Reviews

Multilingual Japan. John C. Maher and Kyoko Yashiro (Eds.). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd., 1995. 164 pp.

Reviewed by
Steve McCarthy
Kagawa Junior College

This collection of papers demonstrating the actual linguistic diversity of Japan is a special double issue of the *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* (1995) in book form. It complements an earlier collection of papers describing the diversity of Japanese society (Maher & Yashiro, 1991). Now they have compiled a work more comprehensive in scope and more representative in content.

Multilingual Japan is a deceptively thin volume, dense with historical information, linguistic data, critical observations, and references for further exploration. Following the introduction come papers on the Ryukyuan, Ainu, Korean, and Chinese languages in Japan, loan words from English, returnees, and bilingualism in international families. Moreover the sole official language, Japanese, is involved with all the rest.

In the introduction, Maher and Yashiro survey the linguistic diversity of this archipelago. Yet to admit this officially would open the door to the more politically dangerous recognition of cultural diversity. They debunk the notion of "the Japanese," arguing that the inhabitants of these islands must be seen anew as just people, without the overlay of myths and stereotypes from second-hand accounts.

The authors discuss the development and standardization of the Japanese language, versus its dialects, sign language, and various minority languages. They deconstruct ideologies of monolingual-monocultural homogeneity and harmony as invented traditions. They see Nakasone's denial of the existence of minorities Japan as a symptom of the statism that, since the Meiji Era, has suppressed both minority aspirations and the sociolinguistic frameworks through which language diversity could be investigated.

The first paper on a specific language, "Ryukyuan: Past, Present and Future" by Akiko Matsumori, makes extensive references to vernacular

research. "Ryukyuan" is preferred to describe the language group spoken in the formerly independent kingdom of Ryukyu, today's Okinawa Prefecture and some islands in Kagoshima Prefecture.

Matsumori details the history and geography of the Ryukyus in addition to analyzing the relationship between Ryukyuan and Japanese. Ryukyuan dialects are related to Japanese and have provided some diachronic clues in reconstructing the elusive history of Japanese. Mastumori observes that Ryukyuan is commonly called the Okinawan dialect of Japanese for reasons more political than linguistic.

In a typical case of language shift, Okinawans below the age of 40 are losing their Ryukyuan fluency and almost everyone speaks standard Japanese or rather interdialects resulting from interference during accommodation. Okinawans themselves have embraced language standardization to the detriment of local dialects, while schools have been draconian in stigmatizing non-standard Japanese usage. Ryukyuans have often been forced to change their social identity, to emphasize their common heritage with mainland Japan either in preference to American rule or for economic reasons.

"English in Japanese Society: Language within Language," by Nobuyuki Honna, does not deliver the sociolinguistic analysis promised, but does provide a valuable introduction to loan words from English. The strength of the paper is a taxonomy of seven types of borrowing patterns that involve semantic and/or structural changes. Since daily Japanese speech includes about 13 percent loan words, mostly from English, knowledge of loan words is necessary if EFL teachers in Japan are to develop strategies toward the variety of English with which the students were raised.

Honna may be listening too much to purists, though, when he writes that loan words alarm many people. An Asahi Shimbun ("*Honsha*," 1996) poll found that among the 77 percent who feel that Japanese usage is degenerating, only 6 percent cited an excess of foreign words, while 28 percent blamed youth slang. Yet Honna makes the redeeming observation that, lest people see compulsory English education as a failure, it has borne fruit by enriching the Japanese language.

"Bilingualism in International Families," by JALT Bilingualism N-SIG co-founder Masayo Yamamoto, summarizes research on bilingualism in Japan along with her own survey findings. She confines the data in this paper to families with one English and one Japanese native-speaking parent. She explains the choice of English between spouses is due to the greater English proficiency of the native Japanese speakers in most cases.

Yamamoto explains that in language use from parents to children at home, the L1 is used most often with one's children for emotional bond-

ing or to consciously impart the language. The force of the societal language, however, is such that more Japanese is heard from the children than is spoken by the parents to them. Bi-literacy is difficult to attain, with bedtime reading by the minority language parent a necessary but not sufficient condition. Physical or linguistic conspicuousness in Japan can result in children resisting English to minimize their differences from the norm. But Yamamoto concludes, those who do become bilingual are generally admired.

Turning from the conspicuous to the partly submerged minorities, Maher and Kawanishi co-author "On Being There: Koreans in Japan." They recount the colonial history of forced labor that resulted in a million residents of Korean heritage. As Korean-medium schools were forbidden among those who stayed after the war, Korean language proficiency among the second, third, and fourth generations is rapidly declining. Today the *Soren* (North Korea-affiliated) and *Mindan* (ROK-affiliated) organizations operate school systems with a bilingual curriculum in Korean and Japanese.

As Korean schools are not accredited, 86% of Korean students attend Japanese schools in order to have any chance of entering national universities. However, many Korean-Japanese attending Japanese schools also receive materials on ethnic education which lovingly portray the culture of the homeland. One text by *Mindan* exhorts all Koreans in Japan to have ethnic consciousness, to live in dignity, and to be true internationalists *(kuk'chae'in = kokusaijin)*. Soren textbooks, on the other hand, tend to be more ideological, singing praises of the North Korean leaders. The lack of consensus among ethnic Koreans also appears in the contentious issue of maintaining Korean names or not in face of the mainstream society.

In "The Current State of the Ainu Language," Joseph DeChicchis's 164 references in several languages illustrates the extensive research on this minority and its language, both termed "Ainu." The number of officially registered Ainu is only 24,000, a result of their historical experience as a downtrodden and partially assimilated minority.

Ainu representatives' petition to the United Nations to recognize them as an indigenous minority treated unjustly, led to a bizarre government statement that the Ainu were Japanese. Similarly, Japanese scholars tend to emphasize Ainu-Japanese linguistic similarities. On the other hand, early reports creating the image of Ainu as Caucasian exaggerated their differences from Japanese. DeChicchis speculates that the Ainu language is non-Altaic but with much Altaic vocabulary, plus later borrowings from Japanese and the northern Asian languages of peoples they contacted.

John Maher then sheds light on "The *Kakyo:* Chinese in Japan." There are at least 50,000 stable residents of mostly inner-city communities using Cantonese and some Mandarin along with JSL. In the second to fourth generations there is a trend toward dominance in Japanese. Post-War *Shin-Kakyo* tend to start with Taiwanese or other dialects.

Another nearly 50,000 speakers of Chinese are neither well-established nor are they called *Kakyo.* Since 1980 there has been an influx of Mandarin-speaking students and laborers speaking various dialects, JSL, and pidgin. In addition, there are returnees from China wishing to be repatriated with their Japanese families.

Schools for *Hua-chi'iao (Kakyo)* exist in the port cities of Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobe and Nagasaki. In Yokohama with 300 pupils from kindergarten through middle school, instruction is in Chinese and Japanese by mostly Japan-born Chinese. Some Japanese children attend as well, analogous to those sent to English- or French- language international schools. At the Tokyo Chinese School, from primary school on, English further augments Mandarin Chinese and Japanese instruction. Maher thus regards the Chinese schools as a model for bilingual education in Japan.

In "Japan's Returnees," Kyoko Yashiro notes the shift from regarding returnees as problem children in need of re-acculturation to a valuable human resource in the search for internationalization. University-age returnees receive privileged quotas at many prestigious universities and enjoy an advantage in being hired by big businesses that send employees abroad. Various government and private sector organizations support them or their networking among each other. Very few returnees now have serious problems of linguistic or cultural readjustment.

However, while Japanese schools have been set up abroad to maintain L1, L2 maintenance has been neglected in Japan, particularly by public schools. Yashiro refutes each rationalization for this neglect. Her surveys of *kikokushijo* have shown that over 90% wish to maintain their L2, virtually all who have anything significant to maintain, regardless of the second language. Returnees thus warrant L2 maintenance as agents of internationalization and diversity in Japanese society.

A weakness of this collection is the lack of final editing, for which the publisher must bear some responsibility. The introduction is strident in tone and a bit disorganized in its laudable attempt to cover disparate issues not treated in the other papers. The typos may unfairly discourage readers from continuing to papers by non-native writers of English though these present relatively few obstacles to understanding.

The collection represent a reliable sociolingusitic study for scholars abroad, while language teachers in Japan can derive applications from a

deeper understanding of our social context. Teachers can combat the unjust portrayal of Japanese students as a monolith and avoid blunders with submerged minorities by learning the variegated particulars beneath the ideology of sameness. For L2 pedagogy, the book suggests ways loan words could be a valuable aid to study, while for the hundreds of JALT members with international families, it provides the sketch of a road map for bilingual child-raising. The more deeply teachers are committed to Japanese society, the more useful this book will be.

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Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Fifth Edition, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995; x + 1,428 pp.

Reviewed by
Brian C. Perry
Nagoya University

The fifth edition of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (OALD) is the latest work originating from A.S. Hornby's pioneering *Advanced Learners' Dictionary*, first published in Japan in 1948. Since then monolingual dictionaries, written specifically for non-native learners of English (learners' dictionaries), have become firmly established as a reference for intermediate and advanced learners. For such learners, there is general agreement that the benefits of using a dictionary in the target language more than compensate for any difficulties in understanding the definitions (Hartmann, 1992, p. 153). The fifth edition claims to have 65,000 definitions (with 2,300 being new words and meanings), 90,000 examples and 1,700 illustrated words. Included are 16 language study pages and 10 appendices. The smaller compact version, designed more for Japanese learners, differs from the standard version in that it has a soft cover and comes with headwords split into syllabic divisions.

What is different about the fifth edition is that for the first time it is based on corpora of present-day written and spoken English: the 100-million-word British National Corpus and the 40-million-word Oxford American English Corpus. The lexicographical trend towards corpus-based learners' dictionaries, which began with the *Collins cobuild English Dictionary* (Sinclair, 1987), is of immense significance for two reasons. First, compilers can now scientifically analyze their data banks of contemporary language to select the most frequently used words for inclusion in their lists of, (a) headwords, and (b) defining vocabulary. Second, the example sentences–a key feature of any learners' dictionary—can now be based on those recorded as having been actually used. They can also be chosen to contain the word in question in its most frequently found collocations–and therefore be more pertinent for the user.

The layout of the OALD is clear and concise. Headwords are in large bold type with examples in italics. Idioms and phrasal verbs are also marked in bold at the end of each entry. Standard IPA phonemic transcriptions are given along with a pronunciation guide. American spellings, meanings and pronunciations are shown where required. Most learners' dictionaries emphasize their total number of entries, yet learners, unlike native speakers, tend to be more interested in the basic stock of words. Here the OALD seems to have got the balance about right. Its 65,000 entries are enough to cover the needs of almost all advanced learners whilst at the same time being reasonably compact. In comparison, the 100,000-word *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (CIDE) (Proctor, 1995) is too heavy and bulky to be easily portable.

Hartmann (1992, p. 153) and others have summarized what the main design features a learners' dictionary should have. I will examine the OALD in the context of the three most important (adapted from Hartmann's summary), namely: 1. the definitions are geared to the more limited vocabulary of the foreign learner; 2. collocational detail is provided, usually by example sentences; and, 3. grammatical coding is detailed and specific and stylistic information is given, typically by usage labels.

Definitions: Entries in the OALD are defined using a 3,500-word core vocabulary that includes both headwords and derivatives. In contrast, a rival dictionary, the CIDE, claims a defining vocabulary of only 2,000 words. But these are only headwords, and their derivatives must be added. So, for example, one finds that *absorb* is included in both lists, but the CIDE by default also includes *absorbent, absorbency,* and *absorption*—none of which are likely to be considered common words for a learner. Furthermore, the definitions in the OALD rarely stray from the defining vocabulary so they may indeed be more restricted than other learners' dictionaries. Whether

this is beneficial for the learner has been challenged by some, notably Carter (1987), who believe that limiting the vocabulary used in definitions is unnatural. Clearly there is a trade-off between accuracy and understandability. The OALD tends towards the latter.

Collocational Detail: The OALD does not, unlike the COBUILD, stick rigidly to the sentences thrown up by the corpus, but rather uses them as a basis for its examples. In this respect, the OALD comes down on the side of pedagogy in the long-running debate between those who have argued for authentic examples (Sinclair, 1987, p. xv), and those who have argued for pedagogically-based examples (Hausemann & Gorbahn, 1989, pp. 45-47). If one looks up the word *drainage* in the COBUILD we get the authentic but rather strange-sounding *line the pots with pebbles to ensure good drainage.* The corresponding example in the OALD is the short and concise *land drainage schemes.* Short phrases such as this are often found in the examples, particularly for less common words. On one hand they highlight a frequently found collocation and save space; on the other, they are too short to truly represent authentic English.

Grammatical & Stylistic Information: One of the key uses of a learners' dictionary, such as the OALD, is to help learners to encode the language for writing. It follows then that lexical information on its own would seem to be insufficient. A learner is also interested in how to put lexical units together in a way that is not only grammatically accurate, but is also stylistically appropriate. For individual entries the OALD adopts a system of coding which is clear and informative. There are 220 notes on usage under individual entries. Furthermore, a new system of simplified verb codes, (e.g. [Vnn] = verb + noun + noun) appears before the examples that illustrate them. Usage labels are precise. The entry *byte* for example, is labeled "computing" which is more detailed than "technical" or "specialized" found in the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE) (Summers, 1995) and CIDE respectively.

It would also make sense for learners' dictionaries to include a coherent description of the grammar of English in a systematically ordered component (as called for by Lemmens & Wekker, 1991). However, the displaying of general grammar is patchy. Apart from the appendix on irregular verbs, syntactic information is contained within the misleadingly named study pages. As Walter (1996, p. 358) observes, there is little in the way of cross-referencing between them and the main body of the dictionary. If one looks up the word *idiom,* there is nothing to link it to a well-written two-page section supported by examples headed *idioms* in the study pages.

In addition, the OALD contains illustrations that are sensible and not overused, along with a number of color maps and pages presenting

information on such things as the British and American Constitutions. Illustrations appear to follow the rule, "all items illustrated should be large enough to see and labeled in such a way that there is no likelihood of confusion between items" (Nesi, 1989, p. 133).

At the back there is a comprehensive set of ten appendices which take only 35 out of the 1,428 pages. They are clearly an efficient way of presenting lexical information. Take, for example, appendix 6, "Ranks in the armed forces." It would be long-winded and clumsy to fully define *captain* in the standard way. An accurate definition would have to not only state that a *captain* is a commissioned officer, but also explain its rank for each military service, and for both British and American armed forces. In tabular form one can immediately see its place in each hierarchy of ranks.

The most serious shortcoming of the OALD is the lack of information given about the frequency of usage for a particular word. Such information is especially helpful for non-native learners because it can enable them to give a word an appropriate priority for learning and production. This is particularly true for learners who are studying for exams which specify the number of English words to be mastered. It is somewhat disappointing then to find only a list of its 3,500-word defining "core vocabulary" as an appendix. The core vocabulary is of course not necessarily the same as the 3,500 most frequent words. Words such as *adjective* and *grammar* are only included for the reason that they are useful in dictionary definitions. Moreover, whether a word is in this list is not indicated in the in the main body of the dictionary. To find out, the word has to be looked up again in the list at the back. In comparison both the LDOCE and the COBUILD display the degree of frequency annotated next to the headword, with the LDOCE also showing it for both speech and writing. Looking up the word *insurance* in the OALD, one finds that it is included in the appendix of core vocabulary—the only information about frequency given. However, in the LDOCE it is marked as "S3 W2," meaning that *insurance* is ranked within the first 2-3000 words for speech but within 1-2000 in writing. The OALD is one step behind its rivals in this area.

It would be reasonable to assume that most learners require a dictionary which for them is concise, easy-to-use and above all portable. For them the fifth edition of the OALD is a first-rate learners' dictionary. Despite its shortcomings it broadly fulfills the main functions of a learners' dictionary which is to help non-native learners encode and decode language in a relevant, efficient and accurate manner. For some learners, however, the OALD will not be suitable. Those who require a weightier

desktop reference would probably fare better with the CIDE. Those who attach importance to knowing the relative frequency of entries should consider the LDOCE or COBUILD. And finally, those who require a full description of the grammar of English in the same book will have to wait until a dictionary publisher has the foresight to include one.

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Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms. Karen E. Johnson. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995. xv + 187 pp.

Reviewed by
Damian Lucantonio
The Japan Times

Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms is a book for teachers and teacher educators interested in the role of classroom-based research in second language education. The author, Karen E. Johnson, describes the nature of communication in second language classrooms so that more effective teaching strategies can be implemented and draws on data from actual classroom discourse to support the ideas that emerge. This allows her to provide a detailed account of the nature of communication in second language classrooms and to examine the implications of this for teaching and learning.

Her purpose is to describe how the patterns of communication are established and maintained in second language classrooms, and how these effect classroom performance, classroom learning, and language acquisition (p. 3). Johnson demonstrates that classroom communication does in fact have a distinct, if complex and variable, system. For example, the theoretical framework that underpins the book (p. 8) acknowledges the roles of both teachers and learners in the moment-to-moment activities that occur within classrooms. The meanings communicated are shaped by the actions and perceptions of teachers and students, as well as by the social, cultural, and institutional contexts within which classrooms exist. These actions and perceptions can differ widely from teacher to student, student to teacher, and student to student, which in turn can affect student participation, performance, and achievement.

The framework for understanding communication in second language classrooms used in the book is adapted from a model of communication and learning from British researcher Douglas Barnes (1976). He posits that students are active receivers of knowledge and believes that classroom learning is a negotiation between teachers' meanings and students' understandings. Furthermore, he argues that classroom communication occurs along two major dimensions. The first is the moment-to-moment actions and interactions that occur in classrooms. The second represents what teachers and students bring to the classroom in terms of knowledge and attitudes. The two dimensions interrelate to shape the classroom communication that takes place (p. 7).

The book has three main sections. Part 1, chapters 1 - 5, discusses each component of the theoretical framework and evaluates the contribution of each to classroom communication. Chapter 1 surveys the framework and illustrates the communicative demands placed on teachers and students in second language classrooms. Chapter 2 focuses on teachers' control of the patterns of classroom communication. For example, Johnson analyzes the IRE teaching sequence (the initiation act, the response act, and the evaluation act) (p. 17) which underlies the structure of many classroom lessons (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). The chapter examines the ways teachers use language to control the structure and content of classroom activities and the ways their frames of reference contribute to what and how they teach. Chapter 3 deals with student perceptions of the patterns of communication. It demonstrates how student perceptions of classroom activities effect both learning participation and learner performance in the classroom. Chapter 4 examines how students' culturally acquired knowledge and use of language shape their ways of talking, acting, interacting, and learning. It also explores how the language of the home and the language of the classroom can present discontinuities and problems in second language learning. Chapter 5 shows the extent to which maintaining the patterns of classroom communication can affect language learning and second language acquisition in general.

Part 2, chapters 6 - 8, uses the theoretical framework from Part 1 to examine the dynamics of communication in second language classrooms. Chapters 6 and 7 focus on teacher-student and student-student interactions and the roles these interactions play in classroom language learning and language acquisition. Chapter 8 places the framework for communication within the broader socio-cultural contexts of school-based issues and the community as a whole, and examines the effects of these factors on the second language classroom.

Part 3 (chapters 9 and 10) deals with promoting communication in second language classrooms. Chapter 9 examines how teachers can vary patterns of classroom communication to maximize learners' linguistic and interactional competencies. It also examines ways of increasing students' opportunities for language learning and language acquisition. Chapter 10, the last chapter of the book, examines how second language learners can develop their classroom communicative competence through an understanding of the nature of classroom communication.

Johnson bases her assumptions and conclusions on actual classroom discourse. Her goal is to develop more successful teaching practices by promoting more effective communication between teachers and students

in second language classrooms. For example, she stresses the need for teachers to allow for greater variability in the patterns of classroom communication (p. 90). Rather than adopt a rigid and implicit approach to teaching, teachers should make the goals and structure of the class explicit to the learners and create instructional activities that allow for greater variability in both task performance and social participation. This encourages teachers to utilize a variety of methods and techniques to accommodate different learning styles and language outcomes.

The book has many strengths. First, it demonstrates that classroom communication does indeed have a system. Even allowing for spontaneity and variability, classroom communication is not a chaotic event, though second language students may perceive it as such. Second, the classroom communication system can be described using classroom data. This can lead to a better understanding of the system and to more effective teaching strategies.

Third, the book explains why learners do not always learn what teachers teach. The implications are that this usually occurs when teachers do not address the many variables involved in classroom communication that effect learning. Using classroom-based data, Johnson shows that teachers' perceptions of the "what" and the "how" to be learned in classrooms differ from those of their students. Furthermore, the perceptions differ from student to student. One role of the teachers is to be aware of these variables and to accommodate them in their teaching processes. This is the heart of the book. Suggestions for achieving it include setting up optimal conditions for learning and language acquisition (p. 87). and making explicit the socio-cultural norms underlying learning in the target language (p. 71).

Fourth, the book sheds light on why learners often learn what teachers do not teach. Johnson emphasizes that classrooms are a dynamic language learning environment. She points out that while teachers do play an important role, they are only one source of language learning. Students also learn a lot from each other. Student-student interactions have a direct impact upon classroom learning and second language acquisition (p. 128). This is an important consideration for all language teachers. She urges teachers to maximize the benefits of student-student interactions by creating opportunities for cooperative learning through group work (p. 112).

In recognizing the role that students have in classroom language learning, Johnson's research supports the findings of learner-centered approaches to teaching (Nunan 1988). Such research and teaching approaches advocate similar benefits from student-student classroom in-

teractions for both language learning and language acquisition beyond the classroom. Researchers have found that group work fosters language acquisition by providing learners with the opportunity for productive language use and the negotiation of meaning (Nunan 1988).

Fifth, the book benefits from the many case studies from around the world. Short but specific reference is also made to Japan, for example the differences between Japanese and Anglo-American education systems and styles of learning (pp. 53-54; pp. 59-60). This directly concerns teachers in Japan and highlights the role of the socio-cultural factors that affect language learning across cultures.

A weakness of the book is its failure to recommend *how* the classroom teacher can effectively accommodate the variables that effect classroom communication. Johnson stresses the need for teachers to establish greater variability in their patterns of communication in the classroom without telling how to do this. She tells teachers what to consider in the classroom, but not how to deal with the issues that emerge. For example, Johnson provides many useful tips about the role of modeling and group work (pp. 111-114; pp. 157-158) in setting up optimal conditions for classroom learning, yet suggests few instructional activities or pedagogical techniques. Teachers might feel overwhelmed by the enormity of the task confronting them. Recognising the complexity of classroom communication is one thing, but adjusting teaching practices to deal with is another.

Another weakness of the book is its treatment of the classroom technique of modeling. Johnson stresses the importance of teachers' modeling of classroom language and classroom tasks as a way of promoting classroom communication. Yet she does not discuss the importance of modeling appropriate text-types or genres and the impact this has on effective communication (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). Research suggests the importance of providing learners with a variety of appropriate genres of language development and effective classroom communication (Martin, 1985). The role of text-type or genre language modeling is missing from the book.

Johnson provides a valuable description of classroom communication and the many patterns that effect this in second language classrooms. The book successfully combines a theoretical framework with actual classroom practice to examine a topic of interest to teacher and researchers. It raises significant issues for second language teaching, learning, and teacher training. The insights that emerge are relevant to any teacher or teacher educator interested in understanding more about the factors that influence teaching and learning in second language class-

rooms. It uses authentic data to encourage reflection on what actually takes place in the classrooms, rather than rely on intuition or anecodotal information. From it, teachers can draw conclusions based on sound theoretical evidence, which can help them develop more effective teaching practices. Anybody interested in clasroom-based research and its role in second language teaching will find this book of value.

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An Introduction to Spoken Interaction. Anna-Brita Stenström. London: Longman. 1994. 238 pp.

Reviewed by
Hugh Molloy
Setagaya YMCA

This textbook/reference work (p. xiii) gives a detailed description of English conversation. Though broadly based on the 1975 model of Sinclair and Coulthard, it incorporates the work of Stenström and other writers. Stenström collected her data from the London-Lund Corpus of English conversations, a collection of about half a million words taped, transcribed, prosodically analyzed, and computerized. The English Stenström analyzes was spoken by "adult, educated British English speakers" (p. xii).

The first of the book's five chapers covers some characteristics of conversations and defines some of the common terms in conversation analysis, including *backchannels*[1] (p. 5), *pause units*, *tone units*, and *information units* (pp. 7-10), and the distinction between *coherence* and *cohesion* (p. 14). She introduces *adjacency pairs* (pp. 17-18) as well as the cooperative maxims of Grice (pp. 18-19), and the effect of temporal position (pp. 20-22), tonicity and pitch direction (pp. 24-25), and context (pp. 25-29) on the function of lexical items and utterances. Stenström covers much ground in

29 pages, perhaps too much for the uninitiated. Though a useful list of further readings appears at the end of each chapter, the number and frequency of specialized terms in this first chapter could be daunting to those unfamiliar with discourse analytic works. Subsequent chapters include useful exercises, but there are none here.

The second and third chapters are the heart of the book, treating interactional structure and interactional strategies. In short, Stenström explains how conversations and their parts fit together. To do this, she uses a five-level hierarchy consisting of, from largest to smallest, the *transaction*, the *exchange*, the *turn*, the *move*, and the *act* (p. 31). Other introductory texts based on or reproducing the Sinclair and Coulthard model such as Cook (1989) do not include the *turn* level. In Stenström the *act* is what the speaker wants to communicate; this is the "smallest interactive unit." A *move* is a speaker's contribution to a particular exchange. In a question-and-answer exchange a *move* would be everything comprising the answer or the question, possibly involving in an answer a preface, an answer proper, and a qualification. An *exchange* is a set of at least two moves by two different speakers. A *transaction* comprises all the *exchanges* having to do with a single topic (p. 30). Implicit in Stenström's hierarchy is a higher level, one comprising one or more *transactions,* the "conversation."

The *turn* here is "everything the current speaker says before the next speaker takes over" (p. 30). This addition does not quite fit with the levels Stenström has adopted from Sinclair and Coulthard. To be able to tell when an *act*, a *move*, an *exchange*, or a *transaction* has occurred, observers have to understand the language in which the interaction takes place. For example, if observers are unable to tell when one topic begins and the other ends, they cannot demarcate *transactions*. However, to understand when *turns* begin and end, observers do not have to understand a word of the language in which the interaction happens. They have only to be able to tell the difference between two voices.

As a convenience for tying together *transactions*, the *turn* is useful. Certainly the *turn* is convenient as a way to organize what we see in a "transcript." Whether the *turn* is a useful device for thinking about conversations as they naturally exist, as audio or audiovisual events, is another question. When we observe a conversation in time, be it on tape, on video, or live, having in hand the concepts of *transactions*, *exchanges*, *moves*, and *acts* is useful. These allow us to organize what we experience, categorize what we hear, and make some sense of the seeming mess of conversation. Furthermore, each one is a category to which we assign one or several linguistic or paralinguistic realizations

in a conversation. Accumulating records of many such realizations in a given category can add to our knowledge of how language works. It does not seem as if the *turn* adds to our knowledge in this way. The concept of a *turn*, furthermore, is redundant when we observe conversations by listening or watching. As long as we can tell one voice from another, there is no need to have a special term for when one person talks. The *turn* is probably essential only in analyzing transcriptions of conversations.

Eleven pages in the second chapter are devoted to an inventory and examples of *act* types. Stenström notes three categories of *acts*: *primary acts*, which "can realize moves on their own," *secondary acts*, which "accompany and sometimes replace primary acts," and *complementary acts*, which "accompany but rarely replace primary acts" (pp. 38-39). The inventory comprises 28 primary *acts*, seven secondary *acts*, and 10 complementary *acts*.

Some of the categories seem more accommodating than others. A <statement>[2] "informs or expresses opinion" (p. 40). An <opine>, "gives one's personal opinion." An <evaluate> "judges the value of what the previous speaker said." A <react> "expresses attitude and strong feelings" (p. 39). Stenström gives one example of each act, not enough for me to be able to tell if, for example, <statement> and <opine> are to be considered different kinds of acts or if the latter is a special case of the former. Chapter 3 includes many more examples, however, and it is possible to skip back to Stenström's inventory with these in mind.

The reader should be aware that though some of Stenström's terms for *acts* are the same as those used in the Sinclair and Coulthard model, the referents for those terms are not the same in the two models. For instance, in Stenström, an <accept> "agrees to a <request>, <suggest>, etc" (p. 39), while an <accept> in the Sinclair and Coulthard model "shows [the teacher[3]] has heard correct information" (Cook, 1989, p. 47).

Stenström continues the second chapter with descriptions of *exchanges* and *transactions* and concludes with a discussion of discourse markers and interaction signals. She emphasizes that words she calls interaction signals, words such as "right," "quite," "really," and "OK" (p. 59) "can do different things in the same place" (p. 61). As examples, she offers instances of the use of "right" as *moves* such as a [respond], a [re-open], a [follow-up], as *acts*, such as a <confirm>, an <emphasizer>, and a <question> (pp. 61-62) and notes that it can furthermore function as an <appealer>, an <accept>, an <answer>, as well as a discourse marker (p. 62). This inventory of the functions is misleading. What seem to be multiple citations of one word are actually citations of sev-

eral different ones. The intonation of the phonemes that make up the sounds we transcribe as "right" so affect meaning that we would be better off considering differently intoned instances as separate words. As with the case of the *move*, the work done here with "right" and other interaction signals and discourse markers would not be necessary were it not for the limitations of the recording medium. Hearing "right" intoned as a request for confirmation, as a topic closer, or as an appeal for agreement, observers would have no difficulty in immediately recognizing the function.

Much of the work done with this type of discourse analysis involves repairing the damage done by a dictionary approach wherein words meanings have been cataloged simply by orthography. From Hasan's idea of instantial lexical relations (McCarthy & Carter, 1994, pp. 203-204) and the contention that "[e]very lexical item may enter into a cohesive relation . . ." (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 288), it seems clear that dictionaries often ill serve us. Dictionaries that took into account factors of intonation and formulaic language would obviate perhaps half the seeming slipperiness Stenström attacks. "Obviously, it is not possible to classify the lexical items [that function as interactional signals and discourse markers] into clearcut functional categories" (p. 67). I would disagree. It is not so obvious, unless we limit ourselves to the tools available today.

Chapter 3 is devoted to a discussion of how turn-taking works: how speakers take up, hold, and yield turns (p. 68). Especially helpful are the discussions of how *exchanges* can begin (pp. 88-109). I have found it easy to understand how conversations proceed within *exchanges*, however, how conversations move from one exchange to another has not been as obvious. Stenström points out language functions besides questions which initiate *exchanges*. Her discussion helped me recognize why my students' exchange procedures sometimes seem stilted. More importantly, it assisted me in thinking of ways to help students overcome this. To go further in understanding how exchanges proceed, however, more attention to how paralinguistic features of spoken interaction—the hems and haws—work to prepare conversant for *exchange* openings and terminations, was needed.

Chapter 4, devoted to conversation, includes a discussion of strategies for introducing and terminating topics (pp. 151-154). The focus here is akin to those of writers who take a functional-notional approach to language and language teaching such as van Ek (1975), but with greater attention paid to the strategic function of language. Stenström includes some information on how paralinguistic features, in particular pitch direction, function (see especially pp. 167-168). While the curi-

ous reader could get a more complete list of mechanisms whereby turn-taking functions from other sources such as Coulthard (1985), Stenström makes her list immediately useful by providing numerous examples.

Stenström also writes on the workings of three different categories of spoken interaction: interviews, discussions, and conversations (p. 169), examining one example of each from the London-Lund corpus. Presumably, the examples selected are typical, but as I read I found myself wondering how well other interviews, discussions, and conversations would fit her analyses.

The short, 11 page, final chapter is a discussion of discourse and grammar. Stenström analyzes several extracts from conversations in terms of her discourse units, mainly acts, tone units, and clause units, providing convincing support for a clause-, rather than sentence-, based approach to the grammar of spoken interaction.

As an introduction to one approach to the analysis of spoken language, this book serves well enough, provided the reader has outside support and keeps in mind that there are other approaches and even other manifestations of the same approach. The density of information might prove intimidating even for experienced readers, but the exercises provide a chance to assimilate the information. As a reference work for those who have some knowledge of conversational analysis, *An Introduction to Spoken Interaction* serves rather as an equivalent of a birder's field guide than as a work of ornithologic reference. This is a student's guide: The suggestions for further reading should prove useful. However, with no references in the bodies of the chapters, anyone hoping to quickly find information on particular points will be disappointed. Provided one is satisfied with the one approach used, this book is useful. It is possible, however, to question the utility of that approach for those who hope to teach how to do spoken interaction rather than to talk or think about it.

Current approaches to conversation analysis, of which Stenström's book is a good example, are a help to us as language analysts. As second language teachers, however, we need more. It is not enough for us to know what has happened in conversations. We need to know what happens in conversations as they happen. We need to know not only what conversations are like, but especially what participating in a conversation as it unfolds is like, how language is used on the fly, before the conversation is finished and ready for picking apart and analysis. How to use language is what we teach, after all. Analyzing language product does not go far enough.

Notes

1. *Italicized* terms appeared in bold in Stenström.
2. Angled brackets symbolized *acts* and square brackets symbolized *moves* in Stenström.
3. The Sinclair and Coulthard model was originally drawn up from evidence collected in a number of British primary schools (Cook, 1989, p. 46).

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A Communicative Grammar of English, 2nd Edition. Geoffrey Leech & Jan Svartvik. Harlow, Essex: Longman Group Limited, 1994. 423 pp.

Reviewed by
Kevin Varden
Meiji Gakuin University

One of the most difficult things for an English learner to master is understanding the use of intonation to convey meaning. Grammar references are usually of little help, since they restrict themselves to the *syntax* of English: word order, collocations, verb agreement, among others. Enter the most useful aspect of *A Communicative Grammar of English*. This is not to categorize the work as only a reference of intonation—it by no means ignores traditional grammatical information, it simply adds another welcome dimension. (For examples of a third grammar of paralinguistic gestures, see Clark, Moran, & Burrows, 1981, pp. 253-270).

The authors have contributed to two other recent grammars, *A Student's Grammar of the English Language* (Greenbaum & Quirk, 1990) and *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985). However, the organization and communicative focus of this grammar make it more than simply a condensed version.

Changes in the Second Edition

Users familiar with the first edition's format will have no difficulty using this edition. The separate entry format for each topic remains, although the total number of entries has been reduced from 886 to 747 and the number of pages has grown from 324 to 423.

Reorganization is evident in the Table of Contents. Instead of listing Part One only as "Varieties of English" the authors retitle it more descriptively as "A Guide to the Use of this Book" with individual listings of each entry. A shortened "Note on Phonetic Symbols" is entered here. The authors include and expand entries previously in Part Two of the first edition, including "Intonation" (a general discussion of its uses). Part Three, "Grammar in Use," has become Part Two, and Part Four, "Grammatical Compendium," has become Part Three with the more student-friendly title "A-Z in English Grammar." Of note is the deletion of the decidedly student-unfriendly use of abbreviations in the discussions of verb patterns (e.g., T1 for a transitive verb with a single object), along with the somewhat cryptic table explaining them.

Another change is the introduction of corpora data, following the trend of newer grammars such as Collins COBUILD (Sinclair, 1990). This provides the user with uncontrived examples of English usage, a welcome edition. As a result, where appropriate, examples contain the errors, hesitations, and false starts that can not be avoided in normal speech. Separate entries discussing these have been added to assist the user. However, only a portion of the examples are new; many examples remain unchanged from the first edition.

Like the first, the second edition contains cross-references to a larger grammar, in this edition to *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985). In keeping with the times, the authors have removed the generic use of the male pronoun in examples and included a separate discussion on non-sexist usage. All in all, the grammar has been given an attractive facelift. Whether or not this justifies spending the money to replace a first edition is questionable since much of the information it contains has not changed.

Contents

The main parts of the grammar, "A Guide to the Use of this Book," "Grammar in Use," and "A-Z in English Grammar," are preceded by a "List of Symbols" used throughout and followed by the index. There are no references, recommended further readings, or corpus acknowledgments, a minor failing that could have been easily remedied.

The symbols and abbreviations used are for the most part standard; neither instructors nor students should experience any difficulty using them. The use of angled brackets to indicate the variety of English (<written>, <spoken>, <formal>, <informal>, <BrE> for British English, <AmE> for American English, etc.) may be unfamiliar, as may the use of single and double vertical bars (| and ||) to delineate tone unit boundaries and separate dialectal differences respectively. When making points about intonation, raised and lowered text help clarify the intonational contours. In addition, the cuisenaire-rod style symbols used in the discussion of tense and aspect are much more helpful than simply describing them in words.

The work contains excellent discussions on many of the techniques speakers use when communicating orally. This includes the use of many filler and repair words, a refreshing inclusion—their use may not be grammatical, but they cannot be avoided in real-world oral communication. The authors included written communication in the definition of the Communicative Method, and so the text contains many references to literary communicative techniques. They discuss literary style in a separate entry as well as in notes throughout. There are also entries on similarities and differences between the two modes of communication.

The text differentiates between British and American English via the abbreviations <BrE> and <AmE>. Other dialects of English are not represented, since ". . . the varieties of English used in the United States and in Britain are the most important in terms of population and use throughout the world . . ." (p. 28). Whether this position is defensible or not, and whether or not other dialects contain noteworthy grammatical differences, as opposed to differences in lexicon or pronunciation, I do not have the experience to say.

Part 1: "A Guide to the Use of this Book," contains information necessary to use the grammar as well as the background information needed to understand the entries. This includes discussions of the inherent differences between oral and written modes of communication; interactive, non-interactive, and cooperative uses; characteristics of spoken English; intonation; the use of phonetic symbols; geographical differ-

ences, and the uses of formality, politeness, and tactfulness. All in all, quite a useful summary of the use of the English language in itself.

Linguistically, the discussion on intonation is simplistic in the use and meanings of the three tonal patterns it distinguishes, but it is a thorough introduction nonetheless. Examples are typically marked for nuclear stress, tone, and intonational group; the use of raised and lowered text mentioned earlier aids understanding. A great deal of information is presented in a manner accessible to a Japanese college student.

Part 2 contains the main grammar section. There is a wealth of information contained in this section, called "the central part and the largest part of the grammar" by the authors (p. 6). It contains four sections in itself, and can be visualized as four concentric circles, each adding a layer of complexity to the communicative act.

Section A: "Concepts," represented by the innermost circle, contains discussions of concepts associated with our experience in the world. These include notions of nominal reference, abstractness, quantity, definiteness, relations between ideas expressed by nouns, restrictiveness, tense and aspect, duration, frequency, spatial relations, causality, condition, degree, role, comparison, inclusiveness, and topic marking. In particular, the diagrams that accompany discussions of nominal reference, quantity, degree, and spatial relations are small but clear, and quite useful.

Section B: "Information, Reality, and Belief," contains discussion of the giving and receiving of information within the context of the logic that we continually process information with. Entries here include statements, questions and responses; omission of information; reported statements and questions; denial and affirmation; agreement and disagreement; fact, hypothesis, and neutrality; degrees of likelihood; and attitudes of truth. The heavy use of stress marking in many examples accurately reflects the use of intonation in providing non-lexical information.

Section C: "Mood, Emotion, and Attitude," discusses the pragmatic use of the language in achieving a given task. This includes emotive emphasis in speech, describing emotions, volition (conscious choice), permission and obligation, influencing people, friendly communications, and vocatives (forms of address). Again, since intonation is crucial in the display and interpretation of moods, emotions and attitudes, the authors include stress-marked examples.

Finally, Section D: "Meanings in Connected Discourse, " represented by the outer-most circle, discusses the context sensitivity of sentences to surrounding material—the place of an utterance in the communication as a whole. Topics are linking signals, linking clauses and sentences, "general purpose" links, cross-reference and omission, presenting and focusing in-

formation, and order and emphasis. The entries under "cross-reference and omission" should be particularly helpful to Japanese students, since English "reference at a distance" is often problematic. An entry on reference to understood knowledge, another major source of non-understanding is missing and would improve the grammar. (Try asking your students to explain the slogan "Budweiser: It's it, and that's that.")

Part 3: "A-Z in English Grammar," resembles a more traditional grammar reference, with the addition of intonational marking on various examples. It provides the user with an alphabetically arranged discussion of many grammatical topics. There are, among many other things, an excellent discussion on the three groups of determiners (grouped by position in a noun phrase), an extensive listing of irregular verbs both alphabetically and by group, and a thorough listing of nationality words. This section also contains a large number of cross-references, to both entries within this text and in the larger *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk et al., 1985).

Several typefaces are utilized in the index: italics for individual words, all capitals for grammatical terms, plain text for functions and meanings, and angled brackets to indicate entries on variety. Thoughtfulness in preparation is evident; for example, although the authors use the term *concordance* in the text instead of *agreement*, there are entries for both in the index.

The book is very free from errors. In consulting it extensively, I only came across one cross-referencing error—the discussion of willingness (entry 320, p. 161) refers the reader back to entry 129 on uses of *will*; this entry is actually entry 140. I disagree with the continued usage of the traditional label *verb phrase* (p. 396) to refer to combinations of verbs (i.e., main verbs and their associated modals and auxiliaries) since the term is now ambiguous between this usage and the broader definition of the whole of the predicate used in generative grammar.

These minor caveats aside, this is a reference book that I both use and refer to my students. It provides much of the information students need to continue developing their communicative ability. Instructors will find it an excellent resource as well. In particular, the inclusion of intonation is a great improvement over standard grammars. I recommend this work to Japanese students over either of the two larger works the authors have contributed to; while the grammatical information contained in them is more detailed, the communicative focus of this work makes it more applicable to the needs of the average student. However, whether one would want to spend the money to replace a first edition of this work would probably depend on how worn out the covers are.

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Functional English Grammar: An Introduction for Second Language Teachers. Graham Lock. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1966. 296 pp.

Reviewed by
Randall Davis
Nagoya City University

As part of the Cambridge Language Education Series on teaching, *Functional Grammar* attempts "to provide teachers with ways of thinking about English grammar" and to aid us in "understanding the kinds of problems learner may have" associated with it (p. xi). However, while Lock's aim is admirable, he fails to provide a text that is within the linguistic and practical reach of layman readers, presumably ESL teachers, which is something the title and preface clearly suggest.

The back cover entices the reader saying that the book has been written to cover "areas of difficulty for second language learners" by providing examples, tasks, and teaching discussion questions to explore these particular problems. Chapter 1, "Some Basic Concepts" defines functional grammar, outlines how grammar is used to express meaning, and defines a number of basic "basic" terms. The next eleven chapters attempt to examine grammar and how it is used, including

chapters such as "Doing and Happening I: Transitivity of Action Processes" (Chapter 4), "Doing and Happening II: Ergativity, Phrasal Verbs, and Phrase" (Chapter 5), and "Representing Time: Tense and Temporal Adjuncts" (Chapter 8). With such complex topics, the book is in fact better as a classroom text on grammatical structure for linguistics than for self-study for classroom teachers looking for an introductory guide to English grammar.

To be fair, the latter half of the book is a little easier to read and more interesting with its focus on different kinds of speech acts, expressions of attitude, opinions and judgments, and textual meaning, all as part of functional grammar. Even then, it is heavy reading, which tends to alienate the "introductory" reader and does little to dispel the criticisms against grammar teaching which Lock discusses in Chapter 13.

Ironically, the most informative and thought-provoking part is this chapter "Issues in the Learning and Teaching of Grammar." In his overview of the history of grammar teaching, Lock notes that although a structural grammar methodology "has tended to be associated with a more or less discredited approach to second language teaching," there is a resurgence of interest in the area. He goes on to point out several methodological options for teaching language, emphasizing that the teaching of grammar needs to be interwoven into the instruction of the other language skills through "meaningful and motivating activities" (p. 277) that provide opportunities for students to solve problems by creating generalizations about how grammar works. One idea that Lock refers to is an information transfer technique where students transfer spoken or written input to charts or graphs (e.g., for a presentation) and thus expose themselves to certain grammatical features.

Unfortunately, such moments are few and far between. *Functional English Grammar* turns out to be a reference tool appropriate for the researcher or academic linguistic, not the introductory guide to grammar teaching teachers want to help them class. The promises contained in the subtitle and on the covers, that readers need "no previous study of English grammar or linguistics" are unmet as readers wade through chapter after chapter trying to decipher the complex explanations of "functional" grammar. To end on a bright note: readers looking for a truly "functional" book on grammar can find several listed in the references that do fit the bill.

Spoken English on Computer: Transcription, Mark-up and Application. Edited by Geoffrey Leech, Greg Myers, and Jenny Thomas. Essex, England: Longman Group Limited, 1995. 260 pages.

Reviewed by
Charles Adamson
Miyagi University

Corpora, large bodies of language data (often annotated) stored in computer readable form, are becoming increasingly important. Linguists are using them to investigate language as it actually is used, rather than as they think it might be. At conferences and workshops, there are frequent references to corpora. Recently textbook writers and classroom teachers have begun deciding what should be taught on the basis of data from corpora. It appears that this trend will continue and a knowledge of corpora and their uses will be a necessary part of a TEFL/TESL teacher's education and hence a matter of interest for JALT members.

Spoken English on Computer (SEOC) is a good introduction to the field and a must read for anyone working with any of the established corpora of spoken language or considering the development of a new one. The book began as a collection of papers that were presented at a *Workshop on Computerized Spoken Discourse* held in England in September, 1993. The editors, however, did not feel that the papers covered the field sufficiently so they elicited papers from other workers in the field. SEOC is the result.

Each of the book's three sections has an introduction by the editors: Part A, with seven articles addressing fundamental issues; Part B, with seven articles discussing the application of corpora of spoken language; and Part C, with six articles describing corpora which exist or are being constructed. While the subject matter is quite technical, the authors make the content accessible to non-specialists.

The first four chapters of Part A analyze the theory and principles of transcription. The most problematic area is what data should be included in the corpus and what form that data should take. This applies especially to para-linguistic information. The next two chapters deal with the recommendations of the Text Encoding Initiative (TEI) and their implications. The TEI is the result of joint development by a number of groups and outlines a markup method based on Standard Generalized Mark-up Language (SGML). While this treatment is insufficient to allow the reader to actually mark up texts, it is an excellent introduction and would be of great value to any teacher or researcher using a corpus that uses TEI. In the final chapter of the section, John Sinclair discusses eco-

nomical ways to construct corpora of spoken language, the need for better definitions of "spoken material" and the need to make corpora more user-friendly.

Part B balances the theory from Part A with practical examples of the use of spoken language corpora including the study of language impairment, code-switching, and the structure of conversation. There are also discussions of the tagging of time, intonation, and word class. Another chapter describes a research project in which conversations were recorded while native speakers were doing information gap activities on maps. The editors point out that these chapters when taken together raise a number of practical problems: the quality of the original recordings; confidentiality for the sources; the importance of information that is lost through transcription, coding, and mark-up; and the hardware that is required.

Part C contains descriptions of six corpora of spoken language: (1) The London-Lund Corpus; (2) The COBUILD spoken corpus; (3) The Machine Readable Spoken English Corpus (MARSEC); (4)The International Corpus of English; (5) The BNC spoken corpus; and (6) The Bergen Corpus of London Teenager Language (COLT).

More than 500 references have been gathered together in a Bibliographical References section at the end of the book along with an Author Index and a Subject Index. The latter, however, is not particularly useful since it has only about 120 entries.

In the General Introduction the editors indicated that various strands of research are currently coming together in the field of spoken language corpora. This book, which provides chapters discussing some of the important aspects of many of these strands, is an excellent overview or introduction to the field for language teachers and researchers in Japan.

Books to Review

Reviews are being sought of the following books. Contact the Reviews Editor (see Guidelines) for further information.

Baynham, M. (1995). *Literary practices: Investigating literacy in social contexts.*

Brown, J.D. (1996). *Testing in language programs.*

Durand, J., & Katamba, F. (1995). *Frontier of phonology: Atoms, structures, derivations.*

Freeman, D., & Richards, J.C. (1996). *Teacher learning in language teaching.*

Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R.B. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing.*

Gutknecht, C., & Röle, L.J. (1996). *Translating by factors.*

Hasan, R., & Williams, G. (Eds.). (1996). *Literacy in society.*

Hatch, E., & Brown, C. (1995). *Vocabulary, semantics, and language education.*

Jacobs, R.A. (1995). *English syntax: A grammar for English language professionals.*

Kunnan, A.J. (1995). *Test taker characteristics and test performance: A structural modeling approach.*

McKay, S.L., & Hornberger, N.H. (eds.) (1996). *Sociolinguistics and language teaching.*

Nunan, D., & Lamb, C. (1996). *The self-directed teacher: Managing the learning process.*

Pennington, M.C. (1996). *Phonology in English language teaching: An international approach.*

Quirk, R. (1995). *Grammatical and lexical variance in English.*

Ridout, R.M. (ed.) (1996). *The Newbury Hourse dictionary of American English: An essential reference for learners of American English and culture.*

Sarangi, S., & Slembrouck, S. (1996). *Language, bureaucracy and social control.*

Sasaki, M. (1996). *Second language proficiency, foreign language aptitude, and intelligence: Quantitative and qualitative analyses.*

Spada, N., & Frölich, M. (1995). *COLT (Communicative orientation of language teaching) observation scheme: Coding, conventions and applications.*

Street, B.V. (1995). *Social literacies: Critical approaches to literacy in development, ethnography and education.*

Swan, M. (1995). *Practical English usage (2nd ed.).*

Thomas, J., & Short, T. (Eds.). (1996). *Using corpora for language research.*

van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy and authenticity.*

Wodak, R. (1996). *Disorders of discourse.*