, the first four reflect the aims of ELT departments which constitute the majority of responses (66.7%). This shows that teaching English in these institutions is mainly directed to preparing students for the world of work. In other words, English language instruction, according to teachers, serves the aim of these departments.

Table 7.5. Teachers' Perceptions of the Aims of English Language Teaching in ELT Departments

In our institution, the most important aim/s in English language teaching is/are ...	Number of responses	%
To prepare students as teachers of English	11	52.38
To provide professional knowledge	1	4.76
To teach students the teaching abilities	1	4.76
To make students competent in the English language	1	4.76
To teach grammar	1	4.76
To teach English to students to find a job	1	4.76
To teach reading, writing and translation skills	1	4.76
To teach the four skills	1	4.76
To teach how to teach the language, not the language itself	2	9.52
To provide students with intercultural knowledge	1	4.76

However, other responses proved to be very confusing in terms of the aims of the ELT departments. Although, every department has clearly defined aims in its curriculum and although the majority of respondents indicated that the aim of English language teaching was to prepare students for the world of work, the diversity of the responses makes it clear that the aims at departmental level have not

been clearly understood by all teachers. For some, the aim was to teach some of the skills, for some the aim was to teach English to students to find a job, for others the aim was to provide students with cultural knowledge, and for others to teach grammar. Two responses are worth commenting upon. Two respondents stated that the aim of English language instruction in these departments was not to teach the language itself but to teach how to teach the language. This is partly inconsistent with the aims of ELT departments. As their names indicate, the aim of ELT departments is to teach the English language. Teaching the language teaching methodologies should be a natural component of the foreign language instruction in ELT departments since they educate students to be teachers of English. Instead of teaching to achieve the departmental aims, it seems that some teachers ignore the departmental aims in the English language instruction. In other words, although the aim of ELT departments is to provide teachers who are able to use the English language effectively for a variety of purposes in a variety of areas, the responses imply that some teachers perceive language instruction as students' mastery in teachers' own areas of specialisation. It would be possible to fulfil both departmental aims and personal aims in the English language instruction. However, if the aims of the ELT departments are ignored, one cannot make sure that students acquire the language and the skills to the extent that is necessary for teaching or using it.

Another important point is that reference was made to four basic skills, grammar, and translation. As well as these skills, the curricula of these departments have some other skills or course-related aspects of the language. No reference was made to other skills or other aspects of the language that are part of the curriculum, such as linguistics, syntax, semantics, etc. (Appendix G), or to the aims of the

courses (Appendix H).

These findings show that the aims of the ELT departments are not clearly understood by teachers. Some of the responses in Table 7.5 contradict with the aims of the ELT departments. These responses reflect the individual aims rather than the departmental aims. There may be some reasons for this. The first may be that, although it seems unlikely, these departments do not have their aims written down. Secondly, these departments may have their aims written down, but they may not have been made explicit to the teachers. Thirdly, the findings imply the lack of evaluation of the effectiveness of the language teaching programme. The last two seem more likely.

7.5. Conclusion

Because of its international status, English language occupies an important place in the curricula of educational systems in the non-English-speaking world. As we have explored in chapter 4, English language and its teaching (ELT) has an important place in the curricula of Turkish secondary and tertiary education.

In light of our findings in this chapter, it may be said that, according to the teachers, English is important for its role in international communication and for its use for instrumental purposes. It is seen as the language of the world, and therefore, it is perceived as the most important tool in social, economic and partly in scientific areas. Strevens' (1982) claim that "English language ... is now indisputably the principal language of the modern world" (p. 418) has been affirmed by both teacher and student responses. That is, according to teachers, English is learned mainly for its communicative function. On the other hand, the principal motivation behind

learning English in Turkey was found to be instrumental, which is a characteristic of EFL situations, and which correlates with Table 7.1.

According to students, the motivations behind learning English in Turkey are more varied. Students also stated that English is important in Turkey mainly for its instrumental functions. Student responses correlate well with those of teachers and with the research literature. Students also think that English is important because of its role in international communication. They see it as the language of the world.

The findings in this chapter also show that the aims of the ELT departments are not clear to teachers. Some of teacher responses are a reflection of their individual aims rather than the departmental ones. There is not a good correlation between the aims of ELT departments and teacher responses. The findings indicate a misperception of departmental aims. Because English has an important place in Turkish educational system at all levels and in the lives of many people, the aims of the ELT departments must be made explicit to the teaching staff in these departments.

CHAPTER 8

TEACHERS' PRACTICES IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AND IN THE ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS' LEVEL OF COMPETENCE

8.1. Introduction

One aim of this study was to discover the types of activities and strategies that teachers employed in the teaching and assessing the English language. This chapter presents the data about teacher practices in the teaching and assessment of English in ELT departments in Turkey. It is generally believed that language programmes should enable students to use language effectively for different communicative purposes. However, often the notion of communicative purpose is implicit in language teaching programmes. Moreover, the extent to which programmes are designed to enhance the communicative competence of students in different 'domains' of language use, or to put in other way, to enhance communication for different purposes, is not clear. This chapter is particularly interested in how we might define different communication domains and purposes and to establish the relative 'weighting' of the emphasis on each.

The study was also interested in teacher perceptions of the communicative purposes of language. In order to find out the kinds of language activities employed in language teaching in Turkey and form of assessment used in ELT departments, teachers were asked to respond to a set of questions in the teacher questionnaire. The following section will discuss teachers' responses in terms of practices in the teaching of English and assessment of students in the ELT departments.

8.2. Teachers' Perceptions of the Communicative Domains Emphasised in the ELT Programmes

The main aim of this study was to explore Turkish ELT students' levels of competence in the speaking and writing skills of English language. Under this broad aim, this study also aimed to explore different aspects of English language instruction in ELT departments. One of these aspects was teachers' perceptions of the communicative domains emphasised in the ELT programmes. As discussed in Chapter 5, it appears that the primary aim of the ELT departments in Turkey is to prepare students as teachers of English. One would expect that when students graduate from these departments they would be able to use the English language for different social purposes in different 'domains'.

Although the primary aim of these departments is to provide teachers of English to be employed in the teaching of English at different levels of education, it does not mean that students do not have any other alternative for employment. It is the individual student's preference to be a teacher or involved in any other profession. In short, they may not only be involved in a profession in the educational arena but also in different professions outside the educational arena that they may prefer. Since students learn the English language mainly for professional purposes, it is natural to think that they will use this language for different purposes in different domains. Therefore, we wanted to find the domains for which the English language instruction prepares students. The terms 'area', 'domain' and 'social situation' will be used interchangeably in this chapter.

8.2.1. Domains of Communication

Four possible domains of communication were determined. These are work, personal, public, and academic.

‘Communication in the world of work’ refers to the use of the language in a range of professions or trades in which students are to be engaged after they have graduated. This may be in or outside an educational domain. Language use may involve talking to people in the work environment, writing or reading information related to work.

The domain of ‘personal communication’ refers to the language used to talk to friends, family, and relatives about oneself or others, and using language to express own feelings and thoughts.

‘Communication in public life’ refers to the language used to talk to or write in public spaces, for example, to communicate with municipality or local government officials about public issues.

Communication in the academic world refers to the language used in classroom environment or outside about course-related subjects such as reading and writing academic essays, taking notes, talking about courses, and giving oral presentations in the classroom.

One of the questions in the teacher’s questionnaire aimed at discovering the domains for which the teaching of English in ELT departments prepares students. This question was a 5-point ranking scale, which contained four statements including four different communicative ‘domains’ described above. Respondents were asked to rate the four domains of communication that they thought were emphasised most and least. Examples were given to describe each domain so that teachers had a clear understanding of what was meant. The same question was also included in the student questionnaire (section 8.3 of this chapter) for the same reasons.

All respondents (100%) responded to this question. The teacher ratings in

terms of the four domains are varied. The method that was used to evaluate teacher responses is described in Appendix N. Table 8.1 below provides the results:

Table 8.1. Teachers' Perceptions of the Communicative Domains for Which ELT Prepares Students (n=19).

Importance	Domains			
	Communicating in the world of work %	Personal communication %	Public communication %	Communicating in the academic world %
Most Important	63	26	21	53
Moderately important	21	21	21	32
Least important	16	53	58	16

According to this table, the emphasis in the teaching of English is placed on preparing students for the world of work. This response is consistent with the responses to the previous question described in Chapter 7. 63% of the respondents stated that the teaching of English prepared students for work-related communication. Preparing students for communication in the academic world was rated as the second most important (53%). On the other hand, preparing students in the areas of public communication and personal communication were rated as the least important. 58% of the respondents stated that preparing students for communication in public life was the least important. Preparing students for personal communication was rated by 53% of the respondents as the second least important domain.

Although these findings suggest that the teaching of English prepares students for the world of work and for academic world, the ratings of personal communication and public communication contradict with the aims of ELT

departments. As we stated earlier, the aim of these departments is to make students literate enough in the English language so that they can use English effectively in all areas both in their future teaching careers and in other careers. Modern descriptions of literacy define it as using the language, in the first or second/foreign language, effectively in all areas. However, it appears that English language instruction in these departments prepares students for very limited domains: for the world of work, and for academic communication. This might mean that students have a limited level of competence in the language. However, although English language instruction prepares students for the world of work, incompetence in personal communication may prevent them from communicating effectively in their careers.

Based on the findings in Table 8.1, the graphic representations in Tables 8.2 and 8.3 show the ranking of the areas which were considered most important and least important in the teaching of English. Out of 19 respondents, 63% indicated that they thought that the teaching of English in the communicating in the world of work was the most important, and 53% indicated that the teaching of English in the academic communication was the most important. On the other hand, teachers indicated that the teaching of English in public communication and personal communication was the least important. 58% of the respondents indicated that public communication was the least important and 53% indicated that personal communication was the least important. As seen in Tables 8.2 and 8.3, there are most important and least important areas. No areas were given moderate importance.

Table 8.2. Teachers' Perceptions of Most Important Communicative Domains

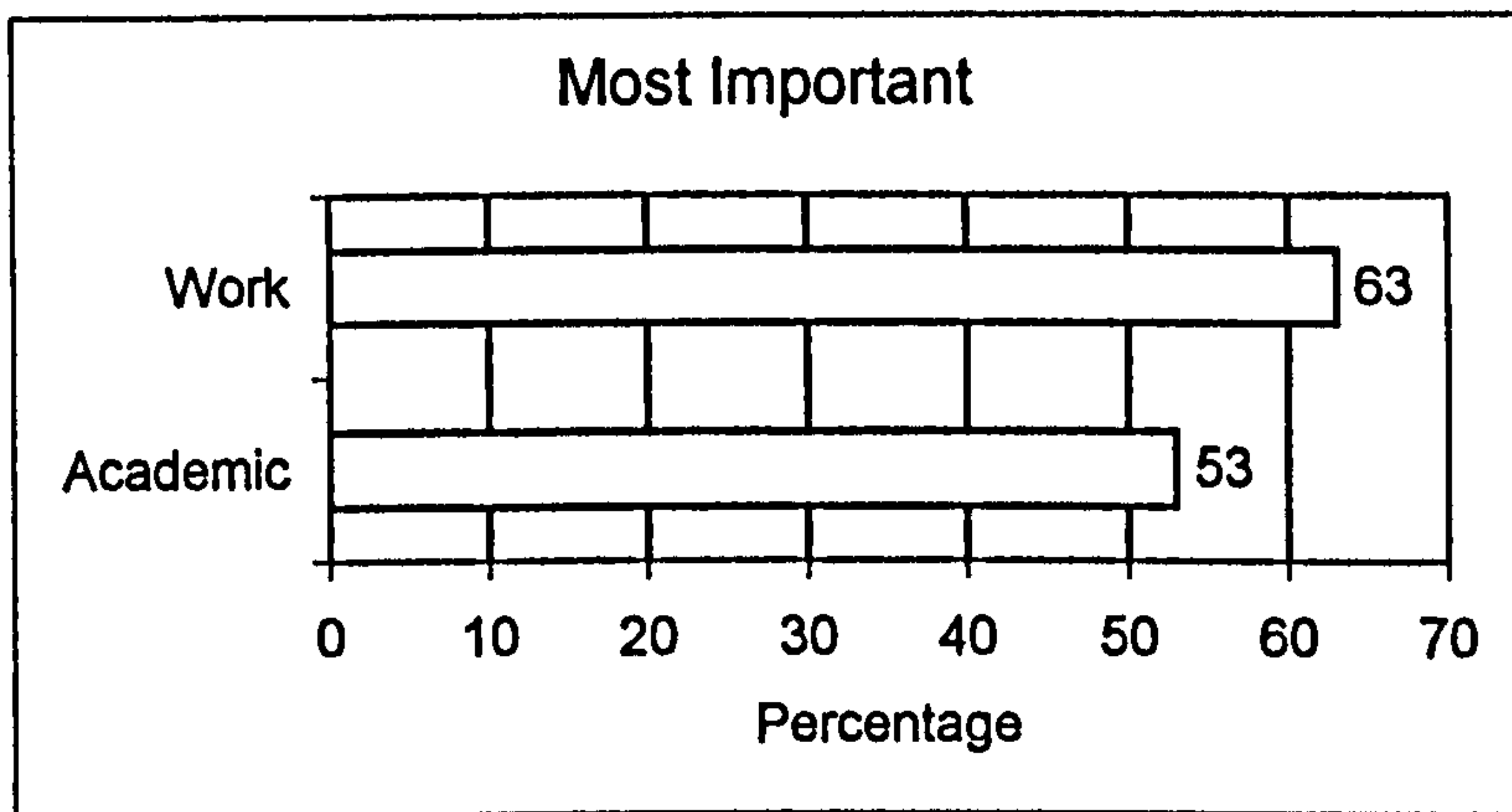
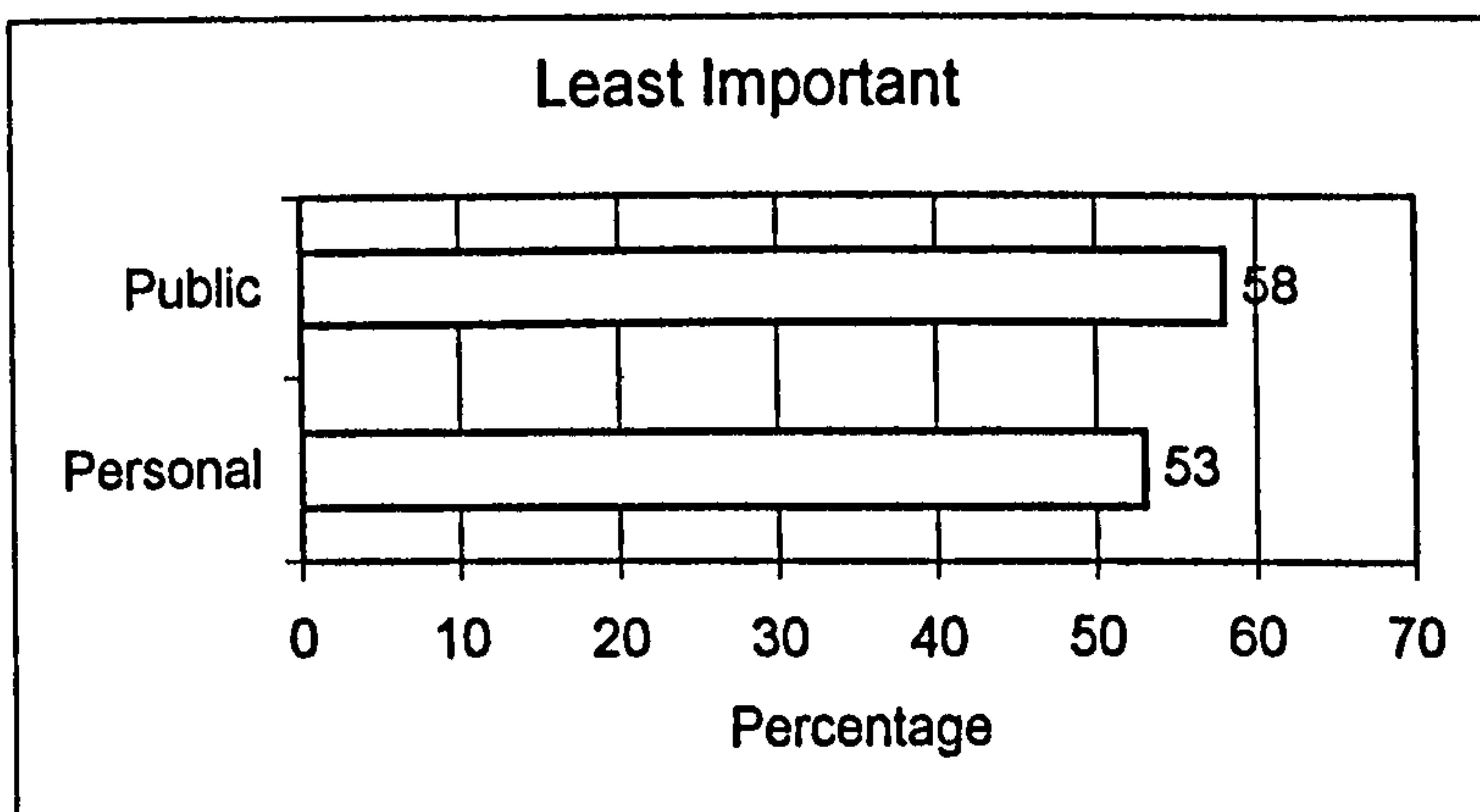


Table 8.3. Teachers' Perceptions of Least Important Communicative Domains



Our findings suggest that, according to teachers, the emphasis of ELT programmes is skewed towards two domains to the neglect of two other potential domains of communication. It is then easy to conclude that students will achieve greater competences in language tasks required in the 'world of work' and the 'academic world'. However, this assumption remains to be tested. For students, tasks in the academic world should be relatively easy since communicating in the academic world usually involves a limited use of the language, with which they have already been familiar. However, when students start their careers with a limited level of literacy in the language they will be likely to have difficulties in using the language.

8.3. Students' Perceptions of the Communicative Domains Emphasised in ELT Programmes

Another aspect that this study aimed to explore was students' perceptions of the communicative domains emphasised in the ELT programmes. As stated in section 8.2, students are expected to achieve a sufficient level of competence, which would enable them to use the English language in different domains. Students' awareness of the instruction that they receive is important for them because this enables them to know whether they are progressing in the right direction. Students' perceptions of the instruction are also important for us to understand whether or not they are aware of the aims of language instruction. Therefore, we wanted to find out students' perceptions of the domains for which the English language instruction prepares them. Four possible domains of communication were determined, as described in the previous section.

8.3.1. Domains of Communication

The domains that were determined as the domains of communication were work, personal, public, and academic, which were already described in section 8.2.1. In order to explore the communicative domains that students think were emphasised most and least, a question in the student questionnaire asked respondents to rate the four areas that they thought emphasised most and least. This question was a 5-point ranking scale, which contained four statements including four different communicative 'domains' described above. Students were asked to rate the four domains on a 5-rank scale in terms of their perceived importance in the English language instruction. Examples were given with each domain to make students understand what is meant by each domain. All respondents (100%) responded to this

question. The responses to this question will enable us to find out the direction of the instruction from the point of view of students. The method that was used to evaluate student responses is described in Appendix O. Table 8.4 below provides the results.

Table 8.4. Students' Perceptions of the Communicative Domains for Which ELT Prepares Them (n=90)

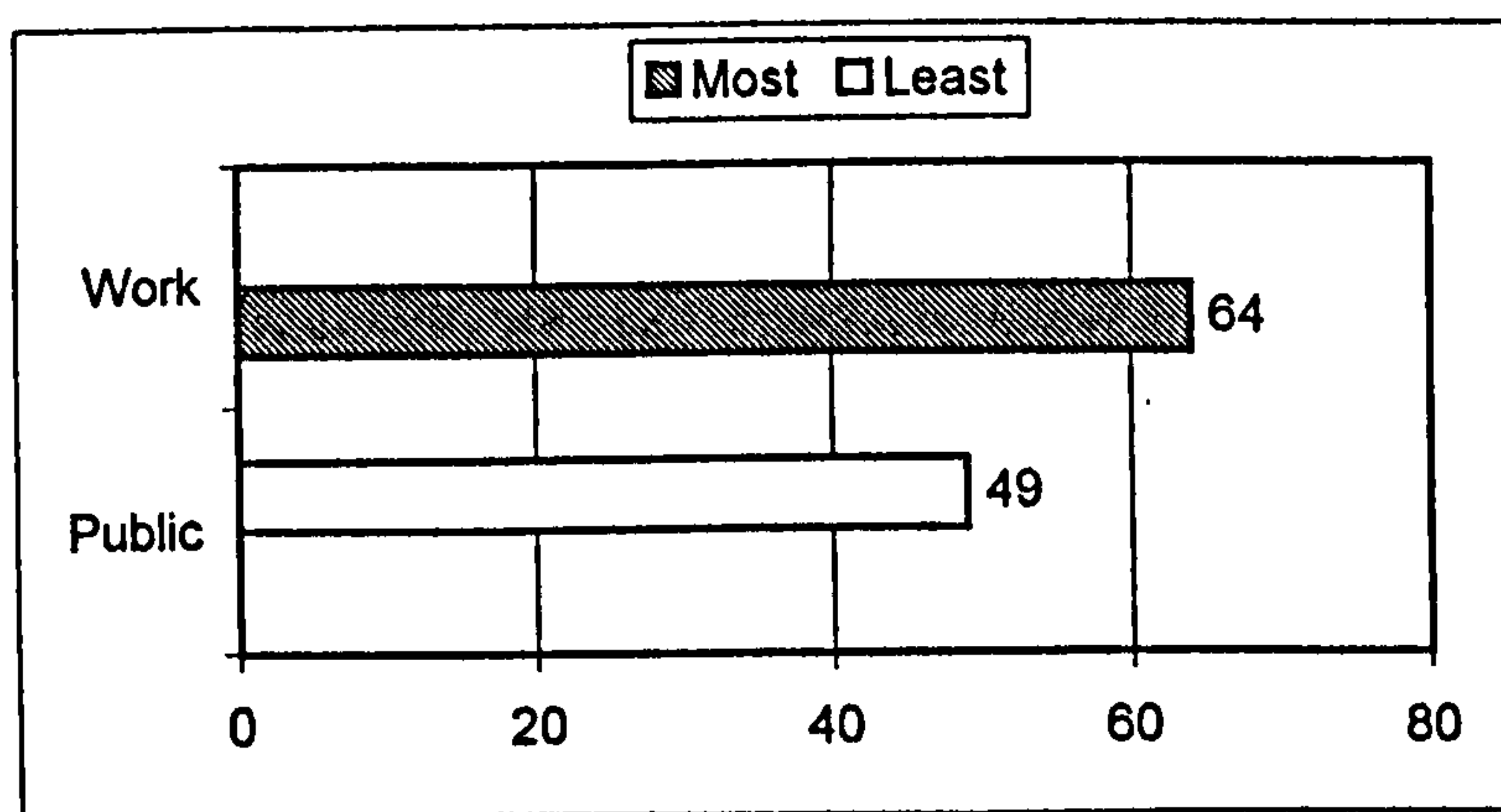
Importance	Domains			
	Communicating in the world of work %	Personal communication %	Public communication %	Academic communication %
Most important	64	44	27	48
Moderately important	17	27	24	22
Least important	19	29	49	30
Total percentage	100	100	100	100

Table 8.4 shows students' perception of the most and least important domains. Like teacher ratings, student ratings in terms of the four communicative domains for which the English language instruction prepares students are also varied.

The majority of students (64%) think that the emphasis of ELT programmes is on communication in the world of work. 48% of the students placed second high importance on communication in the academic world. According to students, personal communication was also emphasised in English language instruction in ELT departments. 44% of students placed high emphasis on personal communication. This shows a contradiction between teachers' and students' responses. In teachers' responses, personal communication was rated as one of the least important areas (53%). On the other hand, 49% of students think that the ELT does not prepare students for communication in public life. Student responses do not correlate well with teacher responses in Table 8.1.

Based on the figures in Table 8.4, the graphic representation in Table 8.5 below shows the ranking of the areas which were considered most important and least important areas in the teaching of English in ELT departments. This table correlates well with our findings in Tables 8.2 and 8.3. In this table, no areas were given moderate emphasis.

Table 8.5. Students' Perceptions of the Most and Least Important Communicative Domains



This section has established the areas or domains in which communication in English is thought to be important. It also established the relative emphasis placed on the teaching in the ELT departments. Teacher and student responses correlate to some extent on the domains for which the English language instruction prepares students. The assumption that the teaching of English in ELT departments prepares students for limited areas has been confirmed by both teachers and students. The findings imply that both teachers and students are in general aware of the direction of instruction in these departments.

In the previous sections, we explored the domains that were perceived by both teachers and students as important in the teaching of English. However, preparing students as competent users of the language in different domains requires

different language activities in the language classroom. The importance and effects of different language activities in learning/teaching a foreign language is clearly documented in the literature. According to Greenall (1984), “a language activity ... refers to any activity which is used to consolidate language already taught or acquired” (p. 5). Greenall further argues that classroom activities are variously called drama, role-play, simulations, games, and they are frequently used in the classroom to allow students to drill the language they are learning. “Activities may make lessons more lively and motivating and may create an opportunity for spontaneous, authentic language practice in the classroom” (p. 5).

Other than the ones in the course book, different language activities should be used in the language classroom for several reasons. The teacher and the course books have a control over the language in the classroom. That is, students have a limited use of the language. In order to learn the language more effectively, students should start using the language as soon as they start learning a language. The teacher should have an encouraging role in this transition by simulating real-life situations outside the classroom. On the other hand, in a language activity students may produce the language without the controlling effect of the teacher and the course book. Besides, this may create a listening activity. Again, language activities are useful tools which have proved to reinforce the learning process. They provide a chance for learners to practice what they have learned in a context in which they feel more comfortable (Greenall, 1984).

The facilitating role of language activities has also been reflected by Nunan. Nunan (1991) discusses the importance of activities in speaking:

the theory and research ... suggests that learning to speak in a second or foreign language will be facilitated when learners are actively engaged in attempting to communicate. As Swain suggests ... we learn to read by reading, so also do we learn to speak by speaking” (p. 51).

On the other hand, Nunan (1991) also points to the limiting nature of activities presented by textbooks. Nunan argues:

Although these exercises provide essential preparatory practice for communication, they are essentially enabling activities which do not go far enough (i.e., they give controlled practice in the grammatical and phonological building blocks of the language, but provide few opportunities for genuine communication) (p. 52) (italics added).

Nunan states that such exercises may develop fluency skills of low-level students and provide them with authentic but limited opportunity for communicative interaction. An important point in choosing tasks and activities for developing speaking skills, according to Nunan (1991), is that they should reflect the purposes for which learners learn the language. On the other hand, Nunan further argues, when developing classroom activities for written language, the differences between speaking and writing should be taken into account since spoken and written language serve different functions and have different characteristics.

Language activities are an essential part of the National Reporting System (NRS), which was utilised in this study. According to the NRS, language activities may encourage methods of extending teaching and the contexts in which students may demonstrate their competence. In sum, it may be said that language activities enable students to practise what they have learned, which reinforces the process of learning.

Given all these findings, it may be concluded that any language programme should include different activities in order to develop students’ language competence

and make them gain acquaintance with different forms and conventions of communication in that language. In order to find out the kind of activities that teachers were engaged in to prepare students for the four domains described in the previous two sections of this chapter (work, personal, public and academic), and whether the activities were consistent with those areas, teachers were asked to respond to a question in the teachers' questionnaire. This question was an open-ended one and asked teachers to specify the activities they were doing to prepare students for these areas. Not all respondents specified activities for all areas. Some respondents did not specify at all what they were doing, some respondents specified the activities in one or two areas, and a few specified the activities in all four areas.

The responses are diverse and except for three, all other responses have only one occurrence (Table 8.6). According to the responses, it can be said that teachers employ a variety of activities to develop students' competence in the four areas. However, some of the responses found to be confusing in terms of their relevance to the domain specified. Because there is no detailed explanation of the activities and of how they contribute to the development of students' competence in those areas, it is difficult to reach a conclusion about the effects of some of the activities on the areas specified. For example, how 'watching videos, watching foreign TV channels, and using the Internet' can contribute to students' preparation for communication in the world of work is not clear. Are the videos prepared for this purpose? How and where students can attend seminars is not clear either. Here we face again the limitations of questionnaires as a data collection method since we do not have the chance to ask for clarification.

Table 8.6. Language Activities Carried Out to Prepare Students for the Four Communicative Domains

Domain	Activities
Communicating in the world of work	Attending lectures and seminars is encouraged.
	ESP translation, speaking and writing.
	Preparing them through methodology, writing and reading courses
	Teaching the terminology related to various areas of work
	School practice/practicum
	Encouraging correspondence with pen-friends
	Watching videos and foreign TV channels, using the Internet
	Teaching commercial correspondence techniques
	Role-playing activities
	Encouraging students to work at tourist places
Personal communication	Group work activities
	Encouraging students to speak to classmates in English
	Encouraging students to correspond with native speakers
	Discussing on different topics in speech classes.
	Encouraging students to talk to tourists
	Dialogues and conversations
	Watching videos
	Using situational dialogues.
	Encouraging students to read newspapers in English
	Encouraging them to use the internet to meet people
	Speaking activities.
Listening activities	
Encouraging listening to radio broadcasts in English	
Communicating in public life	Writing compositions on different subjects
	Letter writing
	Speaking classes
	Exercising all kinds of writing in writing classes
	Giving real world situations in speaking classes
	Discussions on topics in speaking classes
Communicating in the academic world	Writing term papers and homework
	Writing and conversation courses
	Teaching academic communication
	Translating essays of theorists and scholars
	Reading and discussing new approaches and theories in the field
	Teaching advanced writing skills and research techniques
	Attending seminars, lectures, workshops
	Giving research assignments
	Asking students to read articles from TESOL Quarterly and Forum

In this context, communication in the world of work refers to the use of the language in their future careers, that is, either in teaching or in any other career requiring competence in the English language. Ten different activities were specified for communication in the world of work. However, the contribution of some of the specified activities on the related domain seems ambiguous. They need further clarification by teachers. Other activities that seem less ambiguous also need further clarification.

Thirteen activities were specified for personal communication. The activities specified for this domain mainly consist of activities based on speaking, writing and listening skills. Except for the first three activities specified, all other activities are also vague and need further explanations on their contribution to the preparation of students for this domain.

Respondents specified six different activities for communication in public life. However, as with the previous two domains, some of the activities specified for this domain are also ambiguous and need further clarification by teachers. The activities specified for this domain are based only on speaking and writing.

The activities specified for the communication in the academic world seem more consistent and clearer than the ones specified for other domains. Teachers specified nine activities which are directed mainly at improving students' ability in using the language for academic purposes.

The aims and effects of most of the activities are not clear. However, it can be said that teachers employ a variety of activities to prepare students for the four areas. That is, they are aware of the importance of language activities in the classroom. Although the aims of many activities are not clear, and it is difficult to understand

how they contribute to those areas, teachers may have a rationale for them. One indication of these responses is that teachers do not have a certain programme to follow, in which the aims of, and course of action in, the English language instruction are clearly defined. The inconsistency of some of the activities may be an evidence for this. Another indication is that although different language activities are carried out in the classroom, it seems that these activities do not reflect the purposes for which learners learn the language.

8.4. Genres Emphasised in the Teaching of English

A good level of competence in English is necessary for ELT students to be able to use the language for different purposes in different social situations, since this will have a crucial role in their future careers. In order to improve students' ability to use the language for different purposes in different social situations, students must be made aware that different social situations require different uses of the language. This leads to the teaching of different genres in the English language for different purposes in different social situations.

In Chapter 3, the term 'genre' was explained in detail. It was argued that the term 'genre' refers to "a distinctive category of discourse of any type, spoken and written, with or without literary aspirations (Swales, 1990, cited in Gee, 1997). Genre also refers to different types of social activity achieved through different texts – spoken or written – that are associated with them (Tribble, 1996). Another definition in the same chapter defined genre as "a type or kind of text, defined in terms of its social purpose; also the level of context dealing with social purpose" (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993; p. 250). Since the ELT departments aim to meet the need for English language teachers at all levels of education in Turkey, we assumed that

students in these departments should be literate enough in the language that will enable them to use it effectively for different purposes in different social situations. The social situations in this study are the ones that the NRS determined and defined as the aspects of communication in which students will be likely to use the language. In Chapter 4, we argued that one of the characteristics of the NRS was that it is based on a variety of theories one of which is the genre theory. Therefore, the six aspects of language in the NRS will also be referred to as the six 'genres' in this study. Because the descriptions of the six genres were given in Chapter 6, and in Appendix B, we will not repeat them here.

In order to explore the genres that are emphasised most and least, teachers were asked to respond to a question in the teacher questionnaire. This question was a 7-point Likert scale and was an extended version of the question explained in 8.2. It contained the six areas of language use (genres) of the NRS and communication in the academic world. The six genres of the NRS were the areas in which students' language competence was tested in this study. Communication on academic matters was also included as the seventh genre in order to see whether it had priority over the other genres. This question also contained an 'other' option which aimed to elicit whether other aspects or genres were emphasised in the teaching of English.

Teachers were asked to rate the seven areas on a 7-point Likert scale, 7 being that on which most emphasis was being placed and 1 being that on which least emphasis was placed. Of the 19 respondents, 18 (95%) responded to this question. The method that was used to evaluate teacher responses is described in Appendix P.

The figures in Table 8.7 show the rounded percentages of teachers' perceptions of the seven genres on which they placed high, moderate and low

emphasis.

Table 8.7. Teachers' Perceptions in Terms of Emphasis Placed on Seven Genres

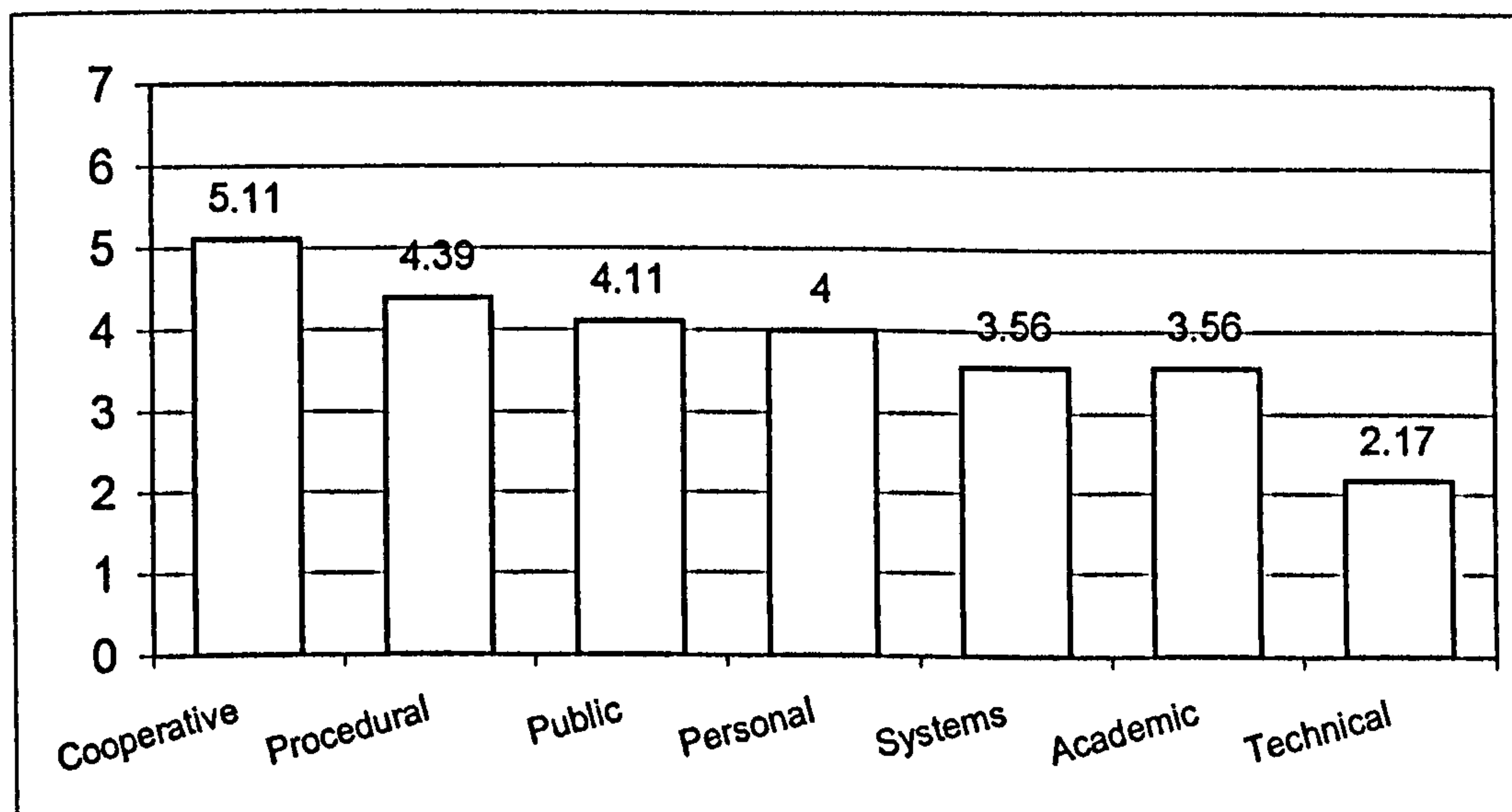
Emphasis	Genres						
	Procedural %	Technical %	Personal %	Cooperative %	Systems %	Public %	Academic %
High	39	6	28	44	22	22	6
Moderate	39	33	39	44	44	61	61
Low	22	61	33	11	33	17	28

The findings in this table indicate that in the teaching of English in the ELT departments, high emphasis was being placed on the genre of cooperative communication. 44% of the respondents placed high emphasis on cooperative communication. That is, the ability to talk or write in or about a group is emphasised more than the abilities to communicate in other areas. Genres of public and academic communication were given moderate emphasis (61% each) while 61% of the respondents placed low emphasis on technical communication genre. Public communication would be expected to have a lower emphasis since it is hardly possible for students to interact with a large community using the English language. 11% of the respondents attributed a moderate emphasis, and 6% placed a low emphasis on 'other' areas but they did not specify what those areas were.

By using the data in Appendix P, the genres were rank-ordered as in Table 8.8. This table was obtained by calculating the means of ratings for each genre in Appendix P. Table 8.8 shows that cooperative communication was emphasised more than the other genres. An interesting finding is that communicating in the academic world was given moderate emphasis. That is, students' ability to use the language in course-related matters was given a lower priority than cooperative communication. Academic communication refers to students' ability to use the English language in

their courses during their higher education for a variety of purposes such as reading and writing academic essays, note taking, listening comprehension and speaking. On the other hand, responses to personal communication and systems communication show great diversity compared to the responses to a previous question presented in Section 8.2. That question (Section 8.2. of this chapter) asked respondents to rate the areas for which English language teaching prepares students. The two sets of responses contradict. The analysis of the responses to that question in Section 8.2 showed that communicating in the academic world was the second most important genre while in this question it was given moderate emphasis. Similarly, personal communication was previously rated as the second least important while now it was given moderate emphasis. Communicating in public life was previously rated as the least important while it was given moderate emphasis now.

Table 8.8. Rank Order of the Seven Genres in Terms of Emphasis



This question also asked respondents to give examples of the kinds of activities that they did in teaching of those genres where they rated 5 or above.

However, none of the respondents specified any activities.

The emphases given to the seven genres vary from low to moderate. No one of the seven genres was given high emphasis. This contradicts in part with our findings in Section 8.2. The findings here imply that the teaching of English in these departments does not provide students with a suitable level of literacy in the English language that will enable them to easily communicate in different genres. It may also be said that, because of the diversity between the two response sets, teachers are not aware of the fact that different social situations require different use of the language. The emphasis given to cooperative communication was found significantly higher than the emphases given to other six genres. However, except for technical communication, all other genres were given moderate emphasis. Being moderately competent in these aspects may correspond to an intermediate level in the ESU framework (Figure 9.1 in Chapter 9). An intermediate level in the English language may not be of much help in a career like teaching or in any other career requiring a good competence.

8.5. Assessment of Students' Language Competence in ELT Departments.

It was argued in Chapter 4 that assessment in education has been the subject of discussion over the past three decades, and that it has a crucial role in any educational system (Lloyd-Jones et al, 1986; Murphy & Torrance, 1990; Somervell, 1993; Broadfoot, 1994, 1996a; Rowe & Hill, 1996; Freeman & Lewis, 1998). It was also argued in the same chapter that it allows teachers and policymakers to know about student learning and the quality of the programme and allows for improvement. It was also argued that in recent years, there have been significant developments in the assessment in higher education. According to Boud (1995),

assessment in higher education was not given enough attention and the approaches to assessment were inadequate. However, in the early 1990s, assessment became the focus of the considerations of teaching and learning (Hancock, 1994; Harris & McCann, 1994; Boud, 1995). The traditional assessment methods in higher education have received serious criticisms from researchers in that they were limited in assessing students' competences. Instead of traditional methods of assessment, some new approaches have gained widespread acceptance. In these new approaches, students are seen as part of the assessment procedure. The rationale for these approaches is that the current assessment methods may not always be suitable in assessing students, and secondly, the question of who should assess students. The new approaches are self-assessment, peer-assessment, and collaborative assessment (Boud, 1990; Somervell, 1993; Brown & Knight, 1994; Oldfield & Macalpine, 1995) (which were described in Chapter 5). Several studies (e.g., Falchikov, 1986; Oldfield & Macalpine, 1995) have shown that student assessments were acceptably accurate when compared with tutors' assessment.

Assessment has a significant effect on student learning. Boud (1981) refers to the studies on the effects of assessment on learning and states that "assessment methods and requirements have greater influence on how and what students learn than any other single factor. This effect may well be of greater importance than the impact of teachers or teaching materials" (p. 35).

Despite the growing interest in assessment in higher education in the world, it has been a neglected area of study in Turkey (this topic was discussed in Chapter 5). The present assessment system has been recommended by the HEC and has been in use since the early 1980s. Although it has had some minor changes, the system is the

same in essence. Student assessment presently involves one mid-term examination and a final examination. General impression marking is commonly used in the assessment of speaking and writing skills in ELT departments in Turkey. In this type of assessment, the teacher gives a mark based on the student's overall performance without picking out any aspects of the language or counting the errors (Underhill, 1987). According to Johnson (1994), general impression marking schemes

have not been proved to be sensitive enough to determine the exact nature of the difficulties students experience in the production of academic discourse. They do not take into account that writing quality might vary across different types of writing or even across different writing tasks which have the same generic form (Odell & Cooper, 1980) (p. 256).

Johnson further argues that this type of marking rank-orders students but does not say anything about student performance in terms of different text features. It also does not provide information on students' strengths and weaknesses. Marking is not based on predetermined criteria but on teacher's prior knowledge. Students do not obtain any feedback about their failure or success and about how they can improve themselves.

One aspect of the ELT instruction that this study aimed to explore was the practices in assessment in ELT departments. Because of the importance of assessment in educational programmes in the world and because of the lack of research on the outcomes of ELT instruction in tertiary education in Turkey, it was found worthwhile to research on this topic in ELT departments in Turkey. However, a limited area of assessment will be sought in this study. What we were interested in here was mainly to explore the type of assessment in ELT departments: was it norm-referenced or criterion-referenced? Was it effective or not? The present assessment

system has been recommended by the Turkish Higher Educational Council, and we did not know anything about its effect and effectiveness. Therefore, it was worth investigating this area for two reasons: to find out what was happening in this area, and whether the present system of assessment was effective and helped to improve the teaching and learning.

To explore all these areas, teachers were asked to respond to a set of questions in the teacher questionnaire. The first of these questions was a closed-ended question and asked respondents to choose from 'yes' and 'no' options. This question aimed to explore whether teachers had any criteria that they used in the assessment of students' competence in any skill. All respondents responded to this question.

In order to find out the aspects of language for which they claimed they had assessment criteria, another question asked respondents to indicate from a list the aspects of language for which they had assessment criteria. This question was also a closed-ended question. The responses to this question are presented in Table 8.9. In this table, the figures show the percentages of respondents who chose different aspects of the English language for which they claimed they had assessment criteria. Although the percentages vary, respondents stated that they used criteria in assessing some or all aspects in the list.

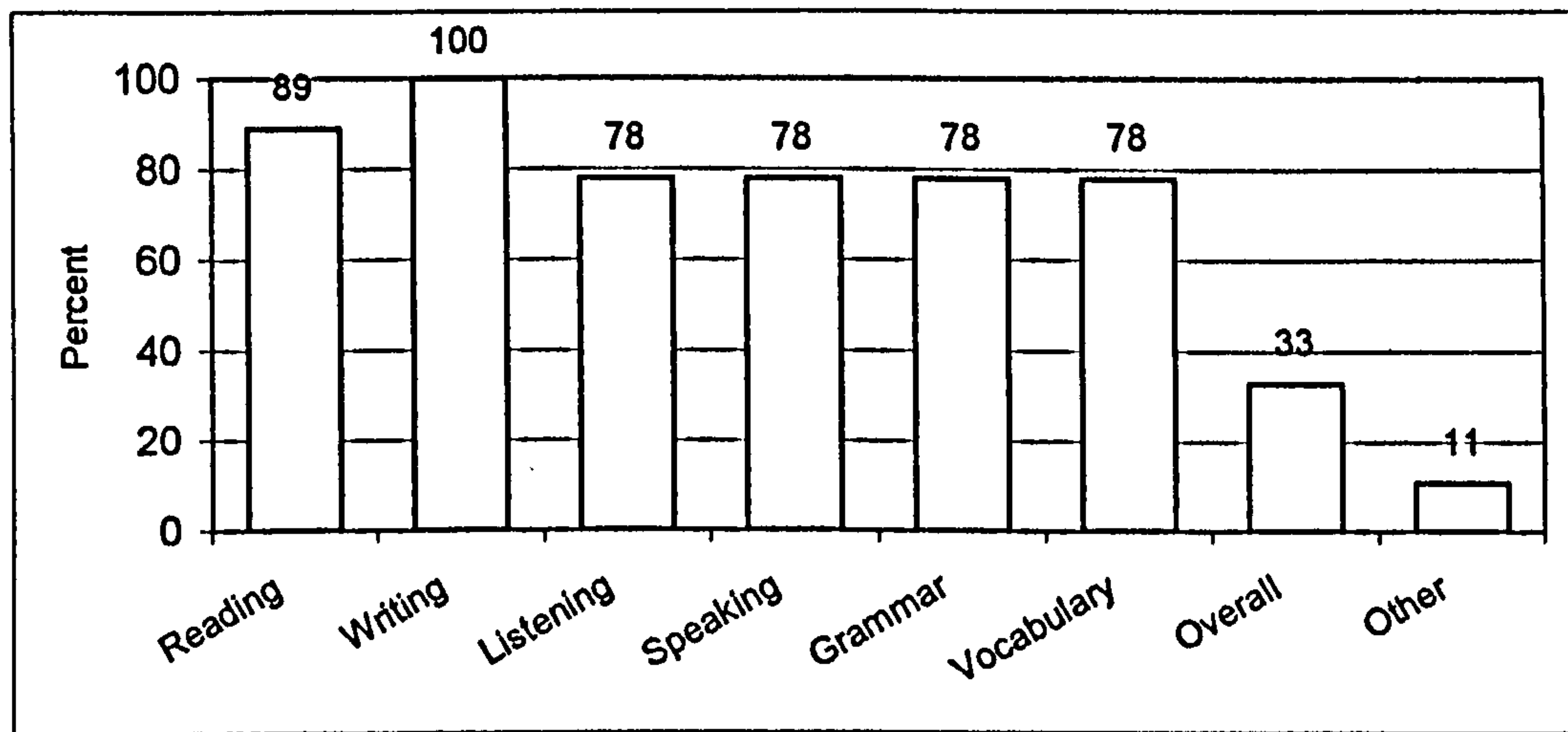
The first two questions elicited whether teachers assessed students' language competence against certain criteria, and, if they did, the aspects of language for which assessment criteria were used. In order to find out the kind of assessment criteria that were used and to compare them with the ones used in countries such as the UK, the US, and Australia, another question asked those respondents who stated

they had assessment criteria to specify the criteria or provide a photocopy of them. However, none of them specified or provided the criteria that they claimed they had.

The responses to the first question proved to be confusing. Slightly more than half of the respondents (53%) stated that they did not have any assessment criteria for the assessment of students' language competence while 47% of the respondents stated that they had. Such a pattern of answers makes it difficult to draw conclusions on whether or not they had assessment criteria. Another conflicting point that was encountered in each department is that some respondents in one department claimed that they had some sort of assessment criteria while others claimed they did not. Therefore, these responses proved to be confusing in terms of the use of criteria in the assessment of students' language competence.

The skills for which they claimed they had assessment criteria are presented in Table 8.9 as percentages. The percentages in this table reflect the responses of those respondents who claimed they had assessment criteria for the aspects specified in the previous question. Except for 'overall language proficiency' and 'other', the six aspects were claimed to be assessed against some sort of criteria. 100% of the respondents claimed they had criteria for the assessment of writing skill, 89% claimed that they had criteria for the assessment of reading skill, and 78% claimed they had assessment criteria for listening, speaking, grammar and vocabulary. Except for the last two aspects, the majority of respondents claimed that they used criteria for the other six skills. This finding implies the use of criterion-referenced assessment in these departments, which seems to be contradictory to our assumption that assessment in these departments was norm-referenced and intuitive.

Table 8.9. Aspects of the English Language for Which Assessment Criteria Were Claimed to Be Used



The distribution of responses to the second question in terms of universities is as follows: 3 of the 5 respondents from University A stated they did not have any assessment criteria for any aspect specified, and 2 stated they had assessment criteria for some of the aspects specified. Of the two who claimed they had assessment criteria, one stated that they had criteria only for reading and writing. The other stated that they had assessment criteria for writing, speaking, grammar and vocabulary. However, such a pattern of response implies that teachers have their own assessment methods and that they do not have an assessment system in their institution. If they had had such a system, all the responses should have been uniform.

Of the 10 respondents from University B, 7 responded to the third question. 3 respondents stated they did not have any assessment criteria for any aspect specified, and 4 stated they had assessment criteria for some or all of the aspects specified. However, the responses of the 4 teachers have also been found contradictory. One respondent stated that they assessed students against criteria in five aspects (reading, writing, listening, speaking, and grammar). Two stated that they assessed students

against criteria in six aspects (reading, writing listening, speaking, grammar and vocabulary), and one stated that they had assessment criteria for all aspects specified.

Of the 10 respondents from University C, 3 did not respond to this question, 4 respondents stated they did not have any assessment criteria for any aspect specified, and 3 stated they had assessment criteria for some or all of the aspects specified. One respondent indicated that they had assessment criteria for five aspects (reading, writing, listening, vocabulary and overall language proficiency), one stated that they had assessment criteria for six aspects (reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, and vocabulary), and one respondent stated that they assessment criteria for all aspects. The responses elicited from the teachers at University C are also contradictory.

The responses to these questions are contradictory and do not give us an understanding of the real assessment practices in these departments. One reason for the contradiction between the responses may be that some respondents might not have understood what was meant by 'criteria' in these three questions on assessment. This conclusion was drawn from the explanations of some of the respondents for the third question. For example, one respondent from University A explained that writing was one of the best ways of evaluating students' level of competence in the language because it comprised most aspects of English, and that by means of writing teachers could judge how well a student had learned the grammar which was also a criterion for the level of competence. The same respondent further explained that vocabulary could inform teachers of how good students were at a particular language. Similarly, speaking, too, could give teachers a clear idea of students' level of competence in terms of fluency. Another respondent stated that they had courses

such as reading, writing, grammar, and through the tests given in those courses, they were able to assess students' language competence. This explanation is not clear because it does not tell us how students were assessed. It implies that they assess students' language competence in terms of correct usage of the language. Another respondent listed the activities for the areas that she specified. According to her, 'scanning' for reading, 'content' in writing, 'content and pronunciation' in listening, 'pronunciation' in speaking, and 'rules and accuracy' in grammar were her criteria. This explanation also indicates that they assess students in terms of correct usage and surface features, namely, general impressionistic marking.

In the first of the questions, respondents were clearly asked whether they had any 'assessment criteria.' That is, they were asked to state whether their assessment was norm-referenced or criterion-referenced. The misinterpretation of these three questions is also reflected in the comments of two respondents. One respondent stated that students' comprehension of the text was her criteria for reading, and students' ability to express themselves was the criteria for speaking. Similarly, the other respondent explained that grammar, vocabulary, organisation, fluency, and content in writing were his criteria.

The responses to these questions imply that the assessment of students in ELT departments is norm-referenced and impressionistic and that they do not use any kind of criteria in the assessment of students' level of literacy in the English language. The criteria that teachers claimed that they used are not the criteria that we meant throughout this study. This was reflected by the explanations of some respondents. The method that teachers may use in the assessment of speaking and writing skills of the English language may be holistic which usually attends to the

surface features of those skills, such as fluency, organisation, vocabulary, etc. However, it is apparent that the assessment system is not criterion-referenced. On the other hand, self-assessment and peer assessment, which have recently gained popularity and which were referred to earlier in this chapter and in Chapter 4, are naturally non-existent.

8.6. Conclusion

An important finding of this study is that teachers and departments are not sensitive to the effectiveness of the ELT programmes and to student needs. Although the aim of the ELT departments is to train students as teachers of English who can use English competently in all areas, the present system of teaching develops students' language competence in limited areas. These areas are usually course-related ones. Based on the findings in this chapter, it can be said that this problem stems from the curriculum used in these departments. The ELT curriculum develops students' language competence in limited areas. These areas are usually course-related ones.

These domains, according to teachers and students, are work and course-related. For students, acquiring a level of literacy in the English language that will enable them to carry out tasks in the academic world is relatively easy since communicating in the academic world usually involves a limited use of the language. However, when students start their careers with a limited level of literacy in the language they will be likely to have difficulties in using the language for different purposes. Teacher and student responses correlate well on the domains for which the English language instruction prepares students. The assumption that the teaching of English in ELT departments prepares students for limited areas has been confirmed

by both teachers and students. The findings imply that both teachers and students are aware of the type of instruction in these departments.

It can be said that teachers employ different kinds of activities in preparing students for the four areas. That is, they are aware of the importance of language activities in the classroom. However, the aims and effects of most of the activities specified are not clear. Because the aims of many activities are not clear, it is difficult to understand how they contribute to students' language development in the four domains. One indication of the findings may be that teachers do not have a certain programme to follow, in which the aims of the English language instruction are clearly defined. The inconsistency of some of the activities with the domains may be evidence for this. Another finding is that although different language activities are carried out in the classroom, it seems that these activities do not reflect the purposes for which learners learn the language.

The seven aspects of language were given either low or moderate emphasis. No one of the seven aspects was given high emphasis. This contradicts in part with our findings with Questions 3. This finding is also in contradiction with the aims of the ELT departments that were described in Section 5. The findings imply that the teaching of English in these departments does not provide students with a suitable level of literacy in the English language that will enable them to easily communicate in different genres. It may also be said that, because of the diversity between the responses to Question 3 and Question 5, teachers are unaware of the fact that different social situations require different use of the language. Technical communication was given least emphasis while other aspects were given moderate emphasis. This may indicate that students achieve a low level of literacy in using the

language for different purposes. Such a low level of literacy in the English language may restrict students in their future careers in attempting to communicate with others.

The findings in this chapter also imply that the ELT departments do not have a common system of assessment, that the assessment of students in ELT departments is norm-referenced (for assessment refer to Chapter 4), and that they do not use any kind of criteria in the assessment of students' level of literacy in the English language. The criteria that teachers claimed they had are not the kind of criteria that were described throughout this study. The method that teachers claimed they used in the assessment of different skills of the English language may be a holistic one which usually evaluates different surface features of those skills, such as fluency, organisation, vocabulary, etc. The findings showed that the assessment system in ELT departments is not criterion-referenced. Based on the personal experiences of this researcher in these departments, it can be said that the assessment is intuitive (Intuition will be discussed in Chapter 9). The findings also indicate that the Higher Education Council of Turkey has no interest in assessment in ELT departments. This can be clearly seen in the statements of the HEC in Chapter 5, which described the aims of changing the curricula of teacher training departments. As well as the indifference of the HEC, these departments also seem indifferent to the issue. Our assumption that assessment is intuitive in these departments is further clarified by some teachers during informal discussions. They stated that they did not use criterion-referencing in assessing students' competence in different skills. One respondent who was the head of an ELT department stated that they did not have any assessment criteria but are in the process of developing one.

Based on these findings, we may conclude that assessment in ELT departments is intuitive, norm-referenced, and summative or classificatory. Assessment in these departments is intuitive in that it is not based on clearly specified criteria but on the personal experience of teachers in assessing the surface features of students' performances. Assessment is norm-referenced in that it has a pre-determined limit and discriminates students as competent or non-competent. Students who fall above the limit are considered competent, and students who fall below the limit are considered incompetent. Assessment is summative or classificatory because students are given one mid-term and one end-term exam and this determines students' success.

CHAPTER 9

TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' INTUITIVE JUDGEMENTS OF STUDENTS' LEVEL OF COMPETENCE

9.1. Introduction

One of the aims of this study was to explore the assessment practices used in the ELT departments, which was presented in the previous chapter. In Chapter 4, the importance of assessment in education and different approaches to assessment were discussed. However, there is another type of assessment, which is widely used and which was not mentioned in that chapter: intuitive assessment. Another aim of this study was to discover students' and teachers' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence. This chapter will present the findings about students' and teachers' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence.

In an ELT department, teachers are supposed to have a clear idea of student achievement in a variety of aspects of the language. Because of the function of the ELT departments discussed in Chapter 5, this is important on various grounds. The first is that, as we discussed in earlier chapters, students choose these departments mainly for two reasons. The first is the ideal of finding a high-status job with a good salary in mind. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that they have a good command of the English language. Secondly, many students choose ELT departments with the aim of being a teacher. Again, it is reasonable to expect a good command of the English language. Thirdly, continuous monitoring of student development, intuitively or through tests, in language learning gives teachers and policymakers a chance to concentrate on the weaknesses of students and of the programme, therefore, allowing

improvement. Given all these and the aims of ELT departments explained in Chapter 5, it was found worth investigating the assessment practices in the ELT departments. In doing this, we first elicited teachers' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence, that is, whether or not teachers were aware of student achievement during language instruction. Second, we elicited teachers' judgements against a set of explicit criteria that we explained in previous chapters: the ESU criteria for speaking and writing. Students' intuitive judgements of their own levels were also elicited to see whether they were aware of their achievement and to make a comparison between their judgements and those of teachers. Perhaps it would be useful to briefly describe what intuition and judgement mean.

9.2. Intuition and Judgement

Cambridge dictionary defines intuition as “(knowledge obtained from) an ability to understand or know something immediately without needing to think about it, learn it or discover it by using reason.” Claxton (2000) defines intuition first by referring to the Chambers dictionary as “the power of the mind by which it immediately perceives the truth of things without reasoning and analysis” (p. 2). These descriptions imply that intuition is not based on conscious thinking and certain criteria but on insight. Claxton (2000) further defines intuition as a family of ways of knowing which are non-verbal and implicit as opposed to normal thinking; sensory, subtle and holistic; non-measurable, perceptive, synthetic which gives an understanding of the structure as a whole. According to him, in the past, intuition was perceived as a way of knowing the truth, something divine, which could only come from God, therefore, mysterious and transcendental. Claxton calls this as ‘mystical ways’ of thinking. On the other hand, Claxton further argues, there are

some non-mystical 'ways of knowing' which differ from each other in some ways. They include "expertise, implicit learning, judgement, sensitivity, creativity and rumination" (p. 10). These ways of knowing are characterised by a "lack of articulated comprehension or rationale" (Claxton, 2000: p 10). Claxton summarises that "intuition is often more a matter of drawing upon and extracting meaning from largely tacit database of first-hand experience" (p. 10).

Intuition is considered as an important element in education (Atkinson, 2000; Broadfoot, 2000). For example, Atkinson (2000) argues that especially in pre-service teacher education intuition is important. As well as analytical and reflective thinking, the intuitive thinking skills of teachers should be developed. Intuitive skills are developed mainly through experience. On the other hand, the importance of intuition in education is especially seen in the field of assessment. Claiming that intuition is a neglected skill Broadfoot (2000), for example, draws upon its importance in educational assessment. Broadfoot argues that "in education ... what is urgently needed now is the beginning of an active search for a more humanistic, even intuitive, approach to educational assessment" (p. 255). However, because intuition is not based on explicit criteria and therefore is subjective, Broadfoot further argues that for the concerns of bias and comparability of results, objectivity must be emphasised in the assessment techniques. Broadfoot claims that much of the assessment today is intuitive.

On the other hand, judgement is defined by Cambridge dictionary as "the ability to form valuable opinions and make good decisions." Johnson's (2000) definition of judgement supports this. According to Johnson,

judgements are made not on the basis of explicit indicators but intuitively. This does not imply, however, that these judgements are arbitrary or capricious. Rather they are said to grow out of a set of implicit understandings that academics have about the function of language in higher education (p. 306).

As Johnson points out, judgement and intuition is closely related and a judgement has an element of intuition. That is, a judgement is partly based on intuition. Claxton has already stated that judgement is one of type of intuition. According to him, judgement “is making accurate decisions and categorisations without, at the time, being able to explain or justify them” (p. 10). Claxton (2000) points out the fact the “expert judgement in many professions is often wholly or largely intuitive (p. 6).

9.3. Teachers’ Intuitive Judgements of Students’ Level of Competence

In the previous sections, we argued that educational assessment is important, and that intuition has an important role in education and educational assessment. However, in this study the term ‘intuition’ is used in a somewhat different sense from the term ‘intuition’ that was described above. Here, intuition means something like “I don’t care what you say; I just know it, OK?” (Claxton, 2000; p. 3). However, although Claxton is trying to show the difficulty encountered in explaining how an intuitive judgement is made, we take it here as teachers’ vague estimation of students’ level of competence that is not based on any conscious training and explicit criteria.

The teacher questionnaire contained a set of questions which were aimed at eliciting teachers’ intuitive judgements of students’ level of achievement as well as their judgements based on criteria. The first of these questions elicited teachers’ intuitive judgements of their students’ level of competence without being based on any criteria. This question was a 7-rank Likert scale where 1 meant ‘low level of

competence' and 7 meant 'high level of competence', and contained twenty-five statements. These statements involved the seven genres and four basic skills. The aims of this question were to find out whether teachers had an awareness of their students' level of competence in the English language (the answer will be given in Chapter 10), to compare teachers' intuitive judgements with their judgements against criteria, which will be obtained through the next two questions (this comparison will be made in the section 9.3), to compare teachers' intuitive judgements of students with students' intuitive judgements of their own levels (this comparison will be made in section 9.4), and to compare teachers' intuitive judgements with students actual levels that were obtained through spoken and written tasks that show students' actual levels (this comparison will be made in Chapter 10). The procedures used in the evaluation of the responses to this question are described in Appendix Q. Data in Appendix Q were evaluated in Tables 9.1, 9.2, 9.3 and 9.4 as follows:

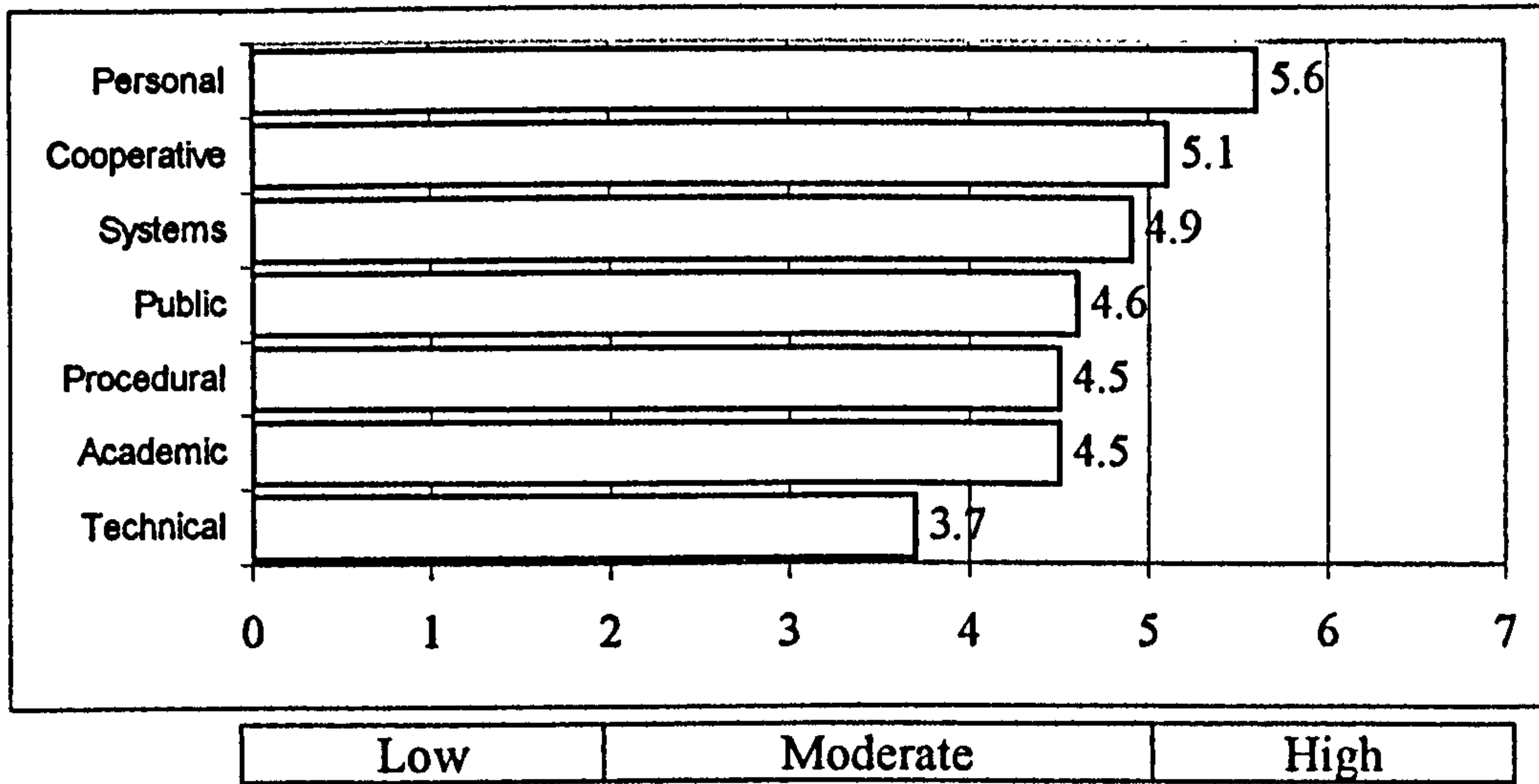
1-2 = Low

3-5 = Moderate

6-7 = High

As stated earlier, the statements in this question contained seven different genres and four skills. Therefore, the data obtained through this question can be evaluated from different perspectives. First, we shall present teachers' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence in the seven genres in Table 9.1.

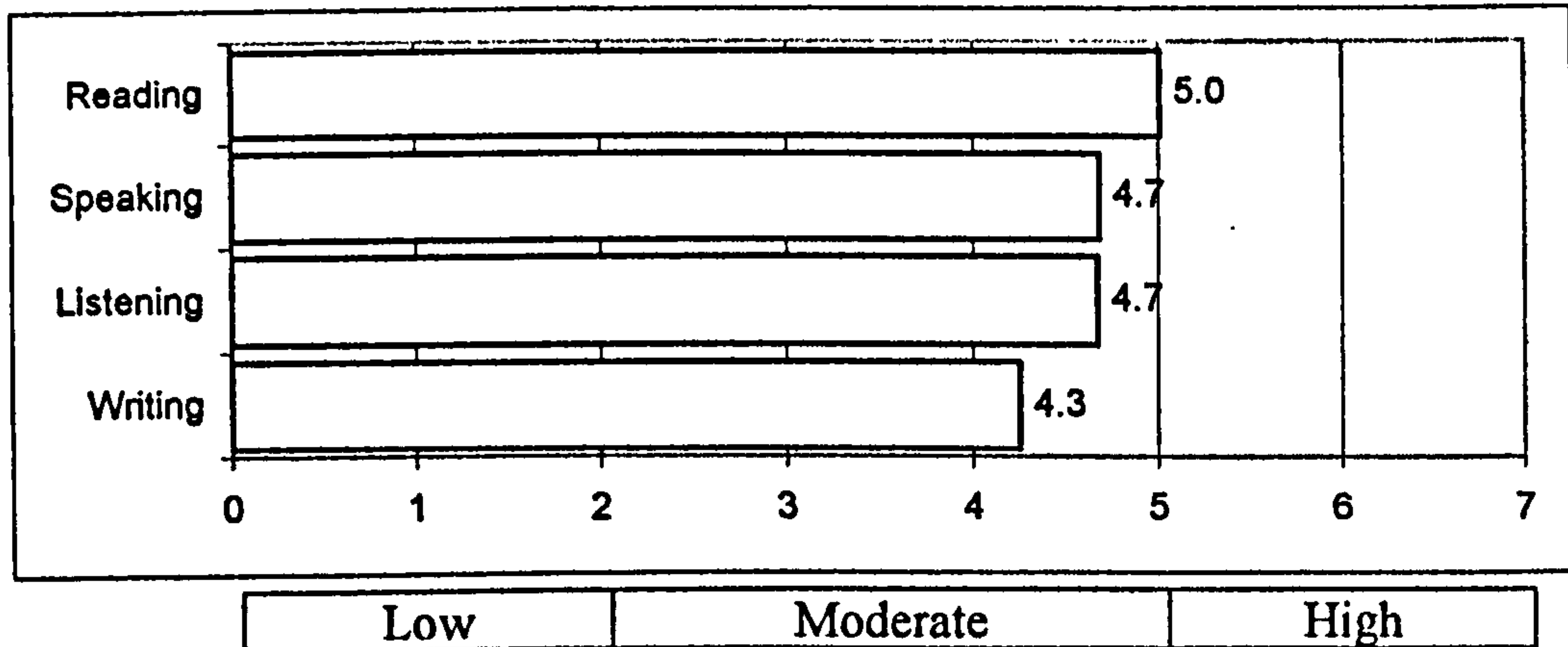
Table 9.1. Teachers' Intuitive Judgements of Students' Levels of Competence in Seven Genres.



According to this table, personal communication is the area in which students are most competent, and technical communication is the area in which students are the least competent. According to the evaluation formula above, students have a 'moderate level of competence' in five of the seven areas. According to teachers, there is no difference between students' levels in public, procedural and academic communication. In fact, except for the technical communication genre, teachers' judgements of students' level in the other six genres are very close. Teachers' judgements of students' level of competence in the six genres vary from 4.5 to 5.6, which correspond to intermediate and upper intermediate levels against the representation of ESU system in Figure 9.1.

Secondly, we shall present the findings in terms of the four basic skills. The twenty-five statements in this question contained four basic skills: speaking, listening, writing, and reading. If the teacher ratings are categorised in terms of four skills, then the analysis of students' level of competence appears as in Table 9.2.

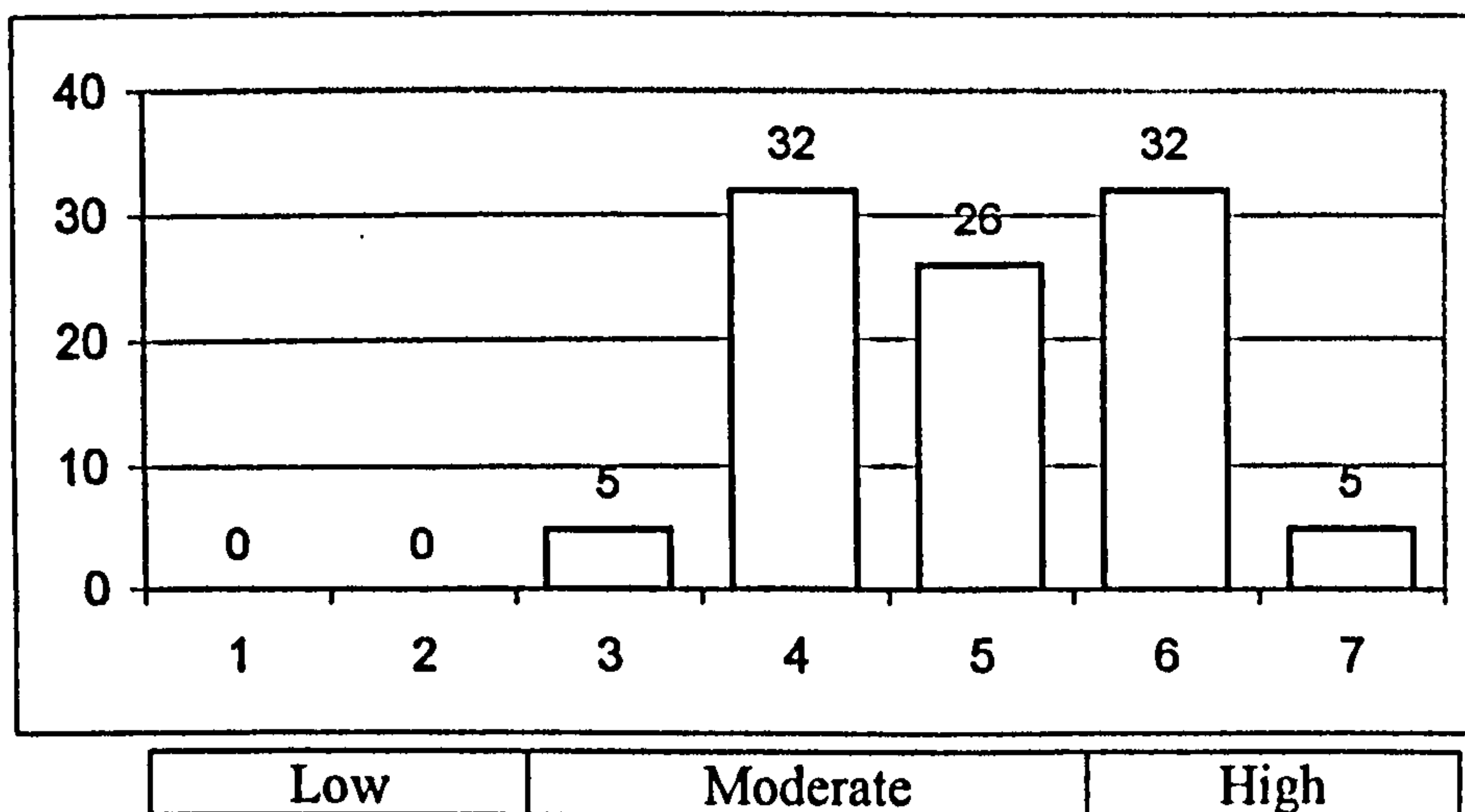
Table 9.2. Teachers' Intuitive Judgements of Students' Level of Competence in Terms of Four Skills



According to this table, teachers' judgements of students' level on four skills appear to be 'moderate level of competence'. This correlates with the findings in Table 9.1, which shows students' level of competence in the seven genres.

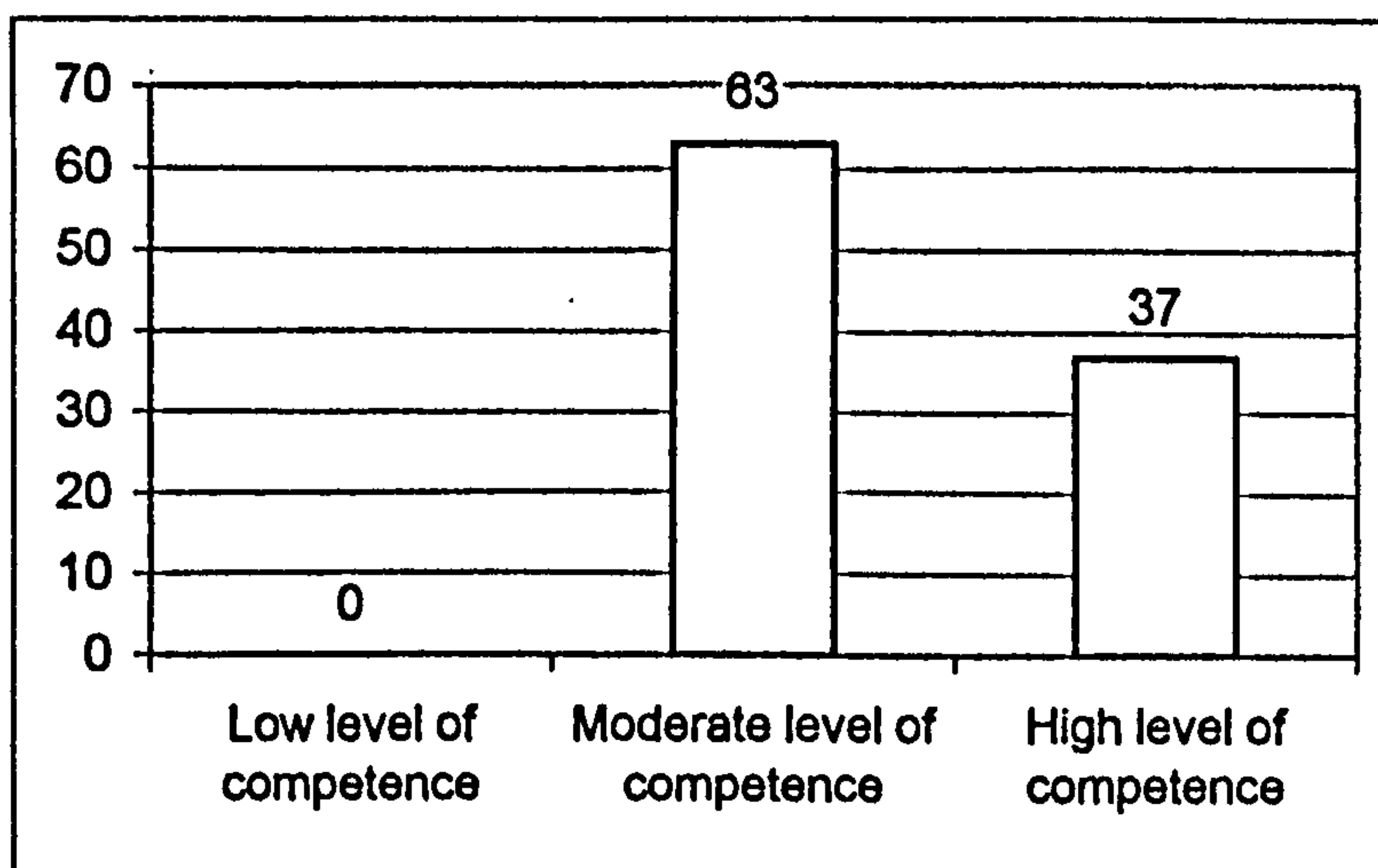
We can now have a look at students' overall level of language competence. The data obtained through this question also shows teachers' intuitive judgements of students' overall language competency (Table 9.3).

Table 9.3. Teachers' Intuitive Judgements of Students' Level of Competence On a 7-Rank Basis.



According to the teachers, students' overall level of competency in the English language ranges from 3 to 7. That is, students' level of competence ranges from 'moderate level of competence' to 'high level of competence.' 5% of the respondents thought that students were at level 3, 32% thought that students were at level 4, 26% thought that students were at level 5, 32% thought that students were at level six, and 5% thought that students were at level 7. None of the respondents thought that students had a 'low level of competence' on these skills. In Table 9.4 below, teachers' judgements of students' overall language competence is shown in terms of the categorisation described above. This table gives us a picture of teachers' intuitive judgements of students' overall level of language competency in Appendix Q.

Table 9.4. Teachers' Intuitive Judgements of Students' Overall Level of Competence.



According to this table, the majority of teachers (63%) thought that students had a 'moderate level of competence', while 37% thought that students had a 'high level of competence'. In later sections, this table will be compared with the results obtained through student questionnaire, and with the results of spoken and written tasks.

Table 9.4 shows that there is an important difference between teachers' intuitive judgements of student achievement. In section 9.2, Atkinson (2000) states that "intuition is developed primarily through experience" (p. 54). The findings in this table also indicate that there is a lack of agreement among teachers as to the perceived level of student competence in the use of English language. This lack of agreement is of great concern. It indicates that there is perhaps a lack of explicit discussion between teachers about expected levels of competence and what accounts for them. A second implication may be that these departments lack an assessment system based on explicit indicators of language achievement, which could give teachers the real picture of student achievement. If they had such a system, teachers' judgements might have been less diverse.

In a previous question, teachers were asked to rank-order the seven genres in terms of emphasis (Section 8.4 in Chapter 8), and we found that cooperative communication was given high emphasis. In this question, teachers were asked to judge students in terms of their level of competence in the same genres, and the results were rank-ordered in Table 9.1. A comparison between Tables 8.4 and 9.1 shows diversity in terms of the importance of, and level of competency in, these genres. In the rank-order of the genres in Table 8.4, most emphasis was placed on cooperative communication, while in the rank-order of students' competency in Table 9.1 students were found most competent in personal communication. If most emphasis were placed on cooperative communication in the teaching of English, one would expect students to be more competent in cooperative communication. However, except for communication in academic world and technical communication, the order of the genres is different in Tables 8.4 and 9.1. This

contradiction between teachers' emphases on the areas and teachers' judgements of students' level of competence in the same areas may indicate that their emphases on those areas do not ensure students' competence in those areas. This may also show that teachers are not aware of the effects of their teaching and students' level of competence in different skills and in different areas of language use.

In this study, we assumed that students graduate from the ELT departments with an insufficient level of competence in speaking and writing skills of the English language. We also assumed that these departments lack a suitable assessment system. To test our assumption we elicited teachers' intuitive judgements of students' level of language competence. The results presented in 9.3 reflect teachers' intuitive judgements of students overall level of language competence.

In Table 9.3, we see that according to teachers' intuitive judgements, students' overall level of competence in the English language varies from 3 to 7. A small percentage of teachers (5%) think that students' level is 3. Similarly, 5% of the teachers think that students have a high level of competence in the English language. Therefore, the majority of teachers think that students are either at level 4 or 5 or 6.

Table 9.4 is the categorisation of teachers' intuitive judgements in Table 9.3 in terms of competence. In Table 9.4, we see that the majority of teachers think that students have a 'moderate level of competence' in the English language while 37% of the respondents think that students have a 'high level of competence' in the language they are learning.

If we compare the findings in Table 9.4 with the graphic representation in Figure 9.1, which shows the ESU levels and their equivalents as elementary, intermediate and advanced, we see that teachers think students achieve lower

intermediate or intermediate levels.

As for the four skills in the English language, students' competence in these skills appears to be either 4 or 5, which corresponds again to lower intermediate or intermediate level in Figure 9.1 below. On the other hand, if we examine students' levels in terms of six areas we find that students are between lower intermediate and intermediate levels. These findings show that students' overall language competence, their level of competence in four skills, and their level of competence in the six genres are at lower intermediate or intermediate levels. These findings confirm our assumption that students graduate from these departments with a low level of language competence in the English language.

As we argued in Chapter 4, Carroll and West (1989) claim that language learning is often thought to have three stages: elementary, intermediate and advanced. Performance in each stage can be classified as being at, below or above each of these levels. Given this, we represented the levels of ESU framework as in Figure 9.1 below. Based on the findings in Table 9.4, it may be said that, according to the majority of teachers, students attain an intermediate level.

Figure 9.1. Representation of the ESU System As Three Stages.

Elementary			Intermediate			Advanced		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

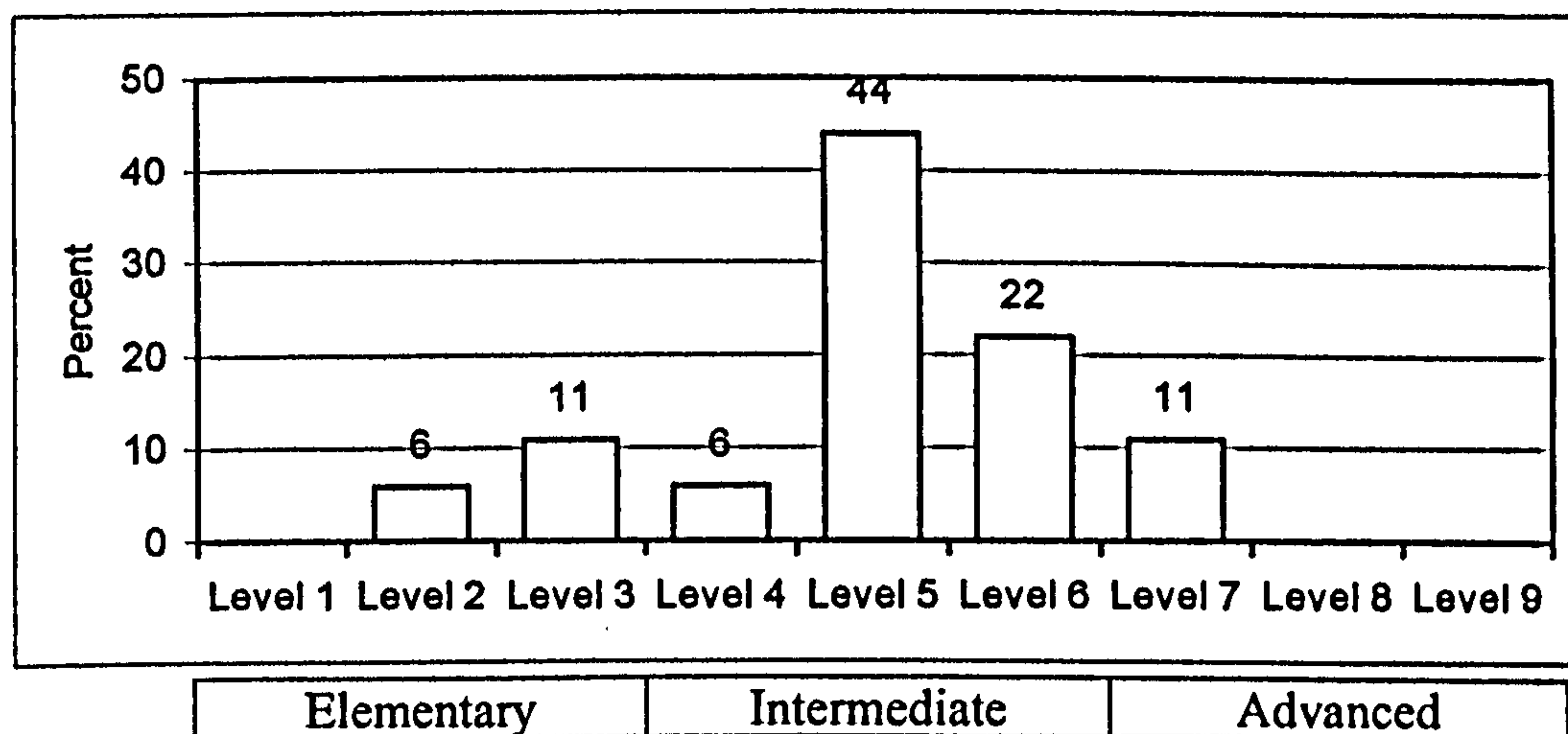
9.4. Teachers' Judgements of Students' Present and Desired Levels in Speaking and Writing Using an Indicator-Based Framework.

In the previous section, teachers judged students' language competency intuitively. We did this for several reasons and one of the questions that we asked in the previous section will be answered in this section. The answers to this question will enable us to conclude whether teachers were aware of the student achievement, that is whether teachers knew their students' levels of competency.

In order to elicit teachers' criterion-referenced judgements of students' level of competence in speaking and writing, a question in the teacher questionnaire asked teachers to examine the ESU criteria for speaking and writing in the appendix of the questionnaire and judge on students' level in speaking and writing. The aim of this question was not to obtain an exact estimate of students' levels but only an estimate based on real criteria that we could later compare with the results of spoken and written tasks. This question was a closed-ended one and was aimed at exploring teachers' judgements of students' present level of competence in the two skills in terms of real criteria. It might be argued here that judging all students against real criteria would be difficult because students' levels of competence in a class may vary considerably. However, the two sets of criteria that were used to judge students can also be used for reporting purposes. Therefore, they may give us a general appearance of the class, though not very exact. Of the 19 respondents, 18 (95%) responded to this item. The results obtained through this item are presented in Table 9.5 as percentages. The following method was used to obtain the results in this table. First, by examining the two ESU scales for speaking and writing, teachers made their judgements on students' level of competence in these two skills. Then, the means of

teachers' ratings were computed and were presented in Table 9.5.

Table 9.5. Teachers' Criterion-Referenced Judgements of Students' Present Levels in Speaking and Writing.

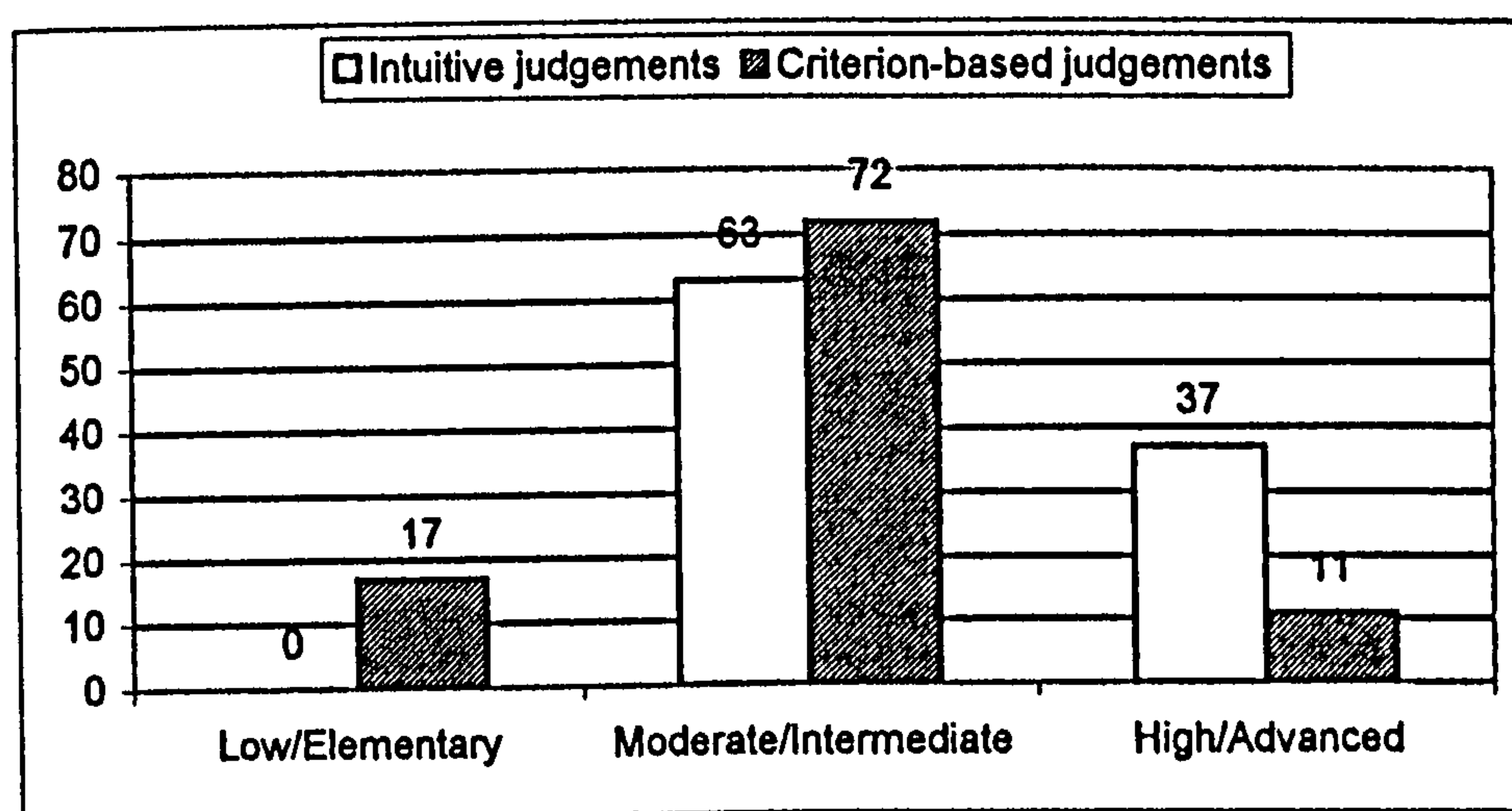


The responses are diverse in terms of competence in speaking and writing. According to the teachers, at the end of their higher education, students achieve levels ranging from 2 to 7. 6% of the teachers claimed that students achieve level 2, 11% claimed students achieve level 3, 6% claimed level 4. The majority of teachers (44%) claimed that students' achieve level 5, 22% claimed students achieve level 6, and 11% claimed students achieve level 7 at the end of their higher education.

If the results in Table 9.5 are categorised in terms of Figure 9.1, we see that 72% of the respondents believe that students achieve an intermediate level (levels 4, 5 and 6) at the end of their higher education. This level may not be considered as high enough for ELT students. The findings here provide the answer to one of the questions that we asked in section 9.3. The findings imply that teachers are aware of their students' level of achievement. There is also a good correlation between teachers' intuitive judgements of students' levels and their criterion-referenced

judgements of students' levels. Interestingly, a higher number of teachers place students in the intermediate category when they have access to criteria (Table 9.6).

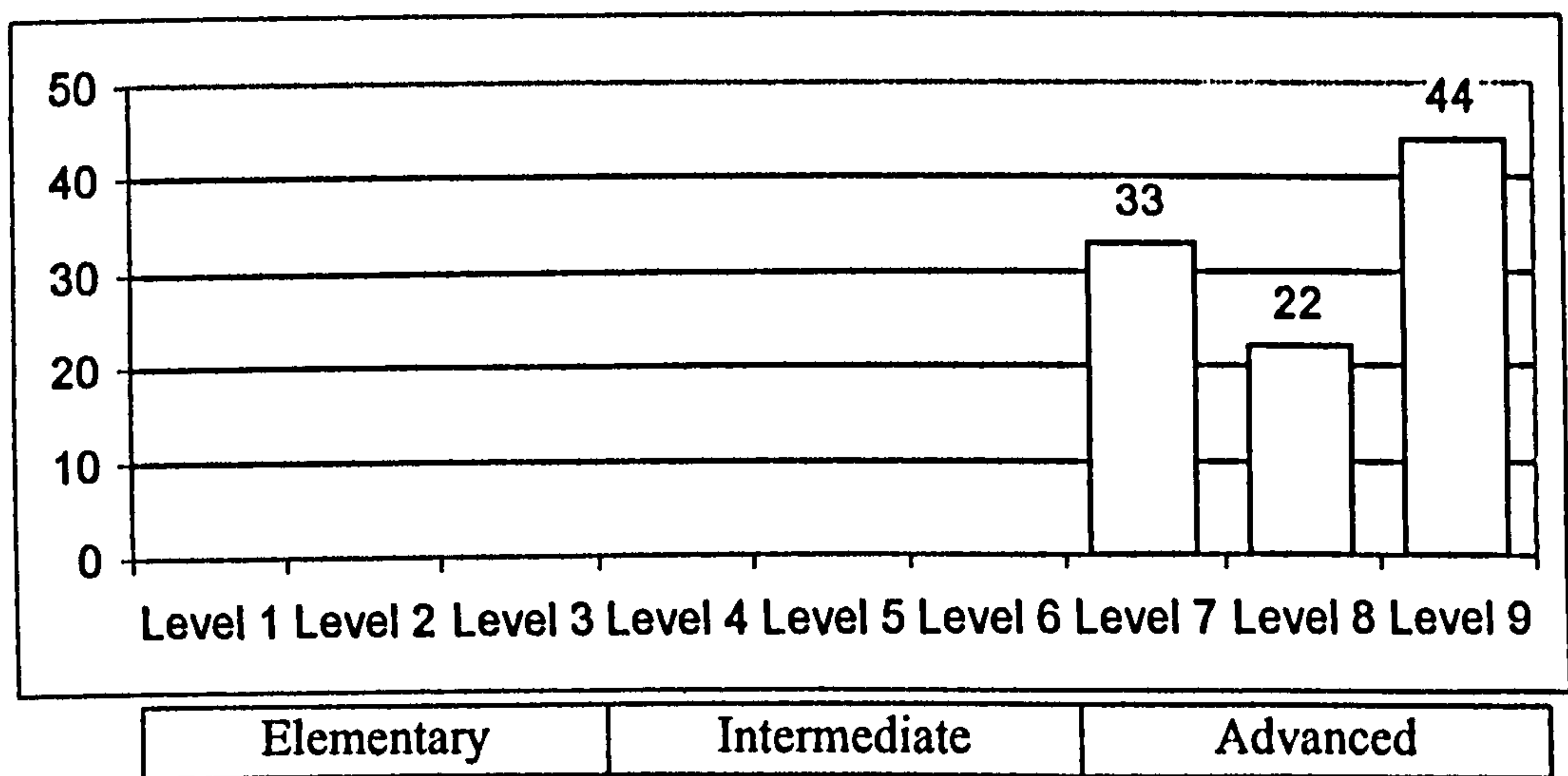
Table 9.6. A Comparison Between Teachers' Intuitive and Criterion-Based Judgements



In this study, we assumed that students usually graduate from the ELT departments with low levels of competency in speaking and writing, and that they should achieve higher levels in these two skills of the English language. The previous question elicited teachers' criterion-referenced judgements of students' level of competence in speaking and writing, and we found that teachers were aware of student achievement and their intuitive judgements correlated with their criterion-referenced judgements. However, we also wanted to know whether teachers were happy with students' levels that they presently achieve at the end of the fourth year. In order to find out whether they were, teachers were asked to examine the ESU criteria for speaking and writing, and state the level which they thought students should achieve at the end of their higher education. Of the 19 respondents, 18 (95%) responded to this item. Teachers examined the two criteria and stated the levels that they thought students should achieve.

The responses in Table 9.7 show that teachers were not happy with the levels that students presently achieve at the end of the fourth year. They indicated that students had to achieve higher levels in these skills at this stage of their education. 33% of the respondents stated that students should achieve level 7, 22% stated that students should achieve level 8, and 44% stated that students should achieve level 9.

Table 9.7. Levels That Teachers Think Students Should Achieve at the End of Their Course of Study.



The findings presented in this section are interesting in terms of student achievement. The findings in Table 9.4, which shows teachers' intuitive judgements of students' levels in four skills, indicate that students have a 'moderate level of competence.' The findings in Table 9.4 correlate with the findings in Table 9.5. In this table, according to the majority of teachers, students have an intermediate level which we may take as 'moderate level of competence.' However, Table 9.7 shows that teachers are not happy with students' levels that they attain at the end of the course of study. According to teachers, the levels that students have to achieve is level 7 or above, setting the lowest level as 7.

The findings in this section show that the levels that students achieve in speaking and writing at the end of their course of study vary between 3 and 7 in intuitive judgements and between 2 and 7 in criterion-based judgements. This corresponds to intermediate level in Figure 9.1. It also corresponds to moderate level in the previous section. However, teachers think that this is a low level and students should achieve higher levels of competence in these two skills. According to teachers, the minimum level that students should achieve is level 7. Levels 7, 8 and 9 in the ESU Framework represent an advanced level. We may conclude that teachers are aware of the outcomes of the present system of language instruction. These findings confirm our assumption that students graduate from ELT departments with low levels of competence in the English language.

9.5. Students' Intuitive Judgements of Their Level of Language Competence

In the introduction of this chapter, it was stated that one of the main aims of this study was to explore students' level of competence in speaking and writing. As well as for teachers, in an ELT department it is important for students to know how much they have achieved in learning the language. That is, we assume that they must be aware of their level of competence that they achieve in different skills. This may allow students to see their strengths and weaknesses in the language, and require extra instruction for their weaknesses. In order to find out whether students were aware of their level of achievement, the student questionnaire asked students to judge their levels intuitively.

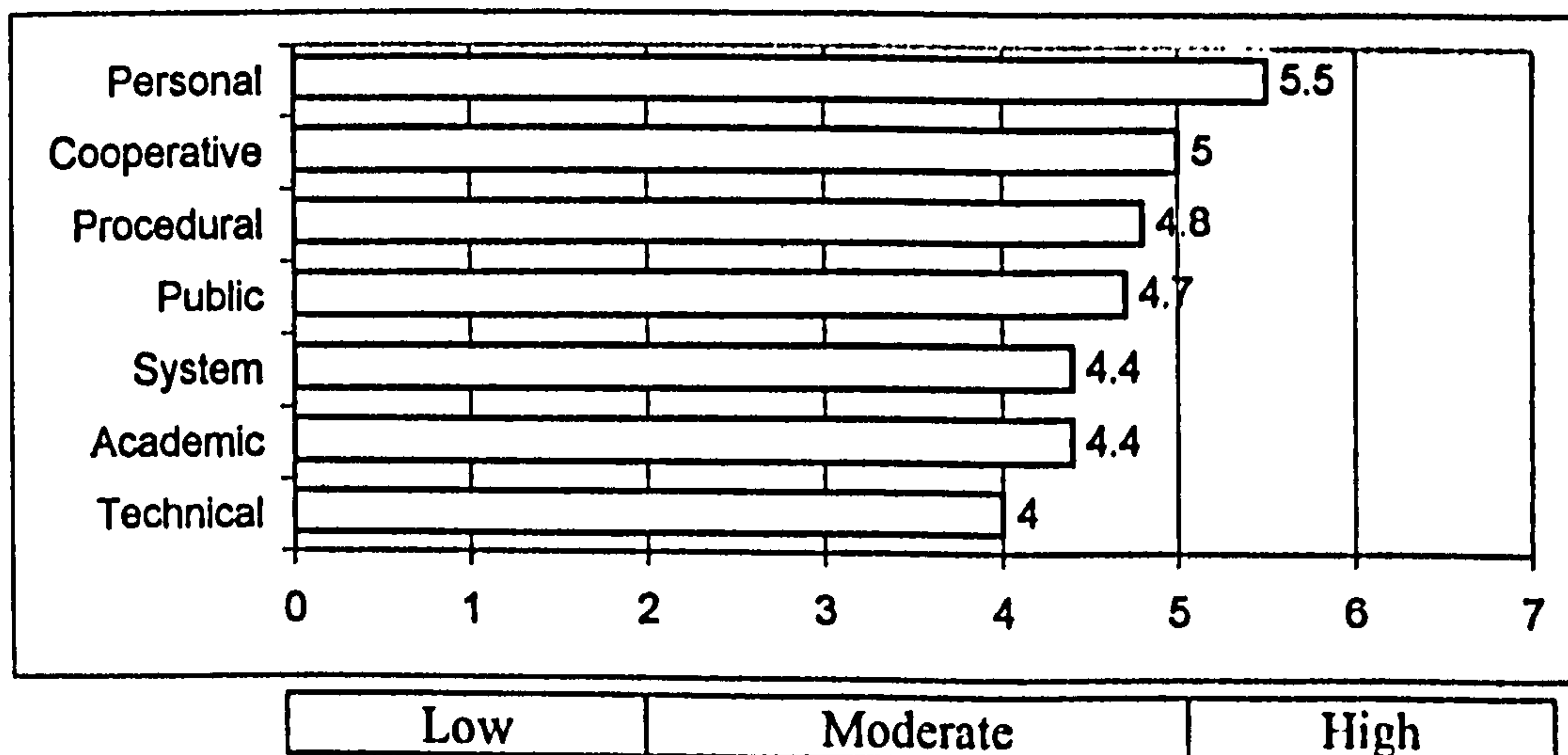
This question in the student questionnaire was the same as one of the questions in the teacher questionnaire. As described earlier, it was a 7-point Likert

scale where 1 meant 'low level of competence' and 7 meant 'high level of competence.' It contained 25 statements which were about using the four basic skills in the seven genres in which this study aimed to assess students' level of competence. The aims of this question were to discover students' judgements of their own level of competence, and to compare their judgements with those of teachers to see whether they correlate. The method used in evaluating the responses to this question was explained in Appendix R. The data in Appendix R are interpreted in Tables 9.8, 9.9, 9.10 and 9.11 according to the following table:

- 1-2 = Low
- 3-5 = Moderate
- 6-7 = High

As in the teacher questionnaire, the statements in this question contained seven genres and four basic skills. Therefore, the presentation of the data will be made as described in section 9.2 above. First, we shall present students' intuitive judgements of their own levels in the seven genres. If the means of student ratings of the genres were put in an order, we obtain the results in Table 9.8.

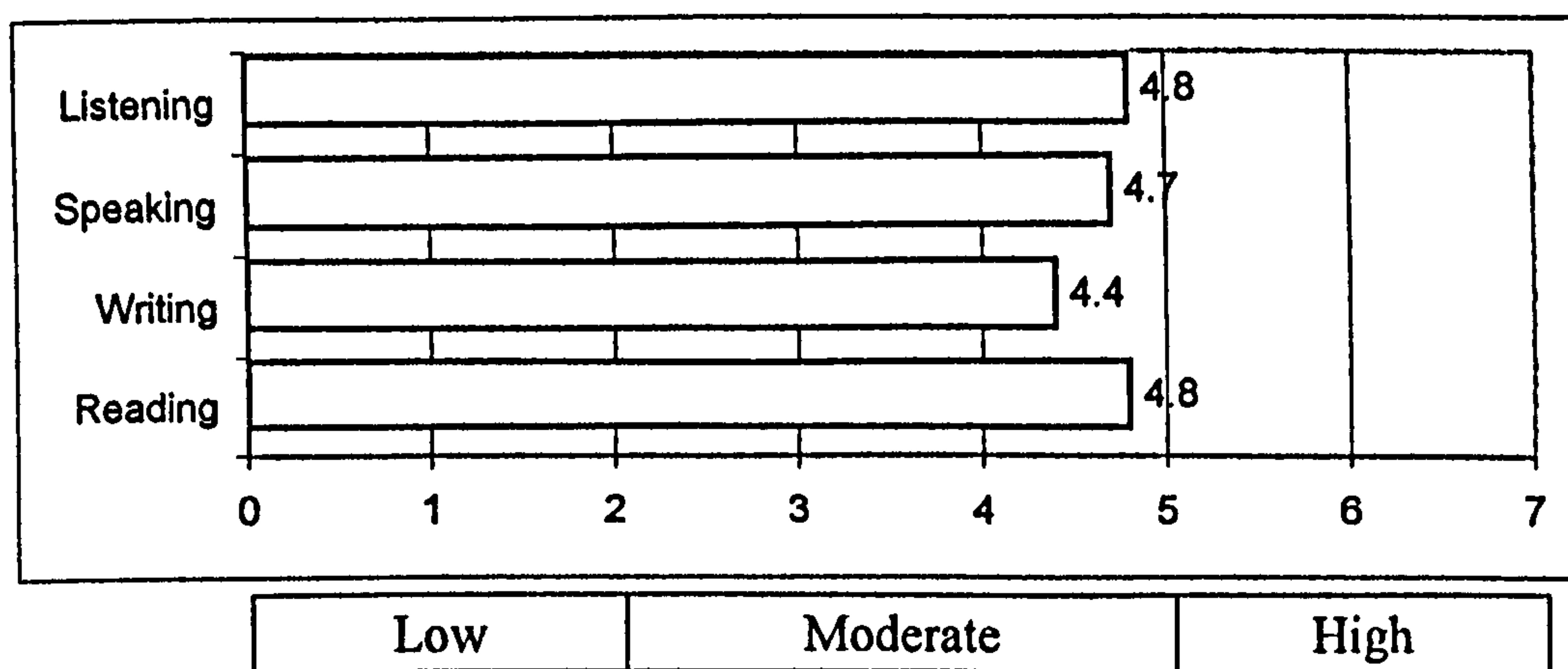
Table 9.8. Students' Intuitive Judgements of Their Own Levels of Competence in Seven Genres.



The rank order of students' intuitive judgements of their levels in the seven genres is very close to that of teachers' (Table 9.1). The differences between the means of both student and teacher ratings are not significant. A comparison between teachers' intuitive judgements and students' intuitive judgements (Tables 9.1 and 9.7) show that both teachers and students are aware of student achievement.

As we did for the same item in teacher questionnaire, the statements in this item can also be categorised in terms of four skills. If the student ratings of 25 statements are categorised in terms of four skills, then students' intuitive judgements of their level of competency in four skills appear as in Table 9.9.

Table 9.9. Students' Intuitive Judgements of Their Own Levels in Terms of Four Skills.

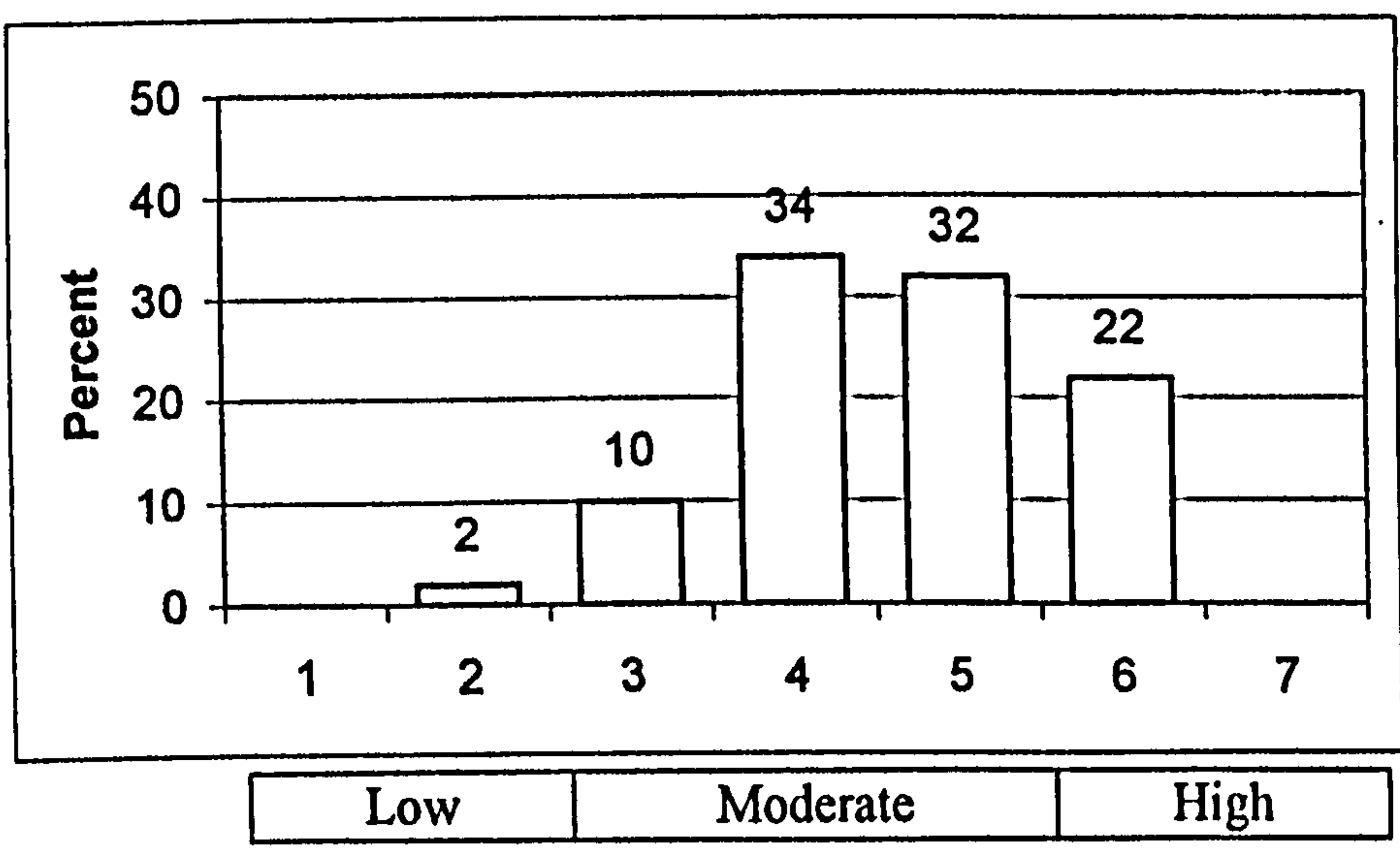


We see in this table that students are at slightly below level 5. If we compare teachers' judgements of students' level of competence in four skills (Table 9.2) with those of students (Table 9.8), we see that the means of both teachers' and students' intuitive judgements are very close. The findings in Table 9.9 represent an intermediate level in Figure 9.1.

The data obtained through this question can also be classified in terms of students' overall language competence on a 7-rank basis (Table 9.10). According to

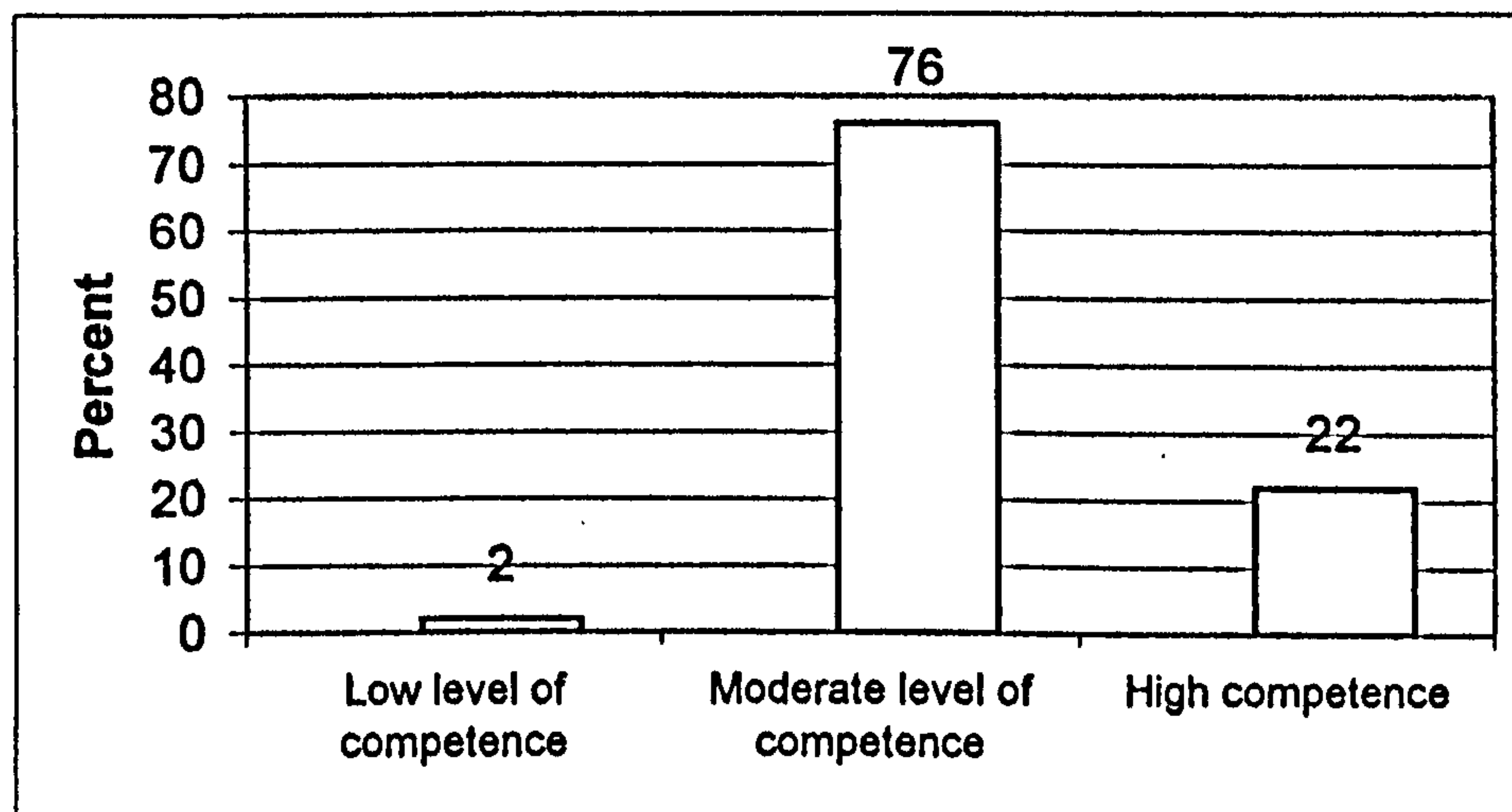
this table, students' overall level of competence on the 25 skills ranges from 2 to 6. 2% of the students thought that they were at level 2, 10% thought that they were at level 3, 34% thought that they were at level 4, 32% thought that they were at level 5, and 22% thought that they were at level 6.

Table 9.10. Students' Intuitive Judgements of Their Overall Level of Competence in Twenty-Five Skills.



The data in Table 9.10 can also be presented in terms of the categorisation described above. In this case, students' overall level of competence appears as in Table 9.11. This table gives us a picture of students' perceptions of their overall level of language competence.

Table 9.11. Categorisation of Students' Intuitive Judgements of Their Overall Level of Competence



In this table, we see that 2% of the students thought that they had a 'low level of competence,' 76% thought that they had a 'moderate level of competence', and 22% thought that they had a 'high level of competence.' Students' judgements differ to some extent from those of teachers. According to Table 9.4, 63% of teachers thought that students had a 'moderate level of competence' and 12% thought that they had a 'high level of competence.' On the other hand, according to Table 9.11, 2% of students thought that they had a 'low level of competence', 76% thought that they had a 'moderate level of competence', and 22% thought that they had a 'high level of competence'. The findings are very close to the findings presented in (Table 9.4).

Table 9.10 indicates that the majority of students think that their overall level of language competence varies between 2 and 6. The categorisation of student judgements in Table 9.11 shows that there is a good correlation between teacher and student judgements. The majority of students (76%) think that they have a 'moderate level of competence' in the English language which correlates with teacher

responses. Although the percentages of both samples do not correlate very well, the general outlook is that both teachers and students think that students have a 'moderate level of competence'. Students' judgements of their levels in the four skills also correlate well with those of teachers' (Table 9.2). The level that was found in student responses corresponds to an intermediate level in Figure 9.1. Therefore, it may be concluded that students are also aware of their overall level of language competence and that students achieve a level of competence at the end of their higher education which may not enable them to use the English language effectively for different purposes in different social situations.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was run to find out the differences between teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence in terms of four skills. Table 9.12 below shows the results of the ANOVA. The results indicate that in general there are no statistically significant differences between the teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of the students' competence levels in writing, speaking, listening and reading tasks except in four instances. There are significant differences between the teachers' intuitive judgements of the students' level of competence and the students' intuitive judgements of their own level of competence in cooperative reading ($F = 7.339$, $df = 1, 107$, $p = .008$), cooperative speaking ($F = 6.962$, $df = 1, 107$, $p = .01$), public speaking ($F = 10.085$, $df = 1, 107$, $p = .002$), and technical writing ($F = 6.217$, $df = 1, 108$, $p = .014$). The results suggest that the teachers and students have differed in their intuitive judgements of the students' level of competence in these areas. This difference might be explained by looking at other related factors and issues.

Table 9.12. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Teachers' And Students' Intuitive Judgements of Students' Levels in Four Skills.

	Df	F	Sig.
Listening academic	1, 107	.019	.890
Listening cooperative	1, 107	.069	.794
Listening personal	1, 106	.018	.0895
Listening procedural	1, 105	.151	.698
Listening public	1, 107	.038	.846
Listening technical	1, 107	.156	.694
Reading academic	1, 106	.001	.976
Reading cooperative	1, 107	7.339	.008
Reading personal	1, 107	.452	.503
Reading procedural	1, 107	.038	.085
Reading public	1, 107	.807	.371
Reading systems	1, 107	.353	.554
Reading technical	1, 107	.007	.934
Speaking academic	1, 105	.576	.450
Speaking cooperative	1, 107	6.962	.010
Speaking personal	1, 107	.007	.933
Speaking procedural	1, 107	.968	.328
Speaking public	1, 107	10.085	.002
Speaking technical	1, 107	.077	.782
Writing academic	1, 107	.735	.393
Writing cooperative	1, 107	.673	.414
Writing personal	1, 107	.783	.378
Writing procedural	1, 107	1.251	.266
Writing public	1, 107	1.278	.261
Writing technical	1, 107	6.217	.014

9.6. Conclusion

This chapter presented teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of students' level of language competence. We assumed that students graduate from the ELT departments with a level of competence in speaking and writing skills of the English language which is not the level that they should achieve. We found that according to teachers, students' overall level of language competence in the English language is either lower intermediate or intermediate. Only 37% of the respondents think that students have a 'high level of competence' in the language they are

learning. The findings here suggest that students' level of competence corresponds to levels 4 or 5 in the ESU framework which corresponds to lower intermediate or intermediate

As for the four skills in the English language, students' competence in these skills appears to be either 4 or 5 which again corresponds to lower intermediate or intermediate levels in the ESU framework. On the other hand, students' levels in terms of six areas are also between lower intermediate and intermediate. These findings show that students' overall language competence, students' level of competence in four skills, and students' level of competence in six areas are at lower intermediate or intermediate levels which confirms our assumption that students graduate from these departments with a low level of language competence in the English language.

Student responses also confirm that the levels that they achieve in speaking and writing at the end of their course of study are between 4 and 6, which corresponds to an intermediate level. However, teachers think that students should achieve higher levels. According to teachers, the lowest level that students should achieve is level 7. We may conclude that teachers are aware of the outcomes of the present system of language instruction.

The majority of students think that their overall level of language competence is 'moderate level of competence' in the English language. The level that was found in student responses corresponds to an intermediate level in Figure 9.1. Therefore, it may be concluded that students are also aware of their overall level of language competence and that students achieve a level of competence at the end of their higher education which may not enable them to use the English language effectively for

different purposes in different social situations. These findings confirm our assumption that students graduate from ELT departments with an intermediate level of competence in the two skills, which may be considered as a low level for the ELT departments.

CHAPTER 10

STUDENTS' ACTUAL PROFILES OF COMPETENCE IN SPEAKING AND WRITING

Part I

10.1. Introduction

Although the ELT departments in Turkey are popular among students who want to learn English and who want to become teachers of English, finding research on the outcomes of the English language instruction in these departments is difficult. Although it is generally assumed that students in these departments learn the English language well and use it effectively, this has not been established empirically. Thus, empirical data are needed to make judgements on the outcomes of English language instruction in the ELT departments.

The central aim of this study was to assess ELT students' actual levels of competence in speaking and writing. Speaking and writing tasks were developed for this purpose and this chapter presents the findings obtained through the administration of these tasks. This chapter will compare the findings from the aspect of the investigation described in Chapter 9.

10.2. Spoken and Written Tasks

In Chapter 8, it was found that teachers employ a variety of in-class and out-of-class language activities which were mainly based on the four skills of the language. This implies that students are familiar with different tasks and they should not have any difficulties in carrying out tasks in speaking and writing. It was also argued elsewhere that different social situations require different use of the language. The tasks that were prepared for this study involved different social

situations.

The tasks (Appendices L and M) for speaking and writing were given to the student sample at University C. Students were asked to speak and write on six topics occurring in six different social situations as described by the NRS in Chapter 6. It was assumed that students would be confronted with the need to use the English language in different social settings in real life. Students' competence in speaking and writing was assessed against the ESU assessment scales (Yardsticks 5 and 7 in Appendix D), which were described in detail in the previous chapters.

10.3. The Interrater Reliability Coefficients of Spoken and Written Tasks

The spoken and written tasks and their administration were explained in detail in Chapter 6. Spoken and written tasks were rated by three raters, including the present researcher and two other teaching staff in the ELT department at University C. Rating procedures of spoken and written tasks and the raters were also described in Chapter 6.

After the administration of the tasks, the first procedure was to find out the interrater reliability of the scores. This was important because it would show whether or not the ratings of the three raters correlate. That is, it would show whether there was a consistency between the scores of each rater. According to Nitko (1996),

Reliability refers to the consistency of assessment results. ... Reliability ... is the degree to which students' assessment results are the same when (1) they complete the same task(s) on two different occasions, (2) they complete different but equivalent tasks on the same or different occasions, or (3) two or more teachers mark their performance on the same task(s). ... Reliability refers to the assessment results or scores, not to the assessment instrument itself" (pp. 62-63)

There are different types of reliability coefficients and each reliability coefficient has a different function. Reliability coefficients, according to Nitko (1996), can be put in three categories: “reliability over different occasions, reliability on a single occasion, and scorer reliability” (p. 65). Nitko defines each category as:

Some coefficients are appropriate to determine whether assessing a student on different occasions leads to inconsistency, some investigate whether different samples of content and tasks lead to inconsistencies, and still others determine whether different scorers give inconsistent ratings to the same performance (p. 65).

The third type of reliability estimate is the interrater reliability estimate, which was used in this study. One type of interrater reliability estimate is called Cronbach alpha interrater reliability coefficient. It was used in this study to estimate the interrater reliability coefficient of the spoken and written scores. The formula of this interrater reliability estimate is shown below.

$$\alpha = \left[\frac{k}{k-1} \right] \left[1 - \frac{\Sigma(SD_i)^2}{(SD_x)^2} \right] \quad \text{where } k = \text{rater}$$

Raters’ ratings for students’ spoken and written tasks are shown in Appendices S and T respectively. All members of the student sample participated in spoken tasks while for the written tasks, four of the sample did not complete any of the written tasks, one did not complete written task for procedural communication, another did not complete the task for systems communication, and three did not complete the task for personal communication.

In order to find out whether or not the scores given by three raters were reliable, the interrater reliability coefficients of the ratings for spoken and written tasks were computed by using the SPSS (v.6). The Cronbach Alpha reliability

estimate was used in calculating the reliability coefficients of the ratings for both spoken and written tasks. Table 10.1 shows the inter-rater reliability coefficients for spoken and written tasks.

Table 10.1. Inter-Rater Reliability Coefficients of Spoken and Written Tasks.

Area of language use	α	
	Spoken	Written
Procedural communication	.8843	.8661
Technical communication	.8970	.9131
Personal communication	.8913	.8865
Systems communication	.8905	.8948
Public communication	.8968	.8971
Co-operative communication	.9404	.9234

The ratings in Appendices S and T show that there are few exact fits among the ratings. Most ratings are one band apart and some two. In very few cases, they are three bands apart. This may be due to the lack of other raters' familiarity with the criteria used for the spoken and written tasks. However, the inter-rater reliability coefficients were found high enough to accept the rating as reliable and accurate. The figures show that there is a good correlation among the scores of the raters. It would be reasonable to conclude from this that an assessment system based on criterion referencing would be an effective and reliable way in assessing students levels of competence.

10.4. Spoken Language Profiles

This section presents the profiles that students achieved in spoken tasks. It is worth talking first about the priority of administering the spoken and written tasks. In administering the spoken and written tasks, no priority was given in terms of which set of tasks to be administered first. It could be argued here that if

written tasks were administered first, students could have scored higher in spoken tasks. On the other hand, it may also be argued that if spoken tasks were administered first, students could have scored higher in written tasks. Although we recognise that administering the tasks in one mode may effect the performance in other, they had to be given to students in one way or other. In the following sections, we shall discover whether administering the spoken tasks first had any effects on students written performances.

As stated earlier, students' competence was tested in six different areas (genres). In presenting students' achievement, each genre is defined first and students' achievement is presented next. For each level that students achieved in each genre, the descriptors of the ESU are also presented to show what students can do at this level.

The following method was used to calculate and examine students' mean levels in spoken tasks. First, three raters' ratings of students for the six tasks were put on a table (Appendix S). Second, the means of each raters' ratings for 30 students were calculated for each genre separately. For each genre, three means were obtained. Third, the average of three means for each genre was calculated to find out the overall mean levels of students in each task. This procedure was repeated for six tasks separately. Students' mean levels for the six tasks are presented in graphics and are compared with Figure 9.1, which shows the equivalent stages of the ESU levels.

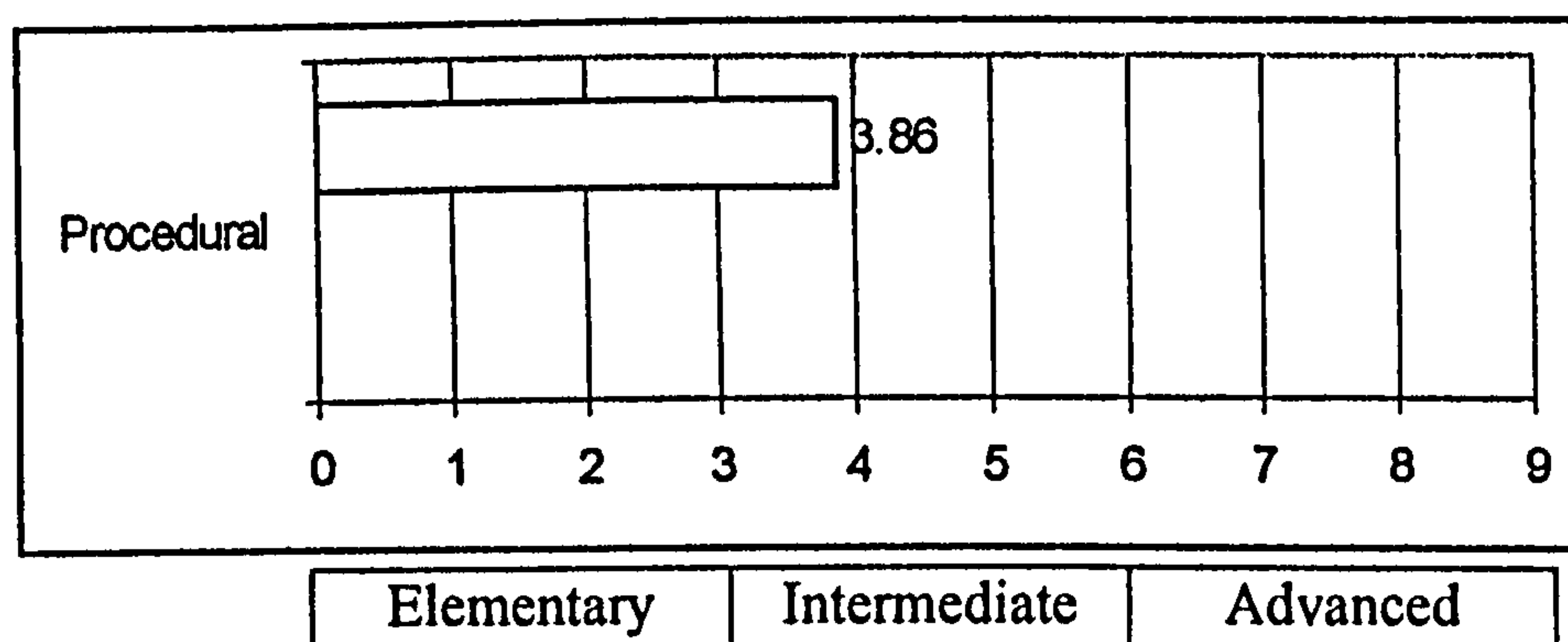
10.4.1. Spoken Language Profile (Procedural Communication)

People sometimes need to give others instructions to have a task completed. The instructions are usually short statements which shows the steps in

an order for the completion of a task. As well as giving instructions, sometimes people have to listen to instructions in order to carry out a task. Therefore, “procedural communication refers to the language ... used to carry out a task or tasks. It includes giving instructions, applying and following a number of steps or procedures in order to perform and complete a task” (the NRS, p. 8).

In this study, students’ competence in procedural communication was tested on an application form (Appendix L) of a company in Turkey that makes arrangements for English language courses in different parts of the world. In this task, students were asked to reinterpret the information on the form in English as if they were giving instructions to fill in the form. The researcher, who was also a rater and who administered the tasks, played the role of an instructee. Students’ levels of competence in procedural communication were rated promptly by three raters according to the ESU criteria for speaking. It must be pointed out here that students were asked only to give instructions, but not to take instructions. We must also bear in mind that the ESU criteria for speaking and writing that we used in the assessment of student competence in different areas are a general set of criteria which do not make distinctions as procedural communication, technical communication etc. and have not been modified in terms of the requirements of these different areas. The following graphic representation shows students’ mean level of competence in procedural communication against the ESU criteria.

Table 10.2. Students' Mean Levels in Procedural Communication in Speaking



Students' mean levels of competence in procedural communication were determined to be 3.86 against the ESU criteria. If we round students' mean scores to level 4, we see that they are at lower intermediate level in procedural communication. The ESU descriptors for speaking describes a student at level 4 (for all level descriptions in speaking refer to Yardstick 5 in Appendix D) as:

Handles simple speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys short, simple messages but with loss of detail and interest. Frequent need for repetition and clarification. Responds adequately to structured conversation but restricted in freer interaction. Spoken text organisation is haphazard and lapses require frequent repair. Little stylistic variation. Communication adequately conveys the speaker's gist. Frequent false starts and hesitations. Uses a limited language repertoire with little variety. Frequent errors. Heavy L1 accent. Language limitations impede intelligibility (p. 29).

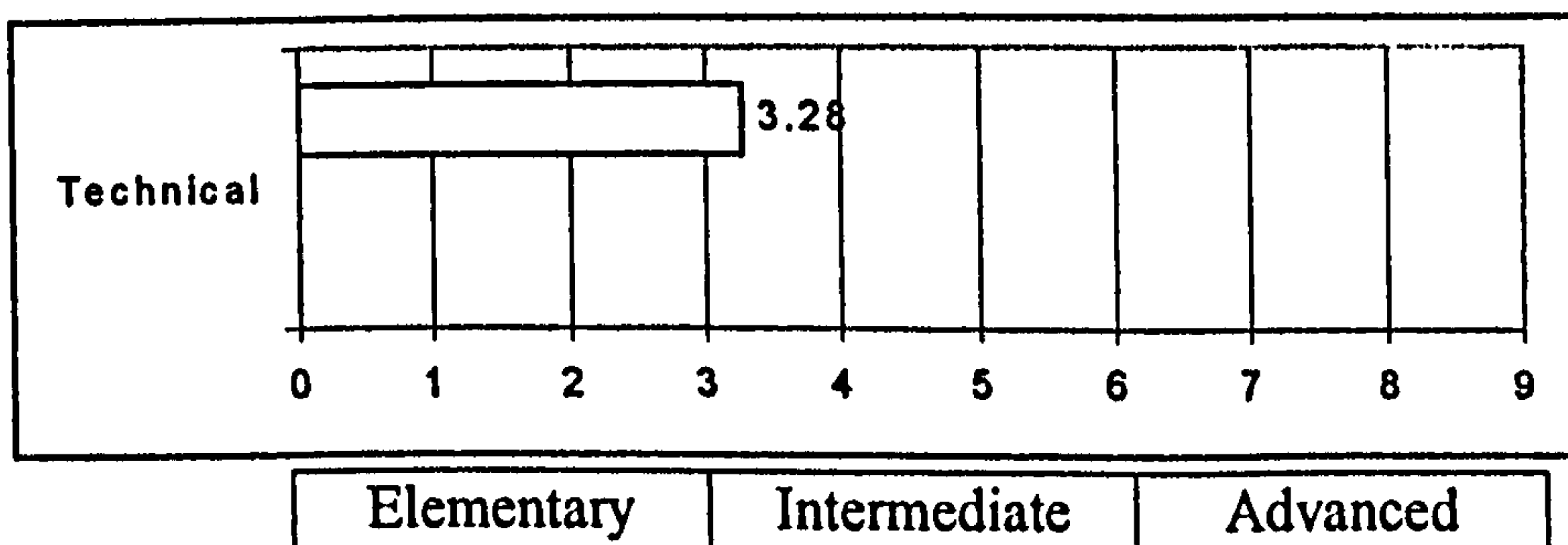
It was found that students' ability to give instructions is limited to very simple tasks. Although the task was meant to be a simple one, students had difficulties in giving instructions. This may imply that students in ELT departments have a very limited level of competence in giving instructions, though they were expected to achieve higher levels. A lower intermediate level in procedural communication for students in the final year contradicts the aims of these departments, which was described in Chapter 5.

10.4.2. Spoken Language Profile (Technical Communication)

In our daily lives, we are always in contact with the products of modern technology. For example, an overhead projector, a cassette player, a computer, or a TV and video combination at home, in a workplace, language classroom or language lab. Because of the nature of the instruction in ELT departments, students are expected to be able to talk about these devices. In this context, “technical communication refers to the language ... related to the use of simple or complex tools or machines, which includes the language involved in understanding and learning about media as well as about the function of technology and how to use it” (the NRS, p. 8). Taking this into account and in accordance with the definition of the technical communication, students’ ability to talk about such technical devices was tested. Students were given a task which included a simple, one-page manual on a TV remote control handset. The page had a picture of the remote control handset and the descriptions of some of the buttons on it (Appendix L). All the descriptions in the manual were in Turkish and students were asked to reinterpret the information in English.

Students’ mean level of competence in technical communication was found as 3.28 (3 if rounded) against the ESU criteria (Table 10.3).

Table 10.3. Students’ Mean Levels in Technical Communication in Speaking



According to this table, students' levels in technical communication appear to be upper elementary. The ESU descriptors for speaking describes a student at level 3 as:

Handles simple speech situations with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys basic survival messages, but lacks clarity and interest. Communication breaks down as language constraints interfere with message. Little text organisation or flexibility of response. Little appreciation of style. Restricted to handling basic facts. False starts and hesitations impair communication. Has a narrow language repertoire, demanding constant rephrasing and searching for words. Errors even with quite basic usage. Pronunciation and usage shortcomings cause very frequent problems with communication.

Such a low level of competence implies the lack of emphasis in preparing students as competent and knowledgeable users of the English language in different social situations. This also indicates that teachers are not aware of what students have and have not achieved during the English language instruction. Again, this finding supports our assumptions that the present system of assessment does not say much about student learning and that students become competent only in very limited areas.

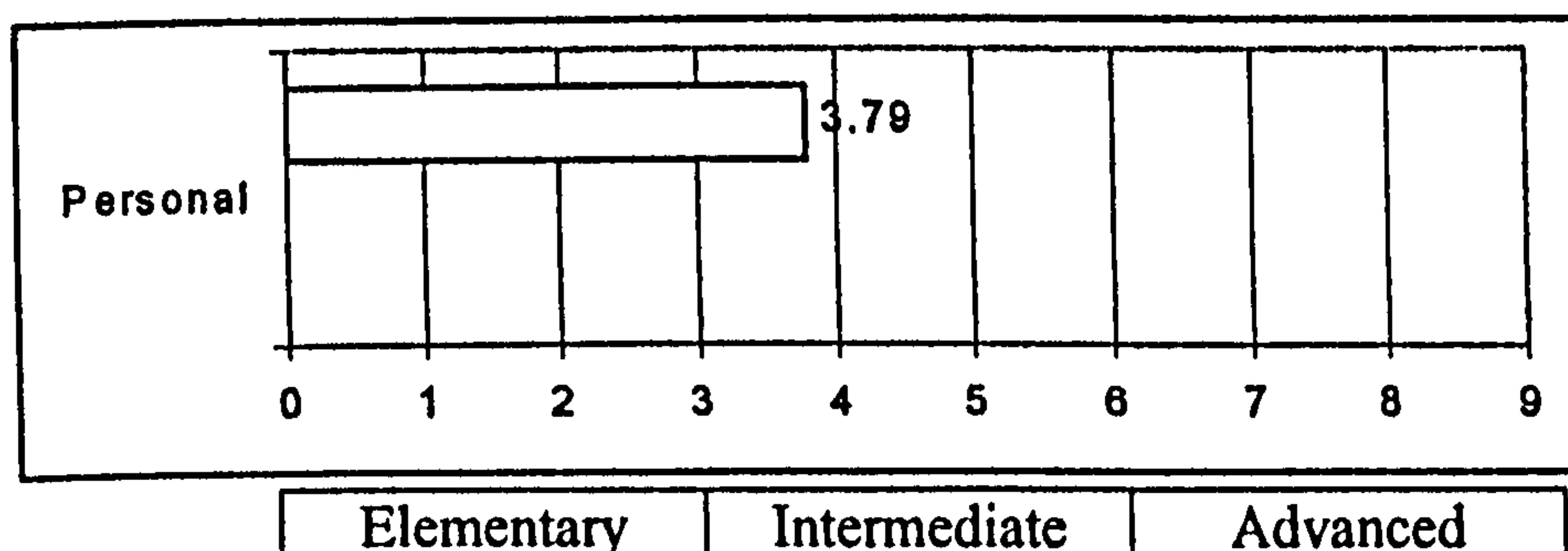
10.4.3. Spoken Language Profile (Personal Communication)

People are sometimes asked to talk about themselves or others. For example, people are usually interviewed when they apply for a job or a position in a company. They may be asked to talk about themselves, to state why they applied, whether they have previous experience, etc. In such cases, they should give clear and concise information about themselves and about the questions being asked. Therefore, "personal communication refers to the language ... related to expressing personal identity and/or goals. It includes the different ways

personal history, knowledge, attributes, goals and opinions are drawn on and expressed for particular purposes” (the NRS, p. 8).

In this study, one of the areas in which students’ level of competence was tested was personal communication. Students were given a task which required them to assume that they were being interviewed by an executive committee of a company after their application was accepted. The present researcher played the role of one of the interviewing executives. The following graphic representation shows students’ mean level in this task.

Table 10.4. Students’ Mean Levels in Personal Communication in Speaking.



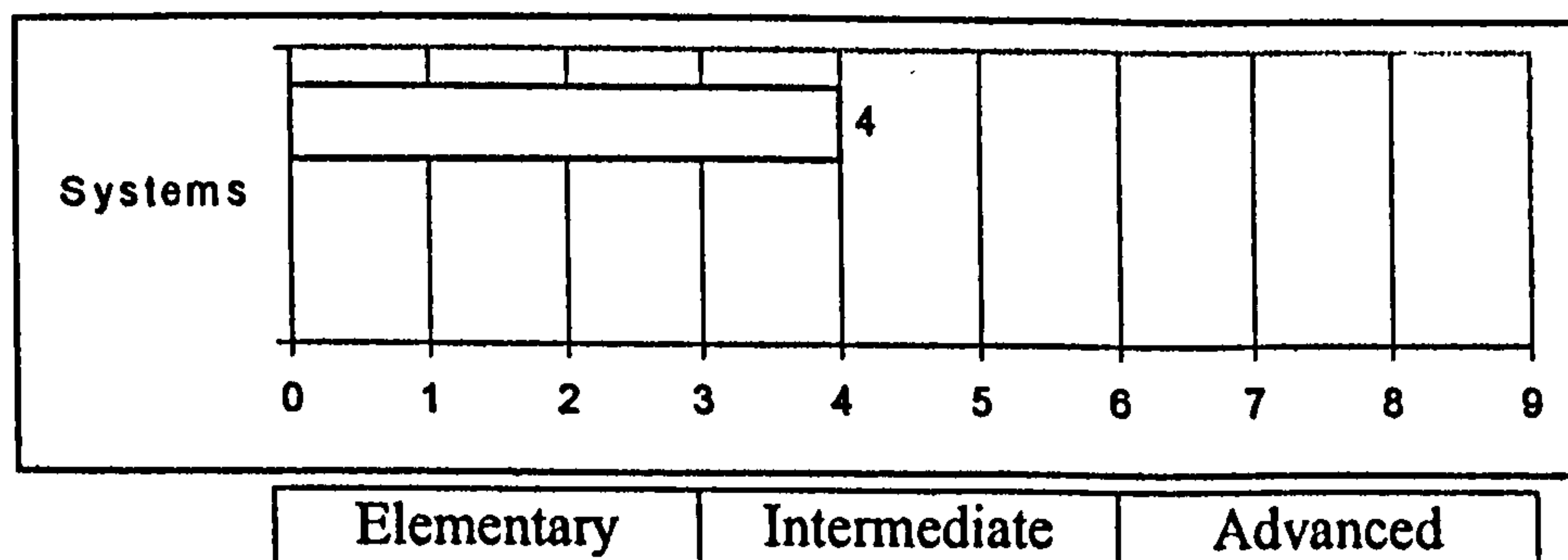
Students’ mean levels of competence in this task were found to be 3.79 (4 if rounded) against the ESU criteria. Thus, students’ level in this task appears to be lower intermediate. The ESU descriptors for this level were given in section 10.4.1. As the descriptors indicate, students have a limited competence in personal communication. This finding has some important implications. It is assumed that students might have achieved higher levels in this task since talking about oneself is among the first things that students learn in the very beginning of a language course. Any ELT department has a one-year preparatory class in which students are supposed to obtain enough knowledge of the English language to prepare them for the demands of the courses that they will take in English. Despite this fact,

students were found to have a low level of competence.

10.4.4. Spoken Language Profile (Systems Communication)

“Systems communication refers to the language ... related to understanding and interacting within an organisation or institution. In an educational institution or program, it includes learning about the range and design of educational choices and pathways as well as the relationship between classroom and non-classroom activities” (The NRS, p. 8). An example to this area of communication might be cases when people are asked to talk about the institution where they are working or studying. Such an inquiry might take place for employment purposes or in a conversation between friends. For the purpose of this research, our topic in this area was about students’ educational institution. The topic for this area asked students to tell everything about their department to a friend who wanted to be a student at their department but who did not know anything about it. Students were also asked to give as much information as possible about their departments, courses, location of the department, and students’ social life.

Table 10.5. Students’ Mean Levels in Systems Communication in Speaking.

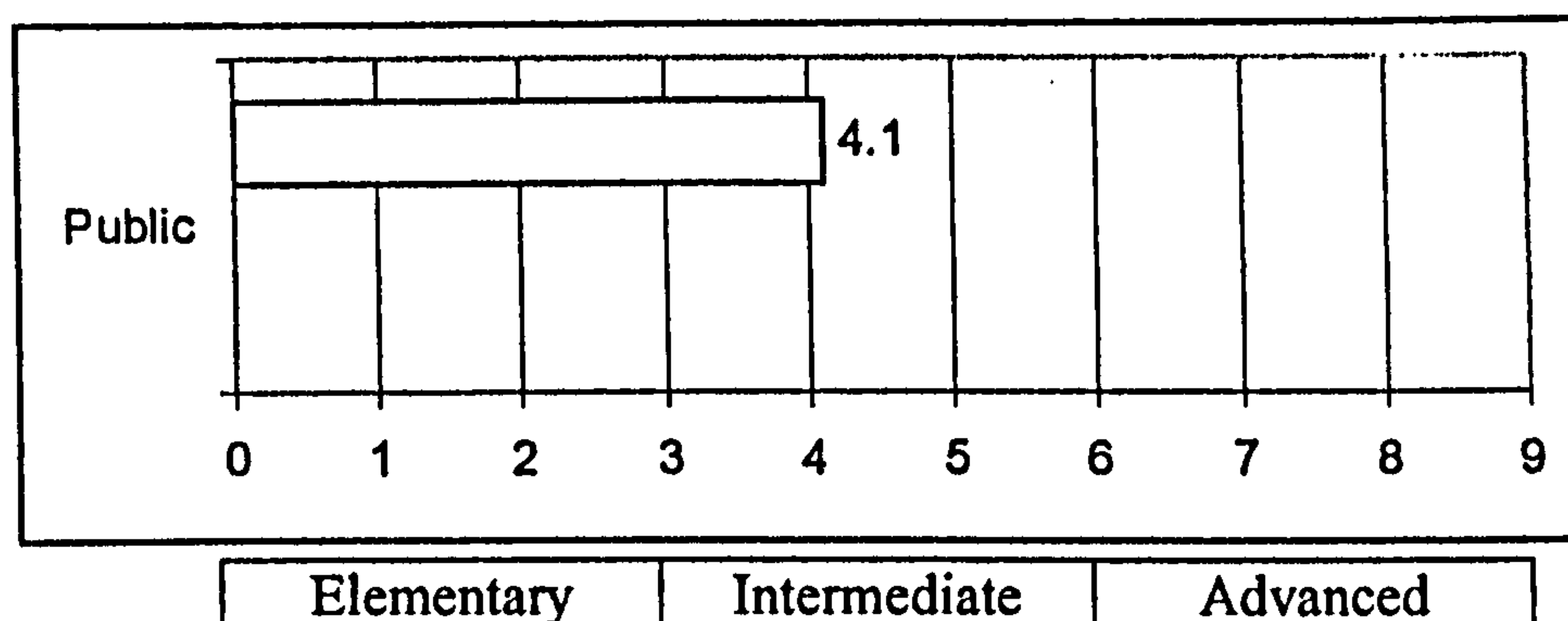


Students' mean levels of competence in this task were also found to be lower than expected. Their mean levels were found to be 4 against ESU criteria. Again, level 4 represents a lower intermediate level which may be considered to be below what might be expected.

10.4.5. Spoken Language Profile (Public Communication)

“Public communication refers to the language ... related to understanding and interacting within the wider social or community context. In an educational institution or program it includes learning about and interacting with other institutions – educational ones – ... for the purposes of future work or study, entertainment or engagement with public interest issues” (the NRS, p. 8). The task for public communication was aimed to find out how competently students used the English language in the issues of wider public interest. In this task, students were asked to choose from two topics of wide public interest: roads and health policy of Turkey. These topics were especially chosen because of their popularity in the daily conversation of Turkish people. In doing so, it was assumed that students would talk about them without interruption since they had been the most familiar topics in the Turkish context. Depending on the topic that they chose, they were also asked to act as if they were talking to the Minister of Transportation or Minister of Health live on a national television. The present researcher, who was one of the raters, took up the role of students' interlocutor. The following graphic representation shows students' mean level in this task.

Table 10.6. Students' Mean Levels in Public Communication in Speaking.



Again, the findings appear to be less than satisfactory. Students' mean levels in this task were found to be 4.1 (4, if rounded) against the ESU criteria. This level corresponds to lower intermediate level, which, again, might be considered low for ELT students. The descriptors for this level (section 10.4.1) also indicate that a student at this level has very limited competence in the English language.

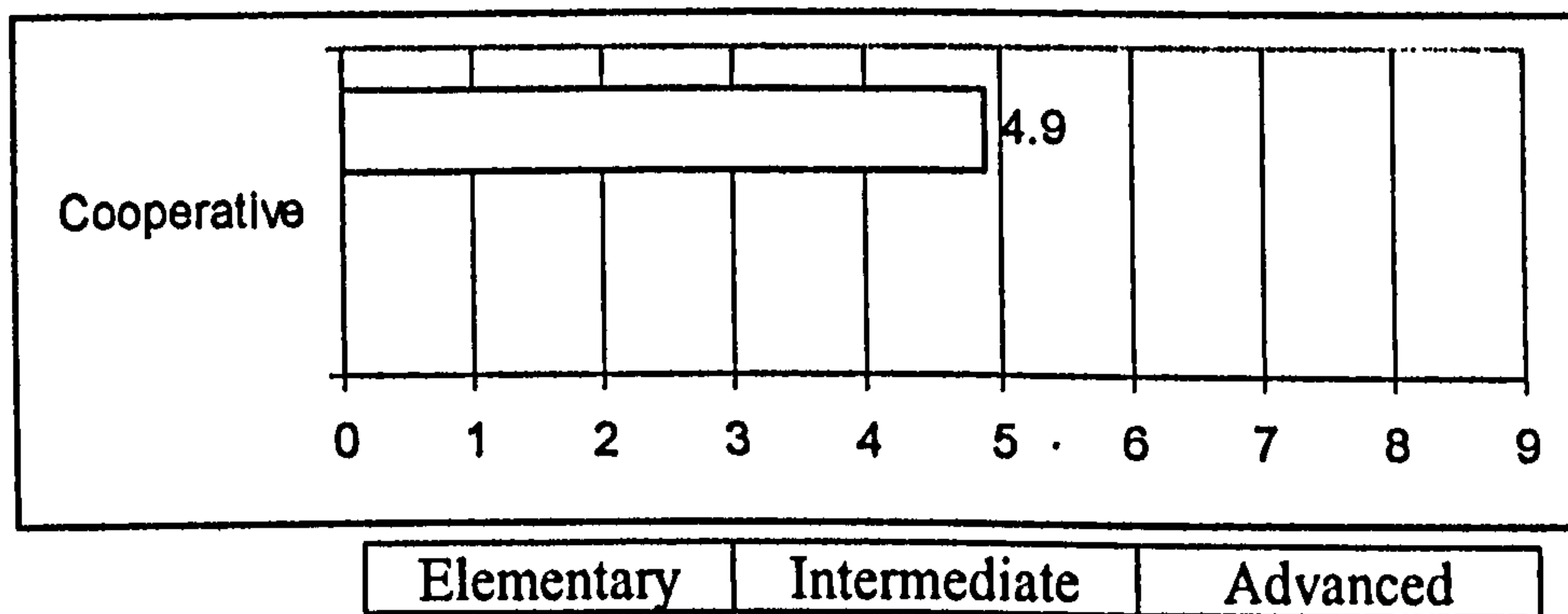
It is worth commenting on the nature of the task here. In purely impressionistic terms, it would seem that the task of talking about oneself in the context of friends and family ought to be less demanding than a task which requires a certain level of argumentation and analysis in a public situation. The results show, however, that there is no significant difference in the way in which students handled the demands of the two different genres.

10.4.6. Spoken Language Profile (Cooperative Communication)

“Cooperative communication refers to the language ... related to understanding the function of a group and the roles of the different members, as well as to participating in the group including establishing cooperative relationships with its members” (the NRS, p. 8). An example of this genre from

the Turkish context might be the fondness of Turkish people for talking about sporting events. Bearing this in mind, students were asked to talk about the skiing society of their university. For this task, students were put in groups of three to four and were asked to discuss what would be needed to become members of that society. They were asked to discuss issues such as qualifications sought for membership, rules and regulations of the society, what may be needed for membership, and activities and administration of the society.

Table 10.7. Students' Mean Levels in Cooperative Communication in Speaking.



This is the only genre in which students achieved the intermediate level. Their mean levels of competence in this genre were found to be 4.9 (5, if rounded).

Descriptors of Level 5 in the ESU criteria describe a student at this level as:

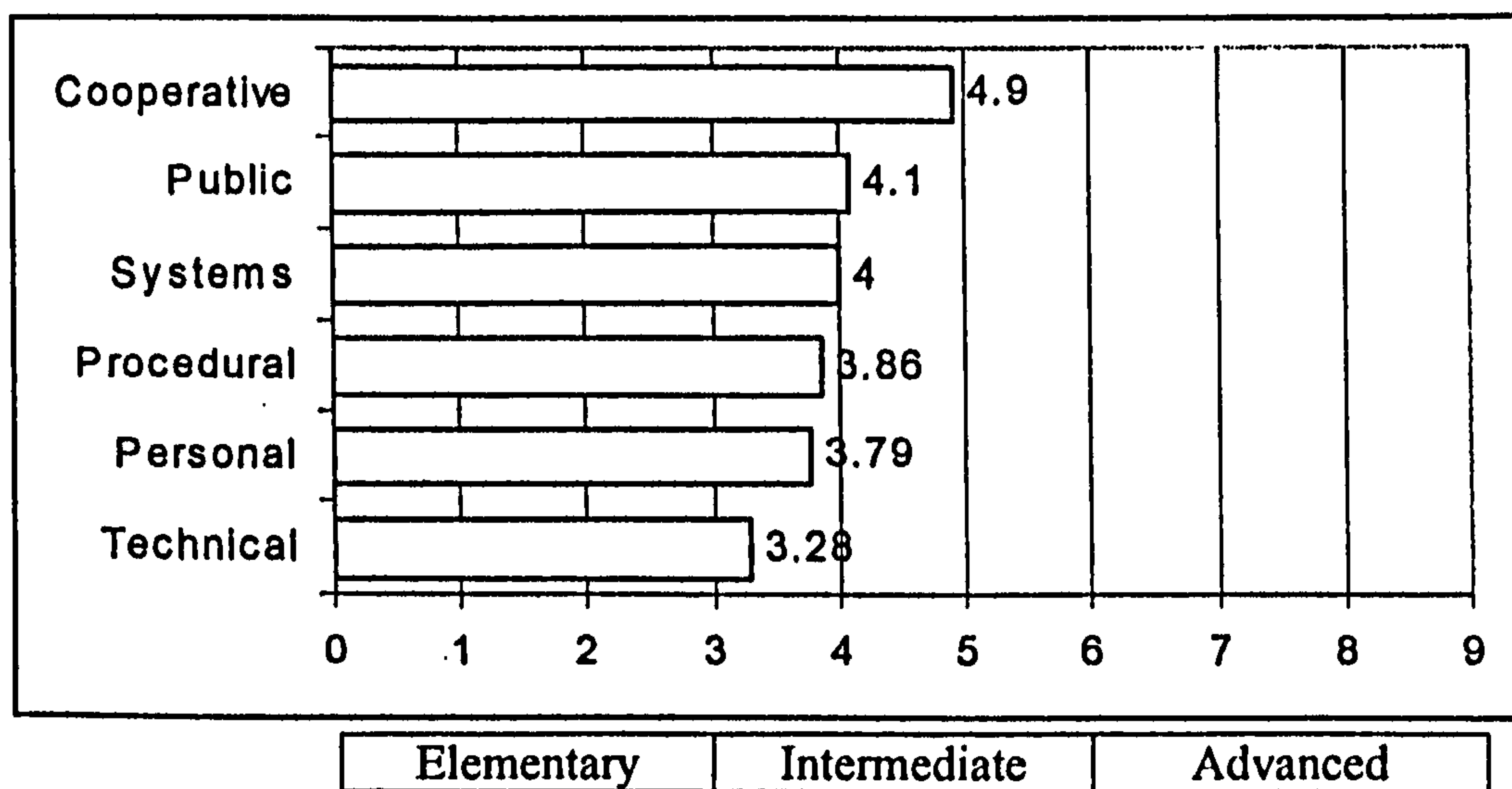
Handles moderate speech situations with adequate confidence and competence. Message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Some difficulties in initiating and sustaining conversation. Interaction needs repetition and clarification. Spoken text organisation is adequate but with fairly frequent stylistic lapses. Fairly frequent hesitations and lapses in fluency, but these do not interfere with basic communication. Uses a moderate language repertoire, but has to search for words and use circumlocutions. Fairly frequent errors in accuracy. Obvious L1 accent and speech features. Limitations impair communication at times (p. 28).

The descriptors of level 5 indicates that students at this level still have difficulties in expressing themselves. This finding also supports our assumption about the

students' levels that they do not attain a satisfactory level in speaking at the end of their higher education. It is also supportive of the assumption that these departments lack a suitable assessment system which is sensitive to students' needs and which could be used for formative purposes.

The graphic representation in Table 10.8 gives the overall picture of students' actual (observed) levels of competence in spoken tasks. In this table, the figures show the means of the scores given by the raters using the ESU criteria.

Table 10.8. Students' Actual (observed) Profile in Speaking in the Six Genres



Although the tasks for speaking (Appendix L) were selected with the intention that they represented simple everyday situations, ELT students had difficulties in carrying out the tasks. The task that the students found most difficult was the one in technical communication. The second most difficult task for students was the one in personal communication. Although talking about oneself is among the first things to be taught in any language course, students found to be very weak in this genre. Students' language competence in procedural communication was also found to be lower than expected. Although giving and

taking instructions are among the first things to be taught and although the task was a straightforward one, students found it difficult to give instructions about the procedures in filling in an application form. They also had difficulties in expressing themselves when talking about system and public areas. Cooperative communication is the only domain in which students achieved level 5, which represents an intermediate level. Although their use of the English language was, to a great extent, limited, they seemed to be able to support each other in the cooperative communication situation. This provides us with important pointers to the nature of language and its assessment. If tasks appear to be too contrived, they may limit the possibility of valid determination of language competence. The task in cooperative communication appeared to be the most natural of the tasks and might account for the higher scores. Students' mean level in speaking was found to be 3.99 (4, if rounded) which corresponds to lower intermediate level.

Although, because of the limitations of this study, it may not be the case in all ELT departments in Turkey, the results in Table 10.8 imply that ELT instruction in these departments does not provide students with a sufficient level of competence in the speaking skill of English. Besides, these results show that students become competent in the areas that they may not use in their future careers, such as literature-related courses. As indicated elsewhere in the earlier chapters, the effects and importance of some courses, such as literature-related courses, must be re-evaluated and their weight in the curriculum should be reduced to a minimum. Instead, more stress must be given to using language effectively in different areas. Based on the findings, it may be said that students' level of competence in speaking in different areas is not high enough for them to

teach a language with competence.

10.5. Written Language Profiles

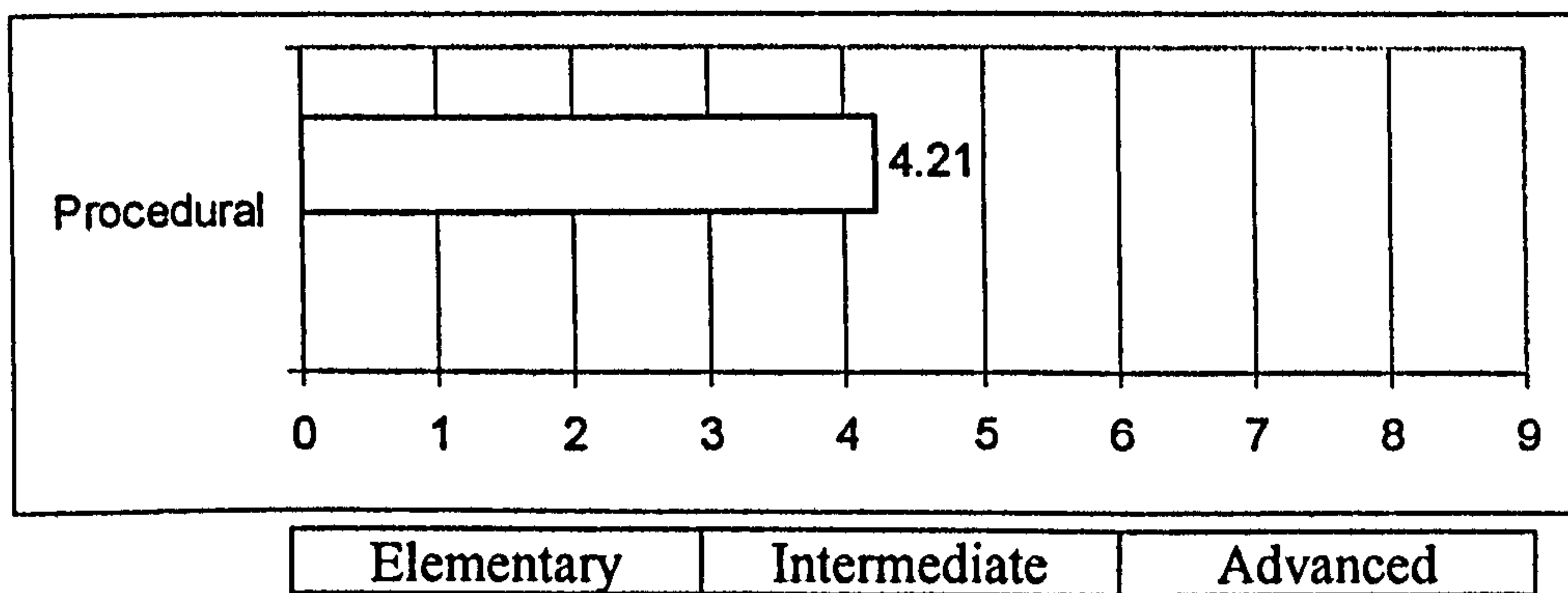
This section presents profiles that students achieved in written tasks. The written tasks were the same as spoken tasks and students were asked to write on the same topics. In presenting students' achievement in written tasks, each genre is not defined again since they were defined in students' spoken profiles above. An example of each communication is given first. Then students' achievement is presented for each level that students achieved in each genre, and the descriptors of the ESU for that level are presented to show what students can do at this particular level. The method that was used to calculate and examine students' mean levels in written tasks is similar to the procedure used in spoken tasks. First, three raters' ratings of students for the six tasks were put on a table (Appendix T). Second, the means of each raters' ratings for 30 students were calculated for each genre separately. On the table in Appendix T, the missing values are represented with a -1. The statistical package used for the calculation of means (SPSS v6) takes into account of the missing values when calculating the means. Therefore, three means were obtained for each genre. Third, the average of three means for each genre was calculated to find out the overall mean levels of students in each task. This procedure was repeated for six tasks separately. Students' mean levels for the six tasks were presented in graphics and were compared with Figure 9.1 in Chapter 9, which shows the equivalent stages of the ESU levels.

10.5.1. Written Language Profile (Procedural Communication)

The first task was in procedural communication. Writing procedures is something that people need to do in their second or foreign language as well as in

their first language. This is more important when s/he attempts to teach the language. That is, these students will encounter situations when they need to give written instructions to those in their work environment. For example, if they become teachers, they may need to explain to their students some things in writing. Similarly, if they are working in an institution where English is important, they are likely to give instructions to their employees or colleagues. In spoken tasks, students were asked to give oral instructions to fill in an application form. Procedural communication in written tasks required students to write the procedures of how to fill in the application form. The following graphic representation shows students' mean level in this task.

Table 10.9. Students' Mean Levels in Procedural Communication in Writing.



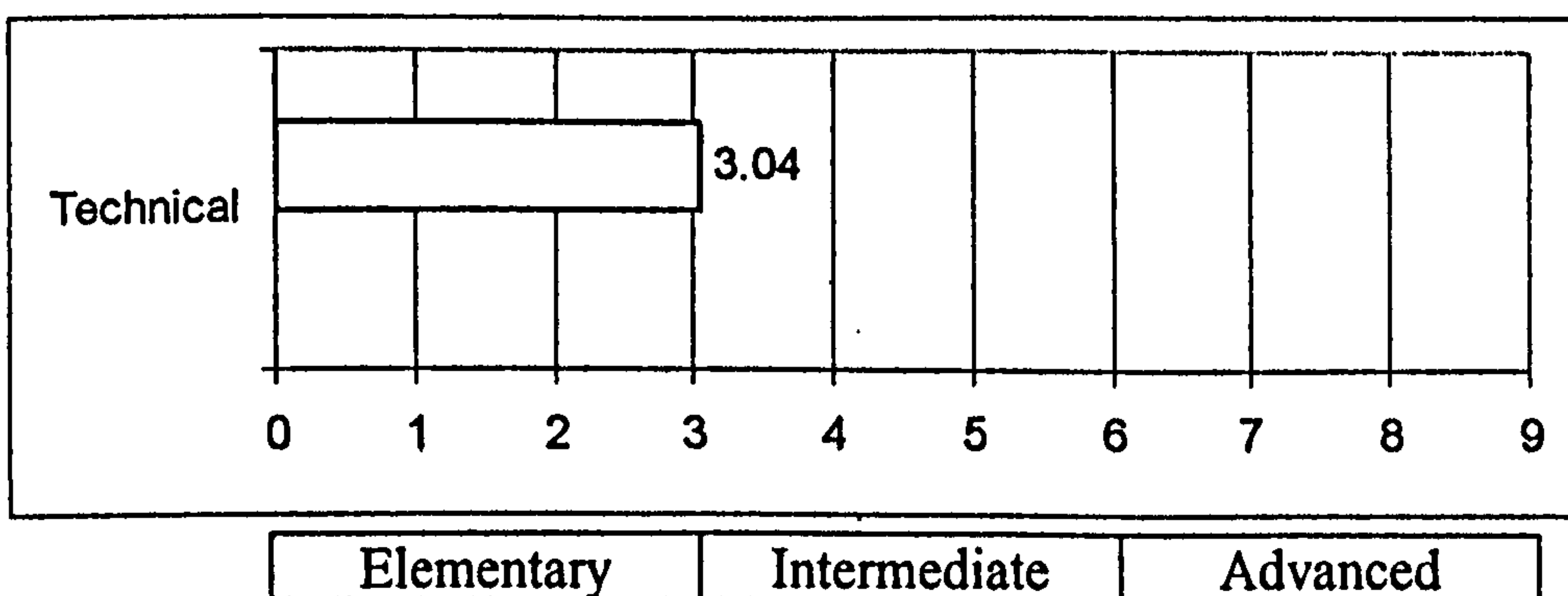
Students' mean levels in this task were found to be 4.21 (4, if rounded) which is higher than the level students achieved in spoken tasks. Level 4 in the ESU Framework corresponds to lower intermediate level. The ESU descriptors for writing describe a student at this level as:

Writes simple texts with good competence and confidence; some problems with moderate-level texts. Message conveyed basically but without subtlety. Deals with main topic required but with lack of clarity and interest. Marginally communicative. Text organisation haphazard and not coherent throughout. Little use of stylistic variation or cohesive devices. Punctuation, paragraphing and layout basic. Uses a limited language repertoire with little variety and frequent inaccuracies. Spelling and handwriting impede clarity of message

10.5.2. Written Language Profile (Technical Communication)

As in the spoken tasks, technical communication proved to be the most difficult genre for students in written tasks. As described in 10.4.2, technical communication requires students to use the English language for simple or complex technical tools. An example for technical communication may be that in an educational institution people may need to explain the functions of a device and how to operate it in writing to his students or colleagues. In another environment outside the educational domain where English is needed, a person is likely to be involved in similar situations. In the task for technical communication, students were given the Turkish version of the remote control handset manual and were asked to rewrite the instructions in English. The following table shows students' mean level in this task.

Table 10.10. Students' Mean Levels in Technical Communication in Writing.



Students' mean levels of competence in technical communication were found to be 3.04 (3, if rounded) which is slightly lower than the level that students achieved in spoken tasks. This level corresponds to upper elementary (Figure 9.1) and a student at this level is described by the ESU framework as:

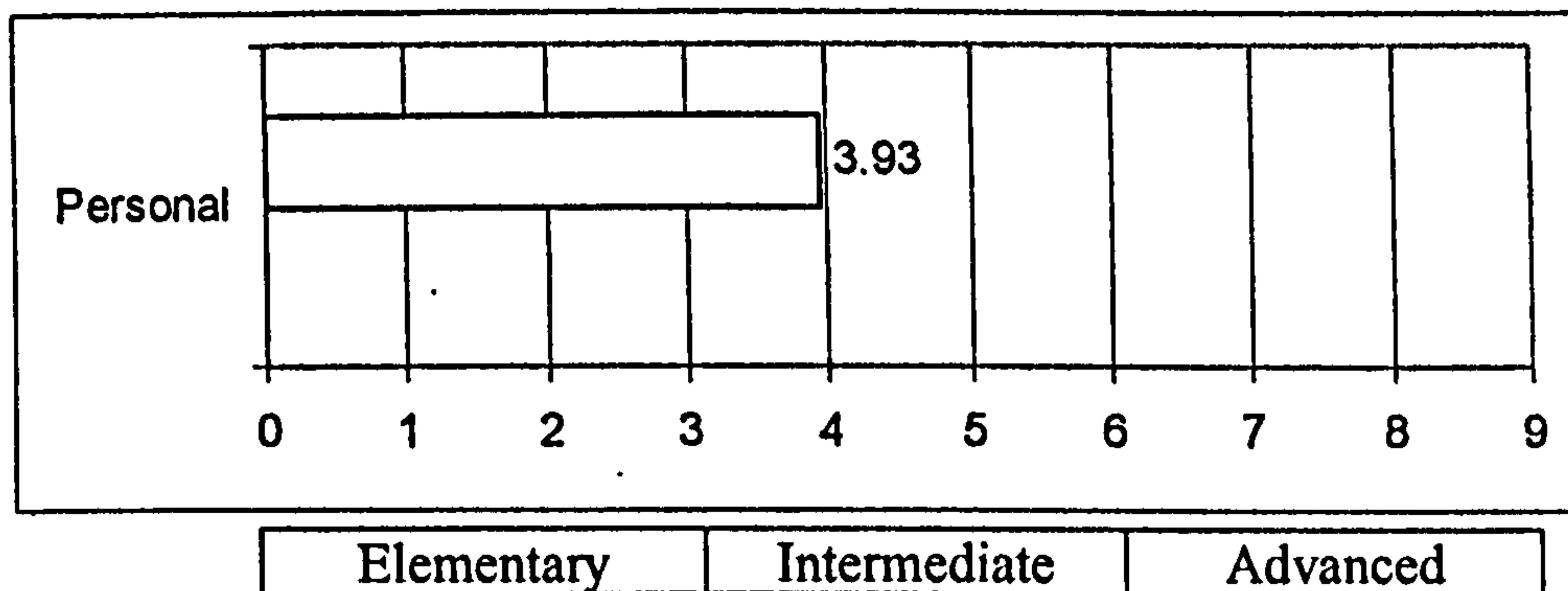
Writes simple texts with adequate competence and confidence, but with many problems with moderate level texts. Produces a string of sentences bearing to some extent on the required message. Little sense of reader expectations. Finer details not dealt with. Lacking in interest. Little sense of text organisation. Mainly descriptive or narrative style lacking cohesion. Punctuation basic and often omitted. Layout of little help to reader. Has a narrow language repertoire, with regular inaccuracies and inappropriacies which impede basic message. Spelling and handwriting cause problems of intelligibility.

This is certainly a very low level, and supports our assumption that students at these departments do not achieve necessary levels in the English language and become competent in very limited areas, e.g., in course-related subjects.

10.5.3. Written Language Profile (Personal Communication)

Personal communication, as described in section 10.4.3, refers to using the language to express one's personal attributes, goals, personal history, and opinions for particular purposes. An example may be, as we used in this study, writing curriculum vitae. In spoken tasks, students were asked to act as if they were being interviewed by a committee in a company that they had applied for. The written task asked students to write a curriculum vitae and state why they applied for the position in that company. A curriculum vitae is usually formal and does not require writing in complete sentences. However, the instructions of the task made it clear to the students that they were asked to write a curriculum vitae with an additional part in a composition format of why they applied for the position. They were also asked to give as many details as possible. Students' mean levels of competence in this tasks were found to be 3.93 (4, if rounded).

Table 10.11. Students' Mean Levels in Personal Communication in Writing.



The level that students achieved in this genre is slightly higher than the level that students achieved in the same task in speaking. This level corresponds to lower intermediate in the ESU scale in Figure 9.1, and a student at this level is described by the ESU Framework as:

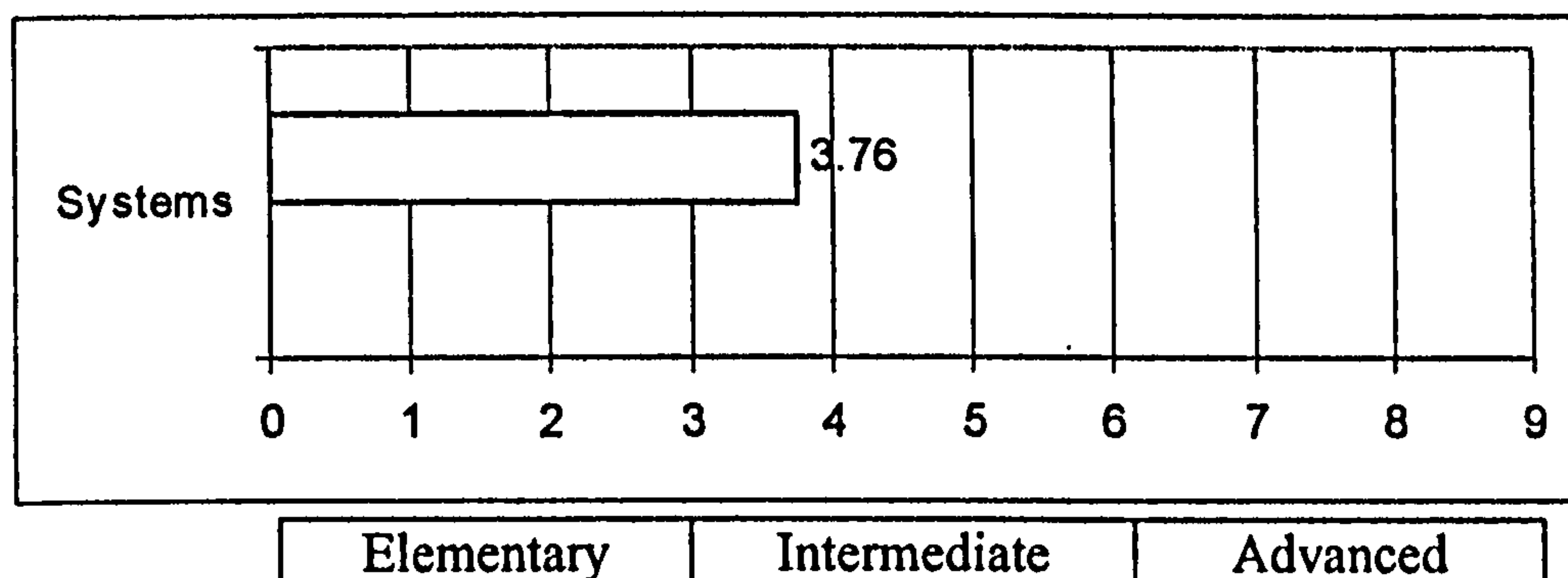
Writes simple texts with good competence and confidence; some problems with moderate-level texts. Message conveyed basically but without subtlety. Deals with main topic required but with lack of clarity and interest. Marginally communicative. Text organisation haphazard and not coherent throughout. Little use of stylistic variation or cohesive devices. Punctuation, paragraphing and layout basic. Uses a limited language repertoire with little variety and frequent inaccuracies. Spelling and handwriting impede clarity of message.

10.5.4. Written Language Profile (Systems Communication)

In section 10.4.4, it was stated that in an educational institution, systems communication refers to the language related to learning about the range and design of educational choices and pathways as well as the relationship between classroom and non-classroom activities. The spoken task in systems communication asked students to talk to their friends and tell them everything about their departments. The written task in systems communication asked students to write a letter to their friends about their department. Students were asked to give as much information as possible such as the courses, location of the

department, and social life. Students' mean level of competence was found to be 3.76 (4, if rounded).

Table 10.12. Students' Mean Levels in Systems Communication in Writing.

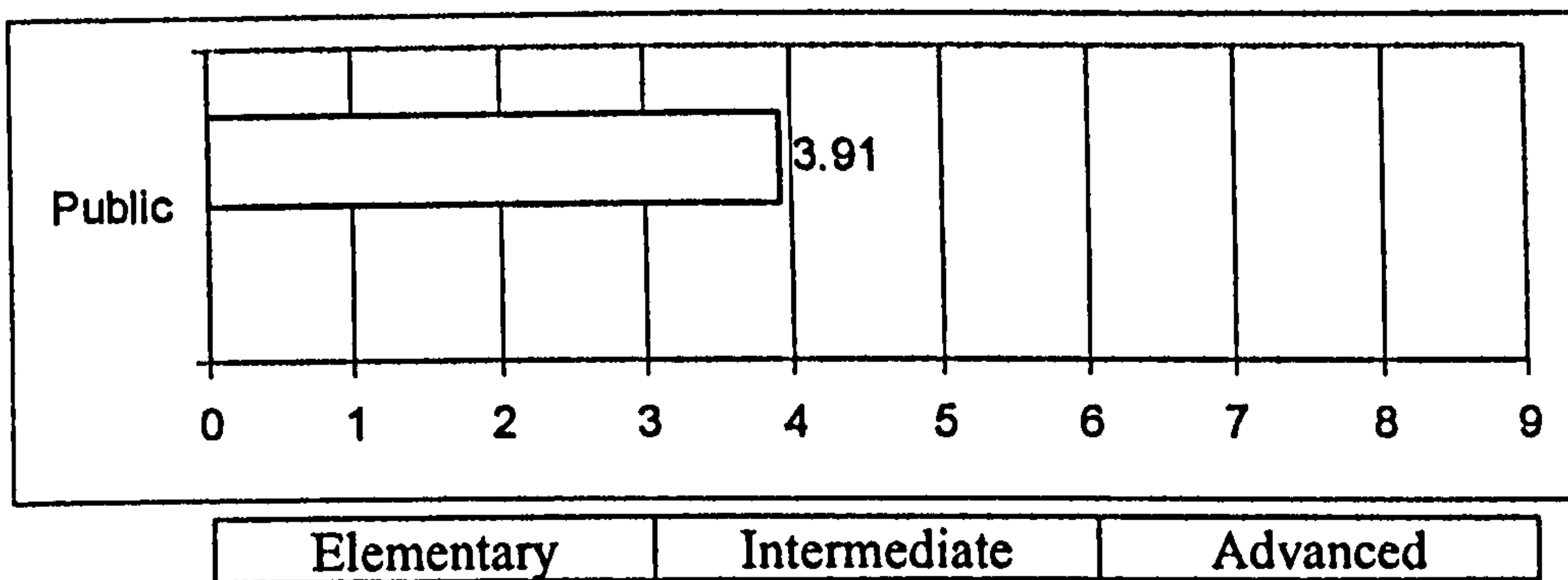


The level that students achieved in this task in writing is lower than the level that students achieved in the same task in speaking and which corresponds to lower intermediate in the ESU competence scale in Figure 9.1. The description of students at level 4 is given in section 10.5.3

10.5.5. Written Language Profile (Public Communication)

The definition of public communication in section 10.4.5 involves both social and educational contexts. In the social context, it was defined as “the language related to understanding and interacting within the wider social or community context.” To test students' speaking ability in this context, they were asked to choose from two topics of wide interest. To test students' writing ability in public communication, they were asked to write on the same topic that they had talked about in the spoken tasks. Students' mean level in this task was found to be 3.91 (4, if rounded).

Table 10.13. Students' Mean Levels in Public Communication in Writing.

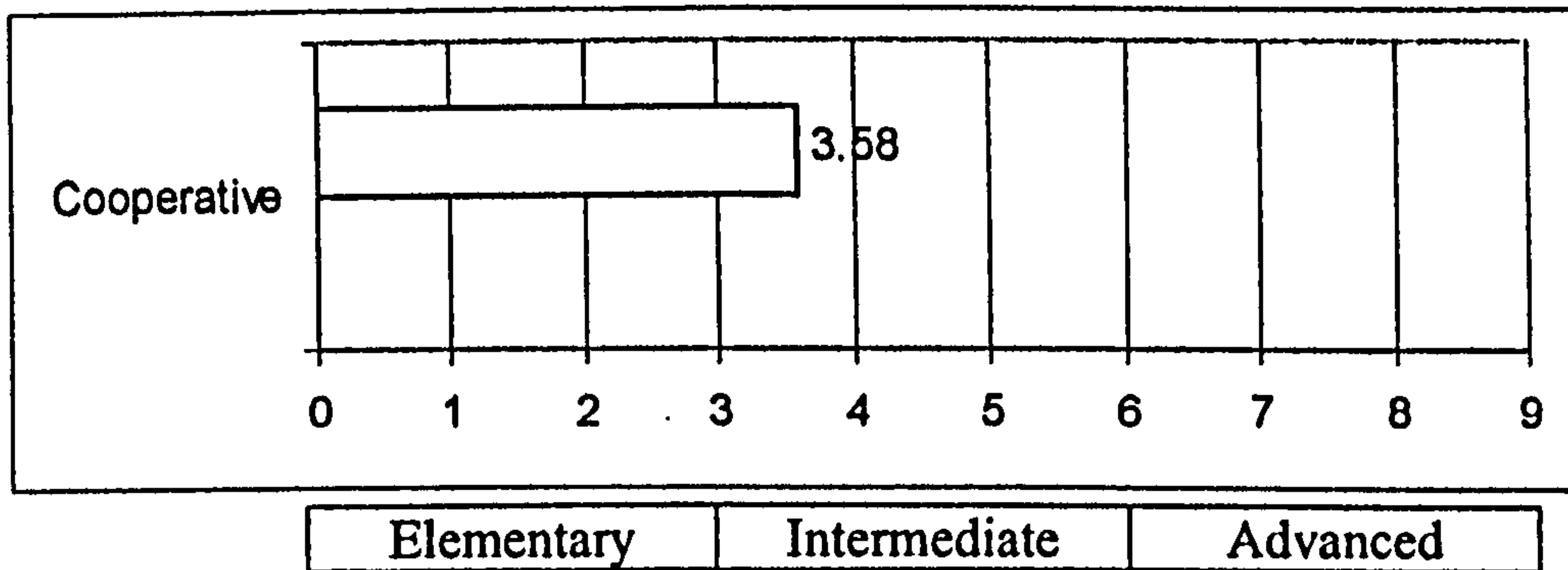


As in the previous tasks, the level that students achieved in this task is lower than the level they achieved in the same task in speaking. This level corresponds to lower intermediate in Figure 9.1. The description of this level is given in section 10.5.3. This is also a low level and supportive of our assumptions about the student achievements in English.

10.5.6. Written Language Profile (Cooperative Communication)

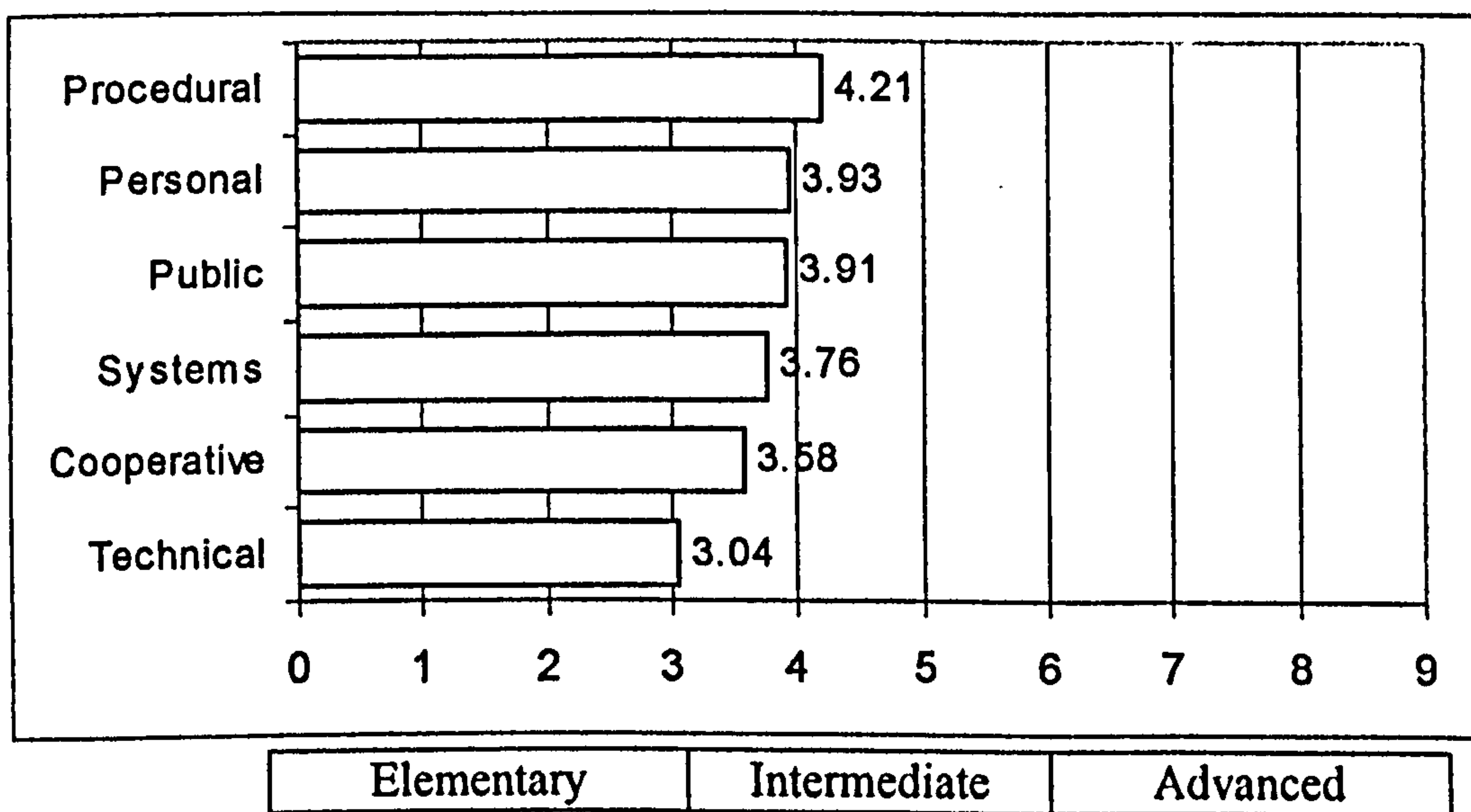
Cooperative communication was described previously as communicating about the functions of a group and about the roles of its members, and the fondness of Turkish people for talking about sporting events was given as an example in cooperative communication in spoken tasks. In this task for speaking, students were put in groups and were asked to discuss about how to be a member of the skiing society of their university. In testing students' competence in cooperative communication in writing, students were asked to write what happened during their group discussion in the spoken task. That is, students were asked to put on paper what they discussed. Students' level of competence in this writing task was found to be 3.58 (4, if rounded).

Table 10.14. Students' Mean Levels in Cooperative Communication in Writing.



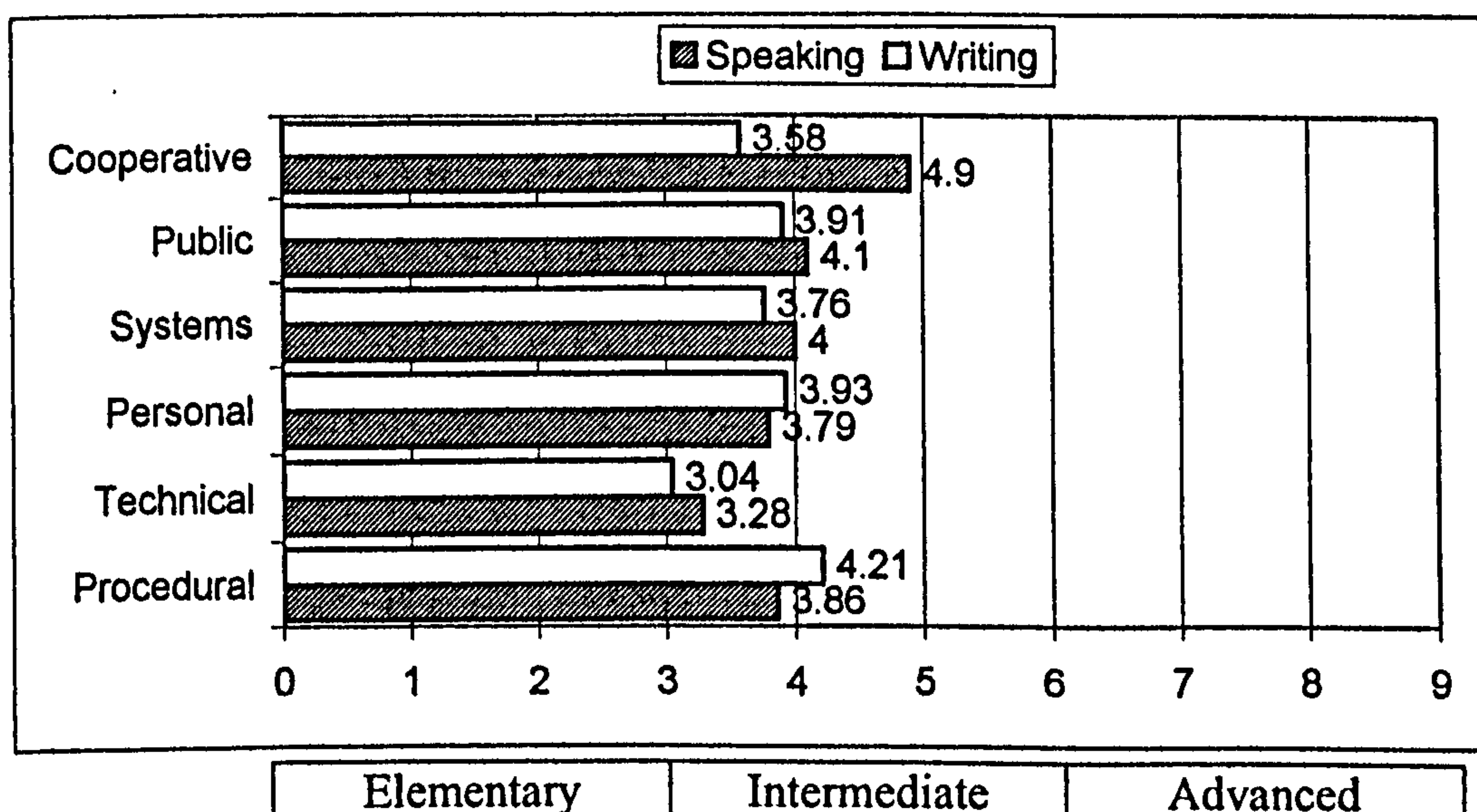
In this task, students achieved a level which is significantly lower than the level that they achieved in the spoken task. This level corresponds to lower intermediate in the ESU scale in Figure 9.1, and the ESU framework for this level describe students as explained in section 10.5.3. Students' levels on written tasks are shown in Table 10.15. The mean score of written tasks is 3.74, which is lower than the mean score in speaking and which shows that students level in writing is lower intermediate.

Table 10.15. Students' Actual (Observed) Profile in Writing in the Six Genres.



In written tasks, too, technical communication was found to be the most difficult genre. However, the classification of students' levels in terms of other five genres shows difference. In spoken tasks, students were found to be most competent in cooperative communication, while in written task students found to be most competent in procedural communication. Cooperative communication in written tasks was found as the second most difficult task. In spoken tasks, students scored higher in technical communication, public communication, systems communication, and cooperative communication than in written tasks. On the other hand, in written tasks, students scored higher in procedural communication and personal communication. Students overall level of competence in writing was found to be 3.74 (4, if rounded). Table 10.16 compares students' mean levels in spoken and written tasks.

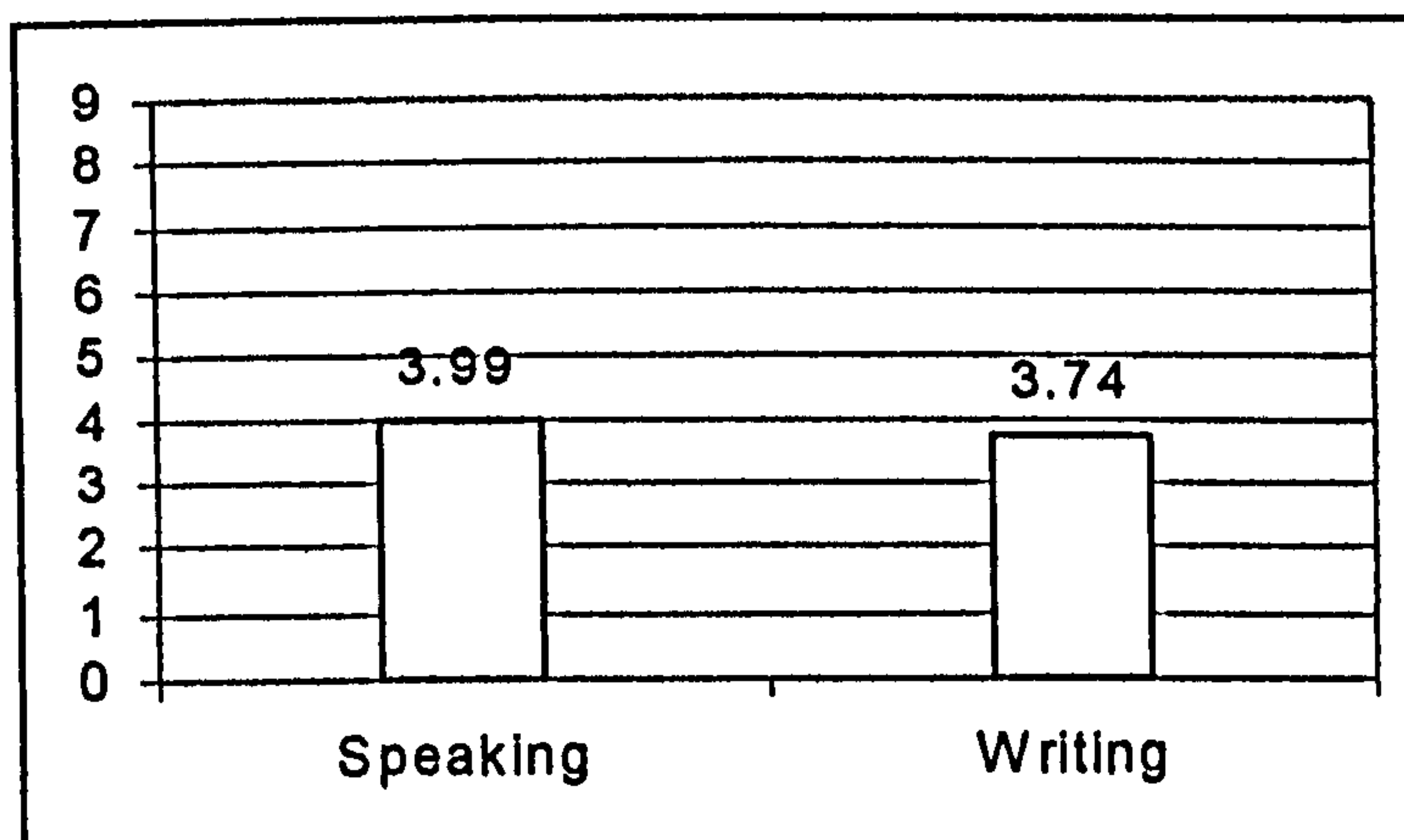
Table 10.16. A Comparison Between Students' Mean Levels in Spoken and Written Tasks.



The results obtained through written tasks are interesting. It illustrates not only the differences in the demands made on language users between genres (or

the use of language in different social situations) but also between speaking and writing. Writing is often thought to be a more demanding skill than speaking, principally because it requires the writer to assume the role of reader as well. In speaking, the interlocutors help each other, as exemplified in cooperative communication in spoken tasks, mostly unintentionally, to sustain the conversation by giving each other a variety of cues, and they develop each other's argument. They even help each other find a topic (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). However, these are all non-existent in writing. This makes writing not only a more difficult task than speaking, but also a completely different task. This difference is most obvious in terms of continuous discourse. It has been assumed that mastering writing is incorporating new rules into a new language production system. These rules are unique to writing which include spelling and punctuation, rules of syntax and lexis of a dialect, rules of form and content related to genres of writing. Therefore, oral language cannot be represented in writing without reconstructing it to function autonomously. Learning to write is relatively difficult and it is not advisable to write the way one speaks (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Sperling, 1996). We have already found that students' ability to use the English language in both modes is limited. The results in Table 10.16 are supportive of this assumption. Table 10.17 compares students' mean levels in speaking and writing.

Table 10.17. Students' Observed Mean Levels in Speaking and Writing.



If the means are rounded in Table 10.17, we see that students are at level 4 in both speaking and writing. This corresponds to lower intermediate level in the ESU Framework as illustrated in Figure 9.1.

By using an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), we compared the means of the scores that students received in spoken and written tasks. ANOVA compares the means of two or more unrelated samples. If the results show that there is a significance, it means that there is a significant difference between the means of the samples being compared.

Table 10.18 shows the results of the comparison, by using ANOVA, between students' level of competence in the spoken and written tasks. The results indicate that there are no statistically significant differences between students' levels in written and spoken tasks in procedural, technical, personal, systems and public communications, while there is a statistically significant difference between students' levels in written and spoken tasks in cooperative communication ($df = 167$, $F = 57.887$, $p = .000$). This indicates that there is a difference in students' ability to speak and write in cooperative communication.

Table 10.18. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Between the Ratings for Spoken and Written Tasks

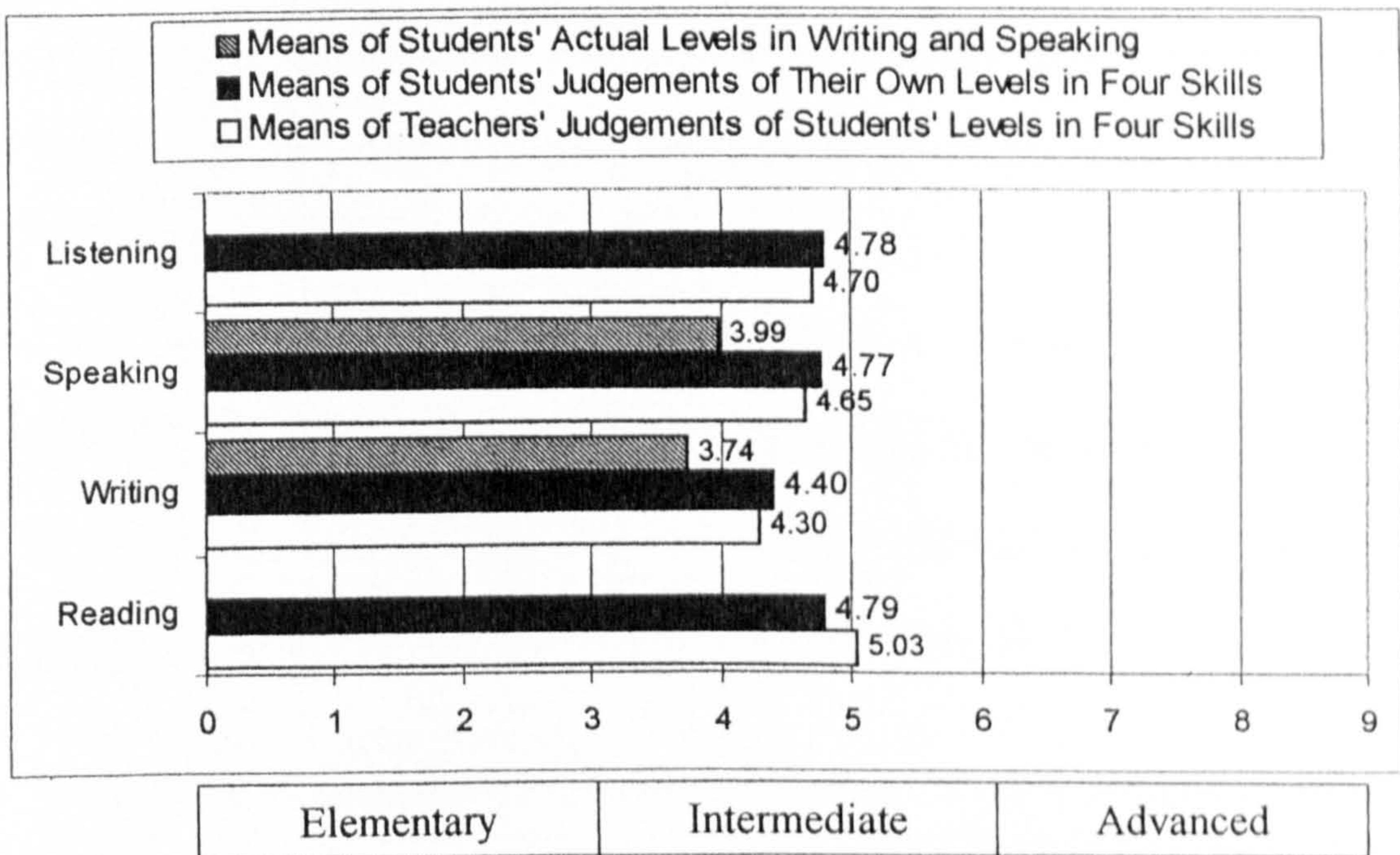
		df	F	Sig.
PROCEDURAL	Between groups	1	2.400	.123
	Within groups	163		
	Total	164		
TECHNICAL	Between groups	1	1.384	.241
	Within groups	166		
	Total	167		
PERSONAL	Between groups	1	.347	.557
	Within groups	157		
	Total	158		
SYSTEMS	Between groups	1	1.282	.259
	Within groups	163		
	Total	164		
PUBLIC	Between groups	1	.760	.385
	Within groups	166		
	Total	167		
COOPERATIVE	Between groups	1	57.887	.000
	Within groups	166		
	Total	167		

Part II

10.6. A Comparison Between Intuitive Judgements of Students' Level of Competence and Their Actual Profiles

In the light of our findings, a comparison may be made between teachers' and students' judgements of students' levels in four skills, and student's actual levels in the two skills of English language. In the previous sections, teachers' judgements of students' levels in four skills, students' judgements of their own levels, and Table 10.19 shows teachers' and students' judgements on four skills, and students' actual levels in speaking and writing. The figures in this table are the means of teachers' judgements, students' judgements and raters' ratings. However, it must be noted here that both teachers and students made their intuitive judgements on a 7-rank basis while the actual scoring was made on a 9-rank basis. Therefore, this must be considered while evaluating the data in Table 10.19.

Table 10.19. A Comparison Between Teachers' And Students' Intuitive Judgements of Students' Levels in Four Skills on a 7-Rank Basis, and Students' Actual (Observed) Levels in Speaking and Writing on a 9-rank Basis.



The first interesting point is that students' and teachers' intuitive judgements of students' levels correlate well, though there are some small differences. However, there is a significant difference between the means of intuitive judgements and the actual scores achieved. Students' actual levels in speaking and writing are lower than teachers' and students' intuitive judgements. Both the intuitive judgements, which were made on a 7-rank basis, and the actual scores, which were given on a 9-rank basis, fall in intermediate level. According to the criteria that were used to assess students' levels of competence, it was found that at the end of their higher education, students attain a level of competence that will not enable them to effectively communicate in different areas of language use. We can now answer the two questions that we asked in section 9.3.

According to the findings in Table 10.19, it is clear that teachers have an awareness of their students' competences. Their intuitive judgements of students in speaking and writing also correlate with the findings obtained through spoken and written tasks, in the sense that both judgmental ratings and actual scores fall in intermediate level.

A statistical test using Mann-Whitney U test was run to compare teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of students' levels of competence in speaking and writing (Table 10.20). The Mann-Whitney U test "analyses the separation between the two sets of sample scores" (Pagano, 1994: p. 261).

Table 10.20. A Comparison Between Teachers' Intuitive Judgements and Students' Intuitive Judgements of Students' Levels of Competence in Speaking and Writing

		SPEAKING					
		PRO.	TECH.	PER.	PUB.	COO.	ACA.
Mann-Whitney U		716.500	838.000	780.500	790.500	793.000	744.000
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.256	.890	.537	.599	.611	.405

		WRITING					
		PRO.	TECH.	PER.	PUB.	COO.	ACA.
Mann-Whitney U		683.000	556.000	772.000	833.500	841.500	732.500
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.160	.015	.494	.860	.912	.319

The results in Table 10.20 show that there is a statistically significant difference between teachers' and students' intuitive judgements only in writing in technical genre. There are no statistically significant differences between teachers' and students' intuitive judgements in other genres in speaking and writing.

10.7. Conclusion

Although students in ELT departments engage in the English language in their courses intensively and although they carry out different language activities, the results of spoken and written tasks showed that this engagement is not enough to learn to use the language for different purposes. In the light of these findings, it may be said that students' level of competence in speaking and writing is lower than the level that they are expected to have achieved at this stage of their higher education. Similarly, it may be said that students and teachers overestimate students' levels of competence in these skills. In Chapter 9, we already found that teachers set the lowest level that students should achieve at 7. Accordingly, we may conclude that our hypotheses that students in ELT departments usually achieve low levels of literacy in speaking and writing is correct. On the other hand, these findings also show that there is a need for an effective assessment system which would enable teachers to diagnose the weaknesses of students during instruction.

SECTION F

CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The final section of this study summarises the findings of the study, draws conclusions from the findings, presents the contributions of the study to the field, and suggests policy directions.

CHAPTER 11

CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

11.1. Introduction

The central concern of this study was to investigate ELT students level of competence in the English language. Under this broad issue, the study was concerned with four more specific issues. First, it attempted to identify the role and function of the English language in Turkey from the perspectives of teachers and students. This was thought to be an important aspect of the investigation in the light of growing concerns about the 'industry' of foreign language teaching. Second, it sought to investigate how English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is taught and where the main emphasis lies. In other words, do teachers focus on the grammar of the language? Are they interested in developing communicative competence and how? and so on. Third, the study was interested in the impressionistic judgements that teachers had of students' competence in learning the English language. For example, were students, according to teachers, competent users of the language in both spoken and written forms? Fourth, the study was interested in the actual levels of competence that ELT students attain in speaking and writing at the end of their course of study. In other words, are students able to use the English language, in oral or written modes, for different purposes at the end of their higher education? The study also set out to test a framework for assessing language competence, based on the merger of two assessment frameworks. These are the ESU Framework developed by Carroll & West, and the NRS Framework developed in Australia. Before we proceed further, it would be useful here to remember the characteristics of the study.

11.2. Characteristics of the Study

This study contains elements of descriptive and developmental research. It is based on both qualitative and quantitative research techniques that were used to obtain data from teachers and students through questionnaires, and spoken and written tasks. Data about the teacher training faculties in Turkey were obtained from another doctoral study by Arslan (1998), and through the web page of the Higher Educational Council of Turkey (HEC).

The main data collection instruments were the questionnaires administered to both teachers and students. In addition, to answer the final question 'How competent are Turkish ELT students in using the language in spoken and written modes?' assessment tasks were developed. Both student and teacher questionnaires were developed through the present researcher's previous experience and in the light of research literature on questionnaire design.

This research is descriptive and developmental in nature. Survey research methods were used in this study. Student samples were selected by using simple random selection method while teacher samples were selected by using the convenience-sampling method.

The primary aim of this study was to explore Turkish ELT students' levels of competence in speaking and writing. The study had no intention of evaluating particular universities.

The questions that the study aimed to investigate were

1. Is there a match between the perceptions teachers and students have of the role and function of English in Turkey, and the aims of ELT?
2. What activities and strategies do teachers employ in teaching and assessing the English language?
3. Can the intuitive judgements of teachers and students apply to the way in which students use the language? Are students and teachers aware of students' levels of competence that they achieve?
4. How competent are students in using the language in spoken and written modes for different social purposes?

11.3. Conclusions

In answering the four research questions, the study made the following conclusions.

The English language plays an important role in the global economy and in communication within nations and between states. Today, English is not considered the language of English-speaking countries only but the language of the world (Stevens, 1982; Paulston, 1992). One important factor for this widespread use of English is the rapidly developing technology of the English-speaking countries. Half of the scientific literature is written in English. Many other languages do not have the concepts and terms of modern sciences and technology which makes English an important tool for learning. Because of these factors, teaching and learning English has been given a great deal of importance all over the world. In parallel with the importance of English in the world, it has gained a great deal of importance in Turkey.

This study has found that both teachers and students think that the importance of English comes mainly from its international status and from its communicative and economic functions. Namely, both teachers and students are aware of the role and function of English as medium in global communication. This correlates well with the literature cited above.

The study found that teachers employ a wide range of activities and strategies in ELT to prepare students for different communicative domains. This kind of pedagogical approach finds support in the literature. In a language activity, students may produce the language without the controlling effect of the teacher and the course book. Language activities consolidate language already taught or acquired and provide a chance for learners to practice what they have learned. They make students use the language actively, therefore, contributing to the learning of the language (Greenall, 1984; Nunan, 1991). The findings show that teachers are aware of the importance of language activities as tools which reinforce student learning. However, although a variety of language activities are employed in the classroom, it was concluded that there was not a particular principle or methodology in choosing suitable language activities. This conclusion was drawn because of the fact that some of the language activities appeared to be not suitable for the communicative domain for which they were intended. Thus, it may be concluded that teachers recognise the importance of language activities and they employ a variety of them, but they fail to choose the right activities for a particular communicative domain, which would not help to reinforce student learning in that particular domain.

Assessment is a useful concept in education and play an important part in understanding the nature of pedagogy. Assessment is used to discover the accomplishment of a student and has a diagnostic purpose. (Rowntree, 1987; Imel, 1990; Bell, 1990; Fitzgerald, 1991). In reviewing the literature, we found that norm referencing and criterion referencing are the two most commonly used methods in assessing students' level of competence.

The study found that assessment is a neglected area in ELT departments. Slightly less than half of the teachers in our sample claimed that they used some sort of assessment criteria to assess students' language competence, while the majority stated that they did not have such criteria. Even in the same department, some respondents claimed that they used assessment criteria for assessing different aspects of the English language, and others claimed they did not. On the other hand, even in the same department there were differences in the areas or aspects of language for which respondents claimed they used assessment criteria. Therefore, we conclude that although there is some evidence that aspects of assessment criteria are used, there is less evidence that teachers understand the principles of 'norm-referenced' and criterion-referenced assessment'.

It may also be concluded from the findings that assessment in ELT departments appears to be impressionistic, norm-referenced, and summative (classificatory). Research literature on norm-referenced assessment indicates that it does not say much about student learning, and therefore does not contribute much to learning. Because of the lack of research on the effectiveness of the present assessment system in ELT departments in Turkey, it would be misleading to draw strong conclusions. However, the findings, in general, show that the

results of the present assessment system are far from making any contributions to learning.

Assessment can also be made without explicit criteria, namely intuitively. This study sought to determine teachers' and students' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence in the English language. The study also sought for teachers' indicator-based judgements of students' level of competence by using a framework. It was found that teachers' intuitive judgements are quite accurate. In terms of teachers' intuitive judgements, students achieve a 'moderate' level of competence in the English language. Teachers' criterion-based judgements of students' levels also indicated an intermediate level which is consistent with their intuitive judgements. Students' intuitive judgements of their own level of competence was also found to be 'moderate'. All three findings are consistent.

The study found that students in ELT departments usually achieve lower levels than they should at the end of their higher education. In speaking, students achieve an upper elementary level in technical communication, lower intermediate levels in procedural communication, personal communication, systems communication and public communication, and an intermediate level in cooperative communication. In writing, they achieve an upper elementary level in technical communication, lower intermediate levels in procedural communication, personal communication, systems communication, public communication, and cooperative communication. Students' overall mean level of competence in speaking tasks in the six genres was found to be 3.99 against the ESU scale which corresponds to lower intermediate level while their overall mean level of

competence in writing tasks in the six genres was found to be 3.74 against the ESU scale, which is also equivalent to lower intermediate level.

Students' and teachers' judgements of students' levels correlate well. Teachers' intuitive judgements of students in speaking and writing correlate with the findings on the students' spoken and written tasks. In addition, students' judgements of their own levels correlate with the findings on the spoken and written tasks. In general, there seem to be no significant differences between teachers' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence in writing, speaking, reading and listening skills except in cooperative reading and speaking, public speaking, and technical writing.

In some key areas, there seem to be significant differences between teachers' intuitive judgements of students' level of competence, students' intuitive judgements of their own levels of competence, and students' actual (observed) levels of competence in speaking and writing.

Students' overall level of competence in speaking and writing at the end of their higher education was found lower than expected (lower intermediate), and their level in writing is lower than in speaking. There is an important difference between students' ability to write and speak in cooperative communication. The findings on students' actual levels of competence indicate that at the end of their course of study, students in ELT departments attain a level of competence that will not enable them to effectively communicate in different areas of language use. Overall, it is found that students in ELT departments usually achieve low levels of literacy in speaking and writing.

Based on the findings, this study also made the following conclusions:

Different motivations have been identified behind learning English in Turkey. These motivations are instrumental (the desire to learn the language in order to accomplish certain personal goals), integrative (the desire to identify with the cultural norms and values of the group whose language one is learning), and expressive (one's desire to express his/her feelings and personality, and to share them with others) (Lambert & Tucker 1972, cited in Moag, 1982; Smith 1972, cited in Moag, 1982). It would seem from the literature that instrumental motivation is the dominant characteristic of EFL situations, integrative motivation is the dominant characteristic of ESL situations, and expressive motivation is the dominant characteristics of ENL (English as a Native Language). This study concurs broadly with this view. It found in Turkey that learners learn English mainly for instrumental purposes. They learn English for such instrumental intentions as visiting English-speaking countries, communicating with people from these and other countries, and reading books and newspapers.

Another body of research shows that one important factor which determines the importance of a language in a society is the 'language attitude' which is defined as the "relative presence or absence of prestige that a language holds in a given society" (Moag, 1982: p. 35). This study concludes that as a foreign language, English has an undeniable prestige in Turkey. It is seen to be more prestigious than French and German, which are the two other most common languages taught in secondary and higher education in Turkey.

The majority of teachers and students in this study indicated an instrumental motivation behind learning English, which, according to research

literature, is a common characteristic of EFL situations. In this type of motivation, we see communicative, economic, social and scientific functions of English in Turkey. The findings indicate that English has an important role in communicative and economic domains.

This study also found integrative and expressive motivation behind learning English in Turkey. However, they are the main characteristics of ESL and ENL situations respectively and because they are of little importance, they may be ignored. Teachers indicated instrumental and integrative motivation while students indicated all three types of motivation mentioned in the literature. Both teachers and students agree on the instrumental motivation behind learning English, and both teacher and student responses correlate on the importance of English for communicative and economic functions.

The aims of English language instruction in ELT departments were investigated to see whether there is a match between the direction that ELT departments were taking and perceived areas of importance for the use of English. This study has found that language instruction in ELT departments is mainly directed to prepare students as teachers of English. Namely, the aim appears to prepare students for the world of work, which is in parallel with the aim of ELT departments. However, although the aim appears to prepare students for the world of work, this study also found that teachers seem to be unaware of the aims of their departments in the teaching of English, which has already been articulated by the HEC report (see section 5.4 in Chapter 5). It was found that teachers see English language instruction as the mastery in limited skills of the language.

11.4. Contribution of the Study to the Field of ELT

1. This study is probably the first of its kind carried out in ELT departments in Turkey. It investigated the present situation in the teaching of English in ELT Departments. It investigated the practices in the teaching of English, the assessment of students' level of competence, and the levels that students attain in the English language at the end of their course of study.

2. Given the previous neglect of assessment, this study set out to test the applicability of an assessment system based on the merger of the ESU Framework in terms of levels and descriptors, and aspects of the NRS which offers a substantial contribution to our understanding of language in terms of genre and language. We found that it was easily accessible and usable by the lecturers.

A framework offers teachers a language to talk about student achievement. The framework that we devised for use in ELT departments in Turkey was found capable of providing profiles of student achievement for a number of different genres. The framework offered lecturers a way in which to make their intuitive judgements of students' level of competence explicit and visible. The validity of the framework as an assessment method was borne out by the close fit between teachers' intuitive judgements and students' actual levels. But also students' own self-judgements were close. In addition, the high correlation between raters' ratings (Table 10.1) of spoken and written tasks showed that with such a criterion-based framework teachers' assessments of students' levels would be easier and more accurate.

3. The study also contributed to our understanding of the important role that intuition plays in the assessment of language. We found that intuitive and

critterion-based judgements were closely matched. This shows that teachers as professionals are quite aware of the nature of learning and how they grasp even if it is not always formal levels of outcome/achievement.

4. The study also made teachers think of the role and function of English in a more expansive way than simply the use of English for simple communicative purposes. Teachers valued the role of and function of English in different genres. They also recognised the fact that the present system of teaching does not meet the needs of prospective teachers of English. Furthermore, the study mapped out ways in which we could think of ELT. In other words, English is used simply for communicative purposes for one or two social purposes but could be seen to have different functions and different roles in a wide range of contexts e.g., English for procedural communication, technical communication, personal communication, and so on. Therefore, the study gave teachers a more developed and wider cognitive map. In other words, ELT on a wider map. Instead of teaching English for use in limited skills or domains of the language, the study showed teachers that English can be and is used in much wider skills and domains. When they were asked to judge their students' level of competence in different genres, they started to think of these domains.

5. The study also made us aware of the importance of research on foreign language instruction and of the lack of research on some vital issues in foreign language instruction in ELT departments in Turkey.

6. The study profiled students' level of competence that they attained at the end of their course of study.

11.5. Recommendations

In light of the findings of the study and related literature, the following recommendations can be made.

1. A better feedback system needs to be established so that students can provide information about their needs to teachers and teachers can be better able to cater for those needs and guide students to achieve the aims and objectives of the course.
2. All skill areas of the curriculum need to be targeted rather than only some of the areas, and as many areas of language use and genres as possible must be considered in the teaching of English. Teaching must be concentrated more on the teaching of the language rather than on literature, and the burden of literature-related courses must be reduced to a minimum.
3. Ways of improving the ELT programmes needs to be thought through so that students could achieve higher and more satisfactory levels at the end of their course of study. To do this, special programmes need to be developed to improve students' levels in different aspects of the English language and in different genres.
4. Teachers must be encouraged to further their studies, and courses must be taught by teachers who are specialised in that specific area.
5. A criterion-based and formative assessment system needs to be established.
6. The results obtained through assessment must be used to improve student learning.

7. A wide range of literature on different aspects of ELT and assessment must be made available to all teachers.

8. Because students in ELT departments are prospective teachers of English, an 'educational assessment' component must be included in the curriculum so that students can be made aware about the developments in assessment in education in the world.

9. Students' needs – academic, personal and social – have to be considered in developing a new and updated ELT curriculum.

11.6. Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of this study is that it included only three ELT departments out of nineteen. Although the findings may largely be generalised to the majority of ELT departments, in very few ELT departments in some very popular state universities, the situation may be better than we found in this study.

A second limitation is that the study used very little research literature that was published in Turkey on the related aspects. A literature research in the National Library and the HEC Library proved that there were no published documents on the related issues in Turkey. Furthermore, although several attempts were made in writing and through e-mail to obtain such documents from the Turkish Higher Education Council and from the Educational Attaché in London, not one of these inquiries received a response. It has to be assumed, therefore, that research on these topics is non-existent.

A third limitation of this study may be the wording of the instructions in the personal communication in written tasks. In this task, students were asked to write a curriculum vitae and state why they applied for the position in a company.

A curriculum vitae is a formal document which contains short statements about one's qualifications and past experience. However, although the instructions indicate that students were asked to write it in a composition format, the use of 'curriculum vitae' may be considered confusing.

11.7. Future Research

Future research is urgently needed on the effectiveness of the present system of instruction in ELT departments in Turkey. The systems that the USA, UK, Europe, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand use in English language teacher training should be examined to develop a suitable system of instruction for use in ELT departments in Turkey. Urgent research is also needed on the present system of assessment in ELT departments. Problems in terms of assessment at all levels of education in the world and ways of improving them have been well documented, and this vast research literature should be examined to develop a suitable assessment system for ELT departments.

11.8. Conclusion

As the first of its kind in Turkish context, this study investigated the teaching and assessment of the English language in ELT departments and ELT students' level of competence at the end of their final year in higher education with an aim of making authorities more conscious about the related issues and their importance in Turkish higher education. Students in ELT departments usually achieve low levels of competence in speaking and writing which may be an obstacle for students to use the language in their future careers.

Concerns in terms of assessment of students in these departments are at a minimum level. Although discussions on assessment form a large part of educational discussions in the world, it seems that its importance has not been realised in Turkey.

In sum, the findings strongly suggest that urgent research is necessary to improve the quality of language instruction in ELT departments. This includes research on the teaching methods and assessment of English language in higher education.

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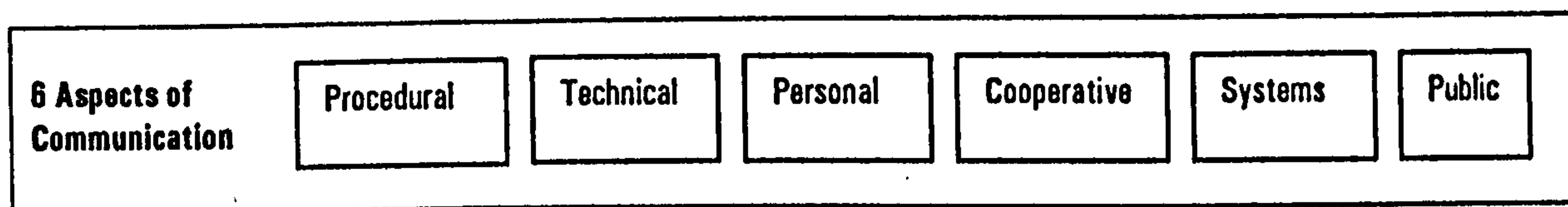
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APPENDIX A. General Outlook of the NRS

Four strands of information are provided for each of the 5 levels of the NRS. All strands of information work together to capture the complexities of adult development and performance.					
Procedural	Technical	Personal	Co-operative	Systems	Public
Uses language and numeracy to perform procedures	Uses language literacy and numeracy to use specific technologies and media	Uses language literacy and numeracy to develop knowledge and resources that arise from personal identity	Uses language literacy and numeracy to participate in teams and groups	Uses language literacy and numeracy to participate in the activities structures and goals of an organisation	Uses language literacy and numeracy to participate in community structures and activities
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which require comprehending and/or producing structurally intricate texts which may involve complex and/or ambiguous relations between several pieces of information. • Which require selecting, applying, assessing and communicating a wide range of mathematical procedures and representations. • Across a broad range of contexts. • With little support required. 				
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • which require comprehending and/or producing structurally intricate texts which may involve complex relations between pieces of information. • Which require selecting, applying, reflecting on, and communicating a range of mathematical procedures and representations. • Within a variety of contexts. • With support available if requested. 				
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • which require comprehending and/or producing cohesive texts which may be short, yet have some structural complexity • which require identifying, applying, reflecting on, and communicating mathematical procedures and representations. • in a number of contexts, which may be interrelated. • With some support readily available. 				
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • which require comprehending and/or producing simple texts which are typically short and explicit • which require identifying, using, checking on, and communicating straight forward mathematical procedures and representations. • in familiar and predictable contexts. • With access to structured support required. 				
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • which require comprehending and/or producing simple texts which are typically short and explicit • which require recognising, using, checking on, and communicating everyday, straightforward mathematical procedures and representations. • Which relate to immediate contexts. • With extensive and structured support required 				

APPENDIX B. Description of the six aspects of communication: The horizontal dimension of the NRS.



Aspects of Communication as described in the National Framework of Adult English Language, Literacy and Numeracy Competence, have been incorporated into the National Reporting System. The National Framework conceives of social activity in terms of six interrelated Aspects. The Aspects provide a way of describing the differing orientations of social activity involving reading, writing, speaking, listening and/or numeracy. For analytical purposes they are categorised into the following six orientations:

Procedural Communication for performing tasks

Procedural communication refers to the language and numeracy related to carrying out a task or a number of tasks. It includes giving instructions, applying and following a number of steps or procedures in order to perform and complete a task/s.

Technical Communication for using technology

Technical communication refers to the language and numeracy related to the use of tools or machines - whether simple or complex. It includes the language and mathematics involved in understanding and learning about media as well as about the function of technology and how to use it.

Personal Communication for expressing identity

Personal communication refers to the language and numeracy related to expressing personal identity and/or goals. It includes the different ways personal history, knowledge, attributes, goals and opinions are drawn on and expressed for particular purposes. It also includes the application of mathematics for individual needs such as personal finances or personal measurement.

Cooperative Communication for interacting in groups

Cooperative communication refers to the language and numeracy related to understanding the function of a group and the roles of the different members, as well as to participating in the group including establishing cooperative relationships with its members.

Systems Communication for interacting in organisations

Systems communication refers to the language and numeracy related to understanding and interacting within an organisation or institution. In an educational institution or program, it includes learning about the range and design of educational choices and pathways as well as the relationship between classroom and non-classroom activities. It also involves the application of mathematics in or for institutional purposes.

Public Communication for interacting with the wider community

Public communication refers to the language and numeracy related to understanding and interacting within the wider social or community context. In an educational institution or program it includes learning about and interacting with other institutions - educational ones, those in local community or those related to employment - for the purposes of future work or study, entertainment or engagement with public interest issues. It also involves the application of mathematics in or for a public context or need.

APPENDIX C Reporting Information for the Five Levels and Criteria for the Four Skills in the Six Aspects of Communication in the NRS

LEVEL ONE – REPORTING INFORMATION INDICATORS OF COMPETENCE

Reading

1.1 Reads and identifies letters of the alphabet in the context of whole words, numbers, signs and symbols relating to personal details and immediate environment.

1.2 Identifies specific information in a personally relevant text with familiar content which may include personal details, location or calendar information in simple graphic, diagrammatic, formatted or visual form.

Writing

1.3 Copies letters of the alphabet, numbers, and dates in order to convey personal details such as name, address, telephone number.

1.4 Writes basic personal details about self or others such as name, address and signature.

1.5 Writes one or two phrases/simple sentences conveying an idea, message or opinion drawing from a modelled text.

Oral Communication

1.6 Elicits or gives specific information using gestures, single words or formulaic expressions, for the purpose of exchanging or obtaining information, goods and services.

1.7 Takes part in short interpersonal exchanges for the purpose of establishing, maintaining and developing relationships; exploring issues; or problem solving.

1.8 Listens for specific items of information in short, contextually relevant oral texts.

PROCEDURAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads and writes own name, address, and phone number, and signs name as appropriate, e.g. fills in details on a simple form.

Recognises and identifies purpose of very short explicit pictorial texts, e.g. traffic signs.

Follows simple written instructions, e.g. simple road signs and warnings.

Locates key pieces of information based on literal match in a short, explicit, familiar text e.g. ingredients in a recipe.

Reads a pie-graph to locate specific personally relevant workplace information.

Writes short note of one or two sentences following a model and with teacher support, to support application, e.g. a request for fee relief for English class or child care.

Locates single items of information from a procedural text in the immediate environment, e.g. for using a public telephone.

Transfers personal details from one source to another, e.g. uses personal details on a health care card to fill in training enrolment form.

Speaking & Listening

Gives instructions consisting of one or two steps, e.g. tells someone directions to reach a nearby location.

Introduces self and greets others in short formal conversation.

Listens to and follows one-step instruction to complete task in immediate context.

Follows one-clause instructions in order to complete a task.

Responds to and/or elicits specific information in order to complete a one step procedure.

TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Recognises very short, explicit, pictorial texts, e.g. understands logos related to worker safety before using a piece of machinery, reads letters on a keyboard.

Reads graphic instructions accompanying a new piece of technology to learn new information or skills about a technology or medium, e.g. uses an automatic teller machine by following instructions given graphically on the screen.

Types own name or single words into a computer-assisted learning program.

Speaking & Listening

Gives spoken instructions of one or two steps, supported by body language, to fellow worker explaining how to perform a series of routine tasks, e.g. operate a piece of technology.

Expresses personal opinion in a short simple conversation, e.g. indicates if a piece of machinery works.

Follows a sequence of instructions to use a technology or medium, e.g. uses tape recorder in Individual Learning Centre.

PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads and writes own name, address, and phone number, and signs own name as appropriate, e.g. fills in personal detail section and signs name on an application form about a personal matter.

Recognises very short explicit pictorial texts, e.g. reads symbols or words which may be encountered in personal circumstances, such as symbols for public conveniences.

Locates particular information of personal relevance from a familiar source, e.g. locates expiry date on a driving licence.

Conveys information by writing a brief and highly contextualised personal message, e.g. writes a brief personal message from self on a greeting card.

Transfers personal information from one source to another, e.g. copies own address in order to make personal arrangements.

Speaking & Listening

Recites personal details such as name, address, age, country of origin, date of birth, date of arrival, in response to direct questions.

Exchanges highly familiar information, e.g. introduces self in an informal or familiar situation.

Undertakes simple oral negotiations, e.g. buys a cup of coffee in a cafe.

Makes and responds to simple enquiries relevant to personal needs and activities.

Recounts autobiographical details in sequence for scribing by the teacher.

Makes a simple request in the workplace related to personal needs.

Listens and responds to information given in personally oriented spoken text, e.g. makes arrangements for a social gathering.

Exchanges autobiographical details in a casual conversation with known interlocutors

COOPERATIVE COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads and writes own name, address, and phone number, and signs name on a club/union membership form as appropriate.

Recognises own name and personal details, e.g. locates own name on a list of team, class or group members.

Recognises very short explicit, pictorial texts, e.g. reads safety symbols found on household products or symbolic cultural artefacts.

Locates and matches pieces of information, e.g. time and place of a meeting/class on a notice or letter.

Records key information relevant to group, e.g. names and phone numbers of group members. Writes one or two sentences, following a model, to summarise a group activity.

Speaking & Listening

Exchanges highly familiar information in spoken language, e.g. introduces self to group.

Responds to greetings, using single words, phrases or gestures.

Responds to simple enquiries from other members of the group.

Makes simple enquiries of other members of the group.

Listens to suggestions and negotiates arrangements for a group activity, e.g. comes to an agreement about a meeting place for an excursion or workplace function.

Exchanges information regarding immediate environment in order to complete a group task, e.g. indicates a need for, or availability of, a particular technology or support.

SYSTEMS COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads and writes own name, address, and phone number, and signs name as appropriate, e.g. completes personal details on a system's form, writes self-addressed envelope.

Recognises very short explicit pictorial texts, e.g. reads signs related to Public Service institutions.

Recognises key words on personally relevant text, e.g. recognises key words on a bill, reads own pay slip.

Reads days of the week and months in order to attend interview or appointment at designated time, e.g. reads CES notice and recognises calendar information for appointment.

Locates, matches and copies information from one text to another, e.g. writes driving licence number on the back of a cheque, copies name from a Health Card on to another form.

Writes one or two sentences, from a modelled text, to support application, e.g. for a further English class within the same centre.

Recognises and knows value of Australian notes and coins.

Recognises o'clock and half-hour setting on analogue and digital clocks.

Speaking & Listening

Gives basic facts about personal work background in a short interview by responding with yes/no answers.

Introduces oneself appropriately in an institutional setting, e.g. Medicare office.

Participates in simple negotiations, e.g. buys a train ticket.

Listens to and follows directions to get from A to B in an office building, e.g. follows directions to find the reception desk.

Exchanges personal details in a casual conversation with supervisor or teacher.

PUBLIC COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads and writes own name, address and phone number, and signs name as appropriate, e.g. completes personal details for a membership form to join a local community group.

Recognises very short, explicit pictorial texts, e.g. signs related to local environment.

Reads titles and phrases of public importance in immediate local environment, e.g. street names, names of service providers, or indigenous place names.

Reads simple diagrams, e.g. hand drawn map of local area to locate public facilities such as schools, hospitals, churches,

shops, bus stops, railway stations, recreation facilities,
community houses, places of cultural importance.

Reads key words in a public notice of immediate interest.

Locates information in a community service section of telephone directory, e.g. Telephone Interpreter Service, Women's Health Centre.

Recognises cost of selected item when shopping, by locating item on list of goods and costs, e.g. shopping specials leaflet.

Recognises and knows value of Australian notes and coins.

Writes one or two sentences, following a model, to support an application, e.g. for membership of a local organisation.

Uses calendar to record information related to community or public dates, e.g. class term dates, culturally significant celebrations.

Uses diary to record information from public notices and information sheets, e.g. class times, library times, working times, appointments.

Uses some common abbreviations, e.g. Mr, Mrs, Ms, am, pm.

Speaking & Listening

Participates in spoken exchanges through use of key words or phrases, or gesture, e.g. makes enquiry about classes at an education provider, financial support at local Dept. of Social Security office.

Expresses opinion unconditionally, e.g. about quality of service.

Gives basic facts about own personal background in an informal conversation.

Uses public transport by locating destination on public transport map, asking for ticket, and tendering fare.

Listens to short text of immediate interest and identifies key information, e.g. fire drill.

LEVEL TWO – REPORTING INFORMATION INDICATORS OF COMPETENCE

Reading

2.1 Reads and interprets short simple texts on a personally relevant topic.

2.2 Locates specific information relating to familiar contexts in a text which may contain data in simple graphic, diagrammatic, formatted or visual form.

Writing

2.3 Writes about a familiar topic using simple sentence structure and joining ideas through conjunctive links where appropriate.

2.4 Completes forms or writes notes using factual or personal information relating to familiar contexts.

Oral Communication

2.5 Elicits and gives factual information or personal details for the purpose of exchanging or obtaining goods and services; or gathering/providing information.

2.6 Takes part in short interpersonal exchanges, clarifying meaning and maintaining interaction, for the purpose of establishing, maintaining and developing relationships; exploring issues; or problem solving.

2.7 Listens for relevant information from oral texts.

PROCEDURAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads and compares information contained in two column tables, e.g. can use timetables to calculate time of the next bus, e.g. calculates postage and fees for certified mail, calculates total costs of purchase from an order form.

Reads a brief message from a fellow worker.

Reads simple graphs and charts, e.g. as set out in a government brochure.

Reads explicit pictorial texts, e.g. safety signs in the workplace.

Interprets instructions from an appliance warranty, having read manufacturer's instructions.

Extracts information from a list with language and numeracy components, e.g. completes a stores order form using information from a price list.

Writes a short report, e.g. a brief statement about a procedure from a work team for a meeting. Records information on simple form, e.g. autobiographical data, uses a job sheet to respond to call.

Writes a brief message for a fellow worker.

Speaking & Listening

Explains routine procedures to others, e.g. workplace safety procedures.

Listens to short, explicit instruction to learn new procedures needed to complete a task, e.g. to use a piece of machinery in the workplace.

Expresses an opinion, e.g. suggests improvements to work procedure.

Participates in workplace meetings by listening for specific information and contributing as appropriate.

Leaves a short message by phone, e.g. explains absence, makes a booking for travel.

Understands new procedures needed to complete a task, having attended training session.

Performs a series of routine tasks given clear direction.

Participates in casual conversations about routine activities, e.g. simple procedure for making a favoured dish.

TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads short, relevant, explicit, clearly formatted texts related to technology, e.g. the author and title index of a library computer.

Chooses a computer assisted learning package, having read short descriptions of one or two programs, to acquire a defined skill or area of knowledge.

Writes a short description, e.g. describes a damaged part of a machine to facilitate repair.

Extracts information from a list with language and numeracy components, e.g. price lists of components for computer system.

Records simple and routine information using the telephone, e.g. takes a phone message with name, phone number, and a short message, on a form designed for this purpose.

Interprets instructions which combine pictorial and written information, e.g. directions on how to operate a piece of machinery safely.

Speaking & Listening

Expresses an idea or opinion, and states reasons, e.g. whether a technological practice conforms to Occupational Health and Safety guidelines.

States problems with a technology or medium and suggests solutions, e.g. need for lefthanded mouse.

Performs a sequence of routine tasks given direction, e.g. uses a fax machine and/or distance medium to participate in instruction.

PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Demonstrates understanding of narrative, for example, draws a timeline for the sequence of events in a simple adventure story, expresses personal views about a character's actions and speculates on own behaviour in a similar situation.

Reads short, simple factual or fictional texts for personal enjoyment.

Reads and follows simple instructions, e.g. reads a recipe and follows instructions.

Locates and selects information from a written text, e.g. finding the time and channel of a specific TV program, cinema program.

Writes a short personal description, e.g. writes about country of origin, journey or cultural history.

Writes a short report, e.g. describes previous English classes.

Writes a short recount, e.g. writes brief entry in daily diary.

Writes a note of explanation, e.g. explains own absence in a note to teacher.

Writes short personal letter, e.g. a postcard or letter to a friend.

Completes a form with personal information, e.g. reads and records personal information of self, and other members of a group, where personally familiar with the members of a group.

Expresses point of view on topics of personal interest in simple written sentences.

Speaking & Listening

Responds to personal enquiries and talks about own interests, e.g. hobbies, family.

Participates in a short casual conversation with a neighbour.

Recounts a short familiar event, e.g. recounts something that happened at the weekend.

Locates and selects information from a spoken text, e.g. listening for the time and channel of a specific TV program.

Listens for, and sings words to a favourite song.

Makes a telephone call and responds appropriately to questions which require statement of basic personal details, e.g. makes an appointment at the Community Health Centre.

COOPERATIVE COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Extracts information from a list with language and numeracy components, e.g. selects items from a menu for the group and discusses choice or selection.

Reads key information in a text associated with the functioning of the group, e.g. reads a simple agenda or minutes of a meeting.

Writes a list of tasks to be completed by other members of the group, e.g. roster, action plan. Records personal information of self and other members of the group where members of the group are personally familiar, e.g. draws up a list of class names and addresses and phone numbers.

Writes a short report, e.g. in relation to workplace output targets.

Writes a note of explanation, e.g. explains problems with a machine to the next shift.

Writes a response to an issue by contributing to group writing activity.

Speaking & Listening

Gives a short description, e.g. describes an occasion to a fellow group member, or tells a traditional story or myth.

Communicates ideas, information and opinions to the group, e.g. expresses opinion about new roster arrangements.

Negotiates roster arrangements to suit own preferences.

Gives spoken instructions to members of the group, e.g. a short instruction of one or two steps to facilitate a group activity.

Participates in an informal conversation, e.g. greets and exchanges one or two sentences with a fellow group member, asks questions and makes comments that expand ideas & seek clarification.
Recites familiar short texts to other members of the group, e.g. a nursery rhyme to family member, or a football club theme song to supporters' club.
Negotiates task distribution with other members of the group, e.g. morning tea arrangements, farewell drinks for a colleague.
Brainstorms with other members of the class, e.g. to organise a class outing.
Listens for and notes specific information when making arrangements for group activity, e.g. a working party or excursion.

SYSTEMS COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Locates specific information from a short text, e.g. eligibility from a table of employee benefits, a pay slip, instructions on chemicals.
Reads personally relevant information presented in forms or notices, e.g. notice on a noticeboard, roster information, a class timetable.
Interprets instructions which combine pictorial and written information, e.g. brochure on how to access government services.
Writes brief systems-related texts using an established format, e.g. a brief shift report, a menu, an order form.
Completes a range of forms requiring autobiographical data, e.g. job application, identifies and enters background information on an application for government benefits.
Extracts information from a list of language and numeracy items, e.g. enters information on a school lunch order form using information from a lunch order list.
Reads simple graphs and charts.
Reads simple dials and scales, e.g. temperature dials.
Writes a note of explanation, e.g. to a supervisor about an uncompleted task.
Expresses an opinion in written form, e.g. writes a brief letter to an organisation suggesting improved access for the physically disabled.
Completes a personally relevant written transactional text, e.g. fills out a bank withdrawal form. Recalls road rules, regulations and road signs.

Speaking & Listening

Expresses an opinion in oral form, e.g. suggests the introduction of multilingual safety notices in the workplace.
Explains, orally, written instructions for a procedure, e.g. relates to another the process described in a simple flow chart.
Receives and passes on messages, e.g. a name and phone number and a simple message.
Makes a specific oral enquiry, e.g. enquires about an employment opportunity, enquires about classes.
Answers a simple oral enquiry, e.g. gives simple directions to reach a destination.
Participates in a face-to-face oral exchange, e.g. job interview, CES interview.
Listens for specific information in a formal meeting, e.g. union meeting.
Performs a series of routine tasks given clear direction, e.g. classroom or workplace instructions.
Participates in casual conversation in the workplace or classroom.

PUBLIC COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Specifies purpose of informative text, e.g. locates specific information about a local event. Demonstrates that meaning has been gained from reading or viewing a simple informative text, e.g. underlines the meaning of a term given in a government brochure on supplementary security income.
Demonstrates understanding of current affairs issues by expressing opinion related to the content of news headlines in a newspaper.
Extracts information from a list with language and numeracy components, e.g. reads a Racing Form Guide and places a bet.
Expresses opinion about the writer's intention after reading or viewing a simple persuasive text, e.g. advertisement, political slogan, public service advertisement.
Locates specific information in a longer everyday text, e.g. locates personally relevant information in a sports article.
Interprets signs and symbols related to public safety, e.g. drink-driving laws, weapons use, road rules and water safety.
Reads diagrammatic texts, e.g. locates an intersection on a street map, uses a public transport map.
Uses short highly contextualised materials from the community to meet own goals, e.g. business cards, invoices, newspaper advertisements.
Extracts information from a list with language and numeracy components, e.g. uses a timetable to read train departure time.
Locates community/commercial services information in the telephone directory, e.g. real-estate agent, CES.
Writes a short routine letter, e.g. an explanation or a request for information.
Writes a short report for a member of the group, e.g. on child care services available in the area.
Writes a short description, e.g. writes a short note describing an item for sale to be placed on community notice board.
Completes forms related to participation in community services/activities, e.g. social club, competition, recreation facility.
Writes one or two sentences suggesting improvements, e.g. longer class times, improved facilities at the community centre.

Speaking & Listening

Expresses an opinion related to the content of a TV news program.

Participates in a formal oral exchange, e.g. interview with a community worker.

Participates in an informal conversation, e.g. casual exchange with a neighbour.

Engages in simple oral transactions about money, time, and quantities, e.g. at the greengrocers.

Listens to a radio program on a familiar, personally relevant topic and comments on an item of interest.

LEVEL THREE – REPORTING INFORMATION INDICATORS OF COMPETENCE

Reading

3.1 Reads and interprets texts of some complexity, integrating (where relevant) a number of pieces of information in order to generate meaning.

3.2 Displays awareness of purpose of text, including unstated meaning.

3.3 Interprets and extrapolates from texts containing data which is unambiguously presented in graphic, diagrammatic, formatted or visual form.

Writing

3.4 Communicates relationships between ideas through selecting and using grammatical structures and notations which are appropriate to the purpose.

3.5 Produces and sequences paragraphs according to purpose of text.

Oral Communication

3.6 Participates in short transactions, using basic generic structures, for the purpose of exchanging or obtaining goods and services; or gathering/providing information.

3.7 Takes part in short interpersonal exchanges, demonstrating some awareness of register and interactional strategies, for the purpose of establishing, maintaining and developing relationships; exploring issues; or problem solving.

3.8 Derives meaning from sustained oral texts.

PROCEDURAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Selects and applies the procedures and strategies needed to perform a range of tasks after reading appropriate texts.

Reads a range of procedural texts, where the information is supported by diagrams, to remedy a known problem, e.g. locates problem with a machine and carries out repairs using a repair manual for guidance.

Uses text organisers in books, manuals, magazines, newspapers, as an aid to reading, e.g. table of contents, indexes, format.

Interprets information gained from tables, charts and other graphic information, e.g. plans travel arrangements for a meeting using a flight schedule.

Writes short formal letters outlining instructions for a particular purpose, e.g. closure of bank account.

Follows existing guidelines for the collection, analysis and organisation of information, e.g. takes detailed notes of an enquiry requesting information about services.

Completes a range of formatted texts, e.g. selects and integrates information relevant to completed job on job report form, records information on an automobile maintenance record form.

Writes simple instructions for a particular routine task.

Differentiates between the description of the technique or task and any other messages conveyed by a procedural text, e.g. identifies intended audience and cultural or prior knowledge assumed by text.

Speaking & Listening

Issues instructions sequenced according to orientation of listener, e.g. how to complete an every day task.

Follows spoken instructions which require choice of appropriate actions from one or two operatives.

Expresses opinion regarding learning or working procedure.

TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads a technical manual where the information is supported by diagrams, sufficiently well to be able to locate and comprehend particular information required, e.g. programs a VCR to record two programs in advance.

Uses the author, title, key-word and other search indexes of a library computer.

Comprehends short summary information on computer-managed learning packages to choose a relevant package to suit own needs.

Uses the word processing program on a computer to produce own texts.

Writes simple instructions for using familiar technology, e.g. how to use an automatic teller machine.

Completes a formatted workplace text, e.g. damage or breakage report.

Writes a brief report on uses of technology, e.g. for classroom, workplace, domestic or community purposes.

Speaking & Listening

Gives clear sequenced instructions of several of steps, e.g. how to use a photocopier/CD player.

Listens to clear sequenced instructions of several steps and performs tasks related to using technology.

Expresses opinion regarding the use of technology, e.g. difficulties and advantages of communicating via telephone, answering machine, internet, mobile phone.
Clarifies with technician the use of a particular technology.

PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads/views texts relevant to own interests, gives a recount which includes a personal response, e.g. book/program on hobby.

Locates and selects information from a range of written texts, e.g. finds time and date of a music concert from the amusement section of a newspaper.

Writes personal letters, e.g. letter to a friend recounting recent events.

Writes a longer report, e.g. own education in country of origin.

Writes a creative/expressive/imaginative text, e.g. poem or song.

Reads a short simple narrative of own choice and discusses how text reflects author's opinion about characters, events or ideas.

Reads short, simple fictional or non-fictional text of own choice and discusses links to prior knowledge or experiences or similar texts.

Locates and selects information from written material which includes numerical or diagrammatic information, e.g. interprets and uses information in a news article.

Uses numerical information to support opinion, e.g. compares the costs of different credit cards by referring to tables of information.

Speaking & Listening

Expresses point of view, e.g. explains how own skills meet a job's selection criteria.

Participates in a casual conversation with a neighbour or colleague.

Expresses point of view on a range of topics in an informal setting.

Negotiates a transaction, e.g. asks for a refund on unsatisfactory goods.

Presents narrative orally by telling story to a child or friend.

Listens for personally relevant information from a range of spoken texts, e.g. finds time and date of a concert from a radio advertisement.

COOPERATIVE COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads agenda and notes relevant to a meeting.

Writes a short report for a specified purpose.

Takes notes in a short discussion in order to inform others who were not present.

Formulates a list of agenda items for a meeting.

Reads text produced by another member of team or group and asks questions to clarify meaning and purpose of text.

Reads a graphic text of interest to group and suggests how information may apply to group activities or represent group interest.

Speaking & Listening

Delivers short prepared talk on a topic of interest to the group.

Canvasses a group of people for issues and views.

Recites a familiar myth or legend to other members of the group.

Participates in a small group discussion, e.g. to solve a problem or share opinion on a subject of interest to the group.

Works with a partner to develop an oral presentation.

Clarifies defined purposes and objectives to be achieved by working with others; identifies and responds to defined roles and perspectives; works with others to achieve agreed objectives within agreed timeframes.

Listens to and notes individual preferences regarding arrangements for group activity.

SYSTEMS COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads informative texts for specific information and to get the general idea.

Scans procedural texts to locate specific information, e.g. personnel induction manual to check own leave entitlements.

Reads and interprets diagrammatic/graphic texts which are unambiguously presented, e.g. flow chart to describe simple operation in the workplace or pathways of language classes.

Locates and selects relevant information from a limited range of written texts, e.g. locates a job advertisement in a newspaper, locates specific course information in a TAFE handbook.

Reads a short novel or non-fiction narrative and writes a response.

Completes formatted texts, e.g. forms requiring autobiographical data, order forms, questionnaires.

Writes factual text, e.g. job history as part of a job application letter.

Writes brief report, e.g. accident report, incident report.

Writes a short, formal letter, e.g. letter requesting information, application letter, complaint letter.

Writes clear sequenced written instructions, e.g. how to use a particular machine.
Generates a diagrammatic/graphic text, e.g. draws up a roster or study timetable.
Completes a formatted workplace text, e.g. application for leave.
Reads a job description and suggests how text implies underlying values of an organisation.
Discusses image reflected in an organisational brochure or promotional material.

Speaking & Listening

Reviews a fictional or factual text for the class, reporting on the main features and themes.
Attends and participates in a staff meeting, either listening for specific information or following the flow of ideas and contributing as appropriate.
Participates in an oral exchange requiring some negotiation, e.g. specific enquiries, complaints, problem-solving.
Gives oral instructions, e.g. who and where to ask for assistance.
Participates in a formal interaction, e.g. interacts with clients associated with an organisation about routine matters using the telephone or through face-to-face contact.
Listens to and notes specific information from an announcement regarding workplace activity, e.g. a fire drill.
Expresses own opinion about organisations and elicits the opinion of others in a casual conversation, e.g. discusses work conditions of previous jobs.

PUBLIC COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Scans informational texts and locates specific items of interest.
Locates specific information in a long text, e.g. reads a news article and identifies topic sentences.
Uses program guides, reviews, and previous promotions to make choices about personal viewing.
Demonstrates that meaning has been gained from reading an article in the daily newspaper by writing a short report about the content.
Can read information presented graphically, e.g. interprets information from a bar graph in an article of public interest.
Expresses own opinion about a local issue of personal concern by writing a letter to relevant authority outlining concerns.
Reads a short report of a public issue which may include hidden agendas or unstated meanings.
Completes a form, e.g. fills in a survey about quality of local service.
Reads a diagrammatic text and comments on how information supports or refutes a particular point of view, e.g. how statistics on road fatalities presented in graphic form might be used to justify stricter road rules.

Speaking & Listening

Restates the main idea of a text and evidence offered in support of this view, after viewing or reading persuasive text(s), e.g. TV advertisements, public notices, political advertisements.
Discusses the content after reading an article in the daily newspaper/viewing TV program. Comprehends a simple clear announcement heard on a public address system, e.g. emergency procedure.
Expresses own opinion about a local issue by participating in a public meeting.
Expresses own opinion about a local issue and elicits the views of others by participating in a casual conversation.
Listens to a traditional myth, story or song and discusses key events, characters or places.

LEVEL FOUR – REPORTING INFORMATION INDICATORS OF COMPETENCE

Reading

- 4.1 Reads and interprets structurally intricate texts in chosen fields of knowledge which require integration of several pieces of information for generating meaning.
- 4.2 Interprets texts which include ambiguity and inexplicitness where reader needs to distinguish fact from opinion and infer purpose.
- 4.3 Interprets and extrapolates from texts containing data which includes some abstraction, symbolism and technicality presented in graphic, diagrammatic, formatted or visual form.

Writing

- 4.4 Communicates complex relationships between ideas by matching style of writing to purpose and audience.
- 4.5 Generates written texts reflecting a range of genres and using appropriate structure and layout.

Oral Communication

- 4.6 Participates in sustained transactions with flexible use of a range of generic structures, for the purpose of exchanging or obtaining goods and services; or gathering/providing information.
- 4.7 Takes part in sustained interpersonal exchanges, demonstrating flexible use of register and a range of interactional strategies, for the purpose of establishing, maintaining and developing relationships; exploring issues; or problem solving.
- 4.8 Extracts main ideas and most details from sustained oral texts.

PROCEDURAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Demonstrates that meaning has been gained by reading a practical text which describes an unfamiliar procedure and carries out the procedure.

Writes a procedural text after clarifying the needs of the audience and the purposes of the information.

Reads diagrammatic texts which include some abstraction, symbolism, and technicality, e.g. compares and contrasts information found in tables and charts.

Writes formal letters, comparing and contrasting at least two viewpoints and conveying a recommendation.

Assesses and records information from a variety of sources.

Selects categories and structures by which to organise information and assesses information for relevance, accuracy and completeness, e.g. having checked information in a local map or street directory, orally gives direction on the best way to reach a venue and checks that these are clear.

Takes notes from a written text according to different headings for a specific purpose.

Reads a procedural text, carries out the procedure and evaluates the effectiveness of the text.

Reads a formatted text and suggests how headings, instructions and layout might be better organised to accommodate all users.

Speaking & Listening

Communicates ideas, arguments and conclusions logically, clearly and concisely in an appropriate form and using appropriate vocabulary, e.g. gives a presentation on a new or known work practice.

Listens to a presentation and seeks further clarification, e.g. regarding new work practices.

Responds to a complex enquiry or complaint, providing details of actions and explanation of specific problems.

Presents talk to a group, after clarifying the needs of the audience and the purposes of the information, and answers questions afterwards.

Compares a new work or study routine with previous experiences in a casual conversation with colleagues or classmates.

Discusses implications of a new work procedure with supervisor or teacher/trainer in a casual conversation.

TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Compares and contrasts views on technology in newspaper articles.

Interprets the purposes and objectives for the use of technology after reading a brochure or manual.

Selects technological practices to conform with the guidelines for health and safety, environmental impact and ethical practice, and uses them within those guidelines.

Uses guidelines to ensure technological equipment is used to its full capacity.

Uses a computer to prepare a typed report from a hand-drafted report.

Compares and contrasts different technologies and their impact, e.g. argues the case for new practices when using new technologies, reports on the effects of installation of new machinery.

Writes a report of the impact of a particular technology for a specific audience, e.g., management committees, tri-partite committees.

Reads a complex diagram to identify components and procedures for dealing with a technical fault or breakdown.

Speaking & Listening

Gives complex instructions, including pitfalls to be avoided when training others to use machinery.

Follows complex instructions presented orally when using new technology.

Discusses new technology and subsequent changes to work, study and personal routines.

Interprets the purposes and objectives for the use of technology after attending a training session or inservice

PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Gives a personal response to a text, e.g. gives an interpretation of an unfamiliar theme from a short poem.

Reads literary texts of personal choice for enjoyment, recognising that there are varying interpretations possible.

Writes a detailed narrative where ideas, details and events relevant to the story line are developed and described in depth.

Writes a recount with attention to detail, including time order.

Writes an autobiography with attention to detail, consciously using narrative structures to involve readers.

Writes text of personal relevance drawing on varying examples, incidents, opinions and information to support a general theme or provide contrasting view points.

Applies research skills to obtain specific information using a range of literature and other print media as a major source, then summarises data collected to produce a report on topic of personal interest, e.g. prepares a report on the solar system for a class.

Speaking & Listening

Participates actively in discussion and workshop activities, e.g. to examine the effect of personal presentation in a range of situations.

Gives a personal response to a text, by discussing the motives and feelings of key personalities, as well as recounting the plot.

Participates in a casual conversation about matters of personal interest or concern with known and/or unknown interlocutors.

Gives opinion on information gathered from a variety of sources.

Listens to an oral text such as a speech, lecture, play or other public performance, and gives a personal and reflective response.

COOPERATIVE COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Follows instructions written by other group members.

Writes clear and detailed instructions organised sequentially for members of a group in order to complete an activity.

Writes organisational procedures and timeframes to take account of different roles and perspectives, e.g. as a member of a committee writes a report to resolve difficulties about definitions of job responsibilities.

Reads and reviews content and presentation of a piece of collaborative writing.

Reads a complex graphic text which includes information presented in a variety of forms and relates to the interests or activities of workteam or group, e.g. analyses charts depicting rises in the cost of living and compares with family expenditure.

Speaking & Listening

Orally presents a written report with a number of defined sections, containing gathered data, e.g. writes and delivers a thank-you speech.

Participates in casual conversational exchanges in a small group context to address a complex workplace issue, e.g. identifies and clarifies issues, identifies and locates possible resources, discusses best solutions and draws recommendations together.

Listens to a range of sustained material, such as presentations by guest speakers, recordings, and information videos, on challenging ideas and issues, noting key ideas and information in a systematic way.

Listens and responds constructively, contributing alternative ideas, and expressing ideas and opinions in a small group discussion to address a work-related issue.

SYSTEMS COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads information in a pamphlet and comprehends in detail, e.g. TAFE entry requirements.

Can compare and contrast information gained from tables, charts, and other graphic information, e.g. reads a pamphlet outlining employee benefits and states difference between two types of employee benefits.

Prepares job application documents, e.g. writes a comprehensive application for a position addressing technical performance criteria, after reading a position description.

Writes a range of formal letters with work-related content, e.g. memos, letters to clients.

Speaking & Listening

Participates in staged negotiations which require exchanges of information, e.g. a job interview.

Gives detailed spoken instructions that involve a number of interrelated steps in the workplace.

Makes a brief presentation at a formal meeting.

Participates in negotiations in the workplace, e.g. matching resources to meet clients' specifications.

Gives opinion on information gathered from a variety of sources.

Listens strategically and systematically records spoken information in an institutional setting presentation.

Discusses organisational or systems operations in a casual conversation with colleagues, supervisors, managers or teachers/trainers.

Discusses systems requirements in a conversation with a known or unknown interlocutor, e.g. exchanges recounts of personal experiences in accessing community resources and service provision.

PUBLIC COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads/views current news items and contemporary issues as reported and depicted in the media and takes notes which accurately reflect and capture information in a newspaper item or TV program, providing more than one viewpoint, and some relevant supporting details.

Distinguishes fact from writer's opinion in a newspaper article offering at least two points of view.

Writes a text drawing on a number of varying examples, incidents, opinions or facts to support a general theme, stating and justifying a personal viewpoint, e.g. writes a letter to a local paper expressing an opinion on a local issue and providing supporting evidence.

Writes a report that classifies details into sections, e.g. report for a local newsletter reporting on community welfare services as outlined in a local council brochure.

Demonstrates understanding of text describing complex interrelationships of events, e.g. show a pattern in oil exports across years.

Describes textually the interrelationships depicted in tabular form, e.g. report of a survey comparing a range of opinions on a matter of public importance.

States in writing an argument presented in a lengthy newspaper article.

Speaking & Listening

Reads/views and discusses current news items and contemporary issues as reported and depicted in the media and summarises issues orally to accurately reflect and capture information as presented, e.g. analyses government policies regarding discrimination on the basis of race/ethnicity.

Participates in formal public meetings.

Gives prepared talk to own community group (e.g. stamp club or religious study group) on a personally familiar subject, e.g. an issue of community importance.

Demonstrates understanding of oral presentation by taking comprehensive, structured and systematic notes of, e.g. a Legal Aid talk containing abstractions and technicalities.

Articulates ways in which misunderstandings between people may occur because of differences in cultural backgrounds, e.g. identifies and analyses value judgements, prejudices and stereotypes represented in spoken or written text.

LEVEL FIVE – REPORTING INFORMATION INDICATORS OF COMPETENCE

Reading

5.1 Reads and interprets structurally intricate texts in chosen fields of knowledge and across a number of genres, which involve complex relationships between pieces of information and/or propositions.

5.2 Interprets subtle nuances, infers purpose of author and makes judgements about the quality of an argument.

5.3 Reads and critically evaluates texts containing data which includes abstraction, symbolism and technicality presented in graphic, diagrammatic, formatted or visual forms.

Writing

5.4 Demonstrates well developed writing skills by selecting stylistic devices to express complex relationships between ideas and purposes.

5.5 Generates complex written texts with control over generic structure.

Oral Communication

5.6 Participates in sustained and complex transactions demonstrating flexible and effective use of a range of generic structures, for the purpose of exchanging or obtaining goods and services; or gathering/providing information.

5.7 Takes part in sustained and complex interpersonal exchanges, demonstrating flexible and effective use of register and a range of interactional strategies, for the purpose of establishing, maintaining and developing relationships; exploring issues; or problem solving.

5.8 Displays depth of understanding of complex oral texts which may include multiple and unstated meanings.

PROCEDURAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Writes a detailed procedural text, including alternative courses of action, after defining the needs of the audience and the purposes of the information.

Follows a complex flow chart in order to identify and distil relevant information.

Identifies the main organising categories and structures, and evaluates the quality and validity of the information in a procedural text.

Demonstrates that meaning has been gained by reading a practical text that is complex in presentation and content, and describes an unfamiliar procedure, e.g. explains procedure for operating a complex piece of machinery.

Writes an organisational plan based, for example, on task analysis, survey of workers, and financial information.

Reads and analyses a complex procedural text which may include topical information and commentary as well as instructions.

Speaking & Listening

Negotiates with a work group and recommends different ways of performing tasks.

Listens and provides evaluative feedback at a training session on new procedures.

Participates in a casual conversation with colleagues, supervisors or managers and discusses the implications of new work procedures and how these will affect different people.

Discusses changes in domestic routines and procedures in terms of work and study demands with known and/or unknown interlocutors.

TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Defines the purposes and objectives for the use of a particular technology, e.g. writes a report which includes a detailed

analysis of technology as applied in a particular workplace or environment.

Draws on prior knowledge of the application of technology in researching the capacity of a new system, e.g. writes a briefing and recommends purchase or use of a particular system.

Uses technological principles to reduce constraints presented by environmental or physical capacity, e.g. writes a report which compares the effectiveness and efficiency of manual and computerised record management systems.

Prepares a written or oral report which critically evaluates the content, structure, and purpose of technical texts including graphic, diagrammatic or numerical information.

Adapts task instructions to suit changes in technology, e.g. writes plain English instructions for the operation of a new machine based on the manufacturer's instructions.

Draws from a number of sources and uses computer skills to prepare a report, e.g. a CV and job application letter.

Speaking & Listening

Leads group discussion which explores solutions to specific problems with new technology.

Explains technological concepts or scientific phenomena to an audience unfamiliar with the concepts involved, using scaled models.

Listens to and makes inferences from information given at a training session or inservice on new technology and takes notes or comments on possible implications and advantages for the workplace.

PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads/views factual or fictional texts of personal relevance, and responds both personally and critically, commenting on the wider significance of the text.

Writes a personal letter which details complex personal circumstances/responses where a level of subtlety is required.

Generates creative texts for personal enjoyment.

Writes a narrative about an accident or robbery or other incident with the main purpose to entertain rather than alarm.

Speaking & Listening

Takes part in a complex spoken exchange, e.g. comforts a distressed friend or colleague.

Participates in a discussion characterised by exchange of ideas and opinions supported by examples/evidence drawn from texts.

Listens to and critically reviews a complex oral text of personal interest, e.g. a theatrical performance, radio program, public debate or ritual.

Participates in a formal job interview applying knowledge of staging and relating past experiences to selection criteria.

COOPERATIVE COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads papers accompanying a meeting agenda to participate in group decision making.

Writes a report of an investigation which requires a small group to design, implement, analyse and present results in an appropriate format.

Presents detailed researched arguments in written form to a work team.

Develops a written collective response, e.g. about a cultural or local matter, letter of complaint about workplace conditions or funding for public services.

Reads and makes editorial suggestions for a piece of collaborative writing.

Reads a novel or non-fiction narrative and reviews the text for a particular group or audience.

Reads a series of complex graphic texts which include commentary or interpretative remarks and discuss how these may relate to work team or family, e.g. analyses graphs describing participation in the workforce in terms of gender, age, cultural or educational background.

Speaking & Listening

Defines and monitors purposes and objectives to be achieved by working with others and establishes roles, procedures and timeframes taking into account different perspectives, e.g. works with a group to construct an action plan to develop an effective work climate.

Observes conventions of the Australian work context to provide briefings, e.g. discusses the progress of a report with a supervisor.

Explores ideas in discussion, by comparing them with those of peers and others, building on others' ideas to advance discussion, and questioning others to clarify ideas.

Presents detailed researched arguments to a work team orally.

Engages in informal discussion with a number of participants.

Listens to a range of sustained material, such as presentations by guest speakers and informative videos on challenging ideas and issues, noting key ideas in a systematic way and including evaluative comment on how these ideas may be applied to group activity or interest.

SYSTEMS COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads and views a variety of texts on an issue examining point of view, selection, omission and use of evidence, and makes a

judgement.

Reads graphic texts drawn from a number of different sources representing differing points of view.

Writes a detailed CV with supporting documentation.

Participates actively in a meeting by taking detailed minutes.

Writes a persuasive essay which uses reference procedures.

Identifies, analyses and evaluates information from a wide variety of sources, e.g. carries out a task analysis in order to design and develop a training program for implementation in the workplace.

Speaking & Listening

Presents a report, drawing on a number of varying examples, incidents, opinions or facts to support a generalised overview or opinion.

Takes notes on information presented orally, e.g. takes notes from a lecture which capture the key points and supporting information.

Negotiates a problematic and complex workplace exchange, e.g. a collective agreement. Discusses organisational or system requirements in a casual conversation with colleague,

supervisor, friend or teacher/trainer, e.g. discusses suitability of skills and prior experience for an advertised position.

Participates in a lengthy interview or workshop with an educational or careers counsellor providing, requesting and negotiating information and exploring a variety of alternate courses of action.

PUBLIC COMMUNICATION

Reading & Writing

Reads a complex article, identifies misleading information and underlying value system implicit in the text, and draws conclusions evaluating what is being conveyed.

Considers the context in which texts are created and discusses how these are reflected in written and visual texts that have specific meaning to a culture.

Reads an article presenting alternative viewpoints, summarises these, and presents the comparison in an article, e.g. compares approaches stated in narrative on growing up.

Interprets a brief phrase from a lengthy news article.

Evaluates public texts critically, e.g. notes how writers use techniques to influence audience.

Writes for specific audience and conveys detailed information and explores different perspectives on complex, challenging issues, e.g. revises a sexist, racist or needlessly complicated leaflet.

Writes an article for a local community newspaper on a complex issue, presenting alternative views and evidence, and a conclusion.

Uses text presented in tabular form as basis for writing a report, e.g. uses a table depicting information about parental involvement in school to write a paragraph summarising the extent to which parents and teachers agree about the level of involvement.

Speaking & Listening

Evaluates others' spoken texts critically and uses this knowledge to improve own formal speech activities, e.g. drafts and devises cue cards, reads aloud to check timing, anticipates expectations and needs of listeners.

Uses knowledge of linguistic structures and features to explain how speakers influence audiences, e.g. comments on how presentation is adjusted according to audience, and/or the purpose of communication.

Notes key ideas, issues, and evidence from a verbal presentation about a topic of community relevance, and acknowledges these when presenting own view.

Participates in public debate by presenting a report featuring a clear introduction to the topic, supporting examples/evidence to justify the writer's opinion, suggestions for action if appropriate, and a suitable closing statement.

Delivers a sustained oral presentation on an issue of public concern using appropriate staging and including an open question time at the end of the talk.

Listens to and reviews a complex and sustained oral text containing multiple agendas, for example a political speech on a particular issue, and comments on the implied assumptions and intentions of the speaker and the effectiveness of the presentation.

APPENDIX D. The Twenty-Two Scales in the ESU framework

YARDSTICK 1

Stage I: Overall language proficiency

9	Has a full command of the language, tackling the most difficult tasks with consistent accuracy, fluency, appropriate usage, organisation and comprehension. An exceptional level of mastery, not always reached by native speakers, even quite educated ones.
8	Uses a full range of language with proficiency approaching that in the learner's own mother tongue. Copes well even with demanding and complex language situations. Makes occasional minor lapses in accuracy, fluency, appropriacy and organisation which do not affect communication. Only rare uncertainties in conveying or comprehending the content of the message.
7	Uses language effectively and in most situations, except the very complex and difficult. A few lapses in accuracy, fluency, appropriacy and organisation, but communication is effective and consistent, with only a few uncertainties in conveying or comprehending the content of the message.
6	Uses the language with confidence in moderately difficult situations. Noticeable lapses in accuracy, fluency, appropriacy and organisation in complex situations, but communication and comprehension are effective on most occasions, and are easily restored when difficulties arise.
5	Uses the language independently and effectively in all familiar and moderately difficult situations. Rather frequent lapses in accuracy, fluency, appropriacy and organisation, but usually succeeds in communicating and comprehending general message.
4	Uses basic range of language, sufficient for familiar and non-pressuring situations. Many lapses in accuracy, fluency, appropriacy and organisation, restricting continual communication and comprehension, so frequent efforts are needed to ensure communicative intention is achieved.
3	Uses a limited range of language, sufficient for simple practical needs. In more exacting situations, there are frequent problems in accuracy, fluency, appropriacy and organisation, so that normal communication and comprehension frequently break down or are difficult to keep going.
2	Uses a very narrow range of language, adequate for basic needs and simple situations. Does not really have sufficient language to cope with normal day-to-day, real-life communication, but basic communication is possible with adequate opportunities for assistance. Uses short, often inaccurately and inappropriately worded messages, with constant lapses in fluency.
1	Uses a few words or phrases such as common greetings, and recognises some public notices or signs. At the lowest level, recognises which language is being used.

YARDSTICK 2 Stage II: Oral proficiency

9	Handles all oral interaction with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of oral proficiency. Handles the complete message in oral interaction without undue need for repair. Has complete mastery of text organisation and appropriacy of style. Participates flexibly in interaction conducted at high speed. Handles a complete range of language. Brings a complete command of accuracy to oral interaction. Little L1 accent.
8	Handles a full range of oral interaction with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Handles the full message in oral interaction with only occasional loss of detail. Only occasional need for repair. Has a full mastery of text organisation and appropriacy of style. Participates fully and fluently in interaction conducted at speed. Handles a full range of language. Brings a full command of accuracy to the interaction. Residual L1 accent.
7	Handles a wide range of oral interaction with good confidence and competence. Handles the message clearly with only minor loss of detail and little need for repair. Has a wide mastery of text organisation and appropriacy of style. Participates readily in oral interaction but with minor lapses in fluency. Handles a wide range of language. Brings a very good grasp of accuracy to the interaction. Speaks with a noticeable L1 accent.
6	Handles moderate-level oral interaction with good confidence and competence, but with some problems with higher-level interaction. Handles the message adequately but with noticeable loss of detail and need for repair. Has an adequate mastery of text organisation but some uncertainties over appropriacy of style. Some loss of fluency which hampers full participation in oral interaction. Handles a good range of language. Brings a good grasp of accuracy to the interaction. Speaks with marked L1 accent.
5	Handles moderate-level oral interaction with adequate confidence and competence. Handles the major points of the message but with frequent loss of detail. Fairly frequent need for repair. Has a basic mastery of text organisation but an uncertain grasp of style. Limitations restrict participation in oral interaction at times, with fairly frequent lapses in fluency. Handles a moderate range of language. Brings a moderate grasp of accuracy to the interaction. Speaks with obvious L1 accent.
4	Handles simple oral interaction with good confidence and competence, but some problems with moderate-level interaction. Handles the essential points of the message but with great loss of detail. Frequent need for repair. Has frequent problems with text organisation and a limited sensitivity to style. Participates in structured interaction but more restricted in freer interaction. Handles a limited range of language. Brings a limited grasp of accuracy to the interaction. Speaks with a heavy L1 accent.
3	Handles simple oral interaction with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level interaction. Handles the gist of the message; alternatively, handles the needed or predicted items. Constant need for repair. Has little appreciation of text organisation and little grasp of style. Participation in interaction at normal speed is limited, requiring a sympathetic interlocutor. Handles a narrow range of language. Brings a basic level of accuracy to the interaction. Speaks with a very heavy L1 accent.
2	Handles simple oral interaction with erratic confidence and competence. Handles isolated points of the message. Dependent on opportunities for repair to convey or comprehend message. Appreciation of text organisation restricted to sequencing or structured interaction. At the margins of oral communication. Handles a very narrow range of language. Has little grasp of accuracy. L1 accent may make oral communication very limited.
1	Handles only the simplest oral interaction, and that with uncertain confidence and little competence. Handles only the basic or predictable elements of the message. Totally dependent on ample opportunities for repair. Handles texts at the word or phrase level, with organisation limited to the structure of the interaction. Totally dependent on a sympathetic interlocutor. Handles a basic range of language. Has no grasp of accuracy. L1 accent likely to make oral interaction difficult to conduct.

YARDSTICK 3

Stage II: Graphic proficiency

9	Handles all graphic communication with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of graphic proficiency. Handles the complete message in graphic communication without undue need for repair. Has complete mastery of text organisation and written style. Flexibly adjusts reading and writing strategies. Reads and writes at high speed. Handles a complete range of language. Brings a complete command of accuracy to graphic communication.
8	Handles a full range of graphic communication with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Handles the full message in graphic communication with only occasional loss of detail. Only occasional need for repair. Has full mastery of text organisation and appropriacy of written style. Reads and writes fluently at speed. Handles a full range of language. Brings a full command of accuracy to graphic communication.
7	Handles a wide range of graphic communication with good confidence and competence. Handles the message clearly with only minor loss of detail and little need for repair. Has a wide mastery of text organisation and appropriacy of written style. Reads and writes readily with only minor lapses in fluency. Handles a wide range of language. Brings a very good grasp of accuracy to graphic communication.
6	Handles moderate-level graphic communication with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level communication. Handles the message adequately but with noticeable loss of detail and need for repair. Has an adequate mastery of text organisation but some uncertainties over appropriacy of written style. Some loss of fluency which hampers full participation in graphic communication. Handles a good range of language. Brings a good grasp of accuracy to graphic communication.
5	Handles moderate-level graphic communication with adequate confidence and competence. Handles the major points of the message but with frequent loss of detail. Fairly frequent need for repair. Has a basic mastery of text organisation but an uncertain grasp of written style. Limitations restrict reading and writing activities, with fairly frequent lapses in fluency. Handles a moderate range of language. Brings a moderate grasp of accuracy to graphic communication.
4	Handles simple graphic communication with good confidence and competence, but some problems with moderate-level communication. Handles the essential points of the message but with great loss of detail. Frequent need for repair. Has frequent difficulties with text organisation and limited sensitivity to written style. Reading and writing speed, fluency and flexibility restricted by frequent need to backtrack and refer to a dictionary. Handles a moderate range of language. Brings a limited grasp of accuracy to graphic communication.
3	Handles simple graphic communication with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level communication. Handles the gist of the message; alternatively, handles the needed or predicted items. Constant need for repair. Has little appreciation of text organisation and little grasp of written style. Reading and writing at normal speed are limited, requiring laboured backtracking. Handles a narrow range of language. Brings a basic grasp of accuracy to graphic communication.
2	Handles simple graphic communication with erratic confidence and competence. Handles isolated points of the message. Dependent on opportunities for repair to convey or comprehend the message. Appreciation of text organisation restricted to sequencing. At the margins of graphic communication. Handles a very narrow range of language. Has little grasp of accuracy to bring to graphic communication.
1	Handles the simplest graphic communication and that with uncertain confidence and competence. Handles the basic or predictable elements of the message. Totally dependent on ample opportunities for repair. Handles texts at the word or phrase level. Handles organisation according to the layout of the text (eg. following headings when completing a form). Requires assistance for all but the most basic documents. Graphic communication difficult to conduct at this level. Handles a basic range of language. Has no grasp of accuracy to bring to the text.

YARDSTICK 4

Stage III: Listening

9	Handles all general listening operations, as well as those in own specialist areas, with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of listening. Extracts the full content of the message without undue need for repetition or repair. Easily compensates for difficulties and shortcomings in organisation, style, speed of fluency or texts. Listening strategies comparable with those in mother tongue. Handles a complete range of language in listening operations, and compensates easily for distortions and errors.
8	Handles a full range of listening operations with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Extracts the full content of the message with only occasional loss of detail or subtlety. Only occasional need for repetition, rephrasing or repair. Only rare uncertainties over organisation, style or fluency of texts. Flexibly adjusts listening strategies to purpose, type and speed of input or interaction. Handles a full range of language, and fully compensates for distortions and errors.
7	Handles a wide range of listening operations with good confidence and competence. Extracts the majority of message with only minor loss of detail or subtlety, and only occasional need for repetition, rephrasing or repair. Few uncertainties over organisation, style or fluency of texts. Strategies fully effective with input delivered at normal speed, but less flexible than in own language. Handles a wide range of language in listening operations, usually with little difficulty in compensating for distortions and errors.
6	Handles moderate listening operations with good confidence and competence but some problems with higher-level operations. Extracts most of the message but with noticeable loss of detail or subtlety. Some need for repetition, rephrasing or repair. Adequately handles organisation, style and fluency of texts. Flexible strategies with input delivered at normal speed, but with some delay for adjustment at first. Handles a fair range of language, often compensating for distortions and errors.
5	Handles moderate-level listening operations with competence and confidence. Extracts major points of message but with frequent loss of detail and subtlety. Fairly frequent need for repetition, rephrasing or repair. Some problems with organisation, style and fluency of texts. Handles straightforward input delivered at normal speed. Employs good strategies when listening with full attention. Handles a moderate range of language, sometimes compensating for distortions or errors.
4	Handles simple listening operations with good confidence and competence, but some problems with moderate-level operations. Extracts essential points of message but with great loss of detail and little grasp of subtlety. Frequent need for repetition, rephrasing or repair. Frequent problems with organisation, style and fluency of texts. Limited ability to handle input at normal speed. Strategies adequate for speech directed at him/her. Handles a limited language range; occasionally compensates for distortions or errors.
3	Handles simple listening operations with adequate competence and confidence but has many problems with moderate-level operations. Comprehends the gist of the message but with little detail and with difficulty in assessing the significance of content. Constant need for repetition and repair. Constant problems with organisation, style and fluency of texts. Greatly limited ability to handle input at normal speed. Requires clear speech directed at him/her. Handles a narrow range of language; unlikely to compensate for distortions or errors.
2	Handles simple listening operations with erratic competence and confidence. Comprehends isolated points of the message or the topic under discussion, often with non-linguistic aid. Dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair. Little appreciation of organisation or style; mostly listens to very brief texts delivered at reduced speed. Strategies dependent on sympathetic speaker speaking clearly and slowly directly to him/her. Handles a very narrow range of language; unable to compensate for distortions or errors.
1	Handles only the simplest listening operations such as short isolated exchanges (eg. greetings, giving times, prices) and with little confidence. Extracts only basic or predicted messages, or those translated using a dictionary or phrase book. Totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair. At the lowest level, recognises which language is being spoken. No appreciation of organisation or style. Handles texts or interaction at the word or phrase level delivered below normal speed. Strategies limited to clear, slow and repeated speech directed to him/her by sympathetic speaker. Handles a basic range of language; quite unable to compensate for distortions or errors.

YARDSTICK 5
Stage III: Speaking

9	Handles all general speech situations, as well as those in own specialist areas, with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of speaking. Message required is completely conveyed with total relevance and interest. Message fully adjusted to listener's knowledge of topic and language. Spoken text is coherently organised with suitable use of sequencing and cohesion. Total control of fluency in interaction without undue hesitations. Style effectively matched to context. Language control complete, allowing for high-level interaction. Complete accuracy apart from occasional 'slips of tongue'. Little L1 accent and appropriate use of idiom contribute to overall impression.
8	Handles a full range of speech situations with confidence and competence approaching that in L1. Message required is effectively conveyed, with interesting and attractive treatment of topic. Message well adjusted to listener's knowledge of topic and language. Spoken text is well organised with good sequencing and cohesion. Conversation well sustained. Style well adjusted to context. Fluency is good with few false starts or hesitations. Language repertoire good, with few 'slips of the tongue'. Residual L1 accent but pronunciation, intonation and stress patterns all assist communication.
7	Handles a wide range of speech operations with good confidence and competence. Message is clearly conveyed and with interest. Presentation and interaction relevant and appropriate to listener's knowledge of topic and language. Spoken text is clearly organised with suitable sequencing and cohesion. Occasionally lacks fluency and flexibility, with some lapses of appropriacy and linguistic uncertainty. Uses coping strategies effectively. Uses a wide language repertoire with occasional lapses of accuracy. Speech features influenced by L1 but these in no way affect communication.
6	Handles moderate-level speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level situations. Message adequately conveyed. Basic communication is adequate but some restrictions in participation because of language limitations. Spoken text is adequately organised but with some lapses in sequencing and cohesion. Some sense of appropriate style. Noticeable false starts, hesitations and reformulations. Uses a fair language repertoire. Accuracy and usage good in spite of noticeable lapses. Marked L1 speech features but these rarely affect essential communication.
5	Handles moderate speech situations with adequate confidence and competence. Message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Some difficulties in initiating and sustaining conversation. Interaction needs repetition and clarification. Spoken text organisation is adequate but with fairly frequent stylistic lapses. Fairly frequent hesitations and lapses in fluency, but these do not interfere with basic communication. Uses a moderate language repertoire, but has to search for words and use circumlocutions. Fairly frequent errors in accuracy. Obvious L1 accent and speech features. Limitations impair communication at times.
4	Handles simple speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys short, simple messages but with loss of detail and interest. Frequent need for repetition and clarification. Responds adequately to structured conversation but restricted in freer interaction. Spoken text organisation is haphazard and lapses require frequent repair. Little stylistic variation. Communication adequately conveys the speaker's gist. Frequent false starts and hesitations. Uses a limited language repertoire with little variety. Frequent errors. Heavy L1 accent. Language limitations impede intelligibility.
3	Handles simple speech situations with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys basic survival messages, but lacks clarity and interest. Communication breaks down as language constraints interfere with message. Little text organisation or flexibility of response. Little appreciation of style. Restricted to handling basic facts. False starts and hesitations impair communication. Has a narrow language repertoire, demanding constant rephrasing and searching for words. Errors even with quite basic usage. Pronunciation and usage shortcomings cause very frequent problems with communication.
2	Handles simple speech situations with erratic confidence and competence. Conveys the shortest, simplest and most factual aspects of the message. Responses often irrelevant at the margins of communication. Spoken text organisation restricted to responses to predictable gambits or expressing basic needs. Sympathetic interlocutor is needed to maintain communication. No stylistic variation. Has a very narrow language repertoire of isolated words and phrases. Language inaccuracies and pronunciation shortcomings make spoken communication quite difficult.
1	Handles only the simplest speech situations, eg. giving name, nationality, etc in structured situations. Any message is difficult to decipher; or at the lowest level, not enough evidence to assess proficiency. Produces spoken texts which are little more than a string of words or groups of words without coherence. Little or no proficiency in dialogue. At the lowest level, unable to take part in dialogue, providing inadequate speech for proper assessment. Has only the most basic language repertoire, with little or no evidence of a functional command of the language. L1 speech features and limited language make speech very difficult to comprehend.

YARDSTICK 6
Stage III: Reading

9	Reads all general texts and texts in own specialist areas with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of reading. Comprehends full content of message without the need for a dictionary. Easily compensates for difficulties or shortcomings in organisation, style or fluency of texts. Reading speeds and strategies comparable with those in mother tongue. Handles a complete range of language in reading texts, and compensates easily for misprints and errors.
8	Reads a full range of texts with competence and confidence approaching those in mother tongue. Comprehends the full content of message with only occasional loss of detail or subtlety, and only occasional use of a dictionary. Only rare uncertainties over organisation, style or fluency of texts. flexibly adapts reading speed and strategies to reading purpose and type of text. Handles a full range of language, fully compensating for misprints and errors.
7	Reads a wide range of reading texts with good confidence and competence. Comprehends the majority of the message with only minor loss of detail or subtlety. Little need to refer to a dictionary. Few uncertainties over the organisation, style or fluency of texts. Reading speed and strategies fully effective but somewhat less flexible than those in own language. Handles a wide range of language, usually with little trouble compensating for misprints and errors.
6	Reads moderate-level texts with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level texts. Comprehends most of the message but with noticeable loss of detail and subtlety. Some need to refer to a dictionary. Adequately handles organisation, style or fluency of texts. Good reading speed and flexible reading strategies. Handles a fair range of language, often compensating for misprints and errors.
5	Reads moderate-level texts with adequate competence and confidence. Comprehends major points of the message but with frequent loss of detail or subtlety. Fairly frequent need to refer to a dictionary. Some problems with organisation, style and fluency of texts. Good reading speed of straightforward texts. Handles a moderate range of language, sometimes compensating for misprints and errors.
4	Reads simple texts with good competence and confidence, but some problems with moderate-level texts. Comprehends essential points of message but with great loss of detail and little concept of subtlety. Frequent need to refer to a dictionary. Frequent problems with organisation, style and fluency of texts. Reading speed and flexibility restricted by frequent need to re-read or refer to dictionary. Handles a limited range of language, occasionally compensating for misprints and errors.
3	Reads simple texts with adequate competence and confidence, but has many problems with moderate-level texts. Comprehends the gist of the message but with little detail and with difficulty in assessing the significance of information. Constant need to refer to a dictionary. Constant problems with organisation, style and fluency of texts. Reads slowly. Handles a narrow range of language. Unlikely to compensate for misprints or errors.
2	Reads simple texts with erratic competence and confidence. Comprehends isolated points of message or the topic under discussion, often with non-linguistic aid. Dependent on a dictionary. Little appreciation of organisational devices or style; mostly reads texts at sentence level. Reads very slowly. Handles a very narrow range of language. No ability to compensate for misprints or errors.
1	Reads only the simplest texts such as public notices or signs. Comprehends only basic and common messages, or those translated with the aid of a bilingual dictionary. At the lowest level, recognises which language is written. No appreciation of organisational devices or style. Reads texts mostly below sentence level. Reads extremely slowly. Handles a basic range of language. Unlikely to recognise misprints or errors.

YARDSTICK 7
Stage III: Writing

9	Writes all general texts and texts in own specialist areas with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of writing. Message is completely conveyed with total relevance and interest. Message fully adjusted to reader's knowledge of topic and language. Text is coherently organised with effective use of cohesive devices. Layout and structure aid force of argument. Style effectively matched to topic and reader. Language control complete apart from occasional obvious 'slips'. Complete accuracy, fluency and appropriate use of Idiom contribute to overall impression of writing.
8	Writes a full range of texts with competence and confidence approaching those in L1. Message required is effectively conveyed, with interesting and attractive treatment of topic. Length matches requirements of task. Message well adjusted to reader. Text organisation is clear with appropriate cohesive devices. Style suits subject. Good sentence variety. Text flows. Layout and punctuation helpful. Language repertoire good. Correct and appropriate usage of grammar and vocabulary. Few formal errors apart from 'slips'. Spelling and writing help intelligibility.
7	Writes a wide range of texts with good confidence and competence. Message is clearly conveyed. Interesting treatment. Suitable length. Presentation relevant to task and reader. Text accurately presented with clarity of organisation with suitable use of cohesion and topic markers. Style well adjusted to task. Layout and punctuation helpful. Uses a wide language repertoire accurately, with occasional lapses of appropriacy and inaccuracies. Spelling and handwriting good.
6	Writes moderate-level texts with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level texts. Message adequately conveyed. Basic ideas conveyed with clarity and relevance to reader. Language limitations impede fully effective performance. Text is adequately presented but with lapses in flow, organisation and cohesion. Has a limited stylistic range. Punctuation and layout basically helpful. Has fair language repertoire but with several lapses in accuracy. Idiom, if used at all, may be unsuitable. Spelling and handwriting quite clear and intelligible.
5	Writes moderate-level texts with adequate competence and confidence. Message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety. Often bald and halting, reducing interest. Reader has to backtrack on occasion to clarify thread of topic. Text organisation adequate but presentation lacks subtlety. Some use of stylistic variation and basic cohesive devices. Punctuation and layout acceptable. Has a moderate language repertoire, but fairly frequent errors and inappropriacies. Meaning of sentences conveyed. Spelling and handwriting legible.
4	Writes simple texts with good competence and confidence; some problems with moderate-level texts. Message conveyed basically but without subtlety. Deals with main topic required but with lack of clarity and interest. Marginally communicative. Text organisation haphazard and not coherent throughout. Little use of stylistic variation or cohesive devices. Punctuation, paragraphing and layout basic. Uses a limited language repertoire with little variety and frequent inaccuracies. Spelling and handwriting impede clarity of message.
3	Writes simple texts with adequate competence and confidence, but with many problems with moderate-level texts. Produces a string of sentences bearing to some extent on the required message. Little sense of reader expectations. Finer details not dealt with. Lacking in interest. Little sense of text organisation. Mainly descriptive or narrative style lacking cohesion. Punctuation basic and often omitted. Layout of little help to reader. Has a narrow language repertoire, with regular inaccuracies and inappropriacies which impede basic message. Spelling and handwriting cause problems of intelligibility.
2	Writes simple texts with erratic competence and confidence. Manages a few simple sentences, but relationship to required message is tenuous. Little intrinsic interest. Subsidiary themes and details ignored or presented in confused ways. Little text organisation with little cohesion between its sentences. Lacks flow. No stylistic variation. Punctuation and layout not helpful to reader. Has a very narrow language repertoire, with many inaccuracies. Spelling errors and poor handwriting make topic rather difficult to discern.
1	Writes only the simplest texts, eg. Completing forms with name, address, etc. Any message is difficult to decipher; or not enough evidence to assess proficiency. Produces texts which are little more than a string of words or groups of words without coherence; or does not provide enough evidence to assess properly. Has only the most basic language repertoire, with little or no evidence of a functional grasp of lexis or sentence structure. Handwriting and spelling may make text very difficult to read.

YARDSTICK 8

Stage IV: Listening for social and personal purposes

Typical tasks: Listening to public announcements, lectures/talks for personal interest, radio/television programmes, personal/social telephone calls, etc.

9	Handles all social/personal listening operations in areas of own and related interests with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of social listening. Extracts the complete message from social/personal texts without undue need for repair. Skilfully processes and evaluates the message for subsequent application. Easily handles extended or complex texts such as broadcasts, lectures/talks or telephone calls delivered at high speed. Social listening strategies comparable with those in mother tongue. Handles a complete range of social language in own and a broad range of related interests. Compensates easily for distortions or errors in transmitted and live texts of a social/personal nature.
8	Handles a full range of social/personal listening operations with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Extracts the full message from announcements, broadcasts, talks, etc. with only occasional loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a full range of techniques to evaluate, apply or relay the message. Flexibly adjusts listening strategies to long and detailed social/personal texts delivered at speed. Handles a full range of social language in own and related areas of interest. Compensates fully for distortions in transmitted or live texts of a social/personal nature.
7	Handles a wide range of social/personal listening operations, with good confidence and competence. Extracts the majority of the message from announcements, broadcasts, talks, etc. with only minor loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a good range of techniques to evaluate, apply or relay the message. Listening strategies fully effective for dealing with social/personal texts delivered at normal speed, but less flexible than in mother tongue. Handles a wide range of social language in own and related areas of interest. Little difficulty in compensating for distortions and errors in transmitted or live texts of a social/personal nature.
6	Handles moderate-level social/personal listening operations with fair confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level operations, especially if opportunities for repair are limited. Extracts most of the message from announcements, broadcasts, talks, etc. but with noticeable loss of detail and subtlety. Uses a good range of techniques to store and apply or relay the message. Uses flexible strategies for social/personal texts delivered at normal speed, but with problems of initial adjustment to style, accent, and speed or mode of delivery. Handles a good range of social language in areas of general and own particular interests. Usually compensates for distortions and errors in transmitted or live texts of a social/personal nature.
5	Handles moderate-level social/personal listening operations with confidence and competence. Extracts the major points of the message from announcements, broadcasts, talks, etc. but with frequent loss of detail and subtlety. Uses a fair range of techniques to store and apply or relay the message. Handles straightforward social-personal texts in areas of own interests or need if delivered at normal speed and if listening with full attention. Handles a moderate range of social language in areas of general and own particular interests. Sometimes compensates for distortions and errors in transmitted or live texts of a social/personal nature.
4	Handles simple social/personal listening operations with confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level operations, especially if few or no opportunities for repair. Extracts the broad outline of the message from announcements, broadcasts, talks, etc. but with great loss of detail and subtlety. Uses a limited range of techniques to store, apply or relay the message. Limited ability to handle social/personal texts in areas of own interests or needs when delivered at normal speed, unless directed specifically at him/her, eg. personal or predictable messages. Handles a limited range of social language relating to own particular interests. Occasionally compensates for distortions or errors in live texts of a social/personal nature.
3	Handles simple social/personal listening operations with adequate confidence and competence, but has many problems with moderate-level operations, especially if there are limited opportunities for repair. Comprehends the gist of the message of a broadcast or talk, but with little detail; alternatively extracts needed or predicted items of isolated information from announcements or broadcasts. Greatly limited ability to handle social/personal texts delivered at normal speed. Requires clear speech specifically relevant to him/her, with opportunities for repair or repetition. Handles a narrow range of social language in areas relating to own particular needs or interests. Unlikely to compensate for distortions or errors in transmitted or live texts of a social/personal nature.
2	Handles simple social/personal listening operations with erratic confidence and competence. Comprehends isolated points of the message and can identify the topic of a talk or broadcast. Further comprehension depends on LI or visual support or demonstration. Stores basic factual information, eg. prices, times, platform or gate numbers, temperatures, etc. Mostly handles very brief social/personal texts delivered at reduced speed or repeated. Requires sympathetic speaker who will speak slowly and clearly, and repeat or reformulate. Handles a very narrow range of social language in areas relating to own particular needs or interests. Unable to compensate for distortions or errors in transmitted or live texts of a social/personal nature.
1	Handles the simplest social/personal listening operations such as isolated or predictable announcements with little confidence, especially if few opportunities for repair. Identifies topic or basic message of an announcement or broadcast. Further comprehension requires translation or visuals. Ability to store or relay message limited by level of comprehension. Handles the briefest social/personal texts, such as airport announcements or recorded telephone messages. Requires slow, clear and repeated speech. Has small range of social language - international terms: taxi, telephone, etc. Quite unable to compensate for distortions or errors in social listening texts.

YARDSTICK 9

Stage IV: Listening for business purposes

Typical tasks: Taking business telephone messages, listening to business meetings, conferences or presentations, etc.

9	Handles all business listening operations in own and in related areas of responsibility with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of business listening. Extracts the complete message of a business call, meetings or presentation without undue need for repair. Uses a comprehensive range of techniques to store or relay the message for later business applications. Easily handles extended or complex business texts such as telephone calls, meetings or presentations delivered at high speed. Business listening strategies comparable with those in mother tongue. Handles a complete range of business language and specialist terminology in own and a broad range of related fields. Easily compensates for distortions and errors in business listening texts.
8	Handles a full range of business listening operations with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Extracts the full message of a business call, meeting or presentation with only occasional loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a full range of techniques to store or relay the message for later applications. Flexibly adjusts listening strategies to long and detailed business texts delivered at speed. Handles a full range of business language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Fully compensates for distortions and errors in business listening texts.
7	Handles a wide range of business listening operations with good confidence and competence. Extracts the majority of the message of a business call or meeting with only minor loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a good range of techniques to store or relay the message for later business applications. Listening strategies fully effective for dealing with business texts such as telephone calls, meetings or presentations delivered at normal speed, but less flexible than in own mother tongue. Handles a wide range of business language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Little difficulty in compensating for distortions and errors in business listening texts.
6	Handles moderate-level business listening operations with confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level operations, especially if opportunities for repair are limited. Extracts most of the message of a business call, meeting or presentation, but with noticeable loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a good range of techniques to store or relay the message for later application. Uses flexible strategies for business texts delivered at normal speed, but with problems of initial adjustment to style, accent or speed of delivery. Handles a good range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Usually compensates for distortions and errors in business listening texts.
5	Handles moderate-level listening operations with confidence and competence. Extracts the major points of the message in a business call, meeting or presentation, but with frequent loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a fair range of techniques to store or relay the message for later business applications. Handles straightforward business texts in own field delivered at normal speed when listening with full attention. Handles a moderate range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Sometimes compensates for errors in business listening texts.
4	Handles simple business listening operations with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level operations, especially if limited opportunities for repair. Extracts the broad outline of the message in a business call or presentation, but with great loss of detail and subtlety. Uses a limited range of techniques to store or relay the message. Limited ability to handle business texts in own field delivered at normal speed, unless directed specifically at him/her, eg. one-to-one telephone calls. Handles a limited range of business language relating directly to own field. Occasionally compensates for errors in business listening texts.
3	Handles simple business listening operations with some confidence and competence, but has many problems with moderate-level operations, especially if limited opportunities for repair. Comprehends gist of a message or extracts information needed. Takes brief notes (probably in L1) but with missing information and difficulty in assessing the significance of the content for later business applications. Greatly limited ability to handle business texts delivered at normal speed. Requires clear speech directed specifically at him/her, with opportunities for repair. Handles a narrow range of business language and the most common specialist terms in own field. Unlikely to compensate for distortions.
2	Handles simple business listening operations with erratic confidence and competence. Comprehends isolated points of the business message and can identify the topic of a call, meeting or presentation. Further comprehension depends on L1 support or visual aids and demonstrations. Takes simple notes in L1 of basic factual or numerical information. Mostly handles very brief business texts delivered at reduced speed. Requires sympathetic speaker speaking clearly and slowly. Handles a very narrow range of business language and a few specialist terms. Unable to compensate for distortions or errors in business listening texts.
1	Handles the simplest business listening operations, such as isolated exchanges or instructions. Handles these with uncertain confidence or competence, especially if there aren't extensive repair opportunities. Identifies the topic or basic message of a call or meeting. Further comprehension requires translation, accompanying visual aids or demonstration. Ability to relay message restricted by level of comprehension. Handles the briefest business texts, such as recorded telephone services (eg. exchange rates). Requires slow, clear speech and repeated listening. Handles a basic range of business language such as terms similar to those in L1. Quite unable to compensate for distortions or errors in business listening texts.

YARDSTICK 10

Stage IV: Listening for study/training purposes

Typical tasks: Listening to lectures, academic discussions, broadcasts on academic topics, workshop demonstrations, training presentations, practical instructions, etc.

9	Handles all study/training listening operations in own and related specialist fields with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of study listening. Extracts the complete message of a lecture or training presentation without undue need for repair. Uses a comprehensive range of note-taking and retrieval techniques for later study applications. Easily handles extended and complex study/training texts such as lectures or presentations delivered at high speed. Academic listening strategies comparable to those in mother tongue. Handles a complete range of academic language conventions and specialist terminology in own and a broad range of related fields. Compensates easily for distortions in lecture delivery or training sessions.
8	Handles a full range of study/training listening operations with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Extracts the full message of a lecture or training presentation with only occasional loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a full range of note-taking and retrieval techniques for later study applications. Flexibly adjusts listening strategies to long and detailed study/training texts delivered at speed. Handles a full range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and related specialist fields. Fully compensates for distortions and errors in lectures or training presentations.
7	Handles a wide range of study/training listening operations with good confidence and competence. Extracts the majority of the message of a lecture or training presentation with only minor loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a wide range of note-taking and retrieval techniques for later applications. Listening strategies fully effective with study/training texts such as lectures or training sessions delivered at normal speed. Handles a wide range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Little difficulty in compensating for distortions or errors in lectures or training presentations.
6	Handles moderate-level study/training listening operations with confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level operations, especially if opportunities for repair are limited. Extracts most of the message of a lecture or training presentation, but with noticeable loss of detail and subtlety. Uses a good range of note-taking techniques for later study applications. Uses flexible strategies for study/training texts delivered at normal speed, but with problems of initial adjustment to style, accent, and speed or mode of delivery. Handles a good range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Usually compensates for distortions and errors in lectures or training presentations.
5	Handles moderate-level study/training listening operations with confidence and competence. Extracts the major points of the message of a lecture or training presentation, but with frequent loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a fair range of note-taking and retrieval techniques for later study applications. Handles straightforward study/training texts in own field delivered at normal speed when listening with full attention. Handles a moderate range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Sometimes compensates for distortions and errors in lecture delivery or training presentations.
4	Handles simple study/training listening operations with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level operations, especially if there are few or no opportunities for repair. Extracts the broad outline of the message of a lecture or training presentation, but with great loss of detail and subtlety. Uses a limited range of note-taking techniques for later study applications. Limited ability to handle study/training texts in own field delivered at normal speed, unless these are directed specifically at him/her, eg. personal tuition or supervision. Handles a limited range of academic language and specialist terminology relating directly to own field. Occasionally compensates for distortions and errors in lectures or training presentations.
3	Handles simple study/training listening operations with adequate confidence and competence but has many problems with moderate-level operations, especially if there are limited opportunities for repair. Comprehends the gist of the message of academic lectures or training presentations, but with little detail. Takes brief notes (probably in LI) but with missing information and with little reflection of the structure of the original listening text. Greatly limited ability to handle study/training texts delivered at normal speed. Requires clear speech directed specifically at him/her, with opportunities for repair and repetition. Handles a narrow range of academic language and common specialist terms in own field. Unlikely to compensate for distortions in text.
2	Handles simple study/training listening operations with erratic confidence and competence. Comprehends isolated points of the message and can identify the topic of the lecture or training presentation. Further comprehension depends on support from an LI abstract, visual aids, or an accompanying demonstration. Takes notes in LI on basic factual or numerical information. Mostly handles very brief training texts delivered at reduced speed. Requires sympathetic trainer speaking clearly and slowly. Handles a very narrow range of academic language and a few specialist terms. Unable to compensate for distortions or errors in study/training presentations.
1	Handles the simplest study/training listening operations such as isolated instructions. Handles these with little confidence and uncertain competence, especially if there aren't extensive repair opportunities. Identifies the topic or basic message of training or instructions. Further comprehension requires translation or accompanying visual aids and demonstration. Note-taking restricted by level of comprehension. Handles the briefest training texts, such as isolated instructions, comments accompanying a demonstration, or terms relating to equipment or operations. Requires slow, clear and repeated instructions. Handles a basic range of specialist language such as terms similar to those in LI. Quite unable to compensate for errors or distortions.

YARDSTICK 11

Stage IV: Speaking for social and personal purposes

Typical tasks: Speaking to give and obtain information, advice, assistance or service (eg travelling), express opinions, to establish social relationships; making social and personal telephone calls; giving talks/broadcasts of personal interest, etc.

9	Handles all social/personal speech situations in areas of own and related interests with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of social speaking. Social/personal message is completely conveyed with total relevance and effect. Message completely adjusted to listeners' knowledge of topic, context and language. Social/personal texts such as extended, complex or delicate talks, interaction or telephone calls are coherently organised. No undue hesitations. Style completely adjusted to context and purpose. Controls a complete range of social language in own and a broad range of related interests. Little L1 accent and no intrusive errors of usage.
8	Handles a full range of social/personal speech situations with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Social/personal message is fully conveyed, with interest and effect. Message is fully adjusted to listeners' knowledge of topic, context and language. Social/personal texts such as long and detailed talks, interaction or telephone calls are well organised and sustained. Style well adjusted to context and purpose. Fluency is good with few hesitations. Controls a full range of social language in own and related areas of interest. Residual L1 accent and only minor errors of usage.
7	Handles a wide range of social/personal speech situations with good confidence and competence. Social/personal message is clearly conveyed, with interest and effect. Message is well adjusted to listeners' knowledge of topic, context and language. Social/personal texts such as talks, interaction or telephone calls are clearly organised. Occasional lapses in fluency and flexibility, with some uncertainties of appropriacy in style. Controls a wide range of social language in own and related areas of interest. Speech features influenced by L1 and with occasional errors of usage, but these in no way reduce communicative effect.
6	Handles moderate-level social/personal speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level situations. Social/personal message is adequately conveyed. Message is adequately adjusted to listeners' knowledge of topic, context and language. Some restrictions in conversation because of language limitations. Social/personal texts such as talks, interaction and telephone calls are adequately organised but with some lapses in cohesion. Some sense of style suitable to context and purpose. Noticeable lapses in fluency. Controls a good range of social language in areas of general and own particular interests. Marked L1 speech features and noticeable errors of usage, but these rarely affect communication.
5	Handles moderate-level social/personal speech situations with adequate confidence and competence. Social/personal message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Some limitations in initiating conversation and discussion. Message needs repetition and clarification. Social/personal texts such as straightforward talks and discussions are adequately organised. Fairly frequent lapses in style and fluency but these do not interfere with basic communication. Controls a moderate range of social language in areas of general and own particular interests. Fairly frequent errors in usage and obvious L1 speech features impair communication at times.
4	Handles simple social/personal speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level situations. Conveys short, simple social/personal messages but with loss of detail and effect. Frequent need to repeat and rephrase. Restricted participation in freer interaction and telephone conversations. Social/personal text organisation is haphazard and requires frequent repair. Little variation in style or sense of appropriacy to context, purpose or audience. Frequent false starts and hesitations. Controls a limited range of social language relating to own particular needs and interests. Heavy L1 accent and frequent errors of usage impede intelligibility.
3	Handles simple social/personal speech situations with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys the basic social/personal message but with little detail or clarity. Communication breaks down as language constraints interfere with message. Makes basic contributions to conversation or discussion. Little organisation in social/personal texts. Little appreciation of style or appropriacy. Restricted handling of basic facts and opinions. False starts and hesitations impair social communication. Has a narrow range of social language in areas relating to own particular needs or interests. Shortcomings in basic usage and pronunciation cause very frequent problems in social communication.
2	Handles simple social/personal speech situations with erratic confidence and competence. Conveys the shortest, simplest and most factual aspects of the social/personal message, eg times, prices, personal data, name, address, passport and other numbers, etc. At the margins of social communication. Constant need to repeat and rephrase, needing help from sympathetic listener. Social/personal text organisation is restricted to responding to predictable questions and expressing basic factual information. Sympathetic listener is needed to maintain communication. No appreciation of style. Has a very narrow range of social language relating to own particular needs or interests. Shortcomings in basic usage and pronunciation make social communication very limited.
1	Handles only the simplest social/personal speech situations, eg responding to structured questions in familiar situations. Handles these with uncertain confidence and little competence. Any social/personal message is difficult to comprehend. Produces social/personal texts restricted to groups of words or responses to predictable questions. Has a basic range of social language such as international terms similar to those in L1 (eg hotel, airport, etc.). L1 speech features and limited language make social communication difficult to conduct.

YARDSTICK 12

Stage IV: Speaking for business purposes

Typical tasks: Making business telephone calls; speaking at business meetings and conferences; making business presentations; negotiating business agreements; taking part in job interviews, etc.

9	Handles all business speech situations in own and related areas of responsibility with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of business speaking. Business message is completely conveyed with total relevance and effect. Presentation is completely adjusted to listeners' knowledge of topic and language. Business texts such as extended and complex presentations, negotiations or telephone calls are coherently organised. Total control of fluency with no undue hesitations. Style completely adjusted to context. Controls a complete range of business language and specialist terminology in own and a broad range of related fields. Little L1 accent and no intrusive errors of usage.
8	Handles a full range of business speech situations with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Business message is fully conveyed, with interest and effect. Presentation is fully adjusted to listeners' knowledge of topic and language. Business texts such as long and detailed presentations, meetings or telephone calls are well organised and sustained. Style well adjusted to context and purpose. Fluency is good with few hesitations. Controls a full range of business language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Residual L1 accent and only minor errors of usage.
7	Handles a wide range of business speech situations with good confidence and competence. Business message is clearly delivered and with effect. Presentation is well adjusted to listeners' knowledge of topic and language. Business texts such as presentations, meetings and telephone calls are clearly organised. Occasional lapses in fluency and flexibility, with some uncertainties of appropriacy in style. Controls a wide range of business language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Speech features influenced by L1 and with occasional errors of usage, but these in no way reduce communicative effect.
6	Handles moderate-level business speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level situations. Business message is adequately conveyed. Presentation is adequately adjusted to listeners' knowledge of topic and language. Some restrictions in business discussions because of language limitations. Business texts such as meetings, presentations and telephone calls are adequately organised but with some lapses in cohesion. Some sense of style suitable to context and purpose. Noticeable lapses in fluency. Controls a good range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Marked L1 speech features and noticeable errors of usage, but these rarely reduce communicative effect.
5	Handles moderate-level business speech situations with adequate confidence and competence. Business message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Some limitations in initiating and sustaining discussion and negotiation. Presentation needs repetition and clarification. Business texts such as straightforward presentations and discussions adequately organised. Fairly frequent lapses in style and fluency but these do not interfere with basic communication. Controls a moderate range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Fairly frequent errors in usage and obvious L1 speech features impair communication at times.
4	Handles simple business speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level situations. Conveys short, simple business messages but with loss of detail and effect. Frequent need to repeat and rephrase. Restricted participation in freer business discussions and telephone conversations. Business text organisation is haphazard and requires frequent repair. Little variation in style or sense of appropriacy. Frequent false starts and hesitations. Controls a limited range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Heavy L1 accent and frequent errors of usage impede intelligibility.
3	Handles simple business speech situations with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys the basic business message but with little detail or clarity. Communication breaks down as language constraints interfere with message. Makes basic contributions to meetings or discussions. Little organisation in business texts. Little appreciation of style or appropriacy. Restricted to handling basic facts. False starts and hesitations impair communication in business. Has a narrow range of business language and the most common specialist terms in own field. Shortcomings in basic usage and pronunciation cause very frequent problems in conducting business.
2	Handles simple business speech situations with erratic confidence and competence. Conveys the shortest, simplest and most factual aspects of the business message, such as basic arrangements, eg prices, times, dates, places, destinations, names, quantities, etc. At the margins of business communication. Constant false starts, hesitations, repetitions and rephrasing. Business text organisation is restricted to responding to predictable questions and expressing basic factual information. Sympathetic listener is needed to maintain communication. No appreciation of style. Has a very narrow range of business language and a few specialist terms. Shortcomings in basic usage and pronunciation make business in the spoken mode very limited.
1	Handles only the simplest business speech situations, eg responses to structured inquiries requiring factual replies at the word or group-of-word level. Handles these with uncertain confidence and little competence. Any business message is difficult to comprehend. Produces business texts restricted to groups of words or responses to predictable questions. Has a basic range of specialist language such as terms similar to those in L1. L1 speech features and limited language make business in the spoken mode very difficult to conduct or comprehend.

YARDSTICK 13

Stage IV: Speaking for study/training purposes

Typical tasks: Giving a lecture or training presentation; contributing to seminars, discussions, tutorials or training sessions; consultations with supervisors, etc.

9	Handles all study/training speech situations in own and related specialist fields with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of study/training speaking. Study/training message is completely conveyed with total relevance and high interest. Presentation is completely adjusted to students'/trainees' knowledge of topic and language. Full use of visual aids. Study/training texts such as extended and complex lectures and demonstrations are coherently organised. Total control of fluency without any undue hesitations. Style completely adjusted to context. Controls a complete range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and a broad range of related fields. Little L1 accent and no intrusive errors of usage.
8	Handles a full range of study/training speech situations with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Study/training message is fully conveyed, with interesting and attractive treatment. Presentation is fully adjusted to students'/trainees' knowledge of topic and language. Full use of visual aids. Study/training texts such as long and detailed lectures or demonstrations are well organised and sustained. Style well adjusted to context and purpose. Fluency is good with few hesitations. Controls a full range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Residual L1 accent and only minor errors of usage in delivery.
7	Handles a wide range of study/training speech situations with good confidence and competence. Study/training message is clearly delivered and with interest. Presentation is well adjusted to students'/trainees' knowledge of topic and language. Uses a wide range of visual aids. Study/training texts such as lectures, demonstrations and discussions are clearly organised. Occasional lack of fluency and flexibility, with some uncertainties of appropriacy. Controls a wide range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Speech features influenced by L1 and with occasional errors of usage, but these in no way reduce communicative effect of delivery.
6	Handles moderate-level study/training speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some difficulties with high-level situations. Study/training message is adequately conveyed. Basic communication is adequate but some restrictions in discussion because of language limitations. Presentation adequately adjusted to trainees' knowledge. Study/training texts such as lectures, demonstrations and discussions are adequately organised but with some lapses in cohesion. Some sense of academic style. Noticeable lapses in fluency. Controls a good range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Marked L1 speech features and noticeable errors of usage, but these rarely reduce communicative effect.
5	Handles moderate-level study/training speech situations with adequate confidence and competence. Study/training message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Some limitations in initiating and sustaining academic discussion. Presentation needs some clarification. Study/training texts such as straightforward presentations and discussions adequately organised. Fairly frequent lapses in style and fluency but these do not interfere with basic communication. Controls a moderate range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Fairly frequent errors in usage and obvious L1 speech features impair communication at times.
4	Handles simple study/training speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level situations. Conveys short, simple study/training message but with loss of detail and interest. Frequent need to repeat and rephrase. Restricted participation in freer academic discussions. Study/training text organisation is haphazard and requires frequent repair. Little variation in academic style or sense of appropriacy. Frequent false starts and hesitations. Controls a limited range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Heavy L1 accent and frequent errors of usage impede intelligibility.
3	Handles simple study/training speech situations with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys the basic study/training message but with little detail or clarity. Communication breaks down as language constraints interfere with message. Makes basic contributions to academic discussions. Little organisation in study/training texts. Little appreciation of academic style. Restricted to handling basic facts. False starts and hesitations impair communication in study/training contexts. Has a narrow range of academic language and the most common specialist terms in own field. Shortcomings in basic usage and pronunciation cause very frequent problems with training.
2	Handles simple study/training speech situations with erratic confidence and competence. Conveys the shortest, simplest and most factual aspects of the study/training message, such as basic instructions and factual information. At the margins of communication. Constant need for repair. Study/training text organisation is restricted to responding to predictable instructions or expressing basic needs. Sympathetic supervisor is needed to maintain communication. No appreciation of academic style. Has a very narrow range of academic language and a few specialist terms. Shortcomings of basic usage and pronunciation make training in the spoken mode very limited.
1	Handles only the simplest study/training speech situations, eg isolated instructions. Handles these with uncertain confidence and little competence. Any study/training message is difficult to comprehend. Produces study/training texts restricted to groups of words or responses to predictable instructions. Has a basic range of specialist language such as terms similar to those in own L1. L1 speech features and limited language make training in the spoken mode very difficult to conduct or comprehend.

YARDSTICK 14

Stage IV: Reading for social and personal purposes

Typical tasks: Reading private and personal business correspondence, public advertisements, notices and documents, newspapers and magazines, books of fiction and non-fiction, reference sources such as catalogues, dictionaries, etc.

9	Reads all social/personal texts in areas of own and related interests with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of social/personal reading. Extracts the complete message from social/personal texts without undue need for dictionary or re-reading. Skillfully processes and evaluates the content and intent for application or relaying. Easily handles extended and complex texts from social/personal sources read at high speed. Reading strategies comparable with those in mother tongue. Handles a complete range of social language in own and a broad range of related interests. Compensates easily for misprints and errors in texts of a social/personal nature.
8	Reads a full range of social/personal texts with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Extracts the full message from social/personal texts with only occasional loss of detail or subtlety or need for repair. Uses a full range of techniques to evaluate, apply or relay the content and intent. Flexibly adjusts reading speeds and strategies to long and detailed social/personal texts written in a full range of styles. Handles a full range of social language in own and all related areas of interest. Compensates fully for misprints and errors in texts of a social/personal nature.
7	Reads a wide range of social/personal texts with good confidence and competence. Extracts the majority of the message from social/personal texts with only minor loss of detail or subtlety, and with little need for repair. Uses a wide range of techniques to evaluate, apply or relay the content and intent of the message. Strategies widely effective for reading social/personal texts at normal speed, but less flexible than in own mother tongue. Handles a wide range of social language in own and related areas of interest. Little difficulty in compensating for misprints or errors in texts of a social/personal nature.
6	Reads moderate-level social/personal texts with good confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level texts, especially if opportunities to reread or refer to a dictionary are restricted. Extracts most of the message from social/personal texts, but with noticeable loss of subtlety and detail. Some need for repair. Uses a good range of techniques to apply or relay the content and intent. Uses flexible strategies and good reading speed for social/personal texts, but with some problems of initial adjustment to style or organisation. Handles a good range of social language in areas of general and own particular interests. Usually manages to compensate for misprints or errors in texts of a social/personal nature.
5	Reads moderate-level social/personal texts with adequate confidence and competence. Extracts the major points of the message from social/personal texts but with frequent loss of detail and subtlety, and frequent need for repair. Uses a fair range of techniques to apply or relay the message. Reads straightforward social/personal texts in areas of own interests and needs at normal speed. Handles a moderate range of social language in areas of general and own particular interests. Sometimes manages to compensate for misprints or errors in texts of a social/personal nature.
4	Reads simple social/personal texts with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level texts, especially if opportunities to re-read or refer to a dictionary are restricted. Extracts the broad outline of the message from social/personal texts but with great loss of detail and little concept of subtlety. Uses a limited range of techniques to apply or relay the content and intent. Limited ability to read social/personal texts in areas of own interests or needs. Reading speed and flexibility restricted by frequent need to re-read or refer to a dictionary. Handles a limited range of social language relating to own particular needs or interests. Occasionally manages to compensate for misprints or errors in texts of a social/personal nature.
3	Reads simple social/personal texts with adequate confidence and competence, but many difficulties with moderate-level texts, especially if opportunities to re-read or refer to a dictionary are restricted. Comprehends the gist of the message of social/personal texts but with little detail; alternatively, extracts needed or predicted items of isolated information. Takes patchy notes probably in L1). Greatly limited ability to read social/personal texts; reads slowly. Requires constant opportunities to re-read or refer to a dictionary. Handles a narrow range of social language relating to own particular needs or interests. Unlikely to compensate for misprints or errors in texts of a social/personal nature.
2	Reads simple social/personal texts with erratic confidence and competence. Comprehends isolated points of the message of social/personal texts and can identify the topic under discussion. Further comprehension depends on L1 or visual support. Takes note of basic factual or numerical information, eg prices, times, dates, sizes, temperatures, etc. Mostly reads very brief social/personal texts. Reads very slowly, constantly re-reading or referring to a dictionary. Handles a very narrow range of social language in areas of immediate needs or interests. Unable to compensate for misprints or errors in texts of a social/personal nature.
1	Reads the simplest and briefest social/personal texts such as public notices, signs, telephone directories, etc. Reads with uncertain confidence and competence. Identifies the topic or basic message of a social/personal text. Further comprehension requires translation or accompanying visuals. Ability to apply or relay message limited by level of comprehension. Reads the briefest social/personal texts such as traffic signs or door notices below sentence level. Reads extremely slowly. Handles a basic range of social language such as international terms similar to those in L1 (eg taxi, telephone, etc.). Unlikely to recognise misprints or errors in texts of a social/personal nature.

YARDSTICK 15

Stage IV: Reading for business purposes

Typical tasks: Reading internal and external business correspondence, publicity and marketing documents, reports and manuals, business journals and press releases, reference sources such as handbooks, catalogues, etc., abbreviated documents such as cables and telexes, standard proformas, records, etc.

9	Reads all business texts in areas of own and related areas of responsibility with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of business reading. Extracts the complete message from a business document without undue need for re-reading or a dictionary. Uses a comprehensive range of techniques to store or relay the message for later business application. Easily handles extended and complex business texts read at high speed. Reading strategies comparable with those in own mother tongue. Handles a complete range of business language and specialist terminology in own and a broad range of related fields. Compensates easily for misprints and errors in business texts.
8	Reads a full range of business texts with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Extracts the full message from business texts with only occasional loss of detail and subtlety, or need for repair. Uses a full range of techniques to store or relay the message for business application. Flexibly adjusts reading speeds and strategies to long and detailed business texts written in a full range of styles. Handles a full range of business language and specialist terminology in own and all related fields. Compensates fully for misprints and errors in business texts.
7	Reads a wide range of business texts with good confidence and competence. Extracts the majority of the message from business documents with only minor loss of detail or subtlety, and with little need for repair. Uses a wide range of techniques to store or relay the message for later business application. Strategies widely effective for reading business texts at normal speed, but less flexible than in own mother tongue. Handles a wide range of business language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Little difficulty in compensating for misprints and errors in business texts.
6	Reads moderate-level business texts with good confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level texts, especially when opportunities to re-read or refer to a dictionary are limited. Extracts most of the message from business documents but with noticeable loss of detail and subtlety. Some need for repair. Uses a good range of techniques to store or relay the message for application. Uses flexible strategies and good reading speed for business texts, but some problems of initial adjustment to style or organisation. Handles a good range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Usually manages to compensate for misprints and errors in business texts.
5	Reads moderate-level business texts with adequate confidence and competence. Extracts the major points of the message from business documents but with frequent loss of detail and subtlety, and frequent need for repair. Uses a fair range of techniques to store or relay the message for later business application. Reads straightforward business texts in own field at normal speed. Handles a moderate range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Sometimes manages to compensate for misprints and errors in business texts.
4	Reads simple business texts with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level texts, especially when opportunities to re-read or refer to a dictionary are restricted. Extracts the broad outline of the message from business documents, but with great loss of detail and subtlety. Uses a limited range of techniques to store or relay the message for later business application. Limited ability to read business texts in own field. Reading speed and flexibility restricted by frequent need to re-read or refer to a dictionary. Handles a limited range of business language and specialist terminology relating directly to own field. Occasionally manages to compensate for misprints and errors in business texts.
3	Reads simple business texts with adequate confidence and competence, but many difficulties with moderate-level texts, especially when opportunities to re-read or refer to a dictionary are restricted. Comprehends the gist of the message of business documents but with little detail; alternatively, extracts needed or predicted items. Takes brief notes (probably in L1) but with missing information. Greatly limited ability to handle business texts; reads slowly. Requires constant opportunities to re-read or refer to a dictionary. Handles a narrow range of business language and the most common specialist terms in own field. Unlikely to compensate for misprints or errors in business texts.
2	Reads simple and routine business texts with erratic confidence and competence. Comprehends isolated points of the message of business texts and can identify the topic under discussion. Further comprehension depends on L1 or visual support. Takes notes of basic factual or numerical information, eg prices, quantities, delivery dates, destinations, times of despatch or arrival, etc. Mostly reads very brief business texts and routine forms. Reads very slowly, constantly re-reading and referring to a dictionary. Handles a very narrow range of business language and a few specialist terms. Unable to compensate for misprints or errors in business texts.
1	Reads the simplest, briefest and most routine business texts such as addresses, warning signs or headings and data on standard forms. Reads with uncertain confidence and competence. Identifies the topic or basic message of a business document and extracts isolated information from standard forms. Further comprehension requires translation or accompanying visuals. Ability to apply or relay message limited by level of comprehension. Reads the most basic business texts, usually below sentence level. Reads extremely slowly. Handles a basic range of business language such as terms similar to those in L1. Unlikely to recognise misprints or errors in business texts.

YARDSTICK 16

Stage 1V: Reading for study/training purposes

Typical tasks: Reading academic textbooks, papers and journals, workshop and instruction manuals, institutional regulations and guidance, etc.

9	Reads all study/training texts in own and related fields with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of study reading. Extracts the complete message from study/training texts without undue need for repair. Uses a comprehensive range of note-taking and retrieval techniques for later study applications. Easily handles extended and complex study/training texts read at high speed. Academic reading strategies comparable with those in own mother tongue. Handles a complete range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and a broad range of related fields. Compensates easily for misprints and errors in study/training texts.
8	Reads a full range of study/training texts with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Extracts the full message from study/training texts with only occasional loss of detail or subtlety. Uses a full range of note-taking and retrieval techniques for later study applications. flexibly adjusts reading speeds and strategies to long and detailed study/training texts written in a full range of styles. Handles a full range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and related specialist fields. Fully compensates for misprints and errors in study/training texts.
7	Reads a wide range of study/training texts with good confidence and competence. Extracts the majority of the message from study/training texts with only minor loss of detail and subtlety, and with little need for repair. Uses a wide range of note-taking and retrieval techniques. Strategies widely effective for reading study/training texts read at normal speed, but less flexible than those in own mother tongue. Handles a wide range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Little difficulty in compensating for misprints or errors in study/training texts.
6	Reads moderate-level study/training texts with good confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level texts, especially if opportunities to reread or refer to a dictionary are limited. Extracts most of the message from study/training texts but with noticeable loss of detail and subtlety. Some need for repair. Uses a good range of note-taking and retrieval techniques for later application. Uses flexible strategies and good reading speed for study/training texts, but some problems with initial adjustment to style or organisation. Handles a good range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Usually manages to compensate for misprints and errors in study/training texts.
5	Reads moderate-level study/training texts with adequate confidence and competence. Extracts the major points of the message from study/training texts but with frequent loss of detail and subtlety, and frequent need for repair. Uses a fair range of note-taking and retrieval techniques for later study application. Reads straightforward study/training texts in own field at normal speed. Handles a moderate range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Occasionally manages to compensate for misprints or errors in study/training texts.
4	Reads simple study/training texts with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level texts, especially when opportunities to re-read or refer to a dictionary are restricted. Extracts the broad outline of the message from study/training texts, but with great loss of detail and subtlety. Uses a limited range of note-taking techniques for later study applications. Limited ability to read study/training texts in own field. Reading speed and flexibility limited by frequent need to re-read and refer to a dictionary. Handles a limited range of academic language and specialist terminology relating directly to own field. Occasionally manages to compensate for misprints or errors in study/training texts.
3	Reads simple study/training texts with adequate confidence and competence, but many difficulties with moderate-level texts, especially when opportunities to reread or refer to a dictionary are restricted. Comprehends the gist of the message of study/training texts but with little detail; alternatively, extracts needed or predicted items. Takes brief notes (probably in L1) but with missing information. Greatly limited ability to handle study/training texts; reads slowly. Requires constant opportunities to re-read or refer to a dictionary. Handles a narrow range of academic language and the most common specialist terms in own field. Unlikely to manage to compensate for misprints or errors in study/training texts.
2	Reads simple study/training texts with erratic confidence and competence. Comprehends isolated points of the message of study/training texts and can identify the topic under discussion. Further comprehension depends on L1 abstract, visual aids or an accompanying demonstration. Takes brief notes on basic factual or numerical information, eg formulae, dates, references, etc. Mostly reads very brief study/training texts. Reads very slowly, constantly re-reading and referring to a dictionary. Handles a very narrow range of academic language and a few specialist terms. Unable to compensate for misprints and errors in study/training texts.
1	Reads the simplest and briefest study/training texts, such as isolated instructions. Handles them with little confidence and uncertain competence, especially if opportunities for repair are limited. Identifies the topic or basic message of training texts or instructions. Further comprehension requires translation, accompanying visuals or demonstrations. Note-taking restricted by level of comprehension. Handles the briefest training texts, such as isolated instructions below sentence level. Reads extremely slowly. Handles a basic range of specialist language such as terms similar to those in L1. Unlikely to recognise misprints or errors in study/training texts.

YARDSTICK 17

Stage IV: Writing for social and personal purposes

Typical tasks: Writing private and personal correspondence; articles and stories; completing standard forms and documents (eg when travelling); writing abbreviated messages such as notes and cables, etc.

9	Writes all social/personal texts in areas of own and related interests with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of social/personal writing. Social/personal message is completely conveyed with total relevance and high interest. Writing is completely adjusted to reader's interests and knowledge of the language. Social/personal texts such as extended and complex letters or articles are well organised and sustained. Writes at high speed. Style and layout completely appropriate to context and purpose. Controls a complete range of social language in own and a broad range of related interests. Complete accuracy of usage and spelling apart from occasional 'slips'.
8	Writes a full range of social/personal texts with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Social/personal message is fully conveyed with interesting and attractive treatment. Writing is fully adjusted to reader's interests and knowledge of the language. Social/personal texts such as long and detailed letters or articles are well organised and sustained. Writes at speed. Style fully appropriate to context and purpose. Controls a full range of social language in own and related areas of interest. Only minor errors and 'slips' of usage and spelling.
7	Writes a wide range of social/personal texts with confidence and competence. Social/personal message is clearly conveyed and with interest. Writing is well adjusted to reader's interests and knowledge of the language. Social/personal texts such as letters or articles are clearly organised. Occasional lack of fluency or flexibility. Occasional uncertainties over appropriate style. Controls a wide range of social language in own and related areas of interest. Occasional errors of usage and spelling, but these do not reduce communicative effect.
6	Writes moderate-level social/personal texts with good confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level texts. Basic ideas of social/personal message are adequately conveyed but with noticeable loss of subtlety. Writing is adequately adjusted to reader's interests and knowledge of the language. Social/personal texts such as letters or articles are adequately organised but with some lapses in cohesion. Some sense of appropriate style. Writing often lacks fluency. Controls a good range of social language in areas of general and own particular interests. Noticeable errors of usage and spelling but these do not reduce communicative effect.
5	Writes moderate-level social/personal texts with adequate confidence and competence. Social/personal message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Thread of message may not always be clear and reader may have to backtrack to clarify. Social/personal texts such as straightforward letters or short articles are adequately organised. Fairly frequent lapses in style and fluency but these do not interfere with communication of basic ideas. Controls a moderate range of social language in areas of general and own particular needs. Fairly frequent errors in usage and spelling impair communication at times.
4	Writes simple social/personal texts with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level texts. Conveys short social/personal messages but with loss of detail and subtlety. Lack of clarity requires reader to backtrack frequently. Marginally communicative as a social/personal writer. Social/personal text organisation is haphazard. Little variation in style or sense of appropriacy to context or purpose. Frequent lapses of fluency when writing. Controls a limited range of social language relating to own particular needs and interests. Frequent errors of usage and spelling impede clarity of message.
3	Writes simple social/personal texts with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate level texts. Conveys basic social/personal message but with little detail or clarity. Communication breaks down as language limitations interfere with message. Little sense of reader's expectations. Little organisation of social/personal texts. Little appreciation of style. Restricted to handling basic facts in short paragraphs. Basic punctuation. Has a narrow range of social language in areas relating to own particular needs or interests. Regular inaccuracies in basic usage and spelling cause very frequent problems.
2	Writes simple social/personal texts with erratic confidence and competence. Conveys the shortest, simplest and most factual aspects of the social/personal message. Little or no detail or amplification. Writes very slowly, constantly rewriting and referring to a dictionary. Social/personal text organisation is restricted to sentence level responses to headings or questions in questionnaires or forms. No appreciation of style. Erratic punctuation. Has a very narrow range of social language relating to own particular needs or interests. Many inaccuracies in basic usage make social/personal communication in the written mode very limited.
1	Writes the simplest social/personal texts, eg completing forms or documents with personal or travel details, or factual or numerical data, mostly at the word level. Handles these with uncertain confidence and little competence. Any social/personal message is very difficult to construct or comprehend. Produces social/personal texts restricted to words or groups of words in response to predictable headings or questions. Has a basic range of social language such as international terms similar to those in LI (eg hotel, airport, etc.). Linguistic restrictions, spelling and handwriting make any writing difficult to comprehend.

YARDSTICK 18

Stage IV: Writing for business purposes

Typical tasks: Writing internal and external business correspondence, publicity and marketing documents, reports and manuals, business articles and press releases, abbreviated documents such as cables and telexes, standard proformas and records, etc.

9	Writes all business texts in own and related areas of responsibility with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of business writing. Business message is completely conveyed with total relevance and high interest. Writing is completely adjusted to readers' knowledge of topic and language. Full use of supporting visual devices. Business texts such as extended and complex reports are coherently organised. Writes at high speed. Style and display conventions completely appropriate for context and purpose. Controls a complete range of business language and specialist terminology in own and a broad range of fields. Complete accuracy of usage and spelling apart from occasional 'slips'.
8	Writes a full range of business texts with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Business message is fully conveyed with interesting and attractive treatment. Writing is fully adjusted to readers' knowledge of topic and language. Full use of supporting visual devices. Business texts such as long and detailed reports and manuals are well organised and sustained. Writes at speed. Style and display conventions fully appropriate to context and purpose. Controls a full range of business language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Only minor errors and 'slips' of usage and spelling.
7	Writes a wide range of business texts with good confidence and competence. Business message is clearly conveyed and with interest. Writing is well adjusted to readers' knowledge of topic and language. Uses a wide range of supporting visual devices. Business texts such as reports, letters or manuals are clearly organised. Occasional lack of fluency or flexibility. Occasional uncertainties over appropriate style or business display conventions. Controls a wide range of business language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Occasional errors of usage and spelling, but these do not reduce communicative effect.
6	Writes moderate-level business texts with good confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level texts. Basic ideas of business message are adequately conveyed but with noticeable loss of subtlety. Writing is adequately adjusted to readers' knowledge of topic and language. Good use of supporting visuals. Business texts such as reports, letters or manuals are adequately organised but with some lapses in cohesion. Some sense of appropriate style. Writing often lacks fluency. Controls a good range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Noticeable errors of usage and spelling but these do not reduce communicative effect.
5	Writes moderate-level business texts with adequate confidence and competence. Business message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Thread of message may not always be clear and reader may have to backtrack to clarify. Some use of visuals. Business texts such as straightforward letters and short reports are adequately organised. Fairly frequent lapses in style and fluency but these do not interfere with communication of basic ideas. Controls a moderate range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Fairly frequent errors in usage and spelling impair communication at times.
4	Writes simple business texts with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level texts. Conveys short business messages but with loss of detail and subtlety. Lack of clarity requires reader to backtrack frequently. Marginally communicative as a business writer. Business text organisation is haphazard. Little variation in business style or sense of appropriacy to context or audience. Frequent lapses of fluency when writing. Controls a limited range of business language and specialist terminology in own field. Frequent errors in usage and spelling impede clarity of message.
3	Writes simple business texts with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level texts. Conveys the basic business message but with little detail or clarity. Communication breaks down as language limitations interfere with message. Little sense of readers' expectations. Little organisation of business texts. Little appreciation of business style or display conventions. Restricted to handling basic facts in short paragraphs. Basic punctuation. Has a narrow range of business language and the most common specialist terms in own fields. Regular inaccuracies in basic usage and spelling cause very frequent problems with business in the written mode.
2	Writes simple business texts with erratic confidence and competence. Conveys the shortest, simplest and most factual aspects of the business message. Little or no detail or amplification. Writes very slowly, constantly rewriting and referring to a dictionary. Business text organisation is restricted to sentence-level responses to headings or questions in proformas etc. No appreciation of business style. Erratic punctuation and display. Has a very narrow range of business language with a few specialist terms. Many inaccuracies in basic usage and spelling make business in the written mode very limited.
1	Writes the simplest business texts, eg completing forms and proformas with personal or company details, or factual or numerical data, mostly at the word level. Handles these with uncertain confidence and little competence. Any business message is very difficult to construct or comprehend. Produces business texts restricted to words or groups of words in response to predictable headings or questions. Has a basic range of specialist language such as terms similar to those in L1. Linguistic restrictions, spelling and handwriting make business texts very difficult to construct or comprehend.

YARDSTICK 19

Stage IV: Writing for study/training purposes

Typical tasks: Writing academic essays, papers, articles, etc, writing workshop and instruction manuals; completing instruction sheets, workshop or laboratory worksheets, etc.

9	Writes all study/training texts in own and related specialist fields with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of study/training writing. Study/training message is completely conveyed with total relevance and high interest. Writing is completely adjusted to students'/trainees' knowledge of topic and language. Full use of visuals. Study/training texts such as extended and complex papers or manuals are coherently organised. Writes at high speed. Style and academic conventions completely appropriate to context and purpose. Controls a complete range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and a broad range of fields. Complete accuracy of usage apart from occasional 'slips'.
8	Writes a full range of study/training texts with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Study/training message is fully conveyed with interesting and attractive treatment. Writing is fully adjusted to students'/trainees' knowledge of topic and language. Full use of visual devices. Study/training texts such as long and detailed papers and manuals are well organised and sustained. Writes at speed. Style and academic conventions fully appropriate to context and purpose. Controls a full range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and related fields.
7	Writes a wide range of study/training texts with good confidence and competence. Study/training message is clearly conveyed and with interest. Writing is well adjusted to students'/trainees' knowledge of topic and language. Uses a wide range of supporting visual devices. Study/training texts such as papers or manuals are clearly organised. Occasional lack of fluency and flexibility. Occasional uncertainties over appropriate style or academic conventions. Controls a wide range of academic language and specialist terminology in own and related fields. Occasional errors of usage and spelling, but these do not reduce communicative effect.
6	Writes moderate-level study/training texts with good confidence and competence, but some difficulties with higher-level texts. Basic ideas of study/training message are adequately conveyed but with noticeable loss of subtlety. Writing is adequately adjusted to students'/trainees' knowledge of topic and language. Study/training texts such as papers and manuals are adequately organised but with some lapses in cohesion. Some sense of academic style appropriate to context and purpose. Writing often lacks fluency. Controls a good range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Noticeable errors of usage and spelling but these rarely reduce communicative effect.
5	Writes moderate-level study/training texts with adequate confidence and competence. Study/training message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Thread of argument may not always be clear and reader may have to backtrack to clarify. Study/training texts such as straightforward papers and manuals adequately organised. Fairly frequent lapses in style and fluency but these do not interfere with communication of basic ideas. Controls a moderate range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Fairly frequent errors in usage and spelling impair communication at times.
4	Writes simple study/training texts with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level texts. Conveys short study/training message but with loss of detail and subtlety. Lack of clarity requires reader to backtrack frequently. Marginally communicative as an academic writer. Study/training text organisation is haphazard. Little variation in academic style or sense of appropriacy to context or audience. Frequent lapses in fluency when writing. Controls a limited range of academic language and specialist terminology in own field. Frequent errors in usage and spelling impede clarity of message.
3	Writes simple study/training texts with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level texts. Conveys the basic study/training message but with little detail or clarity. Communication breaks down as language constraints interfere with message. Little sense of student/trainee/trainer expectations. Little organisation of study/training texts. Little appreciation of academic style. Restricted to handling basic facts in short paragraphs or worksheet responses. Basic punctuation and layout. Has a narrow range of academic language and the most common specialist terms in own field. Regular inaccuracies in basic usage and spelling cause very frequent problems with training in written mode.
2	Writes simple study/training texts with erratic confidence and competence. Conveys the shortest, simplest and most factual aspects of the study/training message. Little or no detail or amplification. Writes very slowly, constantly rewriting and referring to a dictionary. Study/training text organisation is restricted to sentence-level responses to headings or questions on worksheets, etc. No appreciation of academic style. Erratic punctuation and layout. Has a very narrow range of academic language with a few specialist terms. Many inaccuracies in basic usage make training in the written mode very limited.
1	Writes the simplest study/training texts, eg completing forms or worksheets with personal details, or factual or numerical data, mostly at the word level. Handles these with uncertain confidence and little competence. Any study/training message is very difficult to construct or comprehend. Produces study/training texts restricted to words or groups of words in response to predictable headings, questions or instructions. Has a basic range of specialist language such as terms similar to those in LI. Linguistic restrictions, spelling and handwriting make training texts very difficult to construct or comprehend.

YARDSTICK 20
Stage V: Linguistic skills

Mastery of grammar, vocabulary, style and textual cohesion

9	Applies a complete range of linguistic skills with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of linguistic skill. Message presentation is completely adjusted to audience's knowledge of the language. No undue need for language repair. Text is coherently organised with a complete mastery of cohesive devices. Uses a complete range of styles totally appropriate to context and purpose. Has a complete range of language structures and vocabulary. Applies a complete command of linguistic accuracy to communication and examination tasks.
8	Applies a full range of linguistic skills with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Presentation of message is fully adjusted to audience's knowledge of the language. Only occasional need for language repair. Text is organised with full coherence and a full range of cohesive devices. Uses a full range of styles appropriate to context and purpose. Has a full range of language structures and vocabulary. Applies a full command of linguistic accuracy to communication and examination tasks.
7	Applies a wide range of linguistic skills with good confidence and competence. Presentation of message is well adjusted to audience's knowledge of the language. Little need for repair. Text is well organised with a wide range of cohesive devices. Uses a good range of styles appropriate to context and purpose. Has a wide range of language structures and vocabulary. Applies a very good grasp of accuracy to communication and examination tasks.
6	Applies linguistic skills to moderate-level tasks with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level tasks. Presentation of message is adequately adjusted to audience's knowledge of the language. Some need for language repair. Text is adequately organised with a good range of cohesive devices. Uses a fair range of styles and some uncertainties over appropriacy. Has a good range of language structures and vocabulary. Applies a good grasp of accuracy to communication and examination tasks.
5	Applies linguistic skills to moderate-level tasks with adequate confidence and competence. Presentation of basic message is adequately adjusted to audience's knowledge of the language. Fairly frequent language lapses necessitate repair to capture detail and subtlety. Basic organisation of text is adequate, with a moderate range of cohesive devices. Uses a moderate range of styles but lapses of appropriacy are fairly frequent. Has a moderate range of language structures and vocabulary. Applies a moderate grasp of accuracy to communication and examination tasks.
4	Applies linguistic skills to simple tasks with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level tasks. Message is exchanged using a limited language repertoire. Lacks the resources to adjust presentation to audience's knowledge of the language. Frequent need for repair to clarify detail. Text organisation is haphazard with a limited range of cohesive devices. Little capacity for stylistic variation or appropriacy. Has a limited range of language structures and vocabulary. Applies a limited grasp of accuracy to communication and examination tasks.
3	Applies linguistic skills to simple tasks with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level tasks. Language limitations interfere with the message; constant need for language repair in order to exchange message. Has little appreciation of text organisation and a narrow range of cohesive devices. Little appreciation of stylistic variation or appropriacy. Has a narrow range of language structures and vocabulary. Applies a basic level of linguistic accuracy to communication and examination tasks.
2	Applies linguistic skills to simple tasks with erratic confidence and competence. Message is exchanged through constant negotiation and repair of the language. Text organisation is restricted to sequencing and the most basic cohesive devices. No appreciation of stylistic variation or appropriacy. Has a very narrow range of language structure and vocabulary. Has little grasp of accuracy to apply to communication or examination tasks.
1	Applies linguistic skills to the simplest tasks with uncertain confidence and little competence. Message is difficult to exchange because of language limitations. Constant and repeated negotiation and repair essential. Text organisation is limited to the structure of the interaction or the layout of the input text. No use of cohesive devices apart from simple co-ordination. No grasp of style or appropriacy. Has a basic range of language structure and vocabulary. Has no grasp of linguistic accuracy to apply to communication or examination tasks.

YARDSTICK 21

Stage V: Functional skills

Size of functional repertoire; range and subtlety of realisations; sequencing of functions to create text coherence; selection of functions appropriate to style, context and purpose; application of functions to carry out tasks through language - eg conveying ideas, influencing others, establishing interpersonal relationships, extending knowledge, imaginative expression, etc.

9	Applies a complete range of functional skills with confidence and competence similar to those in own mother tongue. An exceptional level of functional skill. Extracts and conveys message by selecting functions and realisations completely adjusted to purpose. No undue need for repair to clarify the speaker's/writer's communicative intention. Sequences functions to produce a completely coherent text. Functional realisations are completely appropriate to context and purpose. Selects from a complete range of language functions and realisations. Applies these with complete accuracy.
8	Applies a full range of functional skills with confidence and competence which approach those in own mother tongue. Extracts and conveys message by selecting functions and realisations fully adjusted to purpose. Occasional need for repair to clarify the speaker's/writer's communicative intention. Sequences functions to produce a fully coherent text. Functional realisations are fully appropriate to context and purpose. Selects from a full range of language functions and realisations. Applies these with full accuracy.
7	Applies a wide range of functional skills with good confidence and competence. Extracts and conveys the message by selecting functions and realisations well adjusted to purpose. Little need for repair to clarify speaker's/writer's communicative intention. Sequences functions to produce a text with very good coherence. Functional realisations are appropriate to context and purpose. Selects from a wide range of language functions and realisations. Applies these with very good accuracy.
6	Applies functional skills with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level tasks. Extracts and conveys message by selecting functions and realisations adequately adjusted to purpose. Some need for repair to clarify speaker's/writer's communicative intention. Sequences functions to produce a text with adequate coherence. Some uncertainty when selecting realisations which are appropriate to context and purpose. Selects from a good range of language functions and realisations. Applies these with good accuracy.
5	Applies functional skills to moderate-level tasks with adequate confidence and competence. Extracts and conveys the message by selecting functions basically adjusted to purpose. Fairly frequent need for repair to clarify speaker's/writer's communicative intention. Sequences functions to produce a text with basic coherence. Fairly frequent uncertainties and lapses when selecting realisations which are appropriate to context and purpose. Selects from a moderate range of language functions and realisations. Applies these with moderate grasp of accuracy.
4	Applies functional skills to simple tasks with good confidence and competence, but some limitations on moderate-level tasks. Extracts and conveys the message by selecting from a limited range of functions and realisations. Frequent need for repair to clarify or establish speaker's/writer's communicative intention. Sequences functions to produce a text with inconsistent coherence. Frequent lapses when selecting realisations which are appropriate to context and purpose. Has a limited range of language functions and realisations. Applies these with a limited grasp of accuracy.
3	Applies functional skills to simple tasks with adequate confidence and competence but many problems with moderate-level tasks. Limitations of functional range restrict message to extracting and conveying simple practical needs. Constant need for repair to clarify or establish speaker's/writer's communicative intention. Arranges functions to produce a text with linear sequence, eg simple narrative or question-answer. Lacks the functional range to select realisations appropriate to context. Has a narrow range of language functions and few realisations for each function. Applies these with a basic grasp of accuracy.
2	Applies functional skills to simple tasks with erratic confidence and competence. Functional range restricts message to extracting and conveying basic needs. Constant negotiation and repair needed to clarify or establish speaker's/writer's communicative intention. Arranges functions to produce a text with simple sequence. Has no appreciation of functional appropriacy when selecting realisations. Has a very narrow range of language functions and unlikely to have more than a single realisation of each function. Applies these with little grasp of accuracy.
1	Applies functional skills to the simplest tasks with uncertain confidence and little competence. Message is difficult to exchange because of functional limitations. Constant and repeated repair is needed to establish speaker's/writer's communicative intention. Text has no coherence beyond that established by the functional sequencing of the interaction (eg greet-response, question-answer). Functional realisations have little appropriacy to context or purpose. Has a basic range of language functions and a single realisation for each function. Applies these with no grasp of accuracy.

YARDSTICK 22

Stage V: Examination skills

9	Applies examination skills to enhance performance on 'difficult' or high-level tasks.	<p>A difficult or high-level task displays some or all of these features:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • format - unfamiliar or unpredictable • tasks and rubrics many and/or long items (proportional to time) • constraints - few or no opportunities for repair • stimulus and response requirement - to extract or convey the communicative intent of an extended and complex message • to produce or react to a long and detailed text with a full range of stylistic variations • to produce or comprehend a wide range of language handled with a high degree of accuracy.
8	Applies examination skills to achieve criterion-level performance on 'difficult' tasks.	
7	Applies examination skills at below expected level on 'difficult' tasks.	
6	Applies examination skills to enhance performance on 'moderate' tasks.	<p>A moderate task displays some or all of these features:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • format - unfamiliar but predictable or easily comprehended • tasks and rubrics - items of intermediate number and/or length (proportional to time) • constraints - some opportunities for repair • stimulus and response - requirement to extract or convey the communicative intent of a straightforward message • to produce or react to a straightforward text with a moderate range of stylistic variations • to produce or comprehend a moderate range of language handled with a fair degree of accuracy.
5	Applies examination skills to achieve criterion-level performance on 'moderate' tasks.	
4	Applies examination skills at below expected level on 'moderate' tasks.	
3	Applies examination skills to enhance performance on 'simple' tasks.	<p>A simple task displays some or all of these features:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • format - familiar and predictable • tasks and rubrics - few and/or short items (proportional to time) • constraints - ample opportunities for repair • stimulus and response - requirement to extract or convey the communicative intent of a simple or basic message; alternatively, no requirement to extract or convey a message • to produce or react to a simple text with a narrow range of stylistic variations • to produce or comprehend a narrow range of language handled with a good degree of accuracy, or a broader range with a lesser degree of accuracy.
2	Applies examination skills to achieve criterion-level performance on 'simple' tasks.	
1	Applies examination skills at below expected level on 'simple' tasks.	

APPENDIX E. ELT Teacher Education Curriculum (old)

Preparatory

First Semester

English Grammar
Reading Skills
Spoken English
English Composition
Study Skills

Second Semester

English Grammar
Reading Skills
Spoken English
English Composition
Study Skills

First Year

First Semester

English Grammar
Reading Skills
Spoken English
English Composition
Translation
Introduction to Education (Turkish)
Turkish Language (Turkish)
Principles of Atatürk (Turkish)
Physical Education & Art Sciences (Turkish)

Second Semester

English Grammar
Reading Skills
Spoken English
English Composition
Translation
Educational Psychology (Turkish)
Turkish Language (Turkish)
Principles of Atatürk (Turkish)
Physical Education & Art Sciences (Turkish)

Second Year

Third Semester

English Grammar
Reading Skills
Spoken English
Linguistics
Translation
Introduction to literature
Guidance and Mental Health (Turkish)

Fourth Semester

English Grammar
Reading Skills
Spoken English
Linguistics
Translation
Introduction to literature
Research Techniques

Third year

Fifth Semester

Reading skills
Methods and Techniques in ELT
Spoken English
Translation
History of Literature
Educational Sociology (Turkish)
Management in Education (Turkish)

Sixth Semester

Reading Skills
Methods and Techniques in ELT
Writing Skills
Translation
History of Literature
Assessment and Evaluation

Fourth Year

Seventh Semester

Reading Skills
Methods and Techniques in ELT
Materials Selection and Evaluation
Translation
History of Literature
Criticism
General teaching Methodology in Education

Eight Semester

Reading Skills
Methods and Techniques in ELT
Materials Selection and Evaluation
Translation
History of Literature
Criticism
Practice Teaching (Practicum)

APPENDIX F. Aims of the Courses in ELT Teacher Training Departments (Old)

Grammar

The aim of the course is to teach students the basic grammatical structures of English as they are used in appropriate communication situations and to make them aware of the fact that there is no one-to-one correspondence between form and meaning since different grammatical structures can be used to convey a particular meaning.

Reading Comprehension (Prose Evaluation)

The aim of the course is to expose students to original texts of various kinds in the target language in order for them to get pleasure and appreciate them. At the same time, it is also aimed that the students should have the opportunity to appreciate the mode of thought, writing, purpose, and style of the text writer.

Conversation

The aim of the course is to teach students to speak English intelligibly and at a normal speed, to be able to understand spoken English, and to decode the social and linguistic context of oral discourse correctly. They should also be able to use the patterns of spoken English correctly and discriminate between formal and informal use of English.

Writing

The aim of the course is to make students familiar with the writing exercises of increasing difficulty at sentence and paragraph levels both in the class and at home. They should have a clear idea of the concepts such as writing the topic sentence, capitalisation, punctuation, and transition exercises.

Lexicology

The aim of the course is to expose the students to the vocabulary of English as an overall system. A comparison between Turkish and English vocabulary items will be made with a special reference to false and true cognates to facilitate learning process with the assumption that learning a foreign language is largely a matter of learning the terms of that language.

Translation

The aim of the course is to help students develop translation skills. Texts in the native language will be translated into the target language.

Translation for Specific Purposes

The aim of this course is to help students develop the necessary linguistic ability to express in Turkish the knowledge they gain in their field of specialty in English.

Language for specific purposes

The aim of the course is to help students to gain the skill in translating texts in various fields, to learn specific terminology and to translate from the target language into the native language and from native language into the target language with the introduction of technical materials graded on the basis of difficulty.

Linguistics

The aim of the course is to teach students the main branches of linguistics such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics, and help them gain insights into language.

Structure of English

The aim of the course is to familiarise students with the ways and means of analysing English language phonologically, morphologically and syntactically. Another aim of the course is to equip students with linguistic terminology and techniques of the synchronic description of languages.

Applied Linguistics

The aim of the course is to teach students the importance of phonology, morphology, syntax as sub-branches of theoretical linguistics and how they are used in language teaching. Furthermore, it is equally important that the branches of applied linguistics such as psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics be studied as they are used in the teaching of foreign languages.

Semantics

The aim of the course is to study language in a semantic perspective and in terms of phonology, morphology and syntax. The problem of meaning will be handled at textual level and from a logical perspective as a contemporary approach.

The History of English

The aim of the course is to analyse the structural, phonological and semantic changes that English has undergone throughout history. The dialectal differences in the English language will be studied in reference to sociolinguistics and in a historical content.

Analysing Literary texts

The aim of the course is to make students competent in literature. Although the appreciation of a literary text can be developed for this purpose, it will also help students gain linguistic competence, recognise stylistic differences, and develop literary concepts.

Modern English/American Literature (Short Stories)/ Modern English/American Drama

The aim of the course is to introduce the distinguished writers and playwrights of our century to students through short stories and plays. With this purpose in mind, both literary and linguistic competence of students will be improved so that they can analyse different styles they find in original texts. In addition, students will be able to keep pace with the consciousness of our century through stories and plays by representative modern writers in these genres.

Modern English/American literature (Poetry)/Modern English Literature (Novel)

The aim of the course is to teach literature as a discipline to students who have already acquired linguistic competence. They will get acquainted with the representative works created by the outstanding writers of English literature. Students will also be initiated into spirit of the time as well as into the literary tradition of English literature.

The Teaching of Linguistic Concepts

The aim of the course is to teach the four basic skills of English as a foreign language (listening, speaking, reading, writing) including its pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar patterns in order to prepare the prospective teachers of English professionally.

Language Teaching Project

The aim of the course is to go through the subjects covered in the courses such as the teaching of language skills, and in ELT methodology in the 5th and 6th terms in a more detailed way. The English lessons not covered in the curriculum will be tested and evaluated. Students should write a graduation thesis to implement in the classes and be ready for outside teaching practice both theoretically and practically.

APPENDIX H. Aims of the Courses in ELT Teacher Training Departments (New)

1ST TERM

ENGLISH GRAMMAR I

The aim of this course is to develop students' language skills; to teach students basic grammatical structures of the English language; to make students gain awareness in creating meaning through the relationships between language structures and vocabulary.

SPEAKING SKILLS I

The aim of this course is to develop students' listening and speaking skills through various activities: authentic reading, speaking, listening to poetry; to do different speaking activities through students' active participation.

READING SKILLS I

The aim of this course is to develop students' skills in understanding the authentic reading texts; to make them able to establish relationships between vocabulary, structure, and meaning.

WRITING SKILLS I

The aim of this course is to teach students types and structures of paragraphs; technical features of paragraphs, paragraph analysis; summarise, interpret, and answer examination questions at paragraph level.

TURKISH I: WRITTEN EXPRESSION

Definition and importance of language; relationships between language and culture; written language and its characteristics, external structures and rules in writing, spelling, punctuation; planning in writing, theme, point of view, secondary thoughts, paragraph writing; composition theory, rules and plans of composing; analysis of composition structures, themes and paragraphs in model texts, revision, general mistakes in writing; thinking and expression of thoughts; different genres (memory, anecdote, story, criticism, novel, etc.), formal writing (c.v., application, report, advertisement, bibliography, written notice, scientific writing, article, etc), working on introduction, development and conclusion of articles, methods and techniques of writing articles, note-taking and summarising.

INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING (in Turkish)

Characteristics and principles of teaching; classroom and school environment; alternative perspectives in education; social, psychological, philosophical and historical principles of education; Turkish educational system.

2ND TERM

ENGLISH GRAMMAR II

More advanced level of English Grammar I. The aim of this course is to develop students' knowledge on language structures at the level of text and context; to enable students to make connections between form and text, and analysis of grammar structures and producing texts by using grammar structures in the context.

SPEAKING SKILLS II

More advanced level of Speaking Skills I. The aim of this course is to do activities which develop students' listening and speaking skills; presentation of students' speaking activities.

READING SKILLS II

More advanced level of Reading Skills I. The aim of this course is to develop structurally and conceptually students' ability in understanding and analysis of more complex authentic texts.

WRITING SKILLS II

More advanced level of Writing Skills I. The aim of this course is to develop students' skills in writing different types of paragraphs and compositions which include description, comparison and cause-effect relationships.

TURKISH I: SPOKEN EXPRESSION

Development and evaluation of speaking skills, teaching correct pronunciation of Turkish, diction and its importance, correct punctuation, correct stress, correct intonation, text-based practice, speech disorders and their elimination; dialogues, techniques for elaborated speech, preparation of texts for important days, organisation of speech contents, body language, factors affecting speech, techniques for reading poems, working on arguments, panel discussions, panels, forums, symposia, and conferences.

TECHNIQUES FOR UNDERSTANDING

Reading comprehension, different reading skills and techniques, factors which impede effective reading, reading and note-taking, critical reading, saying what has been read, relationships of speaking with other types of learning, increasing the speed and productivity of reading, listening comprehension, different listening skills and techniques, factors affecting effective listening, listening and note-taking, critical listening, increasing the productivity of listening, relationships of listening with other types of learning.

SCHOOL EXPERIENCE I

Under the supervision of a practice teacher, this course aims to familiarise prospective teachers at an early stage with school, pupils, and teaching from different perspectives. The main activities involved in this course are: organisation and administration of school, daily routines in the school, group activities, daily life of a pupil at the school, daily life of a teacher at the school, school-parent co-operation, observation of courses on the main and secondary branches, school and its problems, facilities and written resources and different aspects of teaching.

3RD TERM

ADVANCED READING SKILLS

Developing reading skills in understanding texts written in different styles; developing strategies for synthesising information in texts and developing vocabulary knowledge.

INTRODUCTION IN ENGLISH LITERATURE I

Understanding basic concepts in literary analysis and criticism; introduction of literary eras and trends, analysing the literary works representing these eras and trends.

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Theories of first and second language acquisition, comparison and exemplification between the first and second language; stages in the processes of language acquisition and language development; using the processes of language acquisition and language development in foreign language learning.

COMPUTING

Basic keyboard skills, working with word processors, graphics, spreadsheets, databases; simple programming at the level of primary education; review of educational software; working with computers in the classroom.

TURKISH PHONETICS AND MORPHOLOGY

Analysis and teaching of Turkish sounds and morphemes through linguistic approaches; application of modern linguistic approaches to the description of Turkish sounds and morphemes; comparative studies in the teaching of foreign languages.

DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING

Intellectual, social, psychological, moral, physical, etc. development of individuals, forms and processes of, and approaches to, learning; individual differences in learning.

4TH TERM

ADVANCED WRITING SKILLS

Teaching the professional writing skills necessary for writing thesis and research; practising the strategies to revise, edit, assess and mark student compositions.

INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH LITERATURE II

Introduction of literary eras and trends, applying the principles of literary analysis and criticism to advanced level literary texts.

APPROACHES TO THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

Analysing the historical development of the approaches, methods and techniques in the teaching of English; analysis and application of basic approaches, methods and techniques such as grammar-translation method, direct method, audio-lingual method, communicative method, natural approach.

INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS I

Making students aware of the language as a dynamic system; understanding the constituents of the language; basic concepts in linguistic analysis; understanding the relationships between linguistics, language teaching and literary works.

SYNTAX AND SEMANTICS IN TURKISH

Analysis and description of Turkish syntax through linguistic methods; materials development for teaching syntax in Turkish through linguistic approaches; application of modern approaches to semantics to the analysis of Turkish; contribution of semantics to the teaching of Turkish.

PLANNING AND EVALUATION IN EDUCATION

Basic theories and processes of programme development; curriculum development, yearly plans, unit plans and daily plans; choice and organisation of course contents; choice of teaching approaches and strategies, characteristics of materials and their choice; developing assessment and evaluation techniques, test types, observation-based and competence-based tests, writing test items, marking.

5TH TERM

INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS II

Understanding language acquisition processes; understanding the relationship between language acquisition and approaches to language teaching, and the social function of language.

ANALYSIS AND TEACHING OF SHORT STORIES

Characteristics of short stories and their importance in literature; methods in the analysis of short stories; analysis of selected short stories in modern English and American literature.

TRANSLATION: ENGLISH—TURKISH

The importance of translation in language teaching; approaches to translation; translation exercises and evaluation methods of authentic English texts for current and academic subjects.

SPECIAL TEACHING METHODS I, II

Application of teaching methods, teaching-learning processes and general teaching methods to the teaching of the subject area; critical analysis of course books in the subject area, and establishing relationships between them and special teaching methods and strategies; micro teaching applications and evaluation of the teaching.

TEACHING TECHNOLOGIES AND MATERIAL DEVELOPMENT

Characteristics of various teaching technologies, their importance and use in the process of teaching, developing teaching materials (worksheets, transparencies, slides, video, and computer-based course material) through teaching technologies, and evaluation of different materials.

ELECTIVE II

ELECTIVE III

6TH TERM

RESEARCH SKILLS

Teaching research methods and techniques and their practice; making students do small-scale research and their evaluation.

TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TO CHILDREN

Children's learning strategies, and their first language and foreign language learning; in-class methods and techniques to be used to teach English to children; developing and using games, songs and visual aids in the teaching of English.

ANALYSING AND TEACHING NOVELS

Characteristics of novel as a literary genre; approaches to analysing novels; analysing British and American novels which represent different literary trends.

CLASS MANAGEMENT

Social and psychological factors affecting pupils' behaviour; classroom environment and group interaction; developing and applying rules in terms of class management and discipline; in-class time management, class organisation, motivation, communication; starting a new term, creating a positive and a suitable atmosphere for learning; in-class behavioural problems and measures to be taken for these problems.

ELECTIVE IV

7TH TERM

DEVELOPING AND EVALUATING ENGLISH LANGUAGE TESTS

Types of tests; techniques for developing tests for different language skills in English; writing different types of test items; techniques for evaluation and analysis; statistical calculations.

ANALYSING AND TEACHING DRAMA (PLAYS)

Characteristics of plays as a literary genre; types of plays; approaches to analysing plays; analysing British and American plays which represent different literary trends.

MATERIAL ADAPTATION AND EVALUATION

Teaching the principles of evaluation and choice of course-books used in the teaching of English, analysing and evaluating course-books; evaluating and solving the problems in the course-books; rewriting unsuitable exercises and making them suitable to the class.

COURSE-BOOK ANALYSIS FOR SUBJECT AREA

Critical analysis of subject-area course-books and of the curriculum prepared by the Ministry of Education; analysis of course-books in terms of their contents, language, suitability to students' level, format, attractiveness, contribution to learning, and convenience for use in teaching.

SCHOOL EXPERIENCE II

Observations and practices done in schools under the supervision of a practice teacher in order to form the bases for practicum course; some observation and practice topics: asking questions in teaching, instructions and descriptions, lesson and class management, analysing a student from different perspectives, evaluating students' works, planning the lesson, utilising course-books, group activities, class organisation, preparing and using worksheets, in-class micro teaching practices.

ELECTIVE V

8TH TERM

TRANSLATION; TURKISH-ENGLISH

Exercises for translating authentic Turkish texts on current and academic subjects into English, and methods for evaluating translation.

ANALYSIS AND THE TEACHING OF POETRY

Characteristics of poetry as a literary genre; approaches to analysing poems; analysing select poems by British and American poets.

GUIDANCE

The aims and place of guidance in education, introduction of areas of guidance, general principles of guidance, knowing and orientating students, collecting and disseminating information, psychological counselling, observation, supervision, research and evaluation, establishing relationships with others, professional orientation, aims of special education, and determining and training those who need special education.

PRACTICUM

Teaching a planned lesson in a school for one full day or two half days a week for a minimum period of 12 weeks for the purpose of preparing prospective teachers for their future careers. At the end of the 12-week period, giving a 2-hour briefing for the purpose of evaluating his/her teaching practice and sharing his/her experience with others.

APPENDIX I. Outlook of a Profile in the Proposed Assessment System (Speaking)

Area : Language and communication Domain : Procedural communication Aspect : Speaking	
Levels	Indicators of competence
9	Handles all general speech situations, as well as those in own specialist areas, with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of speaking. Message required is completely conveyed with total relevance and interest. Message fully adjusted to listener's knowledge of topic and language. Spoken text is coherently organised with suitable use of sequencing and cohesion. Total control of fluency in interaction without undue hesitations. Style effectively matched to context. Language control complete, allowing for high-level interaction. Complete accuracy apart from occasional 'slips of tongue'. Little L1 accent and appropriate use of idiom contribute to overall impression.
8	Handles a full range of speech situations with confidence and competence approaching that in L1. Message required is effectively conveyed, with interesting and attractive treatment of topic. Message well adjusted to listener's knowledge of topic and language. Spoken text is well organised with good sequencing and cohesion. Conversation well sustained. Style well adjusted to context. Fluency is good with few false starts or hesitations. Language repertoire good, with few 'slips of the tongue'. Residual L1 accent but pronunciation, intonation and stress patterns all assist communication.
7	Handles a wide range of speech operations with good confidence and competence. Message is clearly conveyed and with interest. Presentation and interaction relevant and appropriate to listener's knowledge of topic and language. Spoken text is clearly organised with suitable sequencing and cohesion. Occasionally lacks fluency and flexibility, with some lapses of appropriacy and linguistic uncertainty. Uses coping strategies effectively. Uses a wide language repertoire with occasional lapses of accuracy. Speech features influenced by L1 but these in no way affect communication.
6	Handles moderate-level speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level situations. Message adequately conveyed. Basic communication is adequate but some restrictions in participation because of language limitations. Spoken text is adequately organised but with some lapses in sequencing and cohesion. Some sense of appropriate style. Noticeable false starts, hesitations and reformulations. Uses a fair language repertoire. Accuracy and usage good in spite of noticeable lapses. Marked L1 speech features but these rarely affect essential communication.
5	Handles moderate speech situations with adequate confidence and competence. Message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Some difficulties in initiating and sustaining conversation. Interaction needs repetition and clarification. Spoken text organisation is adequate but with fairly frequent stylistic lapses. Fairly frequent hesitations and lapses in fluency, but these do not interfere with basic communication. Uses a moderate language repertoire, but has to search for words and use circumlocutions. Fairly frequent errors in accuracy. Obvious L1 accent and speech features. Limitations impair communication at times.
4	Handles simple speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys short, simple messages but with loss of detail and interest. Frequent need for repetition and clarification. Responds adequately to structured conversation but restricted in freer interaction. Spoken text organisation is haphazard and lapses require frequent repair. Little stylistic variation. Communication adequately conveys the speaker's gist. Frequent false starts and hesitations. Uses a limited language repertoire with little variety. Frequent errors. Heavy L1 accent. Language limitations impede intelligibility.
3	Handles simple speech situations with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys basic survival messages, but lacks clarity and interest. Communication breaks down as language constraints interfere with message. Little text organisation or flexibility of response. Little appreciation of style. Restricted to handling basic facts. False starts and hesitations impair communication. Has a narrow language repertoire, demanding constant rephrasing and searching for words. Errors even with quite basic usage. Pronunciation and usage shortcomings cause very frequent problems with communication.
2	Handles simple speech situations with erratic confidence and competence. Conveys the shortest, simplest and most factual aspects of the message. Responses often irrelevant. At the margins of communication. Spoken text organisation restricted to responses to predictable gambits or expressing basic needs. Sympathetic interlocutor is needed to maintain communication. No stylistic variation. Has a very narrow language repertoire of isolated words and phrases. Language inaccuracies and pronunciation shortcomings make spoken communication quite difficult.
1	Handles only the simplest speech situations, e.g. giving name, nationality, etc in structured situations. Any message is difficult to decipher; or at the lowest level, not enough evidence to assess proficiency. Produces spoken texts which are little more than a string of words or groups of words without coherence. Little or no proficiency in dialogue. At the lowest level, unable to take part in dialogue, providing inadequate speech for proper assessment. Has only the most basic language repertoire, with little or no evidence of a functional command of the language. L1 speech features and limited language make speech very difficult to comprehend.

APPENDIX J. The Teacher Questionnaire.

A STUDY INTO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TURKEY: ASSESSING COMPETENCES IN SPEAKING AND WRITING

Dear colleague,

I am a teacher of English at Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon, Turkey, and have been doing my PhD in the Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in the United Kingdom. My thesis title is "A Study Into English Language Teaching in Turkey: Assessing Competences in Speaking and Writing", and as part of my study, I have prepared this questionnaire. The aim of this questionnaire is to elicit mainly three types of data: a) aims of teaching English to students, b) students' level of literacy competence in the foreign language, and c) assessment of students' level of literacy competence in the foreign language. Your answers are of the highest value to me and they will constitute the backbone of this PhD study. Please answer all the questions in the questionnaire. **ALL RESPONSES WILL BE KEPT STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL AND ALL RESPONDENTS ANONYMOUS. NO ONE OF THE RESPONDENTS WILL BE REVEALED IN ANY WAY IN THE STUDY.** Please remember that your responses are very important for me. Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

A. KASIM VARLI
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School of Education
2 Haverstock Road
Knowle
Bristol
BS4 2BZ
UNITED KINGDOM
E-mail: K.Varli@bristol.ac.uk

SECTION 1: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Name (optional) : _____ Mr Mrs Ms Miss
 Your title : _____
 Your present institutions: _____
 Your position(s) in your institution : _____
 Your area of specialisation : _____
 Address of correspondence: _____

SECTION 2: AIMS OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

1. Why is English as a Foreign Language important in Turkey? *(Please, specify in the area provided. If necessary, use the back of the sheet).*

2. In your institution, what are the most important aims in the teaching of English? *(Please, specify in the area provided. If necessary, use the back of the sheet).*

3. How would you rate the following statements? *(5 most important, 1 least important. Please tick one box for each statement)*

The teaching of EFL in our institution prepares students for

		5	4	3	2	1
1	Communicating in the world of work <i>(e.g. talking to people in the work environment or writing or reading information related to work)</i>					
2	Personal communication <i>(e.g. talking to friends, family, relatives)</i>					
3	Communicating in public life <i>(e.g. talking to or writing to Municipality, local government officials, etc.)</i>					
4	Communicating in the academic world <i>(e.g. reading and writing academic essays, taking notes, etc.)</i>					

4. What evidence can you provide to confirm your answers to Question 3? (e.g., what kind of things do you do in your institution to prepare students for communicating for a wide range of purposes?)

Communicating in the world of work:

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Personal communication :

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Communicating in the public life:

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Communicating in the academic world:

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.....

Please turn to Appendix A and read it before you attempt to answer Question 5.

5. In teaching English as a foreign language in your institution, on which aspect of the language is the most emphasis being placed? Rate the aspects of language below with 7 being that on which most emphasis is being placed, and 1 being that on which least emphasis is being placed. FOR THOSE ASPECTS OF COMMUNICATION WHERE YOU HAVE RATED 5 OR ABOVE, please GIVE EXAMPLES OF WHAT YOU DO IN YOUR INSTITUTION.

		7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1	Procedural communication for performing tasks Example:							
2	Technical communication for using technology Example:							
3	Personal communication for expressing identity Example:							
4	Co-operative communication for interacting in groups Example:							
5	Systems communication for interacting in organisations Example:							
6	Public communication for interacting with the wider community Example:							
7	Communication on academic matters Example:							
8	Other							

SECTION 3: ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS AND STUDENTS' LEVEL OF COMPETENCE

6. In the teaching of English in your institution, do you have any assessment criteria for any aspect of the foreign language?

Yes	
No	

7. If you chose 'yes' to Question 6, for which of the following do you have assessment criteria? (Please tick as many as necessary)

Reading	
Writing	
Listening	
Speaking	
Grammar	
Vocabulary	
Overall language proficiency	
Other (Please specify).....	

8. If you ticked any boxes in Question 7, what are these criteria? (If you need more space, please, use the back of these pages or add a photocopy, if possible, to the questionnaire of the levels and criteria you have already been using. If you write the criteria, please give as many details as possible).

9. At the end of the course of study (in the fourth year), how competent do you think most students are in the abilities to
(Choose one option for each question. 7 Very Competent, 1 not at all competent).

		7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1	Read and understand procedures and instructions <i>(to carry out tasks like setting up a computer or a video recorder)</i>							
2	Read and understand technical texts about the use of tools or machines <i>(e.g., a computer manual or information about a video recorder)</i>							
3	Read and understand what has been written about other people <i>(e.g., biographies, personal histories, goals, opinions, etc.)</i>							
4	Read and understand the functions and doings of a group <i>(e.g., information about how sports committees or sports organisations work)</i>							
5	Read about and understand problems in a society <i>(e.g. political comments in a newspaper, international issues)</i>							
6	Read about other institutions for future work or study purposes <i>(e.g., university prospectus or company annual reports)</i>							
7	Read and understand academic subjects <i>(e.g., articles, books, course related material, etc.)</i>							
8	Write procedures and instructions <i>(to carry out tasks or to have tasks carried out like setting up machines like computers)</i>							
9	Write technical texts about the use of tools and machines <i>(e.g., writing a manual for a video recorder or for a computer on how to unpack and install its components)</i>							
10	Write about oneself <i>(e.g., personal history, autobiography, goals, opinions)</i>							
11	Write about the members, functions and doings of a group <i>(e.g., writing about how sports committees or sports organisations function)</i>							
12	Write to a wider community about the issues, social events and activities <i>(writing comments on economic matters in newspapers, writing announcements for upcoming events in school)</i>							
13	Write for academic purposes <i>(e.g., papers, term papers, academic issues, etc.)</i>							
14	Give oral procedures and instructions to have tasks carried out <i>(e.g., giving address, telling people how to do something, etc)</i>							
15	Talk about technical and technological devices <i>(e.g., computers, planes, cars, etc.)</i>							
16	Speak about oneself <i>(e.g., personal history, autobiography, goals, opinions etc.)</i>							
17	Speak about the members, functions and doings of a group <i>(e.g., your favourite football team, your favourite political party, committees, etc.)</i>							
18	Speak to a wider community about the issues, social events and activities <i>(e.g., making comments, on the economical and social issues before the public, announcing meetings, etc.)</i>							
19	Speak for academic purposes <i>(e.g., giving oral reports, talking about academic issues, etc.)</i>							
20	Listen to and understand oral procedures and instructions to carry out a task or tasks <i>(e.g., doing things by getting instructions)</i>							
21	Listen to and understand technical texts <i>(e.g., a lecture/speech on upcoming digital broadcast, computers, etc.)</i>							
22	Listen to and understand others talking about themselves <i>(e.g., personal histories, autobiographies, opinions)</i>							
23	Listen to and understand the members, functions and doings of a group <i>(e.g., how a group works, what the group and members do)</i>							
24	Listen to and understand the problems, social events and activities in a society							
25	Listen to and understand academic subjects <i>(e.g., lectures, speeches, announcements)</i>							

Please read Appendix B (9 levels of proficiency in speaking and writing) to answer questions 10-11.

10. At which level in Appendix B do you think your students ARE at the end of their higher education?

Level 1	
Level 2	
Level 3	
Level 4	
Level 5	
Level 6	
Level 7	
Level 8	
Level 9	

11. At which of the level in Appendix B do you think your students SHOULD BE at the end of their higher education?

Level 1	
Level 2	
Level 3	
Level 4	
Level 5	
Level 6	
Level 7	
Level 8	
Level 9	

APPENDIX A AREAS OF LANGUAGE USE

The research is based on the principle that language use is complex and multifaceted. Language is also firmly rooted in the social world of learners. The aspects of communication categorised below conceive of language in terms of 6 interrelated aspects. The aspects provide a way of describing the differing orientations of social activity involving reading, writing, speaking, listening and/or numeracy.

Procedural Communication for performing tasks: Procedural communication refers to the language and numeracy related to carrying out a task or a number of tasks. It includes giving instructions, applying and following of steps or procedures in order to perform and complete a task or tasks.

Technical Communication for using technology: Technical communication refers to the language and numeracy related to the use of tools or machines – whether simple or complex. It includes the language and mathematics involved in understanding and learning about media as well as about the function of technology and how to use it.

Personal Communication for expressing identity: Personal communication refers to the language and numeracy related to expressing personal identity and/or goals. It includes the different ways personal history, knowledge, attributes, goals and opinions are drawn on and expressed for particular purposes. It also includes the application of mathematics for individual needs such as personal finances or personal measurement.

Co-operative Communication for interacting in groups: Co-operative communication refers to the language and numeracy related to understanding the function of a group and the roles of the different members, as well as to participating in the group including establishing co-operative relationships with its members.

Systems Communication for interacting in organisations: Systems communication refers to the language and numeracy related to understanding and interacting within an organisation or institution. In an educational institution or program, it includes learning about the range and design of educational choices and pathways as well as the relationship between classroom and non-classroom activities. It also involves the application of mathematics in or for institutional purposes.

Public Communication for interacting with the wider community: Public communication refers to the language and numeracy related to understanding and interacting within the wider social or community context. In an educational institution or program it includes learning about and interacting with other institutions – educational ones, those in local community or those related to employment – for the purposes of future work or study, entertainment or engagement with public interest issues. It also involves the application of mathematics in or for a public context or need.

APPENDIX B THE ESU LEVELS AND CRITERIA OF COMPETENCE FOR SPEAKING AND WRITING

THE ESU CRITERIA FOR SPEAKING

9	Handles all general speech situations, as well as those in own specialist areas, with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of speaking. Message required is completely conveyed with total relevance and interest. Message fully adjusted to listener's knowledge of topic and language. Spoken text is coherently organised with suitable use of sequencing and cohesion. Total control of fluency in interaction without undue hesitations. Style effectively matched to context. Language control complete, allowing for high-level interaction. Complete accuracy apart from occasional 'slips of tongue'. Little L1 accent and appropriate use of idiom contribute to overall impression.
8	Handles a full range of speech situations with confidence and competence approaching that in L1. Message required is effectively conveyed, with interesting and attractive treatment of topic. Message well adjusted to listener's knowledge of topic and language. Spoken text is well organised with good sequencing and cohesion. Conversation well sustained. Style well adjusted to context. Fluency is good with few false starts or hesitations. Language repertoire good, with few 'slips of the tongue'. Residual L1 accent but pronunciation, intonation and stress patterns all assist communication.
7	Handles a wide range of speech operations with good confidence and competence. Message is clearly conveyed and with interest. Presentation and interaction relevant and appropriate to listener's knowledge of topic and language. Spoken text is clearly organised with suitable sequencing and cohesion. Occasionally lacks fluency and flexibility, with some lapses of appropriacy and linguistic uncertainty. Uses coping strategies effectively. Uses a wide language repertoire with occasional lapses of accuracy. Speech features influenced by L1 but these in no way affect communication.
6	Handles moderate-level speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level situations. Message adequately conveyed. Basic communication is adequate but some restrictions in participation because of language limitations. Spoken text is adequately organised but with some lapses in sequencing and cohesion. Some sense of appropriate style. Noticeable false starts, hesitations and reformulations. Uses a fair language repertoire. Accuracy and usage good in spite of noticeable lapses. Marked L1 speech features but these rarely affect essential communication.
5	Handles moderate speech situations with adequate confidence and competence. Message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety and some loss of detail. Some difficulties in initiating and sustaining conversation. Interaction needs repetition and clarification. Spoken text organisation is adequate but with fairly frequent stylistic lapses. Fairly frequent hesitations and lapses in fluency, but these do not interfere with basic communication. Uses a moderate language repertoire, but has to search for words and use circumlocutions. Fairly frequent errors in accuracy. Obvious L1 accent and speech features. Limitations impair communication at times.
4	Handles simple speech situations with good confidence and competence, but some problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys short, simple messages but with loss of detail and interest. Frequent need for repetition and clarification. Responds adequately to structured conversation but restricted in freer interaction. Spoken text organisation is haphazard and lapses require frequent repair. Little stylistic variation. Communication adequately conveys the speaker's gist. Frequent false starts and hesitations. Uses a limited language repertoire with little variety. Frequent errors. Heavy L1 accent. Language limitations impede intelligibility.
3	Handles simple speech situations with adequate confidence and competence, but many problems with moderate-level situations. Conveys basic survival messages, but lacks clarity and interest. Communication breaks down as language constraints interfere with message. Little text organisation or flexibility of response. Little appreciation of style. Restricted to handling basic facts. False starts and hesitations impair communication. Has a narrow language repertoire, demanding constant rephrasing and searching for words. Errors even with quite basic usage. Pronunciation and usage shortcomings cause very frequent problems with communication.
2	Handles simple speech situations with erratic confidence and competence. Conveys the shortest, simplest and most factual aspects of the message. Responses often irrelevant. At the margins of communication. Spoken text organisation restricted to responses to predictable gambits or expressing basic needs. Sympathetic interlocutor is needed to maintain communication. No stylistic variation. Has a very narrow language repertoire of isolated words and phrases. Language inaccuracies and pronunciation shortcomings make spoken communication quite difficult.

1	Handles only the simplest speech situations, e.g. giving name, nationality, etc in structured situations. Any message is difficult to decipher; or at the lowest level, not enough evidence to assess proficiency. Produces spoken texts which are little more than a string of words or groups of words without coherence. Little or no proficiency in dialogue. At the lowest level, unable to take part in dialogue, providing inadequate speech for proper assessment. Has only the most basic language repertoire, with little or no evidence of a functional command of the language. L1 speech features and limited language make speech very difficult to comprehend.
----------	--

THE ESU CRITERIA FOR WRITING

9	Writes all general texts and texts in own specialist areas with confidence and competence similar to those in mother tongue. An exceptional level of writing. Message is completely conveyed with total relevance and interest. Message fully adjusted to reader's knowledge of topic and language. Text is coherently organised with effective use of cohesive devices. Layout and structure aid force of argument. Style effectively matched to topic and reader. Language control complete apart from occasional obvious 'slips'. Complete accuracy, fluency and appropriate use of idiom contribute to overall impression of writing.
8	Writes a full range of texts with competence and confidence approaching those in L1. Message required is effectively conveyed, with interesting and attractive treatment of topic. Length matches requirements of task. Message well adjusted to reader. Text organisation is clear with appropriate cohesive devices. Style suits subject. Good sentence variety. Text flows. Layout and punctuation helpful. Language repertoire good. Correct and appropriate usage of grammar and vocabulary. Few formal errors apart from 'slips'. Spelling and writing help intelligibility.
7	Writes a wide range of texts with good confidence and competence. Message is clearly conveyed. Interesting treatment. Suitable length. Presentation relevant to task and reader. Text accurately presented with clarity of organisation with suitable use of cohesion and topic markers. Style well adjusted to task. Layout and punctuation helpful. Uses a wide language repertoire accurately, with occasional lapses of appropriacy and inaccuracies. Spelling and handwriting good.
6	Writes moderate-level texts with good confidence and competence, but some problems with higher-level texts. Message adequately conveyed. Basic ideas conveyed with clarity and relevance to reader. Language limitations impede fully effective performance. Text is adequately presented but with lapses in flow, organisation and cohesion. Has a limited stylistic range. Punctuation and layout basically helpful. Has fair language repertoire but with several lapses in accuracy. Idiom, if used at all, may be unsuitable. Spelling and handwriting quite clear and intelligible.
5	Writes moderate-level texts with adequate competence and confidence. Message is broadly conveyed but with little subtlety. Often bald and halting, reducing interest. Reader has to backtrack on occasion to clarify thread of topic. Text organisation adequate but presentation lacks subtlety. Some use of stylistic variation and basic cohesive devices. Punctuation and layout acceptable. Has a moderate language repertoire, but fairly frequent errors and inappropriacies. Meaning of sentences conveyed. Spelling and handwriting legible.
4	Writes simple texts with good competence and confidence; some problems with moderate-level texts. Message conveyed basically but without subtlety. Deals with main topic required but with lack of clarity and interest. Marginally communicative. Text organisation haphazard and not coherent throughout. Little use of stylistic variation or cohesive devices. Punctuation, paragraphing and layout basic. Uses a limited language repertoire with little variety and frequent inaccuracies. Spelling and handwriting impede clarity of message.
3	Writes simple texts with adequate competence and confidence, but with many problems with moderate-level texts. Produces a string of sentences bearing to some extent on the required message. Little sense of reader expectations. Finer details not dealt with. Lacking in interest. Little sense of text organisation. Mainly descriptive or narrative style lacking cohesion. Punctuation basic and often omitted. Layout of little help to reader. Has a narrow language repertoire, with regular inaccuracies and inappropriacies which impede basic message. Spelling and handwriting cause problems of intelligibility.
2	Writes simple texts with erratic competence and confidence. Manages a few simple sentences, but relationship to required message is tenuous. Little intrinsic interest. Subsidiary themes and details ignored or presented in confused ways. Little text organisation with little cohesion between its sentences. Lacks flow. No stylistic variation. Punctuation and layout not helpful to reader. Has a very narrow language repertoire, with many inaccuracies. Spelling errors and poor handwriting make topic rather difficult to discern.
1	Writes only the simplest texts, eg. completing forms with name, address, etc. Any message is difficult to decipher; or not enough evidence to assess proficiency. Produces texts which are little more than a string of words or groups of words without coherence; or does not provide enough evidence to assess properly. Has only the most basic language repertoire, with little or no evidence of a functional grasp of lexis or sentence structure. Handwriting and spelling may make text very difficult to read.

APPENDIX K. The Student Questionnaire

A STUDY INTO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TURKEY: ASSESSING COMPETENCES IN SPEAKING AND WRITING

Dear student,

I am a teacher of English at Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon, Turkey, and have been doing my PhD in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in the United Kingdom. My thesis title is "A Study Into English Language Teaching in Turkey: Assessing Competences in Speaking And Writing", and as part of my study, I have prepared this questionnaire for students. Your answers are of the highest value to me and they will constitute the backbone of this PhD study. Please answer all the questions in the questionnaire. **ALL RESPONSES WILL BE KEPT STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL AND ALL RESPONDENTS ANONYMOUS. NO ONE OF THE RESPONDENTS WILL BE REVEALED IN ANY WAY IN THE STUDY.** Please remember that this is an important part of my study and is a matter of urgency. Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

A. KASIM VARLI
University of Bristol
School of Education
2 Haverstock Road
Knowle
Bristol
BS4 2BZ
UNITED KINGDOM
E-mail: K.Varli@bristol.ac.uk

SECTION 1: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Your Name (Optional) : _____ Mr Mrs Ms Miss
 Your University : _____
 Address of correspondence: _____

SECTION 2: PLEASE ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS.

1. Why is learning English as a Foreign Language important to you?

2. I am interested in finding out what aspects of communications you think your courses in English as a Foreign Language prepare you for. I would like to know which aspects of communication are emphasised most. Please rate the following statements? *(Please tick ONE box for each statement. 5 most emphasis, 1 least emphasis.)*

The teaching of EFL in our institution prepares students for

		5	4	3	2	1
1	Communicating in the world of work <i>(e.g. techniques in reading, writing and oral communications for use in a work or business environment)</i>					
2	Personal communication <i>(e.g. talking to friends, family, relatives)</i>					
3	Communicating in public life <i>(e.g. talking to or writing to municipality, local government officials)</i>					
4	Communicating in the academic world <i>(e.g. reading and writing academic essays, taking notes)</i>					

3. I would like to find out how proficient you think you are in the following aspects of English. Please rate yourself on all the following items using the scale provided. 7 on the scale means you think you are very proficient. 1 means you think you are not proficient at all.

		7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1	Reading and understanding procedures and instructions (<i>e.g., to carry out tasks, like setting up a computer or a video recorder</i>)							
2	Reading and understanding technical texts about the use of tools or machines (<i>e.g., a computer manual or information about a video recorder</i>)							
3	Reading and understanding what has been written about other people (<i>e.g., biographies, or personal histories</i>)							
4	Reading and understanding the functions and doings of a group (<i>e.g., information about how sports committees or sports organisations function</i>)							
5	Reading about and understanding issues in a society (<i>e.g., political comments in a newspaper, international issues</i>)							
6	Reading about other institutions for future work or study purposes (<i>e.g., university prospectus or company annual reports</i>)							
7	Reading and understanding academic subjects (<i>e.g., articles, books, course related material, etc.</i>)							
8	Writing procedures and instructions (<i>e.g., to carry out tasks, like setting up machines like computers</i>)							
9	Writing technical texts about the use of tools, machines (<i>e.g., writing a manual for a video recorder or for a computer on how to unpack and install its components</i>)							
10	Writing about oneself (<i>e.g., personal history, autobiographies</i>)							
11	Writing about the members, functions and doings of a group (<i>e.g., writing about how sports committees or sports organisations function</i>)							
12	Writing to a wider community about the issues, social events and activities (<i>e.g., writing comments on economic matters in newspapers, writing announcements for upcoming events in school</i>)							
13	Writing for academic purposes (<i>e.g., papers, term papers, academic issues, etc.</i>)							
14	Giving oral procedures and instructions to have tasks carried out (<i>e.g., giving address, telling people how to do something, etc</i>)							
15	Talking about technical and technological devices (<i>e.g., computers, planes, cars, etc.</i>)							
16	Speaking about oneself (<i>e.g., your personal history, your characteristics, etc.</i>)							
17	Speaking about the members, functions and doings of a group (<i>e.g., your favourite football team, your favourite political party, committees, etc.</i>)							
18	Speaking to a wider community about the issues, social events and activities (<i>e.g., making comments on the economical and social issues before the public, announcing meetings, etc.</i>)							
19	Speaking for academic purposes (<i>e.g., giving oral reports, talking about academic issues, etc</i>)							
20	Listening to and understanding oral procedures and instructions to carry out tasks (<i>e.g., doing things by getting instructions</i>)							
21	Listening to and understanding technical texts (<i>e.g., a lecture/speech on upcoming digital broadcast</i>)							
22	Listening to and understanding others talking about themselves (<i>e.g., their personal histories, characteristics</i>)							
23	Listening to and understanding the members, functions and doings of a group (<i>e.g., how the group works, what the group and members do</i>)							
24	Listening to and understanding the issues, social events and activities in a society							
25	Listening to and understanding academic subjects (<i>e.g., lectures, speeches, announcements</i>)							

APPENDIX L SPOKEN TASKS

Procedural communication: EF International Language Schools help students learn a foreign language in different countries. Have a look at the enrolment form and give me instructions about what I should do to enrol these courses, and how I should do it. That is, talk about the kind of information that is required from us.

EF KAYIT FORMU 1989-1999

Lütfen bu formu doldurup 120\$'lık kayıt ücreti ve 100\$'lık Vize ve İptal Sigortası Primi (isteğe bağlı) ile birlikte aşağıdaki adrese gönderiniz.

BAŞLANGIÇ TARİHİ VE KURS SÜRESİ		
Kurs Başlangıç Tarihi (Gün/Ay/Yıl) _____		Hafta Sayısı _____
Bir sınava girmek istiyor musunuz? Evetse hangisi: TOEFL Cambridge Diğer		
KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER		
Erkek	Kadın	
Soyadı _____	Adı _____	
Adres _____		
Şehir ve posta kodu _____ Ülke _____		
Telefon (Özel) _____		Telefon (İş) _____
Fax No: _____ Şu anki dil düzeyiniz _____		
Doğum Tarihi (Gün/Ay/Yıl) _____		Doğum Yeri _____
Uyruğu _____		Mesleğiniz _____
EF hakkında nasıl bilgi edindiniz? _____		
İşveren veya okul adı _____		
SAĞLIK		
Herhangi bir sağlık sorunuz/allerjiniz var mı?		Evet Hayır
Evetse belirtiniz _____		
Sigara içiyor musunuz?		Evet Hayır
SİGORTA		
EF Vize, İptal Sigortası Poliçesi İstiyor musunuz?		Evet Hayır
EF Sağlık ve Kaza Sigortası İstiyor musunuz?		Evet Hayır
UÇUŞ VE TRANSFERLER		
Uçakla yolculuk yapacaksanız, uçuşla ilgili ayrıntıları belirtiniz.		
Uçuş No _____		Varış tarihi ve saat _____
Ayrıldığınız havalimanı _____		Varacağınız havalimanı _____
Varışınızda havalimanında karşılanmak istiyor musunuz? Evet Hayır		

Lütfen hangi okulu ve kursu seçtiğinizi belirtiniz

Okul ve Kurs Seçimi

	Temel	Yoğun	Yaz	TOEFL	Cambridge	Akademik yıl
Londra						
Cambridge						
Toronto						
Vancouver						
Boston						
New York						
Seattle						
Miami Beach						
Santa Barbara						
Los Angeles						
San Francisco						










Lütfen işaretleyerek okulu ve kursu belirtiniz

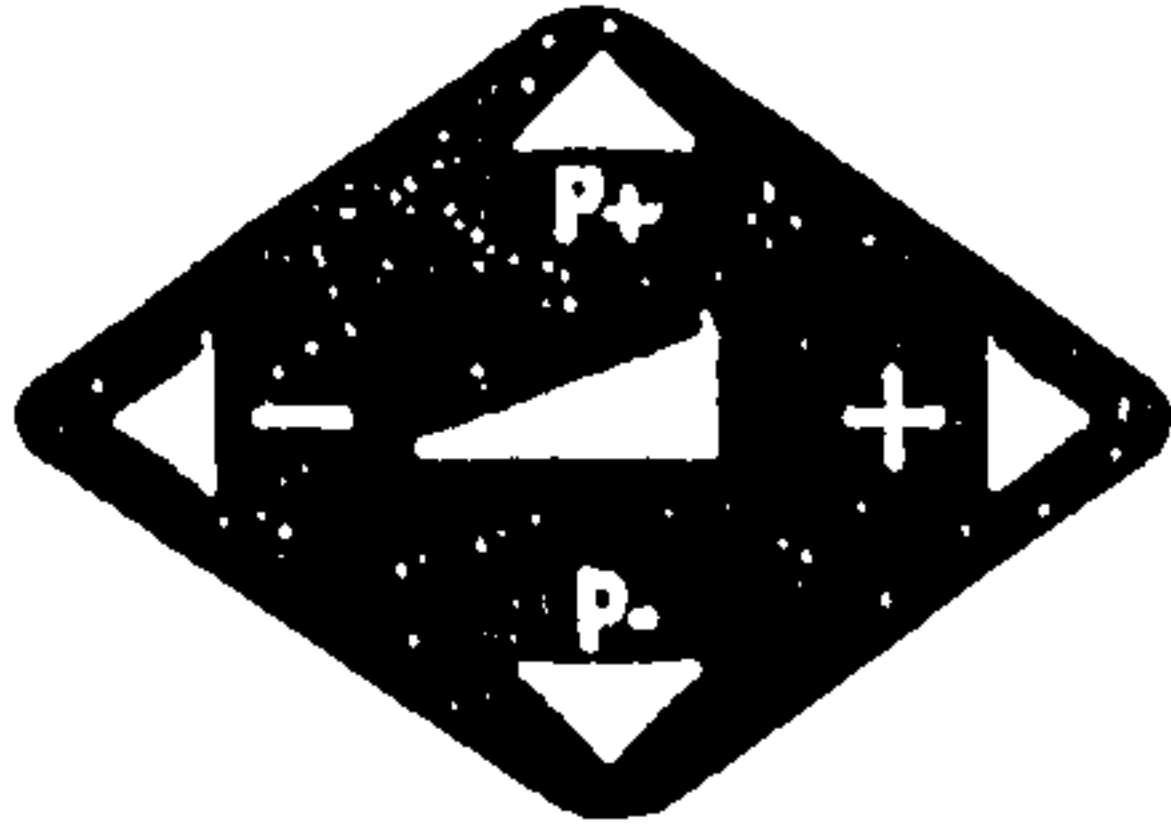
Konaklama

	Aile Yanında		Kampüs		Apartman/Hotel	
	Tek kişilik oda	Çift kişilik oda	Tek kişilik oda	Çift kişilik oda	Tek kişilik oda	Çift kişilik oda
Londra						
Cambridge						
Toronto						
Vancouver						
Boston						
New York						
Seattle						
Miami Beach						
Santa Barbara						
Los Angeles						
San Francisco						

Have a look at the following. Tell us what it is and reinterpret the information in English.

TELEVİZYON KOLAY KULLANMA KARTI

-  **Geçici açma-kapama tuşu (STAND-BY)**
TV'nizi kısa süreli açma/kapama için bu tuşa basınız.
-  **Geçici ses kesme tuşu**
TV'nizin sesini geçici olarak kesmek ve açmak için bu tuşa basınız.
-  **İki haneli programlar tuşu**
10 - 99 arası program numarası seçmek için önce bu tuşa basınız.
-  **Normalizasyon tuşu**
TV'nizin ses, renk, ışık ayarlarını hafızadaki eski haline döndürmek için bu tuşa basınız.
-  **Audio/Video tuşu**
TV'niz ile Videonuz arasında Scart Soket bağlantısı varsa, TV veya Video arasında seçim yapmak içindir.
-  **Seçme tuşu**
Görüntü ve Ses'te yapacağınız ayarı seçmek için bu tuşa basınız.
- INFO**
 **Gösterim tuşu (INFO)**
İzlediğiniz programın numarasını gösterir.
- TIMER**
 **Otomatik kapanma tuşu (TIMER)**
TV'nizin 15, 30, 45, 60, 90, 120 dakika sonra otomatik kapanması için istediğiniz süre ekrana gelene kadar bu tuşa basınız.
- MENU**
 **"MENU" tuşu**
Menü'yü çağırmak için bu tuştan yararlanabilirsiniz.

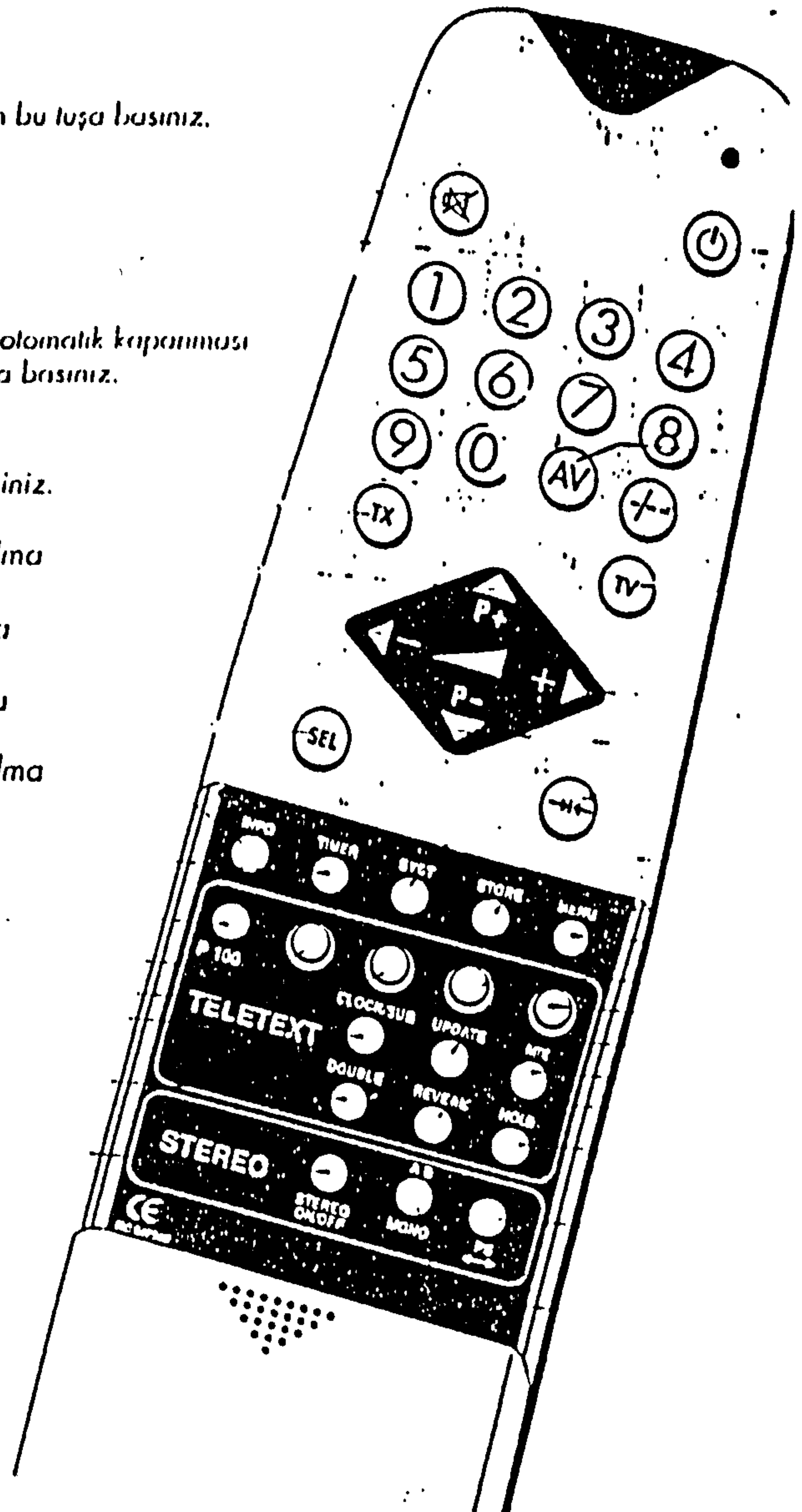


P+ : Program ileri alma

- : Ses ayar azaltma

+ : Ses ayar artırma

P- : Program geri alma



Personal communication

You have applied for a position in a company. Your application is accepted and you are invited for an interview. You are asked to talk about yourself and why you applied for this position. Talk about yourself and state why you applied for this position. Give as much information as possible.

Systems communication

A friend of yours wants to be a student at your department, but she does not know anything about your department. She asked you about your department. Tell her everything that you know about your department. Give as much information as possible.

Public communication (Choose one topic and speak about it)

1. As a citizen, you have some complaints and solutions about the roads in Turkey. Discuss the topic with the Minister of Transport. Talk about the problems with the roads: general conditions of the roads, traffic accidents, public transport, and then present your solutions. Your talk will be broadcast on a national television.
2. As a citizen, you have some complaints and solutions about the health policies in Turkey. Discuss the topic with the Minister of Health. Talk about the general conditions of the hospitals, problems, and then present your solutions. Your talk will be broadcast on a national television.

Cooperative communication (Discuss the topic with your friends)

You want to be a member of Atatürk University Skiing Society. You do not know anything about the society, but you want to know about the society. You and your friends are discussing about the membership to the society. Discuss what qualifications, rules and regulations may be, what may be needed for membership, its activities and its administration.

APPENDIX M Written Tasks

Procedural communication: EF International Language Schools help students learn a foreign language in different countries. Have a look at the enrolment form and give me instructions about what I should do to enrol these courses, and how I should do it. That is, write in English the kind of information that is required from us.

EF KAYIT FORMU 1989-1999

Lütfen bu formu doldurup 120\$'lık kayıt ücreti ve 100\$'lık Vize ve İptal Sigortası Primi (isteğe bağlı) ile birlikte aşağıdaki adrese gönderiniz.

BAŞLANGIÇ TARİHİ VE KURS SÜRESİ	
Kurs Başlangıç Tarihi (Gün/Ay/Yıl) _____	Hafta Sayısı _____
Bir sınava girmek istiyor musunuz? Evetse hangisi: TOEFL Cambridge Diğer	
KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER	
Erkek	Kadın
Soyadı _____	Adı _____
Adres _____	
Şehir ve posta kodu _____ Ülke _____	
Telefon (Özel) _____	Telefon (İş) _____
Fax No: _____	Şu anki dil düzeyiniz _____
Doğum Tarihi (Gün/Ay/Yıl) _____	Doğum Yeri _____
Uyruğu _____	Mesleğiniz _____
EF hakkında nasıl bilgi edindiniz? _____	
İşveren veya okul adı _____	
SAĞLIK	
Herhangi bir sağlık sorununuz/allerjiniz var mı?	Evet Hayır
Evetse belirtiniz _____	
Sigara içiyor musunuz?	Evet Hayır
SİGORTA	
EF Vize, İptal Sigortası Poliçesi İstiyor musunuz?	Evet Hayır
EF Sağlık ve Kaza Sigortası İstiyor musunuz?	Evet Hayır
UÇUŞ VE TRANSFERLER	
Uçakla yolculuk yapacaksanız, uçuşla ilgili ayrıntıları belirtiniz.	
Uçuş No _____	Variş tarihi ve saat _____
Ayrıldığı havalimanı _____	Varacağınız havalimanı _____
Varişinizde havalimanında karşılanmak istiyor musunuz? Evet Hayır	

Lütfen hangi okulu ve kursu seçtiğinizi belirtiniz

Okul ve Kurs Seçimi

	Temel	Yoğun	Yaz	TOEFL	Cambridge	Akademik yıl
Londra						
Cambridge						
Toronto						
Vancouver						
Boston						
New York						
Seattle						
Miami Beach						
Santa Barbara						
Los Angeles						
San Francisco						

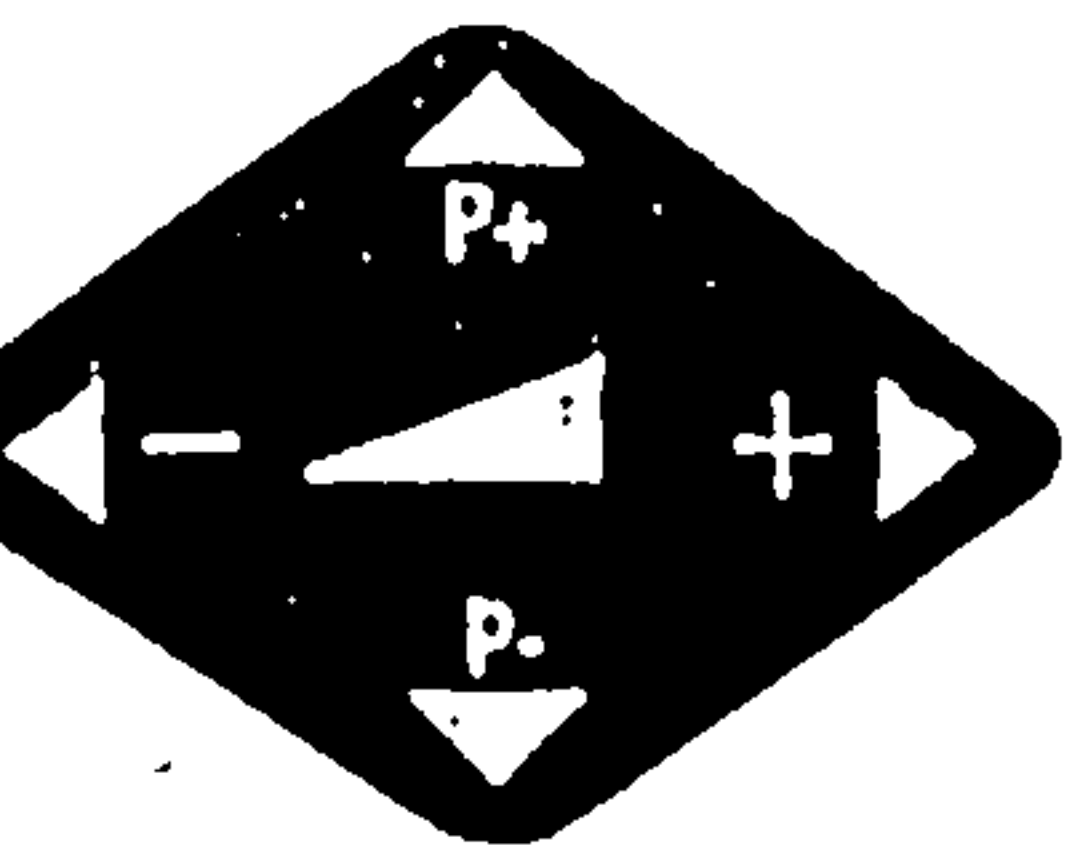
Lütfen işaretleyerek okulu ve kursu belirtiniz

Konaklama

	Aile Yanında		Kampüs		Apartman/Hotel	
	Tek kişilik oda	Çift kişilik oda	Tek kişilik oda	Çift kişilik oda	Tek kişilik oda	Çift kişilik oda
Londra						
Cambridge						
Toronto						
Vancouver						
Boston						
New York						
Seattle						
Miami Beach						
Santa Barbara						
Los Angeles						
San Francisco						

Technical Communication

Write a remote control handset guide by looking at its Turkish version



P+:

-:

+:

P-:



Personal communication

You have applied for a position in a company. Your application is accepted and you are asked to write a curriculum vitae, and why you applied for this position. Write a curriculum vitae and state why you applied for this position. Give as many details as possible.

Systems communication

A friend of yours wants to be a student at your department, but she does not know anything about your department. She asked some information from you about your department. Write a letter to her and write everything that you know about your department. Give as much information as possible.

Public communication (Write on one of the following topics or on the topic you have already talked about)

1. As a citizen, you have some complaints and solutions about the roads in Turkey. Write about the topic to the Minister of Transport. Write about the problems with the roads: general conditions of the roads, traffic accidents, public transport, and then present your solutions. Your talk letter will appear on a national newspaper.
2. As a citizen, you have some complaints and solutions about the health policies in Turkey. Write a letter to the Minister of Health. Write about the general conditions of the hospitals, problems, and then present your solutions. Your talk letter will appear on a national newspaper.

Cooperative communication

Write what happened during your group discussion about Atatürk University Skiing Society. Give as many details as possible.

APPENDIX N. Teachers' Perceptions of the Communicative Domains for Which ELT Prepares Students

Work	Personal	Public	Academic
3	4	3	5
1	1	1	4
2	2	1	3
4	1	2	4
3	3	4	2
5	5	3	3
3	3	4	4
5	1	1	5
5	1	3	4
5	1	1	5
4	1	2	4
4	3	2	2
4	4	2	3
3	1	4	2
5	5	5	5
2	1	1	3
5	2	1	3
4	4	3	4
5	3	1	3

The following method was used to evaluate the responses in the above table:

First, the ratings of 19 respondents were presented in the table above to see individual teachers' ratings in terms of the four communicative domains. Second, the number of each rating for each domain was presented in the following table to show how many respondents ranked which domain. This table will help us to categorise the findings in the next table as 'least important', 'moderately important', and 'most important.'

Rank	Communicative Domains			
	Communicating in the world of work	Personal communication	Public communication	Communicating in the academic world
5	7	2	1	4
4	5	3	3	6
3	4	4	4	6
2	2	2	4	3
1	1	8	7	0
No. of respondents	19	19	19	19

Third, the number of respondents were categorised in the following table as follows:

- 1 and 2 = least important
- 3 = moderately important
- 4 and 5 = most important

Importance	Communicative Domains			
	Communicating in the world of Work	Personal communication	Public Communication	Communicating in the academic world
Most important	12	5	4	10
Moderately important	4	4	4	6
Least important	3	10	11	3
No. of respondents	19	19	19	19

Finally, the number of respondents in each category was transformed into rounded percentages and presented in Table 8.1 as teachers' perceptions of the four communicative domains for which English language instruction in ELT departments prepare students.

APPENDIX O. Students' Perceptions of the Communicative Domains for Which ELT Prepares Them

Work	Personal	Public	Academic
5	1	1	5
5	5	3	4
5	2	3	4
4	3	3	5
3	4	4	2
4	5	4	3
4	5	5	4
5	5	1	3
5	3	3	5
3	4	4	2
5	5	2	4
5	3	1	4
5	4	4	5
4	3	5	2
2	3	1	5
4	3	1	2
2	3	1	3
5	5	4	3
5	4	2	3
5	3	1	4
3	3	1	4
1	2	3	4
5	5	4	5
5	4	5	5
1	4	1	4
5	3	2	5
2	5	2	4
4	3	2	5
4	5	3	2
4	5	5	4
5	3	2	1
4	5	4	5
3	3	1	2
5	3	2	4
5	4	2	4
1	3	4	2
4	3	4	2
5	5	3	3
5	5	3	3
5	3	2	1
1	1	2	1
3	1	4	3
3	2	1	1
1	1	1	1
3	3	3	3

Work	Personal	Public	Academic
4	5	4	4
3	2	1	1
5	5	1	5
5	4	2	2
2	5	5	5
5	4	2	5
5	5	1	3
3	4	4	2
4	4	3	3
5	1	5	5
5	3	3	5
1	4	3	4
5	5	3	3
5	4	5	5
5	5	4	2
3	4	2	4
1	1	1	1
3	2	1	2
5	1	1	5
5	3	3	2
1	2	2	3
3	1	2	4
4	4	1	5
3	4	4	2
4	4	3	1
3	4	3	3
5	2	2	3
4	3	2	3
4	2	3	5
5	1	2	2
4	5	5	4
1	1	2	3
4	3	3	4
4	2	3	5
3	4	5	1
2	2	3	3
5	2	3	4
4	4	2	2
1	1	1	2
1	1	2	3
1	1	1	4
5	3	3	5
5	2	4	1
5	3	2	5
4	2	1	3

The following method was used to evaluate the responses in the above table: First, the ratings of 90 respondents were presented in the table above to see the individual student's ratings in terms of the four communicative domains. Second, the number of each rating for each domain was presented in the following table to show how many respondents ranked which domain. This table will help us to categorise the responses in the next table as 'least important', 'moderately important', and 'most important.'

Rank	Domains			
	Communication in the world of work	Personal communication	Public communication	Academic communication
5	37	20	9	22
4	21	20	15	21
3	15	24	22	20
2	5	13	22	17
1	12	13	22	10
Total respondents	90	90	90	90

Third, the number of respondents were categorised in the following table as follows:

- 1 and 2 = least important
- 3 = moderately important
- 4 and 5 = most important

Importance	Domains			
	Communication in the world of work	Personal communication	Public communication	Academic communication
Most important	58	40	24	43
Moderately important	15	24	22	20
Least important	17	26	44	27
Total respondents	90	90	90	90

Finally, the number of respondents in each category was transformed into rounded percentages and presented in Table 8.4 as students' perceptions of the four communicative domains for which English language instruction in ELT departments prepare students.

APPENDIX P. Teachers' Ratings for the Seven Genres in Terms of Emphasis Placed

Procedural	Technical	Personal	Cooperative	Systems	Public	Academic	Other
4	4	6	6	2	7	7	
1	1	1	5	2	6	6	
4	3	3	4	5	5	5	
1	1	4	6	3	1	4	
2	1	2	2	2	2	1	2
4	3	7	7	7	4	4	
4	4	4	4	3	4	4	
7	1	1	7	1	6	1	
1	2	4	4	3	3	4	
7	1	1	7	2	5	1	
4	1	2	2	2	4	4	
6	1	5	4	3	1	1	
4	3	5	6	4	4	4	3
7	1	2	5	6	4	3	
7	7	7	5	4	4	2	
4	3	4	4	3	4	4	
6	1	7	7	6	4	5	
6	1	7	7	6	6	4	4

The following method was used in evaluating teacher responses: First, the ratings of 18 respondents were presented in the above table to see the general outlook of the ratings in terms of the emphasis placed on each genre (area of language use). Second, the total of each rating for each genre was presented in the following table on a 7-rank basis.

Rank	Aspects of language/Genres							
	Procedural	Technical	Personal	Cooperative	Systems	Public	Academic	Other
7	4	1	4	5	1	1	1	0
6	3	0	1	3	3	3	1	0
5	0	0	2	3	1	2	2	0
4	7	2	4	5	2	8	8	1
3	0	4	1	0	5	1	1	1
2	1	1	3	2	5	1	1	1
1	3	10	3	0	1	2	4	0
Respondents	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	3

Third, the sum of ratings were categorised in the table above in the following way:

- 1 and 2 = low emphasis
- 3, 4, 5 = moderate emphasis
- 6 and 7 = high emphasis

Aspects of language/Genres								
Emphasis	Procedural	Technical	Personal	Cooperative	Systems	Public	Academic	Other
High	7	1	5	8	4	4	1	
Moderate	7	6	7	8	8	11	11	2
Low	4	11	6	2	6	3	5	1

Finally, the sum of responses was transformed into rounded percentages in Table 9.4 to show teachers' perceptions of the seven genres on which they placed high, moderate and low emphasis.

APPENDIX Q. Teachers' Intuitive Judgements of Students' Level of Competence

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
5	5	7	5	6	5	6	7	5	7	5	6	7	5	3	6	5	4	6	5	5	6	5	5	7
4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	5	5	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	2	3	3	3	3
4	3	5	4	4	3	3	3	2	4	4	3	2	4	3	4	4	3	2	3	2	4	4	4	3
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	6	6	5	5	6	5	6	5	5	4	6	5	6	6	5	6
2	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	2	6	4	5	6	4	2	4	4	5	4	4	2
6	3	7	7	3	7	7	6	3	7	7	7	7	7	5	7	7	7	6	3	4	7	7	7	7
5	5	7	6	7	5	5	4	4	6	6	5	5	7	5	7	6	5	4	5	5	6	5	6	4
5	3	6	5	6	3	0	1	1	7	1	1	1	1	7	5	5	2	1	4	4	4	5	5	1
3	3	5	5	5	5	6	2	1	6	3	3	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	6	6	6	6
6	5	6	5	5	4	3	2	2	6	2	1	1	2	6	5	5	2	1	5	5	5	5	5	1
5	5	5	5	4	4	4	3	3	5	4	4	5	4	3	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5
5	4	6	5	5	6	5	4	2	5	4	4	5	5	3	5	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4
3	3	6	4	5	6	5	2	1	5	2	5	4	6	2	6	6	5	5	6	4	6	6	6	5
5	4	6	6	6	6	6	5	3	7	6	5	5	7	4	7	6	5	5	6	4	6	6	6	5
5	3	5	6	6	4	4	4	6	4	3	4	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4
3	3	4	4	3	5	4	4	2	4	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	4	3	2	2	3	3	3	2
7	6	7	7	6	7	7	6	7	7	7	5	7	7	6	7	7	5	6	6	5	7	7	7	6
6	6	7	7	6	5	6	2	1	7	6	5	7	5	2	7	7	3	5	7	2	6	5	4	6
6	6	7	7	6	5	6	2	1	7	6	5	7	5	2	7	7	3	5	7	2	6	5	4	6

This table shows teachers' judgmental ratings of students' levels of competence in the seven genres. The following method was used in analysing the data in this table:

First, the twenty-five statements, which contained statements about the seven genres and four basic skills, were categorised as genres. Second, the means of ratings for seven genres were calculated, and presented in Table 9.1. Third, the twenty-five statements were categorised in terms of four skills. The mean of each skill was calculated separately, and presented in Table 9.2 in a rank order. Fourth, the mean of teachers' judgmental ratings for twenty-five statements was calculated to find out students' overall language competence (Table 9.3). Finally, the means of teachers' judgmental ratings of students were categorised in Table 9.4 as follows:

- 1 and 2 = Low level of competence
- 3, 4 and 5 = Moderate level of competence
- 6 and 7 = High level of competence

APPENDIX R. Students' Intuitive Judgements of Their Own Levels of Competence

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
7	6	7	7	6	6	7	6	5	7	7	7	7	7	6	7	7	5	-1	6	5	-1	6	7	6
4	3	6	5	5	4	4	3	2	6	4	4	5	5	5	6	7	4	4	5	3	6	6	5	5
5	6	7	7	6	6	7	5	6	6	5	5	5	6	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	7	7	7	5
6	4	7	5	5	6	7	5	5	7	7	6	7	7	4	7	7	7	7	7	4	7	7	7	6
5	5	6	6	5	4	6	5	5	7	7	7	5	7	4	7	7	7	5	-1	5	7	6	7	5
6	6	6	5	5	5	6	5	5	7	6	5	6	7	5	7	7	6	6	7	6	7	7	7	7
7	6	7	7	7	7	7	5	5	7	7	5	6	7	5	7	7	5	4	6	6	7	7	7	7
5	6	7	4	6	4	6	4	4	4	5	3	4	5	3	7	5	3	2	7	5	7	5	7	4
5	5	7	7	6	7	7	6	6	7	7	6	7	7	5	7	7	5	6	7	5	7	7	7	6
4	4	5	4	3	3	5	4	3	6	4	4	6	6	3	7	7	4	4	3	5	7	7	5	5
6	4	6	6	6	5	6	5	1	7	3	6	4	7	5	7	7	7	5	6	4	6	6	6	4
6	5	6	5	6	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	5	5	3	3	5	4	6	6	5	4
6	6	7	6	6	7	6	5	4	5	5	5	6	5	4	5	5	3	4	7	5	7	6	6	6
6	6	7	5	6	5	5	6	5	7	5	6	5	5	4	7	7	5	4	7	4	6	5	6	5
7	6	7	5	6	6	7	5	5	6	6	5	6	6	4	6	4	4	5	6	5	6	6	7	7
4	3	6	6	5	5	4	5	5	6	6	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
2	2	6	4	6	5	6	2	2	6	2	5	6	6	2	7	4	2	2	5	2	6	5	5	6
7	7	7	6	6	6	7	5	5	7	5	6	7	7	5	7	7	6	6	7	6	7	7	7	7
6	4	7	6	7	7	6	5	3	6	4	5	5	7	2	7	6	5	4	6	2	7	5	7	5
-1	5	7	7	6	7	6	-1	5	7	7	6	6	7	4	7	7	6	4	-1	4	7	6	6	5
5	4	6	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	3	4	5	3	4	4	5	4	5	4	5	6	6	5
7	5	6	7	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	7	6	7	7	4	4	6	4	6	6	6	5
7	6	7	7	5	5	7	4	4	7	6	3	5	7	3	7	3	4	6	7	4	7	7	6	7
7	5	7	7	6	5	7	4	3	6	5	3	4	7	2	7	6	5	6	7	4	7	7	7	6
6	6	6	5	6	5	6	3	3	6	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	3	5	4	6	5	5	6
6	6	7	4	5	3	7	4	2	7	4	4	7	7	5	7	7	5	6	6	5	7	6	7	6
6	5	7	7	6	5	6	3	3	5	5	4	3	5	2	7	4	3	2	6	3	6	6	5	5
3	2	3	2	1	5	1	6	5	2	6	4	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	3	1	3	2	1	3
2	4	1	2	3	2	2	3	4	2	3	4	5	2	5	2	3	5	6	2	4	1	3	2	3
7	7	7	6	6	6	7	2	2	7	6	5	6	7	3	7	7	7	7	7	6	7	7	7	7
3	-1	5	4	4	4	5	3	1	5	2	2	2	7	2	5	5	4	2	5	3	5	4	5	4
5	4	6	5	4	5	5	5	6	5	5	5	5	5	6	7	5	5	5	6	5	5	5	6	6
5	2	6	4	2	2	5	2	3	6	2	2	4	5	4	6	5	2	3	5	4	6	5	5	5
2	3	6	5	4	4	4	3	4	7	4	4	4	6	3	7	7	5	4	4	4	7	6	6	5
5	6	4	6	7	5	4	6	7	6	7	4	6	3	6	5	6	7	7	6	6	6	7	5	4
6	5	7	4	2	1	4	-1	5	3	4	3	1	6	3	5	5	2	2	4	1	5	4	6	2
4	3	5	5	6	2	2	3	4	5	4	5	2	7	5	7	5	6	3	4	4	5	5	7	3
6	4	5	4	3	3	4	3	6	7	7	5	4	6	3	6	5	4	4	6	3	6	5	5	3
6	4	5	4	3	3	4	3	6	7	7	5	4	6	3	6	5	4	4	6	-1	6	5	6	4
5	4	4	4	3	5	3	5	5	3	4	3	3	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	4	5	3	4
2	4	6	2	6	1	3	4	4	5	1	1	1	2	1	6	5	2	1	2	6	5	5	6	5
5	3	6	3	6	4	5	4	3	6	6	4	6	6	5	4	3	2	-1	1	5	5	-1	5	4
5	1	7	6	6	4	4	4	2	6	5	5	2	6	2	6	7	2	1	7	4	4	2	4	2
5	6	3	7	7	4	4	7	2	2	6	4	4	6	5	2	6	3	2	3	2	2	6	7	6
4	3	6	5	5	5	5	2	2	4	3	3	3	6	3	6	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	6
5	6	7	4	5	6	6	5	4	7	4	5	4	6	6	7	6	5	5	5	5	6	7	6	5

5	5	5	-1	5	4	4	3	3	4	5	4	2	5	2	5	4	3	2	-1	3	4	4	3	2
4	3	5	4	4	3	3	5	6	7	3	4	3	7	4	7	5	5	4	5	4	3	4	4	5
5	3	6	3	7	6	6	5	5	3	3	5	3	6	3	5	5	3	5	3	6	4	3	6	3
5	5	6	6	4	3	4	6	6	6	6	6	5	7	5	7	6	5	5	5	4	6	6	6	4
4	2	5	3	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	3	4	4	2	5	5	3	3	3	2	5	5	5	5
4	3	6	4	3	4	5	5	4	6	4	3	4	4	2	5	6	3	2	3	2	6	5	5	3
5	4	6	6	6	5	3	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	6	7	7	7	7	5	5	5	5	6	6
4	5	4	5	6	5	6	4	4	4	4	6	5	6	6	6	5	4	3	4	4	3	4	5	4
2	2	4	5	4	5	6	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	6	6	7	6	4	5	6	5	5	6	6
5	4	4	3	5	4	3	4	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	3	3	4	3	4	2	6	5	5	3
7	7	6	5	5	4	7	6	5	4	4	3	4	6	7	6	7	5	6	7	7	6	6	6	7
4	5	6	3	2	2	2	3	4	3	3	3	4	5	4	6	5	4	2	3	4	3	2	4	3
4	3	6	3	7	6	6	5	4	3	3	4	4	3	5	4	4	6	3	5	2	5	3	6	5
5	4	4	5	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	7	7	6	6	7	6	7	6	7
7	4	6	4	6	6	5	3	3	5	4	5	5	5	3	6	6	4	5	4	3	5	5	5	4
3	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	6	4	6	4	6	4	6	5	6	5	3	3	6	5	6	4
1	1	2	3	5	2	6	1	1	6	1	3	1	3	3	2	3	2	1	1	2	3	2	1	1
6	3	5	4	3	4	5	4	1	7	3	3	3	2	4	4	4	5	4	4	3	5	6	6	5
6	3	6	5	7	5	6	3	4	6	5	4	5	7	4	6	7	4	3	4	3	3	4	5	4
7	4	4	5	3	4	4	6	3	7	4	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	-1	-1
6	4	7	4	2	4	6	4	2	6	5	2	3	6	4	7	6	3	3	2	2	2	2	5	2
6	6	6	6	5	5	6	6	4	6	5	4	5	7	6	6	7	7	5	5	5	5	5	6	5
5	7	6	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	2	3	6	2	6	7	3	2	4	4	7	6	6	4
6	6	2	2	6	6	7	5	6	6	2	7	5	5	4	7	7	7	7	7	5	7	4	7	5
4	3	4	3	3	3	6	5	3	6	3	3	6	7	3	6	6	4	4	4	5	5	6	6	5
5	2	5	2	2	5	5	2	5	1	2	5	5	4	4	3	5	5	6	4	4	5	6	6	6
4	4	6	4	5	4	5	4	3	6	3	5	4	6	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	5	5
5	5	6	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	3	3	3	6	3	6	6	3	4	4	4	6	5	5	4
2	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	2	3	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	2
7	7	6	7	4	5	6	6	6	7	6	4	5	7	7	7	7	6	5	5	4	6	6	-1	-1
3	2	4	4	3	3	5	2	2	4	4	4	3	7	6	6	7	5	5	5	4	6	6	6	6
5	3	6	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	4	6	4	6	6	3	3	4	3	4	4	5	4
5	6	6	4	4	4	5	3	4	6	4	3	5	4	3	6	4	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2
5	5	5	4	4	5	3	4	3	6	4	3	4	5	3	6	6	2	2	4	3	4	5	5	4
3	2	5	5	4	3	2	3	4	3	3	3	2	5	4	5	3	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	3
2	3	7	6	6	3	3	2	2	6	5	3	2	5	2	7	7	6	3	3	3	7	7	6	6
2	2	2	1	3	2	2	3	1	4	3	3	3	5	3	5	6	2	2	3	4	5	4	3	2
3	3	6	5	6	5	4	5	3	6	4	5	4	6	2	6	6	3	3	3	2	5	4	5	3
2	3	4	4	4	2	3	2	2	4	4	4	4	4	3	6	3	4	3	4	4	4	5	4	4
3	2	1	3	3	5	6	5	6	2	2	6	6	5	5	4	5	7	4	4	2	3	6	6	4
5	5	6	6	5	5	7	5	5	7	5	5	6	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	3	7	6	1	1	4	5	5	7	5	1	1	7	5	7	7	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
5	6	7	7	4	5	4	7	3	7	7	4	6	6	6	7	5	3	4	5	3	6	5	5	4
3	5	6	7	7	6	5	1	2	4	4	7	6	4	4	4	6	7	4	7	6	6	5	7	5

5	5	5	-1	5	4	4	3	3	4	5	4	2	5	2	5	4	3	2	-1	3	4	4	3	2
4	3	5	4	4	3	3	5	6	7	3	4	3	7	4	7	5	5	4	5	4	3	4	4	5
5	3	6	3	7	6	6	5	5	3	3	5	3	6	3	5	5	3	5	3	6	4	3	6	3
5	5	6	6	4	3	4	6	6	6	6	6	5	7	5	7	6	5	5	5	4	6	6	6	4
4	2	5	3	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	3	4	4	2	5	5	3	3	3	2	5	5	5	5
4	3	6	4	3	4	5	5	4	6	4	3	4	4	2	5	6	3	2	3	2	6	5	5	3
5	4	6	6	6	5	3	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	6	7	7	7	7	5	5	5	5	6	6
4	5	4	5	6	5	6	4	4	4	4	6	5	6	6	6	5	4	3	4	4	3	4	5	4
2	2	4	5	4	5	6	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	6	6	7	6	4	5	6	5	5	6	6
5	4	4	3	5	4	3	4	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	3	3	4	3	4	2	6	5	5	3
7	7	6	5	5	4	7	6	5	4	4	3	4	6	7	6	7	5	6	7	7	6	6	6	7
4	5	6	3	2	2	2	3	4	3	3	3	4	5	4	6	5	4	2	3	4	3	2	4	3
4	3	6	3	7	6	6	5	4	3	3	4	4	3	5	4	4	6	3	5	2	5	3	6	5
5	4	4	5	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	7	7	6	6	7	6	7	6	7
7	4	6	4	6	6	5	3	3	5	4	5	5	5	3	6	6	4	5	4	3	5	5	5	4
3	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	6	4	6	4	6	4	6	5	6	5	3	3	6	5	6	4
1	1	2	3	5	2	6	1	1	6	1	3	1	3	3	2	3	2	1	1	2	3	2	1	1
6	3	5	4	3	4	5	4	1	7	3	3	3	2	4	4	4	5	4	4	3	5	6	6	5
6	3	6	5	7	5	6	3	4	6	5	4	5	7	4	6	7	4	3	4	3	3	4	5	4
7	4	4	5	3	4	4	6	3	7	4	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	-1	-1
6	4	7	4	2	4	6	4	2	6	5	2	3	6	4	7	6	3	3	2	2	2	2	5	2
6	6	6	6	5	5	6	6	4	6	5	4	5	7	6	6	7	7	5	5	5	5	5	6	5
5	7	6	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	2	3	6	2	6	7	3	2	4	4	7	6	6	4
6	6	2	2	6	6	7	5	6	6	2	7	5	5	4	7	7	7	7	7	5	7	4	7	5
4	3	4	3	3	3	6	5	3	6	3	3	6	7	3	6	6	4	4	4	5	5	6	6	5
5	2	5	2	2	5	5	2	5	1	2	5	5	4	4	3	5	5	6	4	4	5	6	6	6
4	4	6	4	5	4	5	4	3	6	3	5	4	6	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	5	5
5	5	6	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	3	3	3	6	3	6	6	3	4	4	4	6	5	5	4
2	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	2	3	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	2
7	7	6	7	4	5	6	6	6	7	6	4	5	7	7	7	7	6	5	5	4	6	6	-1	-1
3	2	4	4	3	3	5	2	2	4	4	4	3	7	6	6	7	5	5	5	4	6	6	6	6
5	3	6	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	4	6	4	6	6	3	3	4	3	4	4	5	4
5	6	6	4	4	4	5	3	4	6	4	3	5	4	3	6	4	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2
5	5	5	4	4	5	3	4	3	6	4	3	4	5	3	6	6	2	2	4	3	4	5	5	4
3	2	5	5	4	3	2	3	4	3	3	3	2	5	4	5	3	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	3
2	3	7	6	6	3	3	2	2	6	5	3	2	5	2	7	7	6	3	3	3	7	7	6	6
2	2	2	1	3	2	2	3	1	4	3	3	3	5	3	5	6	2	2	3	4	5	4	3	2
3	3	6	5	6	5	4	5	3	6	4	5	4	6	2	6	6	3	3	3	2	5	4	5	3
2	3	4	4	4	2	3	2	2	4	4	4	4	4	3	6	3	4	3	4	4	4	5	4	4
3	2	1	3	3	5	6	5	6	2	2	6	6	5	5	4	5	7	4	4	2	3	6	6	4
5	5	6	6	5	5	7	5	5	7	5	5	6	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	3	7	6	1	1	4	5	5	7	5	1	1	7	5	7	7	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
5	6	7	7	4	5	4	7	3	7	7	4	6	6	6	7	5	3	4	5	3	6	5	5	4
3	5	6	7	7	6	5	1	2	4	4	7	6	4	4	4	6	7	4	7	6	6	5	7	5

The method used in the analysis of this table is as follows: First, the twenty-five statements, which contained statements about the seven genres and four basic skills,

were categorised as genres. Second, the means of ratings for the seven genres were calculated separately and presented in Table 9.8 in a rank order.

Third, the twenty-five statements were categorised in terms of four basic skills. The means of the four skills were calculated and presented in Table 9.9. Fourth, students' judgmental ratings for twenty-five statements were used to find out their overall levels of competence in Table 9.10. Finally, students' judgmental ratings were categorised in Table 9.11 as follows:

- | | |
|------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 and 2 | = Low level of competence |
| 3, 4 and 5 | = Moderate level of competence |
| 6 and 7 | = High level of competence |

**APPENDIX S. Raters' Ratings of Students in Spoken Tasks Against the ESU
Criteria**

Pr1	Pr2	Pr3	Te1	Te2	Te3	Pe1	Pe2	Pe3	Sy1	Sy2	Sy3	Pu1	Pu2	Pu3	Co1	Co2	Co3
5	5	4	4	6	5	4	6	5	4	6	5	4	6	5	6	7	7
5	5	4	3	5	3	5	6	5	5	6	6	5	7	6	4	6	6
4	4	2	2	3	2	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	4
5	5	4	4	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	4	5	5
6	7	6	5	6	5	5	7	6	6	7	7	7	7	6	6	7	6
3	3	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	4	3
4	6	5	5	6	4	4	7	6	4	6	6	3	5	5	5	5	6
6	4	4	6	4	5	3	5	5	3	4	3	4	4	4	5	6	6
4	4	3	3	3	3	2	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	5	4	4
3	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	4	3
1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3
2	4	3	2	3	3	3	4	4	3	5	4	3	5	6	5	5	6
5	5	5	3	2	1	4	4	3	3	4	4	2	5	4	5	5	4
2	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	5	4	3	4	4
1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	5	4	6	3	5	5	5	6	6
5	5	4	4	4	4	2	3	4	6	4	5	3	5	5	5	6	6
5	6	6	5	5	6	6	7	5	5	7	6	6	7	8	8	8	8
4	2	2	2	3	3	2	4	4	5	3	3	2	4	3	3	4	4
4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	5	4	5	3	5	4	5	6
5	6	4	3	4	2	3	6	3	5	6	4	4	6	4	5	5	5
4	3	3	2	2	1	2	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	4	4	3
4	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	2	4	4	2	4	4	5	6	5
3	5	5	4	4	5	3	5	5	3	6	5	3	6	5	6	6	6
6	3	4	2	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	5	4	4	3	4	4
4	6	5	3	5	3	4	7	6	3	5	6	4	4	6	7	6	7
6	6	7	4	5	6	7	6	7	5	8	7	6	8	7	7	7	7
3	1	1	1	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	6	5	5
2	2	2	2	4	4	3	4	4	2	2	2	3	4	4	3	4	4
3	4	3	3	3	4	3	5	4	4	5	6	4	4	5	7	6	7
2	4	4	2	4	3	2	4	4	2	4	4	3	4	3	5	6	6

(Pr = procedural; Te = technical; Pe = Personal; Sy = system; Pu = public; CO = cooperative; 1 = rater 1; 2 = rater 2; 3 = rater 3).

APPENDIX T. Raters' Ratings of Students in Written Tasks Against the ESU Criteria.

Pr1	Pr2	Pr3	Te1	Te2	Te3	Pe1	Pe2	Pe3	Sy1	Sy2	Sy3	Pu1	Pu2	Pu3	Co1	Co2	Co3
5	7	6	3	6	6	4	4	5	5	5	6	5	6	7	4	4	5
5	7	6	5	6	5	6	7	6	5	5	5	4	5	5	6	6	7
4	7	6	3	4	4	3	4	4	2	4	4	3	4	5	3	4	4
5	6	6	4	6	5	4	5	5	3	5	4	2	3	5	3	4	3
6	6	5	2	3	3	4	6	5	4	6	5	5	6	5	6	5	4
3	4	4	2	4	3							2	3	3	3	4	4
3	4	4	4	5	3	5	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3
6	5	5	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	3	3	5	3	5	4	4
4	4	3	1	2	2	2	3	3	2	4	3	3	5	4	2	2	2
			1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	4	3	5	4	2	3	3	3	4	4
4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	5	3	4	4	3	4	4	2	3	3
3	6	4	2	3	3	2	4	3	3	2	3	6	5	5	5	4	5
3	5	4	2	3	4				3	3	3	6	6	5	4	5	4
3	4	4	2	3	3	7	5	5	6	5	6	5	4	4	4	4	4
2	4	4	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	1	1	1
4	6	7	4	5	5	4	6	7	5	6	6	5	4	6	4	5	5
4	4	2	2	3	3	3	4	3	2	3	3	5	5	5	3	3	4
2	2	4	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3
2	3	3	2	2	2				3	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	4
4	4	5	1	2	2	5	5	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	4	4
3	5	4	2	3	3	3	4	3	5	4	4	5	6	6	4	5	4
4	4	6	4	2	5	3	3	4	4	5	5	3	3	3	2	5	4
4	4	3	2	4	3	4	7	7	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3
4	7	6	2	3	3	4	5	5	3	3	4	2	2	2	1	2	2
1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	4	4	2	3	3	3	3	3

(Pr = procedural; Te = technical; Pe = Personal; Sy = system; Pu = public; CO = cooperative; 1 = rater 1; 2 = rater 2; 3 = rater 3).

