Mosaic

Anthony Mollica
editor

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In This Issue...

Dialogue Journals and Teacher Education: A Window on the Past, Present and Future.

Robert Courchêne

Dialogue journals are an effective means for trainer/ trainee discussion of pedagogical issues.

The recent publication of Zlata's Diary, the reflections of a young girl trapped in the war in Sarajevo, has again drawn attention to a literary genre that has been with us since the beginning of recorded history, namely, the diary. For centuries, people from all stations in life have been recording their most private thoughts in journal form. In some cases, these thoughts were made public (e.g., Anne Frank) and read by the generations that followed; in most cases, they died with the authors. Although most diaries have specific characteristics – date, subject, name, format – keeping a diary has allowed people to organize and express their thoughts in a very personal manner using all forms of writing.

In reading the diary accounts that have survived, many researchers have stated that they would like to have had an opportunity to question the authors about what they have written, to have been able to dialogue with them. Sharing ideas would have resulted in deeper insights. Fortunately, such a sharing of ideas is available to researchers and teachers today through the use of dialogue journals. According to Vacca and Vacca (1989), dialogue journals or logs are writing-to-learn tasks that enable both students and teachers to share knowledge about a common interest. They require thinking/reflection on the part of participants (Gordon and MacInnis, 1993) but they do not require a finished product. They can take the form of reflections followed by comments or jot-notes in the margins or a more formal response. The participants in the learning process define the dialogue parameters. According to Reyes (1991) such journals,

> are successful because students are free to select their own topics, determine the amount of writing, ask questions and seek academic or personal help in a non-threatening, non-graded context. (p. 292)

In addition to dialogue journals, Reyes (1991) talks about literature logs. According to her, literature logs are

> a child's written response to something he or she has read_. the potential benefits of reading followed by a written reflection include opportunities for the student to think about books, read more critically, use the author's writing as a model for their own and relate better to characters and events. Written reflections can help students think through content better, question it, or compare it to their own experiences. (p. 293).

Although Reyes has used these journals with children, they can certainly be used with learners of all

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The language graduate who never reads a professional journal and participates only minimally, if at all, in professional meetings, will stagnate. There is an onus on the profession in all areas to upgrade and keep abreast of current developments in the field.

Peter Heffernan

From the Editor's Desk

Mosaic: Year 1

It's hard to believe, but this issue marks the end of the first volume and the first year of publication of *Mosaic.* The journal/newsletter has been extremely well received and we are pleased with the many letters from readers expressing their enthusiasm. "It's reader friendly," said one of the subscribers. "The column format contributes to rapid reading and the *call outs* in each article identify the content and become themselves *quotable quotes."*

It is our intention to keep the articles short and concise and to respond to our readers' interests and needs. To this end, we encourage readers to identify topics of interest so that we can invite authors to contribute articles on a given theme. We also invite our readers to submit short articles for possible publication in future issues. Short articles which assist the classroom teacher are particularly welcome.

We have added names to the Editorial Board and seek out the widest representation. Additional names will appear with Vol.2, 1. Our aim is to have all Canadian provinces and various groups represented on the Board.

We are pleased to announce that we have over 1 550 paid subscriptions. Our aim in 1994-1995 is to expand the publication and try to reach 2 500 subscribers. This number would probably make *Mosaic* self-sustaining.

We appreciate and are grateful to the Minister of Education and Training, the Hon. Dave Cooke, whose generous grant to *Mosaic* for its first year of publication assisted greatly in the development, publication and dissemination of the journal.

It is clear that *Mosaic* is filling a distinct need; we appreciate your comments which will guide us in shaping the future of the publication.

Anthony Mollica

Dialogue Journals

continued from page 1

ages as written reflection on reading is central to the western educational process, especially at the post-secondary level.

In talking about journals, one can also distinguish between prompted journals – journal writing in response to some type of stimulus (a reading, video, classroom presentation, speaker) and free-response journals – journal writing about personal topics.

In terms of the above classification, literature logs would be of the prompted type, while dialogue journals could be of either type depending on the conventions established by the participants.

The use of dialogue journals in the classroom, in research and in teacher-training programs has grown exponentially over the last decade. A review of the literature (for a complete listing see Peyton and Staton, 1991, 1992) indicates that journals have been used with learners in chemistry, mathematics, psychiatry, counselling, education of the deaf, to name a few. In the area of L2 teaching and learning, journals have also been employed in numerous ethnographical and empirical studies (Cray *et al.* 1994; Brinton and Holten, 1989; Staton *et al.*, 1988). As both Reyes (1991) and Delpit (1988) have pointed out, dialogue journals provide an excellent means for limited English proficiency (LEP) learners to bridge the gap between their culture and language of origin and that of their new language and culture. In their journals, children can begin writing in their L1 and slowly make the transition to their new L2. In the area of teacher training such journals (Brinton and Holten, 1989) can also provide aspiring L2 teachers the opportunity of reflecting on their own L2 learning experience, of discussing current language problems and asking questions about possible problems in the future. The flexibility of the dialogue-journal format offers the journal partners the possibility of exploring all topics in a variety of written forms.

The Study

While over the past five years I have used dialogue journals in many contexts - teacher education courses to both experienced and aspiring teachers, in-service training in China and ESL writing classes at the university level, I would like to report on their use with aspiring teachers in a new second language teaching program at the University of Ottawa. Students enrolled in the program receive conditional acceptance into the Faculty of Education if they meet the following conditions:

1. spend at least 1/2 day a week over the course of their program volunteering,
2. maintain a B average and
3. pass a language examination.

As most of the students in the program are accepted out of high school, they have had very little L2 classroom teaching experience and, consequently, have many questions about both the theory (arising out of classroom lectures) and the practice of language teaching (arising out of their volunteering).

To enable students to raise questions about all aspects of L2 learning and teaching, one of their assignments in my introductory course (DLS 1200: *Didactique des langues secondes)* in L2 teaching was journal writing (both prompted and free-response formats): 15 entries dealing with the following topics: reactions to articles or books read (4), classroom content and activities (4), observations of teaching and learning (3) and personal learning of L2 in light of theory and practice (4). In practice, many students devoted the largest part of their entries to topics of their own choice. To guide their writing, the students were provided with sample entries along with suggested guidelines for length (they were told that entry length could vary considerably). Students were assured that their journals would remain confidential unless permission was requested to discuss or distribute specific entries in class. The students (N=35) were asked to hand in their journal entries on a regular basis to allow the instructor adequate time to respond to what they had written. (In retrospect, specific dates for handing in journal entries would have been a good idea.) At the end of the semester, the students were asked to list the topics of their journal entries as well as to comment on what they liked, disliked and thought would improve the use of journals in the classroom.

In setting up the dialogue journal assignment, I was also interested in learning about the problems and issues that aspiring teachers were most concerned about. I wanted to know if the rapidly changing educational and socio-cultural context in the school would be one of their major foci.

Journals were handed in once a week and returned the following week to provide more immediate feedback and the possibility of a sustained dialogue on a given topic.

Results

Based on the tabulation of journal entries, five major topics were identified as being most important to these aspiring teachers:

1. cultural/multicultural/racist issues (e.g.,acculturation, stigma of a poor accent, racist remarks)
2. teaching the different language skills (e.g., teaching non-readers and writers, pronunciation problems, vocabulary learning, memorizing word lists),
3. sensitive issues in the classroom (e.g., touching, Aids, crack kids, detecting and reporting abuse),
4. educational issues (e.g., violence, role of the teacher, violence in the schools, standards in education),
5. L2 theory and practice (e.g., whole language, error correction, phonics, pull-in-pull-out programs).

What was surprising in the overall results was the students' overriding concern with topics related to context of language teaching. They are as worried about the different factors that affect the classroom climate as they are about teaching. Given this situation, such topics should certainly be the focus of future research and, hopefully, of future articles in *Mosaic*.

Topics related to #2 (teaching the different language skills and #5 (L2

theory and practice) were closely tied to the students' volunteering in the classroom. As they were frequently asked to help out with students who had some type of learning problem, they asked for help in their journals (see example below).

> When a foreign child comes to Canada and is placed in an ESL class, what is his/her biggest problem obstacle? One is tempted to say language, of course. But is this where the problem really originates? I wonder.
>
> (Student, DLS 1200)

> Dear.....
>
> It is important for teachers who have students from many countries to create a warm and supportive atmosphere that will allow the new students to make the gradual transition to operating in their new cultural and educational context. This is not done by asking students to forget about their language and culture, but rather by acknowledging their value and existence...
>
> (Teacher, DLS 1200)

The student went on to ask about the importance of having students from one's own country in the same classroom to help out with both problems and language.

As well, students often questioned what they saw during their volunteering. While they realized that the teacher had decided to proceed in her/his classroom for very specific reasons, they were not certain that this was always in the students' best interests. Rather than challenge the teacher(they were afraid to do this), they preferred to discuss it in their journal, to seek advice before acting.

> During one of my observation sessions, I was particulary disturbed by some of the factors of teaching. In the Grade 9 transitions French class, there is little or no grammar on the curriculum. This was from the French Department. I don't understand how the students are going to learn a language without the grammar...
>
> (Student, DLS 1200)

As a result of such observations in the classroom, the students became much more observant and critical of the teaching they received in other classes at the university. The journal allowed them to reflect on such differences - how they had learned prior to coming to university, how they were being taught in the university classrooms, and how the professors in the L2 program suggested they teach their future students. That the aspiring teachers judged much of the teaching in terms of how they had been previously taught should not be surprising. The results of certain studies (Lanier and Little, 1986; Ost, 1989) have indicated that teacher training, unless properly structured and implemented, may have little or no effect on future teachers.

> Prospective teachers' expectations... are acquired indirectly from early encounters with their own elementary andsecondary school teachers, social norms communicated by the general public, and the existing ethos on the higher education campus. The expectations formed from these sources typically carry a negative valence and reflect an awareness that teacher education is easy to enter, intellectually weak, and possible unnecessary. (Ost 1989:542).

Another area that received a considerable amount of attention in the journals was related to classroom and education issues - #'s 1 (cultural/multicultural/racist issues), #3 (sensitive issues in the classroom) and #4 (educational issues). Even though they have been classified under different titles, all were seen as having an important effect on teaching in the future. Many of the students, especially at the elementary level, stated that if they were not able to give a child a hug or to comfort a child who had fallen down for fear of being accused of some form of unacceptable conduct, they did not want to be teachers. Many reported in their journals of being cautioned for being too affectionate. The trend in the schools towards not touching pupils at all was very troubling to my students.

> When I was helping the children put on their parkas for recess, one of the children fell and started crying. I ran over to him, picked him up and gave him a big hug. I didn't think anything of it at the time, but later on the teacher told me that I had to be careful about doing that because the child could go home and tell his parents that the teachers were always hugging him. While I didn't say anything at the time, I was really shocked. Are we just supposed to let them lie there and cry.
>
> (Student, DLS 1200)

> Dear....
>
> It is disheartening that the actions of a few disturbed people who betray the trust placed in them and abuse young children means that teachers must forever be on their guard about how they show their affection for children. When I was in China, I was struck by the Chinese love for their children. The crying of an injured or lost child attracted alarge group of comforters who thought nothing of picking it up and hugging and comforting it. The same affection and attention were also extended to my own child. I find it sad that many children who are in dire need of affection may now be deprived of it on certain occasions.
>
> (Teacher, DLS 1200)

Based on what was found under these topics in the journals, it is fair to say that teachers in training are worried about what the classrooms of the future hold in store for them. How will they handle HIV positive children and crack kids? How will they cope with the racial tensions and violence? How will they do more with fewer resources and more demands?

Journals: Benefits, Reservations, Suggestions

In terms of the students' opinions about the use of journals in teacher-training courses, the results indicate that they found them to be very beneficial. Even the negative comments had a positive side to them. While space does not allow me to quote all the comments, the most frequent entries under the three categories are found below. (Not all students made comments in all three categories). See Table 1.

The overwhelming evidence points to the use of journals as a means of asking for advice, reflecting on problems and issues, and as a source of important feedback. Only one student said that doing journals was not a useful assignment.

> I personally enjoy journal writing because it gives me a chance in my busy day to sit down and think through things that I have observed and learned. People don't take much time to reflect on the day's activities and omit so much knowledge. They say that you learn something new every day, but if you don't stop to think about it, you'll miss out on a learning opportunity. (Student, DLS 1200)

Benefits of Dialogue Journals	Number
Have an opportunity to reflect on different issues	16
Get answers to questions not discussed in class	15
Get feedback from professor - provides good ideas	12
Express and share opinions	7
Discuss topics with professor after writing	6
Reservations about Journal Writing	
Did not know what to write	5
Were too time consuming but worth it	5
Did not get organized to hand them in on time	4
Were too structured in terms of topic	3
Were not structured enough in terms of topic	3
Suggestions for Using the Journals	
Exchange journals in class with peers	5
Keep track of important facts and problems	3
Discuss journals in class and with professor	3
Set up journal partners with students the age one is going to teach	2
Have common topics and fixed outlines	2
Produce video journals	1

Table 1: Survey on Journal Writing

In their entries, students were comfortable dealing with a large range of topics, both personal and pedagogical. All entries were responded to in a detailed manner. (In many cases, my responses were longer than their entries.)

In terms of their reservations about the use of journals, what is interesting is that students found the guidelines both too restrictive and not restrictive enough. Some students wanted to be able to choose their own topics for all the entries, while others would have preferred common topics. Finding a formula that is satisfactory to everyone is not easy. Despite the complaints that it was difficult to find topics to write about, there was very little repetition. With very few exceptions, the way the students wrote about the subjects indicated a very keen interest. Reading their journals was the highlight of my week.

Finally in terms of suggestions, it is the idea of sharing - with peers, the class or students - that was most frequently mentioned. Exchanging and responding to the journals of other members in the class is an excellent idea. It would allow students to see that they are not alone in their thinking - everyone is concerned about teaching in the nineties. It would also give each student an opportunity to play the role of respondent. In addition, tag-teaming student teachers with students from their respective divisions(primary, junior, intermediate, senior) would enable them to become familiar with the types of problems New Canadians face, as well as the type of language problems they have. It would allow them to explore issues with their future students in a protected and intimate manner.

Conclusion

The positive response to the use of dialogue journals with aspiring teachers would support their continued use in the future for teacher training. Although not substantiated through interviews, it is my impression that much of the success can be attributed to the fact that the students had little theoretical or practical background and were able to use their journal as a means of getting assistance. Part of the success can also be attributed to the detailed responses to each entry. Requests for help were often followed up with reading suggestions, articles from newspapers, loaned books in addition to the written comments. As well, some of the pedagogical topics were brought up and discussed in class.

The journals were an important source of information about students' thoughts on issues in education in general, as well as on the (L2) classroom. They provided useful information for topic inclusion in future courses. For example, it would be possible to organize a roundtable on issues in the classroom – abuse, touching, racism – that would provide both information and techniques on how to handle such problems. Finally, in terms of future areas for research, I think the students' suggestions for journal sharing with peers and school-age children could produce interesting results, especially in developing positive attitudes towards students from different cultures and increasing their knowledge of the process of language learning.

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Developing Young Children's Multilingualism and Pluriculturalism

Renzo Titone

The main pedagogical trend to-day is to relate the study of the foreign language with its background culture. Research shows that pre-school and elementary school children are capable of understanding and appreciating cultural differences connected with foreign language speakers especially if these are peers.

That the main path to international peace consists in building multilingual education and intercultural understanding has become a widely acknowledged truism. That intercultural understanding is an easier task if undertaken at a very early age, namely before primary schooling, is a second truism. What remains open as a crucial issue is defining the best way to achieve such goals.

One can safely state that there are two main routes to attain intercultural understanding through institutional education. One is direct and works through immersion in the foreign environment prepared by an appropriate introduction to the foreign life and thought patterns. The other is indirect and works through immersion in the foreign language in its connection with the background culture and civilization.

Can very young children be taught both the foreign language and above all its corresponding culture? Are they capable of understanding and accepting differences which are alien to their own environment?

But the aspects of the problem are far from simple or connected. The first step in programming such an educational enterprise consists in clarifying the basic ideas underlying multilingualism and intercultural attitudes. The second step is to test the validity of the program through "action-research" as an adequate procedure of scientific testing.

The purpose of this article is to offer a series of thoughts and suggestions with a view to ensuring adequate development of both stages of the program.

The study of foreign culture within language

Most of my considerations are the result of a seminar held at the European Centre for Education, at Frascati (Rome), in 1987 (Calasso, 1987).

Language teaching methodologists are currently stressing more and more that foreign languages should be studied in close connection with their background cultures. Languages without their social content resemble empty shells. The semantic and pragmatic components of each language system are inseparable from the forms of language.

Teaching cultural diversity, as indicated by anthropology, shows two conflicting tendencies: on the one hand is the tendency toward universalizing values, codes, goods, meanings; on the other, is the tendency toward segmenting, excluding, reserving, separating. For instance, in many countries there is a clear tendency to teach a second language from a very early age for the purpose of international communication. But at the same time in these or in other countries, there is an emerging tendency to revive local or autochthonous (aboriginal) dialects and languages with their traditional cultures.

The fundamental problem is this: Can very young children be taught both the foreign language and, above all, its corresponding culture? Are they capable of understanding and accepting differences which are alien to their own environment?

Research conducted at the University of Rome with young children studying English has proved that they can not only understand cultural differences, but also appreciate and enjoy them. It depends on the teacher's attitude and methods.

The understanding of divergent cultural patterns

Two basic questions need to be considered:

(a) What does it mean to understand another culture?

(b) What is implied in fitting educational strategies to cultural differences?

Understanding in the sense of empathetic identification requires the use of effective methods of differential analysis of the reality as the object of psychological focus. Contrastive cultural analysis has been formulated by Robert Lado (1957) in terms of structural comparison. Culture is a system of patterns. In other words, each culture is made up of constant and recurrent units of behaviour and thought. Such units are characterized by a form, a meaning, and an appropriate distribution. These three characteristics are essential in determining the significance of cultural behaviour.

Research conducted at the University of Rome with young children studying English has proved that they can not only understand cultural differences, but also appreciate and enjoy them. It depends on the teacher's attitude and methods.

Difficulties in understanding cultural patterns of a different community may be due to the fact that in two cultures the form may be iden-

tical but its meaning different, like the wearing of black or white at funerals, or clapping hands at shows. Other cases may imply the recurrence of identical form and identical meanings, but different distribution.

Contrastive analysis should be taught to teachers and applied practically to young learners. There is no doubt that even very young children can be led to perceive and appreciate differences, first through immersion in the foreign environment, and then by pointing out the meanings of such differences in classroom sessions. This result may be achieved more effectively, however, by means of international student exchanges or visits to foreign countries. If this is not possible, then audio-visual aids may prove effective for this purpose.

Educational strategies suitable to the development of such understanding have included such methods as the ethnographic study of communication in the classroom and full immersion in the foreign culture.

First of all, ethnography applied to classroom activities can be used to point out the varying origins and behaviours of the pupils, insofar as they come from different social levels and communities. Especially in countries where immigration has reached high levels, children of foreign extraction can provide numerous opportunities for cross-linguistic and cross-cultural understanding. The immigrant children themselves can become the best teaching assistants.

Secondly, cross-cultural understanding can become the source of educational factors enriching metalinguistic awareness. As a matter of fact, analyzing the diversities of cultural patterns makes for deeper consciousness of the linguistic forms embodying such life patterns. This is certainly one more reason for considering intercultural education as a powerful factor in personality development.

Cultural differences in non-verbal communication

It has been pointed out by communication researchers that many aspects of connotation and also of denotation in communication are carried by non-verbal signs. Certainly, self-expression is mainly suggested by non-verbal clues (like gestures, grimaces, body movements, look, posture, etc.). Emotions are generally conveyed through similar signs in all cultures. But there are a number of signs that differ from culture to culture, such as smiling, nodding, gesturing, and the like. Gestures, especially, as evidenced by kinesic studies, tend to differ even within subclasses of the same culture. Consider, for example, the gestures of the Neapolitan speaker.

There is no doubt that even very young children can be led to perceive and appreciate differences, first through immersion in the foreign environment, and then by pointing out the meanings of such differences in classroom sessions. This result may be achieved more effectively, however, by means of international student exchanges or visits to foreign countries. If this is not possible, then audio-visual aids may prove effective for this purpose.

Teaching the meaning of some non-verbal signs may be useful, if not at a very young age, at least with children of primary school age. It has been found to be helpful to teach American individuals the meaning and use of certain forms of Arabic behaviour; or in developing training programs in order to facilitate communication among English school pupils and differing racial groups of immigrant children (McPhail, 1972).

Understanding art of a different culture

There is no doubt that figurative art is culturally determined. Certainly, African or Eastern art forms are clearly distinguished from Western art. Art decoding needs therefore appropriate training. Most likely this is not easy to do with very young children, although it could be the object of specific experimentation after kindergarten age. Why not try new experiences of early art interpretation? Understanding art forms implies acknowledging different ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving. If children – as has been proven – are able to understand different forms of behaviour, why should they not also be able to recognize the symbols pertaining to these differences?

The recruitment and training of teachers and coordinators for intercultural education

This is the crucial problem. In all school systems where a foreign language has been inserted as part of the basic curriculum, the major question remains: how to recruit and train capable teachers?

In such institutions as the European Youth Centre, one of the problems to be faced is the training of intercultural social workers endowed with a sufficient knowledge of different cultures. Simulation games are frequently used in the context of role plays. If it is important to train social workers and tutors for international exchange activities, then it is equally important to add this component to teacher education programs.

Teachers must not only know the foreign language, but also be able to understand the cultural diversities and identify themselves as "valued members of the foreign community" (Gardner and Lambert, 1959).

The work lying ahead is enormous. It is a question not only of giving a working knowledge of the foreign language for practical as well as scientific or intellectual purposes, but also of ensuring authentic self-identification with the foreign ways

of life, thinking, feeling, and behaving.

It is highly unlikely that a university academic program will be able to achieve this purpose. It requires a "full immersion" program in the foreign culture by living abroad and allowing oneself to be imbued with colours and tastes of a different way of living. To this effect, it is highly recommended that the Council of Europe afford opportunities for frequent and well-guided exchanges on an international basis.

Long-range research needed on an international basis

During the Frascati Seminar (1987) the following important questions were posed suggesting lines for future research.

1. What factors can make international exchange programs productive?
2. What are the significant traits of a culture that need to be emphasized?
3. How should immersion in another culture be programmed and guided?
4. How should conflicts be utilized positively in order to know better our cultural frontiers and those of other peoples?
5. How can we utilize art in order to reach an understanding of cultural differences?
6. How can communication be achieved between alien language groups?
7. Should classes of students be selected? If so, how?
8. How is the exchange program to be organized?
9. How can homes be involved?
10. How can the results of such experiences be evaluated?

All these questions are, of course, significant. Of prime importance , however, is the following: What research procedures should be established to ensure the best type of evaluation of such intercultural education programs?

Today's trends all point to the suitable use of that type of longitudinal investigation called"action-research".

"Action-research" involves a continued testing of results, not just through the use of objective tests, but by participant observation by agents responsible for the attainment of the stated goals.

Teachers, intercultural social workers, curriculum developers, children, parents, and all cultural agents should take part in the enterprise as actors and receivers of the effects of the program.

In considering some of the most significant bilingual education projects in Europe, it is easy to detect the at times latent presence of the cultural component.

The Italian experience centred upon foreign language teaching in both primary schools and kindergartens (see Titone's unpublished EDPE Seminar report); the Spanish Catalan projects (see Siguan's unpublished IEDPE, Seminar report); the Irish experience (see Ó Murchú, Marchú 1987); studies of early childhood bilingualism in the mixed-lingual family (Arnberg 1981); the study of the effects of bilingualism on development during early childhood (Arnberg 1981a); case studies of bilingual children in the home setting (Arnberg 1981b); studies of language strategies in mixed nationality families (Arnberg 1979); analyses of language problems in bilingual communities like Wales (Baker 1985), and other studies not yet published, all suggest interesting implications for the connection of pluriculturalism with multilingualism.

Hopefully all these experiences will contribute to a clearer understanding of such deep connections, but above all it is to be desired that new lines of research be carried out in various countries with a view to defining the possibility and the effects of early multilingual/multicultural education in preschool settings.*

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Forthcoming in Volume 2, 1 (Fall 1994)

- "The Challenge of the Multilevel Class" by Jill Bell, York University
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Teaching to the Test: Principles of Authentic Assessment for Second-Language Education

Edwin Ralph

Educators typically recoil at the phrase, "teach to the test." Yet, this article supports that injunction as being valid for second language teachers – provided that certain conditions are met.

A recent trend that has appeared on the agenda of school reform in several countries is centered on the raising of national educational standards and on the implementation of comprehensive evaluation of students' learning performance. A divisive issue emerging from this movement deals less with whether these assessments will influence classroom teaching and learning – because they will (Marzano, Pickering, and McTighe, 1993; Zessoules and Gardner, 1991) – but more with what types of assessments should be used (Worthen, 1993). A fear is that if these "new" assessments are merely a rehash of the traditional standardized, multiple-choice, norm-referenced type, then teachers will tend to mirror a similar type of instruction in their classroom practice. As a consequence, it is believed that their students' learning will tend to reflect corresponding characteristics, such as low-order thinking, memorization of discrete items, and inability to apply this knowledge in real-world situations (O'Neil, 1993).

The purpose of this article is to demonstrate, however, that the practice of "teaching to the test" is not inappropriate – provided that "the test" is one that meets the criteria of "authentic assessment" as described in the current literature of education reform (Wiggins, 1993). The term "authentic assessment" like many reform notions in education is a new label for an old practice that has been used by good teachers throughout history (Cronin, 1993; Perrone, 1991).

Authentic Assessment: What is it?

Authentic Assessment, otherwise known as "alternative assessment" "direct assessment", "process testing", or "performance assessment" (Herman, Aschbachers and Winters 1992, Worthen 1993) refers to the process of evaluating learners' performance in executing realistic, context-bound tasks requiring the wise and flexible application of their knowledge and judgment (Wiggins 1993). This renewed emphais on context and judgment – rather than on performance drills and application of generic formulae, is not considered as revolutionary by current second language educators, as it may be perceived by some other members of the educational establishment. In fact, evidence for the pursuit of such goals as learners' communication competence, language proficiency, and practice in real life situations has been observable in second language education for several years. This evidence has been manifested on several fronts:

- internationally (Girard, Huot, and Lussier-Chasles, 1987);
- nationally, through the establishment of the National Core French Study (Tremblay, 1992);
- provincially, through the formation of several governments' recent second language curriculum policies and guidelines (Diffey, 1991); and
- commercially, through several publishers' dissemination of applicable educational materials (e.g., Jean, 1991).

A further line of support bolstering the fact that the field of second language education has embraced the concept of authentic learning/assessment is the acknowledgment of this phenomenon by recognized experts in the area of authentic learning. Wiggins (1992, 1993), for instance, has complimented second language educators for designing tasks and tests to assist beginning second language students to move progressively from a crude grasp of the complex whole of a communication act to a more sophisticated grasp of the experience. He advocates:

> We need to generalize from [second language] courses, which get the learner speaking and listening in context immediately and working toward the ultimate criterion of fluent contextual performance (Wiggins, 1993, p. 203).

Thus, this emphasis in current second language education– whether in core or immersion programs of ESL, FSL, Heritage languages, or First Nations' languages – on engaging students in experiential/global learning and assessment activities is a major goal worth pursuing and perfecting. However, for the benefit of second language teachers, who may be entering the profession, or who may be at various stages in their teaching careers, this present paper seeks to identify some of the key principles and practices of authentic assessment as it is applied in the daily practice of second language instruction.

Key Principles of Authentic Assessment

A synthesis of the current research literature related to authentic assessment reveals four key principles characterizing this process (Herman, 1992; Marzano, Pickering, and McTighe, 1993).

Constructivist Learning

Authentic assessment is built on current learning theories espousing cognitivist developmentalist assumptions, whereby learners participate individually and with others in various learning and assessment activities that require personal meaning-making, and reflective and

self-regulated interpretation. Students demonstrate their performance by engaging in realistic, motivating communicative tasks.

Although authentic assessment stresses students' production of holistic, unique, and complex linguistic tasks involving a synthesis of higher-order thinking, it does not ignore the performance of lowerlevel skills or discrete linguistic elements. However, the traditional drillskill, mechanical/algorithmic language activities are used sparingly, and essentially play a supporting role en route to helping learners to progress developmentally toward becoming both accurate (i.e., mechanically correct) and proficient (i.e., communicatively comprehensible) second language users (Valette, 1993). Skilled second language teachers reflectively and effectively supplement students' holistic language experiences (e.g., communicative functions and notions) with occasional language study exercises (e.g., grammatical structure/pronunciation). Moreover, the latter is subordinated to the former, in that the language study component tends to be used to advise learners how to improve the accuracy of their particular second language productive (speaking/writing) skills (Tremblay, 1992).

The traditional distinction between "the test" and "a learning task" is purposefully blurred, so that all classroom activities, including individual assignments and group tasks are evaluated and make up part of student grades for reporting purposes.

Communicative tasks

A learning/assessment task illustrating this cognitive/constructivist principle is one that will engage students in specific functional/ notional scenarios appropriate for their age, their interest(s), and their level of linguistic competence. For example, a possible activity for 9 and 10 year old second language students, with 3 to 4 years prior experience in a core second language program, is one that the present author found to be effective in his own teaching practice. Students are requested to prepare and present a role-play, in pairs, of a typical after-school telephone conversation. They would be given clear directions about using recent material presented in class, and everyone would be clear that students would be evaluated on their use of second language, their acting ability, and their creativity

> ...to make up statements that reflect the intended meaning of the text" (Nemni and Lecerf, 1990, p. 14).

Integration of Teaching/ Learning/Assessment

A *second* principle of authentic assessment is that the components of teaching, learning, and assessment are considered as an integrated whole. Because the cognitivist-constructivist approach emphasizes learners' performance of tasks that demonstrate what they know and are able to do in real-life situations (or meaningful simulations of the same), then it follows that any of these tasks – whether they take the form of informal practice-sessions, or of more formal performances, projects, portfolios, or tests – are eligible to be evaluated in any second language class period. However, students must be informed of this procedure at the beginning of the course, and periodically throughout the schoolterm (Nemni and Lecerf, 1990). Thus, the traditional distinction between "the test" and "a learning task" is purposefully blurred, so that all classroom activities, including individual assignments and group tasks are evaluated and make up part of student grades for reporting purposes.

Regardless whether each second language learning experience is, by nature, formative (ongoing) or summative (terminal), or discrete or integrative, or norm or criterion-referenced, or formal or informal, it is crucial that both students and teachers should know clearly what the particular content and performance standards are for each of these tasks (Jean, 1991; Palmer Wolf, LeMahieu, and Eresh, 1992). Moreover, Wiggins (1993) asserts that all authentic assessment whether "task" or "test" should provide enticing, stimulating challenges for learners in which they are engaged in meaningful communicative situations. An example of such a specific second language situation could involve having students conduct and analyze a survey of their peers' typical daily dietary intake, or of their physical activity patterns, and then to present the findings formally to the class via oral and/or project formats in the second language. Again, these tasks would be evaluated according to specific predetermined and clearly stated criteria.

Productions of unique simulations

Because of normal logistical constraints that exist in schools, second language teachers may be forced to contrive authentic simulations that are somewhat artificial, but that "feel real" to students (Wiggins, 1992, p. 27). For instance, the present author has had several groups of his former middle-years second language students successfully plan, prepare, and perform the following dramatic skits complete with second language dialogue, taped sound effects and background music, appropriate costumes, and stage props and lighting: "A Missed Aircraft Hijacking," "Fractured Fairy-tales," "Former TV Heros," "Cinderfella and His Godfather," and "At the Movies."

In keeping with authentic performance principles, these students were assessed on both their individual and and group use of the second language, their dramatic participation, and their involvement including their fulfillment of their responsibility to prepare their own costumes and props. Inevitably, this author also found that learner motivation increased toward the second-language course specifically, and toward the second language generally, as a result of having students participate in these meaningful but simulated learning tasks (Ralph, 1987, 1989).

Quality and Coverage of Content

A *third* standard characterizing authentic assessment is that the performance tasks must not only be consistent with the current trends advocated in the curricular field, but also must be representative of the key elements of the discipline (Herman, 1992). With respect to second language education in Canada in recent years, the National Core French Study (Lapkin, Harley, and Taylor, 1993) has provided a major impetus both for provincial governments (Lazaruk, 1993), and for publishers (Nemni and Lecerf, 1990) to help revise policies and create materials based on the concept of having students use language meaningfully in true communicative contexts. Thus, provincial second language guidelines (Diffey, 1991; Saskatchewan, 1988) as well as contemporary published programs (e.g., Jean, 1991; McConnell and Collins, 1989), promote learners' integration of the analytical/technical with the communicative/functional aspects of second language acquisition. The goal is that these "communicative situations are made as real as possible in the classroom" (Saskatchewan, 1988, p. 218).

In pursuing the ultimate content objective of helping students to function both fluently *and* accurately in the four second language skills (Valette, 1993), teachers are faced with the perpetual challenge of creating learning and assessment activities that have an appropriate blend of language experience *and* language study. Current experts in the field are agreed that this optimum mix is best reached when second language educators embed learning and assessment activities in units or themes appropriate for specific age groups. Students take part in natural and authentic language experiences as they encounter a variety of interesting tasks related to these broad themes. Thus, learners are actually put into real-life communication situations where they have to use the second language in a personal, direct way – rather than first having to learn several discrete language skills, and then trying to apply them in a new setting (Duplantie, Hullen, and Tremblay, 1992).

Activities related to students' lives

These second language learning and/or testing activities are designed to tap into learners' own life experience and interests. A further example used with middle years students might be to develop (and later to assess) their listening comprehension of actual TV or radio news/sports/weather reports (or simulations thereof) delivered by a native second language speaker. By answering a set of oral and/or written questions about the report, students would demonstrate several skills: their global understanding of the content, their knowledge of specific facts presented in the broadcast, and their ability to deduce/analyze/interpret these facts. Further, to demonstrate their second-language oral production skills, they could be assigned to create, prepare, and present a simulated TV or radio report of their own. These resulting role-plays could also be audio- or video-taped in the classroom setting and would be assessed not only for the technical aspects of second language grammar and usage, but also for student participation/initiative/creativity.

Teachers are faced with the perpetual challenge of creating learning and assessment activities that have an appropriate blend of language experience and language study.

The present author has found through his 30 years' experience in education from the elementary to adult levels as second language teacher, school principal, school district second language coordinator, university professor, and supervisor of teacher interns – that such stimulating activities meet two key goals. These tasks not only help motivate students and reenergize teachers toward the second language program, but they seem to have an effect on reducing negative attitudes among certain students who may have been formerly categorized either as "reserved, retiring, or recalcitrant," or as "rambunctious, rude, or rebellious" (Ralph, 1982, 1987, 1989, 1993, in press). The positive reinforcement received by students as a result of their participating in a successful authentic performance contributed to an increase in their more favorable acceptance of the second language course.

Quality and Fairness of Standards

A *fourth* principle of authentic assessment is that the assessment process always seeks to produce accurate results upon which to permit fair and sound decisions and conclusions about student performance, teacher effectiveness, and program quality. However, a persistent dilemma for all educators, including those in second language teaching, is to design learning and assessment activities that optimize both the *validity* (i.e., fidelity to the criterion situations that maximize learners' freedom to respond appropriately in real communicative contexts) and the *reliability* (i.e., consistency, precision, and standardization of results). Because many traditional assessment formats tend to decontextualize and decompose knowledge into isolated, generic, or simplistic responses, educators advocating the authentic approach seek to reduce these deficiencies by devising alternative standards and tasks that allow for more pluralistic, diverse, and idiosyncratic performance by students (Wiggins, 1993). The latter reflect the complexities involved in confronting ambiguous communication scenarios in the real world of students' lives.

The principle undergirding our best current understanding of second language acquisition and assessment emphasizes the integration of both the analytical *and* the global dimensions of second language learning. Research by Stern (1982), by the National Core French Study (Tremblay, 1992), by provincial ministries of education in Canada (Diffey, 1991), and by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (Wiggins, 1993) has re-

sulted in the publication and dissemination of accepted second language proficiency guidelines – empirically grounded in clearly described traits characterizing the performance of learners at various stages of second language abilities.

Moreover, there exists a variety of scoring descriptors, evaluation formats, and assessment frameworks, as well as several actual second language tests that have been piloted and normed on target groups similar to the individuals being tested (Lapkin, Argue, and Foley, 1992). Thus, second language educators currently have a choice among several trustworthy assessment sources, some of which are: the above instruments; materials provided by provincial ministries and/or local school divisions; tests included in the second language programs from commercial publishers; teachers' personally created materials and activities; and combinations of the above.

Quality assessments

An example of an authentic learning or testing task that seeks to gauge students' second language receptive and productive skills would be for the teacher to arrange time to conduct an oral second language interview with each of the students in a class. Learners would be forwarned, for instance, to be prepared to respond to oral questions from a "TV talk-show host" from another country. The purpose would be for "the interviewer" to videotape the interview and to take it back for later telecasting in the interviewer's nation, in order to generate interest among similarly aged students to come to visit the interviewee's school in Canada. The interviewee would have been told previously thus to expect to use persuasive and enthusiastic responses in order to motivate these potential viewers to come to Canada.

The interviewer's questions would reflect what Howard (1980) calls a "semi free" format, in that specific topics and/or questions would not be pre-specified for the respondent; and that the interviewee would be expected to make use of previously learned second language material presented and practiced in class, such as Canadian geography, descriptions of weather, buildings, families, and school- and home-life. During the activity, respondents would be assessed globally for their integration of the communicative, grammatical, and sociolinguistic dimensions of second language, as well as for their overall knowledge of the topic and their linguistic versatility.

Fairness in the assessment of each of the above learning/testing tasks would be secured if the evaluators ensured that the tasks incorporated the following criteria:

- to develop and use scoring rubrics based on accepted second language models or templates that would indicate both exemplary and nonexemplary performances (the latter illustrating typical errors for each age/stage of second language development);
- to assess students' grammatical/technical second language skills, such that these mechanical aspects would be regarded as important – but not as sufficient aspects – in learners' demonstrations of their proficiency in realistic and relevant second language communication;
- to delay key decisions regarding learner, teacher, program, and context matters, until a variety of learning/assessment tasks have been collected in order to provide a composite profile of results; and
- to align all such learning/assessment activities with the second language program's objectives, as well as apply the authentic assessment philosophy, principles, and practices in their daily instructional routines.

Second language education on track for authentic assessment

This article has indicated that our contemporary knowledge of effective second language education is based on the cognitive view of learning, in which learners actively construct personal understanding in a holistic manner as they engage in actual communicative activities. Because the processes of teaching, learning, and assessment of learning are so closely and intimately tied, and because the latter directly affects both of the former processes, then it is essential that second language educators ensure that all their assessment practices both guide, and are guided by, the specified student-learning tasks for each level, and the accompanying performance standards for these tasks. In the light of this key assumption, Marzano, Pickering, and McTighe (1993) aptly conclude that it is essential that the authentic assessment task

> ...reflects good instructional practice, so that teaching to the test is desirable" (p. 13).

Thus, "the test" virtually represents any second language activity derived from the experientially-oriented thematic approach that prepares students "for real world language use" (Lapkin, Harley, and Taylor, 1993, p. 486). At this time, second language education has already embraced this concept, and may second language educators continue to implement *and* to improve these authentic learning tasks in the daily routines of their classrooms!

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Teaching Vocabulary: An Annotated Bibliography

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Rogerson, Holly Deemer and Lionel Menasche (eds.) 1988. *Words for Students of English. A Vocabulary Series for ESL. Volumes 1-6*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press. Approx. 180 pp. per volume.

The objective of this series of vocabulary texts is to facilitate the learning of approximately 3000 new base words. Volumes 1-6 (beginners to advanced) each contain 25 units, and present English base words with definitions, examples and exercises. The texts may be used as core texts for vocabulary learning classes or as supplemental texts in reading, speaking or writing classes. Each unit focuses on a specific topic (e.g. sports, school, transportation) so that students can practice new words in meaningful contexts. The exercises take the student from simple, fairly controlled practice to a final phase with communicative exercises. An answer key is provided at the end of each volume for the self study exercises.

Taylor, Linda. 1992. *Vocabulary in Action*. New York: Prentice-Hall. 198 pp.

Vocabulary in Action is a book of vocabulary-related teaching ideas for direct classroom use. It explores eleven different aspects of "knowledge of a word", and is divided into sections which correspond to these. Within each section there is a choice of activities. The eleven aspects dealt with in this book are mother tongue equivalence, sound-spelling, denotation, word grammar, collocation, polysemy, frequency, connotation, register, vocabulary within written discourse, and vocabulary within spoken discourse. A companion book by the same author *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary* (Prentice Hall, 1990) provides a bridge between theory and practice, by linking insights gained from applied linguistics to practical activities for the classroom.

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Prentice Hall, 1870 Birchmount Road, Scarborough, Ontario M1P 2J7. Tel.: (416) 293-3621, Fax: (416) 293-0571.

University of Pittsburgh Press, 127 North Bellefield Avenue, Pittsburgh, PA. U.S.A. 15260. Tel.: (412) 624-4110.

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A Picture is Worth 1,000 Words and A Word is Worth 1,000 Pictures

Hector Hammerly

Visual aids are very helpful in performing many pedagogical functions in the second-language classroom. There are, however, two such functions they cannot perform well. In some contexts, their use may even be cognitively disadvantageous. Much further research is needed on visual aids and their effects.

Pictures and *visuals* are not synonymous. *Visuals* is the cover term that refers to anything visible - other than writing systems, which are part of *language*. Visuals include

- *pictures* (realistic representations of objects, people, etc.);
- *graphics* (charts, diagrams, and so on); and
- *symbols* (arrows, ideographs, and so forth).

Recent books about the use of visuals in second-language teaching (Wright, 1989; Hill, 1990; Wright and Haleem, 1991) seem to accept without qualification the idea that "visuals are good for you" and simply go on to explain how to develop and use visuals. These authors do not acknowledge any limitations on the use of visuals as second language instructional aids.

There can be no question that visuals, whether still, serial, or moving, can enhance several aspects of second-language teaching. Among their positive contributions are their ability to

- represent sounds or structures,
- portray cultural features,
- provide situational awareness, and
- elicit verbal output - both controlled and free.

Sound and structure representation

The pronunciation of certain second-language sounds, especially those whose articulation is not directly observable, can be made clearer through the use of sagittal sections or pictorial articulatory symbols (Hammerly, 1974a). Of course, only a few sounds require and benefit from such a visual approach. Using it with all sounds would be inefficient and would probably confuse the students.

(The use of a complete phonetic alphabet – a linguistic rather than a visual aid – seems unnecessary in second-language teaching. Besides, the International Phonetic Alphabet [IPA], for example, has many strange-looking symbols. Most IPA symbols are not effective reminders of the articulations they represent. The IPA is not, of course, based on the particular needs of speakers of language X trying to learn language Y and it does not provide a gradual shift from pronunciation symbols to spellings. These are all features that a good pedagogical transcription should have.)

There can be no question that visuals, whether still, serial, or moving, can enhance several aspects of second-language teaching.

Second-language stress and intonation can be shown visually in many ways - the best one perhaps being a scale graphic resembling a musical scale. As well, the potential of video technology to help teach pronunciation and intonation has hardly begun to be exploited. Think, for example, how useful it would be to have prerecorded videos using half the frame, then have students record the audio and video for the other half and compare the two halves.

Grammatical structures can be represented with diagrams using lines, shapes and colours, with arrows, and with other graphic devices (Danesi, 1990; Brown, 1990). It seems clear that, when properly designed and used, the various visual devices that may represent second-language sounds and structures can be very helpful. What is puzzling is that, so far, there has been very little research, that I am aware of, on their relative effectiveness in the classroom.

Culture depiction

The use of visuals is an excellent way to convey information about all four aspects of a second culture - informational (geography, demography, institutions, and so on), behavioral (customs and everyday behaviour), achievement (heroes, artists, writers, et al.), and attitudinal (work ethic, ethnocentrism, xenophobia, etc.). Of course, only the visible manifestations of the second-language culture can be portrayed. With some ingenuity much can be done, whether through the use of cartoons, photographs, videos or other visual media. (In many cases, colour is essential. How would one otherwise teach that to find a mailbox one has to look for something red in Canada and something blue in the U.S.? And how about taxis in different countries? Not all are yellow.) Video can enhance the presentation of cultural information to children (Herron and Hanley, 1992). But, note that students from a different cultural background may not understand visuals very well. Tuffs and Tudor (1990) found that non-native speakers of English from Asian cultural backgrounds understood an ESL video played silently significantly less than native English speakers. There is no need to compare such radically different cultures to see certain cross-cultural difficulties. As Mollica (1994) notes, a *coffeepot* looks very different in Italy and in North America, and pictures of a Canadian university campus may be difficult to understand for Europeans, for whom a university is just buildings.

Situational awareness

Good thematic pictures can provide awareness of important elements of a situation in which language activity occurs. They can offer the nonverbal setting or context to spoken or written language. When they perform this function, pictures provide general support to listening or reading comprehension (Mueller, 1980; Snyder and Colón, 1988), in the form of global comprehension support that is especially useful if it precedes a text (Omaggio, 1979; Dethloff, 1980) or presentation. Here the picture helps play the role of "advance organizer" (Ausbel, 1960). During the presentation of a second-language story, however, video enhances comprehension in general, but does not necessarily help understand the text itself (Baltova, 1994). I emphasize that in this function pictures provide *general* comprehension support for, as we shall see, pictures are far from adequate at conveying the meanings of *specific* words or phrases in context (Cole 1967, 1976).

Verbal output elicitation

The ability of pictures and other visuals to elicit verbal output has long been known. In recent years, Anthony Mollica has amply demonstrated this fact with his 1992 series of books of unusual photographs, *A picture is worth...1000 words*. These photos either tell a story or entice the imagination to invent one. They have been carefully selected for their ability to elicit conversation.Guides with questions and exercises to accompany these books are available in eleven languages.

Another visual aid I have found effective in eliciting verbal output is the "wordless" – captionless – cartoon strip that tells a story. For years I collected them and used them particularly in my intermediate and advanced classes. First, I would teach any essential new vocabulary and tell the story. Then I would ask the students questions about the story. I usually followed these first two steps twice. After that, I would ask them to tell the story themselves. Finally, they would ask each other questions about it. The same "wordless strip" could be used to tell a story in the present tense first, in the past tense later in the program, in the future tense still later, and finally as contrary to fact or from a particular point of view. This activity was very effective.

Pictures for verbal output elicitation should be chosen very carefully and used at appropriate times within a definite structural/lexical program progression. Asking students to describe scenes or tell stories for which they lack the necessary language is inviting them to make numerous errors, far more than can be corrected effectively. The result of speaking in the classroom beyond one's second-language competence is the early habituation of a very faulty interlanguage, as has happened in French immersion programs (Hammerly, 1989). Careful gradation in language teaching is essential – even when using pictures.

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In the four aspects discussed above – sound and structure representation, cultural depiction, situational awareness, and especially verbal output elicitation – there is little doubt that a good picture (or other visual) is worth many words, perhaps even 1,000 or more. But there are two other aspects of language teaching in which the opposite happens, that is, where a word is worth 1,000 pictures. Indeed, in those two aspects of language teaching pictures are not only unnecessary but may be harmful in a variety of ways. Moreover, a third concern is that some uses of pictures may curtail cognitive activity.

I am referring to

- the conveyance of the *specific meaning(s)* of new words and phrases,
- the elicitation of *specific* words and phrases, and
- the likelihood that providing a given picture may restrict or even eliminate, in certain activities, the generation of mental imagery.

Conveyance of the meaning(s) of new words and phrases

When we know the native language of the students or have appropriate materials that allow us to address each student in his or her native language (in the case of multilingual classes), then we can use the native language to convey meaning. The use of the native language instead of pictures is much more precise and much faster. Also, it saves the students from the frustration of having to play an ongoing guessing game - a game they often lose.

To clarify what I mean by a word being worth 1,000 pictures in conveying specific word or phrase meanings, consider the following example. Suppose we want to teach the French word *voiture* ("car") to an English speaker. A picture of a car would necessarily have to show a particular kind of car, which is, of course, misleading, for *une voiture* can be any kind of car. But the *word* "car" would transmit precisely the meaning we want to convey. And it is literally worth thousands of pictures as all the stored images of cars the student has ever seen contribute to the concept of both *car* and *voiture* – a concept the student *already* carries in his or her mind. This is certainly not a new concept that needs to be experienced physically or pictorially in order to be learned.

In attempting to convey meaning through pictures, we risk several problems. The likelihood of a narrower interpretation has already been mentioned. The opposite is also possible, though probably less likely: the learner may think of a hyponym, such as the word *vehicle* instead of *car* in our example. Or the learner may think we are trying to

teach him something else, such as a colour, size, or shape. In fact, we can never be sure that the learner will interpret the picture the way we hope he or she will (Hammerly, 1974b).

Incidentally, when analyzed logically, the monolingual demonstration procedure seems downright silly: here is a grown-up teacher of English showing a book or a picture of a book and saying the inanity "This is a book" to, e.g., French-speaking students *who know perfectly well what a book looks like!* You may say the students are thereby learning the English word for "livre," but clearly all they need to readily accomplish that is for the equation book = "livre" to be made in some meaningful, informative context. Constantly trying to guess what "new" words mean in inane little sentences can hardly be a defensible activity for intelligent second-language students.

In the case of phrases and sentences that form part of an audiovisually presented dialogue, the learner may fail to understand many of the sentences. This has happened in empirical studies involving the monolingual presentation of filmstrips, even when the subjects were experienced second-language teachers (Dodson, 1967; Hammerly, 1984). The same thing no doubt happens with video presentations, although they should help make action verbs a little clearer. In fact, it has been found that the most beneficial input, as far as understanding videos is concerned, is bilingual bimodal - in the two languages and both audio and written - rather than monolingual audio (Danan, 1992).

By making overt but very brief use of the students' native language to convey specific meanings, we can ensure that the interlingual equations the students make are correct. For even if not a single word of the first language is used in class, the students *will* make mental interlingual equations: relating the unknown to the known is an inevitable psychological process. The problem with allowing these equations to be formed covertly is that they are often incorrect - and unavailable for correction. If this matter is not dealt with openly, incorrect interlingual equations may be reinforced over a long period of time and be difficult to eradicate when the teacher finally becomes aware of them. For example, Direct Method students of French who have never heard a word of English in class say things like **fenêtre de magasin* for *vitrine* ("store window"), which proves that in their minds they have made the imperfect equation *fenêtre* = "window." This common phenomenon was noted by Sweet nearly a century ago (1899).

We should research the possibility that by providing our students with a given picture or pictures we may be asking them to be cognitively passive rather than participate actively in the process of mental imagery generation.

When specific meanings are conveyed in the native language, the problem just alluded to can be prevented. Oral presentations can include a clarification or warning about the limitations of the equation, as follows: *fenêtre* = "window - but a regular window, *not,* for example, a store window." Another advantage of conveying specific meanings clearly and quickly in the first language is that much time is saved by not having to spend it on slow, inefficient attempts to guess the meanings of words. Even Corder, a committed audio-visualist, admitted that monolingual methods are "very slow" (Corder, 1966:27). The time saved by conveying meanings briefly in the native language can then be spent, much more effectively, on using the words or phrases meaningfully in the second language. Of course, once new words or phrases and their meanings have been learned bilingually, pictures can be used effectively, in either a general or directed way, to help practice their communicative use.

Elicitation of *specific* words and phrases

The second difficulty with pictures in language teaching is that they are also unreliable in *eliciting* specific words and phrases. Language test developers, to their disappointment, discovered that long ago (Pimsleur, 1966). A picture of a dog could be shown, for example, to English-speaking students of Spanish in the expectation that they would say *perro* and thereby show whether or not they controlled the sound [rr], but often some examinees would say other things, such as *animal* or *mascota* ("pet"), thus frustrating the whole purpose of the test item. This unreliability of pictures in eliciting specific words and phrases often extends, of course, to conversational output activities that may be thus attempted.

Curtailed imagery generation?

We should research the possibility that by providing our students with a given picture or pictures we may be asking them to be cognitively passive rather than participate actively in the process of mental imagery generation. It may be, for example, that far more images are activated or generated in reading a story than in seeing it acted out. It also seems that images one generates oneself are remembered better than those one is given. Since, more generally, ability to recall depends largely on the number and the vividness of associations, this whole question deserves study.

Conclusion

Pictures and other visuals offer numerous advantages. It has been shown that videos can profitably be used in numerous ways (Cummins, 1989; Liebelt, 1989; March, 1989; Seidler, 1989; Orban and McLean, 1990). New technologies such as the VCR and interactive video (Schmidt, 1989; Forrest, 1993) and satellite television (Oxford *et al.*, 1993; Yi and Majima, 1993) allow us to bring moving pictures into our classrooms from anywhere in the world. The integration of video (Reese *et al.*, 1988; McCoy, 1989-90) with the

other elements of language programs is also beginning to be considered.

But the advantages visuals offer and the fact that for certain functions a picture is worth 1,000 words should not distract us from the empirical and logical evidence that in at least two aspects of language teaching - the conveyance of specific meanings and the eliciting of specific words and phrases - pictures are imprecise, slow and unreliable. For those pedagogical functions, just one or two words in the first language are usually worth 1,000 pictures.

Far more research is needed on visual aids, their various classroom uses, and their effects on comprehension, recall and other cognitive activities. The author hopes that this article may further encourage such research.

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Planning for Successful Teaching: Questioning Strategies

Anthony Mollica

As a university student, I worked during the summer months as a Customs officer at the Fort Erie/Buffalo border. I was in the Customs yard one day when a car pulled up. It had a note on the windshield. It read: "Check under front seat." I took the paper and asked the driver:

"Where do you live?"

"Welland," he replied.

"How long have you been away?"

"A couple of hours."

I checked under the seat. There was nothing there. However, on the front seat there were two bottles of liquor, some bedsheets, some pillow covers.

"Do you have anything to declare?" I asked.

"Yes," he replied. "Two bottles of liquor, some bedsheets and some pillow covers."

"Why did you not declare these items to the officer on the line?" I inquired.

"Because he asked me if I had anything special. And this is not special."

I couldn't help smiling. The man was right. My colleague had asked an incorrect question. What the officer should have said was: "Do you have any thing to declare?" (or the equivalent in French, "Avez-vous quelque chose à déclarer?"

At which point the "smuggler" could have (would have?) identified the items. But the officer, obviously bored from asking the same question, tried to change it and thus obtained unacceptable results.

Questions such as: "Did you buy anything today?" are not appropriate. The traveller could easily reply negatively and then be discovered to have his car trunk filled with TV sets. His explanation to the Customs officer could be very simple. "You asked if I *bought* anything. Well, I didn't *buy* these items. My uncle owns a TV store and he *gave* them to me free of charge."

I remember a similar scene from the movie *All the President's Men*. A senior *Washington Post* reporter asked the two investigative reporters, Woodward and Bernstein, why Hugh Sloan had not told the Grand Jury that Haldeman had been involved in the secret slush fund used to re-elect President Nixon. "He was never asked," was the reply.

Questions may be used to solve problems. I recall my practice-teaching days at the Faculty of Education at the University of Toronto. There was a young man in the Latin class by the name of Alvin who was determined to try the patience of even the most courteous student teacher! What seemed to be on the surface the most innocent of questions, turned out to be the most intricate and difficult queries with which he tried to stump enthusiastic future teachers. I was determined to put Alvin in his place, but to do so gently without declaring open warfare.

I had just finished teaching the ablative absolute. I had explained the function of the past participle which, together with the noun in the ablative case, provided a variety of possible translations:

Gallis victis, pacem fecit.

After defeating the Gauls, he made peace.

The Gauls being defeated,...

Having defeated the Gauls,...

After he had defeated the Gauls,...

Since he had defeated the Gauls,...

etc...

Alvin, eager to stump me, asked:

"Can an adverb modify a past participle?"

The eyes of all my colleagues turned on me. I could have simply answered with a "yes/no" answer. I decided instead to use Alvin's question as a springboard for problem solving.

"What is a participle, Alvin?"

Alvin was determined and eager to show off his newly acquired knowledge.

"A participle is part adjective and part verb."

I praised his answer.

"Very good, Alvin," I said. "Can an adverb modify an adjective?"

"Yes," replied Alvin, knowledgeably.

"Can an adverb modify a verb?"

"Of course," said Alvin, annoyed.

"Does that answer your question?" I asked.

Alvin didn't know what had hit him.

"Why... uh... Yes! Thank you, sir," he blurted out.

I had turned Alvin's question to my advantage and he had learned something.

Then there is the classic story of the teacher who, having spent some time trying to obtain class control, noticed that "Johnny" was still continuing to disrupt the class. Being short of patience and wanting to start the lesson, the teacher sarcastically asked:

"Would you like to take over the class, Johnny?"

At this point, Johnny stood up, went to the front of the class and solemnly announced:

"Class dismissed!"

Additional anecdotes and examples abound. The reader has only to watch any TV courtroom drama *(Perry Mason, Matlock, Street Legal)* to see immediately the importance of asking questions which produce the response the lawyer requires. Precise questions will normally elicit precise answers, although this obviously does not apply to members of Parliament who seem to have mastered the art of not answering the question asked by members of the opposition! Teachers should frame their questions in such a manner as to ensure the answer they want, at least within the context of what they are teaching.

Why ask questions?

In the classroom, teachers should ask questions:

- to obtain information
- to spark and/or encourage discussion

- to stimulate and encourage participation
- to check facts and to reinforce recently learned material
- to probe more deeply after an answer is given
- to help recall specific information
- to arouse interest
- to gain a student's attention
- to diagnose specific learning difficulties
- to encourage reflection and self-evaluation
- to help determine individual differences
- to focus attention on an issue
- to determine what the students know
- to test learning
- to solve problems
- to teach via students' answers.

During the presentation of the lesson, the teacher may want to ask questions:

- to review content already learned
- for review or for drill
- to bring out or reaffirm the aim of the lesson
- to reinforce recently learned material.

What types of questions?

What types of questions should teachers ask? They should ask questions which:

- are brief and clear
- are specific
- are consistent with students' abilities
- call upon the students' past experience
- help develop concepts and thoughts
- are relevant to the lesson
- are suitable for diagnostic purposes
- call for judgement.

Method

Teachers should ask questions

- in a varied rather than a predictable order
- of several students rather than several questions directed to the same student
- in a courteous manner and expect the same courtesy in return
- in a familiar way rather than always formally
- as a teacher, not as a judge in a courtroom
- during class, but enter marks later
- in a sincere manner
- within the scope of students' acquired linguistic skills and using good target language
- according to the students' needs.
- according to the ability of the group.

To whom should questions be asked?

Teachers should ask questions:

- of the slower as well as the rapid learner
- of the inattentive student

Suggestions and techniques

Teachers should keep the following suggestions in mind:

- Ask the question. Pause a little. Only then identify the student who will answer the question.
- Allow a reasonable interval of time before the student answers
- From time to time, ask questions which may require group response.
- Recognize volunteers.
- Praise a good response.
- Praise a good effort even if the answer needs a bit of polishing or correcting.
- Encourage students *to ask* as well as answer questions in the target language.

Key words in questions

Practically all questions, whether intended to recall factual information or stimulate discussion, consist of or include one of the following key words:

- What...?
- Who...?
- When...?
- Where...?
- Why...?
- How...?

Questions to be avoided

Teachers should avoid asking questions which:

- can be answered with a simple "yes" or "no"
- are vague
- are double-barrelled; i.e. two questions in one
- suggest the answer
- do not have a worthwhile purpose
- can be answered by guessing.

Following are some examples of questions to be avoided:

1. Can you answer question No. 7? *(Yes, of course I can, but I don't feel like it...)*. Better:
   Question Number 7, Johnny. (An elliptical question in the form of a command.)
2. Has anyone finished the exercise? *(No, of course no one has finished it!)*. Better:
   Who has finished the exercise?
3. Who killed Julius Caesar and why? (*One question at a time. First I have to figure out who killed him, let alone try to imagine the reason...*). Better:
   Who killed Julius Caesar? *(Teacher first obtains response and then proceeds with:)* Why?
4. It was Brutus who stabbed Caesar, was it not? *(I guess so, if you say so. You're the teacher; I'm not going to disagree with you...)*. Better:
   Who stabbed Caesar?
5. Who wants to erase the blackboard? *(Thirty students rush to the front of the classroom...)*. Better:
   Please erase the blackboard, Mary.

Convergent vs. divergent questioning

Questions can be either narrow or broad. A narrow question is often referred to as a memory question, direct question, closed question or convergent question.

A *convergent* question limits the answer, for all the learner has to do is to recall certain facts either read or heard. This type of question generally requires a short answer and little reflection or thought on the part of the respondent. It is based on memory rather than on knowledge and

understanding and may even encourage guessing.

The *divergent* question – a broad or open question – encourages an open response. It has no single correct or best answer, but can have wrong answers. Like the convergent question which involves memory, the divergent likewise entails memory, but also requires that the student explain, think about the topic and produce a logical, correct answer. Guessing, therefore, is held to a minimum. Divergent questions challenge the student's efforts and command greater attention and reflection for they stimulate further activity calling for judgment, analysis, organization, comparison, understanding and logical thinking. It follows that the teacher can expect more diverse responses from the divergent question than the convergent one.

Level of Behavioral Complexity	*Expected Student Behavior*	*Instructional Processes*	*Key Words*
Knowledge (remembering)	Student is able to remember or recall information and recognize facts, terminology, and rules.	repetition memorization	define describe identify
Comprehension (understanding)	Student is able to change the form of a communication by translating and rephrasing what has been read or spoken.	explanation illustration	summarize paraphrase rephrase
Application (transferring)	Student is able to apply the information learned to a context different than the one in which it was learned.	practice transfer	apply use employ
Analysis (relating)	Student is able to break a problem down into its component parts and to draw relationships among the parts.	induction deduction	relate distinguish differentiate
Synthesis (creating)	Student is able to combine parts to form a unique or novel solution to a problem.	divergence generalization	formulate compose produce
Evaluation (judging)	Student is able to make decisions about the value or worth of methods, ideas, people, or products according to expressed criteria.	discrimination inference	appraise decide justify

Figure 1. A question classification scheme

Question Classification Scheme

Borich (1992) identifies the types of student behaviours associated with each level in the cognitive-domain taxonomy suggested by Bloom *et al.* (1956)

- Knowledge
- Comprehension
- Application
- Analysis
- Synthesis
- Evaluation

and offers this excellent chart (Figure 1).

There is no doubt in any teacher's mind that the art of questioning is crucial and plays a major role in the process of teaching and learning. Postman (1979) went so far as to urge

> Let us...make the study of the art of question-asking one of the central disciplines in language education (p.140).

and to suggest that

> all our knowledge results from questions, which is another way of saying that question-asking is our most important intellectual tool (p. 140).

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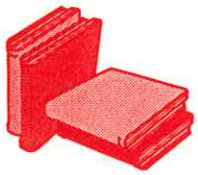


Teaching Vocabulary: An Annotated Bibliography

Alice Weinrib

The following bibliography includes a sampling of texts which introduce theories, techniques and materials for the teaching of vocabulary in the second language classroom. Most of the discussions and activities suggested in these texts can be applied to the teaching of vocabulary in any second language classroom at most levels. In all these titles, there is an implicit recognition of the central role of the lexicon in the process of language production and comprehension.

Gairns, Ruth and Stuart Redman. 1986. *Working with Words: A Guide to Teaching and Learning Vocabulary.* New York: Cambridge University Press. 200 pp.

This book is rich in innovative and practical suggestions for the teaching and learning of vocabulary in the adult and young adult language learner. It also offers discussion on the scope of lexical categories and their relationships, and on the various psychological and educational principles which are considered valuable for the selection of classroom content and the learning and retention of new words. The classroom activities are based on the general theme of the book: involve the students in the learning process. True to the title of the book, the reader learns about words and teaching/learning of words by "working" through various activities which enhance the awareness of typical problems encountered by the learners and possible pedagogical solutions.

Mollica, Anthony. 1988. *Crossword Puzzles for Beginners.* Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing, inc. (Available in English, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish).

A book consisting of 80 line-master puzzles for reproduction. Each of the familiar themes (clothing, sports, school, etc...) are presented in puzzles at four levels of difficulty. "A" level puzzles contain ten thematic illustrations, with the ten words required to complete the puzzle listed in alphabetical order at the bottom of the page. "B" and "C" level crossword puzzles contain fifteen illustrated words (ten new words and five which already appeared in previously completed puzzles). "D" level crossword puzzles are the most complex. They contain all twenty illustrations using only the visual stimulus (no printed words). A total of two hundred high-frequency words are included (twenty per theme.)

Mollica, Anthony (Illustrations by Nancy Elkin). 1990. *Vocabulary Posters.* Welland: Éditions Soleil Publishing. (Available in twenty-one different languages).

This set of sixteen vocabulary posters illustrating thematically related words is particularly useful for young language learners. Each poster displays 20 high frequency words printed in four colours. The themes include such topics as: sports, clothing, animals, and transportation. Holiday posters are also available: Hallow'een, Thanksgiving, Christmas, Valentine's Day and Easter. All the illustrated words are labelled with the corresponding written forms in a choice of fifteen different languages, including: English, French, Italian, German, Spanish, Greek, Portuguese, Ukrainian and others. Illustrations-only posters are also available. These posters may be used in conjunction with any language program. However, since they have been designed to facilitate the establishment of direct association between word and image, they are highly suitable for visual learners. A teacher's guide with suggestions for use is also available.

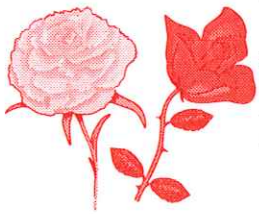
Morgan, John and Mario Rinvolucri. 1986. *Vocabulary.* London: Oxford University Press. 125 pp.

This resource book for teachers is based on the authors' insights regarding how vocabulary is acquired by secondary and postsecondary foreign language learners. The exercises, which are set out in the form of lesson plans with example material, cover all areas of language learning: reading and aural comprehension, written and oral practice. Each section of the book presents vocabulary learning activities for the elementary to advanced learner: learning through written texts, learning through imagery and gesture, learning through self-constructed categories and personal responses to words and learning through reference material like dictionaries. The final section contains many suggestions to help the learners develop techniques to review and retain the newly acquired words. While this book is in English and all the examples are given in English, the techniques it contains can be readily adapted for the teaching of any language.

Nation, I.S.P. 1990. *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary.* Boston: Heinle and Heinle. 275 pp.

Based on the premise that a systematic approach to vocabulary development results in better learning, this research-based text takes an intensive look at the underlying principles of vocabulary acquisition, including the most effective teaching and learning techniques currently available. There are two main ideas running through the book. The first is that information about frequency provides valuable guidelines for the teaching and learning of vocabulary. The second idea is that an analysis of the tasks facing the learner in acquiring vocabulary provides information about how learning can be made more efficient. These ideas are applied to the teaching and learning of vocabulary in the chapters on listening, speaking, reading and writing.

continued on page 13



Teaching Culture in a North American Context: Mother's/Father's Day

Anthony Mollica and Tania Sterling

Through a "time-machine" interview, we were able to reach Anna Jarvis and ask her a few questions about Mother's Day.

Mosaic: Miss Jarvis, you are credited as being the driving force behind Mother's Day which is celebrated in the United States, in Canada and in many other parts of the world. How did this idea originate?

Anna Jarvis: As you probably know, the custom of holding a festival in honour of motherhood is very old. The ancient Greeks worshipped the goddess Cybele, the mother of the gods. The custom was later introduced into Rome about 250 B.C., and on the Ides of March the festival continued for three days. But these festivals were entirely different from the one I proposed in honour of mothers.

Mosaic: How was your suggestion different?

Anna Jarvis: I felt that at least one day a year should be identified when sons and daughters should pay a tribute to their mothers.

Mosaic: What steps did you take to achieve this?

Anna Jarvis: As you know, my mother died on May 9, 1905. In succeeding years, I held memorial services and encouraged other sons and daughters to remember their mothers in a similar way. I arranged for a special mother's day service in one of the churches and everyone was asked to wear a white carnation.

Mosaic: I understand that the custom of wearing a white carnation was later modified...

Anna Jarvis: Yes, that's true. There were so many requests for white carnations that florists could not meet the demand...Florists soon discovered that people wanted something more colourful...

Mosaic: What was the solution?

Anna Jarvis: Eventually a distinction was made between those whose mothers were still alive and those whose mothers were dead. The red carnation was worn by sons and daughters whose mothers were still alive, while the white carnation was worn by sons and daughters whose mothers had passed away.

Mosaic: Was the idea of celebrating Mother's Day readily acceptable?

Anna Jarvis: It appears so. The suggestion of honouring one's mother appealed to the imagination of others, and services were held in more churches the next year. As you know, the city of Philadelphia where I was born, was the first city to observe formally the celebration on May 10, 1908. But I wanted to make this day a national holiday and lobbied with our politicians...

Mosaic: How did you go about it?

Anna Jarvis: I wrote thousands of letters to influential persons suggesting that a day be chosen to honour and remember our mothers.

Mosaic: How did the various politicians respond to your request?

Anna Jarvis: They were quite positive and encouraging. President Woodrow Wilson was so enthusiastic about it that on May 9, 1914, following the adoption of a resolution by Congress, he issued a proclamation declaring that the second Sunday in May be observed as Mother's Day.

Mosaic: Yes. I recall President Wilson stating that this day was to be regarded "as a public expression of our love and reverence for the mothers of our country."

Anna Jarvis: The idea spread like wild fire to countries such as Afghanistan, Costa Rica, Spain, Italy, England, Sweden, Denmark, China, Mexico to mention only a few. In India, for example, Mother's Day was established as a memorial to the wife of the political and spiritual leader Mohandas K. Gandhi.

Mosaic: You must be very pleased with the dissemination of this celebration which had humble origins.

Anna Jarvis: I was particularly pleased that sons and daughters soon got into the habit of making little gifts on this day to their mothers. I do emphatically deplore, however, the commercialism which eventually infested this day of tribute.

Mosaic: I would like to move on to another tribute: the one established to honour fathers. Could you provide us with some background information?

Anna Jarvis: I'd be very pleased to. You know, however, that I had nothing to do with this. The idea was originated by Mrs. John Bruce Dodd from Spokane, Washington, in 1909.

Mosaic: Were Mrs. Dodd's reasons in wanting to establish a day to honour her parent similar to yours?

Anna Jarvis: There are some minor differences. Mrs. Dodd wanted to honour her father who had successfully reared a family of children after the death of their mother.

Mosaic: How did she go about it?

Anna Jarvis: I am told that she wrote to the Rev. Conrad Bluhm, president of the Spokane Ministerial Association and proposed that the third Sunday in June be set apart for honouring fathers.

Mosaic: What was the reaction?

Anna Jarvis: The congregation immediately approved the proposal, and the first celebration was held in Spokane in June 1910.

Mosaic: Was there any difference between the celebration of Father's Day and Mother's Day?

Anna Jarvis: The only major difference that immediately comes to mind is the flower used. Sons and daughters were asked to wear a red rose if their father was alive and a white one if he was deceased. You

will recall that the carnation is the symbol for Mother's Day.

Mosaic: Was the rose the first choice as the symbol?

Anna Jarvis: Actually, members of the Martin W. Callener Bible class of Wilkinsburg, PA, had suggested the dandelion in 1924, as "the more it is trampled on, the more it grows," but its use did not become general.

Mosaic: Did the Father's Day celebration spread as quickly as Mother's Day?

Anna Jarvis: Not quite. In 1911, the celebration was discussed in Chicago as if the idea was new. A dispatch from Vancouver, Washington appearing in the Portland *Oregonian* in 1913 believed that the celebration for Father's Day had originated there.

Mosaic: When did the celebration officially come into general use?

Anna Jarvis: If I am not mistaken, it was in 1934.

Mosaic: Thank you, Miss Jarvis, for all this useful information.

Pedagogical Suggestions

Following are some suggested activities for Mother's Day/Father's Day. They are not presented in any specific order of difficulty. Teachers will know the linguistic background of their students and will select only those activities appropriate to the age and linguistic level of the class. These suggestions are by no means exhaustive; teachers will undoubtedly think of others.

1. Send a singing telegram to your Mother/Father expressing your best wishes for the Day. (The telegram may be live or pre-recorded on audio tape.)
2. Send a balloon-o-gram (with a secret message inside the balloon).
3 Create a menu and bring your parent breakfast in bed.
4. Design a ticket and mail it to your parent inviting him/her to attend a scene (or scenes) you will perform at your house depicting why your parent is so special to you.
5. Imagine that the idea of Mother's/Father's Day originated with you. Write a letter to a politician urging him/her to lobby to have it declared a national holiday.
6. Your local newspaper is having a contest for the Best Mom/Best Dad. Write a short paragraph about the qualities of your parent and submit it to the contest.
7. Write a poem for your parent expressing your love and your gratitude for what he/she has done for you.
8. Make a placemat and get it laminated for the kitchen table.
9. Design a Best Mother/Best Father Certificate. List at least three reasons for this "award".
10. Using the information from the Jarvis "interview"printed above, write in your own words a short paragraph about the origins of Mother's Day/Father's Day.
11. Write an Editorial indicating reasons why sons and daughters should celebrate Mother's Day/ Father's Day.
12. Interview several people (on audiotape, if possible) and ask them what they think of Mother's Day/ Father's Day celebrations.
13. Design a Happy Mother's/Father's Day card and write a message in one of the languages you are currently studying.
14. List a dozen adjectives which best describes your parent.
15. Make a series of drawings illustrating the activities in which your parent is frequently involved.
16. Imagine that you are Anna Jarvis and have the opportunity to meet President Wilson. Select a partner to play the role of the President and try to persuade him to establish a day to celebrate Mother's Day.

[Text by Anthony Mollica. Pedagogical suggestions by Tania Sterling.]

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In the News

Mosaic receives grant

From: *The Welland Evening Tribune,* "New Language Journal Fills Unique Educational Niche," April 27, 1994. Excerpts reprinted by permission of the Editor.

WELLAND – Editors never retire, they just recycle. This is something Anthony Mollica has learned the hard way.

Mollica has been an editor since 1974. In that time, he has been editor of many prestigious journals, including *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes, Language and Society/Langue et société* (for the Commissioner of Official Languages), *CASLT Bulletin de l'ACPLV,* as well as Editorial Consultant for *Dialogue* published by the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada. He is currently the editor of *Brock Education,* a journal published by the faculty of education at Brock University. [...]

Welland-Thorold MPP Peter Kormos (left) presents a cheque on behalf of the Minister of Education and Training to Anthony Mollica to expand the circulation of Mosaic.

Recently Mollica received a $19,900 grant from the Hon. Dave Cooke, Ontario's Minister of Education and Training, to expand the circulation of *Mosaic,* a new language journal. [...]

"We use a journalistic approach, and the articles are kept short, four to six pages," Mollica said, "teachers don't have the time for long, drawn out articles." [...] The quarterly journal/ newsletter has a circulation of over 1,500 after only three issues [...]

Keith Hobbs

Put a smile in your language classroom !

CP-011 Can you suggest...?

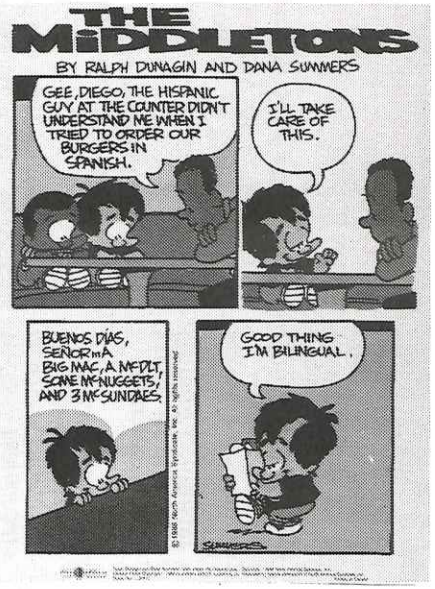
CP-012 France is all so...

CP-013 What luck!...

CP-014 What is...?

CP-015 When abroad...

CP-016 What's to eat...?



CP-017 Gee, Diego...

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