Research Review

Adult ESOL pedagogy: a review of research, an annotated bibliography and recommendations for future research.

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Acknowledgements

Summary

This report reviews research into the learning of English in classroom settings by adult speakers of other languages (ESOL). There has been little UK research and relevant research from Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States is also included.

The section on *Learners and learning* is concerned with studies of the process of language learning; it examines the tradition of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, which has looked at factors such as age, aptitude, personality and motivation to build up a picture of the good language learner.

The section on *Teachers, classrooms and tasks* discusses research which investigates the relationships between teaching and learning, including research on the learning of language form and on uptake.

The section on *ESOL literacy* is concerned with research into the teaching and learning of the written language. Here, three distinct groups of learners are identified: those who are already literate in other languages; those with little experience of literacy or education; and those who speak a Creole or dialect of English. The research on multilingualism is of value in understanding this range of learners.

The section on *Organisation of provision* looks at issues of policy, intensity of provision, language support and workplace provision. A further section on *Research methods* examines the strengths and limitations of the three broad methodologies which have been used: experimental studies, classroom observation and practitioner research. This is followed by a short section of assessment procedures.

At the end of each of the first four sections, specific research issues which arise from the literature are identified. These could provide topics for specific pieces of research. Looking more broadly, we make a set of recommendations for an overall research agenda for ESOL pedagogic practice in the UK. This consists of proposals for research on: actual pedagogic practice in ESOL classrooms and other settings; the processes of teaching and learning; providing an account of the learners, their needs and expectations; and developing a pedagogically appropriate theory of language and literacy.

Introduction

This report is one of the first literature reviews completed by the DfES funded National Research and Development Centre for Adult Literacy and Numeracy (NRDC). The report discusses research into the learning of English in classroom settings by adult speakers of other languages (ESOL)[1]. It was completed in July 2002; it was written to inform NRDC research activities and to support the development of ESOL research more generally.

Provision for ESOL is an essential part of **Skills for Life**: the national strategy for improving adult literacy and numeracy skills and follows the recommendations clearly set out in the report *Breaking the Language Barriers* (DfEE 2000). The report recommended an infrastructure for ESOL provision covering standards, a national curriculum, and frameworks for accreditation, teacher training and inspection. These were all being developed alongside each other whilst the review was being written, including the Adult ESOL curriculum which was launched in 2002.

This report focuses on learners who need English for the UK workplace, for study in further and higher education and for living in the community. Generally they are aged 18 and over, but the needs of some learners, recently arriving in the UK, in the age range 16–19, are also included. Excluded are those learners who come to the UK for a short stay specifically to study in language schools, and international students in higher education who need pre-sessional courses before starting their studies. The review mainly concentrates on research that has taken place in the last fifteen years and it has attempted to include all of the research that has been carried out within the UK. As most of this has been fairly small scale or not directly concerned with pedagogy, research that has been carried out in the USA, Australia, Canada and Europe is also included and its appropriacy for the UK context is discussed here.

The report starts with a discussion of research that investigates the language learning process and individual variations; this is discussed within the context of a broadening of focus in the past twenty years as research has shifted from concentrating on cognitive processes to including social aspects of learning. It then moves on to review research that has concentrated on exploring the relationships between teaching and language learning. In both these sections, the research has prioritised the acquisition of the oral language (Oracy), so the following section is a discussion of recent research that has concentrated on the teaching and learning of the written language and the relations between literacies in first and subsequent languages, most of which has been carried out in America, Australia and Canada. We then look at investigations into broader issues that impact on pedagogic practice and support for the continuing needs of learners in mainstream education, the workplace and the community. The final section evaluates some of the different methodological approaches to research into learning in the classroom.

Each of the main sections contains a list of research issues which arise as a result of the review of the literature and the report concludes with a set of recommendations for research.

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[1] We are using ESOL as an umbrella term for all adult learners of English in the UK, but other terms are in use in the field. For example, English as an Additional Language (EAL) is a term most often used to identify such learners in schools. English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is a term often used in the UK to identify particular types of learner; a distinction that is discussed in the report. In the US the term English as a second language (ESL) is mostly used, although the pedagogy itself is labelled as TESOL.

Accompanying the report is an annotated bibliography of all the research that has been consulted in the survey that forms the basis of this report.

The UK context

The ESOL classroom in the UK is neither homogeneous across educational establishments nor stable. There has been a great deal of change, both in policy and in the kinds of learners that come for English language instruction. Historically, policy towards ESOL provision has been rather piecemeal and isolated from other provision for adult education (Hamilton and Merrifield 2000).

A decade ago the boundaries between ESOL departments and mainstream educational provision in Further Education (FE) colleges were weakening and there were many projects exploring the issues of language support across the curriculum and of team teaching with subject teachers. More recently, however, government measures have included ESOL within the general field of Adult Basic Skills, and so ESOL provision is adjusting to a new set of boundaries and requirements. ESOL learners can be found in literacy and numeracy classes as well as in ESOL classes (Brooks et al. 2001). Alongside this move has been the introduction of an Adult ESOL Core Curriculum (DfES 2002) as part of the national strategy for literacy, language and numeracy. Language support continues in some colleges, but often under the aegis of a different department. These policy changes obviously have an effect on practice and the kinds of questions that are asked about language learning.

ESOL learners and their needs have been changing too. Exactly how many learners there are who need English language teaching is not known, but two fairly recent research reports both give estimates of between 1–1.5 million (Brooks et al. 2000; Schellekens 2001). ESOL provision has largely been shaped by the needs of settled communities of immigrants from the new Commonwealth and the more fluctuating populations of refugees and asylum seekers. These learners were traditionally considered to need different types of instruction and accreditation than that offered by the other branch of English language instruction, English as a Foreign Language (EFL). EFL has generated materials, teacher training, language learning theory and research for both the teaching of English overseas and special short-term courses for learners coming to the UK. Such courses offered by language schools and FE colleges are based on the assumptions that the learners have already spent some time studying English, they wish to be in the UK for a short period and they have been successful students in their own countries (Cooke 2000).

However, several commentators now argue that such a divide between the two groups of learners is no longer sustainable, nor does it address the diverse needs of the adult learners who come to FE colleges for help with their English (Thompson 1994; Cooke 2000; Schellekens 2001). Many refugees, asylum seekers and migrants now arrive with professional backgrounds, varied amounts of exposure to formal English learning and a desire to enter higher education here in the UK, or to validate their professional qualifications and pursue their professional careers. Materials designed for the EFL market are regularly used in ESOL classrooms (Sunderland 1992) but EFL accreditation such as the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES) exams, may not be on offer in ESOL classes. In addition, Britain's entry into the European Union has added another dimension; an increase in the numbers of Europeans working, or seeking to work here. These also seek language support and come with a wide range of education backgrounds.

At the same time, there is a significant minority of learners who arrive in this country with very little experience of formal education, and there are groups of learners within the ethnic minority communities who have been in the UK for some time and continue to need support, some on an outreach basis. Overall, the ESOL classroom can be recognised by the diversity of the backgrounds and needs of its learners. (See also DfEE 2000.)

Learners and learning

This section is concerned with research that has focused on the learning process in both formal and informal settings, and individual variations amongst learners. The research draws on a long tradition of investigation into the learning of languages which is given the overarching name of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Some reviews and critiques of this research are described in the bibliography (Long 1988; Davies, et al. 1997; Firth and Wagner 1997; Larsen-Freeman 2001). Most of these studies are small scale and many concentrate on children rather than adults. They are concerned with trying to identify the good language learner and typically explore factors such as age, aptitude, personality, motivation, attitude, cognitive style and learning strategies. The research selected for discussion here relates specifically to the kind of adult learner to be found in a UK ESOL classroom.

A study of attitudes and motivation in second or subsequent language learning was carried out in the UK in 1989 (Khanna et al. 1998b; Khanna et al. 1998a). This research examined how positive and negative attitudes towards British people and the English language related to proficiency in learning English, as reported by their teachers. 133 adult ESOL learners in different parts of Britain completed a questionnaire (translated into the mother tongues of the learners) containing linguistic and social stereotypes in the form of key words. They were also asked to give information about their language use in different contexts and educational experience; the researchers visited classes, interviewed the teachers and asked them to grade the informants' levels of speaking, listening, reading and writing. Of the informants, there were two fairly large groups from India and Pakistan, much smaller groups from China and Hong Kong and Bangladesh and a scattering of learners from other countries. The researchers hypothesised that those learners who held positive attitudes towards both the English language and British people would have higher levels of proficiency in English. The group of Bangladeshi learners proved this hypothesis to be true however there were only eight of these and the other findings presented a more complex picture. The researchers concluded that success in language learning was not simply a question of attitude and found that age of entry into the UK was also significant.

This cross-cultural study was based on psychological concepts of motivation but also incorporated a sociolinguistic approach to research into language use and learning. It is an important study as it provides a picture of adult learners' attitudes, motivations and language use outside the classroom. It also describes these educational settings in the late 1980s, but an exploration of the relations between pedagogic practice and learning was beyond its scope.

Looking more broadly, over the last five years there have been a number of critiques of SLA studies that have arisen from both theoretical advances in understandings of language and from ethnographic studies of language use. (Firth and Wagner 1997; Hall 1997; Norton 2000; Breen 2001a; Breen 2001b; Larsen-Freeman 2001; Norton and Toohey 2001; Roberts 2001;

Baynham 2002). These critiques argue that SLA studies have focused too much on cognitive processes and have not taken into account contexts of learning and use. Firth and Wagner, for example, point to the ubiquitous use of the terms *native speaker* and *non-native speaker* in these studies, and argue that such labels portray a neat division that does not reflect reality, nor does it take bilingualism, multi-lingualism and semi-lingualism into account. Baynham uses his research with Moroccan migrants in London to show the richness and complexity of ESOL language practices in diverse contexts. Breen argues that the kind of retrospective accounts that are used to ascertain individual learning styles are not reliable and do not tell us how individual cognitive processes interact with social practices to produce learning. Hall points to the research and theory on situated cognition and learning and argues that SLA studies should start with understanding communicative practices, as they provide the scaffolding for the development of intersubjective understanding.

An illustration of the need for a consideration of both cognition and context is provided by a research project into the meaning making and learning beliefs of 41 Adult Basic Education (ABE)/ESOL learners in the USA on three different adult programmes; a family literacy course, a high school diploma course on a workplace site and a pre-enrolment course for higher education (Kegan et al. 2001). Using in-depth interviews, structured exercises, focus groups and surveys on three visits to each course, these researchers aimed to capture changes in the learners' beliefs about learning through participation in a variety of ESOL courses. Their informants came from many countries and ranged from newly arrived learners to those who had been in the USA for up to twenty years. The research did not set out to investigate the learning contexts of the informants but did report an unexpected finding that the learners consistently described belonging to a group of fellow learners as significant for their overall development. Three key roles for the cohorts emerged from the qualitative data: participating in collaborative learning activities enhanced their learning; the group provided emotional and psychological support; and the cohort also challenged learners to broaden their perspectives. Such a finding points to the need to consider the social nature of language learning, as well as internal processes.

In addition, despite the fact that some of the informants had newly arrived, all interviews were conducted in English; this was because of financial constraints on the research. Yet, there is no discussion of the problems of the use of the additional language as a medium to capture complex ways of meaning, nor of the possible shaping of learner responses to interviewers through their participation in research interviews with experts from a different institution. In fact, although the researchers described learning beliefs as an interpretative lens through which an individual makes meaning, the research report does not show any awareness of the role of discourse in the construction of knowledge. Language is treated as a transparent medium.

Research by Norton in Canada tells us more about the role of social contexts, discursive positioning, and relations between learning in and out of the classroom. It also provides a definition of the good language learner that is at variance with those within the SLA tradition. The research consisted of a pilot ESOL classroom study followed by a year's study of five female immigrant language learners through diaries, interviews and questionnaires (Norton 2000; Norton and Toohey 2001). Although the five learners all participated in a six month intensive language programme on their arrival in the country, the focus of the research was their language learning outside of the classroom through interaction with target language speakers. By the end of the year the learners considered that the six month intensive ESOL class had helped them learn the basics of English, but that it was through everyday

conversation outside the classroom that they became more fluent. Yet the research showed that not all the women were able to access social networks for such conversation and also that immigrants have to communicate in challenging conditions.

The study shows how one immigrant was much more successful at learning English than the others. During the study all five learners were assessed by means of a cloze passage, dictation, dialogue, crossword, short essay and oral interview. One of them, a young Polish woman, outperformed the others. Norton argues that, although the others also took an active approach to language learning, this informant's social strategies differed. She overcame the constraints placed on her in the workplace through her limited level of English and low status job; both of which led to her exclusion from the social networks of the workplace. She managed to reposition herself as a multi-lingual resource with a desirable partner and thus gained access to interaction with speakers of English. This is a different picture of learning strategies of a "good language learner" from those considered in many SLA studies. Language learning, according to Norton and Toohey, is essentially social in nature and results from situated experience.

A significant piece of research into immigrant language use and learning outside of the classroom was funded by the European Science Foundation (Perdue 1993). This was a longitudinal study of second or subsequent language acquisition by 40 adult immigrants in five industrialised European countries. The study concentrates on analysing changes in the oral performance of the informants in the target language over time and comparisons between the acquisition stages of speakers of different first languages. The data consists of recorded interviews, role plays, play scenes and observed tasks in town, and have been made into a public archive. The study provides a comparative analysis of the acquisition of linguistic features. It also describes the communication strategies used by the informants in everyday encounters and assesses these as opportunities for informal learning[2].

The additional language use of speakers of 11 different first languages was analysed and one of the results of the analysis was that all the first languages had an influence on the acquisition of the subsequent languages, and that each native language has trained its speakers to pay different kinds of attention to events and experiences and they transfer this to the additional language. This transfer happens in the linguistic categories most separate from visual observation, for example tense, or noun rather than preposition. They also state that such features are very resistant to restructuring. Although this study does not consider the effects of formal instruction, this finding raises the question of expectations of the accuracy levels of ESOL learners (see for example reports of employers' expectations of both fluency and accuracy in the spoken language in research into barriers to employment (Schellekens 2001)).

Another important finding of the research parallels that of Norton's, that adult immigrants typically have to use the target language in environments which promote anxiety and marginalisation rather than opportunities for language learning. It was found that most of their everyday use of the additional language is within asymmetrical interaction (such as when they are clients, customers and interviewees). How can pedagogic practice take account of such interaction?

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[2] Informants are treated as not having had any classes, despite the fact that 14 of them received over 100 hours of teaching.

Another factor that affects the language learning process for a small but significant number of refugees and asylum seekers is that of trauma. In Sweden special provision was set up for traumatised refugees who would normally drop out of mainstream ESOL provision (Roden 1999; Carlson et al. 2001). The course integrates educational needs with the learners' physical and psychological needs. Roden reports that the project found traumatised refugees have to be identified early and given special support: those who came to the course after failing other courses have little chance of learning Swedish successfully. This project was evaluated through interviews with 15 learners who participated in the course (Carlson, Gustafsson, et al. 2001), but at the time of writing this review the report had not been translated into English. We have not found any research into teaching traumatised learners in the UK but a publication on Somalian children by the London Language and Literacy Unit gives some idea of the traumatic experiences that many refugees bring with them into the classroom and the barriers to learning this can cause (Hassan 1994).

Finally, there is also the question of dyslexia, a learning disorder that has recently attracted much attention in mainstream education. In the UK an ESOL and Dyslexia Working Party met for three years and has produced a practical guide for teachers based on the experience of a number of tutors practised in assessing and teaching dyslexic learners, ESOL learners and bilingual dyslexic learners (Sunderland et al. 1997). This contains detailed discussion of potential problems, cultural and linguistic factors to consider, diagnostic tools and teaching approaches. It argues that dyslexia in a first language can have a considerable negative effect on subsequent language learning. A dyslexic learner may experience difficulties with auditory, visual or motor processing. However, there is no research in the UK on the extent of this problem or which teaching approaches are more effective.

Research issues on learners and learning

Based on this review of the literature, there are several research questions and issues which remain. Some of them are:

■ What is the relationship between individual learning factors and the context of learning?
■ How can theories of situated cognition and learning inform research into learning English in ESOL classrooms?
■ How can classrooms take account of the social and linguistic experiences of learners outside of the classroom?
■ How can teachers take account of transfer from the first to subsequent languages?
■ How can ESOL courses help traumatised learners?
■ What are effective ways of supporting ESOL learners with dyslexia?

These issues are intended to be indicative and they are at different levels of specificity. They relate to the studies described above in this section and researchers wishing to pursue these topics would need to go back to the actual studies. In the recommendations section at the end of the report we make specific proposals for a set of studies which could be carried out in Britain.

Teachers, classrooms and tasks

In this section we consider the research that has focused specifically on the classroom as a learning environment. There have been a number of studies that have looked at specific aspects of classroom activities in order to try and understand what are effective mechanisms for language learning and the connections between teaching and learning. One pioneering study by Slimani was not conducted in an ESOL setting, but is worth mentioning here, because it attempted to capture the elusive relationship between classroom practice and individual learning. She investigated what 13 university engineering students claimed to learn from an EFL teacher-centred grammar class over six weeks in Algeria and how these claims related to the classroom interaction (Slimani 2001). The methods included classroom observation and recording and the filling in of two sets of uptake questionnaire, immediately after class and three hours later. Uptake, for Slimani, is a shorthand term to denote what learners claim to learn from a particular class. One of her findings was that uptake was highly idiosyncratic in that 75% of the claimed items were reported by no more than three learners at a time. Most of this learning came from topics that had been raised by learners rather than the teacher.

A small scale study of uptake was carried out with adult ESOL learners in New Zealand. This study took place in two classes that were based on meaning-focused tasks that are more likely to be found in UK ESOL classrooms than the traditional grammar explanation approach investigated by Slimani. This study also found a positive relationship between learners initiating discussion on language form and then incorporating that form into their talk (Ellis, Basturkmen et al. 2001). Finding out whether learners continued to use this uptake was beyond the scope of both projects.

A piece of research in the UK that also focused on the learning of form was an experimental study of four adult ESOL learners participating in a series of communicative tasks designed to encourage self-monitoring of output (Bird 1998). All students demonstrated repeat use of modified output after one week, and had begun to become more aware of the importance of accuracy in the use of grammar and syntax. This was especially valuable for one learner who had been in the UK a long time and had become a fluent speaker but her spoken language was full of "fossilised" errors. However, the students needed a great deal of guidance from the teacher and there was no scope to assess long-term learning. In addition, the activities were demanding of teacher time and did not take place within a regular class. Such studies give us understanding of some of the components of formal language learning, such as the effectiveness of particular tasks. However, they do not provide a holistic picture of the interaction and social relations of classrooms that give rise to learning.

Some researchers argue that we need to consider classrooms as a form of social practice in order to understand the formal learning of language. Allwright, for example, focuses on "unpedagogic" behaviour that is to be found in transcripts of language classrooms (Allwright 1996). He argues that there are social as well as pedagogic demands at play in classrooms and both need to be explored. Breen also emphasises the need to understand how social relationships work in the classroom, as it is these that orchestrate opportunities for learning (Breen 2001a). After reviewing classroom studies into learner participation in classroom tasks, he calls for an understanding of classroom discursive practices. Such an investigation would include the relationship between learners' recognition of appropriate participation in classroom interaction and language acquisition. In order to understand acquisition, he argues, we need to understand the context of that acquisition.

An ethnographic study of four multi-cultural classrooms in which most of the learners were young adults (16–19) investigates their discursive practices[3] and social relations and relates them to learning (Roberts et al. 1992). These were vocational education classes, not ESOL ones, but such classes are the destinations of some ESOL learners. The study found that the learners needed explicit teaching of the specific kind of talk needed for group learning tasks. In addition, the study explored how different teaching styles encouraged or inhibited a successful learning environment in the classroom. Thompson, who ran a special course for refugees wanting to go into higher education, also argues that such learners need to be taught specific discourse practices, (Thompson 1994). Research into the needs of young adult learners newly arrived in the UK and attending FE college, also found that they needed explicit study and learning skills teaching (Bishop 1989/90).

The forms of language which are taught are based on grammar. Applied linguists have developed pedagogic grammars or communicative grammars with the intention that the descriptions of language are in a form which can be taught. Such grammars are increasingly developed from actual language use and are based on extensive corpora of the English language. An influential example of this has been the CANCODE project (Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English) where applied linguists have identified standard forms of spoken English which have not been part of the traditional grammars of written English. These researchers also engage with teaching and provide approaches to teaching grammar (for example McCarthy and Carter 1995; McCarthy 1998; Carter 1999). Some of this work has informed the adult ESOL curriculum. This research can also examine the extent to which text book examples are based upon real language, and providing support for the tradition of using authentic texts in English language teaching (for example Carter 1998).

Studies of the needs of learners also show that formal teaching practices require particular ways with language and these vary, according to the type of course. Learners from different cultures need to become aware of these ways with language in order to succeed in the British educational fields. Therefore, research into pedagogic practice needs to take account of the ways of language in the ESOL classroom in order to further understandings about how language use interacts with language learning. Breen underlines the need to approach an investigation of classroom learning as an anthropologist would a new and unknown culture (Breen 2001b).

ESOL adult learners come into these specific contexts with diverse previous learning experiences and expectations. When Schellekens interviewed 123 learners who had attended ESOL courses regularly, for example, she found that 97% of them were positive about their courses but wanted more systematic teaching, such as more specific attention to grammar; feedback on their spoken English; a focus on pronunciation and time to practise new language items (Schellekens 2001).

Cooke also interviewed learners in a comparative study of an EFL and an ESOL course, and she found that the ESOL learners regarded the EFL course as more serious and rigorous and that the UCLES exams, such as the Cambridge First Certificate exam which has a heavy focus on reading, writing and grammar knowledge, had higher status than the accreditation on offer through the ESOL course (Cooke 2000).

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[3] Following the individual researchers, we use the terms 'discursive practices' and 'discourse practices' to focus on the particular ways of using language in specific educational practices such as pair work or group work.

In Australia, teacher research into learners' reading practices outside the classroom and attitudes towards the teaching of reading in class led to a change of practice to accommodate some differences between learners and teacher (Burns and de Silva Joyce 2000). For example, many learners wanted to read aloud in class in order to improve their pronunciation, so two teachers experimented with reading aloud in small groups.

These studies indicate that there may often be a gap between teacher and learner expectations of classroom practice, and this gap may construct a barrier to learning. Breen suggests that teachers and learners should investigate their own learning as part of the language learning process (Breen 2001b). Allwright has gone further and developed a framework designed to support learner and teacher investigations into classroom practice (Allwright 2001; Allwright 2002). This vision of classroom research is called Exploratory Practice, and it offers one way to investigate different learning expectations and beliefs in language classrooms for both teachers and learners. Research into learners' practices outside of the classroom (Saxena 1993; Burns and de Silva Joyce 2000) may also be beneficial for pedagogic practice.

A different approach to reducing this gap in specific communities is offered by a project in the USA that innovated the training of immigrants and refugees as adult ESL and first language literacy instructors in their own communities (Auerbach 1996). This approach was innovated in Sheffield in the late 1980s with the Yemeni Literacy Campaign, which is discussed in the next section on ESOL literacy. The American project was a year long collaboration between a university and three different communities. Six bilingual instructors (two per community) were trained through university workshops, in-class mentoring and teacher-sharing meetings. A participatory approach was used for both the teacher training and the classroom. This approach is defined in the report as including the adult learners and instructors in setting goals, identifying needs, choosing learning activities and evaluating progress. Curriculum content focuses on the learners' and instructors' experiences and concerns.

Assessment of both the teacher training dimension and learners' progress also took a qualitative and participatory approach. Tools used included interviews, minutes of meetings and workshops, samples of participant work, evaluation discussions and peer observations. One of the findings of this project was that community teachers were particularly suited to identifying issues, building trust and linking literacy issues with community ones, and providing a role model. The participatory approach was judged as appropriate for the learners involved and it led to advances in beginning students' abilities to read and write after relatively short times. According to the report, using the participatory approach as a vehicle for teacher training helped the instructors to value active learning for themselves, as well as their students, but in some cases their prior educational experiences caused them to be uncomfortable with this approach, and the rate and extent of change from a teacher to a learner-centred approach was uneven.

Another way of addressing individual learner needs and providing support for classroom learning is the increasing development of new technologies in study centres within FE colleges (Millam 2000; Vargas 2001). The London Language and Literacy Unit has produced a practical guide to Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) which maps CALL programmes to the new ESOL curriculum and the ESOL foundation levels, discusses induction and reviews CALL materials (Millam 2000), and Vargas describes the increase in access to new technology for ESOL learners (Vargas 2001). She also raises questions about the precise role of new technologies in language learning that have not been addressed.

There seems to be no research that investigates the role of such developments in ESOL learning and pedagogic practice.

Research issues on teachers, classrooms and tasks

These are some of the research questions and issues which arise about teachers, classrooms and tasks. As in the previous section, they are intended to be indicative and any researcher would need to go back to the original studies.

- What classroom tasks are effective to help learners overcome "fossilised" language use?
- Can investigations into learning by teachers and learners enhance understandings of language learning?
- How can teachers take account of diverse learner expectations?
- In what ways do members of different language communities in the UK contribute towards learning programmes, and how can their involvement be enhanced?
- In what ways can new technologies be used to facilitate language learning?

ESOL literacy

As reading and writing become increasingly salient in the fields of education and work, so both theory and research into the learning of literacy in first and subsequent or additional languages has expanded. With regard to ESOL classrooms there are three dimensions to this research related to three specific groups of learners:

1. The teaching of English literacy to those learners who are literate in other languages. Questions arise as to what relationships there are between written languages and the specific problems of learners whose first languages have different scripts and cultural approaches to texts.
2. Teaching those learners who have had no or very little experience of their first written language or come from an oral culture.
3. The writing difficulties of bilingual learners whose other language is a creole or dialect of English.

Although research that focuses on the second dimension is reviewed in this section (Bell 1995; Bell 1997; American Institutes for Research 2001), most of the research on ESOL literacy covers both learners with and without first language literacy (partly because learners with little experience of any written language are not often taught separately), so it is not possible to divide the following discussion neatly into the three dimensions outlined above.

There exists little actual research into any of these issues in the UK. Cooke, in her investigation into an EFL course and an ESOL course in one London college (Cooke 2000), argued that neither course met the literacy needs of the learners. The teachers were not trained to help those learners with little literacy in their first language but at the same time the ESOL course was too basic for those learners with a high educational level. On the other hand, the EFL course presumed that learners had a high level of education, but not all those

placed on this course fitted that description and so struggled with the demands of the course, including the writing tasks.

Previous, but much larger scale research in the 1990s in the UK showed that minority linguistic communities here need both English language and literacy support (Carr-Hill, et al. 1996). Around one thousand informants, mainly drawn from five minority linguistic communities and a smaller number from four refugee groups, were interviewed and tested for writing, reading and listening in English. Excluded were those born in Britain or holding a British qualification. Although many of them were multilingual, a high proportion performed very poorly on the tests. The refugee groups performed better. (See also Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit 1989.) Saxena conducted a smaller study of the Panjabi community in Southall, London, which included mapping the literacy practices of one family, as well as research into what he called the "multiliteracy market" amongst the different ethnic communities in the area (Saxena 1993). His research showed the complex network of literacies and languages that exist in Southall. He argues that this multi-literacy receives little support from our monolingual institutions.

Some family literacy programmes in the UK specifically target adult ESOL learners who are involved in the care of pre-school or school age children (most often mothers). 47 of these courses, implemented by the Basic Skills Agency, were evaluated by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER). Profiles were collected for 153 of the adult ESOL learners participating in these courses. The majority declared either Punjabi or Urdu as their first languages, and some of these declared both Punjabi and Urdu. 89 were literate in their first language, 35 in another language and 89 literate in English. 94 reported that they had no school qualifications in either their first or other languages, or English, but 14 had higher education qualifications, mainly in their first languages. Thus the sample's language and literacy experience was extremely varied, which seems to be representative of ESOL learners in general in the UK. This research measured the English literacy of 223 parents at the beginning of the courses and 163 at the end, using reading and writing tests developed by the Basic Skills Agency for literacy learners whose first language is English. Their average final score was 10% higher than the average starting score, thus demonstrating that the family literacy courses provided opportunities for the development of English literacy.

The research report stated that successful adaptation of family literacy models for linguistic minorities depended on close attention to bilingual issues. At least some of the courses employed bilingual assistants (exact numbers are not given) and mention is made by one tutor of the use of bilingual readers. But there is no evidence or actual exploration of the development of the first language literacy in this report. The tutors were interviewed about factors contributing towards the success of the programmes. These included the calibre of the staff, the quality of the teaching, what the parents and children brought to the courses, the joint session when carers and children work together, and material factors. The learners' evaluations of the courses were not reported.

In North America Hornberger reviewed research into biliteracy and highlighted the complex configurations of language and literacy that can lead to a learner being labelled as biliterate. She argues that the research shows that there is potential for positive transfer across literacies, but that there are also a myriad of contextual factors that may aid or impede such transfer (Hornberger 1994).

In Sheffield in 1988 the Yemeni Literacy Campaign began an experiment to improve both the

written English of the older generations of Yemenis (who had been badly affected by the massive collapse of the manufacturing industries), and the written Arabic of the younger generation of Yemenis educated in the UK (Gurnah 2000). Initially, 12 young unemployed Yemeni men and women aged between 18–26 were recruited for one year. They received training to support the English literacy learning of adult members of their community, and also attended special classes at a local university to provide them with an orientation towards academic studies. The campaign thus sought to improve the educational opportunities of the younger generations and the job opportunities and community involvement of the older members.

This campaign continued and a Yemeni economic and training centre, organised by community members, was set up. This model of community led biliteracy programmes was taken up by other minority communities in Sheffield, such as the Bangladeshi campaign, the Pakistani campaign, the African Caribbean campaign; all operating under the umbrella of the Sheffield Community Literacy Campaign. Gurnah's account of the Yemeni campaign does not evaluate it in terms of literacy levels. He says that a number of the initial literacy assistants went on to higher education, some found work, others went into further education. He also claims that the project led to the emancipation of young Yemeni women, eight of whom were part of the initial group of twelve assistants. Traditionally, Yemeni women in this community did not take on paid work and were expected to marry. He also attributes the success of the campaign to its firm embedding within the community and the involvement of community leaders. Research into the impact of this model of literacy provision has been carried out by the Learning and Teaching Research Institute of Sheffield Hallam University (Steyne 2002), but the report was not available at the time of writing this review.

In the community project in the USA, in which community members were trained as literacy instructors in three separate communities, the teaching of two of these communities focused on native language literacy instruction (Haitian Creole and Spanish) of those learners with little prior experience (Auerbach 1996). After six months to a year these learners were judged by the teachers to be ready to move on to transitional bilingual ESL classes. How this evaluation was made is not reported. The research report recommends initial instruction in first language literacy and says that such classes proved extremely popular and enabled learners to meet personal goals and participate in community organisations. No details of pedagogic practice are given. However, the very success of the programme led to more waiting lists and gave rise to administrative difficulties as first language literacy classes, bridging classes and English literacy classes are required to fit the differing developmental levels of the learners. In addition, there were very few existing teaching materials for the first language classrooms.

Bell, however, critiques research into the relationship between literacies in different languages, which, she says, result in correlations rather than effects, and do not take into account the distance between languages and contexts of use (Bell 1993; Bell 1995; Bell 1997). In her doctoral research in Canada she undertook a learning study of her own process of becoming literate in Chinese and as a result of this argues that learning another literacy involves new ways of thinking and self-presentation (see also Dubin and Kuhlman 1992). She found that her assumptions about literacy blocked her from making sense of the teacher's goals and that literacy learning at the beginner level involved more challenge and change than learning to speak another language.

Before embarking on her learning study, Bell carried out participant observation for 12 weeks

of a full-time pre-basic ESOL class in a Canadian government centre for recently arrived immigrants. Although the learners had very mixed levels of first language literacy, contact with the written language was mainly restricted to copying of words and reading of dialogues.

Similar pedagogic practice is reported in the preliminary findings of a much larger American research project studying two cohorts of adult ESOL learners (650 in total) in educational programmes across the States (American Institutes for Research 2001 (AIR)). It should be noted that though this research defines itself as a study of Adult ESL Literacy, it also incorporates the learning of the spoken language. Through regular observation of classes and pre and post course testing of the students, the research aimed to discover effective classroom practice for students with fewer than six years formal education. In the first cohort only ten out of forty-one classes were mostly composed of such students; the majority of students in the other classes had higher literacy abilities.

The preliminary report described only the baseline assessment results of testing the 1999 cohort for English literacy (the nature of this assessment is discussed below in the section on research methods). The learners were assessed for both oral and written language levels. Over 80% of learners scored at very low levels in standardised writing tests and at about first grade level on reading tests. Less than 15% of the learners reported reading even simple texts and over two-thirds reported needing a lot of help with writing in English. Low scores were also recorded on oral language abilities. The number of years the learners had experience of education in their first or additional languages is recorded; well over a third of the first cohort did not have any formal education, and the average was only three years. However, literacy in the first language is not recorded (except that the Hmong and the Somali learners came from oral cultures), and there is no mention of biliterate development.

Only nine classes spent the majority of observed time on adult literacy development. There was virtually no instruction on higher order reading and writing skills, such as comprehension, meaning making or guided or free writing. Most instruction was limited to copying and phonics.

Both pieces of research call for the training of ESOL teachers in literacy pedagogy. Bell's research also suggests that particular attention should be paid to those ESOL learners whose written languages and scripts are distant from written English. What literacy pedagogy takes place in UK ESOL classrooms has not been researched.

A research project comparing ESOL and adult literacy pedagogic practice in Australia also points out the differences in teacher education: literacy teachers draw on more adult learning theory and on what they call the whole language approach, which is said to include process writing; ESOL teachers, on the other hand, have more knowledge of linguistics, drawing on genre theory, including systemic linguistics and text analysis. However, they note that the influence of genre theory and systemic linguistics is increasing in both fields (Hammond, Wickert, et al. 1992). They found that in Australian classrooms both literacy and ESOL teaching was involving learners in the setting of course goals, and in promoting learner autonomy. Both included much use of authentic texts, but ESOL teachers tended to focus more explicitly on modelling texts and drawing attention to grammatical features. Unlike the AIR research, however, these findings were based on classes selected as examples of good practice.

A research project in the USA also focused on good practice in the ESOL literacy classroom (Wrigley and Guth 1992). Its aim was to review research and theory in order to identify

effective and innovative instructional approaches, methods and technologies in ESOL literacy. Nine programmes were identified, observed and described, but the researchers stress that there is no universal approach. They found that effective practice included using meaningful tasks, building understanding of the situated nature of literacies, student participation in curriculum decisions and teaching literacy in the native language where possible. Whether such practice is part of good practice in the UK needs exploring, alongside learner and teacher evaluation of such methods.

In the UK there tends to be a gap in the training of ESOL teachers about both the theory and pedagogy of literacy, and there are ESOL learners in our classrooms who need both first and second literacy education. Much can be learnt from the large scale American research programmes but the majority of the learner population needing literacy support in the USA share the same first language (in the first cohort of the AIR research 68% are Spanish speakers). Hence some of the examples of good practice identified by Wrigley and Guth are truly bilingual programmes; for example El Barrio Popular (Rivera 1999). In the UK context the learner population mix is different, and there is also a tradition of outreach programmes to address some of these learners' needs. There is, however, no published research on outreach provision.

Finally, a need for support in writing for educational purposes has been identified in those learners whose first language is a creole or dialect of English, the third dimension of ESOL literacy research as defined at the beginning of this section. Learners are reported to have problems distinguishing their first language from standard English when writing. Although support for this literacy need is also relevant to language support in FE (which is discussed in the next section), the research suggests that education in language awareness and knowledge of their own creoles/dialects is an appropriate pedagogy here (Savitzky 1986; Held 1994). Pedagogic practice in this area was advanced by the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) Afro-Caribbean Project in the 1980s, but there is little mention of this in recent research. Incorporating the vernacular alongside the teaching of standard English is advocated by some American academics (Richardson 2002). The need for language awareness is also supported by Australian research into parallel problems for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Island children and subsequent changes in educational policy (Davies et al. 1997).

In California a special two term course, called Puente, specifically designed for Mexican-Americans and other Latino-Americans, helps them transfer from community colleges to higher education (Cazden 2000). The course, in thirty-two colleges in California, is conducted in English but is co-taught by an English tutor and a Mexican-American counsellor. It emphasises writing and addresses issues of identity and culture; Cazden records that, over a fifteen year period, the transfer rate from community colleges to higher education in California increased from 2% to over 40%.

Research issues on ESOL literacy

There are various research questions and issues which arise from this review of ESOL literacy research, including:

■   What is good practice in the development of biliteracy in adult ESOL classrooms in the UK?
■   What evidence is there that the development of first language literacy results in proficiency in additional language literacy?

■ How do outreach programmes serve learner needs?
■ How can research into literacy practices outside the classroom inform pedagogic practice?
■ What is effective literacy support for speakers of other versions of English?

These could be developed into specific projects with reference to the existing research.

The organisation of provision

In this section we discuss issues to do with educational policy, intensity of provision, language support and workplace provision; these are all issues which impinge on pedagogy but are broader than actual classroom practices.

Educational policy

The problems which arise from dividing language provision into ESOL and EFL courses have already been discussed in the introduction to this report. Cooke's research in the UK points to the need to rethink the way learners are categorised (Cooke 2000), and shows how policy decisions can become a barrier to learner needs in terms of curriculum and accreditation. It is possible that the introduction of the new core curriculum may help redress this problem, but recent policy changes that have brought ESOL provision together with Literacy and Numeracy provision are also raising questions about the similarities and differences between ESOL and these other areas, and impacting on pedagogic practice, as indicated in recent practitioner consultations. Adult literacy is usually organised around individual learner programmes and accreditation reflects this and is based on the notion of knowledge being a set of competencies. ESOL has traditionally been based on the idea of group teaching and language learning taking place through shared classroom tasks. Although the relations between ESOL and literacy have been explored in Australia (Hammond, et al. 1992), as discussed in the previous section, actual classroom practice was not its main focus and research into classroom practice in the UK is needed to investigate how the two educational practices are being brought together successfully to support the learner and where ESOL teachers are setting boundaries.

Intensity of provision

It is difficult to get a clear idea from the research literature about the actual numbers of hours of provision on offer to ESOL learners. A survey carried out by the London Language and Literacy Unit both in London and country-wide found that there was not enough provision and learners wanted more hours of tuition (Rees and Sunderland 1990). Research into drop out also found that there was less drop out from intensive courses (Kambouri, et al. 1996). More recent research investigating the nature and efficacy of ESOL provision in the UK found no improvement in the meeting of learner needs (Schellekens 2001). This research found that nearly all the learners interviewed would prefer more intensive language learning, and that the general language provision on offer mainly catered for learners at beginner to intermediate levels, which are not high enough levels for learners to be able to move into the workplace and further education. Norton's Canadian research, discussed earlier, also

demonstrates that learning a second language needs more than intensive provision for just six months (Norton 2000).

Schellekens' research also points out the gap between teacher and employer expectations of adequacy in communication levels, and argues that ESOL learners are not supported enough to move into appropriate employment by schemes such as work placements, job search skills and workplace training. Most employers who were consulted expected fluent spoken communication, and she put forward a minimum level of language competence for the workplace at NVQ level 3. The Bridge to Work course offered by Croydon Continuing Education and Training Service (CETS) is given as an example of good practice. It is designed for learners with advanced English and professional backgrounds. A report issued by the same organisation evaluates other courses on offer through interviews with selected learners (CETS 1998), but neither of these reports had the scope to examine the language learning process on such courses. There remain many unanswered questions about how ESOL provision can effectively meet the needs of learners at different stages of the long and complex process of learning a second language.

Language support

One form of continued support, especially for young adult ESOL and bilingual learners, that attracted both research and funding a decade ago is the provision of language support on vocational and mainstream FE courses (Faine and Knight 1988; Bishop 1989; Held 1994; Thompson 1994; Widdows 1995). Language support ideally involves both support for individual learners and work with subject tutors, including team teaching, to increase teacher awareness of language and discourse issues in classroom learning. Research by Widdows identified good practice in two colleges in London. She described this as team teaching, which included liaison and planning time, follow up and support sessions. In Schellekens' later research learners on mainstream courses were enthusiastic about both language support and the benefits to their language learning of being with speakers of English as a first language, yet the researcher found that such language support was not on general offer (Schellekens 2001). One reason offered for this was a lack of teachers with the right skills to provide the support and negotiate the difficult task of liasing with subject teachers.

ESOL provision in the workplace

The Industrial Language Training service (ILT) was the site of pedagogical innovation in the workplace in the 1970s and early 1980s (Brooks and Roberts 1985). Some features of ILT included an ethnographic survey of particular workplace needs, an analysis of training needs, and training based on the communicative context of the learners which included the participation of relevant people such as managers, supervisors and co-workers. Since then, however, there seems to have been little research into the extent of provision and contemporary pedagogic practice in this area. In Australia there is an established programme of ESOL workplace provision and some of the benefits of these can be gleaned from research assessing their economic value (Australian Language and Literacy Policy and Project 1996). This report did not look at actual pedagogic practice though. Roberts is completing an up to date review of ESOL workplace provision which encompasses this Australian experience, and points out the emphasis in workplace provision on actual language use in specific contexts (Roberts, in preparation).

Research issues on the organisation of provision.

Various research issues arise on the organisation of provision, such as:

- How can ESOL teachers provide a balance between individual and group learning?
- What pedagogic practice is effective to help learners move from classrooms to the workplace or community?
- How is practice changing in workplace ESOL training?
- What are effective forms of support for ESOL learners in mainstream education, and how can those that provide such support be trained?

These topics could be developed into specific projects.

Research methods

As the focus for this report is on pedagogic practice this section will centre on the classroom as a research site, although the discussion overall has inevitably drawn on research outside the classroom. In the classroom research reviewed there have been three broad methodological approaches to understanding language learning in this context:

1. Experimental studies
2. Observation by expert researchers
3. Practitioner research

Experimental studies

Setting up an experimental situation has been part of the SLA tradition, as one way to try and understand individual variations in language learning. Bird uses this approach to explore the design and efficacy of a specific classroom task (Bird 1998). Four learners and three teacher-researchers were involved for a six month period, so the research is both small scale and yet labour-intensive. The study was originally intended to be part of classroom activity and involve the whole class, but the task design necessitated the production of audible taped talk and this resulted in the need to record away from the noise of the class. The research produced interesting findings about language learning (discussed earlier) which can be drawn on in task design. But, as Bird points out, the learners were participating in language courses throughout this time and it was impossible to isolate the learning from the task from other learning opportunities. How to integrate such tasks into regular classroom practice was also beyond the scope of this research.

This approach has also been applied to pedagogic practice in the US (USA elsewhere) (Brock 1986). Noting the predominance of display questions used by teachers in classrooms, it was hypothesised that specific training of teachers would lead to them asking more referential questions. Two out of four teachers were trained to ask referential questions and then all four taught the same reading and vocabulary class to groups of six learners. It was found that the trained teachers asked significantly more referential questions and learner responses to these were longer and more syntactically complex than responses to display questions.

However, the analysis was quantitative rather than discursive so there was no opportunity to examine the interaction for any traces of learning. No account was taken of teaching style or learner/learner interaction.

Many American studies of academic writing have drawn on experimental approaches. One example that is relevant to the understanding of ESOL literacy learning focused on the relationships between literacy in first and second languages (Carson, et al. 1990). 105 Japanese and Chinese ESOL students were asked to do a piece of comparative writing and complete a cloze passage in both their first and second languages and these were then analysed for understandings of the relationships between the two. Although the difficulty of transforming a Japanese text into a cloze was discussed there were no attempts to discover if cloze passages were part of college literacy practices in the home countries. The literacy tasks were just assumed to be universal. How such writing related to classroom contexts of reading and writing was also absent.

Bird's research shows the value of this approach in exploring one component of pedagogic practice. However, given the complex nature of classroom interaction, and, indeed of learners' lives outside the classroom as revealed by the research discussed in the previous sections of this report (Roberts et al. 1992; Wrigley and Guth 1992; Perdue 1993; Hornberger 1994; Allwright 1996; Bell 1997; Firth and Wagner 1997; Khanna et al. 1998a; Norton 2000; Breen 2001b; Larsen-Freeman 2001; Baynham 2002), the experimental approach has a limited role in furthering holistic understanding of formal language learning processes. It cannot chart the social relations, teaching and learning styles, discursive practices, learner expectations and backgrounds which form the nexus between teaching and learning. This approach, therefore, should be seen as one element within a broader approach to investigating language learning in classrooms.

Classroom observation

By far the most used method in classroom research is systematic observation of classroom practice by researchers who are not part of the regular social relations of the class. The teachers of these classes may or may not be involved in the research project in some form. We will centre the discussion here on two studies, one large scale and one small scale, which could provide models for future research.

The "What Works" study of American ESOL literacy learning is a large scale, quantitative study of classroom practice (American Institutes for Research, 2001). Its aim is to identify instruction that correlates with improved language and literacy skills (discussed earlier), and observation of 41 classes was carried out regularly for nine months. These classes were observed by a trained member of the project, but not video or audio-recorded. Classroom action and interaction was recorded on a set of highly detailed and coded observation guides that were drawn up by the research team from both classroom observation and a review of research into second language and literacy acquisition. These guides capture the type of activity, time spent and patterns of interaction. They were supplemented by a teacher's log of activities.

To accompany these observations, the site staff, teachers and students were interviewed and the students' reading, writing, speaking and listening were assessed at the start of instruction and then three and nine months later. Although some standardised tests were used, the

researchers found that they needed to add some alternative assessments to capture small literacy gains. Students were also interviewed about their literacy practices and teachers gave skill ratings.

Such methodology is highly productive in providing a detailed description of pedagogic practice in many classrooms, and also of charting the learning of a large group of students. It would be instructive to carry out a similar study in the UK to find out more about actual pedagogic practice. What this study cannot capture, however, is how each learner tracked in the research actually interacts and engages with particular tasks, or how the social interaction of the class affords or hinders learning. It produces correlations rather than understanding of how language learning takes place in classroom settings.

A smaller scale study of four multicultural classrooms in the UK approached observation differently (Roberts et al. 1992). In this research four classrooms were videotaped three times throughout a course; the teachers were included in the research team; learners filled out questionnaires at the beginning and end of the course and were also interviewed twice; pre-moderation meetings were recorded and the learners' final grades were collected. Four learners from each class, and the teachers, viewed the recorded lessons and gave feedback on them. Sections of the videos were transcribed and analysed, with reference to the accompanying data. Through this procedure, the researchers were able to build up a detailed picture of classroom learning processes. (See section 3, above, for a discussion of the findings.)

This methodology accords with Allwright's argument that beliefs cannot be discovered through an analysis of transcripts of classroom interaction alone (Allwright 1996) and Breen's argument for an anthropological approach to understand socio-cognitive processes (Breen 2001b). (See Nabei and Swain 2002 for another example of a small scale study that sheds light on the relationship between cognition and classroom interaction.) However, such an approach necessitates close co-operation over a period of time with the educational establishments, teachers and learners and engenders huge amounts of data, areas of difficulty indicated in the research report. As such, it would be difficult to use this methodology on a large scale project, but it could be used to explore identified examples of good practice in depth.

Practitioner research

Although practitioner research can be part of the two approaches discussed above, it can also be the centre of research activity and can lead to a change in pedagogic practice (Burns 2000). Discussed here are two projects conducted through the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research (NCELTR) in Australia (Burns and de Silva Joyce 2000), as an example of this approach. In both these projects there was involvement by one or two researchers from outside the classroom, but they worked together on an equal basis with the teacher-researchers; it was the teacher-researchers who actually carried out the research and wrote the accounts of it that are in the publication. The researchers appear to have acted as facilitators.

In the first project three teachers stepped out of the confines of the classroom to investigate the everyday reading practices of learners from three different language and cultural backgrounds and learner perceptions of learning to read in English in the classroom. The

insights from these studies were the basis of experimentation with different approaches to the teaching of reading by three different teachers. Thus the boundaries of the classroom were breached, pedagogic practice was also examined and the results disseminated to other practitioners via the written accounts. This seems to be an effective and economical form of classroom research, but in order to succeed the practitioners involved need to be allocated space within their working day both to carry out the research and write it up. Therefore close co-operation is needed with the managements of the educational sites.

Allwright and Breen also show ways in which understanding of language learning can be advanced through making methodical reflection and investigation of teaching and learning part of classroom activity (Allwright 2001; Breen 2001b; Allwright 2002). In such a way, the learner and the teacher could become equal participants in the research process.

Assessment for research purposes

Research into language learning in classroom settings usually involves some forms of assessment of the learner, in order to ascertain any gains in knowledge and performance. Auerbach argues that context is a significant factor that shapes assessment results, as well as the language learning process itself. When analysing learner progress on the Community Training for Adult and Family Literacy project, the team found that the context for assessment shaped its outcomes (Auerbach 1996). For example, learners' ability to read a passage depended on the content of the text and the relationship between the text and their own lives, rather than just skill level. In addition she found that time was a factor. Language and literacy acquisition, especially for beginning literacy learners, is difficult to measure in less than a year. This was also a problem encountered by the AIR research team (American Institutes for Research 2001), when they were selecting assessments to measure the progress of the learners in their study. Auerbach's solution was to collect a range of data based around the question "*How are learners' literacy practices and uses changing?*" These included samples of learners' work, contextualised classroom tasks such as the making of a video, and formal classroom assessments such as dictations, spelling tests and worksheets.

The AIR team also noted the problems inherent in oral language assessment of evaluating competence in social appropriateness in interactions. They also found that many standardised literacy tests used school-based tasks or formats and these were not appropriate for ESOL learners with little or no experience of formal schooling. However, they needed to use standardised tests because of their research design, so they reviewed more than thirty tests, and selected six for piloting and writing, reading and oral tests from these. They found, though, that they needed to supplement these tests to capture small literacy gains and so designed some alternative assessments. These were a literacy practices interview conducted in the learner's first language, a reading demonstration task using functional print and a literacy observation rating carried out by the teacher. The latter assessment covered reading, writing and oral language and included print awareness, fluency development in reading and writing readiness. In the UK, the research carried out to ascertain the language abilities of linguistic minorities (Carr-Hill, et al. 1996), also found that they could not depend entirely on already existing assessments, and had to design some items and modify others.

Recommendations

At the end of each section, above, we have indicated some of the research issues which arise from the review of the literature. Looking more broadly, a research agenda for ESOL pedagogic practice in the UK should take account of four areas: actual pedagogic practice in ESOL classrooms and other settings; the processes of teaching and learning; an account of the learners, their needs and expectations; and a pedagogically appropriate theory of language and literacy. In each of these areas we make recommendations.

1. Actual pedagogic practice

As there exists very little information about teaching styles, materials and practices in the UK, it is recommended that a large scale study of actual practice in different settings is carried out. This study could be based on the methodology and instruments developed by the AIR "What Works?" research (American Institutes for Research 2001).

Alongside this larger study there should be a number of smaller ethnographic studies of good practice in ESOL classes, covering: learners with little prior experience of the written language; bilingual literacy provision; workplace courses; and language support on mainstream courses. The aim of these studies is to provide accounts that can be disseminated to other practitioners. (See Auerbach 1996; Burns and de Silva Joyce 2000 for models of written research accounts addressing the practitioner.)

2. Teaching and learning processes

There should be ongoing research into the relationships between teaching and learning in formal contexts. This could be based around a programme of practitioner research, with support from established researchers. This research should explore:

- Specific classroom tasks to address issues of accuracy and fluency in the spoken language
- An investigation of different media of learning, including written materials and new technology
- Learners' discursive experiences and practices outside the classroom, and how classroom practices can take account of them
- Learners' expectations and learning strategies.

3. The learners

Although there have been surveys of ESOL provision in the UK that have provided useful information about learners, their backgrounds and their needs, there have not been any consistent tracker studies, tracking learners through different kinds of provision. Such tracking studies would give more information about particular sorts of learners and their learning experiences both in and out of classrooms, and provide an account of pedagogic practice from their position. The following categories of learners should be included in tracker studies:

- Learners with very little previous experience of literacy in any language, or of formal education
- Learners who arrive in the UK with professional qualifications and experience, but low levels of English
- Learners whose first language is an English based Creole or dialect
- Learners with trauma due to war, torture, perilous journeys etc.

4. Theories of language and language learning

This research review has charted a range of theoretical approaches and a general move to broader understandings of the nature of language and literacy. Mention has also been made to more general learning theories that bring together cognitive processes and social interaction. These developments need to continue and to be applied to the UK ESOL situation.

Seminars for key researchers and theorists should be held in order to make explicit and develop an appropriate theory of language learning that could underpin the national curriculum and new teacher training programmes.

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Findings – Draft Report, Pelavin Research Center, Washington.
The first of three reports of a study of two cohorts of adult ESL literacy students in
educational programmes across the USA; 298 and 350 students respectively. Through bi-
weekly observation of classes and pre and post course testing of the students, the research
aims to discover effective classroom practice for students with fewer than six years formal
education. This report provides a description of the students and classes in the first cohort
and discusses the conceptual and methodological issues involved in the research design. It
also summarises the research findings from the first cohort study.

Alam, Y. (2000)
Gender, literacy and community publishing in a multilingual context. **Multilingual Literacies:
reading and writing different worlds**. M. Martin-Jones and K. Jones. Amsterdam: John
Benjamins.
This is an account of the Asian Women's Writing and Publishing Project at Gatehouse Books,
Manchester. It gives profiles of some of the Asian women ESOL learners involved, and
discusses some of the difficulties they experienced in participating in education and
community projects. It also explores issues involved in the production of bilingual
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Reading in a foreign language: a reading problem or a language problem? **Reading in a
foreign language**. C. Alderson and A. Urquhart. London: Longman.
A discussion of the causes of reading difficulties for those learning to read in a second or
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The author argues that SLA needs to be considered in the light of the complexity of classroom behaviour, which is a balancing act between pedagogic and social demands. Analysis of lesson transcripts reveals "unpedagogic" behaviour, the understanding of which necessitates an ethnographic approach.

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An overview of three practices within the field of language teacher development; Reflective Practice, Action Research and Exploratory Practice, and an outline of six design criteria for teacher development proposals.

Allwright, D. (2002)
Learning (and Teaching) as Well as you know how: Why is it so very difficult? **Paedagogik og laering i fremmed-og andetsprog. Odense Working Papers in Language and Communication**. J. Wagner. Odense: University of Southern Denmark. 22: 1–41.
This is a discussion, drawing on both research and theory, of "Exploratory Practice", which is an approach to language pedagogy which integrates a research perspective directly into classroom work, in order to offer both teachers and learners a way to develop their own understandings of what happens in language classrooms.

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This is a report of research, but it is written in a style directly accessible for general practitioners. It describes a university and community collaboration to train literacy instructors from three immigrant and refugee communities. Two of these offered initial literacy instruction in learners' native languages (Haitian Creole and Spanish), and the other focused on beginning English literacy because of the diversity of the learners' language and literacy backgrounds. The research took account of both the trainee instructors, and the learners' responses to being involved in participatory literacy education.

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More than money can say: The impact of ESL and literacy training in the Australian workplace. Volume 1, Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs.
A report of research designed to determine the impact of workplace language and literacy training on key aspects of the workplace. The research used interviews, questionnaires and the quantification of subjective impressions.

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The author argues that SLA studies need to take into account social theories of language. He uses extracts from his research with Moroccan migrants to show the richness and complexity of ESOL language practices.

Bell, J. S. (1993)
"Discussion of Kerfoot and Wrigley: The Teacher as Bridge Between Program and Practice."
TESOL Quarterly 27(3): 467–475.
A discussion of ESL literacy teaching in which the author uses her study of being taught
Chinese literacy to illustrate her argument that teachers of literacy have deeply held
assumptions about learning and literacy that come from their formative years of educational
experience. She argues that teachers have to become reflective about their practice and
assumptions in order to make their teaching practices explicit to learners with possibly
differing assumptions.

Bell, J. S. (1995)
"The Relationship Between L1 and L2 Literacy: Some Complicating Factors." **TESOL
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The author reviews research into the relationships between literacy in L1 and L2 which
suggests that transfer of linguistic and literacy knowledge is possible and then uses her study
of Chinese literacy learning to question the similarities between all literacies and argue that
learning another literacy involves new ways of thinking and self-presentation.

Bell, J. S. (1997)
Literacy, Culture and Identity. New York: Peter Lang.
An account of doctoral research on the learning of second language literacy in Canada. The
research is made up of a pilot study of literacy learning in the classroom for students with no
prior experience with any written languages and a detailed account of the author's own
learning to become literate in Chinese.

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An experimental study of four adult learners of ESOL completing a series of form-focused
communicative tasks which are designed to require them to use monitoring and critical
reflection skills to identify linguistic problems and modify their spoken output.

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on learners aged 15–19 who had newly arrived in England. It reports on the challenges that
arose from ESOL teachers team teaching with subject teachers and the need for explicit study
and learning skills teaching.

Breen, M. (2001)
Overt participation and covert acquisition in the language classroom. **Learner Contributions
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A summary of studies into learner participation in classroom tasks and the relationship
between participation and language acquisition. The author argues that these studies fail to
take into account the social interaction within which this participation takes place.

Breen, M. (2001)
The Social Context for Language Learning: A Neglected Situation? **English Language Teaching in its Social Context**. C. Candlin and N. Mercer. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
The author argues that classrooms are specific cultures and need an anthropological approach to understand socio-cognitive experiences. He calls for teacher and learners to investigate their own learning as part of the language learning process.

Brock, C. (1986)
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An experimental study of the use of display and referential questions by four ESOL teachers. Two teachers were trained to ask referential questions and then all four taught the same reading and vocabulary class to groups of six learners. The trained teachers asked significantly more referential questions and learner responses to these were longer and more syntactically complex than responses to display questions.

Brooks, G. et al. (1999)
Family Literacy for new groups: the NFER evaluation of Family Literacy with linguistic minorities, Year 4 and Year 7. London: The Basic Skills Agency.
This is a report of research that evaluates family literacy programmes for linguistic minority families. The research included how the courses were adapted and factors leading to successful outcomes. The English literacy progress of the participants was measured and the results for families with pre-school and Year 4 children were reported as very encouraging.

Brooks, G. et al. (2000)
Assembling the Fragments: A review of research on Adult Basic Skills. National Foundation for Educational Research/ Department for Education and Employment.
This research review of Adult Basic Skills included ESOL as one of its categories.

Brooks, G. et al. (2001)
Progress in Adult Literacy: Do learners learn? London: The Basic Skills Agency.
An investigation into the literacy progress made by learners in Adult Basic Education classes, as measured by standardised reading tests and one sentence writing prompts. 1,915 of those surveyed filled in profiles and 334 of these gave their first language as other than English.

Brooks, T. and C. Roberts (1985)
"No Five Fingers Are All Alike": Managing Change and Difference in the Multi-ethnic Workplace. **English as a Second Language in the United Kingdom**. C. Brumfit, R. Ellis and J. Levine. Oxford: Pergamon Press. **ELT Documents** 121.
This is a historical account of the Industrial Language Training (ILT) service in the UK in the 1970s and early 80s. It traces and analyses shifts in perspective, context and methodology, and sets out the principles of ILT that remained constant. There is also a case study of one training programme in a foundry which provides an example of the ILT approach.

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Studies by teachers of migrants from three language groups in Australia, focussing on charting their reading practices in all languages and their attitudes towards the teaching of

reading in the ESOL classroom. These studies are then used as a basis for pedagogic experimentation in the introducing of new reading activities centered round graded readers and reading for pleasure.

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A report (in Swedish) evaluating a special language course for traumatised refugees, as reported by Roden (1999). Fifteen learners who had participated in the course are interviewed about the course. Some of these interviewees have continued with further studies, some are working and some are neither employed nor studying.

Carr-Hill, R. et al. (1996)
Lost Opportunities: The Language Skills of Linguistic Minorities in England and Wales.
London: The Basic Skills Agency.
Research into the English language abilities of minority linguistic groups, comprising a structured interview and test of reading, writing and listening. Around one thousand Informants were mainly drawn from five minority linguistic communities and a smaller number from four refugee groups. Excluded were those born in Britain or holding a British qualification. A high proportion performed very poorly on the tests.

Carson, J. et al. (1990)
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Comparison of an academic writing task and a cloze task completed by 105 Japanese and Chinese ESL students in both L1 and L2. These were analysed for understandings of the relationships between literacy in L1 and L2. The results indicate that literacy skills transfer across languages but variably.

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Taking cultural differences into account. **MultiLiteracies: Literacy learning and the design of social futures**. B. Cope and M. Kalantzis. London: Routledge.
Drawing on research into a special course for Mexican-Americans, preparing them for Higher Education, and the Reading Recovery programme, she argues for the need to take cultural diversity into account in designing new curriculums.

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Foundations for Choice: Good Practice in Adult Training. Croydon: Croydon Continuing Education and Training Service and the European Social Fund.
An account of trainees' experiences on English, Interpreters' and bilingual assistant courses offered by Croydon CETS, based on taped interviews.

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English. They read high school readers in their free time and three of them discussed these in their first language. The study reported gains in vocabulary and self-reported gains in listening and speaking of English.

Cooke, M. (2000)
Wasted Opportunities: a case study of two ESOL programmes in a Further Education College in central London. London: Institute of Education.
A study of two ESOL courses at one FE college, carried out through a series of interviews with staff and students. One course is designed for asylum seekers and refugees; the other for students from the European Union and overseas students from countries such as China and Japan (an EFL course). The aim of the research is to find out why and how the two courses were divided, the differences between the two and the potential effects of the divide.

Davies, A. et al. (1997)
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Dubin, F. and N. Kuhlman, Eds. (1992)
Cross-Cultural Literacy: global perspectives on reading and writing. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Regents/ Prentice Hall.
This is a collection of accounts of research into literacy practices in diverse communities across the world. They are grouped in four sections: macroliteracy; family, community and workplace settings; academic settings in Asia and Eastern Europe and academic settings in the United States. Literacy as a social change element, literacy grounded in specific cultural values, literacy in multilingual settings and literacy and second/ foreign language learning are some of the themes that cross these four sections.

Ellis, R. (2001)
Second Language Acquisition: Research and Language Pedagogy. **English Language Teaching in its Social Context**. C. Candlin and N. Mercer. London: Routledge.
The author points to the gap between SLA research and language pedagogy and argues that they have different agendas. SLA is academic and aims to construct technical knowledge, whereas pedagogy draws on practical knowledge.

Ellis, R. et al. (2001)
"Preemptive Focus on Form in the ESL Classroom." **TESOL Quarterly** 35(3): 407–432.
A descriptive study of the interaction in two ESOL classes engaged in meaning-focused activities. Analysis of teacher and learner- initiated discussions of form considers whether they are reactive or preemptive and whether there is immediate uptake by the learner.

Faine, M. and E. Knight (1988)
A Further Education response – North-east London. **Current Issues in Teaching English as a Second Language to Adults**. S. Nicholls and E. Hoadley-Maidment. London: Edward Arnold.
Three detailed case studies of young adult ESOL student journeys through education in London 1981–86.

Firth, A. and J. Wagner (1997)
"On Discourse, Communication, and (Some) FundamentaL Concepts in SLA Research."
The Modern Language Journal 81(3): 285-300.
A critique of mainstream SLA. The authors argue that SLA studies show an imbalance towards cognition and the individual, and do not take sufficient account of context, interaction and non-educational settings.

Further Education Unit (1989)
Black Perspectives on Adult Education: Identifying the needs. London.
In Sheffield a project was set up to find out the views of six ethnic minority communities towards Adult Education provision and what they wanted from it. These views are summarised in this report alongside accounts of observations of a wide variety of adult classes and their support for ESOL learners.

Gurnah, A. (2000)
Languages and literacies for autonomy. **Multilingual Literacies: reading and writing different worlds**. M. Martin-Jones and K. Jones. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
This chapter is an account of the Yemeni Literacy Campaign in Sheffield between the late 1980s and early 1990s. Young unemployed women and men from the Yemeni community were trained as literacy assistants, and also attended preparation for Higher Education classes at a local university. These assistants provided tuition in written English for older members of the community and in return received tuition in written Arabic.

Hall, J. (1997)
"A Consideration of SLA as a Theory of Practice: A Response to Firth and Wagner." **The Modern Language Journal** 81(3): 301-306.
This response to the Firth and Wagner review of SLA studies agrees with their critique and offers a sociocultural approach to SLA based on the work of Vygotsky and Wertsch and Tulviste.

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An account of the history and present practice of ABE.

Hammond, J. et al. (1992)
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This research is aimed to explore the similarities and differences between adult education provision for ESOL learners and literacy learners in Australia. It consists of a literature review, interviews with key personnel, questionnaires to professional participants, discussion forums and case studies of good teaching practice.

Hassan, H. A. (1994)
Somalia: Information for Teachers and other Professionals working with Somali Refugee Children. London: London Language and Literacy Unit.
An outline of the history of Somalia and its education system, plus an account of the educational experience of Somali children who became refugees. Included is a brief report on the difficulties faced by Somali children in UK schools and a profile of one Somali child's educational journey and problems.

Held, M. (1994)
"Integrated Language and Learning Development: report of a project developed by the Language and Literacy Unit at Southwark College." **Language Issues** 6(2 Winter): 20–26.
An account of a new model of learning support for bilingual, ethnic minority, dyslexic and basic skills learners in FE. This includes a training course for subject teachers raising awareness of language and discourse needs and work on integrating specific support into different subject curriculums.

Hornberger, N. (1994)
Continua of Biliteracy. **Literacy Across Languages and Cultures**. B. Ferdman, R.-M. Weber and A. Ramirez. Albany: State University of New York Press.
This chapter is a review of research into biliteracy (predominantly focussing on children), drawing on the fields of literacy and bilingualism. From this review the author puts forward a theoretical framework for understanding biliteracy, which consists of a set of interrelated continua within the categories of context, development and media.

Kambouri, M. et al. (1996)
Where Next? Drop Out and Progression from ESOL. London: The Basic Skills Agency.
A survey of ESOL provision and student movement out of classes during 1994/5 in England and Wales.

Kegan, R. et al. (2001)
Toward a new pluralism in ABE / ESOL classrooms: Teaching to multiple "cultures of mind". Boston: NCSALL.
A study by adult development psychologists into the learning of 41 ABE/ESOL learners in three different educational programmes chosen for best practice. The research focuses on the learners' use and development of different ways of knowing which they categorise as instrumental, socialising and self-authoring. Methods included unstructured interviews, structured exercises, observation, focus groups and surveys, all conducted in English.

Khanna, A. et al. (1998)
Immigrant Identity and Language Proficiency: A Sociolinguistic Study of ESOL. **Social Psychological Perspectives on Second Language Learning**. R. Agnihotri, A. Khanna and I. Sachdev. New Delhi: Sage.
This study examines the relationships between positive and negative attitudes towards British people and the English language and proficiency in learning English. 106 adult ESOL learners in different parts of Britain completed a questionnaire containing linguistic and social stereotypes, and their teachers were asked to evaluate their levels of English.

Khanna, A. et al. (1998)
Adult ESOL Learners in Britain: A Cross-Cultural Study. Clevedon: MultiLingual Matters.
A complete account of a study of 133 ESOL learners in the UK in 1989. The study explores the relationship between attitudes to target language and culture and proficiency in language learning. This was carried out through a detailed questionnaire, visits to classes and interviews with informants' teachers.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001)
Individual cognitive/affective learner contributions and differential success in second language acquisition. **Learner Contributions to Language Learning: New directions in research**. M. Breen. Harlow: Pearson Education.

A brief survey and critique of research into individual variations in second language acquisition, including age, aptitude, personality, motivation, attitude, cognitive style and learning strategies.

Long, M. (1988)
Instructed Interlanguage Development. **Issues in Second Language Acquisition: multiple perspectives**. L. Beebe. New York: Newbury House.
A review of child and adult second language acquisition research in the seventies and early eighties, focusing on the effect of instruction. Most of the research analysed learner language rather than studied learning contexts.

McLaughlin, J. (1986)
"Developing writing in English from mother-tongue storytelling." **Language Issues** 1(Spring): 31–34.
An account of classroom practice with multi-lingual and mixed level learners, which develops both writing and interaction between different language groups. Traditional stories are told, written and shared with the class and both L1 and L2 are part of this process.

Millam, K., Ed. (2000)
Computer Assisted Language Learning: A practical guide to integrating CALL into the ESOL Curriculum. London: London Language and Literacy Unit.
This practical guide is one result of a two year Socrates project to develop best practice in open learning. The guide maps CALL programmes to the new ESOL curriculum and the ESOL foundation levels, discusses induction and reviews CALL materials.

Nabei, T. and M. Swain (2002)
"Learner awareness of recasts in classroom interaction: a case study of an adult EFL student's second language learning." **Language Awareness** 11(1): 43–63.
This is a small-scale study of one Japanese student's learning from recasts (teacher reformulation of a previous erroneous utterance). The student's participation in group work in a discussion class was observed and videotaped six times. Within a week of each class the student did a grammaticality test based on the class and took part in a simulated recall interview. The student was also given an overall test about three weeks after the last interview. The data shows that effectiveness of feedback depends on the context and needs to be attributed to each discourse context where the feedback occurred.

NCSALL (2002)
A National Labsite for Adult ESOL, Portland State University, Dept. of Applied Linguistics. 2002.
A research centre engaged in classroom-based research and professional development in adult ESOL. All classes are audio and video recorded and the progress of learners is followed for up to five years regardless of whether they stay in the lab schools or not.

Norton, B. (2000)
Identity and Language Learning: Gender, Ethnicity and Educational Change. Harlow: Pearson Education.
Research consisting of a pilot ESOL classroom study followed by a year's study of five immigrant language learners through diaries, interviews and questionnaires. The focus of the research was the language learning of the five informants outside of the classroom through interaction with target language speakers.

Norton, B. and K. Toohey (2001)
"Changing Perspectives on Good Language Learners." **TESOL Quarterly** 35(2): 307–322.
A review of previous studies on good language learners and presentation of case studies of one adult and one child good language learner taken from the authors' recent research. In these case studies the authors explore the opportunities and constraints offered to the learners by the social practices they have access to, and the role of agency and identity in SLA.

Perdue, C., Ed. (1993)
Adult language acquisition: cross-linguistic perspectives. Volume 1: Field Methods, Volume 2: the results. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
A longitudinal study of second language acquisition by 40 adult immigrants in five industrialised European countries. The studies concentrate on changes in the oral performance in the target language over time and the data consists of recorded interviews, role plays, play scenes and observed tasks in town. Analysis of the data is technical and on linguistic features and communication strategies.

Pica, T. and G. Washburn (2002)
"Negative evidence in Language classroom activities: A study of its availability and accessibility to language learners." **Working papers in educational linguistics: Penn Graduate School of Education** 18(1): 1–28.
A detailed analysis of classroom discourse, focussing on teacher interventions that provide negative evidence to learners through responses devoted exclusively to feedback on their errors. Twelve classes in pre-academic American university language courses were both audio and video recorded. Six of the classes were content based and mainly discussion; the other six were grammar based classes concentrating on sentence construction. Pedagogical implications of the findings are discussed and suggestions are made for change in practice.

Rees, S. and H. Sunderland (1990)
Meeting the Demand? London: London Language and Literacy Unit.
A survey of ESOL provision and waiting lists in October 1990 in Britain, which shows that demand for ESOL classes and language support outstripped supply, especially in Greater London. Most waiting lists were made up of refugees and asylum seekers. The survey also indicated that many learners wanted more hours of study and that fee structures varied considerably.

Rees, S. and H. Sunderland (1991)
Still Not Meeting The Demand? London: London Language and Literacy Unit.
The 1990 survey of ESOL provision and waiting lists was repeated a year later and no improvement was found. If anything, the situation had worsened.

Richardson, E. (2002)
African-American Literacies. London: Routledge.
A theoretical approach to the issue of vernacular and standard languages. The author argues that Afro-American vernacular needs to be brought into school teaching.

Rivera, K. (1999)
"Popular Research and Social Transformation: A Community-Based Approach to Critical Pedagogy." **TESOL Quarterly** 33(3): 485–500.
An account of a specific pedagogic practice in an ESOL/literacy programme over six years.

The learners were unemployed female Spanish speakers from Latin and Central America, required to attend programmes for benefits. The curriculum was based on research units designed, carried out and produced by the learners, and the objective was to develop language and literacy in both Spanish and English. By the end of the programme almost half of the staff, called popular teachers, were ex-students trained by the centre.

Roberts, C. et al. (1992)
Quality in teaching and learning: Four multicultural classrooms in Further Education. Sheffield: Department of Employment.
An ethnographic study of four BTEC First classrooms with British born ethnic minority learners, mainly between 16 and 18 years. The focus is not language learning but the skills needed for classroom learning, which, the report argues, need to be taught. The second finding concerns the teacher/ student social relationships which can enhance or impede learning.

Roberts, C. (2001)
Language Acquisition or Language Socialisation in and through Discourse? Towards a Redefinition of the domain of SLA. **English Language Teaching in its Social Context**. C. Candlin and N. Mercer. London: Routledge.
A critique of SLA and an argument that an understanding of second language development needs to take account of learners' interactions with L2 speakers in institutional and bureaucratic settings.

Roberts, C. (in preparation)
English in the Workplace. **Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning**. E. Hinkel. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Roden, J. (1999)
"Swedish as a Second Language Project for Refugees." **Language Issues** 11(1 Spring/Summer): 8–10.
A report of special provision for traumatised refugees who would normally drop out of mainstream ESOL provision. The course integrates educational needs with the learners' physical and psychological needs.

Savitzky, F. (1986)
Language Profile of a West African Student. London: London Language and Literacy Unit.
An account of the linguistic and educational history of one Nigerian learner, with an analysis and discussion of her writing in English problems.

Saxena, M. (1993)
Literacies among the Panjabis in Southall. **Language and Literacy in Social Practice**. J. Maybin. Clevedon: MultiLingual Matters.
This chapter provides a wealth of information about one multi-literate area of London. There is a case study detailing the literacy practices of a Panjabi Hindu family; a historical account of the literacy situation in the regions of origin of Panjabis, and a discussion of the socio-economic, education and religious processes that have shaped Southall communities.

Schellekens, P. (2001)
English Language as a Barrier to Employment, Training and Education. London: DFEE.
This research addresses two questions: whether a lack of English acted as a barrier to

employment, and how far education and training provision were appropriate to get people into work. It involved research into national data and interviews with providers and teachers, learners and employers in five areas of England and Wales in 1999.

Slimani, A. (2001)
Evaluation of Classroom Interaction. **English Language Teaching in its Social Context**. C. Candlin and N. Mercer. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Research into what learners claim to learn (uptake) from an EFL grammar class over six weeks in Algeria. Method included classroom observation and recording and two sets of uptake questionnaire, immediately after class and three hours later.

Steyne, D. (2002)
The Educational Needs of the Somali Community in Sheffield. Sheffield,: Learning and Teaching Research Institute, Sheffield Hallam University.
An evaluation of one project that is part of the Sheffield Community Literacy Campaign, which seeks to explore the significance of this particular model of learning/ delivery within the Yemeni community.

Sunderland, H., Ed. (1992)
A Tutor's Guide to ESOL Materials for Adult Learners. London: London Language and Literacy Unit.
This annotated bibliography is the outcome of a survey of ESOL tutors and organisers on ESOL classroom materials. It contains reviews of all materials which received five or more recommendations and criteria for the assessment of learning materials.

Sunderland, H., C. Klein, et al. (1997)
Dyslexia and the Bilingual Learner: Assessing and Teaching Adults and Young People who speak English as an Additional Language. London: London Language and Literacy Unit.
This practical guide is the outcome of the ESOL and Dyslexia Working Party and contains detailed discussion of potential problems, cultural and linguistic factors to consider, diagnostic tools and teaching approaches.

Thompson, J. (1994)
"Developing an English for Academic and Professional Purposes Programme for Refugees/Asylum Seekers." **Language Issues** 6(2 Winter): 29–32.
A discussion of issues relating to language courses for refugees wanting to go into HE or having a professional background, based on the evolution of a specific course at Westminster. The article discusses the diverse needs of such learners and the impact of policy on provision and learning.

Tse, L. (1996)
"When an ESL Adult Becomes a Reader." **Reading Horizons** 37(1): 17–29.
A case study of one female intermediate ESOL learner participating in a reading for pleasure course, where learners read and discussed a variety of books of increasing difficulty. The learner was able to progress to reading more difficult books and was still reading independently six months after the end of the course.

van Lier, L. (2001)
Constraints and Resources in Classroom Talk: Issues of Equality and Symmetry. **English Language Teaching in its Social Context**. C. Candlin and N. Mercer. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. An analysis of examples of teacher/learner talk and learner/learner talk; their discursive features and relations to language learning. The author argues that contingent, symmetrical interaction is beneficial for learning.

Vargas, K. (2001)
"Information Learning Technology (ILT) developments and ESOL." **Language Issues** 13 (1 Spring/Summer): 16–19.
An account of the increase in access to new technology for ESOL learners in FE colleges, and an indication of some of its potential for language and literacy learning. The author also raises research questions about the role of ILT in second language learning.

Varlaam, A. et al. (1992)
Becoming Fluent in English: A survey of the views of Bangladeshi Youths in Tower Hamlets. London: Centre for Educational Research, London School of Economics and Political Science. A study of the language needs and expectations of post-school age Bangladeshi youngsters in which they were asked about their experience of difficulties with English, the kind of help they were receiving and their views of this support.

Wallace, C. (1998)
Critical Literacy as classroom interaction. BAAL: Language and Literacies, University of Manchester, (British Association for applied Linguistics (BAAL) and Multlilingual Matters. This paper analyses classroom interaction between a teacher and advanced EFL learners on a critical reading course. The focus of the analysis is on sequences of critical talk and the teacher's use of reformulation to support the development of such talk.

Wenden, A. (2001)
Metacognitive knowledge in SLA: the neglected variable. **Learner Contributions to Language Learning: New directions in research**. M. Breen. Harlow: Pearson Education. The author divides metacognitive knowledge into three categories; Person knowledge, Task knowledge and Strategic knowledge and presents an analysis of three introspective and retrospective learner accounts of undertaking writing and reading tasks. She argues that metaknowledge is essential to facilitate self-regulation and learner autonomy.

Widdows, I. (1995)
"The Development of Language Policies in Further Education." **Language Issues** 7 (2 Autumn/Winter): 25–28.
This article draws on the author's MA dissertation on the development and implementation of language policies in nine FE colleges. It identifies good practice in two colleges where there is team teaching plus liaison and planning time, follow up and support sessions.

Wrigley, H. and G. Guth (1992)
Bringing Literacy to Life: Issues and options in Adult ESL literacy. San Diego, Ca.: Dominie Press. This book addresses both theory and practice in the teaching of ESOL literacy and results from a two year research study aimed at identifying effective and innovative instructional approaches, methods and technologies. The research reviewed the literature and built up a profile of an effective programme. Nine programmes that matched this were subsequently studied. There is background discussion and descriptions of practice for practitioners.

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