#### **Book Reviews**

COHERENCE IN WRITING: RESEARCH AND PEDAGO-GICAL PERSPECTIVES, Ulla Connor and Ann M. Johns (Eds.). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1990. 263 pp. \$11.95.

This twelve paper collection discusses coherence in writing from various theoretical and research perspectives, and suggests howinsights gained from such theory and research can be adapted to classroom instruction. These papers, some of which were originally presented at a TESOL '86 colloquium on "Coherence: Theory and Practice," provide a basic understanding of what makes texts interpretable, or coherent, by making available recent research in rhetoric, linguistics, and anthropology.

In Section 1, Theoretical Overview, Nils Enkvist's paper introduces and summarizes what coherence is. He points out seven issues: 1) cohesion and coherence; 2) messages and metamessages; 3) inference in interpretation; 4) relevance of situational context; 5) receptor knowledge and degrees of interpretability; 6) text strategies, text categories, and patterns of exposition and argument; and 7) strategy, structure, and process. Because the degree of comprehension depends on situational context and the world knowledge of readers and writers, Enkvist emphasizes the importance of a process model for textual coherence which incorporates discourse pragmatics.

The second paper discusses two kinds of discourse coherence: "propositional" and "interactional." Lisa Lautamatti contends that these kinds of discourse coherence should not be associated with textual mode alone since the kind of coherence also depends on text formality and discourse topic. Thus, it is not necessarily the case that interactionally coherence is more prevalent in spoken texts than in written.

In Section 2, Coherence Models, Bardovi-Harlig analyzes discourse in terms of the organization of "given" and "new" information in sentences. She illustrates how pragmatic organization of elements influences English syntactic patterns, which in turn affect coherence. She then suggests that some sentence types, which are related to pragmatic considerations, be taught to the student. She includes some field-tested activities for ESL writing.

David Harris investigates the function of opening sentences in paragraphs in science textbooks. He examines the "organizing functions" of the opening sentences in a total of one hundred paragraphs drawn from college textbooks in the natural sciences. These opening sentences can be

categorized into five functional types. He then offers pedagogical and research implications.

The third paper is devoted to John Hinds' discussion of how expository writing is organized in Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Thai. Hinds contends that the English-speaking reader tends to assume that writing follows inductive reasoning if it does not follow deductive reasoning. He argues that the languages above allow a "delayed introduction of purpose" or quasi-inductive style. Although the English-speaking reader often finds such a style confusing or incoherent, this style has the objective of providing the reader with various aspects of a particular issues instead of giving a strong argument.

Finally, Peter McCagg proposes a model of coherence in analyzing "idea units" in the reader's summary response protocols. In this model, "response proposition taxonomy," idea units are classified into non-inferential and inferential propositions. The latter are further divided into schema-based and text-induced inferences. McCagg's sample analyses of ESL students' recall protocols are clearly presented, enabling those with similar research interests to replicate his study.

In Section 3, Studies of Student Writing, Eleanor Wikborg analyzes a "coherence break" or "loss of the thread argument" as a result of inappropriate paragraph divisions. Her language sample consists of 144 essays written by Swedish EFL students from different academic fields. Wikborg gives three criteria for a coherence break: 1) when equally short successive paragraphs discuss the same topic; 2) when a paragraph division separates a topic sentence from one or two supporting sentences; and 3) when a new paragraph indicating a topic change is not long enough to be considered a paragraph. She then discusses pedagogical applications of these findings.

Suzanne Jacobs is the only author in this book to focus on developmental stages of children (ages 10-13) learning to write coherently. Jacobs asserts that academic prose is structured hierarchically, and that sixth graders show a great variation in their abilities to create hierarchically structured or coherent text with appropriate lexical items. She suggests that a bilingual approach (putting emphasis on both L1 and L2) should be used when encouraging the acquisition of a second language (written language) which is different from the first language (spoken language).

Lars Sigfred Evensen proposes a tentative taxonomy of "pointers" which signal rhetorical superstructure in written discourse, and uses this taxonomy to analyze EFL student writing. Based on the differences between local and global pointers, Evensen distinguishes connectors from pointers, the latter being divided into five subcategories: metatextual deixis, internal logical structure, topic markers, and temporal connectors

used as pointers. He also discusses pedagogical implications.

In the final section, *Pedagogical Approaches*, John Swales analyzes 20 research papers written in his English for Academic Purposes class in terms of his four-step-introduction model. He demonstrates the significance of global coherence in the introductions of research papers by showing that readers could ignore local incoherence if texts have global coherence. This paper suggests specific ways for non-native writers to produce globally coherent introductions to research papers, and is useful for teachers for ESP writing.

Next, Ann Johns examines the effects of the "journalog" on culturally diverse college freshmen from an anthropological perspective. Johns finds it valuable to encourage students (as participant-observers) to discover the rules of use of the academic culture with which they are not yet familiar. She reports that the journalog helps students gain knowledge of academic discourse and develop their sense of the intended audience.

In the final paper, Constance Cerniglia, Karen Medsker, and Ulla Connor discuss how computer-assisted instruction can help students analyze coherence in their own texts. After discussing the theory behind topical structure analysis, the authors show the steps that students can take in conducting self-analysis of their texts. Moreover, they propose the use of a computer-assisted activity to teach topical structure analysis in writing courses.

As noted earlier, the authors provide an extensive overview of the many approaches to the study of coherence. Some papers also contrast current approaches to text analysis with traditional approaches (e.g., Enkvist, Harris). In addition, sets of discussion questions and extension activities at the end of each chapter will help readers new to this field to focus on the central issues in each contribution and to perceive the interrelationship among the contributions, not only in this collection but in the literature as a whole.

Thus, this book will certainly be useful for foreign language and ESL teachers and teacher trainers. Moreover, it will serve as an appropriate textbook for courses related to teaching second language reading and writing, and as a source book for second language researchers.

#### Reviewed by Kyoko Takashi, Middlebury College, Vermont

#### References

Carrell, P., Devine, J., & Eskey, D. (Eds.). (1988). Interactive approaches to second language reading. New York: Cambridge University Press.
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LINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVES ON SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION. Susan M. Gass and Jacquelyn Schachter (Eds.). New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990. 296 pp.

Any collection of papers must do more than simply present them. It must provide unity to the collection, relate the writings to other work in the field and encourage readers to delve further into the areas covered. The editors of Linguistic Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition have achieved these goals. This immensely rich volume brings together a diverse collection of papers that do much to further establish second language acquisition as a separate and viable area of linguistic inquiry. At the same time, the well considered introductions to each selection do much to relate the papers to both the others in the book and additional work in the field.

However, this is not a book for those unfamiliar with recent advances in the field, those without knowledge of prevailing theories of language acquisition, or those without a background in statistics. It is a dense volume which demands more than a cursory reading. For those who wish to study the theoretical aspects of second language acquisition more deeply, the text can provide some insight into the two major perspectives on the relationship between the theories of language and of second language acquisition.

The collection does not provide pedagogical prescriptions or approach second language acquisition research from a pedagogical viewpoint. Rather, it seeks to establish clearly linguistic-oriented second language acquisition research as an autonomous discipline, "concerned with: (1) what is acquired of a second language; (2) what is not acquired; (3) the mechanisms which bring that knowledge (or lack thereof) about; and ultimately (4) explanations for this process in terms of both its successes and failures."

The editors state that the purpose of the collection is to elucidate theories of how second languages are learned from a linguistic perspective, especially the "potential relationship between second language acquisition and linguistic theory." The papers represent a range of views; however, they are essentially in agreement on the

importance of grounding second language research in theory.

The volume consists of 12 papers divided into five sections: Theories of acquisition; Syntax; Semantics/Pragmatics; Lexicon, and Phonology. Each section aims to further elucidate the issue under consideration, and the introductions to each help clarify and unite the chapters.

Two perspectives are discussed in the volume concerning the relationship between theories of language and theories of second language acquisition. The first maintains that a model of second language acquisition requires a coherent theory of language, essentially contending that characterizing language acquisition processes is impossible without knowing what language consists of. The weak version of this perspective views linguistic theory as providing indirect insight into SLA, without claiming that it is essential for characterizing SLA. The second perspective argues that any linguistic theory "must be tested against second language data to be validated," and also exists in strong and weak versions.

The first section, Theories of Acquisition, illustrates two views on the topic by Kevin Gregg and Robert Bley-Vroman.

The first perspective of SLA, which can be considered a Chomskyian one, is illustrated by Gregg in chapter 1. Gregg claims, "that a generative theory of grammar is a necessary component of a theory of second language acquisition," such as the kind of theory represented by the Government-Binding Theory. He argues that without formal theory, SLA falls into a "proliferation of terminology" and "sterile taxonomies" of words and classifications that fail to elucidate language acquisition and lead to further confusion. Gregg maintains that in a field where eclecticism has dominated, a formal theory that can describe precisely pieces of the "language puzzle" can do much toward explaining the whole.

Robert Bley-Vroman, in the second chapter, argues against adult access to a Universal Grammar in SLA, rejecting the notion that child and adult language learning fundamentally the same, and posits a "Fundamental Difference Hypothesis." He supports this hypothesis by discussing nine areas of adult foreign language learning which which are unlike child language acquisition and closer to general adult problem solving skills. Bley-Vroman further

examines the arguments for and against the Fundamental Difference Hypothesis, without making any claim that the radical version discussed will ultimately turn out to be accurate. Rather, it is his goal to encourage further debate to help enrich what is known of adult SLA.

The next four chapters, by Jacquelyn Schachter, Suzanne Flynn, Juana M. Liceras, and Lydia White, present a collection of theory-oriented research papers in second language grammar and syntax.

Schachter discusses research conducted to test the hypothesis of adult access to a UG and chooses the subjacency principle to examine the question of whether language learners judge grammatically incorrect statements as correct or incorrect, using success on both tests as indication of UG access. The results fail to support her hypothesis, indicating that adult language learners do not have access to a UG.

Flynn, in tests of Spanish and Japanese speakers' acquisition of relative clauses, finds support for a general theory of parameter setting in her study of head-complement parameters. She further suggests four other conclusions that can be drawn from the results: that there are L1 constraints on head direction; that learners' hypotheses are constrained by the principle of structural organization; that there is support for a head-complement parameter that "specifies a dimension of structural variation across languages"; and a match between the L1 and L2 parameters facilitates acquisition.

The properties of the "pro-drop" parameter for nonnative Spanish speakers were examined by Liceras. She finds that French L1 speakers more readily accept the Spanish pro-drop and produce phrases closer to the target norm that English L1 speakers, and concludes that most Spanish L2 learners do not start with the L1 setting for null subjects.

White addresses the issue of adult L2 learner access to the UG and proposes an alternative: adult L2 learners cannot use the same learning principles. In other words, the Subset Principle of learning does not operate effectively in SLA. Her study finds evidence from ESL learners in support of the transfer hypothesis and rejects

adult application of the Subset Principle, without making any claim that the two phenomena are interrelated.

Part III, Semantics and Pragmatics, presents two chapters concerned with learning second language word order. William Rutherford is concerned with determining interlanguage word order, while Susan Gass is concerned with determining the interpretation of word order.

Rutherford examines compositions in English by L1 speakers of Spanish, Arabic, and Japanese, finding evidence of L1 interference in pragmatic word order, even when it violates canonical word order in English. Rutherford in turn, as did White, rejects learner access to the Subset Principle and finds support for a parameterized role of the UG in adult SLA.

In a departure from the other chapters, which look at one issue, Gass considers syntax, semantics, and pragmatics, and their influence on IL simultaneously, basing her two studies on the Competition Model proposed by Bates and MacWhinney (1982). She argues strongly that learners universally favor animacy cues, as opposed to syntactic cues, in interpreting sentences. She also stresses the important role second language data must play in determining relationships in SLA.

Part IV, Lexicon, explores the issue of lexical acquisition. Helmut Zobl claims support for the Unaccusative Hypothesis, while Wesley Hudson argues that the preference rule system proposed by Jackendoff (1983) provides a characterization of the nature of word meaning that serves as a theoretical model.

The Unaccusative Hypothesis, support by Zobl, maintains as a linguistic universal that all languages recognize, at an abstract level, a difference between intransitive verbs implying control (e.g., run) and intransitive verbs that do not (e.g., fall). Learner application of this universal, he argues, helps predict the form of learner error types in acquisition of the passive intransitive.

Hudson proposes Jackendoff's preference rule system as a model for word acquisition. His discussion of Jackendoff's theory is of particular interest. Briefly, the theory holds that learners have a mental representation of what a word means; however, "what

these linguistic expressions refer to are the resulting mental entities that are projected onto our awareness, not the real world objects themselves." Through organization of the lexicon in this way, Hudson maintains that the principles at work can be integrated with a general theory of the mind to provide deeper understanding across cultures.

The final section, Part V, presents two views of phonological theory. Josh Ard, noting that there is no existing model of L2 phonological acquisition, proposes one, while Jane Lowenstein Mairs conducts a metrical analysis of stress assignment patterns with the goal of identifying interlanguage rules that generate the patterns.

Ard argues that the target language phonological representation is not automatically available to L2 learners; hence their phonological constructions may be different from NS representations. He suggests that the Constructivist Model, developed by Linell (1983), while unable to be directly applied to SLA, may form the base, when suitably augmented, for discovering how learners construct suitable phonological representations.

Mairs, using work on metrical stress analysis in English and Spanish, considers stress assignment by Spanish speakers learning English and outlines three components of L2 learners' linguistic knowledge that may influence phonological development: the L1 stress system, universal tendencies, and acquired knowledge of the L2 system. Her study results indicate, however, that all stress assignment in the data can be generated by the L2 stress system. No pervasive transfer of the L1 stress system appears, although Mairs does provide evidence which suggests that L1 constraints on syllable structure do play a role in the learner's interlanguage.

### Reviewed by Tamara Swenson

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Bates, E., and MacWhinney, B. (1982). Functionalist approaches to grammar. In E. Wanner and L. Gleitman (Eds.), Language acquisition: The state of the art. New York: Cambridge University Press.

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# COLLINS COBUILD ENGLISH GRAMMAR. London: William Collins, 1990. 485pp.

The COBUILD English Grammar is a reference grammar for "advanced students and teachers of English," with some innovative features not found in traditional grammars. It is a combination of grammar book and usage book, and it describes how the English language is actually used, taking many examples from the COBUILD Database. It is organized around functions and meanings, not around structures. In this respect, Geoffrey Leech's A Communicative Grammar of English is the closest of this type, but the COBUILD Grammar is more detailed in its description of the language with actual examples, and more helpful in writing and speaking English.

- It has the following innovative features:
- (1) All information in this grammar is based on the COBUILD Database, from which the COBUILD English Language Dictionary was developed. Examples cited to show the usage of words and structures are all chosen from the COBUILD corpus, and are not made up for the sake of grammar explanation.
- (2) "The main purpose of this grammar is to help students to choose structures which accurately express the meanings they want to create," and "the book is largely organized around the functions and meanings." This point is clearly shown in the contents: Chapter 1. Referring to people and things; 2. Giving information about people and things; 3. Making a message; 4. Varying the message; 5. Expressing time; 6. Expressing manner and place; 7. Reporting what people say or think; 8. Combining messages; 9. Making texts; 10. The structure and information. This feature distinguishes the COBUILD Grammar from others. It shows a variety of structures to give the intended meaning, formal or informal, casual or literary, spoken or written, strong or weak, etc. This type of information is very helpful in writing and speaking English.
- (3) LISTS OF COMMON WORDS relate function to structure. For example, there are lists of adverbs to indicate destina-

tion or targets, of reporting verbs which can be used with a person as object followed by a "to"-infinitive clause, of qualitative adjectives often emphasized by "absolutely," etc. These lists are very helpful to show examples of a particular structure to students. The lists in the section of phrasal verbs are exhaustive.

(4) PRODUCTIVE FEATURES tell us when rules can be applied quite freely in English to many words. Take 2.76 for example. After explaining the rule and showing some examples, it says: "The use of the '-ing' form of verbs as adjectives is a productive feature of English." It is very helpful and encourages us to create sentences on our own.

The COBUILD Grammar solved some questions that had puzzled me for a long time, and the answers to which I had tried to find in several grammars, usage books, and dictionaries only to fail, for example the difference between "If you are to-infinitive" and "If you were to-infinitive," the differences between centigrade and Celsius, and the question of why articles or plural forms are not used for nouns in sentences like this: "The legal position for both worker and employer is now as fair as the law can make it."

The COBUILD Grammar is very informative, but it would be hard to find these points that I have just mentioned because of the poor index. The user may often end up having to read a whole section or chapter to find the information wanted. It is because this grammar is not organized so much around structures as around functions and meanings. The index is almost useless to locate information about a particular structure, word, or phrase. Take inversion, for example: inverted structure is explained in eight sections, but INVERSION in the index lists only three of them, and the unlisted sections I found are not cross-referenced in any of the listed sections. It is hard to get an overall picture of inversion. I think that the index of Michael Swan's Practical English Usage could be used as a model, and that the index should list as many individual words, phrases, and expressions as possible.

Using real examples to explain structures is not always successful. For example, when explaining basic structures

of conditionals or verb tenses in reported clauses, a chart contrasting the difference in the use of tenses would be easier to understand if it used the same example sentence, even if it were made up. Keeping to real examples is not always a good tactic, especially when teaching basic structures and their usage, but that does not seem to be the purpose of this grammar.

In selecting words for the lists, the COBUILD Grammar is not always very careful. Section 3.197, for example, lists "come," "go on," "remember," and "regret" as verbs the meaning of which is altered depending on whether you use a present participle clause or a "to"-infinitive clause. It does not include "forget" and "stop." Other sections need a list of words. Section 6.104 gives only one further example, "the Andes," to show that "Most place names are singular nouns, although some look like plural nouns, for example "The Netherlands."

The productive feature seems to choose certain structures rather arbitrarily. Take 6.111 for example, which is not treated as a productive feature. It says: "You can also use prepositional phrases to give more information about the feeling of the person performing the action." The example is "Fanny saw with amazement that the letter was addressed to herself." I think this can be treated as a productive feature.

The COBUILD Grammar is not for prescriptivists; it is for liberal-minded teachers of English. It describes how the English language is actually used, and it does not tell how it should be used. Section 8.81 says: "In formal English 'were' can be used instead of 'was' in clauses beginning with 'as if' or 'as though." The implication is that "was" is fine and acceptable in both formal and informal English. I doubt that a student would get a point if s/he did this in the TOEFL or other examinations, although "was" instead of "were" is often heard. Section 8.94 goes too far in this regard for both prescriptivists and non-prescriptivists. It says: "When you are referring to a thing or group of things, you use 'which' or 'that' as the subject or object of a non-defining clause." There are cases in which "that" is used in

a non-defining clause, but these are very rare. (See Quirk, et al., A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language, Longman, pp. 1257-1259, for further information.) Actually this section does not give a single example which uses "that" in a non-defining clause. Another example of misleading information is 1.218, which says: "Although you do not normally use determiners with uncount nouns, you can use 'a' or 'an' with an uncount noun when it is modified or qualified." This is not true. When you say, "give full recognition" or "pay special attention," you never use "a." At least "in some cases" should be added: otherwise it is quite misleading.

The COBUILD English Grammar is an innovative grammar, but it leaves a lot to be desired, and can stand improvement. Cross-references should be more carefully prepared, and the index should be improved. The information in some sections is exhaustive, informative, and helpful, but in some others it is misleading and confusing. I would not recommend this grammar book to my students, even at the advanced level. They would be overwhelmed and confused. This grammar is for those who have a secure command of the English language and who wish to know more about grammar with real examples to further refine their English.

Reviewed by Masahiro Kodera, Kyoto YMCA English School

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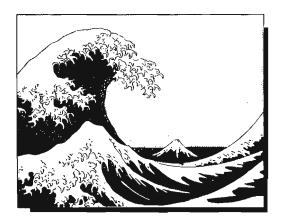
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CONTENT-BASED SECOND LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION. Donna M. Brinton, Marguerite Ann Snow, and Marjorie Bingham Wesche. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1989. 219pp. + References + Appendices.

To make it clear what the authors mean by content-based second language instruction, a short definition is in order:

We define content-based instruction as the integration of particular content with language-teaching aims. More specifically, since we are dealing primarily with post-secondary education, it refers to the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills.

Having been an instructor of such a course in the intensive English program (IELP) at Temple University Japan, Osaka, for the past two years, I was very pleased to find that a comprehensive teacher-reference book on the subject has finally been published. In the past ten years or so, there have been numerous articles and reference books written, but nothing as thorough as the present text. I wish I had had access to this book when I started teaching my content course. At that time, it was necessary to rely on less thorough reference works (Mohan, 1986), and on what the teaching staff in our Tokyo branch had been able to develop for their content courses. Naturally, I often felt unsure whether many of the techniques I was using were as effective as they could be. After reading the present text, however, I had my ideas reinforced and was filled with more confidence that the methods and techniques I was using were similar to those used in other content courses taught around the world.

Before discussing the book per se, I should mentioned the supposed advantages of this form of instruction, which convinced the authors of the necessity of writing this book:

- 1. The content-based language curriculum takes into account the interests and needs of the learners.
- 2. It incorporates the eventual uses the learner will make of the target language.
- 3. It builds on the students' previous learning experiences.
- 4. It allows a focus on use as well as on usage.
- 5. It offers learners the necessary conditions for second lan-

guage learning by exposing them to meaningful language in use.

The text itself is divided into nine chapters. The first is a quick overview of content-based teaching, how it developed, and why many teachers feel it to be an appropriate method for language teaching. The second chapter presents three content-based teaching models: (1) theme-based in which the language class is structured around topics or themes; (2) sheltered, which consists of content courses taught to non-native students in the second language by a content area specialist; and (3) adjunct, where the students concurrently take a language course and a content course (the latter is attended by both students who are native speakers and students who are non-native speakers). The next three chapters can be grouped together since each takes a different model and highlights its particular features. The sixth chapter is devoted to practical considerations in the implementation of content-based programs. The seventh chapter is devoted to content-based materials development and adaptation, with almost fifty pages of sample skill activities from different content areas. The eighth chapter discusses various issues concerned with evaluation in content-based courses. The ninth and final chapter provides the reader with a quick discussion of why this form of instruction appears to be important and how the models presented could be adapted to fit one's own teaching situation.

Each chapter ends with an excellent series of questions about the material presented and its implications for consideration by the reader. Following these are suggestions for further reading. Combined with the overall reference section at the back of the book, these two features supply the reader with most of the material that has been written concerning content-based instruction to date. I found this reference section to be invaluable, and believe that with just this list alone the authors have rendered an invaluable service to teachers planning to introduce this style of teaching into their curriculum.

The authors state that their book is designed for teacher training, as a guide for those involved in developing and implementing content-based courses, and as an overview of the teaching method for the general reader. They state that their goal:

has been to provide the readers of this volume with two kinds of information: (1) well-grounded criteria for making effective choices

when designing and implementing a content-based curriculum, and (2) useful, concrete suggestions concerning how to best implement a content-based program.

They have accomplished their goal very well. Someone with little background in content teaching can read it and get a good idea about how to set up a content-based curriculum for most teaching environments, since it is well organized and full of information about postsecondary content-based instruction. Unfortunately, however, there is little mention of content teaching in non-postsecondary programs. This deficiency is recognized by the authors when they explain that they decided to focus upon postsecondary curriculums since that is where most of their own expertise has developed. Even though several non-postsecondary references are made in the book, for the most part a program director would have a very hard time developing a content-based curriculum in any but the postsecondary setting if this book were the only available reference work. On the other hand, however, a makeshift postsecondary curriculum could be developed with just this source as a reference since this book is so thorough in its treatment of the setting. In spite of this limitation, this text fulfills all the authors set out to accomplish.

In closing, I want to point out to anyone who may be considering the introduction of a content-based course into their curriculum that it is a great burden on the teachers and staff. Since there have been so few materials published which contain ready-made exercises, attack strategies, etc., the onus is on the staff or the individual teacher to make the academic subject matter accessible to the students. In my own experience, I often had to spend several hours on writing study sheets, etc. just to make the material I planned to use in a fifty-minute class understandable and suitable for my students. If you are ready to make an extra effort, you will find that you can go beyond just teaching general language skills and become involved with your students in tackling authentic material which is both interesting and necessary for them. The extra motivation this produces in them will more than pay for any extra effort you had to make.

### Reviewed by Kenneth Biegel, National University Japan

#### Reference

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INDIVIDUALIZATION AND AUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING: ELT DOCUMENTS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING. Arthur Brookes & Peter Grundy (Eds.). Modern English Publications & The British Council, 1988. 150pp.

This book is a collection of thirteen papers presented by SELMOUS members at their eighth biennial conference in Durham in 1987. (The book does not give the history of this organization.) The papers are based on the authors' particular experiences with highly motivated classes of overseas university scholars under ideal conditions in the English for Academic Purposes Program in the United Kingdom. Nonetheless, some articles could well provoke thought on introducing elements of autonomy and individualization in the Japanese classroom. Others seem to promise this, but, in my opinion, are merely sheltered under the umbrella of the introduction. They deal with topics marginally related to the theme. Therefore, I suggest this book might better serve as a general resource than as a major font of new ideas. I review the nine articles most likely to interest the reader.

In The Ethnography of Autonomy, Philip Riley asks whether people in the language teaching field, "are not guilty of . . . trying to impose our views on other, foreign realities. Are the principles and practice on which 'autonomous' and 'self-directed' learning schemes are based ethnocentric? Are there any ethnic or social groups whose cultural background predisposes them for or against such approaches?" I found his subsequent examples of crosscultural misperceptions fascinating, and they justify his three questions.

In Autonomy and Individualization in Whole-class Instruction, Dick Allwright writes that each student takes away something different from the same lesson. Research indicates that it is not just a question of quantity. Also, studies show that asking a question does not guarantee learning the answer, and that often students who did not ask the question learn the answer.

Leslie Dickinson, in Learner Training, reminds us that teachers are already engaged in learner training. Using a technique or a classroom directive (guess the meaning of the word instead of opening the dictionary) endorses that technique or strategy.

Motivational strategies of potential interest to the reader are

covered in Syllabus Negotiation: The Basis of Learner Autonomy. Muriel and Thomas Bloor describe how they helped learners negotiate for content and teaching method both in an individual study program and in a writing course. The authors state that although initially the students resisted when asked to make some decisions about their learning, they later began to see the benefits of assuming some responsibility.

George M. Blue, in Self-assessment: The Limits of Learner Independence, explains that a systematic approach to self-assessment could sensitize a foreign student to responsibilities as a learner, but is limited in accurately assessing language proficiency. He comments on great cultural variations among the groups studied. He concludes that, especially in multi-cultural classes, the teacher is still important in guiding students in self-assessment. The Questionnaire on page 118, if modified, could be useful. Tony Lynch, in Peer Evaluation in Practice, strongly supports using peer evaluation as a supplement to, but not as a replacement for, self-assessment and teacher evaluation. Many students appreciate only their individual exchanges with the instructor and tend to depend on the teacher to explain what a peer says. A questionnaire would force a learner to deal directly with a fellow student challenging his presentation. In addition, since teacher reaction to oral presentations varies widely, a questionnaire could complement the teacher's subjective evaluation. The seminar evaluation form on page 118 could be modified for use here, also.

In Attitudinal Changes to Self-access in ESP, Maggie St. John details scaling techniques. She feels her personal classroom experience with a critical and vocal minority emphasizes the need for a systematic approach to attitude assessment.

Tony Dudley-Evans writes to a select audience in **One-to-one Supervision of Students Writing MSc or PhD Theses**. A foreign student writing a thesis needs advice not only on correcting surface errors, but also on how to structure arguments and sections within each chapter.

Martin Hewings, in The Individualization of Pronunciation Improvement, explains several techniques to individualize a pronunciation lesson through peer correction and, thereby, motivate students.

In conclusion, some contributions to this book attempt to explore

the effect culture has on the classroom situation and instruction. Some present little analysis of the book's topic, but elaborate on definitions, problems, and situations familiar to those working in the field. The TEFL community might have been better served if the time had been spent researching answers to some of the challenges raised.

Nonetheless, valid points are raised in the book. First, regard for the students' culture should lead us as TEFL professionals to scrutinize whether we are imposing our own culture on the students through the selection of techniques used in the class. Choice of methods based on a conscientious professional judgment should reflect this respect. In addition, as we attempt to escape our own ethnocentrism, we just might inspire our students to imitate our example.

Reviewed by Jane Hoelker, Kinran Women's Junior College



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